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Rape Attitudes and Beliefs: A Replication Study

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by

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to two extraordinary people. First and foremost, this work is dedicated to my friend, my love, and future husband, Timothy Shawn Robinson. Words could never completely express my gratitude for all the love, encouragement, and patience you have shown me throughout the time that we have shared, and especially during this time when I have needed your strength the most. During these past three years I have grown tremendously, both spiritually and in scholarly ways. They have been the best in my life because of you. I could never have accomplished this feat without you by my side. Secondly, I am eternally grateful to my mother, Erlinda Cortez Briones. You have given more and sacrificed more for me than anyone in the world. Wherever I am, I have always had your love and guidance with me. Thank you for pushing me to always do my best, for teaching me to never give up on my dreams, and for believing in me. Thank you both for impacting my life and for fueling my ambition and hopes for the future.

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Rhissa Briones

ABSTRACT

The phenomena of sexual violence have been studied on college campuses for over 50 years. Despite changes in society's attitudes towards women and gains made by women in education and the work force since the 1960s, research reveals that the incidence and prevalence rates of date rape have not changed significantly over the years. Extant literature indicates that endorsement of rape myths has been found to be associated with sexual aggression by males. A review of existing instruments revealed that current assessments of rape supportive attitudes and beliefs appear outdated in their language and may not be geared for today's college population. This study used a newly developed instrument, the Rape Supportive Attitudes and Beliefs Scale (RABS), by Gerald H. Burgess (2007) to survey male and female undergraduate students (N=224) with respect to their attitudes and beliefs regarding rape. The male participants were also asked if they had engaged or would consider engaging in forced sexual behavior under a variety of circumstances. The present study was designed to replicate and extend the findings of Burgess. Burgess studied a sample of undergraduate students in a rural university. Participants in this study, in contrast, were from a large metropolitan university with a much more diverse student body. This study found, similar to Burgess'

research, that there are significant gender differences in endorsement of rape myths between men and women, as measured by a series of *t*-tests. As expected, men scored higher than women on the RABS, meaning greater endorsement of rape myths. In contrast to Burgess' findings, this study did not find that endorsement of rape myths was related to proclivity to sexual violence. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) additionally revealed a factor structure that differed from the original 5-factor structure proposed by Burgess. The discussion focuses on the meaning of the similarities and differences between the two studies and directions for future research.

Chapter One

Introduction

Rape is feared by women more than any other crime (Gordon & Riger, 1989). This fear derives not only from its association with other serious offenses such as robbery and homicide. Rather, the act is perceived by women as a severe and brutal form of personal violation (Gordon & Riger, 1989). Media portrayals of sexual violence may contribute, in large part, to this fear that women have. Images of a violent and dangerous man grabbing a woman in a dark alley or a stranger breaking into her home at night are relatively common in the mainstream media.

These are compelling, yet stereotypical descriptions of what women fear. National incidence rates, however, indicate that the fear of rape is not irrational. Tjaden and Thoennes (2000), for example, assert in their national study of violent victimization that 1 out of 6 U.S. women have experienced an attempted or completed rape as a child and/or an adult. Stated alternatively, 18% of the women in their survey experienced a completed or attempted rape at some point in their life (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000).

During the 1980s, studies of other forms of rape emerged and challenged the stereotypical stranger rape scenario (e.g. Koss & Oros, 1982; Koss, Gidycz &Wisniewski, 1987). Attention was being drawn to date and acquaintance rape, or forced intercourse by someone the victim knows. Investigations of date and acquaintance rape revealed startling incidence and prevalence rates. These findings ran counter to the widespread belief that rapes were committed by strangers.

Studied extensively on college campuses, the examination of date/acquaintance rape actually began with Kirkpatrick and Kanin's (1957) pioneering article that reported 56% of the 291 college women experienced coerced sexual activity, and 21% experienced "forceful attempts at intercourse" (p. 53). Twenty years later Kanin and Parcell (1977) replicated the study design and lent support to the earlier findings. Their replication revealed that 50% of the 282 college women in their sample had experienced attempts at forced sexual activity ranging from kissing to intercourse in the past academic year (Kanin & Parcell, 1977).

Shortly thereafter, Koss and Oros (1982) published the Sexual Experiences Survey, a well known and extensively used questionnaire that identifies victims of coercive sexual experiences. Of the 2000 college women in their sample, 8% reported experiences that met the legal definition of rape and 30% reported having been a victim of forceful sexual activity since the age of 14 years. Five years later, Muehlenhard and Linton (1987) reported similar findings further demonstrating the frequent occurrence of sexually assaultive behavior on college campuses. Sixty-five percent of the 341 college-aged women in their sample experienced specific incidents of unwanted sexual activity. These activities included, for example, "kissed with/without tongue contact," "he touched/kissed her breasts through/under her clothes," "he touched her genitals through/under her clothes," "he forced her to touch his genitals through/under his clothes," "he forced her to perform oral sex on him." Twenty-one percent of the women reported having had sexual intercourse against their will.

The most influential, and by far the most frequently cited work, regarding campus sexual violence, however, was the national study conducted by Koss, Gidycz, and

Wisniewski (1987). Reported in *Ms. Magazine*, a feminist magazine that reports on issues relating to women's rights and viewpoints, the findings were widely recognized as the primary impetus for raising awareness and concern over the sexual victimization of female college students (Adams-Curtis & Forbes, 2004). Based on a national sample of 6159 students from 32 colleges and universities, Koss and her associates reported that 9% of the college women reported that they had experiences in the past year that met the legal definition of rape, while a total of 15% reported being raped as early as 14 years of age. In total, Koss and colleagues (1987) reported that 64% of the women in their national sample experienced some form of sexual victimization since the age of 14.

The influence of this landmark study continues to be far-reaching, characterized in Robin Warshaw's 1988 book, *I Never Called it Rape*, as the "largest scientific investigation ever undertaken on the subject. It revealed disquieting statistics, including this astonishing fact: 1 in 4 female respondents had an experience that met the legal definition of rape or attempted rape" (p.2). "1 in 4" continues to remain as the official standard on women's rape victimization and is pervasive, often seen on posters, cited on numerous prevention brochures, and chanted in Take Back the Night processions.

Funded by the National Institute of Justice, the most recent information on campus sexual violence comes from a national survey of 4446 college women conducted by Fisher, Cullen, and Turner (2000). Their findings for the incidence of rape (1.7%) and attempted rape (1.1%) may give the impression that sexual victimization is declining, especially given that their data spanned the course of 7 months, while the Koss et al. (1987) data spanned the course of a year. When adjustments are made to accommodate the time difference, the figures are similar, however (Adams-Curtis & Forbes, 2004).

Fisher and her colleagues (2000) argued that when the combined victimization rate of 2.8% is calculated for a 1-year period, the data indicated that nearly 5% of college women are victimized. When projected to a 5-year college career, which is now considered to be typical, the victimization rate may reach to one-fifth or one-quarter of college women.

Summarized in Table 1, the above landmark studies indicate that sexual coercion has been a significant problem on college campuses for more than 40 years. There are noted differences between the victimization rates, however. The varying percentages may be due, in part, to the wording or phrasing of questions in the various surveys. For example, specific behavioral questions can be found in the Koss et al. studies (1982, 1987), the Muehlenhard and Linton study (1987), and the Fisher et al. (2000) study. Addressing particular types of sexually coercive behaviors, these studies differentiated between completed rapes, attempted rapes, and threats of rape. In contrast, the earlier studies conducted by Kirkpatrick and Kanin (1957) and Kanin and Parcell (1977) did not account for these various types of sexual coercion.

Although both of the national incidence studies made clear distinctions between sexually coercive behaviors, their definitions of rape were different (Koss et al., 1987; Fisher et al., 2000; Adams-Curtis & Forbes, 2004). The Koss et al. study (1987) based their survey questions on the criminal laws of most jurisdictions in the United States, whereby sexual activity with someone incapacitated by drugs or alcohol is recognized as a form of rape (Koss, 1993; Muehlenhard, Powch, Phelps, & Guistis, 1992). This definition of rape is not specifically reflected in the Fisher et al. (2000) study, however.

Even though it is well documented in the literature that alcohol and drugs play an important role in the sexual assaults that occur on college campuses, these figures are not represented in the Fisher et al. (2000) study. This is a significant limitation and it should be noted, therefore, that estimates produced by their data may be incomplete (Adams-Curtis & Forbes, 2004).

Nonetheless, sexual violence remains a common occurrence among college students despite the combined successes of the women's movement and the work done by universities to reduce victimization.

This study is designed to assess acceptance of rape myths and their effects among college students, with additional attention focusing on male behavior. Many cultural changes have taken place, particularly in the last 40 to 50 years. Yet, have these cultural changes impacted the acceptance of rape myths among college students? This thesis reviews cultural changes especially in the context of second-wave feminism. Sexual assault in the context of gender socialization is then examined from a feminist theoretical perspective, with an examination of rape myths following. Thereafter, instruments measuring rape myths among college students are examined. Their development over the years is considered. Attention then focuses on an instrument recently developed by Gerald H. Burgess (2007) that assesses rape myths and associated behavior, the Rape Attitudes and Beliefs Scale (RABS). The present study is a replication of Burgess' study design.

Table 1 *Landmark Studies Assessing Sexual Aggression on College Campuses in the Last 40 Years (N=6)*

Study	*Forced Sexual Activity*	*Attempted Rape*	*Rape*
Kickpatrick & Kanin (1957) N=291college women	56% "Experienced offensive erotic intimacy"	21% "Attempted intercourse, and attempted intercourse with violence"	
Kanin & Parcell (1977) N=282 college women	50% "Experienced offensive erotic intimacy"	26% "Attempted intercourse, and attempted intercourse with violence"	
Koss & Oros (1982) N=2016 college women	30% "Been in a situation where a man used physical force to try to make you engage in kissing or petting when you didn't want to"	18% "Been in a situation where a man used physical force to try to get you to have sex with him when you didn't want to, but for various reasons, sex did not occur"	8% "Had sexual intercourse with a man when you didn't want to because he used some degree of physical force (twisting your arm, holding you down) if you didn't cooperate"
Muehlenhard & Linton (1987) N=341 college women	64% "Unwanted sexual activity: (examples include) kissed with tongue contact, touched her genitals under her clothes, forced her to touch his genitals under his clothes"		21% "Unwanted sexual activity: sexual intercourse"
Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski (1987) N=3187 college women	13% "Have you had sex play (fondling, kissing, petting) when you didn't want to because a man used physical force to make you?"	15% "Have you had a man attempt sexual intercourse when you didn't want to by threatening or using some degree of physical force, but intercourse did not occur?"	9% "Have you had sexual intercourse when you didn't want to because a man threatened or used some degree of physical force to make you?"
Fisher, Cullen, & Turner (2000) N=4446 college women	1.9% "Threat of unwanted sexual contact with force and threat of force."	1.1% "Unwanted attempted penetration by force or the threat of force."	1.7% "Unwanted completed penetration by force or the threat of force."

Chapter Two

Second-Wave Feminism

The resurgence of feminist activism that arose during the 1960s and lasted until the 1980s in the United States is referred to as the "second wave of feminism." Following World War II and the displacement of women in the workplace, second wave feminists were concerned with the inequalities of the law and other social institutions (Freedman, 2003). During this era, the way of life was shifting for women in important ways, namely in the workplace and in higher education. In this period of revolutionary thought, the traditional assumptions and unspoken rules governing a women's place in society were challenged (Davis, 1999). Feminists were asserting that cultural and political inequalities were interconnected. Indeed, it was declared that the "personal is political" (Hanisch, 1970). Women were encouraged to recognize that certain aspects of their personal lives were impacted, such as the politicization of employment and education.

By 1960, there were women who were well educated, yet many more women were becoming part of the work force (Davis, 1999). Educational attainment certainly broadened women's roles within the societal sphere, as mothering no longer consumed most of a woman's adult life. Further, with the rising divorce rate, a woman's role as housewife no longer seemed such a safe choice (Davis, 1999). Captured in Betty Friedan's feminist classic, *The Feminist Mystique* (1963), many women were conflicted by the "mysticism" of feminine roles at the time. Having a college education seemed to

complicate the cultural expectations of wife and mother. After receiving an education, many women felt that adherence to gendered stereotypes often led to dissatisfaction with their lives (Davis, 1999). In other words, many women whom Friedan interviewed were regretful that they had not put their education to serious use (Friedan, 1963).

Following the publication of *The Feminist Mystique*, the National Organization of Women (NOW) was founded in 1966. Thus, the second-wave of feminism was solidly under way. Powered by NOW, the influential women's movement prompted subsequent changes in political and social consciousness. Women began to question the "feminine mystique" and realized that there were differences in power between the sexes. With an organized collective like NOW, women began to feel that it was legitimate to fight the inequalities that continued to persist in their lives (Davis, 1999).

In its beginning, NOW focused primarily on women's employment. By 1960, nearly 40% of all American women over age 16 were employed (Davis, 1999). Most were locked into low-paying jobs that were considered appropriate for a woman, such as secretaries, sales clerks, nurses, and teachers. The protective labor laws, for the time being, limited the number of hours that women could work and prevented them from holding supervisory positions (Davis, 1999). The premise behind these labor laws suggested that women in the work force were bound to become pregnant and quit their jobs.

Furthermore, most people during the time period absorbed the cultural belief system that men had families to support and had the right to the better jobs and higher pay (Davis, 1999). However, in the late 1960s, NOW was particularly effective in

challenging these protective labor laws. NOW activists, with legal backing, were able to convince labor leaders and appellate courts that the labor laws were in violation of Title VII of the Equal Pay Act of 1963, which prohibits employment discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin (42 U.S.C. § 2000e). Since then, women's participation in the labor force has steadily grown. Beginning with 1950, percentages of women who joined the labor force over the decades are displayed below in Table 2.

