

A PSYCHOMETRIC EVALUATION OF THE
ATTITUDES TOWARDS RAPE SURVEY

By

MAUREEN ANN MCCARTHY

Bachelor of Science
Southwest Missouri State University
Springfield, Missouri
1981

Master of Science
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, Oklahoma
1984

Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for
the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
December, 1992

Thesis

1992D

M123P

COPYRIGHT

by

Maureen Ann McCarthy

December, 1992

A PSYCHOMETRIC EVALUATION OF THE
ATTITUDES TOWARDS RAPE SURVEY

Thesis Approved:

Jonice Williams

Thesis Advisor

N. Jo Campbell

Dale R. Frazier

Ronald Beer

Thomas C. Collini

Dean of the Graduate College

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to extend my sincere appreciation to the members of my committee: Dr. Ron Beer, Dr. N. Jo Campbell, Dr. Dale Fuqua, and Dr. Janice Williams. A special thank you to Dr. Williams for her foresight and insistence on quality work.

To Dr. Patrick Murphy and University Counseling Services for providing an opportunity to conduct this research. Dr. Judy Sonnenberg was particularly supportive in the formulation of the research questions and in providing a sense of humor.

Thank you to Mark Bielefeld, and to Ron Chaney for providing a buffer for the technology that often frustrated me. A special thanks to Yolanda Williams, and Dr. Jean Birbilis for their continued encouragement when times became difficult. To Mary Liska, who provided fun, laughter, and expertise in the development of the instrument used in this study. To my running buddies who endured miles of dissertation review and defense: Dr. Diane Montgomery (Marathoner), and to Robyn Stellman [GD, DI, DO, U of I, EIEIOSO], (a.k.a. acronymn queen). Finally, a special thank you to my family and to the family that adopted me in the midst of this process (Brenda, Dan, Allen, Kara).

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
Significance of the Study.....	3
Statement of the Problem.....	5
Research Questions.....	7
Definition of Terms.....	7
Limitations.....	9
II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.....	11
Introduction.....	11
Section I: The Construct of Date Rape....	12
Section II: Intervention Strategies.....	22
Section III: Instrumentation.....	26
Summary.....	35
III. METHOD.....	37
Subjects.....	37
Procedures.....	45
Instrumentation.....	48
Research Design.....	52
Summary.....	57
IV. RESULTS.....	58
Research Question One: What are the Psychometric Properties of the ATR?.....	58
Research Question Two: Can Students' Attitudes Towards Rape be Differentiated Based upon Group Affiliation and/or Gender?.....	68
Research Question Three: Was an Educational Intervention Program Focusing on Acquaintance Rape Effective in Changing College Students' Perceptions of Rape, independent of potential threat by test interaction?..	71
Summary.....	73
V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS....	74
Summary of the Investigation.....	74

Chapter	Page
Conclusions.....	76
Implications.....	92
REFERENCES.....	96
APPENDICES.....	101
APPENDIX A - ATTITUDES TOWARD RAPE SCALE.....	101
APPENDIX B - DEMOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET.....	103
APPENDIX C - VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION STATEMENT.....	104
APPENDIX D - SCREE PLOT.....	105

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. <u>ATR</u> Factor Structure.....	32
2. Frequency Data by Group and Gender.....	41
3. Alpha Reliability Estimates for the <u>ATR</u>	60
4. Varimax Rotated Structure for Factor 1.....	64
5. Varimax Rotated Structure for Factor 2.....	66
6. Varimax Rotated Structure for Factor 3.....	67
7. Group Means.....	69

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Continuum of Sexual Behavior.....	21
2. Design.....	43

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Recent events have heightened awareness of date rape at a national level (Kantrowitz, et al., 1991), both on college campuses and in society as a whole. Efforts to educate college students about sexual issues have been addressed by student services personnel on a national basis as evidenced by the recent establishment of the Task Force on Victimization and Violence on Campus by the American College Personnel Association in 1985 (Roark, 1987). Programs about rape were initiated with caution due to the sensitivity of the topic. However, aggressive programming has recently been advocated on campuses across the nation (Parrot, 1986; Keller, 1989). It can also be argued that institutional response is due, in part, to the potential for litigation against colleges (Nolte, 1985).

Recently, educational programs have focused on awareness and strategies for dealing with date/acquaintance rape. Risk factors for date rape include control issues (e.g., who paid, who drove, etc.), communication about sexual limits, alcohol use, location and activity for the date, and sex role attitudes (Lundberg-Love & Geffner, 1989; Muehlenhard & Linton, 1987; Murnon, Perot & Byrne, 1989). Murnon, Perot, and

Byrne's 1989 study dealt primarily with the risk factor unclear communication about sexual limits.

Communication was seen as the responsibility of both parties with an inherent assumption that clear communication is appropriate dating behavior. They suggested that future research should focus on how women and men can be taught to communicate more effectively about their sexual limits. Further, they believe many of the associated risk factors could be alleviated if men and women are more effective with their communication.

Several researchers have indicated that in addition to communication, educational intervention strategies should also dispel rape myths by providing factual information related to date rape. (Parrot, 1986; Roark, 1986). For example, among the myths perpetuated, a perception continues to exist that women should be held liable for rape if the perpetrator is known to them. This myth reinforces the notion that women are solely responsible for communication and conceivably, date rape. The following factual information has been recommended as essential for date rape intervention strategies (Parrot, 1986; Roark, 1986):

- Rape is the most prevalent violent crime on campus.
- Rape is a violent crime, not a sexual experience.
- The use of force or threats in a sexual

relationship is never acceptable.

- Rape is never the victims fault.

This study examined the effects of a date rape awareness seminar which included a videotape presentation of factual material about date rape, coupled with an emphasis on information about appropriate dating behaviors and interpersonal communication. The videotape presentation was followed by a facilitated discussion about these topics. Ultimately, this educational intervention program helped to provide; 1) factual information to dispel myths related to rape, 2) discussion about communication of sexual limits and, 3) a forum for discussion about appropriate dating behaviors.

Significance of the Study

Women between the ages of 17 and 24 are the most frequently reported victims of rape (Notman & Nadleson, 1976; Feild & Beinen, 1980). While there has been a trend toward an older population of students attending colleges and universities, traditional students, those between the ages of 17 and 24, still comprise 64% of the total population (The Chronicle of Higher Education, Almanac, 1991). College students, specifically women, are particularly vulnerable to date rape for a number of reasons. Men and women comprising this traditional group have generally had limited dating experiences

(Notman & Nadleson, 1976). Therefore, developmentally, college students are typically inexperienced with respect to both appropriate dating behaviors and the ability to communicate their feelings effectively (Notman & Nadleson, 1976). In addition, college students are more vulnerable because they lack a firmly established identity that would allow them to more accurately communicate their desired levels of intimacy (Roark, 1986).

Roark describes the psychological costs of rape as the antithesis of the educational experience. Reported costs include a loss of self-esteem, self-confidence, and a diminished sense of personal control. Offering effective educational programming to reduce the incidence of date rape on university campuses would appear to be critical to the physiological and psychological health of students. Campus organizations (e.g., fraternities, sororities, residence halls, clubs, etc.) frequently make requests for seminars or programs that will help to ameliorate this problem and contribute to student development. While several date rape awareness programs have been developed at campuses nationwide, systematic evaluation of these campus programs offered to student groups has been limited. Implicit in this statement is the need to evaluate the educational efforts of such programming.

Statement of the Problem

The present study answered the following questions:

- 1) What are the psychometric properties of the Attitudes Towards Rape (ATR) questionnaire? (Feild, 1978).
- 2) Were students' attitudes towards rape differentiated based upon group affiliation and/or gender? and
- finally, 3) Was an educational intervention program focusing on acquaintance rape effective in changing college students' perceptions of rape?

In response to the first question, the ATR was evaluated for overall reliability, validity, and its internal factor structure was assessed. Because the ATR was found to be multidimensional in structure, three factor scores were used to answer the remaining two questions. A discussion of scoring and derivation of factor scores will be presented in chapter three.

The second question in this study was to examine existing differences between male and female unaffiliated students, members of the Greek community, and freshmen participating in a leadership program. Based upon the review of literature, reported differences existed in attitudes towards rape between men and women. In addition, previous research has examined programming without respect to group affiliation. Plausible gender and group differences may have existed prior to participation in the date rape awareness program and these differences were examined as

a component of this study. Students participating in the date rape program were members of one of three groups.

The first group of students participated in training for the President's Leadership Council (PLC), and the date rape awareness program was a required segment of training. The second group of students were members of fraternities and sororities, pledging Greek organizations during the 1991 fall semester. Participation in the date rape awareness program was "strongly encouraged" as a community event. The third group of students (unaffiliated students) were residents of one residence hall and attended the program on a voluntary basis. Each ATR pretest factor score was used to examine differences between groups (i.e., student leaders, members of Fraternities and Sororities, and unaffiliated students) and gender prior to treatment (date rape awareness program).

The third question, evaluation of a program, was conducted using a quasi-experimental design. Use of this design provided a method for examination of the threat to external validity, testing effect (i.e., pretest sensitization) [(Campbell & Stanley, 1963)]. In this study, non-affiliated students' posttest ATR factor scores were examined to determine if differences were present based upon treatment and pretest.

Research Questions

The following research questions were addressed in this study.

Research Question One: What are the psychometric properties of the ATR?

Research Question Two: Can students' attitudes towards rape be differentiated based upon group affiliation and/or gender?

Research Question Three: Was an educational intervention program focusing on acquaintance rape effective in changing college students' perceptions of rape?

Definition of Terms

Rape. The FBI (1989) definition of rape is "carnal knowledge of a female forcibly and against her will".

Oklahoma state law defines rape as:

..... an act of sexual intercourse accomplished with a male or female who is not the spouse of the perpetrator under any of the following circumstances:

Of the six circumstances outlined by Oklahoma statute, reference made to the third condition is most applicable to the definition of date rape; 3. "Where force or violence is used or *threatened*, [emphasis added] accompanied by apparent power of execution to the victim or to another person;". By using the word threatened, the definition of rape

can logically extend to date rape even when there is little evidence of physical harm to the victim. Also of primary importance in defining date rape is the issue of consent. 21 O.S. 1111, Note 22 specifically cites case law supporting the contention that an act of sexual intercourse is considered rape when that act occurs in the absence of a woman's consent. Consent is lacking when a woman verbally states that she does not want to engage in sexual intercourse.

While the legal definition varies based upon individual state statutes, three principle elements remain: 1) carnal knowledge of a woman, defined as sexual penetration, 2) lack of consent to this carnal knowledge, and 3) use of force or threat of force to accomplish this act (Burkhart & Stanton, 1988).

Date Rape. Date rape and acquaintance rape are terms that were used interchangeably in this study. The legal definition of rape includes the three principal elements listed above and extends to include Neff's (1988) parameters that sexual assault by someone the victim knows is date rape. Lack of consent (verbal or physical) constitutes rape regardless of whether or not the perpetrator is known to the victim.

Attitudes Towards Rape Survey (ATR). The ATR is an instrument designed by Barnett and Feild (1977) to examine attitudes towards rape. A slightly modified

version of the original ATR was used in this study and is described in detail in chapter three.

Educational Intervention Program. The date rape educational/awareness program, sometimes referred to as an outreach program, consisted of a videotaped presentation about date rape, followed by a discussion by trained facilitators. The videotape used in this program was entitled Campus Rape (1990) and is available from the Rape Treatment Center, Santa Monica Hospital Medical Center in Santa Monica, CA.

Unaffiliated Students. Students were defined as unaffiliated if they were selected for use in this study from the general university community. Unaffiliated students participating in the treatment aspect of this study were residents of one residence hall in attendance of a date rape awareness program.

Limitations

Due to the exploratory nature of this study, the results presented here should be interpreted with caution. Several issues may have impacted the external validity of testing. Subjects were not randomly selected or assigned to treatment groups. Instead they participated as a function of group affiliation, therefore group differences may have existed prior to treatment. Students participating in the treatment program were also given the option of voluntarily

responding to the ATR. Because participation in the study was voluntary, nonrespondents may have differed from respondents. In addition, generalizability of the results may be limited because respondents were not necessarily representative of all college students.

Treatment included a videotaped presentation, coupled with a facilitated group discussion. Several factors were present which could have introduced confounding variables into the study and altered the results. For example, although facilitators were trained for the program, personality factors may have impacted the effectiveness of the presentation. Secondly, in the Greek group, students were "strongly encouraged" by the office of Greek life to participate in the date rape awareness program. Environmental factors also differed between groups. Two of the programs were offered in the evening and one was offered during the day. In addition, each of the programs was offered at different locations within the campus community. Finally, these programs were offered over a period of one academic year and during this academic year a serial rapist did rape several university women. The results of this study should therefore be interpreted with some caution and additional research should be conducted to verify these findings.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

"The time for a woman to start fighting is before she gives it all up--fighting for the right to herself, her pride, her body, her time." (Medea & Thompson, 1974, p. 55)

Introduction

This literature review is subdivided into three major sections summarizing; the construct of date rape, intervention strategies, and instrumentation. Date rape is presented as an extension of a legal definition that has evolved from the concept of forced sexual coercion between partners. While sexual coercion may be interpreted with respect to gender differences, behaviors are presented within a continuum model used to define unacceptable behaviors. The complexity of the construct, coupled with the psychological impact of rape, is inextricably linked to accurate reporting of date rape. An examination of cultural norms as they relate to date rape will also be presented as a foundation for identifying issues to be addressed by intervention strategies. Finally, specific intervention strategies, coupled with a section on measurement of the effectiveness of these strategies will be presented.

