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UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

THE EVALUATION OF A UNIVERSITY BASED
ACQUAINTANCE RAPE PREVENTION PROGRAM

A Dissertation

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for

degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

By

ED NORTHAM
Norman, Oklahoma
1997

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**THE EVALUATION OF A UNIVERSITY BASED RAPE
PREVENTION PROGRAM**

**A Dissertation APPROVED FOR THE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY**

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ABSTRACT

The 1990's saw the development of acquaintance rape prevention programs in response to increased awareness of it's occurrence and impact on individuals. Prevention programs were developed with the intent of changing the attitudes of sexually aggressive males on the assumption that attitudes such as rape support, adversarial sexual beliefs, and acceptance of rape myths contribute to acquaintance rape.

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of one such prevention program. One hundred and eighty male students from a large midwestern university were divided into two groups (dormitory & ROTC) and were administered 3 outcome measures on attitudes across pre, post, and follow-up conditions using a Solomon four group design. In addition, due to the reactivity to the topic of rape and the high face validity of the outcome measures, a social desirability scale was used to assess for the need for social acceptance.

No significant differences were found within the Solomon four group design nor with the measure for social desirability. Data were regrouped into a 2 x 3 (group x administration) design and significant interactions were found for 2 of the 3 outcome measures across post testing and follow-up and pretesting and follow-up conditions for the remaining measure. Significance was also found between the dormitory and ROTC group at the follow-up condition on all measures.

Interpretation of significance indicated that respondents' baseline scores were non-

supportive of rape and showed decreasing support for rape across testing periods.

The goal of evaluating the effectiveness of the prevention program was not reached because of the failure to identify the target population. Results point to the need for more accurate identification of sexually aggressive males prior to presentation of intervention, using evaluation components based on multiple construct theories of attitude and behavior in the assessment of programs, and designing programs based on current theories of persuasion and attitude change. Support is also given for continued use of social desirability measures and follow-up assessment to evaluate long term program impact.

INTRODUCTION

The past two decades have seen a groundswell of research on acquaintance rape/date rape. Early research examined the frequency and contributing factors of this phenomenon. Additionally, diagnostic survey instruments were developed and studied in conjunction with prevention programs. The present study evaluates one such program on a number of dimensions. Given the conflicting findings in this research area, such research is clearly necessary.

Definition. Acquaintance rape/date rape is defined as an aggressive sexual encounter between individuals who are known to each other (e.g., Bridges & McGrail, 1989; Burt & Albin, 1981; Koss, 1985; Koss, Dinero, Seibel, & Cox, 1988; Muehlenhard & Linton, 1987; Roark, 1987). For the purpose of this paper, the term acquaintance rape will be used to describe the behaviors and events generally referred to as date rape/acquaintance rape.

Occurrence rates. Early research into acquaintance rape focused on prevalence rates in order to validate the existence of this type of rape. Muehlenhard and Linton (1987) examined incidence and risk factors of acquaintance rape and sexual aggression against college coeds and found that 15% of their female population reported being involved in unwanted sexual intercourse. Similarly, Koss (1985) observed that approximately 20% of her female subjects reported being a victim of rape by someone they knew. Rape treatment counselors have suggested that acquaintance rape accounts for as much as 60% of all reported rapes (Seligmann, 1984). Finally, research by the Law Enforcement

Assistance Administration (1977), indicates that 50% of all sexual assaults go unreported. Taken together, these statistics suggest a serious and largely hidden social problem.

In a comprehensive survey of occurrence rates, Koss, Gidycz, and Wisniewski (1987) found that 54% of college women reported being sexually victimized, although only 25% of college males acknowledged sexually aggressive behavior. Adjusting for possible differences of interpretation of behavior between males and females and the frequency of sexual encounters, the authors were still unable to account for the discrepancy in reporting. One interpretation of these results suggest that males under-report how frequently they exhibit sexually aggressive behavior.

Victim experiences. Early research also examined the effect of acquaintance rape on its victims. For example, one study looked at differences between acquaintance and stranger rape victims (Koss, et al., 1988). This research indicated that victims of acquaintance rape, compared to victims of stranger rape were more likely to experience multiple episodes of rape by a single offender and to describe the rape event as being less violent. Acquaintance rape victims were also less likely to define their experience as rape, report the incident to authorities, or to acknowledge the event to a confidant.