Table 2 *Civilian Labor Force Participation Rates of Women Aged 16 and Older: 1950 to 2005*

Year	Women in the Labor Force (%)
1950	33.9
1960	37.7
1970	43.3
1980	51.5
1990	57.5
1998	59.8

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics, As cited by H. N. Fullerton in *Labor Force Participation: 75 Years of Change, 1950-1998 and 1998-2025*, p.4, 1999)

In the early to mid-1970s, as the women's movement continued to expand, it faced a turning point. New factions developed and each began to focus on specific issues, such as rape, domestic violence, or equality in education. The organization differed from the original social movement that tackled a broad spectrum of issues collectively (Davis, 1999). The splintering resulted in the creation of a barrage of other movements, such as the battered women's movement and the anti-rape movement, for instance. As separate entities, alliances drew on specific populations of activists. It was during this metamorphosis that violence against women coalitions had come into their own (Davis, 1999). Through their consciousness-raising efforts, feminists of these particular coalitions brought awareness to sexual harassment, domestic violence, and

rape. Their activism decried patriarchal power structures that were seemingly the cause of violence against women within our culture.

As a result of the metamorphosis of the women's movement, other alliances were becoming an accepted part of the political scene in Washington. Organizations such as the Women's Equity Action League (WEAL), the League of Women Voters, and the American Association of University Women (AAUW) joined forces and began to work on specific pieces of legislation (Davis, 1999). These activists lobbied for social and political changes that would give women all things to which men were entitled: economic independence and equal access to education and jobs (Davis, 1999). Known by some as "the golden years" of feminist activism, alliances began achieving major gains. Specifically, it was during this time that two important education bills were passed in Congress: the Women's Educational Equity Act (WEEA) and Title IX (Davis, 1999). Enacted into law in 1974 to promote educational equity for girls and women, the WEEA provides funding to help educational agencies and institutions remain in compliance with Title IX (20 U.S.C. § 1866). Read as, "No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance," Title IX was enacted into law in 1972 (20 U.S.C. § 1681).

Since the passage of the WEEA and Title IX, women in the U.S. have made significant gains in higher education at all levels (Sapiro, 1994). Until recently, women had substantially trailed men in the percentage completing college. Table 3 displays the

rising number of women who have completed Bachelor's degrees (or more) since the 1940s, narrowing the gap between rates for men and women.

Table 3 *Percent of People Aged 25 and Over who Completed 4 or More Years of College, All Races in Selected Years*

Year	Males (%)	Females (%)
1940	5.5	3.8
1950	7.3	5.2
1959	10.3	6.0
1970	14.1	8.2
1980	20.9	13.6
1990	24.4	18.4
2000	27.8	23.6
2008	30.1	28.8

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census (2007)
http://www.census.gov/population/www/socdemo/educ-attn.html

The status of women continues to evolve in light of the achievements made by second-wave feminists for the higher education of women, for equal rights, and for the public awareness of interpersonal violence. Sociocultural beliefs of the woman's traditional role, primarily as mother and wife, appear to be declining with the escalating numbers of women in higher education and the work force.

Chapter Three

Sexual Victimization and Perpetration on College Campuses

College provides more than just an education to young women and men; it also marks a unique period of growth into adulthood. As an enlightening phase in one's life, students embark on their exploration of new experiences. There is also a dangerous side to college life, however, as a novice in an unfamiliar environment would attest. In this setting, education and scholarship are often mixed with sex and aggression. As reported by Finn (1995), rape is the most common violent crime on American college campuses today.

The college experience is known to be an exciting and formative time in one's life. It is initially typified, however, with trials and uncertainties for many students. While still forming a stable identity, the freshman student is often placed in a permissive campus environment that includes increased sexual expectations, peer pressures for sexual activity, and frequent consumption of drugs and alcohol. Amidst these situational factors that exacerbate the "party environment," college women "are at greater risk for rape and other forms of sexual assault than women in the general population or in a comparable age group" (Fisher, Cullen & Turner, 2000:1). Indeed, as previously mentioned, Mary Koss revealed alarming statistics indicating that, since the age of 14 years, 15% of college women reported experiencing, and 7.7% of college men reported perpetrating, an act that met the legal definition of rape (Koss, Gidycz & Wisniewski,

1987). Subsequent research has continually replicated these earlier findings that sexual victimization on college campuses occurs at alarming rates (e.g. Muelenhard & Linton, 1987; Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000).

Likewise, in their work on sexual perpetration, Holcomb and colleagues (1988) have identified that men's college years coincide with the period of their greatest likelihood of committing sexual assault. Interestingly, most college men are similarly exposed to the "party" context that increases the risk for incidents of sexual assault. Relatively few, however, respond with sexual perpetration (Adams-Curtis & Forbes, 2004; Lisak & Miller, 2002). Lisak and Miller (2002) reported that this small number of college males is, in fact, responsible for a disproportionate amount of interpersonal crime, resulting in multiple rape and abuse victimizations. Thus, campus sexual violence cannot be substantially reduced until we are better able to identify these perpetrators, their attitudes and beliefs, and the circumstances under which they are sexually coercive (Adams-Curtis & Forbes, 2004).

As previously stated above, although most college men are similarly exposed to these social pressures, few are sexually coercive. Bohner , Reinhard, Rutz, Sturm, Kerschbaum, and Effler (1998) and Malamuth (1981) suggested that reported proclivity to commit rape and reported history of sexual aggression positively correlate with the endorsement of rape-tolerant or rape-supportive views. A number of studies have affirmed the association of rape myth acceptance and sexual coercion among college men (e.g. Byers & Eno, 1991; Christopher, Owens, & Stecker, 1993; Gold & Clegg, 1990; Hersh & Gray-Little, 1998; Koss & Dinero, 1988; Koss, Leonard, Beezley, & Oros,

1985; Lisak & Roth, 1990; Malamuth, 1986; 1989; Malamuth, Linz, Heavey, Barnes, & Acker, 1995; Muehlenhard & Linton, 1987).

Some argue that rape myth acceptance, in addition to factors within the university environment, encourage sexual violence (e.g. Boeringer, Shehan, & Akers, 1991). Armstrong, Hamiliton, and Sweeney (2006) report that because drinking is not allowed in university dorm rooms, the social scene is often taken over by the Greek fraternities. In their narrowed views of masculinity, fraternities typically espouse traditional male roles such as athleticism, power, money, dominance, and an ability to consume alcohol. Consequently, sexual violence may be amplified in this setting (Boeringer et al., 1991; Sanday, 1990). Identification of sexual perpetrators, whether fraternity members or not, might appropriately begin with an assessment of their rape-supportive attitudes and belief in rape myths.

Chapter Four

Feminist Theory of Rape

Feminist scholars associate the incidence and prevalence of campus sexual violence to endorsement of rape supportive attitudes among students (Burt, 1980; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; 1995). Since the second-wave of feminism, activists have proclaimed that rape-supportive attitudes and beliefs and subsequent aggression towards women are the products of the sociocultural context of patriarchy (Brownmiller, 1975; Smith, 1990; Davis, 1999). According to Koss, Goodman, Browne, Fitzgerald, Keita, & Russo (1994), "culture is the 'all encompassing' whole that includes the concepts, habits, skills, instruments, art, morals, laws, customs, institutions, and any other capabilities acquired by human beings as members of a society (p.4). As a powerful social and cultural construction, gender defines what women and men "should" do and be within these structures and institutions (Smith, 1990). Feminist theorists claim that men are provided a higher status than women in our American culture, resulting in the male assumption of domination over and control of women (Brownmiller, 1975; Smith 1990). Recognizing that masculinist ideals are upheld and create an imbalance of power between the genders, feminist sociocultural models posit that aggression towards women is the consequence. Aggressive behavior is seen by many as a means for men to maintain the status quo of male dominance and female subordination (Schwartz & DeKeseredy, 1997; Scully, 1995; Smith 1990).

Most major criminological theories fall short in their explanations for the gendered nature of crimes perpetrated against women such as domestic and sexual violence. The contribution of feminist theory, however, reconciles this dilemma. The development of feminist theory to explain rape grew from second wave feminism, most notably from Susan Brownmiller's (1975) efforts, during the anti-rape movement. She viewed rape as an inevitable consequence of a repressive and exploitative patriarchal culture.

Importantly, feminist theoretical discourse also asserts that men and women are socialized to operate within rigid gender roles. Differing from biological sex of either male or female, gender is expressed as the degree of "male-ness," or masculinity and "female-ness," or femininity. Bending to conformity, most people adhere to their socially constructed, gendered selves lest they be punished with name-calling or exclusion, or worse yet, hate crimes. The social expectation is to behave according to the assigned gender and to learn the appropriate and acceptable behaviors as defined by the normative, cultural standards of patriarchy. Individuals learn the appropriate gendered behavior from a variety of social forces, including, but not limited to, our parents, siblings, peers, teachers, coaches, church leaders, and from popular media such as beauty magazines, television, and the internet. Specifically, these social forces inform us that men are expected to be the stronger, more intelligent, and dispassionate breadwinner, whereas women are, in contrast, the weaker, demure, emotional, and passive sex.

From this viewpoint it is assumed also that men are the sexual aggressors, obtaining sex through whatever means necessary, whereas women are the gatekeepers of

their sexuality (Armstrong, Hamilton, & Sweeney, 2006). Kept at bay, a woman's sexuality is an indication of her virtue as her reputation is consequently upheld. Adherence to this gendered script, however, allows for the perpetration of sexual coercion. In the context of university living where partying and drinking alcohol is culturally expected, women are predictably left vulnerable to sexual assault. As reported by Armstrong, Hamilton, and Sweeney (2006), "assigning women the role of sexual 'gatekeeper' relieves men from responsibility for obtaining authentic consent, and enables them to view sex obtained by undermining women's ability to resist as 'consensual,' (e.g. by getting women so drunk that they pass out)" (p.491).

Stereotypical beliefs of rape, for example, assert that men are at the mercy of their sexual drives, that "boys will be boys," and, therefore, rape when overly frustrated or when the opportunity makes itself available. The perpetuation of rape myths creates a climate conducive to rape, and makes it especially difficult for victims because sexual coercion is seen by those who adhere to them as normal and acceptable behavior (Frese, Moya & Megias, 2004). In the aftermath, the subsequent confusion, guilt and blame that is felt by victims is further reinforced by the reactions of friends or family through the questioning of the choices that the victim made, like drinking or going back to the assailant's apartment or her provocative dress, for instance. The people upon whom victims have relied for support are, therefore, not immune to blaming the victim (Massaro, 1985). Because of the endorsement of these rape myths, the perceptions of rape victims and their experiences are distorted. Accordingly, sexual assault is handled and dealt with unlike any other crime in our culture. Beliefs that victims are to blame, in

whole or in part, for the crime that happens to them is pervasive (Ryan, 1976). Many believe that perhaps the rape victim brought it upon herself. Because of her unwise conduct before the assault, she is not worthy of the kind of credibility required to hold the rapist responsible. In accordance with a "just world," individuals get what they deserve and deserve what they get (Lerner, 1980). When the reasoning is applied to a rape victim, others assume that it happened to her because she is a promiscuous person who dressed provocatively, and in turn, they could never be raped because they are not like her and do not irresponsibly behave in this way (Torrey, 1990). Ultimately, this belief that the victim "asked for it" shifts the responsibility from predators to victims (O'Sullivan, 1991).

In summary, the feminist theory of rape has called much attention to the patriarchal social structures that support sexual violence against women and have been instrumental in identifying factors that have acted to the detriment of women's safety. These social forces remain operative on college campuses. As a result, women have continued to be sexually victimized for at least the past 40 years. Its frequency appears to be unchanged as study after study throughout the decades has found similar results (Kilpatrick & Kanin, 1957; Kanin & Parcell, 1977; Koss et al. 1982; 1987; Muehlenhard & Linton, 1987; DeKeseredy & Kelly, 1993; Fisher et al., 2000).

Chapter Five

Defining Rape Myths

The concept of rape myths was introduced in the 1970s by sociologists (Schwendinger & Schwendinger, 1974) and feminist activists (e.g. Brownmiller, 1975). When it was initially studied, rape myths seemed to be connected with other constructs such as Lerner's (1980) conception of "just world beliefs" and Ryan's (1976) notion of blaming the victim. These newly developed constructs appeared to logically fit with one another and seemed to be operating together (Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999).

From these novel concepts, Martha Burt (1980) was the first social scientist to develop scales to assess rape myth acceptance. This effort prompted successive evaluations of the association between sexist attitudes and sexual assault, which reflected strongly the feminist sociocultural perspective of sexual coercion. The use of her Rape Myth Acceptance Scale remains particularly influential, as modified versions of the original scale continue to be used. Below are examples of common rape myths, which arguably, continue to be firmly held misconceptions.

1. A woman who goes to the home or apartment of a man on their first date implies that she is willing to have sex.
2. One reason that women falsely report a rape is that they frequently have a need to call attention to themselves.
3. Any healthy woman can successfully resist a rapist if she wants to.
4. Women who go braless or wear short skirts and tight tops are asking for trouble.
5. In most rapes the victim is promiscuous or has a bad reputation.
6. If a girl engages in necking or petting and she lets things get out of hand, it is her own fault if her partner forces sex on her.

7. Women who get raped while hitchhiking get what they deserve.
8. A woman who is stuck-up and thinks she is too good to talk to men on the street deserves to be taught a lesson.
9. Many women have an unconscious wish to be raped and may unconsciously set up a situation in which they are likely to be attacked.
10. If a woman gets drunk at a party and has intercourse with a man she's just met there, she should be considered fair game to other males at the party who want to have sex with her too, whether she wants to or not.
11. Many women who report rapes are lying because they are angry and want to get back at the man they accuse.

(As adapted by Sapiro in *Women in American Society: An Introduction to Women's Studies*, 3rd ed. p.329, 1994).