Section I: The Construct of Date Rape

Rape is a severely underreported crime (Sandberg, Jackson, & Petretic-Jackson, 1987) yet, according to the most recent figures available, it still comprised 6% of the total violent crimes committed in the U.S. in 1989 (Federal Bureau of Investigation [FBI], 1989). Rape is a violent act committed against a woman, sometimes by an individual unknown to the victim. However, research indicates that 50% of rape victims know their attacker (Madea & Thompson, 1974; Check & Malamuth 1983; Muehlenhard, Friedman & Thomas, 1985). Coercive sex, or date rape, is committed by an individual that the victim knows (Neff, 1988) and often this act goes unreported. Miller and Marshall (1987) posit that date rape is underreported in part because neither the man or the woman involved may cognitively acknowledge the act as rape given the context of a dating relationship. Stereotypes about rape, including the misperceived sense of guilt borne by the woman (Yegidis, 1986), may influence the woman's decision not to report the rape (LaFree, 1989). Given the magnitude of the date rape problem, and the relationship between myths and accurate reporting of date rape, a portion of the program used in this study specifically addressed existing stereotypes.

Studies have been conducted at the campus level to determine the extent of date rape at specific institutions, (Aizenman & Kelley, 1988; Lott, Reilly &

Howard 1982; Yegidis, 1986) and within the general population (Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987). In the institute-specific surveys, Aizenman and Kelley (1988), Lott et al. (1982), Yegidis (1986), and concluded that as many as 22% of women surveyed at institutions of higher education have experienced an interaction meeting the legal definition of rape. Koss and Oros (1982) reported 20% of the females surveyed indicated that they had been a victim of attempted rape by an acquaintance with only 8% of the women reporting the incident to police. Byers and Lewis (1988) cite studies that indicate between 34% and 83% of college women have experienced some form of male sexual aggression, generally characterized as unwelcome sexual advances.

In a preliminary study conducted to determine the extent of acquaintance rape on OSU's campus, 72% of the women surveyed reported that their actions had been misinterpreted and 9% of the women reported experiences that would be classified as rape (Sonnenberg & McCarthy, 1991). Contradictions between whether a woman considered herself raped and experiences that would be defined legally as rape were present within this data. These contradictions are reflective of the stereotypes which influence the underreporting of date rape. For example, women who reported that they had been threatened with force and therefore had sex, indicated that they had been raped in only 10 of the 12 instances.

More disturbing was the fact that 27 women had been physically forced to have intercourse, but only 19 of these women considered themselves raped. If the woman knows the man that initiated unwelcome sexual advances, she is less likely to label the incident as rape (Yegidis, 1986). Women that do identify the incident as date rape may evaluate their decision to report the incident based upon a variety of factors, with psychological and social factors playing the largest role (Yegidis, 1986). Psychological responses to rape include guilt, depression, fear, and some level of personal dysfunction or an inhibited ability to cope (Yegidis, 1986). The most overwhelming factor is the sense of guilt experienced by the victim and the possible acceptance of responsibility for the action because she knew the perpetrator. Women that have been date-raped also evaluate their behaviors against perceived societal norms and often impose feelings of guilt upon themselves. As these women evaluate intrusive behaviors against their perceived views of this incident, within the context of cultural norms, they may be less inclined to report the incident.

Psychological and social factors influence the perceptions of the victim and therefore make it difficult to evaluate her personal definition of inappropriate behaviors. However, as Notman and Nadelson (1976) define inappropriate behaviors related

to date rape, they emphasize the importance of consent. By definition, date rape is sexual assault, without consent, by someone the victim knows. Many researchers have defined date rape as violent deviant behavior, however Margolin, Miller, and Moran (1989) examine date rape from the perspective of nonconsensual sexual behaviors. The perspective of violating the expressed level of desired intimacy, as opposed to a violent act, allows for exploration of role socialization and cultural norms as a function of date rape.

Cultural Norms

A number of theorists have addressed the issue of date rape as a function of acculturation resulting from traditional gender role socialization and sexual norms. Both men and women have historically been socialized to believe that men should initiate sexual advances and that women are responsible for rebuffing unwelcome advances (Berger, et al., 1986; Byers & Lewis, 1988; Check & Malamuth, 1983; Laplante, McCormick & Brannigan, 1980). Such stereotypes contribute to the confusion between men and women that may result in conflict about the desired level of sexual intimacy (Berger, et al., 1986). Burt (1980) found that the higher the sex role stereotyping, adversarial sexual beliefs (distrust of the opposite sex), and acceptance of interpersonal violence, the more likely the person was to believe rape

myths. Rape myths are defined by Burt (1980) as prejudiced, stereotyped, or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists (i.e., "All rapists are mentally sick"). Unfortunately, rape myths are perpetuated through socialization and are widely held by the general population (Malamuth, 1981), with men generally more accepting of rape myths than women (Malamuth & Check, 1981). Because men are typically socialized by a male dominated system, they are apt to adopt rape myths. In Barnett and Feild's (1977) preliminary inquiry into attitudes towards rape, male students were found to be more likely than women to possess sexist attitudes towards rape.

Margolin et al. (1989) found that men were also more likely to engage in manipulative behavior for the purpose of obtaining sex. Traditional socialization of men typically reinforces aggressive behavior. Men who subscribe to traditional roles were less likely to regard rape as a serious offense (Berger, et al., 1986). Men that were more liberal (less likely to subscribe to sexual stereotypes) in their belief system were more likely to respond to a woman's request to stop sexual advances (Byers & Wilson, 1985). Research attempting to correlate acceptance of rape myths with the likelihood of engaging in rape has indicated that men subscribing to rape myths were indeed more likely to engage in behavior defined as rape (Check, & Malamuth, 1981). The

theoretical notion that socialization of traditional belief systems perpetuates rape myths is supported by these studies. Byers and Wilson (1985) further supported this perspective by operationalizing differences between traditional males and liberal males using scores on the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS). Men subscribing to liberal belief systems subscribed to a single standard for the rights and responsibilities of men and women whereas traditional males were more likely to support the "double standard" for men and women.

Lewin (1985) proposed four cultural norms that serve to perpetuate rape myths and potentially date rape. The first of these norms is the ideology of male supremacy as manifested in macho attitudes that reinforce male dominance. Some men approach sexual relationships as a way to demonstrate their superiority by engaging in sexually dominant behavior, thus reinforcing the myth that women really mean yes when they say no. Men with traditional sex role beliefs (e.g., sex relations are adversarial in nature) are more likely to commit date rape (Check & Malamuth, 1983; Muehlenhard, 1988). Check and Malamuth also found that men generally did not perceive acquaintance rape to be the same as "real" rape. Secondly, Lewin has indicated that a lack of positive norms about sexual experience exists for women. Sex role scripts classify sex as a male victory and a female defeat. This cultural norm

also reinforces the notion that men should have far more premarital experiences than women, hence, the traditional "double message" given to young adults. Lewin suggests that women should instead be socialized to recognize sex as a mutually shared experience, thus offering positive models for women. If the socialization process emphasized positive sexual experiences for both men and women, historical stereotypes could be rebuked and the incidence of date rape could be reduced.

Lewin included a third cultural norm emphasizing power for the initiator in a hierarchical structure. Power is characterized in a traditional dating relationship by the male assuming a dominant role, which is present when the male decides where the couple will go, provides transportation, and pays the expenses of a date. As power is assumed by the man, the relationship takes on a hierarchical structure, the male assumes a dominant role and the woman a subservient role, that may preclude the existence of mutually agreed upon levels of intimacy. Muehlenhard et al. (1985) found that men have a tendency to evaluate the woman's desire for sex by whether the man paid for the date as opposed to splitting the costs with the woman. However, women may interpret the male paying as merely an expression of generosity, not an acceptance of a sexual relationship, giving rise to conflict (Muehlenhard, 1988).

Muehlenhard and Linton (1987) found that sexually aggressive behaviors and a potential for date rape were associated with the male initiating the date, paying for the dating expenses, and driving, thus supporting Lewin's contention that dominance can contribute to unwanted sexual intercourse. Delegation of power to only one person, as is the case when expenses are not shared, interferes with an individual's sense of equality and may inhibit the expression of desired levels of sexual intimacy.

Finally, Lewin describes the stroking function as a correlate of the male initiative; women believe that men's needs should take priority over their own. The stroking function is a cultural norm exemplified in the case of a woman succumbing to a man's sexual advances for fear of hurting his feelings. Murnen, Perot, and Byrne (1989) found that women appeared to perceive their sexual needs as less important than their male companion's needs. Women may acquiesce to the male because they do not possess communication skills that would allow them to express desired levels of sexual intimacy. Socialization emphasizing traditional male-female stereotypes only serves to reinforce the rape myths (e.g., women are responsible for rebuffing unwelcome advances) that Burt (1980) and Malamuth (1981) describe as destructive patterns contributing to the incidence of date rape.

Cultural norms emphasizing sexually aggressive male behaviors may be accepted by both men and women.

Margolin et al. (1989) examined the relationship of rape attitudes and violations of consent. If males identify their sexuality with dominance, and females assume a passive role, then cultural acceptance of rape myths is implied (Margolin et al., 1989). Women may subscribe to rape myths as a defense mechanism to protect themselves from sensing their own vulnerability should they be confronted by a date rape encounter (Burt, 1980).

Likewise, men may subscribe to rape myths because they have failed to evaluate their own sense of self and how they view their own behaviors as they relate to rape.

Continuum of Behaviors

Berger, et al. (1986), Sandberg, et al. (1987), and Byers and Wilson (1985) argue that sexual assault and ultimately date rape can be placed on a continuum of behaviors that may or may not include the threat or use of physical force. At one end of the continuum are sexually acceptable, legal behaviors emphasizing mutuality and shared consent. Behaviors become increasingly manipulative and clearly nonconsensual as they move in the direction of sexual assault. A continuum of increasingly exploitive sexual behavior has also been presented by Neff (1988) as a tool for educating individuals about sexually appropriate

behavior. Figure 1 represents Neff's incremental scale, originally designed and presented in a regional brochure by Bateman, and used as a model for educating college students. Men and women subscribing to rape myths find themselves more likely to accept inappropriate behaviors (Burt, 1980).

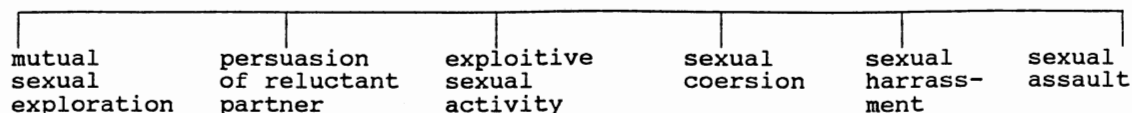


Figure 1. Continuum of Sexual Behavior

Providing healthy, non-exploitive relationship models are critical if professionals are to be successful in fostering the development of college students. Neff's continuum model defines legally and sexually appropriate behaviors on one end with illegal behaviors at the opposite end of the continuum. Factual information regarding acceptable behaviors coupled with this continuum model may be used in educational intervention programs. Appropriate behaviors were presented as a second component of the date rape program used in this study. If individuals can gain insight

into healthier behaviors within the context of a dating relationship, perhaps the incidence of coercive sex or date rape will decrease.

Section II: Intervention Strategies

Development of intervention strategies designed to mitigate date rape have increased as a function of a heightened awareness of date rape, an issue that possesses strong emotional components. The following section will outline the historical development of date rape intervention programs that have been offered on campuses nationwide, provide specific components of successful programs, and include a discussion of effective modes of presentation.

Historical Development of Programs

Historically, programs about date rape have been addressed primarily to females (Baier, et al., 1991; Parrot, 1986); however, Parrot (1986) emphasized the need to include both men and women. Several possible forums for presentation of programs are available on college campuses. Groups often make requests for educational outreach programs and such groups have included orientation sessions, residence hall groups, off-campus organizations, and student athletes (Drinkwater & Parrot, 1986; Keller, 1989).

Strategies designed to effectively deal with the

issue of sexually coercive behaviors, including date rape, must be supported by the college community (Drinkwater & Parrot, 1986; Roark, 1987; Sandberg et al., 1987). Support from faculty, staff, and administration is important if students are to receive consistent messages that will reinforce sexually appropriate behaviors (Drinkwater & Parrot, 1986; Roark, 1987; Sandberg et al., 1987). Policy statements regarding appropriate sexual behavior should also be developed and endorsed by the administration (Bogal-Allbritten & Allbritten, 1991; Roark, 1986; Sandberg et al., 1987).

Student affairs administrators have diligently worked to design programs to reduce or eliminate unwanted sexual experiences for approximately 30 years (Baier, Rosenzweig & Whipple, 1991). Programs have been designed to prevent new cases of victimization by addressing attitudes and values related to victimization (Roark, 1987). Programs involving peer educators, capitalizing upon their ability to communicate with students, are among the most effective (Keller, 1989; Parrot, 1986). Programs are also offered by student affairs personnel and have typically involved staff from health services, residential life, and the dean of student affair's office (Keller, 1989; Parrot, 1986).

The intervention program used in this study capitalized on the expertise of student affairs

personnel which included staff from the counseling services, and the university police department. This program was also supported by university administrators as demonstrated by inclusion of this program as a component of the leadership training program offered through the Vice President for Student Affairs Office.

