

EXAMINATION OF VICTIM AND PERPETRATOR BLAME IN DATE RAPE
SCENARIOS AND EXPLORATION OF AMBIVALENT SEXISM
SUBTYPES AS PREDICTORS OF MALE AND FEMALE RAPE
MYTHS AMONG A SAMPLE OF COLLEGE STUDENTS

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by
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ABSTRACT

Rape has stereotypically been considered a crime involving a female victim and a male perpetrator. In reality, rape is a traumatic event that is both experienced and perpetrated by men and women. Previous research has focused on examining victim and perpetrator blame in male-on-female and male-on-male date rape scenarios or in sexual assault scenarios (i.e., scenarios not involving penetration) rather than date rape scenarios (Gerber, Cronin, & Steigman, 2004). In addition, benevolent (BS) and hostile (HS) sexism have been examined as predictors of female and male rape myths, although little research has examined which subtypes of BS and HS toward men and women predict male and female rape myths (Chapleau, Oswald, & Russell, 2007, 2008). Therefore, the present study was unique as it examined victim and perpetrator blame in date rape scenarios of all sex pairings, determined if participants with higher benevolent sexism (BS) endorsed more victim and perpetrator blame than low BS counterparts, and

expanded on previous research by examining which subtypes of BS and HS toward men predicted male rape myths, and if BS subtypes and overall HS toward women predicted female rape myths. Two hundred fifty men and women undergraduate students from two Midwestern universities completed survey materials. A multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) demonstrated that men participants endorsed more date rape victim blame (regardless of victim sex) when the perpetrator was male. Also, men participants (not women participants) that endorsed higher BS toward men (but not toward women) endorsed more victim blame. Two hierarchical multiple regressions (MRs) revealed that two of the three BS subscales (i.e., maternalism and complementary gender differentiation) and one of the three HS subscales (i.e., heterosexual hostility) toward men served as significant predictors of male rape myths and that one BS subscale (i.e., complementary gender differentiation) and overall HS toward women accounted for a significant amount of variance in female rape myths. Interpretations, implications, and limitations of the findings are discussed, and recommendations for future research are offered.

APPROVAL PAGE

The faculty listed below, appointed by the Dean of Education, have examined a dissertation titled “Examination of Victim and Perpetrator Blame in Date Rape Scenarios and Exploration of Ambivalent Sexism Subtypes as Predictors of Male And Female Rape Myths among a Sample of College Students” presented by Heather B. Trangsrud, candidate for the Doctor of Philosophy degree, and hereby certify that in their opinion it is worthy of acceptance.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Rape is stereotypically considered to be a crime that is marked by a female victim and a male perpetrator. However, in reality, rape is a traumatic event that is experienced by both men and women and is perpetrated by both men and women. Tjaden and Thoennes (2006) conducted a national survey with 8,000 men and 8,000 women for the Department of Justice in order to gain more comprehensive statistics regarding rape. Using their data from the national survey, Tjaden and Thoennes estimated that one in every six women will be raped at some time in her life and one in every 33 men will be raped at some time in his life, which approximates to roughly 17.7 million women and 2.8 million men in the United States who will be raped at some time in their lives.

In other national surveys and reports conducted for the Department of Justice, additional rape statistics have been examined. These statistics suggest that the majority of female (99.6%) and male rape victims (85.2%) are raped by a male. Females also perpetrate rape, but at a lower rate than males. Specifically, less than 1% of female rape victims and 18.2% of male rape victims are raped by females. Therefore, as would be expected, nearly all arrested and convicted rapists are males (99 of 100; Greenfeld, 1997). Statistics also suggest that most male and female rape victims are assaulted by someone they know (i.e., less than one-fifth of men and women are raped by a stranger) and are

assaulted less than a mile from their residence (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Greenfeld, 1997; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2006).

Rape is usually defined according to the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator. The most frequently researched types of rape are date rape and stranger rape. Date rape, or acquaintance rape, has been defined in the literature as any unwanted sexual contact by a person known by the victim in which penetration occurs (Fisher et al., 2000; Garland, 2005) and is more apt to occur when both the victim and perpetrator have known each other for an extended period of time, are in a remote location, and have been using alcohol (Abbey, McAuslan, Zawacki, Clinton, & Buck 2001; Berkowitz, 1992; Frese, Moya, & Megias, 2004; Mohler-Kuo, Dowdall, Koss, & Wechsler, 2004; Sochting, Fairbrother, & Koch, 2004). Stranger rape has been defined “as an event that occurred without the victim’s consent that involved the use, or threat of, force in vaginal, anal, or oral intercourse” and is perpetrated by a stranger or someone unknown by the victim (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2006, p. 9). Not only does the relationship between the rape victim and rape perpetrator help define the type of rape that has occurred, the presence or absence of a relationship between the rape victim and the perpetrator also influences research findings. For instance, the presence of a relationship (i.e., acquaintanceship, friendship) between a rape victim and perpetrator often results in higher amount of victim blame and more leniency toward the rape perpetrator than in stranger rape scenarios (Frese et al., 2004; Yamawaki, 2007).

Taking into the consideration the high penchant of victim blame in date rape, the present study focused on date rape in order to help address some of the gaps in the

literature. More specifically, the present study examined victim and perpetrator blame in male and female date rape scenarios as well as further examined predictors of rape myths. Since college students lend themselves to situations associated with date rape as described above (Fisher et al., 2000), they were used as the sample population. The remainder of the introduction will define the variables under investigation and introduce the rationale for the present study. Lastly, the purpose for the present study will be described.

Interaction of Rape Myths and Rape Blame

A vast amount of rape research has focused on rape myths. The term “rape myths” was first coined by Burt in 1980 and was defined as stereotyped beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists (Burt, 1980; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). However, more recently, rape myths have been defined as stereotypical beliefs or attitudes that encourage victim blame, diminish perpetrator blame, and deny the emotional and physical significance of rape violence (Garland, 2005; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994).

The majority of rape myth literature has focused on rape myths aimed at women rape victims. Burt (1980) suggested female rape myths include statements such as women who go to men’s homes want to have sex, women who get drunk and have sex with a man at a party are fair game for other men who want to have sex, women falsely report rape because they want attention, promiscuous women are more likely to be raped, and women who dress provocatively are asking to be raped. Payne, Lonsway, and Fitzgerald (1999) revealed seven main female rape myths when they developed the Illinois Rape

Myth Acceptance Scale. These female rape myths include the following: (a) victims ask to be raped, (b) victims want to be raped, (c) rape incidents aren't really rape, (d) perpetrators don't plan to rape the victim, (e) victims lie about being raped, (f) rape is a minor incident, and (g) rape is deviant. Other female rape myths include that the majority of rape cases are untrue, rape only happens to "bad" women, and when a woman says "no" she really means "yes" (Garland, 2005).

Researchers have also begun to focus on identifying male rape myths (Anderson, 1999; Coxell & King, 1996; Garland, 2005; Pino & Meier, 1999; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992). Male rape myths include statements such as men are too strong to be raped or cannot be raped, men who are raped lose their masculinity, men are rarely raped, rape is less traumatic for men than for women, and that men are only raped in prison (Anderson, 1999; Garland, 2005; Pino & Meier, 1999; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992). Additional male rape myths focus on women's ability to perpetrate rape or men's physical reaction of an erection and include: (a) men cannot be sexually assaulted by women, (b) penile erections are consent for sexual intercourse/rape, or (c) erections are not possible when a woman rapes a man (Anderson, 1999; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992). Other male rape myths focus on the sexual orientation of the perpetrator and/or the victim. For instance, some individuals believe that all male rape victims who are perpetrated by men are gay or have portrayed themselves to be gay, and that male perpetrators who assault men are gay (Coxell & King, 1996).

Although much of the rape myth literature has focused on identifying rape myths, rape myth research has also focused on determining how rape myths affect the amount of blame placed on rape victims and rape perpetrators. Results have suggested that individuals who have higher rape myth acceptance are more likely to blame rape victims, less likely to blame the rape perpetrator, and more frequently consider rape to be less traumatic than individuals who have lower rape myth acceptance (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). However, the research examining rape victim and rape perpetrator blame has been limited as typically this line of research has investigated blame assigned in scenarios with women victims and men perpetrators or when both the victim and perpetrator were men (Gerber et al., 2004). In addition, it has been widely accepted and assumed that perpetrator and victim blame was assigned due to sex of the perceiver. Specifically, researchers have suggested that men blame female victims more than male perpetrators and women blame male perpetrators more than female victims (Langsley et al., 1991).

Gerber et al. (2004) examined victim and perpetrator blame in reaction to sexual assault scenarios (i.e., no penetration occurred but rather the perpetrator bit the victim) in which the victim and perpetrator varied by sex. Results suggested that men students, as compared to women students, perceived sexual assault perpetrators (regardless of perpetrator's sex) as less deserving of blame and both men and women participants blamed the perpetrator (regardless of perpetrator's sex) more when the victim was a woman. Results also suggested that both men and women students perceived female victims as less responsible for the sexual assault than male victims and men students did not blame the victim (regardless of victim's sex) more than the women students. In the

present study, I attempted to replicate Gerber et al.'s study; however, I examined victim and perpetrator blame in date rape scenarios (i.e., victim and perpetrator know each other and the assault is marked by penetration) in which the victim and perpetrator were either male or female. I also examined if benevolent sexism toward men and women (described below) impacted the blame assigned to the victim and the perpetrator.

Ambivalent Sexism as Rape Myths Predictor

In addition to determining how rape myths affect blame assigned in rape or sexual assault situations, much literature has focused on identifying predictors of rape myth acceptance. Demographic characteristics such as sex, occupation, age, and race have been the most common predictors of rape myth acceptance to be examined. Research suggests that men are more accepting of rape myths than are women (Chapleau, Oswald, & Russell, 2008; Garland, 2005; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). In addition, police officers tend to be more accepting of rape myths than are mental health professionals and nurses (Campbell, 2005; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). However, research focused on other demographic characteristics such as age, race, previous rape victimization, knowing someone who has been raped, or homophobia has been mixed (Aosved & Long, 2006; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994).

One predictor of rape myth acceptance that has been examined more recently is ambivalent sexism. Ambivalent sexism (AS) is twofold and includes: (a) hostile sexism (HS), or negative resentful feelings aimed toward persons because of their sex, and (b) benevolent sexism (BS), or affectionate, chivalrous feelings that are potentially

patronizing (Brehm, Kassin, & Fein, 2005; Glick & Fiske, 1996). The concept of ambivalent sexism was coined by Glick and Fiske (1996, 1999) as research suggested that stereotypical attitudes toward men and women are not always negative (i.e., women are inept or men are aggressive) and could be formed in reaction to positive gender qualities. For instance, if men and women are not proficient with skills typically associated with their sex (i.e., women are not emotionally supportive or men are not strong and competent), they may be recipients of benevolent sexism. In accordance with previous research, Glick and Fiske hypothesized that AS encompassed hostile and benevolent components in the areas of social power, gender identity, and sexuality.

Ambivalent Sexism toward Women

Glick and Fiske (1996) proposed that AS (e.g., HS and BS) are comprised of three constructs -- paternalism, gender differentiation, and heterosexuality -- and each has a hostile component and a benevolent component (see Figure 1 for an illustration of AS toward women). Paternalism includes both dominative (HS) and protective (BS) paternalism. Dominative paternalism proposes that women are not competent adults and are subservient to men whereas protective paternalism suggests that women are cherished and need to be protected as they are needed for reproduction. Gender differentiation is comprised of competitive (HS) and complementary (BS) gender differentiation. Competitive gender differentiation implies that only men have traits needed for success and results in the degradation of women; complementary gender differentiation suggests that men and women complement each other in regard to their abilities (i.e., women are

good at housework whereas men are good at yard work or earning an income).

Heterosexuality encompasses heterosexual hostility (HS) and heterosexual intimacy (BS).

Heterosexual hostility entails the desire for men to dominate women whereas

heterosexual intimacy necessitates that men and women desire psychological closeness.

AS toward women can be experienced by both men and women.

Ambivalent Sexism toward Men

Glick and Fiske (1999) also proposed that AS, including HS and BS, can be directed at men. They suggest that AS toward men is comprised of the same three constructs as AS aimed toward women. These three constructs -- paternalism, gender differentiation, and heterosexuality -- can be placed on a HS/BS dyad slightly different than AS toward women (see Figure 2 for an illustration of AS toward men). For instance, paternalism includes resentment of paternalism (HS) and maternalism (BS). Resentment of paternalism implies that individuals may resent men for their “father-like” role which may lead to hostile competition, whereas maternalism suggests that men are weak and need to be nurtured. Gender differentiation encompasses compensatory (HS) and complementary (BS) gender differentiation. Compensatory gender differentiation is marked by the characterization of men as inferior or being associated with negative traits. Complementary gender differentiation entails the acknowledgement that there is a power differential between men and women and therefore men are respected for their male status and power. Heterosexuality includes heterosexual hostility (HS) and heterosexual attraction (BS). Heterosexual hostility is the resentment of male sexual aggressiveness

and paternalism in close relationships, whereas heterosexual attraction suggests that women need men to be happy. As with the AS toward women, AS toward men may be exhibited by both men and women.

Research has focused on the relationship between female rape myth acceptance (i.e., endorsement of rape myths aimed at female rape victims) and AS toward women (Chapleau et al., 2007). Results demonstrated that overall HS (e.g., total HS and not the HS subtypes of paternalism, gender differentiation, and heterosexuality) toward women was the strongest predictor of female rape myth endorsement in both men and women college student participants and that overall BS (e.g., total BS and not the BS subtypes of paternalism, gender differentiation, and heterosexuality) was also associated with female rape myths for both men and women participants. In addition, research has examined which subscales (i.e., paternalism, gender differentiation, and heterosexuality) of BS predicted female rape myth acceptance (Chapleau et al., 2007). Results suggested that high complementary gender differentiation ($\beta = .07, t = 2.98, p < .01$) and low protective paternalism ($\beta = -.06, t = -2.20, p < .01$) predicted higher female rape myths endorsement. Researchers have not examined which subtypes of HS predict female rape myths as HS was demonstrated to be a unitary construct, and therefore, the subscales are not sufficient to be used in such a manner (Chapleau et al., 2007; Glick & Fiske, 1996).

More recently, Chapleau, Oswald, and Russell (2008) examined if overall HS and overall BS toward men predicted male rape myths (i.e., rape myths aimed at male rape victims) in a sample of university students. Results suggested that overall BS toward men was a predictor of male rape myths such that as BS increased, so did endorsement of

male rape myths. However, overall HS was not a predictor of male rape myth endorsement. They suggested that these findings were in line with research on female rape myths in that overall BS predicts rape myth endorsement. However, they suggested that overall HS may predict rape proclivity. Researchers have not examined which specific subtypes of HS and BS predicted male rape myths although the subscales for BS and HS toward men have been deemed viable (Chapleau et al., 2008; Glick & Fiske, 1999).

Although researchers have examined if AS (i.e., HS and BS) is associated with rape myths, only a limited number of studies have further examined which subtypes of HS and BS predict rape myth acceptance. Specifically, given that HS toward women was determined to be a unitary construct, researchers have examined which subtypes of BS toward women predict female rape myths but not much research has focused on replicating the findings. Also, researchers have not examined which subtypes of HS and BS toward men predict male rape myths. Hence, in the present study, I extended the existing literature by verifying whether overall HS toward women and BS toward women subtypes predicted female rape myths. In addition, the present study was unique as I examined which subscales of BS and HS toward men predict male rape myths.

Purpose

In an attempt to address the gaps in the rape literature described throughout this introduction, the present study purposes were four-fold: (a) examine if men and women college students differ in the amount of victim blame they assign to a vignette when the

victim and perpetrator vary by sex (e.g., male-on-female, male-on-male, female-on-female, female-on-male) and determine if BS toward women and BS toward men impacts victim blame, (b) examine if men and women college students differ in the amount of perpetrator blame they assign to a vignette when the victim and perpetrator vary by sex (e.g., male-on-female, male-on-male, female-on-female, female-on-male) and determine if BS toward women and BS toward men impacts perpetrator blame, (c) determine how much of the variance in male rape myths is accounted for by subscales of HS and BS toward men, and (d) determine how much of the variance in female rape myths is accounted for by overall HS and subscales of BS toward women.

Figure 1. Ambivalent Sexism Toward Women.

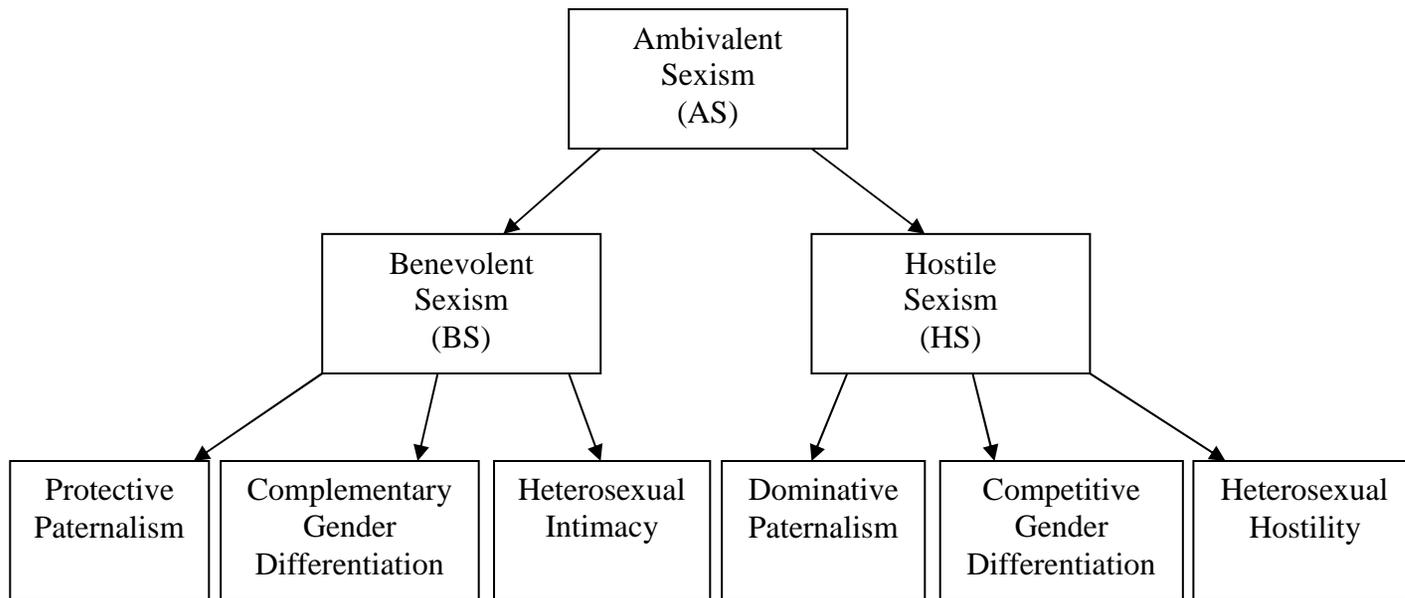
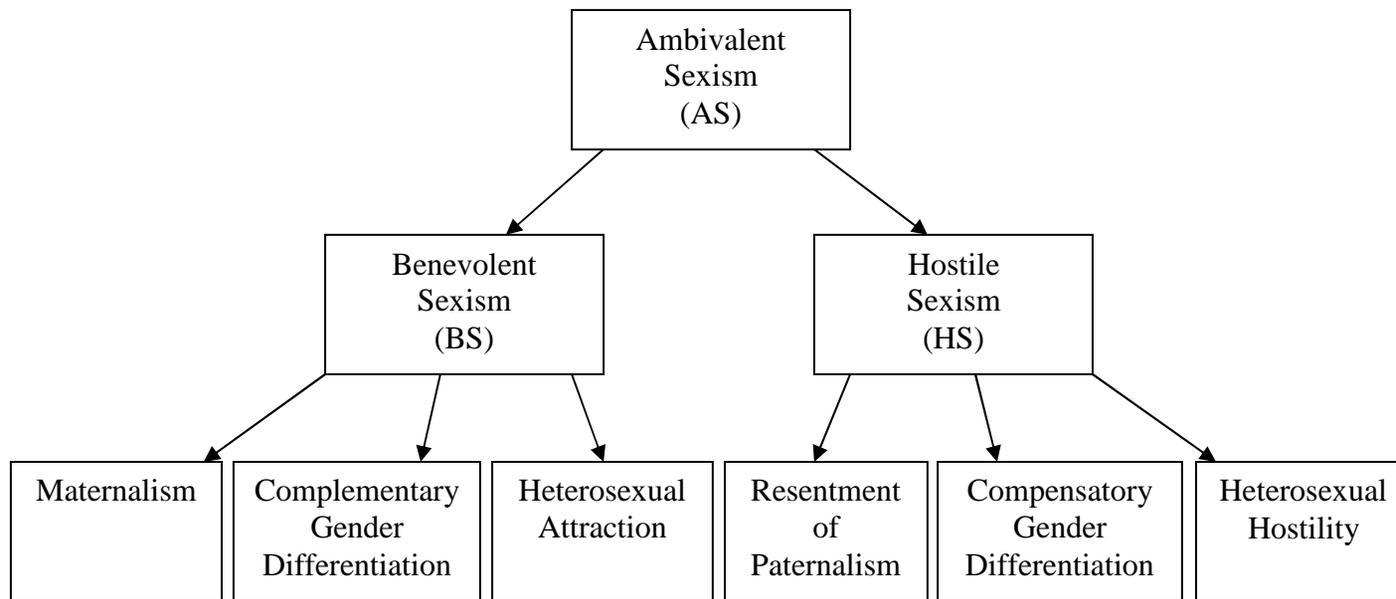


Figure 2. Ambivalent Sexism Toward Men.