Associations have been drawn between male endorsement of rape myths and their likelihood of perpetrating sexual assault, as well as their likelihood of having victim-blaming attitudes. Burt (1980) further suggested that the endorsement of the above rape myths may facilitate sexual violence at the individual level. Acting as "psychological neutralizers," the acceptance of rape myths functions to justify and excuse men's behavior when they use force in sexual interactions (Burt, 1980; Bohner, Reinhard, Rutz, Sturm, Kerschbaum, & Effler; 1998). Correlational studies have tested the link between rape myth acceptance and rape proclivity. Using samples of non-convicted men, these correlational studies indicate a significant relationship between the two variables (e.g., Malamuth, 1981; Malamuth & Check, 1985; Quackenbush, 1989; Murnen, Wright, & Kaluzny, 2002).

Burt pointed out that the rape myths adopted by our society maintain a rape culture in which women are responsible for their own victimization, rape is not common, and rapists are not responsible for their own actions. These ideas became influential in the 1980s following second-wave feminism, as scholars focused their attention on the pervasiveness of sexual assault and the social forces that enable it.

A more recent definition of rape myths, however, is provided by Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994): "Rape myths are attitudes and beliefs that are generally false but are widely and persistently held, and that serve to deny and justify male sexual aggression against women," (p.134). Adherence to or tolerance of rape myths, thus, provides a means for a sexual perpetrator to maintain his assaultive behavior (Burgess, 2007).

Creation of the above definition was initiated from the concept of "myth" found within the traditions of psychology, sociology, anthropology, and philosophy. Payne, Lonsway, and Fitzgerald (1999) noted three central elements that are theorized to constitute the concept of myth: 1) false or apocryphal beliefs that 2) explain some cultural phenomenon and 3) whose importance lies in maintaining existing cultural arrangements (p.29).

The notion of myth, as applied by Payne et al. (1999), is similar to that of stereotypes. The authors asserted that, "like stereotypes, the importance of rape myths lies not in their ability to truthfully characterize any particular instance of sexual violence; rather, the significance of cultural rape myths is in their overgeneralized and shared nature as well as their specified psychological and societal function" (p.30). Snyder and Miene (1994) previously argued that stereotypes provide us a function and serve "a number of psychological motivations, which include 1) maintaining cognitive economy by simplifying incoming information; 2) protecting self-esteem with downward comparison and the derogation of others; and 3) helping people fit in and identify with social and cultural groups" (p.36). Furthermore, stereotypes "allow their holders to dismiss, ignore, or otherwise detach themselves from the targets of these attitudes and

actions" (Snyder & Miene, 1994:47). For example, the idea that women "cry rape" functions to deny the widespread prevalence of sexual victimization (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994).

Chapter Six

Development of Rape Myth Acceptance Scales

Based on the definitions and identified functions of rape myths, tools have been developed to assess rape supportive attitudes. Aside from Burt's Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (RMAS, 1980), additional scales include the Attitudes Towards Women Scale (AWS) by Spence and Helmreich (1972), the Rape Attitudes and Perceptions Questionnaire (RAP) developed by Holcomb, Holcomb, Sondag and Williams (1988), and the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMA) developed by Payne, Lonsway, and Fitzgerald (1999). Although the measures are nearly 30- and 40-years-old, respectively, and have been tested on non-college populations, the RMAS (Burt, 1980) and the AWS (Spence & Helmreich, 1972) continue to be widely used in current research (Burgess, 2007).

In light of the changes in society over the last four decades, using instruments developed in the 1970s and 1980s may not be geared for today's college population (Burgess, 2007). Moreover, these particular assessments use colloquial phrases that tend to be outdated (Payne, et al., 1999). For example in the RMA Scale, Burt uses phrases such as "necking," "petting," and "fair game," which may not be familiar language to students who are currently in college (Payne, et al., 1999). Items from the AWS that are also problematic in their wording are: "It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive and for a man to darn socks" and "The modern girl is entitled to the same freedom from

regulation and control as the modern boy" (Spence & Helmreich, 1972). Another item taken from the RAP states that "A man sees sex as an achievement or a notch in the belt" (Holcomb et al., 1988). Because these phrases and statements appear to be outdated, they may have little or no meaning for college students currently (Payne et al., 1999, Burgess, 2007).

In addition, these assessments do not reflect the experiences of the current college environment. There is no mention of condom use, fraternities, and dormitory living, for example, in the RMAS and AWS (Burgess, 2007). According to Burgess (2007), these are critical factors that should be included and taken into consideration when examining the rape supportive attitudes of college men.

To address these challenges, Burgess (2007) developed a new measure, specifically intended for use with college men: the Rape Attitudes and Beliefs Scale (RABS). The scale proposes to measure rape supportive attitudes and their association to rape proclivity, and the sexual assault histories of college men. The RABS differs from former assessments by avoiding use of colloquialisms that have made other scales seem outdated (Burgess, 2007; Payne et al., 1999). Additionally, contexts particular to college students, such as dorm rooms, condom use, and sex and alcohol were incorporated in the RABS. Developed from the feminist understandings of sexual violence, the new instrument is designed to measure the level of rape myth acceptance as it relates to rape proclivity and sexual violence.

Burgess used this instrument to measure rape myth acceptance and its relationship to sexual violence in a southeastern university setting. Results suggested the value of the

instrument. Despite its promise, no study has replicated the validity of this new measure. According to Finifter (1975), replication studies are beneficial in a number of ways by strengthening the results of previous work, by correcting limitations, and by potentially protecting the community against errors. Thus, replication of Burgess' study is a critical step in order to establish the credibility of the instrument before it is further implemented in college studies of rape and is among the aims of this thesis.

Rape supportive beliefs alone, however, cannot explain the prevalence of sexual assault. Although a relationship between rape myth acceptance and sexual assault supports the propositions of feminist theory, other researchers claim that it is difficult to identify clearly what the RMAS actually measures. According to Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994), Martha Burt's scales are simply measures of sexist attitudes towards women, which alone cannot adequately explain a subsequent linkage to sexual offending. Adams-Curtis, et al. (2004) have argued further that it is a negative affect about and towards women, and not a set of specific cognitive beliefs per se, that is most closely related with consequent sexual perpetration. Stated alternatively, simply holding rape-supportive attitudes in the absence of this affective component of hostility may not necessarily contribute to rape proclivity (Adams-Curtis et al., 2004). Measurements should, therefore, be equipped to assess this combination of rape supportive attitudes and a negative affect towards women in order to properly predict sexual proclivity and/or sexual violence. Burgess addresses this limitation by including items located in the *Misogyny* subscale of the RABS. These items specifically measure acceptance of

violence against women and negative, hostile attitudes towards women. A detailed description of this new instrument follows.

Chapter Seven

The Rape Attitudes and Beliefs Scale

Development of the RABS entailed identifying from the current sexual violence literature those rape myths that positively correlated with measures of sexual aggression and used male college students (Burgess, 2007). From this search of the literature, Burgess (2007) initially identified eight domains: (a) denial that acquaintance rape is real and causes trauma to the victim, called *Not Rape* (taken from Rapaport, Burkhart, 1984; White & Humphrey, 1991); (b) women's behavior or appearance is the cause of rape, identified as *Women Cause* (using e.g. Briere & Malamuth; 1983; Scully & Marola; 1984); (c) problematic attitudes and beliefs about mixing alcohol use and sexual activity, or *Alcohol* (e.g. Abbey, 1991; Richardson & Hammock, 1991); (d) problematic attitudes and beliefs about the male sex role, called *Sex Role* (used e.g. Bunting & Reeves, 1983; Muehlenhard & Cook, 1988); (e) dislike of the feminine and the intermingling of sex and violence, which he identified as *Misogyny* (e.g. Malamuth, Koss, Tanaka & Sockloskie, 1991; Stevens, 2001); (f) acceptance of traditional male and female gender roles, called *Gender Role* (taken from e.g. Malamuth, 1981; Martin & Hummer, 1989); (g) acceptance of sexual coercion as a legitimate means to acquire sex, or *Coercion*; (e.g. Muehlenhard & Schrag, 1991; Tyler, Hoyt & Whitbeck, 1998); and (h) misinterpretation of women's sexual intent, he called *Misinterpretation* (from e.g. Abbey, 1987; Shotland & Craig, 1988).

Burgess (2007) refined the RABS based on the conceptualizations derived from the literature and from his experience in working with college men in sexual assault education programming. Eight items were formulated for each of the eight domains, resulting in 64 items in total. (The version of the RABS that Burgess used included 59-items, however. Certain statements were omitted that seemed to confuse respondents based on their inconsistent endorsements).

Also included in the measure was the *Situational Rape Proclivity Scale* (SRPS), a 7-item instrument used to assess respondents' self-reported proclivity to rape in a variety of scenarios. To assess whether the participants had a sexually aggressive past, Burgess also utilized a 2-item questionnaire, the *Sexually Aggressive History Questionnaire* (SAHQ). A copy of these scales can be found in Appendix A.

The RABS, SRPS, and SAHQ were then administered to 368 university males and 359 university females in introductory business and psychology classes in a medium-sized university located in a small city in the southeast. The university from which these data were drawn had a 12% African-American community and a 5% other minority community. The majority of the respondents in this study were Caucasian/White.

Burgess (2007) first hypothesized that men's scores on the three measures would be positively correlated to their reports of rape proclivity and/or history of sexual aggression. He also hypothesized that men's scores on the RABS and its subscales would be significantly higher than women's scores.

In his initial stage of the analysis, Burgess conducted an exploratory factor analysis (principal components extraction) on the remaining 59-items, using only the

men's responses. Five factors, rather than the a priori expectation of eight domains, were retained. Nine items that did not meet criteria were then eliminated from the scale. His final version of the RABS totaled 50 items with five subscales. The RABS as a single measure accounted for 35.5% of the variance and had a Cronbach's alpha of .93. All subscales were found to be significantly related to one another and to the RABS total score, $p<.01$ (Burgess, 2007).

Burgess (2007) then tested the second set of his hypotheses by examining gender differences relating to sexual aggression and the endorsement of rape-supportive attitudes and beliefs. Independent *t*-tests were conducted that compared men's and women's mean scores on the RABS and its subscales. As hypothesized, men's mean scores on all subscales were significantly greater than women's, $p<.001$ (Burgess, 2007).

Chapter Eight

Objectives and Hypotheses

The aim of the present study is to assess gender differences regarding rape myth acceptance among college students in a large metropolitan university using Burgess' Rape Attitudes and Beliefs Scale (RABS). The current study, a replication study of Burgess' earlier work, utilizes a different college population in an attempt to test the external validity of Burgess' instrument. In light of changes in the social agenda for women since the 1960s, one might question whether there are still gender differences regarding attitudes towards rape. Will cultural influences of second-wave feminism be as far-reaching to produce any meaningful effects on today's male university students?

Nearly 40 years have passed since the revolutionary era of the 1960s. American culture today is vastly different than the sexually repressive period of the 1960s. It is important to examine if the struggles of the women's movement and other social reforms have had any lasting impact, especially on male college students.

Development of new measures that are valid is necessary in order to identify those college males who perpetrate sexual violence, a population that has continually been shown in the literature to warrant our attention (e.g., Koss et al., 1987; Lisak & Miller, 2002; DeKeseredy & Kelly, 1993). Furthermore, scales that are currently being used to assess rape myth acceptance are outdated and have not been tested on college

male samples. Therefore, it is important to assess whether Burgess' previous findings can be replicated and if the new measure is valid.

To strengthen the external validity of the RABS, it is important to consider utilizing a sample that is characteristically different from the original. The present study attempts such an analysis, using approximately 225 undergraduate students from a major research university in the southeast. The locale of the university as well as its student body is quite diverse, with 34.5% undergraduate minority students (13.0% African-American, 0.5% American Indian, 6.4% Asian/Pacific Islander, and 14.6% Hispanic). Located in a metropolitan area, with a population of approximately one million people, the university offers a multicultural sample. The setting in the current study is very different from the rural and conservative region of Burgess' sample. Therefore, examination of the similarities and/ or differences between Burgess' findings and the current study will provide indications of the generalizability of findings from the previous RABS study.

This investigation has two main objectives. The primary objective is to examine gender differences regarding rape-supportive attitudes and beliefs among college students using a sample from a metropolitan area. In accordance with previous literature, (e.g. Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Holcomb, Holcomb, Sondag, & Williams, 1988), it is expected that men will endorse rape-supportive attitudes more than women.

The secondary objective is to assess the validity of the new instrument, the RABS. Construct validity and criterion-related validity are assessed via the outcome measures, the Situational Rape Proclivity Scale (SRPS) and the Sexual Assault History

Questionnaire (SAHQ), as they relate to rape myth acceptance. It is expected that men who endorse rape myths will also have associated behaviors and proclivities that are consistent with sexual aggression. Assessment of the external validity of Burgess' findings is also examined using the sample from a large university located in the southeast.

Similar to Burgess' study, the following hypotheses will be tested using the updated rape myth acceptance scale:

H1: There will be significant differences between men's and women's scores on the RABS.

H2: Women will score lower than men (meaning less endorsement of rape myths).

H3: Scores on the RABS will positively correlate to self-report measures sexual proclivity and sexual aggression among men.

H4: The factor structure identified from current data will be similar to Burgess' 5-factor structure.

Chapter Nine

Method

Following approval from the university's Institutional Review Board, data were collected from undergraduates attending the main campus of a large university in the southeast. All of the students were recruited from an introductory Criminology class (N=224).

Measurement Scales

Rape Attitudes and Beliefs Scale (RABS). Burgess' final version of the RABS included 50 items, which is the measure used in the current analysis. From his findings, the RABS is composed of five subscales: 1) *Justifications* includes 10 items that provide rationalizations for forcing sex on women based on interpretations of women's behavior as sexually provocative; 2) *Blame* contains 11 items that reflect men's perceived vulnerability to women's sexual provocations, and that not enough responsibility is attributed to women's seductive behavior; 3) *Status* is comprised of 13 items that reflects the link between sexual aggression and social status that men are pressured to attain from their peers; 4) *Tactics* includes 8 items related to the approval of coercive methods that involve alcohol to gain sexual compliance from a woman; and 5) *Gender* has 10 items that reflect an adherence to traditional gender roles and a tendency to dislike things feminine. Responses to the 50 items in the RABS were coded as Strongly Agree=4, Mildly Agree=3, Mildly Disagree=2, and Strongly Disagree=1. Four items in the

measure were reverse coded, specifically, 1) "Rape can occur between two college students—even if they seem to be a normal couple who are often seen together at parties," 2) "A woman can dress as she wants to, drink if she wants to, and not hold any of the blame if she is raped," 3) "Mixing sex and alcohol is dangerous business and should not be done," and 4) "I believe that women can be whatever they want to be, whether it be president or housewife."