Components of Programming

Several topics or components have been identified as critical to the effectiveness of date rape intervention programs. An attempt to dispel myths surrounding stereotypes about sexually appropriate behaviors (Barnett & Feild, 1977) has already been identified as important for inclusion in a date rape intervention program. Additionally, factual information should be presented regarding the definition of rape, incidence of rape, and legal consequences of such behavior (Miller & Marshall, 1987; Sandberg, et al., 1987). Sandberg et al. (1987) indicated that options regarding treatment if an individual is raped should also be presented.

While these major components have been identified as critical, several authors emphasized the importance of including a component on values clarification and a demonstration of effective communication skills (Baier et al., 1991; Roark, 1986; Sandberg et al., 1987). Acceptance of stereotypical belief systems may be the

result of what Marcia (cited in Papilia & Olds, 1986) would describe as identity foreclosure, or accepting belief systems without really evaluating one's own belief system. Because college students are developmentally evaluating their own sexual issues (Aizenman & Kelley, 1988), values clarification through use of discussion groups can help students to identify their own limits (Roark, 1986; Sandberg et al., 1987).

Allgeier (cited in Murnen, Perot & Byrne, 1989) found that college students had difficulty both describing their own sexual limits and in communicating limits to their partners. Sandberg et al. (1987) recommended that students become familiar with the continuum of sexually aggressive behaviors (see Figure 1) so that they can identify and communicate their desired levels of sexual intimacy. Miscommunication about desired levels of sexual intimacy is viewed as a risk factor for date rape (Lundberg-Love & Geffner, 1989) and the first step in assisting students to communicate, is clarification of their limits. Both Roark (1986) and Sandberg et al. (1987) support assertiveness training and interpersonal communication skills as mechanisms for communicating desired levels of sexual intimacy. As students become more adept at identifying their limits, they will be in a better position to communicate effectively and remove themselves from potentially dangerous situations.

*

Models for Presentation

Several mediums have been explored for presenting educational programs about date rape. The most successful programs have included either a videotape, or a vignette about date rape followed by discussion (Yegidis, 1986). Borden, Karr and Caldwell-Colbert's (1988) study supported this format and emphasized a dynamic interactive discussion component with the audience as most effective in inciting change in individuals' attitudes towards rape.

Intervention strategies consist of both content and presentation components. Content should include factual information about date rape, information about rape myths, and an emphasis on effective communication skills (Baier et al., 1991; Barnett & Feild, 1977; Miller & Marshall, 1987; Roark, 1986; Sandberg et al., 1987). Presentations that have evidenced change also include an element of interaction that engages students in evaluating their own behavior.

Section III: Instrumentation

The construct of date rape, and intervention strategies have been outlined above. Intervention programs have historically emphasized educational programs designed to challenge belief systems that have been perpetuated for decades. Impacting cultural norms through educational interventions designed to promote

healthy sexual experiences remains a formidable task. Inherent in this task is the challenge to evaluate the efforts of such programs. Borden, et al. (1988) noted that systematic evaluation of rape awareness programs has not been reported. Additionally, few instruments have been designed to measure attitudes towards rape (Deitz, Blackwell, Daley & Bertley, 1982; Harrison, Downes & Williams, 1991). A discussion of the few instruments available and a rationale for selection of the instrument used in this study will be presented below.

Feild (1978), in his pioneering research, designed an instrument to explore the dimensionality of rape attitudes. Initially, he developed the Attitudes Towards Rape Scale (ATR) for the purpose of selecting jurors in rape cases. His instrument was subsequently used in the courts to research differences between groups, including rapists, police, counselors, and citizens. The ATR has also been used with college students (Barnett & Feild, 1977; Borden, Karr & Caldwell-Colbert, 1988; Harrison et al., 1991). Barnett and Feild (1977) conducted a study utilizing a college student population for the purpose of identifying differences between males' and females' attitudes towards rape. In this preliminary study, they found that male students possessed traditional sexist attitudes towards rape. For example, 32% of the men and

8% of the women responding to the ATR believed it would do some women some good to get raped. Based upon their findings, they recommended that rape education programs be initiated to reduce these sexist views of men and potentially some women.

A decade later, Borden et al. (1988) employed a modified version of Barnett and Feild's ATR to evaluate the effectiveness of a lecture format presentation on rape awareness and prevention. Results of this study indicted that the lecture format was not effective in changing attitudes towards rape as measured by the ATR.

Several instruments have been inconsistently used in studies seeking to evaluate the effectiveness of date rape awareness programs. For example, Borden, Karr, and Caldwell-Colbert (1988) included the Rape Empathy Scale (RES) in their evaluation of a university rape prevention program. One instrument which has been used consistently and possesses evidence of reliability and validity, is the ATR. In the most recent study evaluating the effectiveness of date rape programs, (Harrison et al., 1991) a modified ATR was used as the instrument for evaluation of rape awareness programs. Harrison et al. selected and modified the ATR for two reasons. Rape myths were perceived to contribute to the incidence of date rape. Therefore a change in attitudes towards rape, as measured by the ATR, would have been useful in measuring the success of intervention

programs. Secondly, Harrison et al. (1991) used the ATR in the development of their own instrument because the ATR was perceived to possess some level of content validity. Harrison, et al. (1991) thus used a modified version of the ATR to assess the effects of an educational program about date rape. This instrument employed a 5-point Likert format which allowed subjects to respond with no opinion. However, reliability and dimensionality were not adequately measured due to the limited number of subjects (N=96) used in their study.

Development of the ATR

Items on the ATR were initially constructed by selecting statements primarily from the social deviance literature. These statements were thought to reflect people's opinions towards rape (Barnett & Feild, 1977). From this initial review of the literature, 75 items were developed which represented three perspectives; affective (feelings of liking-disliking), cognitive (beliefs & expectations), and conative (action oriented).

Establishing content validity is dependent upon an adequate sampling of items from the domain of potential items (Nunnally, 1978). Items on the ATR were selected from a body of literature, and from three perspectives, implying that Barnett and Feild attempted to sample items from a domain or larger hypothetical set of items.

Therefore, the method used in this initial selection of items provided some evidence of content validity.

From the initial pool of 75 items, 37 were selected for use in a preliminary study with 200 male and 200 female undergraduate students enrolled at a large university (Barnett & Feild, 1977). Evaluation of the 37 items was conducted through an examination of item response distributions and item content. Interviews were also conducted with selected respondents in an effort to clarify the items. The final version of the ATR consisted of 32 items, half phrased positively, and half negatively, to control for response set. The ATR items retained, employed a 6-point Likert scale which ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Feild (1978) also constructed the ATR with sensitivity to brevity.

Feild (1978) attempted to provide an initial, empirical examination of the construct of rape attitudes through an examination of the dimensionality of Attitudes Towards Rape. The development of the ATR utilized one systematic, objective method for operationalizing concepts related to perceptions of rape (Feild, 1978; Feild & Bienen, 1980). Examination of dimensions and structure was conducted using responses to the ATR which was administered to three subgroups; citizens (n=1056), police officers (n=254), and rape crisis counselors (n=118). Separate principal

components factor analyses of the ATR, with varimax rotations, were performed for each of the three groups; rape crisis counselors, patrol officers, and citizens. Eight factors for each of the three groups with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were retained. These eight factors were reported to possess a high degree of similarity, thus lending support for construct validity. Although a construct such as "attitudes towards rape" is not directly observable, similarities between groups on identified factors appeared to lend support to construct validity (Nunnally, 1978).

In assessing the reliability of the instrument, Feild stated that a measure of stability of these factors could not be assessed because the subjects did not participate in a test-retest method. However, he provided support for internal consistency reliability of the ATR through use of separate factor analyses to show a high degree of similarity of factor structures across groups. Results of these factor analyses are encouraging; however, studies have not been conducted that consistently replicate these results. Because the three subgroups identified above (citizens, police officers, and counselors) responded with a similar structure, Feild combined the groups (N=1,448) and factor analyzed the responses of this larger group. An orthogonal solution again yielded 8 interpretable factors which accounted for 50% of the total common

variance. Feild's eight factors are described in Table 1. (See Appendix A for actual items.)

TABLE 1
ATR FACTOR STRUCTURE

Factor	Percentage of Variance Accounted for by Factor	Items Loading on each Factor
Woman's responsibility for rape prevention. +	17.6	1,6,7,13,14, 16,17,25, 27,30,31
Sex as a motivator for rape. *	7.6	19,21,24,26
Severe punishment for rape. -	7.0	2,8,20,28
Victim precipitation of rape. +	4.4	4,15,18
Normality of rapists. *	3.9	3,5
Power as a motivator for rape. *	3.7	9,12,22,32
Favorable perception of a woman after rape. -	3.5	10,29
Resistance as a woman's role during rape. +	3.3	11,23
+ pro-rape attitudes, - anti-rape attitudes, * general perceptions of rape.		

Factor loadings were retained if they exceeded $\pm .30$, with relatively small loadings on items not identified as consistent with that factor. Factor 1, defined by 11 items, (e.g., A woman should be responsible for preventing her own rape) reflected what Feild termed, "Woman's responsibility in rape prevention." Feild's second factor, consisted of four items (e.g., Rape is an expression of an uncontrollable desire for sex), which reflected the misperception that "sex is a motivation for rape." Factor 3 was characterized by items dealing with punishment for rape (e.g., A convicted rapist should be castrated). Factor 4 reflected a belief that women cause rape through their appearance (e.g., Women provoke rape by their appearance or behavior), and was named, "Victim precipitation of rape." Factor 5 was associated with the perceived normality of rapists (e.g., Rapists are "normal" men). Feild indicated that Factor 6 was similar to Factor 2, in the identification of a motivation for rape and in this case power was seen as a motivation for rape (e.g., All rape is an exercise in power over women). Factor 7, consisted of only two items (A raped woman is a less desirable woman, and A woman should not feel guilty after a rape). This factor was called "favorable perception of a woman after rape." Finally, Factor 8 also consisted of two items (If a woman is going to be raped, she might as well relax and

enjoy it and, During a rape, a woman should do everything she can to resist) which Feild named "Resistance as woman's role during rape."

While higher order factors were not empirically tested by Feild, he did identify pro-rape and anti-rape attitudes, as noted in Table 1. Feild (1978) described individuals with pro-rape attitudes as subscribing to the belief that women should be held responsible for their own rape, and these factors are identified in Table 1. Anti-rape attitudes characterized individuals who believe that rapists should be severely punished. Based upon Feild's reference to pro-rape and anti-rape sentiments, the current study was conducted with the hypothesis that the ATR consisted of three higher order factors, pro-rape attitudes, anti-rape attitudes, and a third factor, general perceptions of rape. General perceptions of rape, the third higher-order factor identified by Feild and noted in Table 1, implied a knowledge of factual material about the topic of rape. High scores on this factor were indicative of accurate knowledge about rape. In the case of pro-rape or anti-rape attitudes, high scores on the factor represented a high degree of agreement with that sentiment.

Relatively few studies have been conducted to evaluate the validity, reliability, and dimensionality of the ATR. Despite the paucity of information available about this experimental instrument, the ATR

has been one of the few scales used for evaluation of date rape programs on college campuses. Given the neoteric quality of this research, the lack of instrumentation developed for use in this area, and the need to study the psychometric properties of this instrument, the ATR was chosen for use in this study.

Summary

Psychological factors associated with the crime of rape, coupled with unclear delimitations of date rape, obscure accurate reporting. Although rape is underreported, traditional-aged college students are particularly vulnerable to date rape. Student services personnel have proposed a variety of intervention strategies to educate students about appropriate sexual behaviors in an attempt to reduce the incidence of date rape. While these programs are commendable, an accurate assessment strategy of program effectiveness has yet to be designed. An operational definition of date rape, one intervention strategy designed to mitigate the occurrence of date rape, and an assessment of one instrument designed to measure effectiveness of these programs has been presented as a basis for this study. The current study was designed to provide additional information about the psychometric properties of the ATR including data about reliability, validity, and dimensionality. Secondly, this instrument was used as a

measure of college students perceptions about date rape with respect to group affiliation, and gender. Finally, the ATR was used as an assessment of a date rape intervention program.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methods of this study, including information relative to subjects, procedures, instrumentation, and research design.

Subjects

Voluntary Nature of the Study

This study was conducted on the campus of Oklahoma State University (OSU). OSU is a comprehensive land-grant university located in the south central region of the United States. Permission to conduct this study was obtained from the Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board (IRB). College students were informed, through use of a prepared statement, that participation in this study was entirely voluntary. A copy of the voluntary participation statement is included in Appendix C.

Representativeness of the sample

Demographic data were collected on the sample (N=363) to determine representativeness of this sample with respect to the total population of students

attending OSU. Females constituted 56 percent (n=202), and males 31 percent of (n=113) the sample. Thirteen percent of the Information provided by Oklahoma State University's Office of Institutional Research indicated that 46% of the student population attending OSU during the targeted 1991-92 academic year was female and 53% were male. The sample for this study overrepresented females by 10% and males were underrepresented by 22%.

The majority of students sampled were of traditional college age with 233 (64%) between the ages of 18 to 20, 103 (28%) between the ages of 21 to 25, 9 (2%) between the ages of 26 to 30, and 11 (3%) students over the age of 31. Seven (2%) students did not indicate their age. This sample was not representative of the student population enrolled at OSU during the fall semester of 1991 where 33% of the students were between the ages of 18-20, 42% of the students between the ages of 21-25, and 25% of the students over the age of 25.