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature demonstrated that there was a need for empirical research which addressed whether victim and perpetrator blame differed in reaction to date rape scenarios when victim and perpetrator were varied by sex. There was also a need for research that verified if overall HS and subtypes of BS toward women predicted female rape myths and determined if subtypes of HS and BS toward men predicted male rape myths. The following literature review will therefore introduce the concept of date rape, discuss rape myths and their interaction or influence on rape blame, and review predictors of rape myth acceptance.

Date Rape

In the rape literature, rape is usually defined according to the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator. The most frequently researched types of rape are date rape and stranger rape. Date rape or acquaintance rape (the type of rape that was the focus of the present study) has been defined in the literature as any unwanted sexual contact by a person known by the victim in which penetration occurs (Fisher et al., 2000; Garland, 2005), whereas stranger rape has been defined as “an event that occurred without the victim’s consent that involved the use, or threat of, force in vaginal, anal, or oral

intercourse” and is perpetrated by a stranger or someone unknown by the victim (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2006, p. 9).

Although the terms date and stranger rape are highly recognized in the rape literature, it is important to note that the legal system may use different terms to define sex crimes such as rape or sexual assault (Gerber, Cronin, & Seligman, 2004; Gifis, 2008). Furthermore, the sex crime terms may vary from state to state (Gerber et al., 2004; Gifis, 2008). For instance, some states only recognize rape (i.e., unwanted sexual contact in which penetration occurs) as a gender-specific crime that is marked by a female victim and a male perpetrator (Gerber et al., 2004; Gifis, 2008). Due to such gender-biased language, some states have begun to recognize that rape may include a male victim and/or a female perpetrator or use the more gender-neutral term of sexual assault which is marked by any unwanted sexual contact by another person (Gerber et al. 2004; Gifis, 2008).

Researchers have demonstrated that date rape against women is completed at a higher rate on college campuses (90%; Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000) than it is within the general population (67%; Catalano, 2005). Therefore, much research has been focused on identifying the risk factors that campuses breed. Some of the risk factors unique to college campuses include frequent contact between men and women students (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000), sexual experimentation (Sochting, Fairbrother, & Koch, 2004), drug and alcohol consumption (Berkowitz, 1992, Mohler-Kuo, Dowdall, Koss, & Wechsler, 2004), and the presence of both fraternities and sororities that lend to private

living quarters or secluded areas (Berkowitz, 1992; Sochting, Fairbrother, & Koch, 2004).

Kuo et al. (2004) revealed that college women who are intoxicated are nearly two times more likely to experience date rape than women who are sober. Similarly, women who have used illicit drugs are approximately four and a half times more likely to be victimized than their non-drug using peers. In addition, their research indicated that college women in sororities and those who live in dorms are more prone to experience date rape than women who live off-campus. Also, college women who live in sororities and in dorms are three times and one and a half times, respectively, more likely to be victimized (Mohler-Kuo, et al., 2004). However, even if precautions are taken by college women to remain cognizant of their surroundings and to avoid the use of drugs or alcohol, college women may still be victimized as most women are raped by someone they have known for at least one year (Berkowitz, 1992).

In addition to external risk factors (i.e., college campuses), many researchers have attempted to characterize or profile women who are at risk for date rape. Such research has characterized college women who have experienced date rape as single, minority, and of lower socioeconomic status (Sochting, Fairbrother, & Koch, 2004). Additional characteristics of date rape victims include women who exhibit a pattern of self-blame, endorse rape myths, lack assertiveness or communication skills, endorse traditional gender roles, and have skills less honed to perceive danger. Women exhibiting emotional difficulties who live in a sorority, and who have experienced prior sexual abuse or

victimization are also descriptive of women who are at risk for date rape (Sochting, Fairbrother, & Koch, 2004).

Unfortunately, researchers have overlooked men rape victims and much less is known about this population. Statistics suggest that similar victimization patterns are consistent across men and women rape victims. Tjaden and Thoennes (2006) conducted a national survey with 8,000 men and 8,000 women for the Department of Justice in order to gain more comprehensive statistics regarding rape. Using their data from the national survey, Tjaden and Thoennes estimated that one in every six women will be raped at some time in her life and one in every 33 men will be raped at some time in his life. Such rates of victimization approximates to roughly 17.7 million women and 2.8 million men in the United States who will be raped at some time in their lives.

Other national surveys and reports conducted for the Department of Justice, revealed that nearly all female rape victims (99.6%) and the majority of male rape victims (85.2%) are raped by a male, whereas, less than 1% of female rape victims and an astounding 18.2% of male rape victims are perpetrated by a female. Most male and female rape victims are assaulted by someone known by the victim and are victimized less than a mile from their home (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Greenfeld, 1997; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2006). Also, less than one-fifth of men and women are raped by a stranger (Greenfeld, 1997). In addition, arrested and convicted rapists are typically Caucasian (6 of 10) men (99 of 100) and are in their early thirties (Greenfeld, 1997).

Since the date rape literature suggests that college campuses and college students lend themselves to situations associated with date rape as described above (Abbey,

McAuslan, Zawacki, Clinton, & Buck 2001; Berkowitz, 1992; Frese, Moya, & Megias, 2004; Mohler-Kuo, Dowdall, Koss, & Wechsler, 2004; Sochting, Fairbrother, & Koch, 2004), college students were used as the sample population in the present study. Another aim of the present study was to contribute to the research on men rape victims.

Interaction of Rape Myths and Rape Blame

Rape Myths

Rape myths are defined as stereotypical beliefs or attitudes that encourage victim blame, diminish perpetrator blame, and deny the emotional and physical significance of rape violence (Garland, 2005; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Initially, most of the rape myth literature focused on identifying rape myths aimed at women rape victims. Burt (1980) conducted seminal research in the identification of rape myths aimed at women. Her research revealed female rape myths which include statements such as women who go to men's homes want to have sex, women who get drunk and have sex with a man at a party are fair game for other men who want to have sex, women falsely report rape because they want attention, promiscuous women are more likely to be raped, and women who dress provocatively are asking to be raped. Payne, Lonsway, and Fitzgerald (1999) have also aimed to identify female rape myths. Their research efforts revealed seven main female rape myths which are aimed at the female rape victim as well as at the perpetrator. These female rape myths include the following: (a) victims ask to be raped, (b) victims want to be raped, (c) rape incidents aren't really rape, (d) perpetrators don't plan to rape the victim, (e) victims lie about being raped, (f) rape is a minor incident, and

(g) rape is deviant. Other researchers have identified other female rape myths that include misconceptions that the majority of rape cases are untrue, rape only happens to “bad” women, and that when a woman says “no” she really means “yes” (Garland, 2005).

More recently, research has also focused on identifying male rape myths. Male rape myths include statements such as men are too strong to be raped or cannot be raped, men who are raped lose their masculinity, men are rarely raped, rape is less traumatic for men than for women, and that men are only raped in prison (Anderson, 1999; Garland, 2005; Pino & Meier, 1999; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992). Other male rape myths focus on women’s ability to perpetrate rape or men’s physical reaction of an erection and include: (a) men cannot be sexually assaulted by women, (b) penile erections are consent for sexual intercourse/rape, or (c) erections are not possible when a female rapes a man (Anderson, 1999; Struckman-Johnson, 1992). Additionally, male rape myths focus on the sexual orientation of the perpetrator and/or the victim. For instance, some folks believe that all male rape victims who are perpetrated against by a man are gay or have portrayed themselves to be gay and that male perpetrators who assault men are gay (Coxell & King, 1996).

Rape myths may be perpetuated in a couple of ways. First, rape myths are often reinforced by the media or judicial system (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). To investigate the role that the media plays in perpetuating rape myths, Franiuk, Seefeldt, and Vandello (2008) had two raters examine 555 rape headlines from online news resources surrounding the Kobe Bryant rape allegation trial. Results suggested nearly 10% of the headlines that were examined included language endorsing rape myth acceptance. For

example, the headlines most often used language that endorsed rape myths such as “the victim was lying” or that “she wanted sex” as well as referred to the victim as an accuser versus alleged victim. Furthermore, when Franiuk et al. exposed 154 Midwestern university undergraduate students to newspaper headlines that were infused with rape myth supportive or rape myth neutral language, both men and women university students supported attitudes which reinforced female victim blame and relieved the male perpetrator. This pattern was even greater after the men and women students were exposed to headlines with rape myth supportive language than rape myth neutral language. In addition, this pattern was more evident in men students than women students. Due to their findings, Franiuk et al. warned that it is essential that the media and the judicial system monitor the language they use when presenting information pertaining to rape cases as exposure to rape myths may serve to strengthen biased beliefs and result in decreased critical thinking.

Second, rape myths are also perpetuated via the cognitive processes individuals use to perceive and interpret the behaviors of others. Specifically, rape myths serve as mental protectors for non-victims and reinforce the belief-in-a-just-world theory. The belief-in-a-just-world theory is defined as “...the belief that individuals get what they deserve in life...” and is an “...orientation that lead people to disparage victims...” (Brehm, Kasson, & Fein, 2005, p. 116). In regard to rape, the belief-in-a-just-world theory is demonstrated when an individual thinks that if he or she behaves in a positive or good fashion, his or her good behavior will protect them from being raped whereas actual rape

victims must have behaved in a bad manner and therefore set themselves up to be raped (Garland, 2005).

Sinclair and Bourne (1998) conducted a study that illustrated how the judicial system and the belief-in-a-just-world may influence rape myth acceptance and therefore determine the responsibility a victim and perpetrator have in an instance of sexual assault or rape. Specifically, Sinclair and Bourne examined whether summaries of rape jury trials had an effect on rape myth endorsement and level of empathy for the rape victim. They instructed 96 men and women college students to read a summary of either a rape trial with a guilty verdict, a not guilty verdict, or without a verdict and then had them complete instruments measuring rape myths and victim empathy. Type of verdict alone did not affect rape myth endorsement or level of victim empathy across men and women participants. However, sex of the participants did influence rape myth acceptance and level of victim empathy in that women college students endorsed fewer rape myths and exhibited more victim empathy than men college students across all verdicts. Men endorsed more rape myths and less victim empathy across all verdicts. When closely looking at the women students' responses across verdict conditions, the results indicated that the women students displayed higher rape myth acceptance after the guilty verdict summaries than the not guilty and no verdict summaries and demonstrated high victim empathy across all three verdict summaries. Sinclair and Bourne conjectured that the women's findings offered support for the belief-in-a-just world theory in that higher rape myth acceptance followed a guilty verdict summary as the guilty verdict suggested the woman was bad or participated in behavior that lead to the rape. In addition, when

looking at the results for men across verdict conditions, men college students displayed higher rape myth acceptance and less victim empathy after the not guilty verdict summaries than the guilty and no verdict summaries. Sinclair and Bourne hypothesized that the men's pattern of results offered support for how easily the judicial system may influence endorsement of rape myth acceptance as the men's results changed due to the verdict (i.e., A not guilty verdict was interpreted by the men to mean that the perpetrator not guilty and should not be blamed for the rape, but rather that the victim should be blamed for the rape; A guilty verdict was interpreted by the men to mean that the perpetrator was guilty for the rape and therefore the women was not to blame).

To summarize, research focused on identifying rape myths has suggested that different rape myths are endorsed when the victim is a woman versus a man (Anderson, 1999; Burt, 1980; Coxell & King, 1996; Garland, 2005; Payne et al., 1999; Pino & Meier, 1999; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992). In addition, there are various ways in which rape myths are maintained which contributes to victim and perpetrator blame (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). For instance, rape myths may be maintained and encourage victim or perpetrator blame by the way in which rape cases are presented to the public by the media or judicial system (Franiuk, et al., 2008). Rape myths are also perpetuated when individuals endorse either a belief-in-a-just-world or cycle of blame (Sinclair & Bourne, 1998). Women typically demonstrate a belief-in-a-just-world and men typically demonstrate a cycle of blame. The belief-in-a-just-world is associated with victim blame whereas the cycle of blame may be associated with either victim or perpetrator blame.

Rape Blame

Rape blame as a function of victim and perpetrator relationship. Researchers have attempted to determine if the type of relationship between the victim and the perpetrator influenced the amount of victim and perpetrator blame perceived in a sexual assault or rape scenario. Sheldon-Keller, Lloyd-McGarvey, West, and Canterbury (1994) explored whether type of relationship the rape victim and perpetrator had affected participants' perception of victim and perpetrator responsibility for the rape. They had 2060 university students read either a scenario in which a male friend raped a woman friend or in which a boyfriend raped his long-term girlfriend and then had them respond to questions assessing whether they considered the victim or the perpetrator as more responsible for the rape incident. Results demonstrated that men (as compared to women) university students considered the perpetrator in the long-term relationship as less responsible for the rape incident than the perpetrator in the friendship scenario and the victim in the long-term relationship as more responsible for the rape incident than the victim in the friendship scenario. Sheldon-Keller et al. speculated that the men students believed that the perpetrator in the long-term scenario was entitled to sexual relationship with his partner whereas the victim was perceived as having less of a right to say no to sex. Said in another way, although long-term relationships should be marked with increased safety and security, the men students perceived that the males in the scenarios were more entitled to sexual intercourse in long-term relationships versus short-term relationships or friendships. Also, victims were not supposed to decline sexual advances in a long-term relationship versus a short-term relationship or friendship.

In related research, Frese, Moya, and Megias (2004) investigated whether type of rape scenario (i.e., date rape, stranger rape, and marital rape) impacted participants' perception of victim responsibility, perpetrator responsibility, psychological impact of the rape on the victim, and value of reporting the rape to the police. Participants were 182 Spanish university students who were assigned to read a date, stranger, or marital rape scenario in which the victim was always a female and the perpetrator was always a male. Participants were then instructed to respond to questions regarding victim responsibility, perpetrator responsibility, impact of rape on the victim, and worthiness to report the rape to the police. Examination of type of rape scenario (i.e., date, stranger, marital) suggested that men and women university students (regardless of female rape myth acceptance) perceived less victim responsibility and higher psychological trauma in the stranger rape scenario than the date or marital rape scenarios. Frese et al. suggested that victim blame decreased and higher psychological trauma was perceived for the stranger rape scenario, but not the date or marital rape scenarios, because the rape situation was not as ambiguous as the other two scenarios so the participants depended less on their attitudes (i.e., rape myth acceptance).

Rape blame as a function of higher rape myth acceptance. Frese et al. (2004), as described above, also demonstrated that higher rape myth endorsement predicted victim and perpetrator blame. Findings suggested that both men and women university students with higher female rape myth acceptance attributed more responsibility (i.e., blame) to the victim, less responsibility to the perpetrator, perceived the rape as less

psychologically traumatizing, and were less prone to support reporting the rape incident to the police than university students who endorsed fewer female rape myths across date, stranger, and marital rape scenarios. Frese et al. suggested that rape myth endorsement predicts victim and perpetrator blame but failed to provide a supposition for this part of the results.

Other research has demonstrated results similar to Frese et al. (2004) and theorized reasons for why higher endorsement of female rape myths may predict victim and perpetrator blame (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Mason, Riger, & Foley, 2004). Mason et al. (2004) instructed 157 men and women university students from a southern university to read a date rape vignette in which the victim was female and the perpetrator was male and then respond to questions regarding female rape myths, victim blame, and whether or not the vignette was actually a date rape. Results suggested that men and women students who endorsed higher female rape myth acceptance were more likely to support that the male perpetrator was entitled to sexual contact, were likely to see less need for police intervention, perceived that the female victim had more control and more responsibility for the date rape, and were less likely to consider the situation a rape than individuals with low female rape myth acceptance. Mason et al. concluded that these results were due to participants' high endorsement of female rape myths from a specific subscale on the female rape myth measure that was used in their study. Specifically, high endorsement of female rape myths from the adversarial sex beliefs subscale (i.e., beliefs suggesting that men and women are antagonist toward each other) appeared to play a large role in the participants' support that the male perpetrator was entitled to sex, there

was less need for police intervention, the female victim had more control and more responsibility for the date rape, and the scenario not considered a rape. However, the rape myth subscale (i.e., female rape myths such as women like to be raped) and interpersonal violence subscale (i.e., myths focused on whether physical violence in a relationship is acceptable or if the use of physical force for sex is tolerable) played smaller roles in the findings. Therefore, Mason et al. suggested that rape education programs should focus on challenging adversarial sex belief myths.

Rape blame as a function of perceiver. In addition to suggesting that higher rape myth acceptance is associated with blaming the rape victim, the rape blame literature also has suggested that victim and perpetrator blame is assigned due to sex of the perceiver such that men blame female victims more than male perpetrators and women blame male perpetrators more than female victims (Langsley et al., 1991). To test this notion, Johnson, Kuck, and Schander (1997) examined if men and women endorsed more rape myths that were focused on blaming the female rape victim or excusing the male perpetrator. They had 149 men and women university students from a southern university complete questionnaires that inquired about their demographics, female rape victim blame, and male rape perpetrator immunity. Findings suggested that the men and women university students endorsed the excuse perpetrator myths more than the blame victim myths. Johnson et al. conjectured that perpetrators were excused as the majority of students endorsed rape myth items which suggested that rape perpetrators are unable to control their sexual urges or are mentally ill and that suggested that rape victims are able

to overtake their attacker. When examining sex differences, men students as compared to women students were more accepting of victim blame. Johnson et al. speculated that men were more likely to endorse victim blame myths versus perpetrator myths because they could identify with the perpetrator as the perpetrator was a male.

Donovan (2007) also assessed if sex of the perceiver influenced rape blame. She had 213 men and women college students attending an eastern university assign victim and perpetrator blame in response to a faux police report depicting a sexual assault in which the perpetrator was a male and the victim was a female. Results indicated that men students perceived perpetrators as less responsible for their behavior and blamed the victims more due to her promiscuous behavior than did the women students. Donovan speculated that men students identified with the male which is why they were more lenient with the perpetrators and placed more blame on the female victims whereas the women students related to the potential for rape victimization which is why they placed less blame on the female victim.