The research revealed two similarities between the victim groups. First, both reported using similar amounts of resistance to the rape. Second, and more disturbing was the finding that acquaintance rape victims experienced a similar degree of trauma as did the stranger rape victims. When this is considered alongside acquaintance rape victims' pattern of not defining their experience as rape and not reporting it to

authorities or friends, it appears that these individuals must struggle with their trauma in isolation.

Risk factors. Early research also examined the relational dynamics between males and females in order to understand the process by which these sexually aggressive acts occurred. For example, Muehlenhard (1988) examined the concept of misinterpreted dating behaviors and the risk of acquaintance rape. She rated males on the degree to which they thought females wanted sex (sex willingness) and how justified they would be in having sex with a female against her wishes (rape justification). The males' attitudes toward women were then rated in the context of eleven different dating scenarios. Muehlenhard's results indicated that males had higher sex willingness scores than females and concluded that males may overestimate females' willingness to engage in sex. Males who hold to traditional gender roles had higher rape justification ratings than females and non-traditional males. Both these scales were highest for traditional males when a female initiated the date, when she went to his apartment, or allowed the man to pay for all the dating expenses. Muehlenhard also concluded that males with high rape justification scores were more likely to feel "led on" by females in these situations, resulting in their feeling justified in engaging in sex with a female against her wishes.

Further support is lent to Muehlenhard's "sex willingness" concept by Abbey (1982) who reported that males were more likely to express sexual attraction cues to the opposite sex than were females. Males were also more likely to interpret friendliness on the part of females as seductiveness, and generally viewed ambiguous

stimuli from a female as communicating sexual interest.

Abbey, Cozzarelli, McLaughlin, and Harnish (1987) examined sex differences in perceptions and found that males rated females higher in sexuality when they viewed them interacting with either males or females. They were also rated higher in sexuality by males if they wore revealing clothing. In comparison, males did not rate other males nor did females rate males higher in sexuality scores when interacting with the same or opposite sex individuals or when wearing revealing clothing. The researchers concluded that “males see more sexuality in females than females do and with a minimum of cues” (pg. 124).

Taken together, this research identifies a tendency among college age males to see sexuality in females’ behaviors that females interpret as normal and non-sexual. A female, unaware of a male’s expectations and interpretations of her behavior, would not be prepared to respond to his sexual advances potentially resulting in his feeling “led on”. The risk is that this situation might then lead to aggressive behavior on the part of the male.

Attributions. The findings of sex differences in the interpretation of dating behaviors led researchers to investigate the individuals’ attribution of the cause for date rape (e.g., Bridges & McGrail, 1989; Jenkins & Dambrot, 1987; Johnson & Jackson, 1989). Bridges and McGrail (1989) found that the male college students in their study believe that in sexual interactions it is the female’s responsibility to set limits. Therefore, if a rape occurs during a dating situation it is due in part to the females failure to set appropriate limits.

In Johnson and Jackson's (1988) investigation of sex differences in student perceptions of stranger and acquaintance rape, they found that victims of acquaintance rape were seen as giving ambiguous messages because of their willingness to take part in kissing and petting. The researchers concluded that the acquaintance rape victims' claim of rape was not considered as credible as in stranger rape because the acquaintance rape victim could refuse to participate, while the stranger rape victim is perceived to have had no choice.

Jenkins and Dambrot's (1987) study of attribution and date rape found that compared to women, men had higher acceptance of rape myths, were less likely to interpret a forced sexual encounter as rape, and were more likely to see the victim as desiring sexual intercourse. Interestingly, the male participants in this study had also exhibited sexually aggressive behaviors in the past, which raises questions regarding the representativeness of the sample.

Taken together, this research suggests a high degree of sexualized intent inferred into females' behavior by males, along with a high degree of responsibility placed on females for permitting the sex act, and an acceptance of aggression in dating situations.