The majority of students in the current sample were White. Ethnic minorities comprised slightly less than 8 percent of the sample with 3 students identifying themselves as Hispanic, 7 students as Black, 16 as Native American, and 4 as other. Eleven students did not indicate their ethnicity. When compared to reported ethnic composition for OSU, students participating in this study were reflective of the institutional

proportions with 89% of the students identified as White and 11% as minorities.

The majority of the students participating in this study (92%) were of traditional college age (17-25). Although the sample overrepresented females and younger students (i.e., 18-20 years of age), the literature identified these students as most at risk for date rape. Most students in the sample were single (n=336), as opposed to married (n=23). Four students did not indicate their marital status. Because the majority of students in this study were of traditional college age (92%) and single (93%), they represented a high risk group for date rape. Therefore, the assessment of attitudes towards rape was particularly relevant for this sample.

Subject Grouping

A total of 363 students completed the ATR and their responses were used in assessing the psychometric properties of the instrument. However, only 189 of these students participated in the treatment aspect of this study. The treatment component was designed to answer research question two; were students' attitudes towards rape differentiated based upon group affiliation and/or gender? Subjects (N=189) voluntarily participated in the date rape awareness program, offered by University Counseling Services, which constituted the

treatment aspect of this study.

Program participants were classified into three groups, the first group consisted of 99 college freshman. As indicated in Table 2, 32 men and 52 women (15 students did not indicate gender) comprised the Presidents Leadership Council (PLC) group. Students were selected for the PLC based upon criteria established by the office of the Vice President for Student Services. PLC students were entering freshmen, graduates of an Oklahoma high school and possessed leadership characteristics which included: participation in a variety of high school activities and organizations, strong academic records, special honors, religious organization participation, community involvement, and a demonstrated ability to act in a leadership capacity. A selection committee evaluated applications based upon the above criteria and 100 entering freshmen were selected, but only 99 elected to participate in the 1991 fall PLC class. PLC students participated in a leadership training orientation session conducted one week prior to the start of the fall semester. Five sessions of the date rape awareness program were conducted, using a small group format, throughout one day of the orientation program.

TABLE 2
FREQUENCY DATA GROUP BY GENDER

Group	Male	Female	N/A	N
Presidents Leadership Council	32	52	15	99
Greek Organizations	16	25	11	52
Non-affiliated	18	12	8	38
Total	66	89	34	189

The second group of students was comprised of 52 members of fraternities (n=16) and sororities (n=25), and 11 students did not indicate gender. Students participating in this date rape program session were members of the 1991 fall pledge class and participation was "strongly encouraged" by the Greek life division at Oklahoma State University. Because this program was conducted after the PLC program, students were instructed not to complete the ATR if they had participated in the PLC program. Although the students were "strongly encouraged" to attend the date rape awareness session, approximately 50% of the group which attended the session refused to complete the ATR. Several members of a fraternity destroyed the ATR.

The third group of participants in this study was comprised of 38 students, 18 men, 12 women, with 8 not responding to the question about gender. This group was

defined as non-affiliated. Students in this group were obtained from one residence hall where the program was conducted as an outreach program offered by University Counseling Services. This program was advertised throughout the residence hall and participation was completely voluntary. Again it was stated that the ATR should not be completed if a student had previously participated in this study (i.e., as a PLC or Greek member).

Number of Subjects per Analysis

Although 189 students participated in the portion of the study designed to determine group and gender differences [see Figure 2.1], a total of 273 responses were utilized to evaluate the psychometric properties of the ATR. These additional responses were obtained as a function of research question three, which utilized a quasi-experimental design [see Figure 2.2]. In addition to the 189 responses obtained as a function of question one, noncontaminated responses were obtained from two additional groups. Noncontaminated responses were defined as those ATR responses not influenced by a prior administration of a pretest or treatment. Pretest responses (n=49) were utilized from G2 [see Figure 2.2]. Finally, 35 responses were used from the group receiving neither pretest nor treatment (G4) [see Figure 2.2], bringing the total number of subjects to 273.

Group Differences

[2.1]

	Group 1 PLC	Group 2 Greek	Group 3 Non-affiliated
Male	(n=32) F	(n=16) F	(n=18) F
Female	(n=52) F	(n=25) F	(n=12) F
N/A	(n=15) F	(n=11) F	(n=8) F

Quasi-Experimental Design

[2.2]

G1	O(n=38) X	O(n=30)
G2	O(n=49)	O(n=48)
G3	X	O(n=90)
G4		O(n=35)

Treatment Effect Analysis

[2.3]

		Treatment	
		yes	no
Pretest	yes	n=30	n=48
	no	n=90	n=35

Note: F=Pretest Factor Scores for Factors one, two and three.

Figures 2. Design

The pretest sensitization issue was addressed by using the responses of 203 students. In addition to the unaffiliated group (n=38) used to answer the group differences question, subjects enrolled in three university classes, offered through the Department of Applied Behavioral Studies in Education (ABSED) and the Department of Family Relations and Childhood Development (FRCD), participated in the study. As shown in Figure 2.2, G2(N=49), G3(N=90), and G4(N=35) were chosen to participate in the control groups designed to answer research question three; Was an educational intervention program focusing on acquaintance rape effective in changing college students' perceptions of rape?

The first (ABSED) class which acted as a control group (G2) was pretested prior to a class lecture and posttested following the lecture. The second (FRCD) control group (G3) received the treatment and subsequently completed the posttest measure. The third (ABSED) control group (G4) completed the posttest ATR at the conclusion of a class lecture. The posttest ATR's from the four groups identified above were used to examine pretest sensitization of the ATR relative to treatment, as shown in Figure 2.3. It should be noted that additional data collected on the entire sample from this study (N=363) were retained for further analyses unrelated to the current research.

Procedures

Facilitators

Three individuals were selected to act as facilitators for this study. Two of the facilitators were professional staff members in the University Counseling Services Department, and the third facilitator was a police officer with the OSU police department. Because each of the facilitators had previous experience with the topic of date rape, minimal training was conducted. However, a one hour planning session was undertaken to ensure consistency of information presented which served to enhance the reliability of the study. Each facilitator viewed the videotape used in this study, and read the pamphlet which accompanied the videotape. Each facilitator was also provided with a list of specific areas to be covered in the discussion. This list was developed by the program facilitators as a cooperative effort and was based, in part, on the review of the literature used in this study. Information to be covered consisted of:

- Knowing who you are with.
- Knowing your limits with alcohol.
- Knowing your sexual limits.
- Developing an awareness of the surroundings and planning for an exit if necessary.
- Acknowledgment of respect for both men and women.

- Clarification of the myth that "yes" means "no."
- Emphasis on communication between partners.
- Dispelling of the power myth (e.g., because a male pays, does not mean he is owed.)
- The definition of what constitutes rape.

Date Rape Program

Following the introduction of facilitators, students were informed through a statement read to the groups (Appendix C) that completion of the ATR was voluntarily. They were then asked to complete the ATR as part of this study. The instrument was administered prior to the introduction of the date rape awareness program and acted as a pretest measure as indicated in Figure 2.1. After all students had completed the ATR (approximately 10 minutes), the date rape awareness program was administered to those students participating in the treatment component of the study. This program consisted of two components; a presentation of factual material using a videotaped format, followed by a facilitated discussion of that material. This program was offered to the three groups (PLC, Greek, non-affiliated) which ranged in size from 38 to 99.

One or two of the three trained facilitators conducted the programs for each group. The co-facilitators opened each program with an introduction of the topic of rape, and a brief presentation of factual

information that included a statement about incidence of rape on campus. Based upon the review of literature presented in this study, students were apprised that approximately one in four women will be raped sometime during their college career. After the short introduction, which lasted approximately 5 minutes, students viewed one of two videotapes. The first was entitled "Campus Rape", produced by the Rape Treatment Center, Santa Monica, CA, Hospital Medical Center, was 15 minutes in length. The Greek group viewed a videotape specifically designed for use with fraternities and sororities entitled "Playing the Game." Both videotapes emphasized risk factors related to date rape. Topics addressed by these films included factual information about risk factors associated with date rape; for example, use of alcohol, failing to remain with a group, and an unawareness of surroundings. At the conclusion of the videotape, students participated in a group discussion, led by two of the facilitators. This discussion typically lasted approximately 30 minutes. Students were typically reluctant to begin discussing the topic of date rape. However, after a student broke the silence, a lively discussion usually ensued. Women often united as a group to make their point that when they said no, they meant no. Likewise, men expressed the need for women to communicate directly and consistently their desired levels of sexual

intimacy. The program was concluded with a summarization of key points and an invitation to contact the facilitator(s) if additional information was desired. Finally, a posttest ATR was administered at the conclusion the sessions offered to the students participating in the quasi-experimental aspect of this study [see Figure 2.2].

Instrumentation

Harrison, Downes, and Williams (1991) indicated that no "empirically-validated", published instruments were available for examining attitudes toward rape. However, several "non-empirically-validated" instruments were evaluated for use in this study, including the Sexist Attitudes Toward Women Scale (SATWS), the Conflict Tactics Scale (CTS), Makepeace's Violence in Dating Scale, and The Attitudes Toward Rape (ATR) scale. Upon review of these scales, the ATR was selected because it had previously been used with college students to assess date rape awareness programs. There was also evidence of reliability and validity for this instrument, which was perceived as relevant to this study. Additionally, research indicated a need existed to examine the psychometric properties of this instrument for future use.

The instrument used in this study was a modified version of Feild's (1978) Attitudes Toward Rape (ATR)

questionnaire (see Appendix A). The ATR was modified from a six-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree (scored 1), to strongly disagree (scored 6); to a four-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree (scored 1) to strongly disagree (scored 4), to allow for optical scanning of the response sheets.

Given the large number of subjects sampled in the targeted population, it was decided that surveys which allowed for optical scanning would reduce both the cost of data entry and data entry error. Many optical scanning forms, available through University Testing and Evaluation Service (UTES), were then assessed for use in the current study. It was determined that a form employing a six-point scale, as used in the original ATR, was unavailable. Thus, the ATR instrument was modified to a four-point scale to allow for optical scanning of student responses. Even with this modification the response sheet had to be specially ordered for use in this study.

The modified version of the ATR required each subject to respond to one of four levels of agreement to each of the 32 statements presented. For example, sample items included, "A woman can be raped against her will", and "A raped woman is a less desirable woman", with the scales running from (1) strongly agree to (4) strongly disagree.

Scoring

Feild (1978) originally scored the ATR using eight factor scores extracted from the principle components factor analysis. Factor scores are simply a linear combination of items, which are correlated with each other, yielding one score which represents a theoretical construct. The principle components solution was particularly useful because it yielded uncorrelated, orthogonal factor scores, thus eliminating multicollinearity (Stevens, 1986). Feild (1978) further suggested that theoretically, these eight factors could be reduced to three factors; pro-rape attitudes (e.g., Most women secretly desire to be raped), anti-rape attitudes (e.g., Rape is the worst crime that can be committed), and general perceptions of rape (e.g., Rapists are "normal" men).

In the current study, scoring was conducted using Feild's (1978) suggested higher-order three factor solution. Surveys were scanned through use of an optical scanning device and a databank of responses was constructed. These data were merged with a control file to allow for statistical analysis. The statistical package SPSS (Nie, 1975) was used for subsequent analyses of the data.

Frequencies were calculated for each of the items and for the demographic data reported on the ATR's. Because some students did not respond to every item,

means derived from the reported frequencies across all items were substituted as estimates for missing item values. Means and standard deviations were derived for each of the items on the total sample (N=363) and used to calculate standard scores. These standard scores were subsequently used to conduct the factor analysis. A principal components factor analysis was conducted using only the noncontaminated responses (n=273). The principal components method of factor condensation maximizes or explains more variance for the loadings than in any other method of factor analysis (Nunnally, 1978). An orthogonal solution yielded three factors (retained based upon the scree rule) which were uncorrelated (orthogonal) with the other, and these coefficients were used to calculate factor scores. The scree rule capitalizes upon the graphical representation of the eigenvalues (Stevens, 1986). Eigenvalues/factors were retained if they were graphically plotted above the point of sharp descent, as shown in Appendix D. These regressed factor scores, linear combinations of the actual items, were perfectly "estimated" scores for individuals for each of the three dimensions tested in this study.

The first factor, comprised of 16 items, reflected the pro-rape sentiment described by Feild (1978). In this study, high scores on this factor characterized individuals that believed "women were responsible for

rape" (refer to Table 4). A high score on this factor would indicate that the individual supported the myth that rape is the woman's responsibility. High scores on the second factor (refer to Table 5), consisted of six items and reflected the attitude of hostility toward men. Finally, the third factor (refer to Table 6), consisting of four items, characterized the dimension of the misperception that rape is sex.

Research Design

This study sought to answer three questions: 1) What are the psychometric properties of the ATR? 2) Can students' attitudes towards rape be differentiated based upon group affiliation and/or gender? and finally, 3) Was an educational intervention program focusing on acquaintance rape effective in changing college students' perceptions of rape?

Research Question One: What are the psychometric properties of the ATR?

An examination of the psychometric properties of the ATR was conducted using noncontaminated responses (N=273) on the ATR. Noncontaminated responses included all pretest responses and the posttest responses for the group not receiving the treatment (see Figures 2.1 and 2.2).