Similar results were demonstrated by Smith, Pine, and Hawley (1988). However, their research was unique in that they investigated which stereotypical beliefs (i.e., rape myths) were endorsed in cases of male-on-female, male-on-male, female-on-female, and female-on-male sexual assault. They hypothesized that female-on-male sexual assault victims (i.e., female perpetrator and male victim) versus male-on-female, male-on-male, or female-on-female sexual assault victims would incur more victim blame. To test their hypotheses, 166 men and women university students were presented with a stranger sexual assault scenario in which the perpetrator and the victim were either a male or

female (i.e., male-on-female, male-on-male, female-on-female, female-on-male) and then responded to questions on a response scale assessing victim blame. Results suggested that the university students blamed the victim as more responsible for the assault when the victim was a male and the perpetrator was a female as compared to the other victim/perpetrator combinations. Men students tended to place more blame on rape victims (regardless of victim sex) than women students and blamed male rape victims more than female rape victims. Smith et al. theorized that male victims of female perpetrator sexual assault were blamed more as men are considered to be the initiators of sexual acts and seen as more interested in sexual acts. They further suggested that women participants may have assigned less blame across all conditions as they identified with or empathized with the victim or being victimized.

Although many rape blame researchers suggest that blame is assigned due to the sex of the perceiver, Gerber, Cronin, and Seligman (2004) asserted that blame may be due to other factors. Specifically, they hypothesized that men would blame victims more as they would identify with the perpetrator more (regardless of perpetrator sex) and that women would blame perpetrators more as they would identify with the victim more (regardless of sex) due to the power differential that is present between men and women in today's society. To test their hypotheses, they examined victim and perpetrator blame in reaction to sexual assault scenarios (i.e., sexual acts that result in physical harm such as being bitten but is not marked by penetration) in which the victim and perpetrator varied by sex. They had 147 urban college students from a large university read one of four scenarios (e.g., male-on-female sexual assault, male-on-male sexual assault, female-on-

female sexual assault, and female-on-male sexual assault) and then participants were instructed to answer questions regarding victim and perpetrator blame. Results from Gerber et al. demonstrated that men participants as compared to women perceived perpetrators (regardless of perpetrator sex) as less deserving of blame. They interpreted these findings to mean that sex of the perpetrator or victim was not the most important factor in assigning victim and perpetrator blame. Instead, they speculated that men placed less blame on the perpetrator because men perceived the perpetrator as more powerful which they may identify with since men typically benefit from male privilege or power in today's society. In addition, Gerber et al. offered that women placed less blame on the victim as women may identify with the possibility of being a victim. Results also revealed that both men and women participants perceived female victims as less responsible for the assault than male victims. Gerber et al. suggested that men and women participants may place more blame for a sexual assault on male versus female victims because rape education programs have typically focused on debunking female rape myths and challenged individuals about blaming female rape victims for their trauma.

To summarize, the research presented on rape blame indicates that female rape victims are blamed less for the rape when they are assaulted by a male stranger versus a male they know and male perpetrators are blamed less for the rape when the perpetrator has a relationship with the female victim (Sheldon-Keller et al., 1994; Frese et al., 2004). Also, higher rape myth acceptance in men and women (versus low rape myth acceptance) predicts higher victim blame and exoneration of the rape perpetrator in rape incidents in

which the victims is a female and the perpetrator is a woman (Frese et al., 2004; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Mason, Riger, & Foley, 2004). Furthermore, rape blame research has suggested that men tend to blame rape victims more than perpetrators for a rape or sexual assault whereas women tend to blame the perpetrator more (Langsley et al., 1991).

Researchers are mixed in their interpretations for such findings as some researchers only examined rape incidents in which there was a male perpetrator and a female victim while other researchers examined sexual assault incidents in which both the perpetrator and victim varied by sex. Hence some researchers speculated that blame is assigned due to sex of the perceiver whereas other researchers offered that men identify with the powerful role of perpetrator which leads to less perpetrator blame and women identify with the less powerful role of victim which leads to less victim blame (Donovan, 2007; Gerber et al., 2004; Smith et al., 1988).

Ambivalent Sexism as Rape Myths Predictor

Sexism has typically been defined as mistreatment toward an individual due to their biological sex or hostility toward women. The literature has suggested that higher endorsement of rape myths is associated with such negative or stereotyped attitudes toward women (Aosved & Long, 2006; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). For instance, traditional beliefs and machismo, as well as tolerance of interpersonal violence, have also been found to predict higher acceptance of rape myths (Aosved & Long, 2006; Lonsway & Fitzgerald). Recently, a new, more specific term for sexism was coined -- ambivalent sexism (AS). Glick and Fiske (1996, 1999) developed the term AS in reaction to research

that suggested sexist or stereotypical attitudes toward men and women were not always negative (i.e., women are weak/incompetent or men are domineering/hostile) and could be based on positive associated with an individual's sex. For instance, women often are sought out for emotional support by men and women or men are often credited with being strong and competent; therefore, if women or men are not skilled in such areas, they may be recipients of benevolent sexism (i.e., they don't live up to positive gender traits). Glick and Fiske (1996) theorized that AS encompasses hostile and benevolent components of social power, gender identity, and sexuality. Hence, the AS toward women and AS toward men measures that they developed comprised of three constructs: paternalism, gender differentiation, and heterosexuality (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Glick and Fiske, 1999). Each of the three constructs has a hostile (HS) and benevolent (BS) component (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Glick & Fiske, 1999). Researchers have attempted to determine if ambivalent sexism better predicts rape myths than the traditional sexism measures that were used in the past.

Ambivalent Sexism toward Women

Glick and Fiske (1996) proposed that AS toward women is comprised of three constructs -- paternalism, gender differentiation, and heterosexuality -- and each has a hostile component (HS) and a benevolent component (BS; see Figure 1 in the Introduction for an illustration). Paternalism includes both dominative (HS) and protective (BS) paternalism. Dominative paternalism suggests that women are incompetent and are acquiescent to men whereas protective paternalism infers that

women are to be cherished and protected by men as they are needed for reproduction. Gender differentiation is comprised of competitive (HS) and complementary (BS) gender differentiation. Competitive gender differentiation implies that only men are supposed to be successful which results in the degradation of women; complementary gender differentiation suggests that men and women are egalitarian. Heterosexuality encompasses heterosexual hostility (HS) and heterosexual intimacy (BS). Heterosexual hostility entails that men desire domination over women whereas heterosexual intimacy necessitates that men and women desire psychological closeness. AS aimed at women may be expressed by both men and women.

Ambivalent Sexism and Female Rape Myths

Some of the research focused on AS and rape myth acceptance has exclusively examined for a relationship between AS and female rape myths acceptance. For example, Chapleau, Oswald, and Russell (2007) examined the relationship between female rape myth acceptance and AS toward women (e.g., overall HS and overall BS) in 409 men and women college students. The men and women students completed female rape myth acceptance and AS toward women measures to determine if HS or BS predicted rape myths as previous research on rape blame had suggested (see Abrams, Viki, Masser, & Bohner, 2003 which is discussed below). Results demonstrated that HS toward women was the strongest predictor of female rape myths in men and women participants and that BS toward women was also associated with female rape myths for both men and women participants. These findings replicated previous studies (Abrams et al., 2003; Aosved &

Long, 2006; Sakall-Urgulu, Yalcin, & Glick, 2007). In addition to exploring if overall HS and overall BS toward women predicted female rape myths, Chapleau et al. were interested in examining which subscales of paternalism, gender differentiation, and heterosexuality from the benevolent component of AS toward women predicted female rape myth acceptance. They only examined if the subscales of BS toward women predicted female rape myths as factor analyses demonstrated the three BS subscales were valid whereas HS toward women did not have valid subscales and was deemed a unitary construct (Chapleau et al., 2007; Glick & Fiske, 1996). Results suggested that high complementary gender differentiation ($\beta = .07, t = 2.98, p < .01$) and low protective paternalism ($\beta = -.06, t = -2.20, p < .01$) predicted higher female rape myths endorsement. Chapleau et al. speculated that complementary gender differentiation predicted female rape myths as rape victims were perceived to have violated stereotypical female behavior and thus were responsible for the rape due to their behavior or choice of dress. Protective paternalism was negatively associated with female rape myths. Chapleau et al. hypothesized that perpetrator blame increased as endorsement of female rape myths decreased because men are perceived to be protectors of women and therefore should not exploit women.

Researchers have also investigated if AS predicts female rape myth acceptance in individuals from non-Westernized countries. Sakaii-Ugurlu et al. (2007) examined predictors of rape myths in Turkish undergraduate university students. Specifically, Sakii-Ugurlu et al. were interested in determining if AS (e.g., hostile and benevolent sexism), belief-in-a-just-world, and rape victim empathy served as predictors for female

rape myths. Results indicated that men students endorsed more rape myths, higher HS toward women, and lower rape victim empathy than did women. In addition, higher BS toward women, higher HS toward women, and higher belief-in-a-just-world predicted higher female rape myth acceptance in both men and women students whereas higher rape victim empathy in men and women participants predicted less rape myth acceptance. Sakaii-Urgurlu et al. concluded that predictors of rape myths from the Western world can be applied to non-Western places as their non-Western results were similar to results from the Western world. Furthermore, they speculated that BS toward women amplified stigmatization of women and rape more than HS toward women did which may have contributed to their findings. Furthermore, they offered that the endorsement of the belief-in-a-just-world may contribute to the re-victimization of rape victims and that encouraging rape victim empathy may decrease victim blame.

Ambivalent Sexism toward Men

Glick and Fiske (1999) further proposed that AS may be aimed at men. They suggested that AS toward men is comprised of the same three constructs as AS aimed toward women. These three constructs consist of a hostile and benevolent component of paternalism, gender differentiation, and heterosexuality but are slightly different than the HS and BS constructs of AS aimed at women (see Figure 2 in the Introduction for an illustration). Paternalism aimed at men includes resentment of paternalism (HS) and maternalism (BS). Resentment of paternalism implies that individuals may resent or be hostile with men for their “father-like” role whereas maternalism suggests that men are

weak and need to be cared for by women. Gender differentiation encompasses compensatory (HS) and complementary (BS) gender differentiation. Compensatory gender differentiation suggests men are inferior or are seen as negative. Complementary gender differentiation entails the acknowledgement that men and women experience different levels of power and men are often respected more as they have more power than women. Heterosexuality includes heterosexual hostility (HS) and heterosexual attraction (BS). Heterosexual hostility is the resentment aimed at men for their sexual aggressiveness and paternalism in close relationships whereas heterosexual attraction suggests that women need men to be happy or complete. As with AS toward women, AS aimed at men may be expressed by both men and women.

Ambivalent Sexism and Male Rape Myths

Only one study has examined if AS toward men serves as a predictor of male rape myths. Chapleau, Oswald, and Russell (2008) examined predictors of male rape myths with 423 Midwestern college students. Participants completed a male rape myth acceptance measure along with an AS toward men measure. The subtypes of BS and HS were not examined as predictors of male rape myths, only their total scores were considered in the analyses. Results suggested that overall BS toward men was a predictor of male rape myths such that as BS increased, so did endorsement of male rape myths. However, overall HS was not a predictor of male rape myth endorsement. Chapleau et al. suggested that these findings are in line with research on female rape myths in that

overall BS predicts rape myth acceptance. Since HS was not found to be a predictor of male rape myths, Chapleau et al. speculated that HS may predict rape proclivity.

Ambivalent Sexism and Rape Blame

In other related research, AS has also been linked to determination of rape blame. Such research is pertinent to the present study as rape blame is impacted by the rape myths that individuals endorse and can therefore serve as information about how AS may relate to rape myth acceptance (Garland, 2005; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). For instance, Yamawaki (2007) determined that BS toward women was a significant moderator of female rape victim blame and male perpetrator responsibility. In particular, individuals high in BS (versus individuals low in BS) blamed the female rape victim more and excused the male rapist more in reaction to a date rape scenario. Yamawaki suggested that individuals high in BS blame female date rape victims because they violated their traditional roles.

Other studies that focused on AS and rape blame suggest that individuals high in BS toward women (versus individuals low in BS) blame female date rape victims more and blame male date rape perpetrators less. Furthermore, these studies also concluded that HS toward women is unrelated to female victim or male perpetrator blame in instances of date rape (Viki & Abrams, 2002; Viki, Abrams, & Masser, 2004). Consequently, researchers have proposed that BS toward women may be a better predictor of female victim blame and HS toward women may be a better predictor of rape proclivity (Abrams et al., 2003).

Abrams et al. (2003) investigated whether BS and HS toward women predicted the amount of victim blame and rape proclivity. They had 176 English college students respond to rape blame and rape proclivity questions following either a date or stranger rape scenario both of which had a female victim and a male perpetrator. Results revealed that both men and women students who had higher BS toward women (as compared to low BS toward women) endorsed more victim blame in the date rape scenario but not the stranger rape scenario. In addition, results suggested that men with high HS toward women (as compared to men with low HS toward women) predicted higher rape proclivity for the date rape scenario but not the stranger rape scenario. Abrams et al. suggested that these results offered evidence that there are different processes in play in regard to victim blame and rape proclivity. Specifically, they concluded that BS toward women allows an individual to preserve his or her belief-in-a-just-world whereas HS toward women offers rationalization of date rape proclivity in men.

To summarize, the research presented on AS as a predictor of rape myths indicated that higher BS and HS toward women predicts higher female rape myth acceptance in both Western and non-Western cultures (Chapleau et al., 2007; Sakaii-Ugurlu et al., 2007). In addition, two specific subscales of BS toward women predicted female rape myths -- complementary gender differentiation and protective paternalism (Chapleau et al., 2007). Specifically, higher perceptions of men and women as egalitarian predicted higher female rape myth acceptance, and higher perceptions that women are to be protected and cherished predicted lower female rape myth acceptance. Research presented also suggests that BS toward men predicts male rape myths, but that HS toward

men does not (Chapleau et al., 2008). Furthermore, previous research suggests higher BS toward women predict higher female victim blame and lower male perpetrator blame whereas HS toward women may best predict male rape proclivity (Abrams et al., 2003; Viki & Abrams, 2002; Viki, Abrams, & Masser, 2004).

Rationale

Much research has focused on establishing who is considered to be more responsible in situations of rape and sexual assault, but the focus has typically been investigated when the victim was a female and the perpetrator was a male (Abrams et al., 2003; Donovan, 2007; Frese et al., 2004; Mason et al., 2004; Sheldon-Keller et al., 1994; Viki & Abrams, 2002; Viki et al., 2004; Yamawaki, 2007). However, rape and sexual assault statistics suggest that there is also a fair amount of rape and sexual assault incidents that involve men and women victims. Statistics also imply that rape and sexual assault are perpetrated by both men and women (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Greenfeld, 1997; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2006). These statistics suggest there is a gap in the literature surrounding sexual assault and rape blame as such traumatic events may result in the victimization of men and women by both men and women perpetrators rather than only involving women victims and men perpetrators. Some researchers have attempted to address this gap. For example, researchers have demonstrated that men perceive rape perpetrators (regardless of perpetrator sex) as less deserving of blame than do women and that both men and women participants perceive female victims as less responsible for a sexual assault than male victims (Gerber et al., 2004; Smith et al., 1988). However, these

studies examined victim and perpetrator blame in cases of sexual assault and not in cases of rape. Therefore, a gap is still present in the literature which I have attempted to address. Specifically, I expanded on the literature by examining victim and perpetrator blame in date rape scenarios in which the victim and perpetrator are either male or female rather than only focusing on instances of rape involving women or men victims and men perpetrators and by focusing on date rape rather than sexual assault. I also examined whether BS toward women and BS toward men impacts victim and perpetrator blame.

There is also a large amount of research on predictors of rape myths. One predictor that has recently received attention is that of ambivalent sexism. Researchers have demonstrated that AS (i.e., HS and BS) is associated with rape myths (Abrams et al., 2003; Aosved & Long, 2006; Chapleau et al., 2007, 2008; Sakall-Urgulu et al., 2007; Viki et al., 2004; Yamawaki, 2007; Yamawaki, Darby, & Queiroz, 2007). Although researchers have examined if AS (i.e., HS and BS) are associated with rape myths, only a limited number of studies have further examined which subtypes of HS and BS predict rape myth acceptance. Specifically, given that HS toward women was determined to be a unitary construct via factor analyses, researchers have examined which subtypes of BS toward women predict female rape myths but not much research has focused on replicating the findings. Also, researchers have not examined which subtypes of HS and BS toward men predict male rape myths. Hence, in the present study, I have attempted to expand the existing literature by verifying whether overall HS toward women and BS toward women subtypes predict female rape myths. In addition, the present study was

unique as I examined which subscales of BS toward men and HS toward men predict male rape myths.

Purpose, Hypotheses, and Research Questions

In an attempt to expand on the rape literature, the present study aim was four-fold: (a) examine if men and women college students differ in the amount of victim blame they assign to a vignette when the victim and perpetrator vary by sex (e.g., male-on-female, male-on-male, female-on-female, female-on-male) and determine if BS toward women and BS toward men impacts victim blame, (b) examine if men and women college students differ in the amount of perpetrator blame they assign to a vignette when the victim and perpetrator vary by sex (e.g., male-on-female, male-on-male, female-on-female, female-on-female) and determine if BS toward women and BS toward men impacts perpetrator blame, (c) determine how much of the variance in male rape myths is accounted for by subscales of HS and BS toward men, and (d) determine how much of the variance in female rape myths is accounted for by overall HS and subscales of BS toward women. Specifically, the following hypotheses and research question were offered to address the study purposes:

1. In accordance with previous research, I hypothesized that men students would blame the date rape victim more than women students regardless of victim sex and that participants with higher BS toward women and men would blame the date rape victim more than participants with low BS toward women and men.

2. In accordance with previous research, I hypothesized that men students would blame the perpetrator less than women students regardless of perpetrator sex and that participants with higher BS toward women and men would blame the date rape perpetrator more than participants with low BS toward women and men.
3. Due to the absence of research examining which subtypes of HS and BS toward men predict male rape myths, I explored which subscales of HS and BS account for the variance in male rape myths.
4. In accordance with previous research, I hypothesized that overall HS toward women and the complementary gender differentiation and protective paternalism subscales of BS toward women will account for the most variance in female rape myths.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

Participants

Non-probability convenience sampling was employed in the present study. Specifically, convenience sampling was used because college students are readily available to participate in research. In addition, a college population was appropriate because college students lend themselves to investigating situations associated with date rape. Following permission from instructors, men and women undergraduates attending two Midwestern universities were invited to participate in the present study. Two hundred fifty-eight participants completed the study materials, but eight were not included in the analyses due to missing data or because they were outliers (see preliminary analyses section for further information). Therefore, 250 participants (113 men, 137 women) comprised the sample. The average age of participants was 22.66 ($SD = 5.43$, ranging from 18-57). Participants were Caucasian ($n = 193$), Asian/Asian American ($n = 11$), African American ($n = 25$), Hispanic ($n = 11$), and Native American ($n = 2$) undergraduate students. Eight participants identified their racial/ethnic background as “other.” The majority of participants were in their junior year in college ($n = 105$), and the remaining participants were in their first-year ($n = 21$), sophomore ($n = 67$), or senior ($n = 54$) year in college; three participants did not indicate their year in college. Participants comprised various college majors including, but not limited to:

Education, Engineering, Nursing, and Psychology. Some participants were undecided in their major. The majority of participants were not in a serious relationship ($n = 106$) at time of participation. Other participants identified as being in a committed relationship ($n = 83$), living with a partner ($n = 26$), married ($n = 27$), separated ($n = 1$), divorced and single ($n = 3$), divorced and in a relationship ($n = 2$), or remarried ($n = 1$). Most participants identified as heterosexual or primary heterosexual ($n = 235$) with the remaining participants identifying as bisexual ($n = 7$) or gay/lesbian or primarily gay/lesbian ($n = 6$). More than a third of participants had a friend who had been raped ($n = 110$). A limited number of participants had a family member who had been raped ($n = 47$) and an even smaller number reported that they had been raped ($n = 23$). See Table 1 for a break-down of demographic information, including percentages.