Situational Rape Proclivity Scale (SRPS). The seven items included in this instrument were adapted from Malamuth's (1981) scale to assess men's proclivity to "have sex with a woman against her wishes" in various situations, given "the assurance of no penalty or consequence." Responses were coded on a 4-point scale, as either 1=Not at all likely, 2=Possible, but not likely, 3=Fairly likely, and 4=Very likely. Higher scores indicate a greater proclivity to rape.

Sexually Aggressive History Questionnaire (SAHQ). The SAHQ has 2 items inquiring whether college men had sexually aggressive pasts. Once again, from the guidance of Koss & Oros (1982), the words *rape* or *sexual assault* were not used in this measure also. A sexually aggressive past is operationally defined as *forced sex without freely given consent*. The items in the SAHQ read as: 1) "Have you ever ignored a woman's indications (verbal or otherwise) that she was not mutually interested in sexual intercourse with you-but you went ahead and engaged in sexual intercourse with her anyway?" and 2) "Have you ever used threats of any sort (from threatening to end a relationship to threatening the use of force) to gain sexual compliance from a woman?" These items were coded as Never=1, Once=2, Twice=3, and More than twice=4.

Procedure

The procedure in the present study carefully followed the approach originally taken by Burgess (2007). Thus, participants were asked during their class period to complete a survey assessing "dating, sexual relationships, alcohol and dating experiences, and gender roles of college students." Taking direction from the acquaintance rape literature (i.e. Koss & Oros, 1982), the words *rape* or *sexual assault* were not used when introducing the instrument. Further, the survey packet was entitled *Sexual Attitudes Survey*, as done by Burgess (2007).

When the survey was introduced to the students, it was explained that many of them would find the questions interesting, and that some would find them personal and may not want to answer them. The students were told that if they began participation and decided to stop, then they could do so without penalty. However, if they decided not to participate, it was requested that they fill out the first two pages of the packet that asks for demographic information only. Confidentiality was ensured as no names or other forms of identifying information (e.g., student ID numbers) were asked to be written on the survey.

Next, the students were instructed on how to respond to the survey items. The men in the class were informed that they had 12 additional items to answer. The SRPS and SAHQ were placed at the end of the packet. It was further clarified that these last items were more personal in nature, but confidentiality was again reassured.

Before the surveys were distributed, the students were informed that the survey would take approximately 20 minutes to complete. They were then instructed to place

their surveys in a large, sealed box when they were finished. The surveys remained in the sealed boxes until all data were collected and the class was dismissed. The full introductory script can be found in Appendix B.

Demographic characteristics. Several demographic questions were asked of participants. Data on age, gender, year in school, race, Hispanic ethnicity, marital status, and current living situation were assessed.

Analyses. Based on the hypotheses and aims of the current study, data analyses were carried out in several steps. First, descriptive analyses were completed to illustrate the similarities and/or differences in findings between the present study and those of Burgess (2007). Next, a series of independent *t*-tests of the RABS subscales were conducted to assess gender differences by evaluating men's and women's mean scores. SPSS 17.0 was used in this first phase of analyses to determine the descriptive information and differences in means between the genders.

In the second phase of analyses, Burgess' (2007) methodology was replicated using the men's responses only. First bivariate correlations were conducted to ascertain significant associations between the items. Significant associations among the items allowed for use of exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Bivariate correlations among the items within the RABS, including correlations within each of the subscales, and EFA were conducted using MPlus 5.2 (Muthèn & Muthèn 1998-2008).

The purpose of EFA in the current examination is to demonstrate whether constituent items load similarly onto those factors noted in the Burgess study. Similarities and/or differences between the factor structures of the present study and that

of Burgess was assessed. Lastly, the RABS total score was correlated with sexual assault proclivity scores, sexual assault history scores, and the subscales extracted from responses in the current sample.

Exploratory Factor Analysis. According to Kim & Mueller (1978), factor analysis is a data reduction method and is comprised of a "variety of statistical techniques whose common objective is to represent a set of variables in terms of a smaller number of hypothetical variables," (p. 9). Further, this technique assesses the degree to which a set of observed variables are associated and are tapping into the same underlying construct (Byrne, 2001). In EFA the number of latent factors to be extracted and the items that are reflective of each factor are not specified beforehand. Thus, there are no real hypotheses established about the factor structure.

The first and important step of factor analysis involves an examination of the bivariate correlations. If there are no significant correlations found or there are low magnitudes among the items, then there is no basis for moving forward with factor analysis. However, if there are significant associations found between the items, then this is suggestive of substantively relevant relationships and EFA is appropriate.

During extraction, the number of underlying factors that can adequately explain the observed indicators is identified. The variance that accounts for each factor extracted is expressed by its "eigenvalue." Generally, there are some rule-of-thumb guidelines that are commonly used and seem to yield the best results: eigenvalues greater than 1 (Kaiser Rule) and the graphical results of the scree plot. Showing the descending values of

variance explained by each factor extracted, the scree plot reveals the number of factors that should be accepted (Kim & Mueller, 1978).

Kim and Mueller (1978) suggest additional formal tests when the number of factors is in question, namely: 1) significance tests associated with the maximum likelihood and least squares solutions, 2) the criterion of substantive importance, and 3) the criterion of interpretability and invariance. The best practice is to utilize a combination of these various criteria to lend further support to the final solution (Kim & Mueller, 1978)

In the present study, the number of factors retained was based on eigenvalues that exceeded 1.0, examination of the scree plot, and the use of prior theory and substantive knowledge. These criteria may seem somewhat elusive, but the current data lack a sample large enough to appropriately assess tests of significance.

Determination of which indicators to retain in each factor depends on the assessment of the relationships between the observed variable and the latent factor. This is expressed as a correlation or "factor loading," which ranges from 0 to 1. Factor loadings of at least .30 to .40 are generally accepted. Reliance on theory and substantive knowledge is also required to make suitable judgments of the acceptable loadings, however. Factor loadings within this range and greater than .40 indicate that an observed variable adequately "loads" onto the latent factor (Raubenheimer, 2004). Thus, the higher the factor loading, the better the observed variable is explained by the latent factor. In the current study, the criterion level for factor loadings was conservatively set at .40.

Findings from the EFA in the present study will be compared to the factor structure elucidated in the previous study. A similar factor structure would enhance the validity of the RABS, whereas a differing factor structure would indicate that the RABS may not be a valid instrument. A definitive factor structure, thus, has yet to be determined.

Chapter Ten

Results

Demographic information about the current sample is provided in Table 4. Participant ages ranged from 16 to 57 years (M=20.3 years, SD=3.5, Mode=19.0). The class composition was comprised of freshmen/first-year students (30.8%), sophomores/second-year students (28.6%), juniors/third-year students (23.2%), and seniors/fourth-year or more students (16.5%). Females accounted for 53% of the class. The majority of students were White (62.5%), followed by African-Americans (16.5%), Asians (4.9%), and those who were "Other" (13.8%). Nearly a quarter of the students (22.3%) were of Hispanic descent. A large majority of the respondents were "single, never married" (94.2%). Less than 5% were "married or living with an intimate partner;" and less than1% were divorced (0.9%). Almost 35% lived on campus, either in a dorm (32.1%) or in Greek housing (2.7%).

Currently, the university has a 13.0% undergraduate African-American community, and a 14.6% undergraduate Hispanic community. Females account for 59% of the undergraduate students. The locale of the university, as well as its student body is quite diverse, as stated earlier, with 34.5% of undergraduate minority students.

Student response rate was 97%. The responses from four female students were not included in the survey due to incomplete answering, and two males chose not to

participate and submitted only demographic information. This resulted in the final sample size of 224 undergraduate students.

Table 4 *Descriptive Statistics of Sample (N=224)*

Sample	*N*	*Percentage*
Age (in years)		
< 18	5	2.2
18	42	18.8
19	67	29.9
20	38	17.0
21	27	12.1
22	19	8.5
> 22	26	11.4
		M = 20.3
		SD = 3.5
Gender		
Male	105	46.9
Female	119	53.1
Year in School		
Freshman (First year)	69	30.8
Sophomore (Second year)	64	28.6
Junior (Third year)	52	23.2
Senior (Fourth year)	37	16.5
Race		
Asian	11	4.9
Black or African-American	37	16.5
White	140	62.5
Other	31	13.8
Missing	5	2.2
Hispanic		
Yes	50	22.3
No	156	69.6
Marital Status		
Single, never married	211	94.2
Married or living with partner	11	4.9
Divorced	2	0.9
Current Living Situation		
Campus dorm	72	32.1
Greek housing	6	2.7
Off campus	144	64.3
Missing	2	0.9

Preliminary Analyses

Descriptives. Detailed in Table 5, preliminary descriptive data of the men's responses (N=105) revealed similarities to those of Burgess (2007). For example, 8.6% of male respondents admitted to at least one incident of sexually aggressive behavior in their past, as measured by the SAHQ. Similarly, Burgess (2007) initially found 13% of males who admitted to a sexually aggressive past in his study. More than a third of male respondents (36.2%) admitted to at least some likelihood (i.e., endorsed "possible but not likely" to at least one situation) of forcing sex on a woman if he was assured of no penalty or consequence, as measured by the SRPS. This finding is substantial, yet less than the 48% found in the Burgess study (2007). While 14.3% in the present study responded that they were "likely" or "fairly likely" to force sex in at least one of the situations with the same assurances that there would be no penalty or consequences, Burgess (2007) reported 19% in his study. Further, in the Burgess study (2007), the item in the RABS that obtained the most endorsements read, "You are alone with a woman who you have been dancing with and kissing at a party. She is somewhat incoherent due to being drunk, but you suspect that she wanted to have sexual intercourse with you. You decide to use a condom to protect her against disease or pregnancy." In the current study, this item also obtained the most endorsements (36.2%), along with another item that read, "You are alone with a female acquaintance with whom you have known for years" (36.2%). Thus, there are similarities between the current findings and Burgess' study, yet the percentages are much lower, however, in the current sample (see Table 5).

Table 5 *Preliminary Descriptive Information of Outcome Measures (N=105)*

Findings	Present (%)	Burgess (%)
Reported at least one incident of sexual aggression in the past	8.6	13.0
Reported some likelihood (i.e. "possible, but not likely") of forcing sex on a woman	36.2	48.0
Reported "likely" or "fairly likely" of forcing sex on a woman	14.3	19.0

Independent samples t-tests. It was hypothesized that men's scores on the RABS and its five subscales would be greater than the women's scores. Group differences were tested using several independent samples t-tests. The results between men's and women's mean scores appear in Table 6. As expected, the analyses revealed that women's mean scores on the RABS and on each of the subscales were lower than the males. Significant group differences were found in each of the subscales, and the RABS total score ($p<.01$). These findings suggested that there was support for the hypothesis initially made and for the extant literature that men would score higher on the rape myth acceptance scales than women. When comparing gender differences and rape myth acceptance for the current sample of students, the results provide further evidence that that the RABS is a valid instrument for assessing rape myth acceptance among college populations.

Table 6 *Gender Differences for Acceptance of Rape Myths (N=224)*

	Men		Women			
Scale	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Df	*t*
JUST	16.8	14.6	12.0	2.8	222	3.6*
BLAM	31.6	16.6	22.4	5.5	222	5.7*
STAT	35.2	16.8	28.7	15.5	222	3.0*
TACT	17.8	9.9	12.7	9.9	222	3.8*
GEND	27.1	16.7	19.6	9.6	222	4.1*
RABS	123.2	42.2	92.4	10.2	222	6.5*

*p< .01

Note: JUST=Justifications subscale; BLAM=Blame subscale; STAT=Status subscale; TACT=Tactics subscale; GEND=Gender subscale; RABS=Rape Attitudes and Beliefs Scale total

Bivariate Analyses. For EFA, bivariate correlations were initially conducted among the 50 items that Burgess included in his final version of the RABS. Just as in the previous study, items used in this phase of the analyses were taken from the men only. Items in the RABS are ordered polytomous, (ordinal data) thus, polychoric correlations were conducted using MPlus 5.2 (Muthèn & Muthèn 1998-2008). (Because the inter-items correlations matrix is rather large and unwieldy, it is not shown in the text. The table can be found in Appendix C.) Significant correlations at the p<.05 level were found among the majority of the 50 items, and following Burgess' procedures, EFA was then conducted. The current analysis was strictly exploratory, thus, no expectations or determinations regarding the number of factors were set beforehand. However, it was hypothesized that the current factor structure would be similar to Burgess'.

Exploratory Factor Analysis. An exploratory factor analysis of the 50-item RABS was conducted in MPlus 5.2 (Muthèn & Muthèn 1998-2008), using the responses from the men only. Maximum likelihood estimation, Geomin (oblique) rotation, and 30 random starts were the default parameters in the current analysis. The limits on the number of factors to extract was set from 1 (lower limit) to 14 (upper limit). Due to non-

convergence problems on factors 9-14, new starting values were tried at 1000 and 10,000. No solutions were attained, however, for 9 or more factors. These preliminary results led to the decision to examine an 8-factor structure. Examination of the scree plot further supported the decision to examine the 8 factors that were extracted.