First, an examination of the dimensionality of the

ATR was conducted using a principal components analysis with a varimax rotation. A principal components solution was used for clarity and ease of interpretation of factor scores, and to provide support for Feild's initial underlying theoretical factor structure of the instrument. An estimate of reliability for the modified instrument was also obtained using coefficient-alpha. This coefficient provided an estimate of the internal consistency of responses to the ATR. Coefficient-alpha provides an upper limit of reliability for tests constructed from the domain sampling model (Nunnally, 1978), the model Feild used to obtain ATR items. Alpha coefficients were calculated for the overall instrument and for each of the three factors derived from this study.

In his study, items were carefully selected by Feild (1978) from a hypothesized domain of items. Content validity was assessed based upon Feild's original development of the items from the domain. Construct validity was supported through examination of the factor structure.

Research Question Two: Can students' attitudes towards rape be differentiated based upon group affiliation and/or gender?

Three between groups (2 x 3) analyses of variance (ANOVA), were performed to examine differences between

the groups prior to treatment. Gender and group served as the independent variables, gender at two levels, and group at three levels. Each of the three factor scores acted as a dependent variable. Therefore three separate ANOVA's were deemed appropriate because having utilized regressed factor scores, the factors were independent of each other (see Figure 2.1).

Group affiliation and gender were hypothesized to be related to attitudes toward rape. One interaction effect (group x gender), and two main effects were examined to determine if significant differences existed for

group, gender, or their combination. Because subjects may have differed based upon group affiliation and gender, the three pretest ATR factor scores were examined to determine if group and gender differences existed prior to treatment.

Research Question Three: Was an educational intervention program focusing on acquaintance rape effective in changing college students' perceptions of rape?

In order for the results of this study to be generalizable, students sampled must be representative of the larger population. Therefore, in the examination of treatment effect, non-affiliated groups were chosen because they represented the most heterogeneous group of students. The non-affiliated group was hypothesized to

be most similar to the general population of traditional college students because they did not represent a specific subgroup.

Research question three was evaluated using a two way ANOVA design [see Figure 2.3]. Subjects were nested in both pretest (yes or no) and treatment (yes or no), with factor scores on the posttest serving as the dependent variable. Three separate 2 x 2 ANOVA's were conducted to assess the effectiveness of the date rape program for each of the three factors previously identified.

Non-affiliated students were assigned to one of the following four treatment groups [Figure 2.2]:

- 1) Pretest (n=38), treatment, posttest (n=30)
- 2) Pretest (n=49), no treatment, posttest (n=48)
- 3) Treatment, posttest (n=90)
- 4) Posttest only (n=35)

It should be noted that subjects were not matched due to the sensitive nature of the topic. Several of the students chose not to complete the ATR posttest.

Instruments designed to measure attitudes, used as pretests, may themselves introduce sensitization to the content that they have been designed to measure. Therefore, the pretest may have influenced the students' attitudes and subsequent responses on the ATR posttest measure. Hence, the ATR pretest could have potentially introduced a threat to external validity by sensitizing

the subjects to the treatment. Pretest sensitization could potentially alter the treatment effect by focusing the attention of the students to the topic of date rape. This threat to external validity, the interaction of treatment and testing, introduced by using a pretest, was assessed using a quasi-experimental design (Campbell & Stanley, 1963).

The question, "Did the pretest sensitize students, thus confounding the measurement of treatment effects?" was answered as a function of research question three. Each ANOVA allowed for a test of whether or not the pretest had an effect. In other words, a significant main effect of pretest would indicate that the two groups receiving the pretest differed in their ATR responses from those students in the two groups not receiving a pretest. Furthermore, if a significant interaction effect had been detected, pretest and treatment effects would have been confounded. Such a finding might imply that the pretest had a sensitization effect. This would signify that a clear assessment of the ability of the program to influence attitudes could not be determined.

In the absence of such an interaction effect, the main effect of treatment could be evaluated. In other words, "Did the two groups receiving the treatment differ from the two groups not receiving treatment?" The desired outcome would be a non-significant interaction

effect, indicating that pretest sensitization was not at issue here. The study would then focus on the main effect of treatment to determine whether or not the date rape program was effective in altering students attitudes towards rape.

Summary

Demographic data was presented for the subjects (N=363) which participated in this study. Subgroups were further delineated for the analyses in this study. Procedures for administration of the ATR, and for the date rape awareness treatment program were described in detail. Because an exploratory instrument was used in this study, detailed information was presented relative to use and scoring of the ATR. Finally, the research design, which included three separate research questions, was presented.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter is to present the results of the statistical analyses relative to the research questions tested. This chapter presents the results of the research questions in three sections; 1) the psychometric properties of the ATR, 2) an examination of initial attitude differences between groups and gender, and 3) an evaluation of the treatment.

Research Question One: What are the psychometric properties of the ATR?

Feild's initial development of the ATR was conducted to measure the hypothesized construct of "attitudes towards rape". This instrument has been used infrequently and Feild (1978) suggested that refinements could more clearly delineate attitudes towards rape. Internal consistency, a measure of reliability, therefore assumes primary importance in the validation of this instrument. Nunnally (1978) has indicated that in the early stages of research, instruments with reliabilities of at least .70 possess modest internal consistency and will suffice for hypothesized measures

of a construct.

Feild (1978) used differential item weights to derive factor scores thus precluding a direct reliability estimate in his research. However, by calculating the square root of estimated communalities for the ATR factors, he estimated that the theoretical lower bound of reliability had a mean value of .62. In the current study, an overall estimate of internal consistency was calculated across all items and factors. Before coefficient-alpha was calculated, 16 items were recoded. It should be noted that Feild (1978) indicated that half of the items were phrased positively and half negatively to control for response set. Because the scoring criteria could not be obtained directly, items were recoded if they appeared to be reverse scored. Item responses were recoded if the mean response of the item exceeded 2.9. This criterion of 2.9 was used because there was a natural break present for item responses on the items that appeared to be phrased negatively.

The calculated value of coefficient-alpha (.6824), provided an upper limit (Nunnally, 1978) for the estimate of reliability for the overall instrument used in this study. Subsequent measures of internal consistency were then calculated using coefficient-alpha for each of the three factors separately, as detailed in Table 3. Given the exploratory nature of this study,

and Nunnally's (1978) suggested reliability criterion of .70, overall reliability (.6824) appeared to approach Nunnally's recommended minimum. Coefficient-alpha for factors one (.7159), and three (.7199) reflected adequate measures of reliability. However, factor two should be interpreted with caution due to the low reliability estimate (.6023).

TABLE 3
ALPHA RELIABILITY ESTIMATES FOR THE ATR

Factor	Number of Items	Reliability
Factor 1	11	.7159
Factor 2	6	.6023
Factor 3	4	.7199
Overall Reliability		.6824

Reliability is a precursor to validity. In other words, a scale must be deemed reliable before validity may be assessed. Given the evaluation of reliability provided above, attention may now be focused upon the validity of this instrument for use with date rape awareness programs offered on college campuses. Feild (1978) initially selected statements and constructed items based upon a review of the literature. Feild

(1978) cited this strategy as providing evidence of content validity. Content validity is dependent upon the adequacy with which a domain of content is sampled (Nunnally, 1978), and in this case, items were selected based upon their perceived relevance to the domain. Items used in this study did not differ in content from Feild's original 32-item scale. Because the items presented here were identical to Feild's items, content validity was assumed in the current study.

Feild (1978) indicated that "attitudes toward rape" may more appropriately be defined as a multidimensional construct. In support of this theory, he cited eight factors or dimensions extracted in his study. Based upon his eight factor solution, Feild then suggested that a higher-order three factor solution might be present in the data. Further, he indicated that these dimensions "make sense" implying the presence of construct validity. A construct represents a hypothetical proposal that similar variables will correlate with one another (Nunnally, 1978), thus representing a construct. Evidence of strong construct validity was provided based upon a measure of high internal consistency and similarity of items loading on each factor.

This study served to empirically provide evidence for Feild's higher-order structure; therefore, the factor structure of the ATR was examined using a

principal components solution with a varimax rotation. Results of this study yielded an orthogonal solution, similar to Feild's proposed higher-order solution. Three factors identified using the scree rule (Stevens, 1986), which accounted for 31 percent of the variance, were rotated to produce the orthogonal solution. The factor analytic results of this study were similar to Field's suggested higher-order solution; therefore, these results served to support the presence of construct validity. Replication of a similar structure implies consistent measurement of the construct hypothesized to be measured by the ATR (Nunnally, 1978).

The three factor solution yielded dimensions similar to the higher-order factors proposed by both Feild (1978) and this study. Factors were defined by correlated items which loaded on the linear composite. Factor loadings are simply the correlations of an item with the linear composite of items which comprised the factor (Stevens, 1986). Cattell (1966) recommended that factor loadings between .30 and .40 be retained for interpretation. High factor loadings indicate a strong correlation of an item with the factor and serves to aid in interpretation of that factor. Due to the exploratory nature of this study, conservative (.35) factor loadings were retained. Dual loadings, items loading on two or more factors, were deleted. Dual loadings typically indicate measurement overlap and

complicate the interpretation of a factor.

Table 4 presents the items associated with Factor One. These attitudes were proposed by Feild as "pro-rape" and were identified in the current study as, "Rape as the woman's responsibility".

TABLE 4
VARIMAX ROTATED FACTOR STRUCTURE FOR FACTOR 1
"RAPE AS THE WOMAN'S RESPONSIBILITY"

Item	Loading
If a woman is going to be raped, she might as well relax and enjoy it.	.66184
It would do some women some good to get raped.	.62824
In most cases when a women was raped, she was asking for it.	.61823
The degree of a woman's resistance should be the major factor in determining if a rape has occurred.	.57451
"Nice" women do not get raped.	.55749
Rape serves as a way to put or keep women in their "place."	.55333
Most women secretly desire to be raped.	.53717
A raped woman is a less desirable woman.	.51393
Women provoke rape by their behavior.	.49230
Rape of a woman by a man she knows can be defined as a "woman who changed her mind afterward.	.49015
In order to protect the male, it should be difficult to prove that a rape has occurred.	.47511
A charge of rape two days after the act has occurred is probably not rape.	.44327
Most charges of rape are unfounded.	.43241
A raped woman is a responsible victim, not an innocent one.	.40994
A woman should not feel guilty following a rape.	-.38630
A woman should be responsible for preventing her own rape.	.38538

Interpretation of a factor is subjective, and theorists may disagree with the naming of factors. The questions loading on this factor seemed to imply that a woman is responsible for the act of rape, with two of the questions directly stating that rape is a woman's responsibility. Also loading on this factor, were items which implied that women may provoke rape by their behavior or dress. Results of this study appeared to mirror Feild's proposed higher-order factor entitled "pro-rape."

Table 5 specifies items loading on factor two, the dimension defined in this study as, "Hostility toward men". Feild labeled this factor "anti-rape" or punishment for the act of rape. Three of the questions associated rape with power, mental illness, or an act of physical violence toward women. The remaining questions loading on this factor reflected a perceived level of punishment that should be used with rapists.

TABLE 5
VARIMAX ROTATED FACTOR STRUCTURE FOR FACTOR 2
"HOSTILITY TOWARD MEN."

Item	Loading
A convicted rapist should be castrated.	.62372
All rapists are mentally sick.	.56646
Rape is the worst crime that can be committed.	.55510
A man who has committed rape should be given at least 30 years in prison.	.54382
All rape is a male exercise in power over women.	.53761
The reason most rapists commit rape is for the thrill of physical violence.	.38247

The misperception that rape is an act of sex is a belief still held by some individuals. Four items loaded on factor three. As noted in Table 6, each item loading on this factor identified rape as associated with sex, thus defining the dimension "Rape as sex".

TABLE 6
VARIMAX ROTATED FACTOR STRUCTURE FOR FACTOR 3
"RAPE AS SEX."

Item	Loading
The reason most rapists commit rape is for sex.	.70573
Rape is the expression of an uncontrollable desire for sex.	.70149
Rapists are sexually frustrated individuals.	.67872
Rape is a sex crime.	.63951

The three factors derived from the principal components solution in this study were reflective of Feild's pioneering research with the ATR. Feild's proposed higher order solution of pro-rape and anti-rape sentiments were replicated with factors one and two of this study, and accounted for 25% of the variance. Factor three represented the association that rape is sex, which may also be interpreted as one general information factor. Overall, the proposed higher order structure of the ATR was replicated in the current study.

Research Question Two: Can students'
attitudes towards rape be
differentiated based upon
group affiliation
and/or gender?

Examination of the psychometric properties of the ATR supported a multidimensional construct; therefore, factor scores for each of the three dimensions were calculated for each subject. These factor scores served as the dependent variable in answering question two. Three ANOVAs were performed, using the pretest factor scores as the dependent variable, to examine differences between subjects nested in both gender and group affiliation. Results of the separate ANOVAs indicated no significant interaction effects between group and gender for any of the ATR dimensions. However, statistically significant group and gender main effects were detected across each of the three factors as indicated in Table 7. These main effects are reported by factor below.

Factor One: "Rape as a Woman's Responsibility"

Only a significant main effect [$F(1,155)=20.98$; $p<.0001$] was present for gender on factor one, "Rape as the woman's responsibility". As summarized in Table 7, men obtained an average negative factor score (Mean=-.45), and women obtained an average positive

factor score (Mean=.24). Because the gender effect was associated with one degree of freedom, a post-hoc analysis of this significant main effect was unnecessary. The main effect was directly interpretable.