Socialization influences. A number of researchers (e.g., Burt, 1980; Burt & Albin, 1981; Check & Malamuth, 1983; Reynolds, 1985) asserted either directly or indirectly that rape could be seen as a natural extension of the sex role socialization process in our society which supports aggressive sexuality and objectification of females by males. Quackenbush (1989) examined males' attitudes towards rape according to their categorization as masculine sex-typed, androgynous, or undifferentiated in their sex

role orientation. The attitude scale included both acquaintance rape and stranger rape scenarios and assessed attribution of responsibility for the rape, propensity towards coercive sexual behavior, and rape supportive attitudes.

Results indicated that masculine sex-typed and undifferentiated males reported a greater likelihood of committing the depicted date rape than did androgynous males'. Masculine sex-typed and undifferentiated males also expressed significantly less empathy toward an acquaintance rape victim, viewed the acquaintance rape as less serious and held greater acceptance of rape supportive attitudes than did their androgynous counterparts'.

Quackenbush (1989) concluded, in line with previous research (e.g., Nettles & Loevinger, 1983; Tzuriel, 1984), that androgynous males exhibit more effective social skills, are considered to be more mature and better psychologically adjusted overall than masculine sex-typed and undifferentiated males. In essence, he describes them as capable of experiencing and expressing empathy while the other male types are too socialized to express their emotions. These emotional and social weaknesses on the part of masculine sex-typed and undifferentiated males may contribute to greater risk for perpetrating forced sex against a female.

Briere and Malamuth's (1983) study on the self-reported likelihood of raping or using sexual force indicated that 60% of their sample of university males expressed a willingness to rape or use sexual aggression against a woman if there would be no penalty for the behavior. The results indicated that the predictors of these behaviors were not sexual but cultural and social in nature. The authors concluded that aggressive

attitudes toward women are distributed on a continuum and do not represent a discrete phenomenon.

Later research by Malamuth, Sockloskie, Koss, and Tanaka (1991) examined characteristics of aggressors against women and found that male sexual aggression occurs as a result of a highly hostile masculine personality and a history of sexual promiscuity. Sexual encounters involving males with these characteristics are more likely to be coercive than encounters with males who have low hostile masculinity.

Kanin (1985) investigated another possible aspect of societal influence in the occurrence of acquaintance rape. He hypothesized that date rapists were hyper-sexualized individuals who exhibit high levels of aspiration regarding sexual encounters. Upon examining the sexual histories of 71 self-disclosed college age acquaintance rapists, he concluded that they believed that they would receive positive reputational feedback from their peer group for behaving in a sexually aggressive manner. These individuals also reported experiencing a moderate to high amount of pressure from their peer group to be involved in sexual activity.

Kanin's (1985) research also examined the influence fathers have on sexual behavior. He determined that a significant factor in a son's behavior was the degree to which participants reported their fathers taking a strong position of disapproval towards inappropriate sexual behavior. This stance had more of an influence on a son's behavior than if the father took a positive, encouraging or indifferent posture towards sexual aggression.

Kanin also concluded that acquaintance rapists experience a high degree of social

pressure for sexual achievement. This pressure results in difficulty dealing with sexual rejection and the experience of a high degree of sexual frustration when rejected as a result of high sexual aspirations. This frustration precipitates the males' disregard for the females' rejection and culminates in forcing unwanted sexual intercourse.

According to the author, the motivation behind this behavior is the reestablishment of the males' self-worth. Marx and Gross (1995) suggested that acquaintance rape occurs as a function of operant conditioning. When a female resists initial attempts at sexual intimacy but relents after continued pressure by the male, the male's aggression and persistence are reinforced. This promotes a belief on the male's part that aggressive and persistent attempts to coerce intimacy will be rewarded.

The social learning theory concepts of outcome expectancies and negative consequences are also associated with hyper-masculine male behavior (O'Donahue, McKay, & Schewe, 1996). Hyper-masculine males are described as holding callous sexual attitudes towards women, seeing violence as manly, and considering danger exciting. O'Donahue, et al. argue that these males generally perceive fewer negative consequences associated with rape and thus are more inclined to rape. Therefore, in addition to having attitudes supportive of rape and aggressive behavior, hyper-masculine males perceive that any behavior they exhibit will be met with few if any negative consequences.