Table 1

Demographic Information of Sample Participants

Demographic Variable	<i>n</i>	Percent (%)
University		
Land-Grant Midwest University (81 men; 29 women)	110	44.0
Urban Midwest University (32 men; 108 women)	140	54.0
Sex		
Men	113	45.2
Women	137	54.8
Race/Ethnicity		
Caucasian	193	77.2
African American	25	25.0
Asian	11	4.4
Hispanic	11	4.4
Native American	2	0.8
Other	8	3.2
College Year		
First Year	21	8.4
Sophomore	67	26.8
Junior	105	42.0
Senior	54	21.6
Not Indicated	3	1.2
Relationship Status		
No Serious Relationship	106	42.4
Committed Relationship	83	33.2
Live with Partner	26	10.4
Married	27	10.8
Separated	1	0.4
Divorced & Single	3	1.2
Divorced & New Relationship	2	0.8
Remarried	1	0.4

Table Continues

Demographic Variable	<i>n</i>	Percent (%)
Sexual Orientation		
Heterosexual/Primarily Heterosexual	235	94.0
Gay or Lesbian/Primarily Gay	6	2.4
Bisexual	7	2.8
Friend Rape Occurrence		
Yes	110	44.0
No	140	56.0
Family Rape Occurrence		
Yes	47	18.8
No	203	81.2
Self Rape Occurrence		
Yes	23	9.2
No	227	90.8

Note. *n* = 250.

Measures

Date Rape Vignettes

I developed four date rape vignettes in which both the victim and the perpetrator were varied by sex (i.e., male-on-female, male-on-male, female-on-female, female-on-male). One vignette was presented to each participant and was used to assign victim and perpetrator blame. Date rape has been defined in the literature as any unwanted sexual contact by a person known by the victim and in which penetration occurs (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000) and is more apt to occur when both the victim and perpetrator have known each other for a period of time, are in a remote location, have been using alcohol, and when the victim is provocatively dressed (Abbey, McAuslan, Zawalki, Clinton, & Buck, 2004; Berkowitz, 1992; Frese, Moya, & Megias, 2004; Mohler-Kuo, Dowdall,

Koss, & Wechsler, 2004; Sochting, Fairbrother, & Koch, 2004). Therefore, the date rape vignettes were developed with these criteria in mind (see Appendices D-G).

The vignettes were examined for face validity by mental health professionals specializing in the treatment of rape victims and perpetrators, as well as, mental health professionals who were actively involved in the gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgender (GLBT) community. Following their examination, these mental health professionals deemed the vignettes to be realistic accounts of date rape sex pairings with good face validity.

Victim and Perpetrator Blame

Following each of the date rape vignettes, 19 items assessing victim and perpetrator blame were presented using a Likert scale to determine how much the participant agreed with the statement (see Appendices D-G). The Likert scale ranged from 1 to 7 (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree). Higher scores on the victim blame items indicated higher levels of victim blame and higher scores on the perpetrator blame items indicated higher perpetrator blame. Specifically, Items 1 through 9 were used to assess victim blame and were based on victim blame items from Abrams, Viki, Masser, and Bohner (2003), Gerber, Cronin, and Steigman (2004), and Langhinrichsen-Rohling and Monson (1998); these items were reworded to assess the rape portrayed in the vignette and the names were changed to the names of the rape victim and perpetrator in the vignette. Items 10 through 18, which were based on

perpetrator blame items from Abrams et al. (2003) and Gerber et al. (2004), were used to assess perpetrator blame. As with the victim blame items, the perpetrator blame items (i.e., Items 10-18), were reworded to assess the rape portrayed in the vignettes and to incorporate the names of the rape victim and perpetrator. The last item was used to determine if the participants judged the vignette as having face validity. This item was based on an item from Langhinrichsen-Rohling and Monson and was reworded to ask about rape rather than sexual assault.

The six (of six) victim blame items from Gerber et al. (2004), which informed the victim blame items 2-7 for the present study, demonstrated an excellent Cronbach's alpha of .92. The six (of six) perpetrator blame items, which were also from Gerber et al. and informed the perpetrator blame items 11-16 for the present study, also demonstrated an excellent Cronbach's alpha of .92. The four victim blame items from Langhinrichsen-Rohling and Monson (1998), two of which were used in the present study (i.e., Items 8 and 9), demonstrated an adequate alpha reliability coefficient of .64 (DeVellis (2003) offered that an alpha of this level would be considered adequate as this was the pilot of this measure and because shorter measures often have lower alphas. DeVellis also suggested that a coefficient of .65 is deemed "minimally acceptable" but that this terminology is arbitrary). In addition, Langhinrichsen-Rohling and Monson utilized four rape items (i.e., items assessing the physical/emotional impact of rape and what constituted a rape) in their study which demonstrated a good alpha reliability coefficient of .82; one of these four items was used in the present study to assess face validity (i.e., Item 19). No reliability information was offered for the two (of seven) victim and

perpetrator blame items from Abrams et al. (2003), which informed the victim and perpetrator blame items 1 and 10 in the present study. I developed the remaining two perpetrator blame items (Items 17 and 18 in the present study) to correspond with two victim blame items that were used in Langhinrichsen-Rohling and Monson’s measure.

Face validity of vignettes. Responses to the face validity item (i.e., Item 19 of the blame questions included in Appendices D-G) were examined to assess whether participants considered the vignettes to be realistic accounts of date rape. As described above, the item was scored on a Likert scale which ranged from 1 to 7 (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree). Means and medians suggested that participants deemed the vignettes to be face valid. See Table 2 for means, standard deviations, and medians across the four vignettes.

Table 2

Face Validity Means and Medians Across Four Date Rape Vignettes

Vignette	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Median
Male Perpetrator/Female Victim	58	5.41	1.50	6
Male Perpetrator/Male Victim	65	5.74	1.30	6
Female Perpetrator/Male Victim	62	5.11	1.69	5
Female Perpetrator/Female Victim	65	5.22	1.31	5

Victim blame. Exploratory factor analyses were conducted to determine if the victim blame items were unidimensional; four criteria were used to determine

dimensionality: eigenvalues, variance, scree plots, and residuals. In addition, reliability and validity of the victim blame items were examined prior to being used in the primary analyses.

An exploratory factor analysis using principal factors extraction and direct oblim rotation was performed on the nine victim blame items. After rotation, two factors were extracted using the Kaiser criterion. The first factor accounted for 47.98% of variance and the second factor accounted for an additional 12.06% of variance. See Table 3 for factor loadings. Due to these findings, only the seven items that comprised the first factor of the analysis were used to measure victim blame in the primary analyses. The seven victim blame items demonstrated a good Cronbach's alpha of .87.

Table 3

*Exploratory Factor Analysis Loadings for Victim Blame Items using Principal Factors
Extraction and Direct Oblim Rotation*

	Loading
Factor 1	
Victim was at fault for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario (Item 5)	.89
Victim was to blame for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario (Item 6)	.88
Victim's behavior was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario (Item 4)	.85
Victim's character was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario (Item 3)	.83
Overall, victim was most responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario (Item 7)	.80
Victim acted carelessly in the described scenario (Item 2)	.53
Victim had control over the events that occurred in the described scenario (Item 1)	.46
Factor 2	
Victim was obligated to have sex with perpetrator (Item 8)	.78
Victim was interested in having sex with perpetrator (Item 9)	.55

Perpetrator blame. Exploratory factor analyses were conducted to determine if the perpetrator blame items were reflective of a unitary construct. Four criteria were used to determine dimensionality: eigenvalues, variance, scree plots, and residuals. In addition, reliability and validity of the perpetrator blame items were examined prior to being used in the primary analyses.

An exploratory factor analysis using principal factors extraction and direct oblim rotation was performed on the nine perpetrator blame items. After rotation, two factors

were extracted using the Kaiser criterion. The first factor accounted for 40.75% of variance and the second factor accounted for an additional 13.67% of variance. See Table 4 for factor loadings. Due to these findings, only the seven items that comprised the first factor of the analysis were used to measure perpetrator blame in the primary analyses. The seven perpetrator blame items demonstrated a good Cronbach's alpha of .88.

Table 4

Exploratory Factor Analysis Loadings for Perpetrator Blame Items using Principal Factors Extraction and Direct Oblim Rotation

	Loading
Factor 1	
Perpetrator was at fault for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario (Item 14)	.85
Perpetrator was to blame for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario (Item 15)	.83
Overall, perpetrator was most responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario (Item 16)	.77
Perpetrator's behavior was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario (Item 13)	.76
Perpetrator's character was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario (Item 12)	.72
Perpetrator had control over the events that occurred in the described scenario (Item 10)	.53
Perpetrator acted carelessly in the described scenario (Item 11)	.49
Factor 2	
Perpetrator was justified in believing that victim would have sex with him/her (Item 17)	.81
Perpetrator was less interested in having sex with victim than he/she was in dominating him/her (Item 18)	-.66

Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale-Short Form (IRMA-SF)

The IRMA-SF (Short-Form) was developed by Payne, Lonsway, and Fitzgerald (1999). This measure consists of 20 items developed to assess general rape myths aimed toward women (i.e., 17 items with 3 filler items not meant to be scored). Payne et al. suggested that the IRMA-SF should be used to assess general rape myths (i.e., one-dimensional construct) whereas the full-length IRMA may be used to measure overall rape myths acceptance, as well as, the various facets of rape myth acceptance. The seven facets or factors found by Payne et al. for the full-length IRMA were: (1) “She asked for it” (SA), (2) “Wasn’t really rape” (NR), (3) “He didn’t mean to” (MT), (4) “She wanted it” (WI), (5) “She lied” (LI), (6) “Rape is a trivial event” (TE), and (7) “Rape is a deviant event” (DE). Example items from the IRMA-SF include “Many women secretly desire to be raped” and “When women are raped, it’s often because the way they said ‘no’ was unclear.” Items were scored on a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree) with higher total scores indicating higher rape myth acceptance. The IRMA-SF was normed on men and women university students and demonstrated good internal consistency of .87 (internal consistency for the full-length IRMA was .93). Good convergent validity was demonstrated as the IRMA-SF correlated with the Sex-Role Stereotyping Scale (.52), Sexism Scale (.60), Adversarial Sexual Beliefs Scale (.72), Adversarial Heterosexual Beliefs Scale (.61), Hostility Toward Women Scale (.56), Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence Scale (.67), and Attitudes Toward Violence Scale (.47). Individuals with higher scores on the IRMA-SF also were more likely to hold more traditional gender roles, believed that the sexes related in conflict, demonstrated more

hostile attitudes toward women, and were more accepting of interpersonal and general violence. Men typically scored higher than women and police officers scored higher than rape advocates on both the full-length IRMA and IRMA-SF.

An exploratory factor analysis using principal factors extraction forcing extraction of one factor was performed on the 17 female rape myth items (i.e., the 3 filler items were not included in the factor analysis) from the IRMA-SF. The IRMA-SF has frequently been treated in the literature as a one-dimensional construct (e.g., Chapleau, Oswald, & Russell, 2008; Chapleau, Oswald, & Russell, 2007; Loh, Gidycz, Lobo, & Luthra, 2005; Newcombe, Van Den Eynde, Hafner, & Jolly, 2008). Similarly, the scale developers have provided data (i.e., structural equation modeling) to support the IRMA-SF as a one-dimensional construct (Payne et al, 1999). Results of the EFA for the present study demonstrated that the items accounted for 34.17% of variance of the one factor model. See Table 5 for the factor loadings. The IRMA-SF demonstrated a Cronbach's alpha of .87 in the present study which suggested good reliability. Given the evidence in the literature that supports the IRMA-SF as a one-dimensional construct and the good reliability found for the IRMA-SF in the present study, total scores were used in the primary analyses. See Appendix H for a copy of the IRMA-SF.

Table 5

*Exploratory Factor Analysis Loadings for IRMA-SF Items using Principal Factors**Extraction and Forcing 1 Factor*

	Loading
Factor 1	
A lot of women lead a man on and then they cry rape (Item 12)	.75
A woman who teases men deserves anything that may happen (Item 13)	.70
Women tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them (Item 11)	.67
When women are raped, it's often because they way they said no was unclear (Item 14)	.65
Although most women wouldn't admit, they generally like being physically forced to have sex (Item 2)	.64
If a woman doesn't physically fight back, you can't really say that it was rape (Item 5)	.63
Many women secretly desire to be raped (Item 4)	.62
Usually, only women who dress sexy are raped (Item 8)	.61
If a woman is willing to make out with a guy, then it's no big deal if he goes a little further and has sex with her (Item 3)	.60
A woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex (Item 16)	.56
Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at men (Item 7)	.56
Men don't usually intend to force sex on a woman, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away (Item 15)	.54
If the rapist doesn't have a weapon, you really can't call it a rape (Item 9)	.53
A woman who is raped while she is drunk is at least somewhat responsible (Item 1)	.49
Rape is unlikely to happen in a woman's own neighborhood (Item 10)	.48
Men from nice middle-class homes almost never rape (Item 6)	.42
Rape happens when a man's sex drive gets out of control (Item 17)	.36

Struckman-Johnson and Struckman-Johnson Male Rape Myths Scale (MRMS)

The MRMS, developed by Struckman-Johnson and Struckman-Johnson (1992), consists of 12 items developed to assess rape myths aimed at men and was based on measures of female rape myths. Example items include “Even a big, strong man can be raped by another man” and “It is impossible for a woman to rape a man.” Items were scored on a graded-response scale ranging from 1 to 6 (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = moderately disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = slightly agree, 5 = moderately agree, 6 = strongly agree) with higher scores indicating higher rape myth acceptance. Psychometrics were not examined by the scale developers. However, Chapleau, Oswald, and Russell (2008) determined that the MRMS correlated with the IRMA ($r = .58$) and that men who completed the MRMS demonstrated more support of male rape myths than women.

An exploratory factor analysis using principal factors extraction and forcing extraction of one factor was performed on the 12 male rape myth items from the MRMS. Results demonstrated that the items accounted for 37.37% of variance. See Table 6 for factor loadings. Initial Cronbach’s alpha for the MRMS in the present study was .42 which suggested poor reliability. However, Cronbach’s alpha for the MRMS increased to .83 when the items that had negative loadings in the factor analysis were reverse scored. Reverse scoring of these items also resulted in a better fit between items and the graded-response scale. Total scores using reverse scoring were used for the primary analyses. See Appendix I for a copy of the MRMS.

Table 6

*Exploratory Factor Analysis Loadings for MRMS Items using Principal Factors**Extraction and Forcing 1 Factor*

	Loading
Factor 1	
Most men who are raped by a woman are somewhat to blame for not escaping or fighting off the women (Item 10)	.80
Most men who are raped by a man are somewhat to blame for not escaping or fighting off the man (Item 4)	.80
Most men who are raped by a woman are somewhat to blame for not being more careful (Item 9)	.78
Most men who are raped by a woman do not need counseling after the incident (Item 12)	.73
Most men who are raped by a man are somewhat to blame for not being more careful (Item 3)	.71
Most men who are raped by a woman are very upset by the incident (Item 11)	-.70
Most men who are raped by a man do not need counseling after the incident (Item 6)	.66
Most men who are raped by a man are very upset by the incident (Item 5)	-.43
It is impossible for a woman to rape a man (Item 7)	.37
Even a big, strong man can be raped by another man (Item 2)	-.36
Even a big, strong man can be raped by a woman (Item 8)	-.34
It is impossible for a man to rape a man (Item 1)	.29

Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI)

The ASI is a 22-item measure developed by Glick and Fiske (1996) that assesses two constructs of ambivalent sexism aimed at women -- benevolent sexism (BS) and hostile sexism (HS). BS is comprised of three subscales (i.e., protective paternalism, complementary gender differentiation, and heterosexual intimacy). Example items

include “In a disaster, women ought not necessarily to be rescued before men” (protective paternalism), “Many women have a quality of purity that few men possess” (complementary gender differentiation), and “People are often truly happy in life without being romantically involved with a member of the opposite sex” (heterosexual intimacy). HS subscales were not deemed to be viable. Specifically, Glick and Fiske conducted factor analyses (i.e, exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses) to determine if HS subtypes were supported. Their results revealed that HS was a unidimensional construct; therefore only overall HS is measured with the ASI. An example item of overall HS includes “Women are too easily offended.” Items were scored on a graded response scale ranging from 0 to 5 (0 = strongly disagree, 1 = somewhat disagree, 2 = slightly disagree, 3 = slightly agree, 4 = somewhat agree, 5 = strongly agree) with higher average scores indicating higher endorsement of sexism. Six items were reverse scored. Six studies were conducted with four university student samples and two nonstudent samples to determine internal consistency. Results suggested good alpha reliability coefficients for hostile sexism (.83-.92), benevolent sexism (.73-.85), and total ambivalent sexism (.83 - .92). As expected, Glick and Fiske’s hypothesis that men would endorse more ambivalent sexism – especially hostile sexism – than women was supported. The HS subscale demonstrated convergent validity with other measures of sexism but BS did not. However, this was expected as the BS construct had not been assessed by previous measures. Predictive validity demonstrated that total ASI was related to ambivalence toward women, HS predicted negative attitudes toward and stereotypes of women, and BS predicted positive attitudes toward women.

Glick and Fiske (1996) examined which subscales of BS emerged and were empirically supported. Factor analyses suggested that the BS subscale was comprised of three subtypes. Each of the BS subscales demonstrated strong factor loadings on the overall BS construct across six studies. Protective paternalism demonstrated factor loadings of .92-.98, complementary gender differentiation demonstrated factors loadings ranging between .72-.92, and heterosexual intimacy demonstrated factor loadings ranging between .72-.79. BS subscales and the overall constructs of BS and HS demonstrated intercorrelations ranging from .37-.98 suggesting that these subscales and constructs measured different aspects of related concepts.

An exploratory factor analysis using principal factors extraction and direct oblim rotation was performed on the 22 ambivalent sexism toward women items. Four factors were forced for extraction in an attempt to replicate the four constructs demonstrated by Glick and Fiske (1996). Results demonstrated that the four factors accounted for 51.71% of variance and factor structure close to that reported by Glick and Fiske was found. The present study factor structure yielded two BS factors and two HS factors; the BS items identified by Glick and Fiske loaded with other BS items and the HS items loaded with other HS items. See Table 7 for factor loadings (the factor that the item loaded on in the Glick and Fiske study is indicated in the parentheses). Although the present study factor structure yielded two BS factors and two HS factors rather than three BS factors and one HS factor, the overlapping of BS items and limited number of items ($n = 3$) that loaded on the second HS factor in the present study still lend some support to the initial factor structure found by Glick and Fiske. Due to the emergence of a factor structure in the

present study that was close to the factor structure found by Glick and Fiske, the use of various exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses used by Glick and Fiske, the strong theoretical base offered by Glick and Fiske, and the use of Glick and Fiske's factor structure in the literature (e.g., Chapleau, Oswald, & Russell, 2007) the present study will use the subscales identified by Glick and Fiske in the primary analyses.