TABLE 7
GROUP MEANS FOR GROUP AND GENDER ANOVA's

	N	Mean
Factor One		
Male	66	-.45
Female	89	.24
Factor Two		
Male	66	.35
Female	89	-.14
PLC	84	.30
Greek	41	-.46
Non-affiliated	30	.15
Factor Three		
PLC	84	-.24
Greek	41	-.38
Non-affiliated	30	.45

Factor Two: "Hostility toward men."

Only significant main effects were present for factor two on both gender [$F(1,155)=10.22$; $p=.002$,] and group [$F(2,155)=9.28$; $p<.0001$]. On the average, men obtained positive factor scores (Mean=.35), and women obtained negative factor scores (Mean=-.14). A significant main effect was also present for groups. Because this main effect was associated with more than two groups, post-hoc analysis was required to isolate the source of these statistically significant differences. The Scheffé was selected for post-hoc analysis because it maintains the family-wise error rate (Keppel, 1982). In other words, one overall Type I error rate was controlled at the .05 level for the family of comparisons conducted (Stevens, 1986). The Scheffé post-hoc analysis indicated only one significant difference, between the leadership group and the Greek group ($p<.05$). On the average, the PLC group obtained positive factor scores (Mean=.30), and the Greek group obtained negative factor scores (Mean=-.46). All other pair-wise group comparisons yielded non-significant findings. See Table 7 for these group Means.

Factor Three: "Rape as sex."

Finally, only a significant group main effect [$F(2,155)=6.114$; $p=.003$] was present for factor three,

"Rape as sex". A Scheffé post-hoc analysis indicated significant differences between the non-affiliated group and the Greek group ($p < .05$). Significant differences also existed between the non-affiliated group and the PLC group ($p < .05$). The non-affiliated group obtained a Mean factor score of .45, the Greek group obtained a Mean factor score of -.38, and the PLC group obtained a Mean factor score of -.28. There were no significant differences detected between the Greek and the PLC groups.

Research Question Three: Was an educational intervention program effective in changing college students' perceptions of rape, independent of potential threat by test interaction?

Results of the following ANOVAs constituted the assessment of the date rape awareness program in this quasi-experimental design. Posttest factor scores ($N=203$) were used as the measure of the dependent variable in this 2×2 [pretest (yes or no) \times treatment (yes or no)] between subjects factorial design. Again, because factor scores were calculated, each factor was treated separately in both the analyses and the presentation of the results for these ANOVAs.

Factor One: "Rape as a Woman's Responsibility"

The analysis of variance for factor one yielded a statistically non-significant interaction effect [$F(1,202)=1.71$] and non-significant main effects for pretest [$F(1,202)=.001$] and treatment [$F(1,202)=3.05$]. Thus, for this factor, pretest sensitization did not appear to be an issue. In addition, neither pretest nor treatment appeared to influence students' attitudes towards women being responsible for rape.

Factor Two: "Hostility toward men."

An interaction effect of pretest and treatment was not present [$F(1,202)=.51$] for factor two. Because an interaction was not present, pretest and treatment did not appear to be confounded. An examination of main effects was thus deemed appropriate. A significant main effect was present for both pretest [$F(1,202)=4.67$; $p=.032$] and treatment [$F(1,202)=4.41$; $p=.037$]. The pretest main effect suggests that date rape attitudes differed between students who received the pretest and those who did not. The main effect of treatment indicates that there were attitude differences between students who were administered the program and those who did not participate in the program.

Factor Three: "Sex as rape."

An interaction effect between pretest and treatment was present for factor three [$F(1,202)=24.66$; $p<.0001$], therefore pretest and treatment effects appeared to be confounded. Because pretest sensitization appeared to have taken place for factor three, further analysis could not clearly delineate program treatment effects.

Summary

This chapter summarized the results of the three research questions addressed in this study. The psychometric properties of the ATR were assessed, and both reliability and validity were deemed to be adequate for the purposes of this study. Internal structure of the ATR was subsequently examined and a three factor solution was used to describe the dimensionality of the ATR. Research questions two and three were addressed using this three factor solution. Group and gender differences were determined to be present across each of the three factors. Finally, pretest sensitization and treatment effect was assessed using each of the three factors. In this study, pretest or treatment appeared to have influenced attitudes on factor two of the ATR, "Hostility toward men".

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of the Investigation

Recent public events have precipitated an emphasis on the topic of date rape with traditional college students identified as those individuals most at risk (Feild & Beinen, 1980; Notman & Nadleson, 1976). The present study has addressed the issue of date rape at a comprehensive midwestern residential university. Three questions were addressed in this study which were relative to the issue of date rape on campus; 1) What were the psychometric properties of the ATR? 2) Did differences exist based upon group affiliation and gender? 3) Was an educational intervention program focusing on acquaintance rape effective in changing college students' perceptions of rape, independent of potential threat by test interaction?

The ATR was administered to assess differences between group and gender and to determine the effectiveness of the treatment program. While the ATR was described as an experimental instrument, it was one of the few available for this specific use. Therefore, the first step in this study was to examine the psychometric properties of the instrument to determine

its suitability for use in this study and for future use with this population. The dimensionality of the ATR was examined using all noncontaminated responses (N=273) to determine the factor structure present within this instrument. Based upon an orthogonal solution, three factors were retained and factor scores were calculated for each of the respondents. Reliability for the instrument, and reliability for the respective factor scores was assessed. The validity of the instrument was also addressed.

Factor scores were subsequently used to examine group and gender differences for each of the three factors. Because student groups typically request outreach programs, fundamental differences between groups may have impacted the effectiveness of a date rape (outreach) awareness program. Secondly, males and females have been found to differ on their perceptions related to date rape (Barnett & Feild, 1977; Malamuth, 1981). Therefore, differences between group and gender were assessed prior to treatment.

An evaluation of the effectiveness of the date rape awareness program was subsequently conducted using a quasi-experimental design. Because the ATR was administered as a pretest, sensitization effects may have confounded treatment effects. Therefore, pretest sensitization was also assessed.

Conclusions

The following section presents conclusions based upon findings of this study. A discussion of the results as they relate to the literature and implications of these results for future research will be presented. The format will follow a presentation delineated by three research questions; 1) the psychometric properties of the ATR, 2) differences between group and gender, and 3) treatment program effects.

Research Question One

The first question in this study was; What are the psychometric properties of the ATR? The ATR, initially developed by Feild (1978) has been modified and utilized in various studies (Barnett & Feild, 1977; Borden, Karr & Caldwell-Colbert, 1988; Harrison et al., 1991) to examine the effectiveness of educational rape awareness programs. Feild's original ATR, modified from a 6 point Likert scale to a 4 point Likert scale, was used in this study. Reliability and validity were assessed based upon 273 responses obtained as a function of this study. The dimensionality of the ATR provided evidence of construct validity.

Reliability.

The first question addressed the issue of reliability of the ATR. A measure of internal consistency was assessed using coefficient-alpha for the 32 items. Overall reliability was calculated to be .68. The overall reliability was lower than Nunnally's (1978) recommended value of .70; however, the results are encouraging and further refinement of the scale may yield higher overall reliabilities in future studies. Reliabilities were also calculated separately for each of the three factors identified in this study. Factors one and three possessed reliabilities which exceeded .72 and this modest measure of reliability was deemed acceptable. Factor two should be interpreted with caution due to the relatively low measure of reported reliability (.60).

Validity.

Feild (1978) systematically developed questions for the ATR based upon a review of the literature related to rape. Because evidence of content validity was demonstrated in Feild's initial development, and content remained the same for use in this study, content validity was deemed acceptable.

Reliability is a necessary prerequisite to the assessment of the caliber of an instrument. Internal consistency, an estimate of the average correlation

among items (Nunnally, 1978), provides evidence of similarity between items. In this study, reliability for the overall ATR possessed a modest level of internal consistency or similarity among items, thus providing evidence that the items did reflect the construct of attitudes towards rape. Additionally, two of the factors appeared to measure one dimension of the construct of attitudes toward rape with some consistency. However, factor two, "Hostility toward men", must be interpreted with caution due to low reliability. This finding implies that the items across this factor were not similar in structure.

Measurement of a construct must be performed consistently before the issue of validity, or usability can be addressed. Construct validity was of principal importance in this study because the question implied that the theoretical internal factor structure, which is reflective of the construct, could be replicated. A higher order factor structure was proposed for this study, and three factors were located and interpreted. The higher order factors hypothesized to be present included a "pro-rape" dimension, an "anti-rape" dimension, and a general factor. Although the ATR was initially developed as a unidimensional instrument, results of this study support Feild's (1978) findings that "attitudes toward rape" is more accurately a multi-dimensional construct. Results of the principal

components solution obtained in this study yielded 10 factors if the Kaiser criterion had been used, as was the case in Feild's study. Stevens (1986) recommended that through use of a principal components solution, it is important to account for most of the variance. However, in this study, only 31% of the total variance was accounted for through use of the scree rule. Future research should focus on strengthening the ATR to account for more of the total variance.

In the current study, components (factors) were retained based upon the scree rule, and the factors did appear to possess some measure of stability based upon the number of questions which comprised each factor. Factors derived were similar to those proposed and an interpretation of each of the factors is presented below.

Although the ATR accounted for only 31% of the variance in this study, the ATR was perceived to possess some value in future research. The proposed higher-order solution, which was obliquely referenced in Feild's study, was supported by the three factor solution in this study. These three consistent factors could be used as a premise for future development of the ATR. Additional items, reflective of the domain of items, could then be added to increase the reliability and validity of the ATR.

Factor One: "Rape as a women's responsibility".

The first factor, accounting for the largest (17%) amount of variance, was comprised of 16 items. As indicated in Table 4, items loading on this factor appeared to describe a dimension subsequently labeled, "Rape as a woman's responsibility". Items loading on this factor were identical to Feild's (1978) largest factor (18%), named "Woman's responsibility in rape prevention", with one exception. Item one, "A woman can be raped against her will", loaded (.51) on factor one in Feild's study. However, this item did not load on the three higher order factors identified in this study. Based upon the interitem correlation matrix, item one did not appear to possess a high degree of similarity with any other item.

The factor "Rape as a woman's responsibility" was identified by Feild (1978) as "pro-rape". Feild's hypothesized higher-order "pro-rape" factor reflected sentiments that emphasized a man's "right" to overpower a woman for the purpose of sex. Rape myths imply it is the woman's responsibility to rebuff sexual advances. Therefore, in the current study, this dimension was labeled, "Rape as a woman's responsibility". Because this factor accounted for the most variability (17%) in scores, and was reflective of a rape myth, this dimension might play an important role in evaluation of date rape awareness programs in future research.

Myths and misperceptions about rape have been disproportionately held by men and some young women as a result of traditional gender role socialization (Berger, et al., 1986; Byers & Lewis, 1988; Malamuth, 1981; Laplante, McCormick & Brannigan, 1980). "Rape as a woman's responsibility" was one myth that was held by some of the students participating in this study. Most date rape awareness programs seek to educate students about appropriate gender roles, and myths and misperceptions about rape. Given this goal, use of this factor may help to identify those students subscribing to the myth that rape is a woman's responsibility. Use of a reliable and valid measure, of even one myth, will be useful in the detection of changes in students attitudes about the specific myth associated with a woman's responsibility in rape. If changes in attitudes can be consistently measured, more attention can be focused upon refining programs that will re-educate students about appropriate behaviors.

Factor Two: "Hostility toward men." Factor two accounted for 8% of the variance on the ATR. This dimension, "Hostility toward men," was comprised of six items identified in Table 5. An "anti-rape" dimension, referenced by Feild (1978), was hypothesized as a higher-order factor that may have been present in this study. "Hostility toward men", the second factor identified in this study, was characteristic of the

"anti-rape" dimension proposed by Feild. Anti-rape sentiments were reflective of attitudes that did not support rape myths.

Feild's (1978) factor, "Severe punishment for rape", contained four items hypothesized to be related to an "anti-rape" attitude. In this study, these four items and two additional items loaded on the "Hostility toward men" factor. Results of this study are similar to Feild's, in that this second largest factor is inclusive of Feild's factor, "Severe punishment for rape".

This second factor may also be characterized as an "anti-rape" dimension which implies attitudes against rape. Items comprising this factor represent strong negative sentiments about the crime of rape. For example, one item loading on this factor was "Rape is the worst crime that can be committed". Thus, this factor may be valuable in identifying college students' perceptions of date rape. If students' attitudes about their perceived severity of rape can accurately be assessed, this factor could be used to evaluate changes in attitudes towards the severity of the crime.

Factor Three: "Rape as Sex." Factor three, which accounted for 6% of the variance, was the final factor located for interpretation in this study. The four items loading on this factor represent the myth that rapists engage in rape for sex. Results of this study

replicate Feild's (1978) findings with the identical questions loading on his factor entitled "Rape as sex". While this factor does not represent the general dimension proposed in this study as a higher-order solution, it does represent a myth about rape. Individuals in agreement with these items would subscribe to the misperception that rape is an act of sex. The literature has consistently identified rape as an act of violence against women (Madea & Thompson, 1974; Malamuth, 1981; Check & Malamuth, 1983). The primary goal of the date rape awareness program used in this study was to impart information about myths and misperceptions related to date rape. Although this program did not specifically focus on the myth that rape is sex, this factor may serve to be useful in measuring this myth in future programs. Use of this factor may also be valuable in evaluating a change in college students' attitudes about perceptions of motivation for rape, and this may be a useful measure for the evaluation of programs about date rape in future research.