The evolution of the research on this issue led to the development of survey instruments such as indices of the likelihood to use force (Briere & Malamuth, 1983), the Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (Burt, 1980), Adversarial Sexual Beliefs (Burt,

1980), Sex Role Stereotyping Scale (Burt, 1980) and the Sexual Experiences Survey (Koss & Oros, 1982) which are used to identify males who hold attitudes that foster sexually aggressive behavior.

Summary of literature examining factors contributing to the occurrence of acquaintance rape. The effects experienced by acquaintance rape victims are as traumatic as those experienced by stranger rape victims. However, acquaintance rape victims are less likely to define their experience as rape or to report it the authorities suggesting that the victims must struggle with the emotional and mental distress in solitude.

The factors contributing to acquaintance rape appear to point to strong societal influences in the development of attitudes and personality characteristics of sexually aggressive males. In general, these males see female behavior as communicating sexual interest or intent when in fact there may be none, they hold adversarial sexual beliefs about women, see sexually aggressive behavior as acceptable, are accepting of rape myths, attribute responsibility for the occurrence of sexual involvement to the woman, have less capacity for empathy, tend to have had prior history of promiscuity and sexual aggressive experiences, and report that they would be likely to use force to obtain sex from a woman if they knew there wouldn't be any consequences.

Prevention programs. Research investigations into the identification of factors contributing to acquaintance rape were naturally followed by the development of educational programs by colleges and universities to prevent acquaintance rape in their student population (Burt, 1980; Parrot, 1988; Sandberg, Jackson, & Petretic-Jackson,

1987). These programs hold three general assumptions: 1) males who have rape supportive attitudes or who hold adversarial sexual beliefs about women are more likely to commit sexually aggressive acts; 2) education will change attitudes; and 3) education will reduce acquaintance rape by changing the attitudes which foster sexual aggression in males. The manner in which the programs are presented vary. They include the factual approach which consists of presenting statistics on the occurrence of rape, its impact on the victim, and prevention tips. In addition, these presentations may attempt to educate males on the fallacies of rape myths (Lonsway, 1996). This type of program is usually presented in a “teaching style” but some programs present the material in a confrontational manner, though it has been shown that this often results in a males becoming resistant to anti-rape myth messages (Fischer, 1986).

A second type of presentation could best be described as “empathy inducing.” The style of presentation can include the presentation of a video with rape vignettes, a play of a rape vignette, and/or a rape victim describing her rape experience and the effect it has had on her life (Lonsway, 1996). In the case of a play or victim presentation this format often allows for interaction between the presenter(s) and the audience in order to create a personalizing effect.

A third format is interactional (Lonsway, 1996). This format attempts to get the audience actively involved in a discussion with either a victim, play actor or opposite-sex member of the audience in order to bring male attitudes out in the open where they can be challenged and where males can hear females’ reactions and attitudes regarding their experiences of being victimized.

Prevention programs have targeted both single sex and mixed-sex groups (Lonsway, 1996). Female only programs are designed to raise females' awareness of their level of risk of victimization (Lonsway, 1996). Research indicates that these female only programs are generally effective at attaining this goal (Gray, Lesser, Quinn, & Bounds, 1990; Hanson & Gidycz, 1993).

Mixed sex programs attempt to establish communication styles, dating expectations, and individual responsibilities regarding dating interactions (Lonsway, 1996). This research has generally found improvements in the attitudes of subjects (Briskin & Gary, 1986; Fonow, Richardson & Wemmarus, 1992; Holcomb, Sarvela, Sondag & Holcomb, 1993; Lenihan & Rawlins, 1994; Lenihan, Rawlins, Eberly, Buckley, & Masters, 1992; Miller, 1988). However, the improvements typically result from a reduction in rape supportive attitudes among females while males indicated little or no reduction.

Programs for males only are designed to increase levels of empathy for the victims of rape and to change rape supportive attitudes (Lonsway, 1996). These programs successfully reduced rape supportive attitudes (Berg, 1993; Gilbert, Heesacker, & Gannon, 1991; Lee, 1987). However, the definitions of success used in the research were sometimes difficult to generalize for a variety of reasons including the lack of a control group (Lee, 1987), or because they used a sample which was not supportive of rape at baseline (Gilbert et al.), or because the detected change of attitudes was in the direction of greater support for rape (Berg, 1993).