Table 7

*Exploratory Factor Analysis Loadings for ASI Items using Principal Factors Extraction
and Direct Oblim Rotation Forcing 4 Factors*

	Loading
Factor 1	
Women are too easily offended (HS; Item 5)	.80
Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist (HS; Item 4)	.76
Women exaggerate problems they have at work (HS; Item 14)	.74
Once a woman gets a man to commit to her, she usually tried to put him on a tight leash (HS; Item 15)	.73
Many women are actually seeking special favors, such as hiring policies that favor them over men, under the guise of asking for equality (HS; Item 2)	.67
When women lose to men in a fair competition, they typically complain about being discriminated against (HS; Item 16)	.67
Women seek to gain power by getting control over men (HS; Item 11)	.64
Most women fail to appreciate fully all that men do for them (HS; Item 10)	.56
Factor 2	
Women, compared to men, tend to have superior moral sensibility (BS-CGD; Item 19)	.73
Men should be willing to sacrifice their own well being in order to provide financially for the women in their lives (BS-PP; Item 20)	.72
Women, as compared to men, tend to have a more refined sense of culture and good taste (BS-CGD; Item 22)	.67
Many women have a quality of purity that few men possess (BS-CGD; Item 8)	.66
A good woman should be set on a pedestal by her man (BS-PP; Item 17)	.63
In a disaster, women ought not necessarily to be rescued before men (BS-PP; Item 3)	.58
Women should be cherished and protected by men (BS-PP; Item 9)	.50

Table Continues

	Loading
<hr/>	
Factor 3	
No matter how accomplished he is, a man is not truly complete as a person unless he has the love of a woman (BS-HI; Item 1)	.83
Men are complete without women (BS-HI; Item 13)	.71
Every man ought to have a woman whom he adores (BS-HI; Item 12)	.71
People are often truly happy in life without being romantically involved with a member of the other sex (BS-HI; Item 6)	.60
Factor 4	
Feminists are making entirely reasonable demands of men (HS; Item 21)	.74
There are actually very few women who get a kick out of teasing men by seeming sexually available and then refusing male advances (HS; Item 18)	.67
Feminists are not seeking for women to have more power than men (HS; Item 7)	.67

Good Cronbach's alphas for hostile sexism, benevolent sexism, and total ambivalent sexism were demonstrated in the present study; alphas were .86, .73, and .87, respectively. The reliability of the benevolent sexism subscales were adequate and were as follows: protective paternalism (.69), complementary gender differentiation (.70) and heterosexual intimacy (.71). See Appendix J for a copy of the ASI.

Ambivalence Toward Men Inventory (AMI)

The AMI is a 20-item measure developed by Glick and Fiske (1999) that assesses two constructs of ambivalent sexism aimed at men -- benevolence toward men (BM aka BS) and hostility toward men (HM aka HS) each having three subscales (i.e., paternalism, gender differentiation, and heterosexuality). The three BM subscales are maternalism, complementary gender differentiation, and heterosexual intimacy. Example

items include “Even if both members of a couple work, the woman ought to be more attentive to taking care of her man at home” (maternalism), “Men are more willing to take risks than women” (complementary gender differentiation), and “Women are incomplete without men” (heterosexual intimacy). The three HM subscales are resentment of paternalism, compensatory gender differentiation, and heterosexual hostility. Example items include “Men will always fight to have greater control in society than women” (paternalism), “When it comes down to it, most men are really like children” (compensatory gender differentiation), and “A man who is sexually attracted to a woman typically has no morals about doing whatever it takes to get her in bed” (heterosexual hostility). Items were scored on a graded response scale ranging from 0 to 5 (0 = strongly disagree, 1 = somewhat disagree, 2 = slightly disagree, 3 = slightly agree, 4 = somewhat agree, 5 = strongly agree) with higher average scores indicating higher endorsement of ambivalence (i.e., sexism) toward men. Three studies were conducted with two university student samples and one nonstudent sample to determine internal consistency (Glick & Fiske, 1999). Good alpha reliability coefficients were yielded for HM (.81-.86), BM (.79-.83), and overall AS (.83 - .87). Women scored higher on HM and lower on BM than men in all samples. The AMI demonstrated good convergent validity with other measures that examined attitudes toward men for both men and women and with the ASI (.68-.70 for men, .70-.85 for women; Glick & Fiske, 1999).

Glick and Fiske (1999) examined which subscales of BM and HM emerged and were empirically supported. Factor analyses suggested that both the BM and HM subscales were each comprised of three subtypes. BM subscales demonstrated strong

factor loadings across the three studies conducted by Glick and Fiske (1999): maternalism demonstrated factor loadings of .88-.99, complementary gender differentiation demonstrated factor loadings ranging between .65-.79, and heterosexual intimacy demonstrated factor loadings ranging between .72-.81. HM subscales also demonstrated strong factor loadings across the three studies conducted by Glick and Fiske: resentment toward paternalism demonstrated factor loadings between .93-.98, compensatory gender differentiation demonstrated factor loadings between .62-.76, and heterosexual hostility demonstrated factor loadings ranging from .63-.89. BM and HM subscales and the overall constructs of BM and HM demonstrated intercorrelations ranging from .30-.55 suggesting that these subscales and constructs measured different aspects of a related concept.

An exploratory factor analysis using principal factors extraction and direct oblim rotation was performed on the 20 ambivalent sexism toward men items. Six factors were forced for extraction in attempt to replicate the six factors demonstrated by Glick and Fiske (1999). Results demonstrated that the six factors accounted for 67.68% of variance. Although six factors strongly emerged, there was overlapping of BS and HS items and two items did not load on the correct overall construct. In addition, the factor structure yielded two BS factors, two HS factors, and two mixed factors consisting of both BS and HS items rather than three BS factors and three HS factors. See Table 8 for factor loadings (the factor that the item loaded on for the Glick and Fiske study is indicated in the parentheses). The six factors that emerged, although somewhat different, still lend some support to the initial factor structure found by Glick and Fiske since only two items

loaded on the incorrect subtype. Due to the emergence of a six factor structure in the present study that was only somewhat different than Glick and Fiske's factor structure, the use of various exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses used by Glick and Fiske, the strong theoretical base offered by Glick and Fiske, and the use of Glick and Fiske's factor structure in the literature (e.g., Chapleau, Oswald, & Russell, 2007) the present study will use the subscales identified by Glick and Fiske in the primary analyses.

Table 8

*Exploratory Factor Analysis Loadings for AMI Items using Principal Factors Extraction
and Direct Oblim Rotation Forcing 6 Factors*

	Loading
Factor 1	
Every woman needs a male partner who will cherish her (BS-HA; Item 5)	.85
A woman will never be truly fulfilled in life if she doesn't have a committed, long-term relationship with a man (BS-HA; Item 7)	.84
Women are incomplete without men (BS-HA; Item 16)	.79
Every woman ought to have a man she adores (BS-HA; Item 12)	.78
Men are mainly useful to provide financial security for women (BS-M; Item 10)	.51
Factor 2	
When men act to help women, they are often trying to prove they are better than women (HS-HH; Item 4)	.79
A man who is sexually attracted to a woman typically has no morals about doing whatever it takes to get her in bed (HS-HH; Item 2)	.72
Most men sexually harass women, even if only in subtle ways, once they are in a position of power over them (HS-HH; Item 19)	.69
Factor 3	
Men are more willing to take risks than women (BS-CGD; Item 18)	.84
Men are more willing to put themselves in danger to protect others (BS-CGD; Item 13)	.83
Men are less likely to fall apart in emergencies than women are (BS-CGD; Item 3)	.77
Men usually try to dominate conversations when talking with women (HS-HH; Item 14)	.47
Factor 4	
When it comes down to it, most men are really like children (HS-CGD; Item 17)	-.81
Men act like babies when they are sick (HS-CGD; Item 8)	-.78
Men would be lost in this world if women weren't there to guide them (HS-CGD; Item 6)	-.69
Women ought to take care of their men at home, because men would fall apart if they had to fend for themselves (BS-M; Item 20)	-.63

Table Continues

	Loading
Factor 5	
Even if both members of a couple work, the woman ought to be more attentive to taking care of the man at home (BS-M; Item 1)	-.79
Factor 6	
Men will always fight to have greater control in society than women (HS-RP; Item 9)	-.85
Most men pay lip services to equality for women, but can't handle having a woman as an equal (HS-RP; Item 15)	-.69
Even men who claim to be sensitive to women's rights really want a traditional relationship at home, with the woman performing most of the housekeeping and childcare (HS-RP; Item 11)	-.63

Good Cronbach's alphas for hostile sexism, benevolent sexism, and total ambivalent sexism were demonstrated in the present study; alphas were .84, .87, and .89, respectively. The reliability of the benevolent sexism subscales were adequate and were as follows: maternalism (.70), complementary gender differentiation (.79) and heterosexual intimacy (.85). The reliability of the hostile sexism subscales were also adequate and were as follows: resentment of paternalism (.66), compensatory gender differentiation (.73), and heterosexual hostility (.71). See Appendix K for a copy of the AMI.

Demographic Questionnaire

I developed a one-page demographic questionnaire that was used to gather information regarding participants' age, sex, relationship status, sexual orientation, year in college, and major. In addition, to further describe the sample, questions asking if a personal friend, family member, or the participant has been a victim of rape were included. See Appendix L.

Procedure

University professors/instructors, and their corresponding departments, affiliated with two Midwestern four-year institutions were contacted via email or personal contact (i.e., phone or in-person conversations) to introduce the research project and to gain permission to solicit participants from their classes or departments. Once permission to solicit participants was granted, either a research assistant (i.e., a female counseling psychology doctoral student) or I attended the classes to invite students to participate in the study. In order to protect against implementation threat, we followed the same steps to invite participants. These steps included reviewing the study instructions (see Appendix A) and the implied consent letter (see Appendices B and C) verbally with the class.

Interested student participants either completed materials in class (if permitted by their professor/instructor) and returned the materials immediately or outside of class and then returned the materials to either the research assistant, course instructor, or myself on a predetermined date. Participants had their names entered in a drawing for a \$20 Visa gift card (if extra credit was not approved by their instructor) or were given extra credit (if approved by their instructor) as an incentive for their time.

The students who agreed to participate were given a packet that contained a date rape vignette along with copies of the IRMA-SF, MRMS, ASI, AMI, demographics questionnaire, instructions for participation (see Appendix A), and an implied consent letter (see Appendices B and C). The implied consent letter explained to the participants the nature of the study, informed them that their participation in the study was strictly

voluntary and that they had the right to refuse or end their participation at anytime without incurring any negative consequences, indicated the time of burden, and listed contact information for the researcher and contact information for counseling services at their respective university. Also, the implied consent letter informed participants that their consent was inferred from completion of materials and they were instructed to not include any identifying information on the packet materials in order to ensure their confidentiality. In addition, participants were instructed to complete the materials in the order presented. Participants were instructed to return their completed measures to the research assistant, their instructor/professor, or myself.

The vignettes were presented first in the packet materials to decrease the chance that their responses were influenced by the items on the other measures. Vignettes were counterbalanced across packets so that each participant received only one version of the vignette and participants were assigned to a vignette condition using sequential block assignment. Specifically, an equal number of packet materials were made for each vignette and then sorted so each vignette occurred the same number of times (i.e., male-on-male, male-on-female, female-on-male, female-on-female, and then repeat). Packet materials were marked with colored dots to ensure packet materials remained in a sequential order and were then distributed in classes in this fashion. Survey completion took approximately 15 to 25 minutes.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Taking into consideration the hypotheses and research question of the present study, a 2 (participant sex: male/female) x 2 (victim sex: male/female) x 2 (perpetrator sex: male/female) multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted to test study aims one and two. For study aims three and four, two multiple regressions were performed. Prior to conducting these analyses, preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure that the MANCOVA and multiple regression assumptions were met.

Preliminary Analyses

Prior to conducting the primary analyses, the data were examined with SPSS for data entry accuracy, missing values, outliers, distribution, and assumptions of multivariate analyses. Four cases were not included in the analyses because a large amount of data for these cases were missing (i.e., only about half of the study materials were completed). The remaining cases had a limited amount of missing data (i.e., 10 missing responses across the 250 participants), therefore, imputation of means for missing responses was used. Imputation of means has been deemed acceptable if under five percent of responses are missing (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2006). Specifically, for the present study group means (i.e., sex) were calculated for each item that had missing data. An additional four cases served as outliers as demonstrated by their z-scores and

Manhalanobis distances (with a $p < .001$) (i.e., all four cases served as univariate outliers and one case served as a multivariate outlier). Primary analyses were conducted both with and without the outliers. Results demonstrated similar patterns so the outliers were deleted. A total of eight cases were deleted from the data set, leaving 250 cases for analyses. Preliminary analyses suggested that variables were normally distributed (i.e., no skewness or kurtosis) and met the assumptions of linearity, homogeneity of variance or homoscedasticity, homogeneity of regression slopes, and multicollinearity. All study measures were examined for factor structure and reliability (see Measures section). Means, standard deviations, reliability, intercorrelations, skewness, and kurtosis of each of the measures, as well as means and standard deviations for variables that demonstrated a priori differences, were calculated and are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Means, Standard Deviations, Reliability, and Intercorrelations of Study Measures and A Priori Variables

Measures/Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	α	Skew	Kurtosis	Measures					
						Victim Blame	Perpetrator Blame	IRMA-SF	MRMS	ASI	AMI
Victim Blame	24.46	8.83	.85	.31	-.64	---	---	---	---	---	---
Perpetrator Blame	40.17	5.67	.88	-.51	-.10	-.29**	---	---	---	---	---
IRMA-SF	38.63	9.37	.86	.17	-.66	.40**	-.33**	---	---	---	---
MRMS	35.90	5.77	.42	.61	-.22	.31**	-.09	.52**	---	---	---
ASI	2.41	.72	.87	-.55	.06	.25**	-.10	.55**	.40**	---	---
AMI	2.05	.79	.89	-.21	-.05	.26**	-.08	.41**	.30**	.73**	---
Attending University	1.44	.50	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Sex	1.55	.50	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Relationship Status	2.02	1.24	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Family Rape	1.82	.39	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Self Rape	1.91	.28	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Note. $n = 250$. IRMA-SF = Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance-Short Form, MRMS = Male Rape Myth Scale, ASI = Ambivalent Sexism Toward Women, AMI = Ambivalent Sexism Toward Men. Cronbach's alpha was used to measure reliability.

** $p < .01$

Primary Analyses

In order to test hypotheses one and two a 2 (participant sex: male/female) x 2 (victim sex: male/female) x 2 (perpetrator sex: male/female) between-subjects MANCOVA was conducted. Specifically, hypothesis one stated that men students would blame the date rape victim more than women students regardless of victim sex and that participants with higher BS toward women and men would blame the date rape victim more than participants with low BS toward women and men. Hypothesis two stated men students would blame the perpetrator less than women students regardless of perpetrator sex and that participants with higher BS toward women and men would blame the date rape perpetrator more than participants with low BS toward women and men. Independent variables were participant sex (male/female), victim sex (male/female), and perpetrator sex (male/female). Dependent variables were victim blame and perpetrator blame. Total benevolent sexism toward men and toward women were used as covariates.

The three-way interaction and all two-way interactions were tested. The participant sex x victim sex x perpetrator sex interaction was not significant (Wilks' $\Lambda = .98$, $F(2, 239) = 2.53$, $p = .082$, multivariate $\eta^2 = .02$). The participant sex x victim sex interaction (Wilks' $\Lambda = .99$, $F(2, 242) = .54$, $p = .585$, multivariate $\eta^2 = .00$) and the victim sex x perpetrator sex interaction (Wilks' $\Lambda = .99$, $F(2, 242) = .94$, $p = .391$, multivariate $\eta^2 = .01$) were not significant. Results demonstrated a participant sex x perpetrator sex interaction (Wilks' $\Lambda = .97$, $F(2, 242) = 3.59$, $p = .023$, multivariate $\eta^2 = .03$) and the main effect of the benevolent sexism toward men (i.e., AMI-BS) covariate (Wilks' $\Lambda = .93$, $F(2, 242) = 9.01$, $p < .001$, multivariate $\eta^2 = .03$) indicated a significant

multivariate effect on victim and perpetrator blame. The significant participant x perpetrator sex interaction and main effects are reported in Table 10 and Figure 3 illustrates the significant participant sex x perpetrator sex multivariate interaction.

Table 10

MANCOVA Results for Significant Participant Sex x Perpetrator Sex Interaction and Main Effects

Variable(s)	Wilks' Λ	F	df	p	Multivariate η^2	Observed Power
Main Effects						
Participant Sex	.99	1.84	2	.161	.02	.38
Victim Sex	.99	.51	2	.604	.00	.13
Perpetrator Sex	.98	2.25	2	.108	.02	.46
Benevolent Sexism toward Men	.93	9.08	2	< .001	.07	.97
Benevolent Sexism toward Women	.99	1.54	2	.216	.01	.33
Two-way Interactions						
Participant Sex x Perpetrator Sex	.97	3.85	2	.023	.03	.69
Error	(.12)	(865.08)	242			

Examination of marginal means adjusted for covariates and Bonferroni-adjusted confidence intervals for the significant participant sex x perpetrator sex interaction revealed men participants assigned greater victim blame (regardless of victim sex) when perpetrator was male ($M = 26.33, SD = 8.20$) versus when perpetrator was female ($M = 24.29, SD = 8.47$). Women participants did not demonstrate a significant difference in the amount of victim blame (regardless of victim sex). Marginal means and confidence intervals suggested men and women participants did not significantly differ in the amount of perpetrator blame (regardless of victim sex). See Table 11 for adjusted marginal means and Bonferroni-adjusted confidence intervals and Figure 3 for a graph of the significant interaction. Further investigation of parameter estimates for the significant benevolent sexism toward men main effect revealed that for every unit increase in the AMI-BS score ($M = 2.16, SD = .98$) there was a 3.46 unit increase in victim blame ($M = 24.46, SD = 8.83; B = 3.46, SE = .81, t = 4.27, p < .001, \text{multivariate } \eta^2 = .07$) when all other variables are controlled for, which is an increase of approximately a third of a standard deviation. These estimates suggested that as endorsement of benevolent sexism toward men increased so did endorsement of victim blame.