Research Question Two

The second question addressed in this study was; Can students' attitudes towards rape be differentiated based upon group affiliation and/or gender? Group differences, as defined by group affiliation and gender,

were present in pretest factor scores on the ATR. Feild's (1978) scoring criteria utilized factor scores for direct interpretation of the factor, with a higher score indicating a greater amount of the dimension represented by the factor. Although a greater amount of dimension was represented, directionality (agreement or disagreement) was determined through examination of reported frequencies for individual items. In this study, factor scores were calculated for each of the three factors. These scores were subsequently used to examine differences between groups and gender.

The results indicated that group and gender differences were present on the pretest factor scores, thus supporting the hypothesis that differences did exist in the case of group affiliation and gender. Statistically significant main effects were detected across each of the three factor scores, therefore this discussion will examine main effects separately by each factor.

Factor One: "Rape as a Woman's Responsibility." A significant main effect was present for gender on factor one, "Rape as a woman's responsibility". The Mean factor score for women pretested in the treatment groups was .24, and for men it was -.45. For this factor, higher positive factor scores indicated a higher level of disagreement with the items comprising factor one. Conversely, negative scores were indicative of a higher

level of agreement with the factor. Therefore, in this study, on the average, women were more likely to disagree with the myth that women are responsible for rape, while men were more likely to agree with the rape myth that "Rape is the woman's responsibility". This finding supports prior research (Barnett & Feild, 1977; Malamuth, 1981) which has indicated that men are more likely than women to subscribe to rape myths. "Rape, as the woman's responsibility", was characterized by statements which included "The degree of a woman's resistance should be the major factor in determining if a rape has occurred". Among the acculturated sexual norms is the belief that women are responsible for rebuffing unwelcome sexual advances (Berger, et al., 1986; Byers & Lewis, 1988; Check & Malamuth, 1983; Laplante, McCormick & Brannigan, 1980). This belief is a myth that perpetuates the misperception that women should be responsible for rape (Malamuth, 1981). In this study, the results advance the argument that date rape is a function of acculturation, and sex role stereotyping.

Surprisingly, a group main effect was not present on this factor. This indicated that the student groups participating in this study were not statistically different on the dimension "Rape as a woman's responsibility". Additionally, because an interaction effect was not present, the attitudes of men and women

did not appear to differ with respect to group affiliation. The results would imply that treatment programs do not need to be altered with respect to the group receiving the date rape awareness program.

Factor Two: "Hostility toward men." Factor two yielded significant differences on both gender and group affiliation. In the case of factor two, higher scores on this dimension indicated a higher level of disagreement with the factor. Factor scores for differences between men and women on the dimension "Hostility toward men," indicated, on the average, that women (Mean=-.14) were more likely to agree with the statements that indicated hostility toward men. Men were more likely (Mean=.35) to disagree with statements which indicated hostility toward men, such as "A convicted rapist should be castrated".

A review of the literature revealed that men were more likely than women to subscribe to sexist attitudes towards rape (Barnett & Feild, 1977; Malamuth, 1981). Results of this study indicated that women were more likely than men to experience hostility toward men. These results would imply that men are less likely than women to possess negative or hostile attitudes towards men in the case of rape. This finding would lend support to the research which has indicated that men are more likely to subscribe to sexist attitudes toward rape (Barnett & Feild, 1977; Malamuth, 1981). In an

examination of group differences, the non-affiliated students did not differ in attitude from the PLC or Greek students. Therefore, programs need not be specifically tailored to non-affiliated students. One statistically significant difference was present between the PLC (Mean=.30) and Greek (Mean=-.46) groups. High factor scores indicated higher levels of disagreement with factor two. In the case of rape, PLC respondents were less likely than the Greek group to agree with the strong statements describing hostility toward men. It should be noted that several members of a fraternity destroyed the pretest ATR, therefore these results may not be reflective of the responses for all members of the Greek group. Perhaps these very questions provoked the non-response. These results lend support to tailoring programs to their respective audiences with respect to this factor. For example, it would appear that program presentation to fraternities should be altered to deal with the hostility issue.

Factor Three: "Rape as Sex." A significant main effect was present for group on factor three, "Rape as sex". Differences appeared to exist between the non-affiliated (Mean=.45) and Greek groups (Mean=-.38) on factor three. High factor scores indicated higher levels of disagreement with factor three. Results indicated that non-affiliated respondents were more likely to disagree with statements of comprising the

dimension "Rape as sex". Contrastingly, members of fraternities and sororities were less likely to disagree with statements describing rape as an act of sex. These findings might imply that students affiliated with Greek organizations were more likely to possess the misperception that rape is an act of sex versus the perception that rape is an act of violence toward women. It was hypothesized that groups differed on their perceptions of rape, and this study supported the hypothesis that differences did exist between groups of students. Generalization of these results imply that non-affiliated groups are less likely to subscribe to the myth that sex is a motivator for rape. Because these students were identified as non-affiliated, they may have been less likely to subscribe to myths because they are less influenced by group membership. This finding suggests that groups may differ on their attitudes towards rape and therefore intervention strategies may need to be tailored to the needs of the groups.

Significant differences were also present between the non-affiliated (Mean=.45) and PLC (Mean=-.24) groups. Factor scores indicated that when compared to the PLC group, non-affiliated respondents were more likely to disagree with statements that "Sex is rape". Again, these results imply that non-affiliated groups would be less likely to subscribe to the myth that sex

is a motivator for rape. Hence, programming considerations may include a differential emphasis on the motivation of rape, based upon these results.

Finally, it should be noted that a gender main effect and gender by group interaction was not present for this factor. In the case of "Sex as rape", men and women did not significantly differ, nor did they differ with respect to the combination of gender and group affiliation. Although research indicated that men and women differed with respect to myths about rape (Barnett & Feild, 1977; Malamuth & Check, 1981), it was surprising to find that they did not differ, in this study, on the perception that sex is rape.

In summary, gender differences were present on the two factors, "Rape as a woman's responsibility" and "Hostility toward men". These differences were supported by the literature which indicated that men are more likely than women to subscribe to rape myths and to possess sexist attitudes towards women.

Group differences were also present on the two factors, "Hostility toward men" and "Sex as rape". The PLC group differed from the other groups on both factors, which offered some support for programs to be specifically designed for respective groups. However, because groups did not differ on the first factor, which accounted for the largest percentage of variance (17%), group differences should be interpreted with caution.

When adapting programs for specific groups, evaluation of the importance of program modification, versus expenditure of funds for the programs, should be weighted carefully.

Research Question Three

The third question examined in this study was; Was an educational intervention program focusing on acquaintance rape effective in changing college students' perceptions of rape? An educational intervention program about date rape was effective in changing college students' perceptions of rape. This question was examined through use of a quasi-experimental design utilized to evaluate pretest sensitization effects and treatment effectiveness. Three separate ANOVA's were conducted using each of the three orthogonal posttest factor scores as the measure of the dependent variable, thus conclusions will be presented by factor.

Factor One: "Rape as a Woman's Responsibility."

Factor one did not yield a statistically significant interaction between pretest and treatment. Therefore pretest sensitization did not appear to be an issue. Upon further inspection (i.e., the main effects), it was apparent that neither the administration of a pretest nor administration of the treatment were associated with statistically significant findings. Factor one was

comprised of 16 items, and constituted the largest factor accounting for 17% of the variance. Because factor one potentially could have yielded the most stable measure, due to number of items and accounted for variance, it was disappointing that statistically significant effects were not detected. Apparently, student attitudes on this factor were inflexible, and not easily changed.

Factor Two: "Hostility toward men". Factor two was not confounded by pretest sensitization and could subsequently be used in the examination of treatment differences between groups. A main effect was present for both the treatment and pretest groups on factor two. Because a main effect was present in both cases, one might conclude that exposure to the topic of date rape via a pretest may have influenced responses to items on this factor. Alternatively, those students receiving the educational intervention also experienced a change in attitude on the dimension "Hostility toward men". Those students receiving treatment obtained an average factor score of $-.14$ which indicated that they would be less likely than those not receiving treatment (Mean = $.04$) to disagree with the dimension of "Hostility toward men". Students receiving treatment would be more likely to view rape as a serious crime.

Factor Three: "Sex as rape". Factor three, "Sex as rape", was confounded because an interaction was present between pretest and treatment, therefore pretest sensitization appeared to occur and factor three was not examined further. Pretest sensitization precluded an examination of the effectiveness of the treatment.

In summary, pretest sensitization appeared to occur for factor three, thus rendering further analysis of treatment effects for factor three inappropriate. Mixed results were present for factors one and two. Pretest did not appear to influence attitudes on factor one, but the results presented here also indicated not treatment effect. Pretest did appear to influence responses to items for factor two. Thus the introduction of a pretest to examine differences before and after treatment may have confounded the results for the overall score on the ATR. If the ATR is to be used to assess treatment effects, it may be best to address pretest sensitization issues directly through the research design.

Implications

Results of this study contributed to the continued research designed to mitigate incidence of date rape for a population identified most at risk; college students. Two issues related to the assessment of effective programs designed as an intervention can be identified.

First, student services professionals must consistently use reliable and valid instruments to measure the impact of educational intervention strategies. If psychometrically unsound instruments are used to evaluate programs, measurement error may mask effects of programs offered by student services professionals.

Several different instruments have been used to measure the effectiveness of programs (Barnett & Feild, 1977; Borden, Karr, & Caldwell-Colbert, 1988; Harrison et al., 1991), yet the most widely used instrument is the ATR or some modified version of the ATR. This study employed the use of a modified version of the ATR and a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to validate the dimensionality of the ATR. Results of this study were consistent with Feild's (1978) original work, and offered additional support for use of the ATR. However, if further research is conducted with the ATR, a simplified scoring method would enable researchers to more accurately identify student attitudes and assess treatment effects. Additionally, future research should be conducted to examine the stability of the constructs identified in this study.

Reliability and validity were assessed yielding results that also served to support Feild's original study. Therefore results of this study, conducted with adequate sample size, contributes to the general body of literature that could be used to support standardization

of the ATR.

Group and gender differences were present for the factors identified for use in this study. Practitioners should acknowledge that men and women do differ on their perceptions of rape, and rape myths. Additionally, a students' developmental level will influence their perceptions of date rape relative to both treatment and measurement issues. Sensitivity to these differences may aid in the development of future programs designed to mitigate this problem on university campuses. However, while group differences were present on two factors, these gender differences may not warrant differential programming. Future programming should include the use of student involvement and be conducted for a period that would exceed one hour in duration. Attitudes that had been developed over a period of 18 to 20 years are difficult to change in the period of just one hour.

Because pretest sensitization effects were evaluated, future evaluation of intervention programs should be conducted to control for the interaction effects that were present in this study. Future programming must be conducted to mitigate the date rape problem on campus, preferably with research designs allowing for a more sensitive test of treatment effects. This test for sensitivity would be possible by utilizing both pretest and posttest scores, where subjects are

matched across both measures. Such an approach was not possible in the current study due to subject confidentiality requirements.

Physical and psychological costs of date rape for this high risk group can be devastating to the individual (Yegidis, 1986). Therefore, if even one student can be educated about date rape, thus reducing the incidence of date rape, programming can be viewed as successful. It is essential that student services professionals continue in their efforts to effectively educate students about date rape. Effective education should include improved programming, reliable and valid instrumentation, and a design that can effectively measure treatment effects.

REFERENCES

- Aizenman, M., & Kelley, G. (1988). The incidence of violence and acquaintance rape in dating relationships among college men and women. Journal of College Student Development, 29(4), 305-311.
- Almanac Issue. (1991). The Chronicle of Higher Education, August 28, 1989.
- Baier, J. L., Rosenzweig, M. G., Whipple, E. G. (1991). Patterns of sexual behavior, coercion, and victimization of university students. Journal of College Student Development, 32, 310-322.
- Barnett, N. J., & Feild, H. S. (1977). Sex differences in university students' attitudes toward rape. Journal of College Student Personnel, 18, 93-96.
- Berger, R. J., Searles, P., Salem, R. G., & Pierce, B. A. (1986). Sexual assault in a college community. Sociological Focus, 19(1), 1-26.
- Bogal-Allbritten, R., & Allbritten, W. (1991). Courtship violence on campus: A nationwide survey of student affairs professionals. NASPA Journal, 28(4), 312-318.
- Borden, L. A., Karr, S. K., & Caldwell-Colbert, A. T. (1988). Effects of a university rape prevention program on attitudes and empathy toward rape. Journal of College Student Development, 29(2), 132-136.
- Burkhart, B. R., Stanton, A. L. (1988). Sexual aggression in acquaintance relationships. In G. W. Russell (Ed.), Violence in intimate relationships. (pp. 43-65). New York, NY: PMA Publishing.
- Burt, M. R. (1980). Cultural myths and support for rape. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 38(2), 217-230.
- Byers, E. S., Lewis, K. (1988). Dating couples' disagreements over the desired level of sexual intimacy. The Journal of Sex Research, 24, 15-29.