In what might be considered to be an evolutionary step in the process of

acquaintance rape prevention program development, Gilbert et al., (1991) developed their prevention program around Petty and Cacioppo's (1986) elaboration likelihood model (ELM) of persuasion and attitude change. They concluded that the inclusion of the theoretical constructs of ELM in prevention programming provides a useful framework for evaluating the effectiveness of such programs and that prevention programs could benefit greatly from focusing on the development of their arguments so that they would elicit favorable thoughts and attitude change in their audience. These conclusions have also been supported by Lonsway (1996) and Schewe and O'Donahue (1993).

Two problems with existing research prevent strong conclusions from being drawn. First, few studies have attempted to assess attitude change resulting from an acquaintance rape prevention program over the long term. Where such studies exist, their findings are difficult to generalize because pretesting showed low levels of agreement with rape supportive attitudes (Gilbert et al., 1991) or that significant attitude changes were only found in women (Lenihan, et al., 1992). Second, while researchers acknowledge male reluctance to admit participation in sexually aggressive behavior or rape supportive attitudes, the research and prevention programs up to this point have not adequately addressed the effect of socially desirable response styles. The potential impact is significant in that the majority of instruments used to assess for change in attitudes are self-report measures with a high degree of face validity. Given the threatening nature of these questionnaires, social desirability is likely to play a powerful role, thus jeopardizing conclusions.

This study was conceived to examine the long-term effectiveness of an acquaintance rape prevention program in changing the attitudes of males who endorse sexually aggressive attitudes toward women at a large mid-western university. The prevention program (Campus Rape Prevention) was developed by the Advocates for Sexual Awareness Committee. The committee is made up of representatives from the University Police Department, Housing Programs, Health Center, Legal Counsel, Counseling and Testing Services, Womens Resource Center, United Ministry Center, Student Affairs and several academic departments.

The prevention program was developed in response to the increasing awareness that sexual assault in any form was a serious problem. Additionally, it became apparent that acquaintance rape was overlooked and under reported and that it posed a serious risk to the health and safety of the student population. Given the different cultures in the university, the study used both ROTC members and dormitory residents as participants. Due to concerns with the previous research addressed above, this study also assessed the influence of social desirability in self reports of rape supportive attitudes. Hypothesis I is that individuals who initially obtained high scores (support for sexual aggression) on the survey measures would show a reduction in those scores following their participation in the prevention program. Hypothesis II is that the treatment effects of the prevention program would be maintained at the three month follow-up.

Method

Participants and Design

A total of 180 male students belonging to either the ROTC program ($n=96$) or campus dormitory residents ($n=84$) participated in this study. The prevention program was initially designed to be presented to all dormitory students, ROTC members, and fraternity and sorority organizations. However, at the time of program implementation, presentation to only a limited number of campus dormitories had been arranged resulting in a smaller than planned male freshman sample base, resulting in the inclusion of all class levels in the study. In addition, while the prevention program was meant for both sexes, an insufficient number of females in the ROTC and dorm groups led to a focus on males in this study. The mean age of participants was 20 years of age. Additional demographics for participants are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics

	n	%
Grade Status		
Freshman	103	57.2
Sophomore	23	12.8
Junior	8	4.4
Senior	28	15.6
Grad. School	13	7.2
Refused	5	2.8
Dating Freq.		
No Dating	8	4.4
< 1x per/month	65	36.1
1x per week	44	24.4
2x per week	27	15
>2x per week	31	17.2
Steady partner	3	1.7
Refused	2	1.1

(Table continues)

	n	%
Alcohol Use on Dates		
Never Drink	40	22.2
<25% of time	30	16.7
25% to 50%	55	30.6
50% to 75%	9	5
75% to 100%	13	7.2
Always	19	10.6
Refused	14	7.8

A Solomon four-group design (Campbell & Stanley, 1963) was used to control for the effects of pretesting. A modified random assignment of participants was conducted due to the constraints of the design of the program administration. Participants were assigned to one of four treatment groups. Group I subjects received pretesting, treatment, post-testing and follow-up testing. Group II received pretesting, post-testing, and follow-up testing but did not receive the treatment. Group III received the treatment, the post-testing, and the follow-up testing. Group IV received only the post-testing and the follow-up testing. The dorm and ROTC groups were maintained as separate groups, leading to a 2 (group) by 4 (treatment) design.