As mentioned previously, the criterion level for acceptable factor loadings was conservatively set at .40. Any indicators that loaded below .40 were eliminated, resulting in an examination of remaining 36 indicators across the 8 factors. A number of these items loaded highly onto multiple factors, and it was difficult to determine placement of certain items for proper formulation of distinct factors. Due to the large number of items that cross-loaded into multiple factors, it was decided to place any item in question into the factor where it had the highest loading. A table displaying all of preliminary factors and the multiple factor loadings can be found in Appendix D.

After each of the 36 items were placed into their respective factors, examination of the 8 factors subsequently led to the decision to retain only 7. One the factors contained 5 distinct indicators that did not seem theoretically consistent with one another and was eliminated. Additionally, placement of the highest loadings in their respective factors left 2 factors containing only 2 indicators each. These 2 factors were subsequently removed. Thus, the final structure of 5 factors with 36 items was retained. Although Burgess also concluded with a final 5-factor solution for the RABS (2007), the current structure differs due to the items contained in each of the new factors. The factors extracted in the current analysis contain a mixture of the items from the 5 subscales previously established by Burgess. There are some similarities, however.

In the current analysis, factor indicators loaded onto one large factor and four smaller factors. The largest factor, herein now called *Misinterpretation,* is comprised of 11 items that collectively convey a dimension where women's behavior is mistaken for sexual interest. Some of these items include: "Certain women are more likely to be raped due to their flirting, teasing, or promiscuous behavior," "Women who lead men on deserve less sympathy if they are raped," and "If is an unspoken rule that if a woman willingly goes with a man to some private or secluded place (such as the man's room), that she intends to have sex with him. The second dimension, herein referred to as *Not Rape,* contains 5 indicators where sexual violence and victimization is minimized or dismissed. Items contained in this domain are: "A lot of people, especially women, are too likely to label a sexual encounter as rape," and "Alcohol is a good sexual agent because it relaxes both people involved, frees them from inhibitions, and enhances the sexual experiences." The third dimension, herein called *Coercion,* is comprised of 7 indicators that jointly refer to the acceptance of the use of force to acquire sex. Items in this domain include: "It is acceptable for men to falsely profess love (or commitment) in order to get what they want from a woman sexually," and "If a woman is unsure about whether she wants sex, it is OK for a man to persist until she flatly says no." The fourth domain, herein referred to as *Gender Role,* is made up of 7 indicators that similarly reflect the approval of traditional gender roles. Items in this construct include: "Being independent, adventurous, and tough are still characteristics that define true masculinity," "I don't like a lot of what the feminist movement is trying to do," and "Even in today's world, men should be the sexual initiators." The final dimension, herein called *Sexual*

Power, contains 6 indicators that represent problematic attitudes regarding men's virility through sexual status and wealth. This domain includes items such as, "A man's status among his peers would be enhanced if he had sex with a woman who was a known tease," "It is of utmost importance that men be knowledgeable and experienced in sexual matters," and "Even today, college men should select a major that will lead to a job in which they can make a lot of money."

Of the new domains, *Gender Role* and *Sexual Power* seem to be the most similar to Burgess' dimensions within the original study. Six of the items in Burgess' *Gender* subscale are presently grouped in the new dimension *Gender Role*. Four of the items in Burgess' *Status* subscale are presently grouped in the new dimension *Sexual Power*. However, the other domains in the current analysis are comprised of an assortment of items from the various subscales in the Burgess study. Table 7 presents the final five factors and their relevant loadings.

Table 7 *Geomin Rotated Factor Loadings from the RABS (N=105)*

Items	NOTR	COER	GEND	MISI	SEXP
Rape can occur between two college students-even if they seem to be a normal couple who are often seen together at parties.	.48[a]				
A lot of people, especially women, are too likely to label a sexual encounter as "rape."	.53[a]				
Alcohol is a good sexual agent because it relaxes both people involved, frees them from inhibitions, and enhances the sexual experiences.	.49[a]				
In many cases, if a woman is raped by an acquaintance, she has to take some responsibility for what happened to her.	.50[a]				
Women who commonly frequenct "sex atmospheres"-such as bars or fraternity parties-are seemingly advertising their sexual availability.	.55[a]				

Table 7 *Geomin Rotated Factor Loadings from the RABS (N=105)* con't

Items	NOTR	COER	GEND	MISI	SEXP
If a woman allows a man to pick up all the expenses for a date, she is probably willing to have sex with him.		.68[a]			
It is acceptable for men to falsely profess love (or commitment) in order to get what they want from a woman sexually.		.48[a]			
If a woman is unsure about whether she wants sex, it is OK for a man to persist until she flatly says "no."		.52[a]			
If a woman asks a man out on a date, she is probably willing to have sex with him.		.74[a]			
Being sexually active is a measure of manhood.		.66[a]			
Men may as well try to get all the sex they can while they're in college.		.70[a]			
If a woman leads a man on by dressing up, dancing with him close, and kissing him-the man is somewhat justified to have sexual intercourse with her, even if she says "no."		.51[a]			
Being independent, adventurous, and tough are still characteristics that define true masculinity.			.41[a]		
I don't like a lot of what the feminist movement is trying to do.			.56[a]		
It is unwise for men to show their emotions.			.45[a]		
I believe that a woman can be whatever they want to be, whether it be president or housewife.			.47[a]		
I don't particularly like men who act in ways that I consider feminine.			.48[a]		
The judicial system is too harsh on men in cases of alleged sexual assault, and they do not look enough at women's behavior or responsibility.			.56[a]		
Women often falsely cry "rape" because they are feeling guilty about having sex, or they want to get back at a man.				.56[a]	
Certain women are more likely to be raped due to their flirting, teasing, or promiscuous behavior.				.54[a]	
If a man and woman are engaged in consensual sexual activity, but the woman says she doesn't want to have sexual intercourse-it is OK for the man to ignore this and go ahead, especially if he uses a condom.				.64[a]	
Women who lead men on deserve less sympathy if they are raped.				.50[a]	
It is an unspoken rule that if a woman willingly goes with a man to some private or secluded place (such as the man's room), that she intends to have sex with him.				.44[a]	
What people call "date rape" is often just sex that got a little rough.				.63[a]	
A man is somewhat justified to have sex with a woman against her wishes if 1) she willingly entered the man's room, and 2) she is known to have sex with many men before.				.66[a]	
Even today, it is more appropriate for men (rather than women) to hold jobs such as manager, CEO, or president.				.59[a]	
A woman who was forced to have sex with a male acquaintance would probably get over it easier than is she were mugged or beaten up by a stranger.				.67[a]	
Using coercion or physical restraint is a legitimate way to acquire sex from a certain type of woman.				.42[a]	
If a man wants to increase his chances of having sex with a woman, he should get her drunk.				.54[a]	

Table 7 *Geomin Rotated Factor Loadings from the RABS (N=105)* con't

Items	NOTR	COER	GEND	MISI	SEXP
For college men, there is a constant pressure or expectation to have sex.					.56[a]
Even today, college men should select a major that will lead to a job in which they can make a lot of money.					.40[a]
A man's status among his peers would be enhanced if he had sex with a woman who was a known "tease."					.65[a]
If a man does not have sex while he is in college, people-including women-will think that he is gay.					.46[a]
Women often make men"jump-through-hoops" in order to agree to have sex with them.					.54[a]
It is of utmost importance that men be knowledgeable and experienced in sexual matters.					.44[a]

Note: NOTR=Not Rape subscale; COER=Coercion subscale; GEND=Gender Role subscale; MISI=Misinterpretation subscale; SEXP=Sexual Power subscale.
a. Salient variables for that factor.

In MPlus 5.2, factor determinacy values are provided rather than a Cronbach's alpha. Reflecting the correlation between the estimated and true factor scores, factor determinacy establishes how well factors are measured (Bollen, 1989). Alternatively, Cronbach's alpha reliability measures how well a set of items measures a single, unidimensional construct (MPlus Discussion, 2008). Given the indeterminate nature of factor scores, it is possible to arrive at an infinite number of acceptable factor scores sets (Bollen, 1989; Grice, 2001). According to Muthèn (MPlus Discussion, 2008), given Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), the real question is how small the standard errors for structural coefficients can be as a function of good indicators (high determinacy) for the factor. Values for the coefficient range from 0 to 1, with larger values indicating better measurement of the factor by the observed indicators.

Factor score determinacies for the current analysis are: *Not Rape* (FSdeterminacy=.90), *Coercion* (FSdeterminacy=.93), *Gender Role* (FSdeterminacy=.89), *Misinterpretation* (FSdeterminacy=.94), and *Sexual Power* (FSdeterminacy=.93).

Intercorrelations of the Subscales. Table 8 displays the correlations that were conducted to assess the relationships of the new subscales to each other, to rape proclivity, and a history of sexual assault. Each of the subscales was positively correlated with the Rape Attitudes and Beliefs Scale total score with moderate to strong magnitudes: *Not Rape* (r=.71, p<.01), *Coercion* (r=.35, p<.01), *Gender Role* (r=.55, p<.01), *Misinterpretation* (r=.69, p<.01), and *Sexual Power* (r=.29, p<.01).

The subscales, however, were minimally related to one another. Those with positive and significant relationships are as follows: *Not Rape* was associated with the *Gender Role* subscale with moderate strength (r=.31, p<.01), and strongly related to the *Misinterpretation* subscale (r=.74, p<.01). The *Coercion* subscale was related to *Sexual Power* subscale with weak magnitude (r=.25, p<.01). Although it is a weak relationship, the *Coercion* subscale is the only dimension in the current analysis that is associated with sexual proclivity (r=.20, p<.05).

The lack of intercorrelations among the subscales suggests that the RABS may not be a unidimensional measure, but is rather, a series of independent scales assessing different constructs. As demonstrated by the exploratory factor analysis above, the RABS does, indeed, have at least 5 separate dimensions. However, elucidation of a factor structure that differs from Burgess' original findings suggests that the RABS and its subscales may not generalize to the population of male college students. A definitive factor structure of the RABS has yet to be established.

Of particular importance, the Situtational Rape Proclivity Scale (SRPS) and the Sexual Assault History Questionnaire (SAHQ) generally were not found to be related to

the RABS total score using the present sample of college men. The lack of intercorrelations brings into question whether the RABS is a valid instrument to assess rape myth acceptance as predictive of and/or contributing to acts of sexual violence. There are a number of reasons why this may have occurred. These points are addressed further in the Discussion section below.

Table 8 *Intercorrelations of the Subscales and the RABS Total (N=105)*

	NOTR	COER	GEND	MISI	SEXP	SRPS	SAHQ	RABS
NOTR	-	-.15	.31**	.74**	-.07	.01	-.03	.71**
COER		-	.12	.08	.25**	.20*	.03	.35**
GENR			-	.03	.03	.10	-.01	.55**
MISI				-	.03	.03	-.08	.69**
SEXP					-	.06	-.05	.29**
SRPS						-	-.06	.12
SAHQ							-	-.07
RABS								-

Note: NOTR=Not Rape subscale; COER=Coercion subscale; GEND=Gender Role subscale; MISI=Misinterpretation subscale; SEXP=Sexual Power subscale; SRPS=Situational Rape Proclivity Scale total; SAHQ=Sexual Assault History Questionnaire total; RABS=Rape Attitudes and Beliefs Scale total.
**p<.01
*p<.05

Chapter Eleven

Discussion

For decades, the feminist movement has been an influential force in bringing attention to the issue of sexual violence (e.g. Brownmiller, 1975). As a result, today's college students have become increasingly more aware of rape as a social problem. In spite of this awareness, the frequency of sexual victimization on college campuses has remained relatively unchanged in the last 40 years. This dilemma indicates that there is still more to learn about the causes of sexual violence. This study focused specifically on the rape-supportive attitudes and beliefs predominant within our culture that may serve to facilitate continued acts of sexual violence against women.

The extant literature regarding rape myth acceptance and sexual perpetration have repeatedly shown a significant association between these two variables (e.g. Byers & Eno, 1991; Christopher et al., 1993; Gold & Clegg, 1990; Hersch & Gray-Little, 1998; Koss & Dinero, 1988; Koss et al., 1985; Lisak & Roth, 1990; Malamuth, 1986; 1989; Malamuth et al., 1995; Muelenhard & Linton, 1987). However, current instruments that are used to measure rape myth acceptance were developed in the 1970s and 80s and may not accurately capture the experiences and language of today's college population. The purpose of this thesis, therefore, was to replicate and extend the findings of Gerald H. Burgess regarding his newly developed instrument, the Rape Attitudes and Beliefs Scale (RABS, 2007). Given the limitations of current rape myth acceptance measures, it was

essential to attempt replication of the previous study in order to test the internal validity of the new instrument and the external validity or generalizability of Burgess' findings. Consistent with design of the original study, the same experimental procedures and data analysis were used, but with a characteristically different sample and setting than in the previous study.

Data in the present study were collected from a convenience sample of undergraduate students enrolled in a large lecture criminology class at a major research university located in a metropolitan area. This particular university setting and its diverse body of students was quite different from the sample used in Burgess' original study of students attending a mid-size university in a rural setting. Minorities accounted for more than a third of the sample in the current study, whereas only 17% of participants were minorities in the previous study. Thus, the use of a different sample in the second study was necessary in order to ascertain how well Burgess' findings in 2007 would transfer to other samples of undergraduate students. The generalizability of Burgess' conclusions and any similarities between the studies was accessed using this heterogeneous sample of college students.

Intended specifically for use with college men, the items in the RABS (2007) were developed from the sexual violence literature that correlated to measures of sexual aggression. Through exploratory factor analysis (EFA), a final five-factor structure within the RABS was identified: *Justifications, Blame, Status, Tactics, and Gender*. Burgess also included the Situational Rape Proclivity Scale (SRPS) and Sexual Assault History Questionnaire (SAHQ) as outcome measures. The final assessment was comprised of the

RABS, SRPS, and SAHQ. Thus, the instrument was unique in its ability to directly test the associations of rape myth acceptance and sexual aggression.