- Byers, E. S., Wilson, P. (1985). Accuracy of women's expectations regarding men's responses to refusals of sexual advances in dating situations. International Journal of Womens Studies, 4, 376-387.
- Campbell, D.T., & Stanley, J. C., (1963). Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.
- Cattell, R. B. (1966). "The meaning and strategic use of factor analysis." Handbook of Multivariate Experimental Psychology. Chicago: Rand McNally & Co.
- Check, J. V. P., Malamuth, N. M. (1983). Sex role stereotyping and reactions to depictions of stranger versus acquaintance rape. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 45(2), 344-356.
- Deitz, S. R., Blackwell, K. T., Daley, P. C., & Bertley, B. J. (1982). Measurement of empathy toward rape victims and rapists. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 43(2), 372-384.
- Drinkwater, D., Parrot, A. (1986). Planning and implementing a model program for prevention of acquaintance rape on college campuses: A strategic approach. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 273 184)
- Federal Bureau of Investigation. (1989). Crime in the United States: Uniform crime reports. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Feild, H. S. (1978). Attitudes toward rape: A comparative analysis of police, rapists, crisis counselors, and citizens. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 36(2), 156-179.
- Feild, H. S., & Beinen, L. B. (1980). Jurors and Rape. Lexington, MA: Lexington.
- Harrison, P. J., Downes, J., Williams, M. D. (1991). Date and acquaintance rape: perceptions and attitude change strategies. Journal of College Student Development, 32(2), 131-139.
- Health Visions Inc. (Producer). (1990) Playing the Game. [Videotape] 15608 Peyton court, Bowie, MD, 20716.
- Kantrowitz, B., Starr, M., Friday, C., Barrett, T., Yoffe, E., Wingert, P., Clift, E., Smith, V. E., & Picker, L. (1991, April 29). Naming names. Newsweek, pp.26-32.

- Keller, D. P. (1989). The prevention of rape and sexual assault on campus. Goshen, KY: Campus Crime Prevention.
- Keppel, G. (1982). Design and analysis. (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, Prentice-Hall.
- Koss, M. P., Gidycz, C. A., Wisniewski, N. (1987). The scope of rape: Incidence and prevalence of sexual aggression and victimization in a national sample of higher education students. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 55(2), 162-170.
- Koss, M. P., & Oros, C. J. (1982). Sexual experiences survey: A research instrument investigating sexual aggression and victimization. Journal of Counseling and Clinical Psychology, 50(3), 455-457.
- Laplane, M. N., McCormick, N., Brannigan, G. (1980). Living sexual script: College students' vies of influence on sexual encounters. The Journal of Sex Research, 15, 338-355.
- LaFree, G. D. (1989). Rape and Criminal Justice: The Social Construction of Sexual Assault. Wadsworth: Belmont, California.
- Lewin, M. (1985). Unwanted intercourse: The difficulty of saying no. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 9, 184-192.
- Lott, B., Reilly, M.E., & Howard, D.R. (1982). Sexual assault and harassment: A campus community case study. Signs, Journal of Women in Culture and Society, 8, 297-319.
- Lundberg-Love, P., & Geffner, R. (1989). Date rape: Prevalence, risk factors, and a proposed model. In M. A. Pirog-Good, & J. E. Stets (Eds.), Violence in dating relationships: Emerging social issues. (pp. 169-184). New York: Praeger.
- Malamuth, N. M. (1981). Rape proclivity among males. Journal of Social Issues, 37(4), 138-157.
- Malamuth N. M., Check, J. V. P. (1981). The effects of mass media exposure on acceptance of violence against women. Journal of Research on Personality, 15, 436-446.

- Margolin, L., Miller, M., Moran, P. B. (1989). When a kiss is not just a kiss: Relating violations of consent in kissing to rape myth acceptance. Sex Roles, 20(5/6), 231-243.
- Medea, A., Thompson, K. (1974). Against rape. Farrar, Straus and Giroux: New York.
- Miller, B., & Marshall, J. C. (1987). Coercive Sex on the University Campus. Journal of College Student Personnel, 28, 38-47.
- Muehlenhard, C. L. (1988). Misinterpreting dating behaviors and the risk of date rape. Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 6(1), 20-37.
- Muehlenhard, C. L., Friedman, D. E., Thomas, C. M. (1985). Is date rape justifiable? The effects of dating activity, who initiated, who paid, and men's attitudes toward women. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 9(3), 297-310.
- Muehlenhard, C. L., & Linton, M. A. (1987). Date rape and sexual aggression in dating situations: Incidence and risk factors. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 34(2), 186-196.
- Murnen, S. K., Perot, A., & Byrne, D. (1989). Coping with unwanted sexual activity: Normative responses, situational determinants, and individual differences. The Journal of Sex Research, 26(1), 85-106.
- Neff, L. (1988). Acquaintance rape on campus: The problem, the victims, and prevention. NASPA Journal, 25(3), 146-152.
- Nie, N. H., Hull, C. H., Jenkins, J. G., & Bent, D. H. (1975). Statistical Package for the Social Sciences. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Nolte, M. C. (1985). Rape on Campus: When is the landlord liable? West's Education Law Reporter, 25, 997-1005.
- Notman, M., & Nadelson, C. (1976). The Rape Victim: psychodynamic considerations. American Journal of Psychiatry, 133, 408-410.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). Psychometric Theory. McGraw-Hill: New York, NY.
- Oklahoma State University, Office of Institutional Research. (1991). Student Profile. Stillwater, Oklahoma.

Oklahoma Statute 21, Section 1111, (1981).

Rape Treatment Center (Producer). (1990). Campus Rape [Film]. Santa Monica, CA: Santa Monica Hospital Medical Center.

Papalia, D. E., & Olds, S. W. (1986). Human development. McGraw-Hill: New York.

Parrot, A. (1986). Acquaintance rape prevention training program on college and university campuses. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University, Department of Human Service Studies. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 273 184)

Roark, M. L. (1986). Caring enough to respond: A report from the American College Personnel Association Commission I force on victimization and violence on campus. State University of New York, Albany: Research Foundation. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 273 184)

Roark, M. L. (1987). Preventing violence on campuses. Journal of Counseling and Development, 65, 367-371.

Sandberg, G., Jackson, T. L., & Petretic-Jackson, P. (1987). College student's attitudes regarding sexual coercion and aggression: developing educational and preventive strategies. Journal of College Student Personnel, 28(4), 302-311.

Sonnenberg, J. L., & McCarthy M. A. (1991). Reported incidence and recommendations for effective strategies for dealing with date rape on campus. Unpublished manuscript.

Stevens, J. (1986). Applied Multivariate Statistics for the Social Sciences. Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

The Problem of Rape on Campus. (1984). Campus Crime Prevention Programs. Unpublished manuscript.

Yegedis, B. L. (1986). Date rape and other forced sexual encounters among college students. Journal of Sex Education and Therapy, 12(2), 51-54.

APPENDIX A

ATTITUDES TOWARDS RAPE

1. A woman can be raped against her will.
2. The reason most rapists commit rape is for the thrill of physical violence.
3. Rapists are "normal" men.
4. In forcible rape, the victim never causes the crime.
5. All rapists are mentally sick.
6. A charge of rape two days after the act has occurred is probably not rape.
7. A woman should be responsible for preventing her own rape.
8. A man who has committed rape should be given at least 30 years in prison.
9. Women are trained by society to be rape victims.
10. A raped woman is a less desirable woman.
11. If a woman is going to be raped, she might as well relax and enjoy it.
12. Rape provides the opportunity for many rapists to show their manhood.
13. Most women secretly desire to be raped.
14. It would do some women some good to be raped.
15. Women provoke rape by their appearance or behavior.
16. "Nice" women do not get raped.
17. Most charges of rape are unfounded.

18. In order to protect the male, it should be difficult to prove that a rape has occurred.
19. Rape is the worst crime that can be committed.
21. Rape is a sex crime.
22. All rape is a male exercise in power over women.
23. During a rape, a woman should do everything she can do to resist.
24. Rapists are sexually frustrated individuals.
25. In most cases when a woman was raped, she was asking for it.
26. The reason most rapists commit rape is for sex.
27. Rape of a woman by a man she knows can be defined as a "woman who changed her mind afterward."
28. A convicted rapist should be castrated.
29. A woman should feel guilty following a rape.
30. The degree of a woman's resistance should be the major factor in determining if a rape has occurred.
31. A raped woman is a responsible victim, not an innocent one.
32. Rape serves as a way to put or keep women in their "place".

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET

1. Sex: (1)-Male (2)-Female
2. Ethnicity: (1)-White (2)-Black (3)-Hispanic (4)-Native American (5)-Other
3. Marital Status: (1)-Single (2)-Married
4. Religious Preference: (1)-Protestant (2)-Catholic (3)-Jewish (4)-Other
5. Age: (1)-18-20 (2)-21-25 (3)-26-30 (4)-30 and over
6. Where do you plan to live while attending OSU? (1)-Residence Hall (2)-Fraternity or Sorority (3)-Local off campus (4)-Parents (5)-Other

APPENDIX C

VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION STATEMENT

The facilitator read the following statement prior to administration of the ATR:

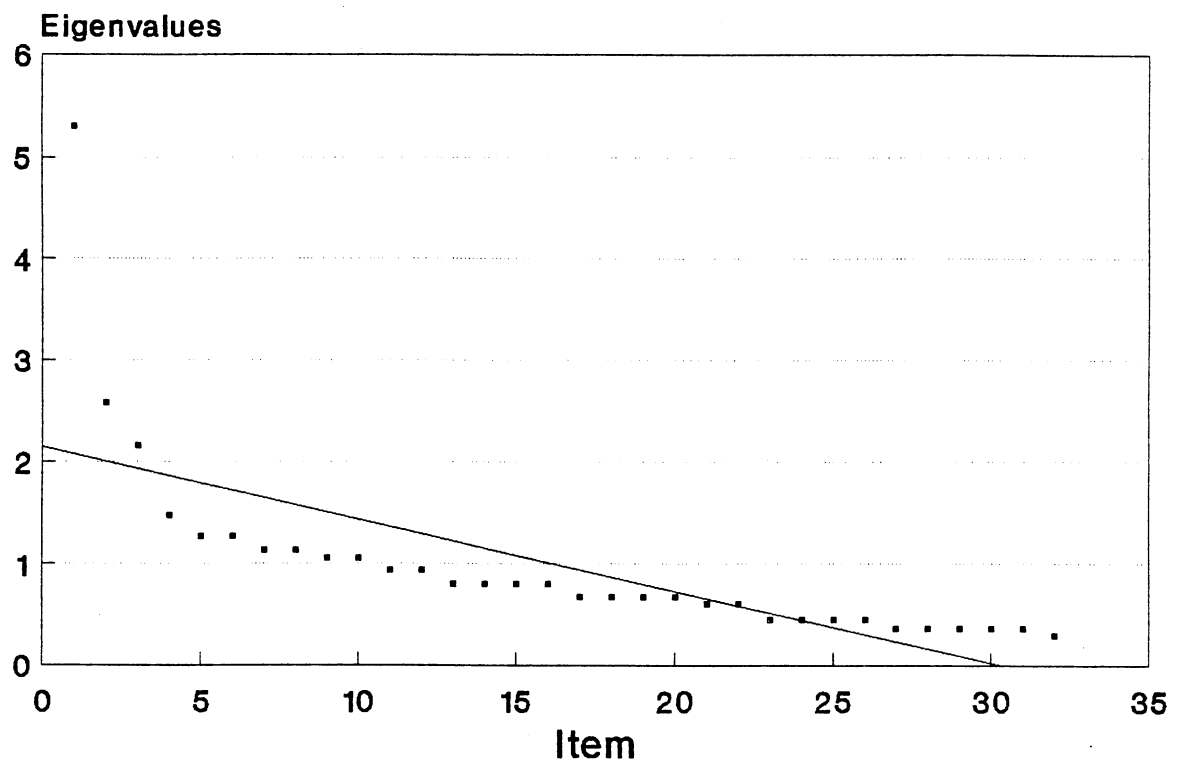
I am _____. We are asking for your participation in completing a questionnaire that addresses somewhat sensitive issues. Your participation is completely voluntary. You may refuse to initially participate or you may withdraw your participation at any time without consequence. The first side asks for demographic information and the back side of the form includes 32 questions about date rape. Do not put your name on this form and please answer thoughtfully and honestly.

The facilitator read the following statement prior to completion of the posttest ATR:

Again we would like to ask that you complete a questionnaire about date rape. The results of this data collection will be shared with you later in the semester. Thank you for your participation in this session.

APPENDIX D

SCREE PLOT



2
VITA

Maureen Ann McCarthy

Candidate for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: A PSYCHOMETRIC EVALUATION OF THE ATTITUDES
TOWARDS RAPE SURVEY

Major Field: Research and Evaluation

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in St. Louis, Missouri, May 9,
1959, the daughter of Dennis and MaryAnn
McCarthy.

Education: Received the Bachelor of Science degree
in Psychology and Sociology from Southwest
Missouri State University at Springfield in
May 1981; received the Master of Science
degree in Applied Behavioral Studies at
Oklahoma State University in December, 1984;
completed requirements for the Doctor of
Philosophy degree at Oklahoma State University
in December, 1992.

Professional Experience: Paraprofessional, Tulsa
Junior College 1981-1985; Counselor, Tulsa
Junior College, 1985-1989; Adjunct Instructor,
Tulsa Junior College, 1987-1989; Coordinator,
Oklahoma State University, 1989-1992; Adjunct
Instructor, Oklahoma State University, 1992.

Professional Organizations; National Association
of Student Personnel Administrators; National
Council on Measurement; American Educational
Research Association.