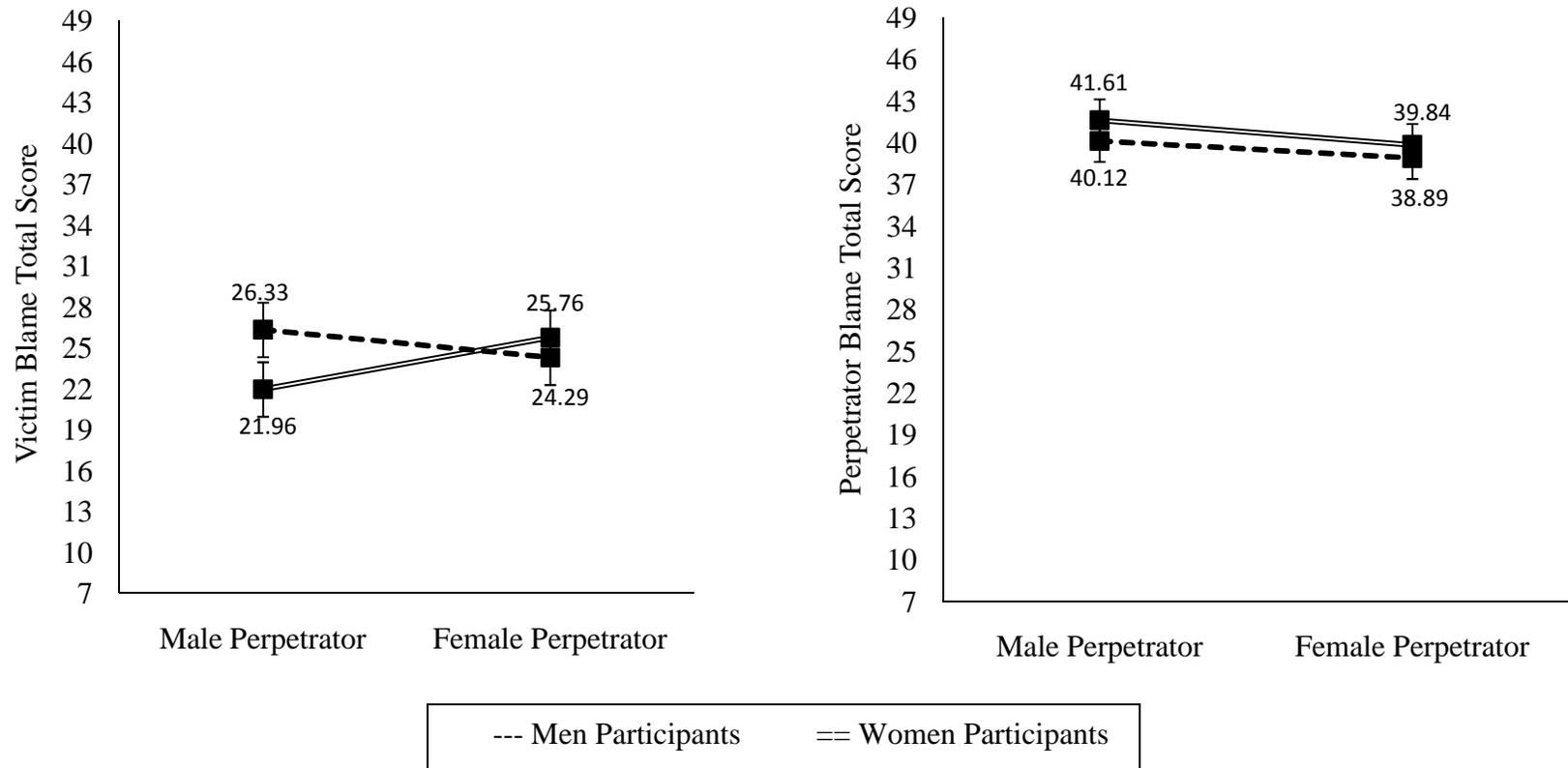
Table 11

Adjusted Marginal Means, Standard Error, and Confidence Intervals for IVs and Significant Participant Sex x Perpetrator Sex Interaction on Victim Blame and Perpetrator Blame

IVs or Interaction by DV	Mean	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Higher Bound
Victim Blame				
Participant Sex				
Man	25.31	.79	23.75	26.87
Woman	23.86	.72	22.45	25.27
Victim Sex				
Male	24.27	.74	22.81	25.74
Female	24.90	.75	23.42	26.38
Perpetrator Sex				
Male	24.15	.76	22.66	25.64
Female	25.03	.74	23.57	26.48
Participant Sex x Perpetrator Sex				
Man/Male	26.33	1.15	24.07	28.59
Man/Female	24.29	1.08	22.17	26.42
Woman/Male	21.96	1.00	19.99	23.93
Woman/Female	25.76	1.02	23.76	27.77
Perpetrator Blame				
Participant Sex				
Man	39.51	.54	38.45	40.56
Woman	40.72	.48	39.77	41.68
Victim Sex				
Male	40.45	.50	39.46	41.44
Female	39.78	.51	38.78	40.78
Perpetrator Sex				
Male	40.87	.51	39.86	41.87
Female	39.37	.50	38.38	40.35
Participant Sex x Perpetrator Sex				
Man/Male	40.12	.78	38.60	41.65
Man/Female	38.89	.73	37.46	40.33
Woman/Male	41.61	.68	40.28	42.94
Woman/Female	39.84	.69	38.49	41.19

Note: Bonferroni-adjusted confidence intervals are indicated.

Figure 3. Participant Sex x Perpetrator Sex Multivariate Interaction on Victim and Perpetrator Blame



To address the research question, a multiple regression was conducted to determine whether subtypes of hostile sexism and benevolent sexism toward men predicted male rape myths. The three hostile subscales (i.e., resentment of paternalism, compensatory gender differentiation, and heterosexual hostility) and three benevolent subscales (i.e., maternalism, complementary gender differentiation, and heterosexual attraction) from the AMI served as the independent variables. Total scores from the male rape myths scale (i.e., MRMS) served as the dependent variable. Due to a priori differences that were present, a hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to control for differences present due to attending university, sex, relationship status, family rape occurrence, and self rape occurrence. Examination of the significant β weights for the variables with a priori differences, suggested that participants from the land-grant college campus and men participants endorsed higher male rape myths. Regression results indicated the model significantly predicted male rape myths, $R^2 = .38$, $R^2_{adj} = .35$, $F(11, 237) = 12.98$, $p < .001$. This model accounted for 35% of variance in male rape myths with an additional 17% of the variance being accounted for after the benevolent sexism and hostile sexism subscales were added to the model. Results indicated that two of the three BS subscales (i.e., maternalism and complementary gender differentiation) and one of the three HS subscales (i.e., heterosexual hostility) significantly contributed to the model.

Further examination of the results suggested that in the full model, attending university, participant sex, maternalism, complementary gender differentiation, and heterosexual hostility demonstrated significant partial effects. Specifically, the addition

of maternalism, complementary gender differentiation, and heterosexual hostility contributed 3.6% (Partial $r = .19$), 4.8% (Partial $r = .22$), and 1.7% (Partial $r = .13$) of unique variance to the full model, respectively. Relationship status, family rape occurrence, self rape occurrence, heterosexual attraction, resentment of paternalism, and compensatory gender differentiation did not have significant partial effects suggesting they did not account for unique variance in the model. These results suggest that benevolent sexism may be a better predictor of male rape myths than hostile sexism. A summary of the model steps, regression coefficients, correlation coefficients, and part and partial correlations are presented in Tables 12 through 15.

Table 12

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model Summary for AMI Subscales and Male Rape Myths

Step	R	R^2	R^2_{adj}	ΔR^2	F_{chg}	p	df_1	df_2
1. Attending University, Sex, Relationship Status, Family Rape, Self Rape	.46	.21	.19	.21	12.79	< .001	5	243
2. Maternalism (BS-M), Complementary Gender Differentiation (BS-CGD), Heterosexual Attraction (BS-HA), Resentment of Paternalism (HS-RP), Compensatory Gender Differentiation (HS-CGD), Heterosexual Hostility (HS-HH)	.61	.38	.35	.17	10.62	< .001	6	237

Table 13

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Coefficients for AMI Subscales and Male Rape Myths

Variables	<i>B</i>	Std. Error	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Higher Bound
Step 1							
Attending University	4.84	1.29	.26	3.75	<.001	2.30	7.38
Sex	-4.71	1.23	-.26	-3.82	<.001	-7.14	-2.28
Relationship Status	-.24	.47	-.03	-.53	.600	-1.16	.67
Family Rape	-1.29	1.45	-.05	-.89	.374	-4.14	1.56
Self Rape	1.11	1.97	.03	.56	.574	-2.77	4.99
Step 2							
Attending University	13.17	1.19	.17	2.67	.008	.83	5.52
Sex	-3.19	1.24	-.17	-2.58	.011	-5.63	-.75
Relationship Status	.26	.43	.04	.60	.549	-.59	1.10
Family Rape	-.12	1.33	-.01	-.09	.931	-2.73	2.50
Self Rape	.85	1.81	.03	.47	.638	-2.72	4.24
Maternalism (BS-M)	1.91	.63	.23	3.01	.003	.66	3.14
Complementary Gender Differentiation (BS- CGD)	1.88	.55	.24	3.44	.001	.80	2.95
Heterosexual Attraction (BS-HA)	.23	.50	.03	.47	.640	-1.32	1.17
Resentment of Paternalism (HS-RP)	-.74	.63	-.01	-.12	.907	-1.32	1.17
Compensatory Gender Differentiation (HS- CGD)	-1.12	.58	-.14	-1.93	.055	-2.27	.02
Heterosexual Hostility (HS-HH)	1.49	.72	.15	2.07	.040	-.071	2.92

Table 14

Correlations Among Demographic Variables, AMI Predictor Subscales, and MRMS

Variables	MRMS	Univ	Sex	Relat Status	Family Rape	Self Rape	BS-M	BS- CGD	BS- HA	HS- RP	HS- CGD	HS- HH
MRMS	---											
Attending University	.40**	---										
Sex	-.39**	-.50**	---									
Relationship Status	-.16*	-.35**	.16**	---								
Family Rape	.05	.17**	-.16**	-.24**	---							
Self Rape	.10	.13*	-.17**	-.21**	.29**	---						
Maternalism (BS-M)	.39**	.14*	-.05	-.11*	-.12*	.00	---					
Complementary Gender Differentiation (BS-CGD)	.49**	.36**	-.35**	-.20**	.08	.08	.49**	---				
Heterosexual Attraction (BS-HA)	.32**	.21**	-.12*	-.11*	.01	.11*	.59**	.47**	---			
Resentment of Paternalism (HS-RP)	.16**	-.05	.15**	.00	-.08	-.18**	.42**	.35**	.24**	---		
Compensatory Gender Differentiation (HS- CGD)	.04	-.14*	.32**	.12*	-.09	-.11*	.50**	.22**	.40**	.46**	---	

Table Continues

Variables	MRMS	Univ	Sex	Relat Status	Family Rape	Self Rape	BS-M	BS-CGD	BS-HA	HS-RP	HS-CGD	HS-HH
Heterosexual Hostility (HS-HH)	.24**	.01	.10	-.06	-.05	-.04	.49**	.31**	.32**	.57**	.56**	---

Note. MRMS = Male Rape Myth Scale, Univ = University Attending, Relat Status = Relationship Status, Family Rape = Occurrence of family member rape, Self rape = Occurrence of own rape, BS-M = Benevolent Sexism-Maternalism, BS-CGD = Benevolent Sexism-Complementary Gender Differentiation, BS-HA = Benevolent Sexism-Heterosexual Attraction, HS-RP = Hostile Sexism-Resentment of Paternalism, HS-CGD = Hostile Sexism-Compensatory Gender Differentiation, HS-HH = Hostile Sexism-Heterosexual Hostility.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 15

Part and Partial Correlations for AMI Subscales and Male Rape Myths

Variables	Correlations	
	Part <i>r</i>	Partial <i>r</i>
Step 1		
Attending University	.21**	.23**
Sex	-.22**	-.24**
Relationship Status	-.03	-.03
Family Rape	-.05	-.06
Self Rape	.03	.03
Step 2		
Attending University	.13**	.17**
Sex	-.13*	-.17*
Relationship Status	.03	.04
Family Rape	-.01	-.00
Self Rape	-.02	.03
Maternalism (BS-M)	.16**	.19**
Complementary Gender Differentiation (BS-CGD)	.18**	.22**
Heterosexual Attraction (BS-HA)	.02	.03
Resentment of Paternalism (HS-RP)	-.01	-.01
Compensatory Gender Differentiation (HS-CGD)	-.10	-.12
Heterosexual Hostility (HS-HH)	.11*	.13*

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Finally, a multiple regression analysis was conducted to test the third hypothesis, which stated that overall hostile sexism and the benevolent sexism subscales of complementary gender differentiation and protective paternalism (but not heterosexual intimacy) would account for the most variance in female rape myths. Overall hostile sexism and the three benevolent subscales (i.e., protective paternalism, complementary gender differentiation, and heterosexual intimacy) from the ASI served as the

independent variables and total scores from the female rape myths measure (i.e., IRMA-SF) served as the dependent variable in the analysis. Although it was hypothesized that heterosexual intimacy would not account for variance in female rape myths it was included in the model to ensure that the hypothesized pattern would emerge. Like the previous regression, a hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to control for differences present due to attending university, sex, relationship status, family rape occurrence, and self rape occurrence. Examination of the significant β weights for the variables with a priori differences, suggested that participants from the land-grant college campus and men participants endorsed higher female rape myths but these significant differences did not remain when examining the full model. Regression results indicated the model significantly predicted female rape myths, $R^2 = .41$, $R^2_{adj} = .39$, $F(9, 239) = 18.61$, $p < .001$. This model accounted for 39% of variance in female rape myths with an additional 28% of the variance being accounted for when the benevolent sexism subscales and hostile sexism were added to the model. Results indicated that two of the three hypothesized variables significantly contributed to the model (i.e., hostile sexism and complementary gender differentiation).

Further examination of the results suggested that in the full model, participant sex, complementary gender differentiation, and hostile sexism demonstrated significant partial effects. Specifically, the addition of complementary gender differentiation and hostile sexism contributed 2% (Partial $r = .14$) and 25% (Partial $r = .50$) of unique variance to the full model, respectively. Attending university, relationship status, family rape, self rape, protective paternalism, and heterosexual intimacy did not have significant partial

effects suggesting they did not account for unique variance in the model. These findings offer partial support for hypothesis three as complementary gender differentiation and hostile sexism accounted for a significant amount of variance in female rape myths, but protective paternalism did not. A summary of the model steps, regression coefficients, and part and partial correlations are presented in Tables 16 through 19.

Table 16

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model Summary for ASI Subscales and Female Rape Myths

Step	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>R</i> ² _{adj}	ΔR^2	<i>F</i> _{chg}	<i>p</i>	<i>df</i> ₁	<i>df</i> ₂
1. Attending University, Sex, Relationship Status, Family Rape, Self Rape	.37	.14	.12	.14	7.73	< .001	5	243
2. Protective Paternalism (ASI-BS), Complementary Gender Differentiation (ASI-BS), Heterosexual Intimacy (ASI-BS), Hostile Sexism (ASI-HS)	.64	.41	.39	.28	27.93	< .001	4	239

Table 17

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Coefficients for ASI Subscales and Female Rape Myths

Variables	<i>B</i>	Std. Error	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Higher Bound
Step 1							
Attending University	2.61	1.23	.15	2.12	.035	.19	5.03
Sex	-3.74	1.18	-.22	-3.18	.002	-6.06	-1.43
Relationship Status	-.65	.44	-.10	-1.47	.144	-1.52	.22
Family Rape	.12	1.38	.01	.09	.929	-2.60	2.84
Self Rape	.41	1.88	.01	.22	.828	-3.29	4.10
Step 2							
Attending University	.71	1.04	.04	.68	.497	-1.35	2.77
Sex	-2.32	1.04	-.14	-2.23	.079	-4.37	-.27
Relationship Status	-.45	.37	-.07	-1.21	.227	-1.18	.28
Family Rape	-.04	1.16	-.00	-.04	.971	-2.33	2.25
Self Rape	.17	1.57	.01	.11	.912	-2.92	3.27
Protective Paternalism (ASI-BS)	-.50	.50	-.06	-.99	.322	-1.48	.49
Complementary Gender Differentiation (ASI- BS)	1.14	.51	.14	2.25	.025	.14	2.14
Heterosexual Intimacy (ASI-BS)	.05	.43	.01	.11	.915	-.80	.89
Hostile Sexism (ASI-HS)	5.04	.57	.53	8.91	< .001	3.92	6.15

Table 18

Correlations Among Demographic Variables, ASI Predictor Subscales, and IRMA-SF

Variables	M	SD	IRMA -SF	Attend Univ	Sex	Relat Status	Family Rape	Self Rape	BS- PP	BS- CGD	BS- HI	HS
IRMA-SF	38.63	9.37	---									
Attending University	1.44	.50	.30**	---								
Sex	1.55	.50	-.32**	-.50**	---							
Relationship Status	2.02	1.24	-.19**	-.35**	.16**	---						
Family Rape	1.82	.39	.10	.17**	-.16**	-.24**	---					
Self Rape	1.91	.28	.11	.13*	-.17**	-.21**	.29**	---				
Protective Paternalism (BS-PP)	2.70	1.06	.24**	.23**	-.26**	-.07	-.03	.05	---			
Complementary Gender Differentiation (BS-CGD)	2.02	1.00	.25**	.05	.06	-.02	.07	.10	.48**	---		
Heterosexual Intimacy (BS-HI)	2.43	1.10	.25**	.18**	-.15**	-.04	-.02	.07	.36**	.25**	---	
Hostile Sexism (HS)	2.41	.88	.61**	.33**	-.33**	-.17	.07	.07	.35**	.27**	.38**	---

Note. IRMA-SF = Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance-Short Form, Attend Univ = Attending University, Relat Status = Relationship Status, Family Rape = Occurrence of family member rape, Self rape = Occurrence of own rape, BS-PP = Benevolent Sexism-Protective Paternalism, BS-CGD = Benevolent Sexism-Complementary Gender Differentiation, BS-HI = Benevolent Sexism-Heterosexual Intimacy, HS = Hostile Sexism. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 19

Part and Partial Correlations for ASI Subscales and Female Rape Myths

Variables	Correlations	
	Part <i>r</i>	Partial <i>r</i>
Step 1		
Attending University	.13*	.14*
Sex	-.19**	-.20**
Relationship Status	-.09	-.09
Family Rape	.01	.01
Self Rape	.01	.01
Step 2		
Attending University	.03	.04
Sex	-.11*	-.14*
Relationship Status	-.06	-.08
Family Rape	-.00	-.00
Self Rape	.01	.01
Protective Paternalism (ASI-BS)	-.05	-.06
Complementary Gender Differentiation (ASI-BS)	.11*	.14*
Heterosexual Intimacy (ASI-BS)	.01	.01
Hostile Sexism (ASI-HS)	.44**	.50**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The present study sought to examine victim and perpetrator blame in male and female date rape scenarios when the victim and perpetrator varied by sex (e.g., male-on-female, male-on-male, female-on-female, female-on-male) and to determine the role of BS toward men and women in assigning victim and perpetrator blame. In addition, the study attempted to provide a better understanding of whether subtypes of BS and HS toward men predicted male rape myths and if subtypes of BS and overall HS toward women predicted female rape myths. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), 160 participants were needed to examine victim and perpetrator blame and that 110 participants were needed to determine which subtypes of BS and HS toward men predicted male rape myths and which subtypes of BS and overall HS toward women predicted female rape myths so the 250 participants in the present study should have demonstrated sufficient power. Following is a discussion of the study findings. Implications and limitations of the findings are also discussed and recommendations for future research are offered.

The first hypothesis stated that men participants would blame date rape victims more than women participants regardless of victim sex and that students with higher BS toward men and women would blame the date rape victim more than students who endorsed lower BS toward men and women. Results offered only partial support and a

small effect for the hypothesis as men blamed the date rape victim (regardless of victim sex) more than women, but only when the perpetrator was male.

Various theoretical arguments such as the defensive attribution or belief-in-a-just-world theories may offer plausible explanations for the present study (Grubb & Harrower, 2009; Shaw & McMartin, 1973; Sinclair & Bourne, 1998). For instance, since men participants as compared to women participants endorsed higher victim blame (regardless of sex) when the perpetrator was a male, the defensive attribution theory would explain that the greater victim blame is due to participants' perceived amount of similarity (e.g., sex) with the perpetrator in an attempt to protect "one of their own." Similarly, other researchers have attempted to explain the greater or lesser blame levied at the victim by considering participants' perceived similarity to the victim and to the perpetrator in combination with how likely the participant perceives he or she will be victimized in the future (Grubb & Harrower, 2009; Shaw & McMartin, 1973). Therefore, individuals who consider themselves to be more similar to the perpetrator than to the victim (e.g., sex, power, role as sexual initiator) would place more blame on the victim. Conversely, individuals who identify more closely to the victim (e.g., sex, power) would reduce the amount of victim blame or assign greater blame on the perpetrator.

The belief-in-a-just-world theory suggests that individuals may assign more blame to victims in order to maintain their own "goodness" and attribute victimization to the "bad" characteristics of the victim. Therefore, this theory would posit that participants in the present study blamed the victim because the victim was "bad" or exhibited "bad" behavior or characteristics and thus got what he or she deserved. This explanation has

been offered by other researchers as it allows the participant to distance him or herself from the reality of being raped (i.e., an individual with “good” behavior or characteristics will not be raped; Grubb & Harrower, 2009; Sinclair & Bourne, 1998).