Data analyses in the present study adhered to the procedures undertaken in the Burgess study, which included independent *t*-tests comparing men's and women's scores on the original RABS subscales, EFA using the men's responses only, and inter-item correlations of the RABS total score, sexual assault proclivity and history, and the new subscales extracted from responses in the current sample.

Assessment of the independent *t*-tests provided support to Burgess' findings and the RABS, while also confirming the first two hypotheses in the present study:

H1: There will be significant differences between men's and women's scores on the RABS.
H2: Women will score lower than men (meaning less endorsement of rape myths).

In light of the above hypotheses, the current study replicated the findings by Burgess by clearly establishing significant differences in rape-supportive attitudes and beliefs between college men and women. The results of these *t*-tests also contributed to the extant literature on gender differences regarding rape myth acceptance (Feild, 1978; Holcomb, et al., 1988; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Replicating this finding in the current study provides further evidence that women, as a group, are less tolerant of sexual violence and the myths associated with them than are their male counterparts. Consistent with Burgess' results, greater variance was found in the men's responses. According to Burgess (2007), the greater variance found in the men's responses suggests that the use of the RABS leads to valid conclusions in assessing college men's attitudes towards rape myths.

Further assessment of the construct validity of the RABS involved comparisons of the current factor structure to Burgess' previously identified factor structure. Like Burgess, applying conservative decision rules and using substantive knowledge led to a final, five-factor solution in the present study. There were some similarities with the emergence of two factors in particular: *Gender Role* and *Sexual Power*, which contained a number of items from Burgess' original *Gender* and *Status* subscales, respectively. This finding provides some support for Burgess' previous work and for this study's hypothesis:

H4: The factor structure identified from current data will be similar to Burgess' 5-factor structure.

However, the other three factors: *Misinterpretation, Coercion*, and *Not Rape* contained a mixture of items from Burgess' original subscales. The original factor structure was not maintained. Furthermore, a number of indicators tended to load highly onto multiple factors, which suggests a high degree of shared variance among the items. This complication made it difficult to clearly distinguish between the factors that emerged. Because of this shared variance, a solution with distinct factors was not presently achieved in the current study.

This finding suggests the importance of replication studies, as Burgess' conclusions were not fully replicated using the current sample and setting. Although there are similarities with two factors, there is no firm conclusion regarding the factor structure of the RABS. The external validity of the RABS becomes questionable when comparing the current factor structure to the previous structure. Thus, Burgess' findings

could not be generalized to this diverse sample and presumably to university students in general.

Another important finding of this research effort is the lack of inter-item correlations among the subscales in the present study to the outcome measures of sexual proclivity and history. Burgess found significant associations in all of the components of the RABS in his study. Aside from one significant relationship established between the *Coercion* subscale and sexual proclivity, the current study did not provide any evidence that endorsement of the items in the RABS is related to measures of sexual violence. Thus, there was only minimal support for the third hypothesis:

H3: Scores on the RABS will positively correlate to self-report measures sexual proclivity and sexual aggression among men.

This result challenges the construct and predictive validity of Burgess' findings that suggests that the RABS can be used for predicting sexual violence among college men. In light of the results of the EFA and inter-item correlations in the current study, it is difficult, therefore, to determine exactly what the RABS proclaims to measure.

Limitations

Possible explanations for the lack of support for the RABS in the current study merit discussion: the lack of a direct measure of hostility included among the items in the RABS, the ambiguity of certain items in the RABS, and situational factors of the sample.

Hostility Component of Rape Attitudes. Among the multiple measures of rape myth acceptance, the constructs of "hostile masculinity" (Malamuth et al., 1991) and "hypermasculinity," (Mosher & Sirikin, 1984) have been identified as providing the

greatest effect sizes of masculinist ideology as it relates to sexual aggression (Murnen et al., 2002). Both measures include components of hostility and aggression towards women, which is an extension of former measures that may only measure sexist attitudes. According to Adams-Curtis and Forbes (2004), simply holding sexist beliefs or endorsement of rape supportive attitudes is not enough when assessing rape proclivity, or the likelihood of raping among men. The presence of an affective component of hostility towards women, in addition to the adherence of a masculinist ideology, is what predictably leads to sexual violence (Murnen et al, 2002; Forbes et al, 2004). Perhaps items that are more sensitive to the detection of such characteristics should be included in the RABS. Examples from Mosher and Anderson's Aggressive Sexual Behavior Inventory (1986) include: "I have calmed a woman down with a good slap or two when she got hysterical over my advances" and "I have roughed a woman up a little so that she would understand that I meant business." From these examples, the construct of hostile masculinity is clearly illustrated. Inclusions of such items that tap into the macho personality and reflect calloused attitudes may enhance the predictive validity of the RABS.

Ambiguity of RABS items. Upon examination of certain statements, it is difficult to determine what exactly the RABS is attempting to access. In many statements it is clear, at face value, that rape attitudes are assessed. Examples include: "If a woman is unsure about whether she wants sex, it is okay for a man to persist until she flatly says no" and "It is an unspoken rule that if a woman willingly goes with a man to some private or secluded place (such as the man's room), that she intends to have sex with him." It is

arguable that many respondents, including those who do not endorse more direct measures of rape myths, may find some truth to a number of the RABS items. For example, "It is unwise for men to show their emotions" and "For college men, there is constant pressure or expectation to have sex." Generally college men may relate to these statements and find them to be accurate. Thus, there is some ambiguity among the RABS items about what is being measured. The way that the rape myth construct is operationalized appears to need further development.

Situational Factors of the Sample. Evidently, Burgess' study found associations between rape myth acceptance and the outcome of sexual proclivity and/or a history of sexual violence. As mentioned above, this result was not found in the present study. The lack of congruent findings may be due to limitations in the experimental procedures and to the peculiarities of the sample. Due to the sensitive nature of the questions in the RABS, there might have been bias in the men's responses as a result of social desirability. The additional questions that followed in the SRPS and SAHQ are even more sensitive than those in the RABS. It stands to reason that the men in the current sample might have adjusted their responses more than those in the Burgess sample, in order to appear more socially acceptable or politically correct as students enrolled in a criminology course. Furthermore, men in the current sample might have responded differently because they may have some prior knowledge about rape and sexual coercion and might have made the association between the items in the front of the RABS to the more sensitive questions in the SRPS and SAHQ.

The phenomena of saying one thing and doing another can also be considered in the current study as a possible reason for the lack of relationships found between rape supportive attitudes and the outcome measures. The reluctance to provide accurate responses in the SRPS and SAHQ might have reflected male subjects' attempts to be viewed favorably, despite the endorsement of rape myths. This form of social desirability, also referred to as the "Bradley Effect," was demonstrated when white voters falsely told pollsters they would vote for a black candidate and actually voted for the white candidate in order to avoid criticism (NPR, 2008).

Although there was minimal support for the last two hypotheses in the current study, it is evident from the results of the *t*-tests that rape myth acceptance continues to exist among college students, notwithstanding the progressive thinking typically found among a diverse student population in a large metropolitan setting. Likewise, despite the achievements of the women's movement and the subsequent efforts of sexual assault education on campuses, generally there have been no changes regarding rape attitudes among college students. The women's movement set the stage for sexual assault awareness. However, colleges and universities remain dangerous places for women in spite of these active efforts (Armstrong et al., 2006). While Adams-Curtis and Forbes (2004:115) may contend that "we know what the problems are and we know how to change them," we may not have a complete explanation of the problem. We may need to look beyond the influence of culture.

Directions for Future Research

The high frequency of sexual victimization on college campuses can be examined in a number of ways to further explicate the problem and to identify potential remedies. For example, examination of the roles that sociobiological factors such as sexual drives, hormones, and mental health may play in sexual violence may be worth further examination. Arrest data indicate that the majority of both sexual assault offenders and victims are age 35 or less (FBI, 2008). To what extent are biological factors contributing to sexual assault?

Additionally, in terms of causal relationships, it is not enough to examine associations between holding rape-supportive attitudes and sexual offending. Rather than examine a direct cause, it may be preferable to identify the mechanisms underlying the observed relationship between criterion and predictor variables. Mediating factors, such as an underlying anger towards women, an underlying need to control women or sexual frustration may further explain the relation between certain attitudes or motivations and sexual perpetration (Lisak & Roth, 1988). Alternatively, there may be internal and external inhibitors such as morality, empathy, and fear of the consequences of the criminal justice system, which may inhibit sexual offending even among those who hold rape myth attitudes. These factors should be considered in future research that seeks to clarify the nature of relationship between rape-supportive attitudes and sexually aggressive behaviors.

Future research should also investigate alternative instrumentation and means of survey administration. In an attempt to efficiently obtain data, collection in the present

study occurred on one day in a large lecture hall. If students were allowed to take the instrument home and provide responses in more privacy, there may be more potential for truthful answers. Reliance on technology, such as internet surveys, may likely provide more accurate results should respondents feel ill at ease answering questionnaires containing sensitive material in a public forum. Additionally, a deconstruction of Burgess' instrument to include more items that tap into the construct of hostile attitudes towards women and a re-administration may result in findings more in line with theoretical predictions. Moreover, inclusion of other forms of interpersonal violence outcomes such as child physical and sexual abuse, and battery of an adult may likely yield interesting results of the multiple ways that sexual perpetrators offend known victims (Lisak & Miller, 2002).

In addition, it would be favorable to also assess the attitudes of men convicted of sexual offenses in order to draw comparisons to the college student population. Are they more likely to accept rape myths and/or have more hostility toward women? There is a current body of evidence suggesting that negative and stereotypical attitudes toward women are commonplace among men in community samples and are not specific to sex offenders alone (Stermac, Segal, & Gillis, 1990; Epps, Haworth, & Swaffer, 1993).

Finally, the data presented here carry implications for educative sexual assault programs on college campuses. Education should continue to be included, but the emphasis should shift from women to educating both men and women. Educational efforts that target men in particular could provide to them broader perspectives regarding sexual attitudes, including identification of coercive behaviors and victim blaming.

Interventions addressing men's behavior only will not be 100 percent effective. It is important to also provide risk reduction strategies to women in order to keep them safer (Sampson, 2003). The use of realistic scenarios to illustrate common risky situations where women may find themselves vulnerable, in addition to an emphasis of the frequent occurrence of acquaintance rape, should be included in prevention programming for women (Sampson, 2003). Furthermore, preventative efforts should not be limited to incoming, first-year students only. Rather, education should continue throughout the college career (Armstrong et al., 2006).

In accordance with Sampson (2003), the author advises that colleges and universities spend their prevention funds for multiple educational efforts at various time points to extend beyond students. Administrators, campus judicial officers, campus police, fraternities, sororities, and athletes should be included. The university has a responsibility to protect its students, and must make reasonable efforts to prevent sexual violence and its damaging aftermath for victims. Prevention initiatives such as cameras in the parking garages, telephones throughout campuses, and late-night escort or shuttle services for women, do not directly address acquaintance rape, and have not been shown to prevent campus sexual violence (Sampson, 2003). The cost of these initiatives far exceeds the cost of preventative education (Sampson, 2003).

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Appendices

APPENDIX A

Please answer the following questions about you and your background:

1. What is your age (as of last birthday)? _____

2. Sex:

(A) Male (B) Female

3. What is your year in school?

(A) Freshman/1st year (B) 2nd year (C) 3rd year (D) 4th year or more

(E) none of the above

4. Race:

(A) American Indian or Alaskan Native
(a person having origins in any of the original peoples of North or South America, including Central America, and who maintain tribal affiliation or community attachment).
(B) Asian
(a person having origins in any of the original peoples of the Far East, Southeast Asia or the Indian subcontinent, including, for example, Cambodia, China, India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippine Islands, Thailand, and Vietnam).
(C) Black or African American
(a person having origins in any of the black racial groups or Africa. This term includes Haitian or Negro).
(D) Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
(a person having origins in any of the original peoples of Hawaii, Guam, Samoa, or other Pacific Islands).
(E) White
(a person having origins in any of the original peoples of Europe, the Middle East, or North America).
(F) Other, please list
_____

5. Are of Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish origin?

(includes a person of Cuban, Mexican, Puerto Rican or South or Central American, or other Spanish culture or race, regardless of race).

(A) Yes (B) No

6. Your current marital status is:

(A) Single, never married (B) Married or living with an intimate partner

(C) Separated (D) Divorced

7. Do you currently participate in any of the following:

(A) Team sports, which ones?

_____

(B) Fraternity

(C) Sorority

8. Your current living situation is:

(A) I live on campus in a dorm.

(B) I live on campus in greek housing.

(C) I live off campus.

Sexual Attitudes Scale

Directions: Please consider the following statements, and mark on your scan-tron the letter that corresponds with your level of agreement. Please note this is a 'forced-choice' response set, A-D only, without a 'neutral' response.

9. Rape can occur between two college students—even if they seem to be a normal couple who are often seen together at parties.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree

(D) Strongly Disagree

10. Certain women are more likely to be raped due to their flirting, teasing, or promiscuous behavior.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

11. It is okay for a man to have sex with a female acquaintance who is drunk.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

12. Even in today's world, men should be the sexual initiators.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

13. If a woman is going to be raped, she may as well relax and enjoy it.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

14. Being independent, adventurous, and tough are still characteristics that define true masculinity.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

15. It is acceptable for men to falsely profess love (or commitment) in order to get what they want from a woman sexually.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

16. When a woman smiles at, or touches a man—she is probably letting him know that she is sexually interested in him.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

17. A woman can dress as she wants to, drink if she wants to—and not hold any of the blame if she is raped.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

18. Women offer "token resistance" in sexual matters (i.e. they say "no" when they mean "yes") in order to avoid seeming "too easy."