Hypothesis one also stated that students with higher BS toward men and women would blame the date rape victim more than students who endorsed lower BS toward men and women. Results that revealed that participants who endorsed higher BS toward men (but not toward women) endorsed more victim blame which was demonstrated by a moderate effect. The finding that participants who endorsed higher BS toward men (which consists of the subtypes maternalism, complementary gender differentiation, and heterosexual attraction) also endorsed more victim blame suggests that individuals endorse greater victim blame when they (a) ascribe to the notion that men need to be nurtured by women, (b) acknowledge that there is a power differential between men and women with men only being respected for their status or power, and (c) believe that men need women in order to be happy.

A possible explanation for this finding is that men may endorse higher BS toward men and greater victim blame as a way to retain their societal power or male privilege as BS toward men has been suggested to “placate women and enforce male dominance” (Glick & Fiske, 2004). Specifically, previous researchers have demonstrated that men tend to endorse higher BS toward men as compared to women and offered that men endorse higher BS toward men as they are willing to endorse sexist male attitudes as long as the sexist attitudes support women’s submissiveness (Chapleau, Oswald, & Russell, 2008; Glick & Fiske, 1999; Glick et al., 2004). Therefore, if men endorse higher BS

toward men in an attempt to support women's submissiveness and maintain their male dominance, it is possible that higher BS toward men is associated with greater date rape victim blame as this suggests that women should be subservient to individuals in positions of power (e.g., men or date rape perpetrators). If women go against their subservient role, they are to be blamed for their victimization. Conversely, in order for men to maintain their male dominance, men who endorse higher BS toward men and greater date rape victim blame toward men may blame male date rape victims for not living up to their male status and power. Women's endorsement of higher BS toward men and higher victim blame maintains the social structure of male power and privilege. BS toward men is covert sexism toward men and suggests that men must maintain their male status and power. If men do not meet this expectation by being date raped, greater victim blame toward men is warranted. In addition, BS toward men also offers support for placing women in a submissive role; therefore, if women support the notions that men need to be served and respected for their power, domination or date rape victimization by individuals in power (e.g., men or date rape perpetrators) is permitted with women.

Hypothesis two stated that men students would blame the perpetrator less than women students regardless of perpetrator sex, and that participants with higher BS toward women and men would blame the date rape perpetrator more than participants with low BS toward women and men. Results did not support hypothesis two. It is possible that men and women do not differ in the amount of blame levied against the perpetrator due to the prevalence of rape education on college campuses that have challenged the pattern of exonerating date rape perpetrators or that students have become

aware that exoneration of the perpetrator endorses power differences across the sexes, which they choose not to support (Gidycz et al., 2001).

The research question examined which subtypes of BS (i.e., maternalism, complementary gender differentiation, and heterosexual attraction) and HS (i.e., resentment of paternalism, compensatory gender differentiation, and heterosexual hostility) toward men accounted for the most variance in male rape myths. Results indicated a large effect and demonstrated that two of the three BS toward men subscales (i.e., maternalism and complementary gender differentiation) and one of the three HS toward men subscales (i.e., heterosexual hostility) emerged as significant predictors of male rape myths. These results support the assertion of Chapleau, Oswald, and Russell (2008) that BS toward men may be a better predictor of male rape myths than HS toward men. The emergence of maternalism, complementary gender differentiation, and heterosexual hostility as predictors of male rape myths suggest that male rape myths are endorsed by individuals who ascribe to the notion that men need to be taken care of or need to be served by women, are to admired due to their status, and must be sexual initiators.

Maternalism and complementary gender differentiation as predictors of male rape myths suggest that it would be more acceptable to blame men date rape victims who are perceived as weak (i.e., cannot take care of themselves or fight off a rapist) and who do not maintain their male status and power as they were unable to protect themselves. This explanation has also been offered by other researchers (Chapleau et al., 2008). Specifically, Chapleau et al. (2008) found a relationship between BS toward men and

male rape myths, which they interpreted as men who are perceived as being unmanly permit themselves to be raped. The present study findings offer support for this assertion. Heterosexual hostility as a predictor of male rape myths indicates that men who are perceived as sexual initiators and strive to obtain sex at all costs may be blamed for putting themselves in situations that lead to their victimization. Other researchers have speculated that this need to be a sexual initiator and to obtain sex at all costs may predict that men will place themselves in situations for rape proclivity; this speculation has not yet been researched when examining the relationship between BS and HS toward men and male rape myths (Chapleau et al., 2008).

Lastly, hypothesis three stated that overall HS, complementary gender differentiation, and protective paternalism would account for the most variance in female rape myths. Results indicated a large effect and demonstrated that HS and complementary gender differentiation accounted for a significant amount of variance in female rape myths, but protective paternalism did not. The emergence of HS and complementary gender differentiation as predictors of female rape myths suggests that female rape myths are endorsed by individuals who approve of the degradation and domination of women (i.e., patriarchy) and who believe that women only possess abilities to complete stereotypically feminine tasks.

Individuals who support the degradation or sexual domination of women may believe that women are supposed to be available to meet the sexual needs of men without consideration for their own sexual boundaries or that sexual domination of women (i.e., rape) is acceptable. Chapleau et al. (2007) similarly explained that HS warranted the

sexual subjugation of women. Complementary gender differentiation suggests that women are supposed to maintain certain feminine behaviors or complete stereotypically feminine tasks (e.g., dress and act respectively); therefore, it is possible that individuals who support this belief may consider women who go against this “norm” by acting or dressing provocatively to be deserving of victimization. This explanation has also been offered by numerous other researchers (Chapleau et al., 2007; Chapleau et al., 2008; Glick & Fiske, 1999; Glick et al., 2004).

Implications

In 1990, the “Student Right to Know and Campus Security Act” (also known as the “Clery Act”) was passed which requires that campuses must disclose their annual crime statistics to the public (Karjane, Fisher, & Cullen, 2005). An amendment (i.e., “Campus Sexual Assault Victims’ Bill of Rights”) was made in 1992 that mandated universities to develop programs and practices aimed at preventing rape on campuses (Karjane et al., 2005). Taking into account the Clery Act, the rampant occurrence of date rape on college campuses versus the general community, and the high number of date rape victims that need crisis mental health services at university counseling centers, the results of the present study may prove useful for university personnel in charge of rape education programs or who offer support and assistance to date rape survivors (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Karjane et al., 2005).

To date, rape prevention programs have varied in their foci. For instance, rape programs tend to educate program participants about rape statistics and risk factors

associated with rape (e.g., alcohol use), and endorse self-defense courses as the main mode of prevention (which essentially places the responsibility of rape prevention on the victims rather than the perpetrators). Moreover, these prevention programs are aimed primarily at women rape victims (men rape victims are not typically targeted), or have been developed for male groups (e.g., fraternities or athletic teams) who have been identified as potential perpetrators (Brecklin & Ullman, 2005; Choate, 2003; Daigle, Fisher, & Stewart, 2009; Gidycz et al., 2001; Karjane et al., 2005; Kress et al., 2006; Sochting, Fairbrother, & Koch, 2004; Stephens & George, 2009; Stephens & George, 2004). Researchers have tried to establish the effectiveness of various rape prevention programs and have consistently demonstrated that rape prevention programs provide only a short term decrease of rape myth endorsement (Daigle et al., 2009).

The present study results may offer university personnel or university counseling center psychologists, such as rape prevention program coordinators, insight into additional topics that could enhance their programs and lead to persistent, long term decrease in victim blame and rape supportive attitudes. For example, it may be advantageous for rape prevention programs to educate program participants about the defensive attribution and belief-in-a-just-world theories in order to illustrate the pattern that men blame date rape victims more if they perceive that they have similar characteristics with the date rape perpetrator in order to protect “one of their own” (i.e., defensive attribution theory) and that women blame date rape victims more in order to maintain their own “goodness” and distance themselves from the “bad characteristics” possessed by date rape victims which contributed to their victimization (i.e., belief-in-a-

just-world theory). If rape prevention programs were to expose program participants to these theories, which offer plausible explanations for victim blaming patterns, the endorsement of victim blame may be challenged at a more meaningful level and thereby provide a more long term decrease of victim blame attitudes than what has been found in current rape prevention programs that focus primarily on the education of rape statistics and female rape myths. Moreover, benevolent sexist attitudes toward men, which include benign feelings or beliefs about men that are potentially denigrating such as messages that men a need to be nurtured by women, that men are only respected for their male status and power, and that men and women need each other to be happy, have been demonstrated to be a precursor to rape blame. Incorporating education and activities into rape prevention programs in an attempt to challenge these beliefs may also help facilitate a long term decrease in victim blame.

Also, given that rape prevention programs focus on rape myths but do not look at underlying contributors of myths, this may explain why these programs only result in short term decrease of rape supportive attitudes. Hence, if rape prevention programs were to focus on education and activities that debunk the sexist predictors associated with rape supportive attitudes, these programs may be in better position to instill long term attitude change. Specifically, programs have a responsibility to introduce male rape myths to program participants and to challenge the notions that men need to be taken care of or need to be served by women, are only admired due to their male status and power, and that men must be sexual initiators, which have been demonstrated to antecede male rape myths or rape supportive attitudes. In regard to female rape myths, viewpoints that

sustain the approval of degradation and domination of women (i.e., patriarchy) and that woman only possess abilities to complete stereotypically feminine tasks which have been established as being connected to female rape myths or rape supportive attitudes need to be challenged as well.

The present study findings are also relevant for the field of counseling psychology. Presently, many fields (e.g., counseling psychology, social psychology, criminal justice, social work, medical) focus efforts at reducing or effectively managing care related to sexual violence such as date rape (Koss, 2005). It is essential that counseling psychologists consult with these other fields in order to promote and expand on research that can inform rape prevention, education, and training initiatives. For instance, counseling psychologists, given their training on prevention and consultation, are uniquely qualified to collaborate with high school personnel in order to develop and implement prevention programs that will educate adolescents about sexual violence. Moreover, counseling psychologists should also focus on education and training efforts that will help to eradicate sexual violence against lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender groups (Blackham, 2007; Davies, Rogers, & Whitelegg, 2009; Wakelin & Long, 2003).

Finally, it is essential that counseling psychologists dedicate efforts to secure research funding aimed at increasing understanding of date rape indicators and the efficacy of rape prevention programs. The persistent high prevalence of date rape indicates that much work (i.e., research and clinical) is needed in order to address this wide scale problem.

Limitations

A few limitations exist in the present study. One limitation is construct validity. For instance, exploratory factor analyses were conducted on the ASI and AMI. Results of the exploratory factor analyses yielded factor structures that were slightly different than the ASI and AMI factor structures demonstrated by Glick and Fiske (1996, 1999). Since Glick and Fiske's (1996, 1999) results were based on various exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses and strong theoretical backing, the measures were still used in the present study. However, further examination of these measures in the future may be needed.

Another limitation may be location threat. In order to increase the sample size and respect instructors' class time, student participants were allowed to either complete study materials in or out of class. If completed in class, the study materials were gathered immediately after they were completed; study materials completed outside of class were returned to the instructor and later retrieved by the researchers. The option to complete study materials in a controlled location (i.e., classroom) or a non-controlled location (i.e., participant's home or elsewhere) may have had an impact on the results of the present study. For instance, the location in which the participants completed the study materials may have affected their mood and therefore their responses and it cannot be guaranteed that students completed the materials themselves.

Additionally, while every effort was made to control for consistency among researchers, an implementation threat may have been present in the data collection. Specifically, I contacted university professors/instructors at two Midwestern universities

where the data were collected in order to introduce the present research project and gain permission to solicit participants from their classes. Once permission was granted, either a research assistant (i.e., female counseling psychology doctoral student) or I attended classes to invite students to participate in the study. We both introduced the study to participants by reviewing the implied consent form and participation instructions but it is possible that our presentation of these materials may have differed and had an impact on the results.

Lastly, there are limits to the generalizability of the findings for individuals from racial/ethnic or sexual minority groups. The present sample was primarily Caucasian and representative of the two universities where the data were collected (70% Caucasian at a land-grant university; 62% Caucasian at an urban university). Given that 75% of the sample was Caucasian and primarily heterosexual, the generalizability of the findings to other ethnic and sexual orientation groups is limited.

Summary and Future Research

In summary, the results from the present study offer insights into factors that increase victim and perpetrator blame across date rape scenarios varied by sex as well as which subtypes of benevolent and hostile sexism are associated with male and female rape myths. Specifically, the present study findings demonstrated that: (a) Men endorsed more date rape victim blame (regardless of victim sex) when the perpetrator was male and women endorsed more victim blame (regardless of victim sex) when the perpetrator was female, (b) Men (not women) who endorsed higher BS toward men (but not toward

women) endorsed more victim blame, (c) Men did not blame the perpetrator less than women regardless of perpetrator sex nor did participants with higher BS toward women and men blame the date rape perpetrator more than participants with low BS toward women and men, (d) BS toward men subscales of maternalism and complementary gender differentiation and HS toward men subscale of heterosexual hostility were significant predictors of male rape myths, and (e) BS toward women subscale of complementary gender differentiation and overall HS toward women were significant predictors of female rape myths.

University personnel coordinating rape education programs may want to consider the potential benefits of including in their curriculum the defensive attribution and belief-in-a-just-world theories, which were plausible explanations for the victim blame patterns identified in the present study. Perhaps rape prevention programs that are willing to go beyond just teaching participants about rape statistics and female rape myths by also educating participants about these important theories and patterns of blame will be in better position to create a reduction of victim blame and rape supportive attitudes that are persistent and long term. In addition, integrating education and activities that challenge benevolent sexist attitudes toward men may also facilitate long term decrease in victim blame. Furthermore, rape prevention programs may assist reduction in rape supportive attitudes aimed at men and women date rape victims by integrating exposure to male rape myths and education and activities that discredit sexist precursors often endorsed by individuals.

Although much research has been conducted on rape victim and perpetrator blame, there is a lack of literature that focuses on victim and perpetrator blame in situations of date rape in which the victim and perpetrator vary by sex. The present study attempted to address this gap in the literature, and future research focused on examining victim and perpetrator blame across all sex dyads is encouraged so results can be corroborated. Moreover, future research should determine if comparable findings are demonstrated when victim and perpetrator blame are examined using scenarios of all sex pairings across situations of sexual assault, date rape, and stranger rape as such research may help determine if victim and perpetrator blame patterns are similar across different categories of sex crimes. Unlike previous research, the present study did not reveal differences between men and women when assigning date rape perpetrator blame. Perhaps future research should be conducted to determine if these findings continue to hold true. In addition, controlling for variables that may have influenced the date rape perpetrator blame results, such as participation in rape prevention programs, may also be informative.

Benevolent sexism toward men and women did not serve as predictors of date rape perpetrator blame in the present study, thus research efforts that can further examine the role of benevolent sexism toward men and women on date rape perpetrator blame would be beneficial. Past researchers have speculated that hostile sexism toward women or rape proclivity may be better predictors of perpetrator blame (Abrams, Viki, Masser, & Bohner, 2003). However, they have only examined this relationship when researching hostile sexism toward women, rape proclivity, and perpetrator blame with date and

stranger rape scenarios in which the perpetrator was a male and the victim was a female. So, future research should explore whether benevolent sexism toward men and women, hostile sexism toward men and women, or rape proclivity best predicts perpetrator blame in date rape scenarios of all sex pairings. Likewise, since limited research has been conducted on benevolent and hostile sexism toward men and women in relation to male and female rape myths, continued research which examines these associations are recommended. Lastly, since the findings of the present study may serve to enrich rape prevention programs, future research should consider if the efficacy of rape prevention programs are enhanced by implementing the suggestion to educate participants about the defensive attribution and belief-in-a-just-world theories.

APPENDIX A
PARTICIPANT INSTRUCTIONS

Instructions for participation:

1. Read Information/Implied Consent Form (and keep for your records).
2. Complete materials in order presented (materials are 2-sided).
3. Place study materials in manila envelope. Seal envelope.
4. Fill out Contact & Incentive Sheet.
5. Place Contact and Incentive Sheet in white envelope. Seal envelope.
6. Return ***both*** sealed envelopes to researcher or instructor.

Thank you!

APPENDIX B
IMPLIED CONSENT VERSION 1

Dear Student:

You are invited to participate in my research study. The purpose of my study is to gain information about attitudes surrounding sexual encounters. If you choose to participate, you will be reading a description of a sexual encounter and responding to questions which you may find unpleasant or upsetting.

Please complete all the forms in this packet. There are six forms (i.e., “study materials”) included in your packet. The first form consists of questions in response to a vignette, the second through fifth forms consist of questions inquiring about your opinion, and the final form is a demographic questionnaire. Please complete the materials in the order presented to you. Then return the study materials to the manila envelope and seal it. It is estimated your participation will take about 15-25 minutes.

Your participation in this research is voluntary and you may choose to withdraw your participation at any time by simply discarding the materials and not returning them. Please note that discontinuing participation in the study will not result in any penalty or loss of benefits to which you are entitled and your grade will not be negatively affected. If you decide to participate, your consent will be inferred by your decision to return all completed materials to the enclosed envelope included in your packet. You are not responsible for any cost or expenses associated with this study and will be compensated with either extra credit (only if approved by your professor/instructor) or be entered into a drawing for one \$20 gift card. In order to receive compensation for your participation, please complete the contact and incentive sheet, place it in the enclosed white envelope, and seal it.

There are no known benefits for your participation in this research study; however, your participation will assist the field of psychology in gaining information regarding sexual encounters. Risks for participating in this research study are not anticipated. Discussion of sexual encounters can be a sensitive topic, therefore, if you experience any minor emotional distress, please contact University of Missouri-Kansas City’s (UMKC) Counseling, Health, and Testing Services at 816/235-1635 to talk to a mental health professional.

All data collected will remain confidential and only my doctoral advisor, my research assistant, and I will have access to completed materials. All materials will be stored securely and will be destroyed after the completion of this study. In addition, I ask that that you do NOT identify yourself by name on any of the materials, so I will not know which materials are yours. In order to further ensure their confidentiality, please return your study materials to the appropriate enclosed envelopes and seal them. While every effort will be made to keep the information you complete and share confidential, it cannot be absolutely guaranteed. Individuals from the UMKC Institutional Review Board (a committee that reviews and approves research studies), Research Protections Program, and Federal Regulatory Agencies may look at records related to this study for quality improvements and regulatory functions.

UMKC appreciates the participation of people who help carry out its function off developing knowledge through research. If you have any questions surrounding this study, you are encouraged to contact me (see below for contact information) or Dr. Chris Brown, my doctoral advisor, at 816/235.2491 or brownchr@umkc.edu.

Although it is not the UMKC’s policy to compensate or provide medical treatment for persons who participate in studies, if you think you have been injured as a result of participating in this study, please call the IRB Administrator of UMKC’s Social Sciences Institutional Review Board at 816/235-1764.

Sincerely,

Heather B. Trangsrud, MA
Counseling Psychology Doctoral Candidate
[Contact Information]

APPENDIX C
IMPLIED CONSENT VERSION 2

Dear Student:

You are invited to participate in my research study. The purpose of my study is to gain information about attitudes surrounding sexual encounters. If you choose to participate, you will be reading a description of a sexual encounter and responding to questions which you may find unpleasant or upsetting.

Please complete all the forms in this packet. There are six forms (i.e., “study materials”) included in your packet. The first form consists of questions in response to a vignette, the second through fifth forms consist of questions inquiring about your opinion, and the final form is a demographic questionnaire. Please complete the materials in the order presented to you. Then return the study materials to the manila envelope and seal it. It is estimated your participation will take about 15-25 minutes.

Your participation in this research is voluntary and you may choose to withdraw your participation at any time by simply discarding the materials and not returning them. Please note that discontinuing participation in the study will not result in any penalty or loss of benefits to which you are entitled and your grade will not be negatively affected. If you decide to participate, your consent will be inferred by your decision to return all completed materials to the enclosed envelope included in your packet. You are not responsible for any cost or expenses associated with this study and will be compensated with either extra credit (only if approved by your professor/instructor) or be entered into a drawing for one \$20 gift card. In order to receive compensation for your participation, please complete the contact and incentive sheet, place it in the enclosed white envelope, and seal it.