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

19. If a woman allows a man to pick up all the expenses for a date, she is probably willing to have sex with him.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

20. In many cases, if a woman is raped by an acquaintance, she has to take some responsibility for what happened to her.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

21. Mixing sex and alcohol is dangerous business and should not be done.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

22. For college men, there is a constant pressure or expectation to have sex.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
(D) Strongly Disagree

23. I don't like a lot of what the feminist movement is trying to do.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
(D) Strongly Disagree

24. If a woman is unsure about whether she wants sex, it is okay for a man to persist until she flatly says "no."

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
(D) Strongly Disagree

25. A good way for a man to get a woman to agree to have sex with him is by spending a lot of money on her.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
(D) Strongly Disagree

26. A lot of people, especially women, are too likely to label a sexual encounter as "rape."

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
(D) Strongly Disagree

27. The judicial system is too harsh on men in cases of alleged sexual assault, and they do not look enough at women's behavior or responsibility.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
(D) Strongly Disagree

28. Alcohol is a good sexual agent because it relaxes both people involved, frees them from inhibitions, and enhances the sexual experience.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

29. Women who lead men on deserve less sympathy if they are raped.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

30. Even today, college men should select a major that will lead to a job in which they can make a lot of money.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

31. If a man and woman are engaged in consensual sexual activity, but the woman says she doesn't want to have sexual intercourse—it is okay for the man to ignore this and go ahead, especially if he uses a condom.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

32. If a woman asks a man out on a date, she is probably willing to have sex with him.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

33. Women often falsely cry "rape" because they are feeling guilty about having sex, or they want to get back at the man.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

34. A man's status among his peers would be enhanced if he had sex with a woman who was a known "tease."

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

35. If a woman willingly gets drunk, then she is raped—she is more responsible for what happened to her than if she had decided not to drink.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

36. Being sexually active is a measure of manhood.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

37. It is unwise for men to show their emotions.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

38. Men may as well try to get all the sex they can while they're in college.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

39. It is an unspoken rule that if a woman willingly goes with a man to some private or secluded place (such as the man's room), that she intends to have sex with him.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

40. Any woman who properly resists can prevent having sex with an acquaintance whom she does not want to have sex with.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

41. Women who commonly frequent "sex atmospheres"—such as bars or fraternity parties—are seemingly advertising their sexual availability.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

42. If a man does not have sex while he is in college, people—including women—will think that he is gay.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

43. Women often make men "jump-through-hoops" in order to agree to have sex with them.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

44. I believe that women can be whatever they want to be, whether it be president or housewife.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

45. If a man wants to increase his chances of having sex with a woman, he should get her drunk.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
    (D) Strongly Disagree

46. Most sexual activity is seen by both men and women alike as a prelude to intercourse.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
(D) Strongly Disagree

47. What people call "date rape" is often just sex that got a little rough.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
(D) Strongly Disagree

48. A man is at somewhat justified to have sex with a woman against her wishes if (1) she willingly entered the man's room, and (2) she is known to have had sex with many men before.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
(D) Strongly Disagree

49. It is of utmost importance that men be knowledgeable and experienced in sexual matters.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
(D) Strongly Disagree

50. Even today, it is more appropriate for men (rather than women) to hold jobs such as manager, CEO, or president.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
(D) Strongly Disagree

51. If a woman leads a man on by dressing up, dancing with him close, and kissing him—the man is somewhat justified to have sexual intercourse with her, even if she says she doesn't want to.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
(D) Strongly Disagree

52. A woman who was forced to have sex with a male acquaintance would probably get over it easier than if she were mugged or beaten up by a stranger.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
(D) Strongly Disagree

53. Women need to take responsibility for the attention they attract if they are going to wear sexy clothes.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
(D) Strongly Disagree

54. Women who drink at parties are giving off a signal that they are more sexually willing, and more sexually available, than women who do not drink at parties.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
(D) Strongly Disagree

55. A man who is sexually active has a better reputation, and is more popular with peers, than a man who is not sexually active.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
(D) Strongly Disagree

56. Most women don't understand that sexual jokes and innuendoes are only for fun and are harmless.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
(D) Strongly Disagree

57. I don't particularly like men who act in ways that I consider feminine.

(A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree
(D) Strongly Disagree

58. Using coercion or physical restraint is a legitimate way to acquire sex from a certain type of woman.

    (A) Strongly Agree (B) Mildly Agree (C) Mildly Disagree

    (D) Strongly Disagree

For the women in the class: we value your responses. Thank you for participating. If you are finished, please submit your answers to one of the sealed boxes.

For the men in the class: you are almost done. Below are only twelve additional questions left for you to answer. Again, we appreciate your honesty and assure that your responses will remain anonymous.

Note: Four items in the measure were reverse coded, specifically, 1) "Rape can occur between two college students—even if they seem to be a normal couple who are often seen together at parties," 2) "A woman can dress as she wants to, drink if she wants to, and not hold any of the blame if she is raped," 3) "Mixing sex and alcohol is dangerous business and should not be done," and 4) "I believe that women can be whatever they want to be, whether it be president or housewife."

FOR MEN ONLY

Instructions: Please indicate how likely you may be to have sex with a woman against her wishes (provided that you were assured you could get away with it without penalty or consequence) in the following situations:

59. You are alone with a female acquaintance whom you have known for years.

(A) Very likely (B) Fairly likely (C) Possible, but not likely

(D) Not at all likely

60. You are walking alone through the woods and come across an attractive woman walking by herself.

(A) Very likely (B) Fairly likely (C) Possible, but not likely

(D) Not at all likely

61. You are alone with an attractive woman whom you have met at an out-of-town party, and with whom you are not likely to see again.

(A) Very likely (B) Fairly likely (C) Possible, but not likely

(D) Not at all likely

62. You are alone with a woman who you met at a party, and who is in your room—passed out drunk.

(A) Very likely (B) Fairly likely (C) Possible, but not likely

(D) Not at all likely

63. You are alone with a woman who has been "leading-you-on" to believe that she would have sex with you, but then said "no."

(A) Very likely (B) Fairly likely (C) Possible, but not likely

(D) Not at all likely

64. You are alone with a woman who is a known "tease."

(A) Very likely (B) Fairly likely (C) Possible, but not likely

(D) Not at all likely

65. You are alone with a woman who you have been dancing with and kissing at a party. She is somewhat incoherent due to being drunk, but you suspect that she wanted to have sexual intercourse with you. You decide to use a condom to protect her from disease or pregnancy.

(A) Very likely (B) Fairly likely (C) Possible, but not likely

(D) Not at all likely

66. Have you ever ignored a woman's indications (verbal or otherwise) that she was not mutually interested in sexual intercourse with you—but you went ahead and engaged in sexual intercourse with her anyway?

(A) Never (B) Once (C) Twice (D) More than twice

67. Have you ever used threats of any sort (from threatening to end a relationship to threatening the use of force) to gain sexual compliance from a woman?

(A) Never (B) Once (C) Twice (D) More than twice

68. How approving do you think your friends would be of you if you had sex with many women during the academic year?

(A) Very approving (B) Somewhat approving (C) Neutral

(D) Somewhat disapproving (E) Very disapproving

69. How approving do you think your friends would be of you if you got a woman drunk or high in order to have sex with her?

(A) Very approving (B) Somewhat approving (C) Neutral

(D) Somewhat disapproving (E) Very disapproving

70. How approving do you think your friends would be of you if you forced a "known tease" to have sex with you after she had teased you and then refused to have sex?
(A) Very approving (B) Somewhat approving (C) Neutral

(D) Somewhat disapproving (E) Very disapproving

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION. PLEASE SUBMIT YOUR SURVEY IN ONE OF THE SEALED COLLECTION BOXES.

APPENDIX B

Introductory Script:

Good afternoon, my name is Rhissa Briones and I am a graduate student working with Dr. Heide. Today we are asking for your participation in a study that looks at dating, sexual relationships, alcohol and dating experiences, and gender roles of college students. Many of you will likely find the questions interesting. Some of you may find the questions personal and may not want to answer them. If you begin participating and decide that you do not want to continue, you may stop.

I would like to stress that your participation in this survey is completely voluntary and no penalty will come to you if you decide not to participate or complete the survey. Because the topic is sensitive, your confidentiality and anonymity will be ensured. I ask that no names or students numbers be written on the survey, just your honest responses.

If you decide to participate, you will see, there is no option for a neutral response on the survey. After reading each statement, please answer honestly whether you: (A) Strongly Agree, (B) Mildly Agree, (C) Mildly Disagree, or (D) Strongly Disagree.

The men in the class have nine additional items to complete. These items are of a more personal nature than the earlier ones. Once again we assure you of confidentiality and anonymity. We do not want to know which responses belong to whom.

I expect to have the surveys analyzed before the end of the semester. I will share the classes overall responses with you.

The survey should take 20 minutes or less if you decide to participate. When you are finished, please place them in the sealed boxes by the exits. Are there any questions? I have pens if anyone needs one.

We will distribute the surveys now. If you do not want to participate, do not take one. Please feel free to begin when you receive the survey.

Again, please do not write any identifying information on these surveys. Thank you for your assistance and for taking the time to participate in this important research on college students' experience.

APPENDIX C

Table 1 *Polychoric Correlations of RABS Items (N=105)*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1	-	-.09	-.19	-.20	-.32	.11	-.25*	-.44*	.13	-.32*	-.10	-.42*	.16	-.21	-.34*	-.31*	-.14	-.47*	-.14	-.35*
2		-	.31*	.30*	.16	.39	.26*	.24*	-.23	.32*	.39*	.40*	-.32*	.18	.09	.25*	.20	.32*	.46*	.43*
3			-	.23*	.19	.36*	.45*	.05	.02	.38*	.25*	.20	-.51*	-.01	.22*	.51*	.40*	.29*	.27*	.37*
4				-	.16	.27*	.29*	.44*	-.25*	.28*	.57*	.33*	-.06	.38*	.12	.50*	.19	.23*	.08	.28*
5					-	-.13	.30	.23	-.31*	-.14	.26	.31*	.08	-.05	.32	.12	.13	.13	.21	.21
6						-	.43*	.26*	-.20	.32*	.25*	.01	-.26*	.26*	.15	.34*	.13	.31*	.38*	.44*
7							-	.18	-.05	.35*	.27*	.13	-.26*	.30*	.21	.51*	.34*	.24*	.12	.42*
8								-	-.42*	.44*	.37*	.49*	-.11	.16	.18	.32*	.04	.32*	.17	.32*
9									-	-.28*	-.32*	.43*	-.12	-.18	-.15	-.16	-.11	-.27*	-.31*	-.10
10										-	.28*	.48*	-.47*	.21*	.33*	.45*	.23*	.39*	.32*	.52*
11											-	.37*	-.08	.07	.13	.43*	.22*	.30*	.27*	.16
12												-	-.15	.13	.18	.23*	.23*	.38*	.34*	.27*
13													-	.01	-.12	-.27*	-.19	-.16	-.17	-.39*
14														-	.16	.39*	.25*	.31*	.19*	.20
15															-	.29*	.09	.27*	.39*	.10
16																-	.50*	.43*	.30*	.40*
17																	-	.33*	.03	.21
18																		-	.50*	.45*
19																			-	.33*
20																				-

*p<.05

Table 1 *Con't* *p<.05

	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
1	-.13	.05	-.28*	-.06	-.36*	-.13	-.14	-.15	-.02	-.16	-.18	-.25	-.32	-.16	-.13	.11	-.09	-.08	-.03	-.09
2	.40*	.24*	.47*	.30*	.48*	.21*	.26*	.31*	.12	.26*	.35*	.04	.31*	.31*	.49*	-.19	.56*	.40*	.39*	.46*
3	.04	.17	.25*	.34*	.30*	.26*	.10	.35*	.25*	.29*	.08	.25*	.24*	.23*	.30*	-.35*	.49*	.36*	.26*	-.09
4	.19	.05	.44*	.52*	.18	.23*	.25*	.41*	.17	.52*	.38*	.38*	.30*	.52*	.26*	-.28*	.18	-.02	.22	.47*
5	.47	-.09	.34	.23*	.20	-.31*	.23	-.15	.03	.25	.46*	.19	.27	-.28	-.14	-.43*	.42*	-.02	.21	.39*
6	-.11	.24*	.15	.31*	.27*	.27*	.01	.42*	.31*	.40*	.27*	.08	.18	.26*	.36*	-.32*	.21*	.26*	.14	.10
7	.14	.32*	.29*	.27*	.20	.12	-.08	.40*	.50*	.58*	.22	.20	.07	.26*	.27*	-.58*	.39*	.11	-.01	.09
8	.22*	.11	.45*	.31*	.42*	.44*	.31*	.34*	.09	.42*	.41*	.20	.54*	.41*	.22*	-.19	.27*	.23*	.19	.41*
9	-.45*	.05	-.29*	-.23	-.20	-.10	-.32*	-.13	-.02	-.14	-.30*	-.30*	-.30*	-.19	-.31*	.27*	.01	.21	-.18	-.33*
10	.18	.02	.32*	.26*	.40*	.32*	.14	.34*	.07	.32*	.22*	.12	.35*	.40*	.35*	-.34*	.31*	.20	.19	.07
11	.50*	.03	.57*	.64*	.20	.21	.27*	.41*	.22*	.53*	.41*	.22	.44*	.40*	.21	-.37*	.34*	.08	.42*	.54*
12	.48*	-.06	.59*	.38*	.47*	.17	.48*	.18	-.06	.19	.32*	.26*	.48*	.28*	.30*	-.30*	.43*	.07	.42*	.33*
13	.20*	-.05	-.13	-.20	-.24*	-.25*	-06	-.25*	.02	-.29*	.10	.01	-.19	-.15	-.20*	.20	-.41*	-.33*	-.06	.02
14	.13	.12	.41*	.17	.11	.42*	24*	.49*	.33*	.40*	.19	.15	.12	.47*	.46*	-.25	.11	.14	.20	.36*
15	.14	-.05	-.03	.06	.26*	-.07	.33*	.15	.13	.11	.19	-.10	.13	-.02	-.05	-.53*	.25*	-.13	.10	.04
16	.21*	.02	.52*	.36*	.36*	.34*	.28*	.43*	.28*	.49*	.35*	.24*	.46*	.41*	.37*	-.48*	.39*	.15*	.30*	.48*
17	.28*	.06	.51*	.32*	.25*	.27*	.18	.37*	.08	.33*	.17	.06	.29*	.19	.33*	-.24	.38*	.26*	.14	.31*
18	.29*	-.12	.43*	.13	.56*	.28*	.15	.39*	.22	.30*	.16	.21	.41*	.35*	.41*	-.32*	.15	.02	.33*	.34*
19	.25*	-.02	.25	.23	.51*	.27*	.32*	.29*	.42*	.09	.26*	.04	.40*	.28*	.26*	-.35*	.20	.16	.38*	.29*
20	.08	.10	.42*	.24*	.51*	.29*	-.09	.21*	.14	.33*	.20	.18	.33*	.27*	.32*	-.33*	.37*	.26*	.24*	.20
21	-	.03	.50*	.38*	.20	-.02	.40*	.18	.02	.15	.42*	.14	.47*	.19	.18	-.32*	.30*	-.10	.39*	.46*
22		-	.18	.14	-.02	.23*	-.04	.33*	.34*	.39*	.20	.11	-.01	.20	.20	-.02	.17	.32*	.01	.10
23			-	.54*	.40*	.30*	.37*	.33*	.38*	.51*	.49*	.32*	.53*	.40*	.42*	-.47*	.44*	.07	.58*	.66*
24				-	.36*	.31*	.36*	.57*	.16	.63*	.48*	.25*	.34*	.30*	.15	-.32*	.24*	.21*	.43*	.48*
25					-	.37*	.31*	.29*	.17	.26*	.35*	.06	.50*	.20*	.35*	-.30*	.36*	.22*	.44*	.43*