There are no known benefits for your participation in this research study; however, your participation will assist the field of psychology in gaining information regarding sexual encounters. Risks for participating in this research study are not anticipated. Discussion of sexual encounters can be a sensitive topic, therefore, if you experience any minor emotional distress, please contact K-State Counseling Services at 785/532.6927 to talk to a mental health professional.

All data collected will remain confidential and only my doctoral advisor, my research assistant, and I will have access to completed materials. All materials will be stored securely and will be destroyed after the completion of this study. In addition, I ask that that you do NOT identify yourself by name on any of the materials, so I will not know which materials are yours. In order to further ensure their confidentiality, please return your study materials to the appropriate enclosed envelopes and seal them. While every effort will be made to keep the information you complete and share confidential, it cannot be absolutely guaranteed. Individuals from the UMKC and K-State Institutional Review Boards (committees that review and approve research studies), Research Protections Program, and Federal Regulatory Agencies may look at records related to this study for quality improvements and regulatory functions.

UMKC and K-State appreciate the participation of people who help carry out its function of developing knowledge through research. If you have any questions surrounding this study, you are encouraged to contact me (see below for contact information) or Dr. Chris Brown, my UMKC doctoral advisor, at 816/235.2491 or brownchr@umkc.edu.

Although it is not the UMKC’s or K-State’s policy to compensate or provide medical treatment for persons who participate in studies, if you think you have been injured as a result of participating in this study, please call the IRB Administrator of UMKC’s Social Sciences Institutional Review Board at 816/235-1764 or K-State University Research Compliance Office at 785/532.3224.

Sincerely,

Heather B. Trangsrud, MA
[Contact Information]

APPENDIX D

MALE-ON-FEMALE RAPE VIGNETTE

INSTRUCTIONS: Read the scenario below and then answer each of the questions to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the statement using the scale given to you.

Bill and Mary attended a party that a mutual acquaintance threw on Friday night. They did not know each other previously, but met that night at the party and visited throughout the evening. Bill noticed Mary had drunk quite a bit of alcohol, so he thought he would offer her a ride home. Besides, he thought she was quite attractive, especially in the sexy outfit she had worn to the party.

Mary accepted Bill's offer to drive her home. When they got to Mary's apartment building, Bill walked Mary up to her apartment and gave her a kiss goodnight. Mary invited Bill into her apartment "to watch a movie." Bill accepted, so Mary put in a movie for them to watch. Neither of them was actually watching the movie; instead they were kissing, touching, and stroking each other. They undressed each other and continued making out. Mary told Bill she did not want to have intercourse but was enjoying making out with him. Later Mary felt Bill's penis penetrate her vagina. She told him to stop, but he did not.

1. Mary had control over the events that occurred in the described scenario.

1 -----	2 -----	3 -----	4 -----	5 -----	6 -----	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

2. Mary acted carelessly in the described scenario.

1 -----	2 -----	3 -----	4 -----	5 -----	6 -----	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

3. Mary's character was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 -----	2 -----	3 -----	4 -----	5 -----	6 -----	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

4. Mary's behavior was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 -----	2 -----	3 -----	4 -----	5 -----	6 -----	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

5. Mary was at fault for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 -----	2 -----	3 -----	4 -----	5 -----	6 -----	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

6. Mary was to blame for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

7. Overall, Mary was most responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

8. Mary was obligated to have sex with Bill.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

9. Mary was interested in having sex with Bill.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

10. Bill had control over the events that occurred in the described scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

11. Bill acted carelessly in the described scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

12. Bill's character was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

13. Bill's behavior was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

14. Bill was at fault for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

15. Bill was to blame for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree Agree

16. Overall, Bill was most responsible for event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree Agree

17. Bill was justified in believing that Mary would have sex with him.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree Agree

18. Bill was less interested in having sex with Mary than he was in dominating her.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree Agree

19. The described scenario was a date rape.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree Agree

APPENDIX E
MALE-ON-MALE RAPE VIGNETTE

INSTRUCTIONS: Read the scenario below and then answer each of the questions to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the statement using the scale given to you.

David and Bob attended a party that a mutual acquaintance threw on Friday night. They did not know each other previously, but met that night at the party and visited throughout the evening. David noticed Bob had drunk quite a bit of alcohol, so he thought he would offer him a ride home. Besides, David thought Bob was quite attractive, especially in the sexy outfit he had worn to the party.

Bob accepted David's offer to drive him home. When they got to Bob's apartment building, David walked Bob up to his apartment and gave him a kiss goodnight. Bob invited David into his apartment "to watch a movie." David accepted, so Bob put in a movie for them to watch. Neither of them was actually watching the movie; instead they were kissing, touching, and stroking each other. They undressed each other and continued making out. Bob told David he did not want to have intercourse but was enjoying making out with him. Later Bob felt David's penis penetrate his anus. Bob told David to stop, but he did not.

1. Bob had control over the events that occurred in the described scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
 Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
 Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

2. Bob acted carelessly in the described scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
 Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
 Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

3. Bob's character was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
 Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
 Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

4. Bob's behavior was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
 Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
 Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

5. Bob was at fault for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
 Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
 Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

6. Bob was to blame for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

7. Overall, Bob was most responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

8. Bob was obligated to have sex with David.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

9. Bob was interested in having sex with David.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

10. David had control over the events that occurred in the described scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

11. David acted carelessly in the described scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

12. David's character was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

13. David's behavior was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

14. David was at fault for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 -----7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

15. David was to blame for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 -----7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

16. Overall, David was most responsible for event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 -----7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

17. David was justified in believing that Bob would have sex with him.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 -----7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

18. David was less interested in having sex with Bob than he was in dominating him.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 -----7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

19. The described scenario was a date rape.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 -----7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

APPENDIX F
FEMALE-ON-FEMALE RAPE VIGNETTE

INSTRUCTIONS: Read the scenario below and then answer each of the questions to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the statement using the scale given to you.

Jane and Mary attended a party that a mutual acquaintance threw on Friday night. They did not know each other previously, but met that night at the party and visited throughout the evening. Jane noticed Mary had drunk quite a bit of alcohol, so she thought she would offer her a ride home. Besides, Jane thought Mary was quite attractive, especially in the sexy outfit she had worn to the party.

Mary accepted Jane's offer to drive her home. When they got to Mary's apartment building, Jane walked Mary up to her apartment and gave her a kiss goodnight. Mary invited Jane into her apartment "to watch a movie." Jane accepted, so Mary put in a movie for them to watch. Neither of them was actually watching the movie; instead they were kissing, touching, and stroking each other. They undressed each other and continued making out. Mary told Jane she did not want to have intercourse but was enjoying making out with her. Later Mary felt Jane's fingers penetrate her vagina. Mary told Jane to stop, but she did not.

1. Mary had control over the events that occurred in the described scenario.

1 -----	2 -----	3 -----	4 -----	5 -----	6 -----	7
Strongly	Disagree	Somewhat	Neither Agree	Somewhat	Agree	Strongly
Disagree		Disagree	Nor Disagree	Agree		Agree

2. Mary acted carelessly in the described scenario.

1 -----	2 -----	3 -----	4 -----	5 -----	6 -----	7
Strongly	Disagree	Somewhat	Neither Agree	Somewhat	Agree	Strongly
Disagree		Disagree	Nor Disagree	Agree		Agree

3. Mary's character was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 -----	2 -----	3 -----	4 -----	5 -----	6 -----	7
Strongly	Disagree	Somewhat	Neither Agree	Somewhat	Agree	Strongly
Disagree		Disagree	Nor Disagree	Agree		Agree

4. Mary's behavior was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 -----	2 -----	3 -----	4 -----	5 -----	6 -----	7
Strongly	Disagree	Somewhat	Neither Agree	Somewhat	Agree	Strongly
Disagree		Disagree	Nor Disagree	Agree		Agree

5. Mary was at fault for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 -----	2 -----	3 -----	4 -----	5 -----	6 -----	7
Strongly	Disagree	Somewhat	Neither Agree	Somewhat	Agree	Strongly
Disagree		Disagree	Nor Disagree	Agree		Agree

6. Mary was to blame for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

7. Overall, Mary was most responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

8. Mary was obligated to have sex with Jane.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

9. Mary was interested in having sex with Jane.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

10. Jane had control over the events that occurred in the described scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

11. Jane acted carelessly in the described scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

12. Jane's character was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

13. Jane's behavior was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

14. Jane was at fault for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

15. Jane was to blame for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree Agree

16. Overall, Jane was most responsible for event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree Agree

17. Jane was justified in believing that Mary would have sex with her.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree Agree

18. Jane was less interested in having sex with Mary than she was in dominating her.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree Agree

19. The described scenario was a date rape.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree Agree

APPENDIX G
FEMALE-ON-MALE RAPE VINGETTE

INSTRUCTIONS: Read the scenario below and then answer each of the questions to indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the statement using the scale given to you.

Mary and David attended a party that a mutual acquaintance threw on Friday night. They did not know each other previously, but met that night at the party and visited throughout the evening. Mary noticed David had drunk quite a bit of alcohol, so she thought she would offer him a ride home. Besides, she thought he was quite attractive, especially in the sexy outfit he had worn to the party.

David accepted Mary's offer to drive him home. When they got to David's apartment building, Mary walked him up to his apartment and gave him a kiss goodnight. David invited Mary into his apartment "to watch a movie." Mary accepted, so David put in a movie for them to watch. Neither of them was actually watching the movie; instead they were kissing, touching, and stroking each other. They undressed each other and continued making out. David told Mary he did not want to have intercourse but was enjoying making out with her. Later David felt Mary use his penis to penetrate her vagina. He told her to stop, but she did not.

1. David had control over the events that occurred in the described scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
 Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
 Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

2. David acted carelessly in the described scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
 Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
 Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

3. David's character was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
 Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
 Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

4. David's behavior was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
 Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
 Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

5. David was at fault for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
 Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
 Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

6. David was to blame for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

7. Overall, David was most responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

8. David was obligated to have sex with Mary.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

9. David was interested in having sex with Mary.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

10. Mary had control over the events that occurred in the described scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

11. Mary acted carelessly in the described scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

12. Mary's character was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

13. Mary's behavior was responsible for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

14. Mary was at fault for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

15. Mary was to blame for the event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

16. Overall, Mary was most responsible for event that occurred at the end of the scenario.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

17. Mary was justified in believing that David would have sex with her.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

18. Mary was less interested in having sex with David than she was in dominating him.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

19. The described scenario was a date rape.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Strongly Disagree Somewhat Neither Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Nor Disagree Agree Agree

APPENDIX H

ILLINOIS RAPE MYTH ACCEPTANCE SCALE-SHORT FORM

INSTRUCTIONS: Read the statements below and indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the statement using the scale given to you.

1. A woman who is raped while she is drunk is at least somewhat responsible.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree

2. Although most women wouldn't admit it, they generally like being physically forced to have sex.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree

3. If a woman is willing to "make out" with a guy, then it's no big deal if he goes a little further and has sex with her.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree

4. Many women secretly desire to be raped.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree

5. If a woman doesn't physically fight back, you can't really say that it was rape.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree

6. Men from nice middle-class homes almost never rape.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree

7. Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at men.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree

8. Usually, only women who dress sexy are raped.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree

9. If the rapist doesn't have a weapon, you really can't call it a rape.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 -----5
Strongly Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly
Disagree Agree

10. Rape is unlikely to happen in a woman's own neighborhood.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 -----5
Strongly Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly
Disagree Agree

11. Women tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 -----5
Strongly Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly
Disagree Agree

12. A lot of women lead a man on and then they cry rape.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 -----5
Strongly Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly
Disagree Agree

13. A woman who "teases" men deserves anything that might happen.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 -----5
Strongly Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly
Disagree Agree

14. When women are raped, it's often because the way they said "no" was unclear.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 -----5
Strongly Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly
Disagree Agree

15. Men don't usually intend to force sex on a woman, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 -----5
Strongly Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly
Disagree Agree

16. A woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 -----5
Strongly Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly
Disagree Agree

17. Rape happens when a man's sex drive gets out of control.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 -----5
Strongly Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly
Disagree Agree

18. Most rape and sexual assaults are committed by strangers.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly
Disagree Agree

19. A 15-year-old can give consent to have sex.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly
Disagree Agree

20. If someone came to me and claimed they were raped, my first reaction would be to not believe them.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly
Disagree Agree

APPENDIX I

STRUCKMAN-JOHNSON & STRUCKMAN-JOHNSON
MALE RAPE MYTH SCALE

INSTRUCTIONS: Read the statements below and indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the statement using the scale given to you.

1. It is impossible for a man to rape a man.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6
Strongly Moderately Slightly Slightly Moderately Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

2. Even a big, strong man can be raped by another man.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6
Strongly Moderately Slightly Slightly Moderately Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

3. Most men who are raped by a man are somewhat to blame for not being more careful.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6
Strongly Moderately Slightly Slightly Moderately Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

4. Most men who are raped by a man are somewhat to blame for not escaping or fighting off the man.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6
Strongly Moderately Slightly Slightly Moderately Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

5. Most men who are raped by a man are very upset by the incident.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6
Strongly Moderately Slightly Slightly Moderately Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

6. Most men who are raped by a man do not need counseling after the incident.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6
Strongly Moderately Slightly Slightly Moderately Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

7. It is impossible for a woman to rape a man.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6
Strongly Moderately Slightly Slightly Moderately Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

8. Even a big, strong man can be raped by a woman.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6
Strongly Moderately Slightly Slightly Moderately Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

9. Most men who are raped by a woman are somewhat to blame for not being more careful.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6
Strongly Moderately Slightly Slightly Moderately Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

10. Most men who are raped by a woman are somewhat to blame for not escaping or fighting off the woman.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6
Strongly Moderately Slightly Slightly Moderately Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

11. Most men who are raped by a woman are very upset by the incident.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6
Strongly Moderately Slightly Slightly Moderately Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

12. Most men who are raped by a woman do not need counseling after the incident.

1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6
Strongly Moderately Slightly Slightly Moderately Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

APPENDIX J
AMBIVALENT SEXISM INVENTORY

INSTRUCTIONS: Below is a series of statements concerning men and women and their relationships in contemporary society. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement using the scale given to you.

1. No matter how accomplished he is, a man is not truly complete as a person unless he has the love of a woman.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
 Strongly Disagree Somewhat Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly Agree

2. Many women are actually seeking special favors, such as hiring policies that favor them over men, under the guise of asking for “equality.”

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
 Strongly Disagree Somewhat Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly Agree

3. In a disaster, women ought not necessarily to be rescued before men.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
 Strongly Disagree Somewhat Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly Agree

4. Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
 Strongly Disagree Somewhat Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly Agree

5. Women are too easily offended.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
 Strongly Disagree Somewhat Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly Agree

6. People are often truly happy in life without being romantically involved with a member of the other sex.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
 Strongly Disagree Somewhat Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly Agree

7. Feminists are not seeking for women to have more power than men.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
 Strongly Disagree Somewhat Disagree Slightly Disagree Slightly Agree Somewhat Agree Strongly Agree

8. Many women have a quality of purity that few men possess.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

9. Women should be cherished and protected by men.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

10. Most women fail to appreciate fully all that men do for them.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

11. Women seek to gain power by getting control over men.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

12. Every man ought to have a woman whom he adores.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

13. Men are complete without women.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

14. Women exaggerate problems they have at work.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

15. Once a woman gets a man to commit to her, she usually tries to put him on a tight
leash.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

16. When women lose to men in a fair competition, they typically complain about being discriminated against.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

17. A good woman should be set on a pedestal by her man.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

18. There are actually very few women who get a kick out of teasing men by seeming sexually available and then refusing male advances.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

19. Women, compared to men, tend to have a superior moral sensibility.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

20. Men should be willing to sacrifice their own well being in order to provide financially for the women in their lives.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

21. Feminists are making entirely reasonable demands of men.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

22. Women, as compared to men, tend to have a more refined sense of culture and good taste.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

APPENDIX K
AMBIVALENCE TOWARD MEN INVENTORY

INSTRUCTIONS: Below is a series of statements concerning men and women and their relationships in contemporary society. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement using the scale given to you.

1. Even if both members of a couple work, the woman ought to be more attentive to taking care of the man at home.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
 Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
 Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

2. A man who is sexually attracted to a woman typically has no morals about doing whatever it takes to get her in bed.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
 Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
 Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

3. Men are less likely to fall apart in emergencies than women are.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
 Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
 Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

4. When men act to “help” women, they are often trying to prove they are better than women.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
 Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
 Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

5. Every woman needs a male partner who will cherish her.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
 Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
 Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

6. Men would be lost in this world if women weren’t there to guide them.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
 Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
 Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

7. A woman will never be truly fulfilled in life if she doesn’t have a committed, long-term relationship with a man.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
 Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
 Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

8. Men act like babies when they are sick.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

9. Men will always fight to have greater control in society than women.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

10. Men are mainly useful to provide financial security for women.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

11. Even men who claim to be sensitive to women's rights really want a traditional relationship at home, with the woman performing most of the housekeeping and childcare.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

12. Every woman ought to have a man she adores.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

13. Men are more willing to put themselves in danger to protect others.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

14. Men usually try to dominate conversations when talking with women.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

15. Most men pay lip service to equality for women, but can't handle having a woman as an equal.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

16. Women are incomplete without men.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

17. When it comes down to it, most men are really like children.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

18. Men are more willing to take risks than women.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

19. Most men sexually harass women, even if only in subtle ways, once they are in a position of power over them.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

20. Women ought to take care of their men at home, because men would fall apart if they had to fend for themselves.

0 ----- 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Strongly Somewhat Slightly Slightly Somewhat Strongly
Disagree Disagree Disagree Agree Agree Agree

APPENDIX L
DEMOGRAPHICS QUESTIONNAIRE

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VITA

Heather B. Trangsrud was born on July 20, 1978 in Thief River Falls, Minnesota; she was raised and educated in Greenbush, Minnesota. She graduated from Greenbush-Middle River High School as an honor student in 1996. She attended North Dakota State University (NDSU) in Fargo, North Dakota for her undergraduate education and graduated in 2000 with a Bachelor of Science in Psychology.

After graduating from the NDSU, Ms. Trangsrud began a Master's program in counseling at the University of North Dakota (UND) in Grand Forks, North Dakota. She was awarded the Master of Arts degree in Counseling in August, 2002. Ms. Trangsrud then assumed a group therapist position in the Minneapolis/St. Paul, Minnesota metropolitan area. During her duration in Minneapolis/St. Paul area, she conducted Dialectical Behavior Therapy (DBT) group treatment with individuals diagnosed with Axis I and II disorders at two intensive day treatment facilities.

Ms. Trangsrud was accepted to begin her coursework for a Doctor of Philosophy in Counseling Psychology at the University of Missouri-Kansas City (UMKC) in the Fall of 2004. While residing in Kansas City, she counseled individuals at university counseling centers and community mental health centers. In addition, she taught undergraduate and graduate level courses in counseling and clinical psychology, served as a graduate research assistant, was co-chair for UMKC's Student Affiliates of

Seventeen, was on numerous research teams, co-authored five journal publications, and was a Preparing Future Faculty Fellow (2007-2010). Recently, she was also nominated for the Council of Counseling Psychology Training Programs' (CCPTP) Outstanding Graduate Student Award by the Division of Counseling Psychology faculty and was received a UMKC Women's Council Graduate Assistance Fund Award. She completed her pre-doctoral internship at Kansas State University (KSU) Counseling Services (2009-2010) and completed her doctoral degree requirements on November 8th, 2010. Upon the conclusion of her degree requirements, Ms. Trangsrud will also complete her post-doctoral fellowship at KSU Counseling Services (2010-2011). She plans to enter academia to continue teaching and conducting research or obtaining a staff psychologist position at a university counseling center and adjunct teaching.