Table 1 *Con't* *p<.05

	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50
1	-.09	-.09	-.20	-.16	-.11	-.20	-.15	-.25*	-.20	-.06
2	.25*	.48*	.24*	.58*	.13	.34*	.12	.30*	.17	.30*
3	.41	.11*	.07	.18	.28	.28*	.25*	.29*	.18	.34*
4	.06	.42*	.58*	.43*	.16	.20	.21*	.26*	.22*	.22
5	-.03	.21	.37*	.26	.19	-.11	.05	.07	.18	.40*
6	.26*	.50*	.16	.25*	.32*	.23*	.26*	.38*	.34*	.14
7	.19	.33*	.20	.14	.11	.02	.28*	.22*	.29*	.16
8	.17	.39*	.43*	.53*	.34*	.34*	.48*	.33*	.32*	.15
9	-.09	-.18	-.36*	-.50*	-.53*	-.34*	-.18	-.23*	-.09	.03
10	.25*	.38*	.44*	.31*	.42*	.25*	.27*	.30*	.34*	.08
11	.07	.44*	.49*	.44*	.25	.29	.05	.32*	.18	.18
12	.15	.36*	.37*	.57*	.32*	.36*	.07	.22*	.17	.26*
13	-.26*	-.32*	-.04	-.04	.02	-.04	-.12	-.08	-.15	-.12
14	.31*	.22*	.34*	.41*	.25*	.24*	.50*	.34*	.41*	.12
15	-.26*	.28*	.15	.15	.40*	.18	.07	.15	.32*	.06
16	.20*	.53*	.51*	.42*	.23*	.42*	.30*	.42*	.31*	.26*
17	.31*	.25*	.33*	.28*	.16	.39*	.21	.28*	.08	.16
18	.14	.50*	.27*	.54*	.38*	.20	.21*	.37*	.18	.17
19	.10	.44*	.21	.39*	.46*	.26*	.15	.34*	.34*	.09
20	.24*	.50*	.20	.39*	.23	.16	.21*	.14	.31*	.06
21	.12	.26*	.37*	.55*	.37*	.34*	.11	.27*	.03	.26*
22	.21*	.12	-.01	.09	-.06	.19	.31*	.21*	.25*	.15
23	.32*	.49*	.57*	.56*	.29*	.41*	.17	.47*	.21	.52*
24	.30*	.42*	.53*	.32*	.24*	.47*	.34*	.35*	.10	.23
25	.19	.53*	.37*	.46*	.42*	.48*	.32*	.40*	.24*	.23*

Table 4 *Con't* *p<.05

	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45
26	-	.16	.55*	.13	.36*	.31*	.25*	.39*	.40*	.46*	.07	.10	.42*	.21	.25*	.43*	.23*	.33*	.26*	.22*
27		-	.28*	.09	.14	.46*	.15	.40*	.15	.11	-.23*	.26*	-.02	.42*	.47*	.27*	.24*	.36*	.38*	.37*
28			-	.43*	.68*	.36*	.28*	.27*	.61*	.44*	-.31*	.22*	.32*	.22	.39*	.24*	.45*	.34*	.30*	.18
29				-	.25*	.17	.15	-.02	.31*	.27*	-.35*	.11	.05	.22	.28*	.11	.19	.32*	.20	.16
30					-	.32*	.23*	.22*	.46*	.39*	-.41*	.40*	.26*	.17	.46*	.28*	.46*	.31*	.32*	.21
31						-	.17	.49*	.24*	.27*	-.33*	.21	.09	.31*	.56*	.27*	.31*	.56*	.40*	.36*
32							-	.12	.26*	.30*	-.13	.03	-.05	.26	.12	.21*	.14	.11	.12	.21*
33								-	.19	.23*	-.20	.36*	.14	.35*	.50*	.12	.43*	.54*	.45*	.46*
34									-	.45*	-.06	.18	.20	.31*	.28*	.20*	.41*	.24*	.37*	.30*
35										-	-.04	.17	.26*	.28*	.39*	.40*	.34*	.39*	.45*	.15
36											-	-.36*	.13	-.26	-.47*	.12	-.55*	-.37*	-.37*	-.37*
37												-	.35*	.47*	.30*	.10	.41*	.18	.33*	.16
38													-	.18	-.07	.26*	.08	.16	.20	.01
39														-	.57*	.22	.36*	.44*	.56*	.43*
40															-	.21	.59*	.64*	.73*	.21
41																-	.22*	.29*	.29*	.22*
42																	-	.41*	.63*	.38*
43																		-	.57*	.38*
44																			-	.47*
45																				-
46																				
47																				
48																				
49																				
50																				

Table 1 *Con't* *p<.05

	46	47	48	49	50
26	.39*	.57*	.43*	.29*	.18
27	.55*	.26*	.20*	.21	.25*
28	.43*	.51*	.49*	.35*	.13
29	.05	.22*	.26*	.40*	.23
30	.21*	.49*	.42*	.32*	.27*
31	.43*	.30*	.37*	.26*	.38*
32	.19	.20	.20	-.01	.37*
33	.58*	.32*	.25*	.11	.19
34	.20*	.39*	.38*	.41*	.16
35	.29*	.32*	.52*	.26*	.32*
36	-.21	-.15	-.19	-.31*	-.24*
37	.28*	.18	.22*	.28*	.40*
38	.22	.48*	.24*	.19	.03
39	.40*	.24*	.38*	.14	.56
40	.43*	.19	.42*	.09	.40*
41	.21*	.36*	.27*	.27*	.05
42	.40*	.24*	.42*	.33*	.26*
43	.37*	.32*	.31*	.31*	.31*
44	.36*	.32*	.43*	.30*	.27*
45	.43*	.34*	.29*	.32*	.12*
46	-	.46*	.37*	.14	.15
47		-	.47*	.46*	.28*
48			-	.32*	.45*
49				-	.09
50					-

APPENDIX D

Table 2 *Geomin Rotated Factor Loadings from the RABS (N=105)*

Items	NOTR	COER	GEND	MISI/MISO	SEXP	WOBE	ALCO
Rape can occur between two college students-even if they seem to be a normal couple who are often seen together at parties.	.48[a]						
A lot of people, especially women, are too likely to label a sexual encounter as "rape."	.53[a]		.43[a]	.48[a]			
Women often falsely cry "rape" because they are feeling guilty about having sex, or they want to get back at a man.	.49[a]			.56[a]		.33	
In many cases, if a woman is raped by an acquaintance, she has to take some responsibility for what happened to her.	.50[a]			.49[a]		.34	
Women who commonly frequency "sex atmospheres"-such as bars or fraternity parties-are seemingly advertising their sexual availability.	.55[a]			.50[a]		.47[a]	
It is OK for a man to have sex with a female acquaintance who is drunk.		.41[a]		.32			.62[a]
It is acceptable for men to falsely profess love (or commitment) in order to get what they want from a woman sexually.		.48[a]	.43[a]				
If a woman is unsure about whether she wants sex, it is OK for a man to persist until she flatly says "no."	.36	.52[a]	.33	.49[a]			
If a man and woman are engaged in consensual sexual activity, but the woman says she doesn't want to have sexual intercourse-it is OK for the man to ignore this and go ahead, especially if he uses a condom.		.51[a]		.64[a]			
A good way for a man to get a woman to agree to have sex with him is by spending a lot of money on her.		.35[a]		.39[a]			
If a woman leads a man on by dressing up, dancing with him close, and kissing him-the man is somewhat justified to have sexual intercourse with her, even if she says she doesn't to.	.31	.51[a]		.49[a]			

APPENDIX D (Continued)

Items	NOTR	COER	GEND	MISI/MISO	SEXP	WOBE	ALCO
Being independent, adventurous, and tough are still characteristics that define true masculinity.		.33	.41[a]		.37		
I don't like a lot of the feminist movement is trying to do.			.56[a]				
It is unwise for men to show their emotions.		.34	.45[a]		.32		
I believe that a woman can be whatever they want to be, whether it be president or housewife.		.44[a]	.47[a]	.31			
I don't particularly like men who act in ways that I consider feminine.			.48[a]		.37		
Even in today's world, men should be the sexual initiators.	.34	.33	.62[a]	.32			
Women offer "token resistance" in sexual matters (i.e. they say "no" when they mean "yes") in order to avoid seeming "too easy."		.34	.39[a]				
Certain women are more likely to be raped due to their flirting, teasing, or promiscuous behavior.				.54[a]			
When a woman smiles at, or touches a man-she is probably letting him know that she is sexually interested in him.				.30[a]			
If a woman allows a man to pick up all the expenses for a date, she is probably willing to have sex with him.		.68[a]		.49[a]			
Women who lead men on deserve less sympathy if they are raped.				.50[a]		.36	
If a woman asks a man out on a date, she is probably willing to have sex with him.		.74[a]		.42[a]		.40[a]	
It is an unspoken rule that if a woman willingly goes with a man to some private or secluded place (such as the man's room), that she intends to have sex with him.		.37		.44[a]		.40[a]	

APPENDIX D (Continued)

Items	NOTR	COER	GEND	MISI/MISO	SEXP	WOBE	ALCO
Women who commonly frequent "sex atmospheres"-such as bars or fraternity parties-are seemingly advertising their sexual availability.				.50[a]			
If a woman is going to be raped, she may as well relax and enjoy it.				.36[a]			
The judicial system is too harsh on men in cases of alleged sexual assault, and they do not look enough at women's behavior.			.56[a]	.44[a]			
What people call "date rape" is often just sex that got a little rough.				.63[a]		.31	
A man is somewhat justified to have sex with a woman against her wishes if 1) she willingly entered the man's room, and 20 she is known to have sex with many men before.		.41[a]		.66[a]			
Even today, it is more appropriate for men (rather than women) to hold jobs such as manager, CEO, or president.	.38	.46[a]	.38	.59[a]			
A woman who was forced to have sex with a male acquaintance would probably get over it easier than is she were mugged or beaten up by a stranger.	.31			.67[a]			
Using coercion or physical restraint is a legitimate way to acquire sex from a certain type of woman.				.42[a]			
For college men, there is a constant pressure or expectation to have sex.			.35		.56[a]		
Even today, college men should select a major that will lead to a job in which they can make a lot of money.					.39[a]		
A man's status among his peers would be enhanced if he had sex with a woman who was a known "tease."	.37			.35	.65[a]	.61[a]	
Being sexually active is a measure of manhood.		.66[a]		.36	.60[a]		
Men may as well try to get all the sex they can while they're in college.		.70[a]		.36	.40[a]		

APPENDIX D (Continued)

Items	NOTR	COER	GEND	MISI/MISO	SEXP	WOBE	ALCO
If a man does not have sex while he is in college, people-including women-will think that he is gay.	.32	.45[a]		.33	.46[a]		
Women often make men"jump-through-hoops" in order to agree to have sex with them.				.43[a]	.54[a]		
It is of utmost importance that men be knowledgeable and experienced in sexual matters.					.44[a]		
A man who is sexually active has a better reputation, and is more popular with peers, than a man who is not sexually active.					.67[a]	.30	
Most people don't understand that sexual jokes and innuendoes are only for fun and are harmless.		.37		.43[a]	.48[a]		
A woman can dress if she wants to, drink if she wants to-and not hold any of the blame if she is raped.						.31[a]	
Women need to take responsibility for the attention they attract if they are going to wear sexy clothes.	.39		.43[a]	.31		.45[a]	
Women who drink at parties are giving off a signal that they are more sexually willing, and more sexually available, than women who do not drink at parties.				.43[a]	.38	.65[a]	
Mixing sex and alcohol is dangerous business and should not be done.							.48[a]
Alcohol is a good sexual agent because it relaxes both people involved, frees them from inhibitions, and enhances the sexual experiences.	.49[a]	.30		.42[a]			.32[a]
If a man wants to increase his chances of having sex with a woman, he should get her drunk.				.54[a]			.41[a]
Most sexual activity is seen by both men and women alike as a prelude to intercourse.					.46[a]		.41[a]

Note: NOTR=Not Rape subscale; COER=Coercion subscale; GEND=Gender Role subscale; MISI/MISO=Misinterpretation/Misogyny subscale; SEXP=Sexual Power subscale; WOBE=Women's Behavior subscale; ALCO=Alcohol subscale (Based on decision rules, the WOBE and ALCO subscales were removed).

a.. Salient variables for that factor.