Dependent Variables

A survey consisting of three attitude scales were administered to assess baseline attitudes and any change in attitude brought about the prevention program. All scales use a 7 point Likert response format ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree.” The scales and score ranges are as follows; Adversarial Sexual Beliefs (ASB)(9-63), Sex Role Stereotyping (SRS)(9-63) and Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (RMA)(14-92) (Burt, 1980). Norms for these instruments have yet to be developed. These measures all have acceptable reliability, ranging from .80 to .89. The internal consistency reliability (Cronbach’s alpha) for each measure is as follow’s; ASB= .80, SRS= .80, and RMA= .87 (Burt, 1980).

A fourth scale, Sexual Experiences Survey (SES) (Koss & Oros, 1982), was administered to all males in the pretest measure. This measure assessed prior sexual experiences involving the use of force in order to obtain sexual gratification. The SES

for males has an internal consistency rating of .89 (Cronbach's alpha) and the Pearson correlation between a man's level of sexual aggression as described on a self report and his responses given in the presence of an interviewer was .61 ($p < .001$) (Koss & Gidycz, 1985).

A fifth scale, Marlowe Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MCSD) (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960 & 1964), was included with the other measures to assess for response styles that indicate a need for approval or desire for social conformity. Both the SESM and the MCSD require a yes/no response.

Procedure

The rape prevention program was designed by the Education Committee to be presented to both males and females. Facilitator's of the program were a team consisting of one male and one female undergraduate student enrolled in the School of Social Work and trained in presenting the data and facilitating discussion of the topic. It was one hour in length and began with statistics about the types and occurrence of rape. This was followed by a film entitled "Campus Rape" (Rape Treatment Center, 1990) that presented four vignettes about rape (2 date rape, 2 stranger rape). The video described the victim's experience and reaction to the rape as well as the reaction of family and friends. It then discussed the availability of support services and gave prevention tips.

Following presentation of the tape, the facilitators' reviewed the major points and held a brief discussion (15-20 minutes) focusing on reactions to the tape and rape statistics. Students then received a written packet of information reviewing the material

they received in the presentation.

The groups requiring pretesting were administered the survey prior to the beginning of the prevention program. Post-testing took place after the completion of the program. The follow-up survey was administered three months after completion of the prevention program.

RESULTS

Review of data on the extent of individual involvement in forced sexual behavior as indicated by responses to the Sexual Experiences Survey (SESM) indicate that males in both the Dormitory and ROTC groups did not acknowledge that type of behavior. In addition, exploratory analysis of the role of Social Desirability revealed non-significant effects on the dependent variables.

Descriptive statistics for both Dormitory and ROTC groups for all administrations are presented in Table 2 and Table 3 respectively. Mean scores for both groups, all administrations and all scales fall within a range that indicate a lack of support for adversarial sexual beliefs, sex role stereotyping, or rape myth acceptance.

After completing individual t-tests no significant differences were found within the Solomon four-group design and the data was regrouped into more appropriate 2 x 3 (Group x Administration) mixed design for each scale. Results of these analyses, as displayed in Table 4, indicate a significant interaction effect for ASB. Post hoc tests revealed significant differences between the post-test and follow-up administration of that instrument for the ROTC group $F(2, 172) = 6.31, p < .01$ and between the Dorm

and ROTC group at the follow-up administration $F(2, 172) = 7.16, p < .01$, such that both groups reported decreased support for adversarial sexual beliefs from the initial testing.

Table 5 presents the results of the ANOVA using SRS as the dependent variable. Again, a significant interaction effect was found with post hoc tests revealing significant differences between the post-test and follow-up administration of that instrument for the ROTC group $F(2, 176) = 16.14, p < .001$ and between the Dorm and ROTC group at the follow-up administration $F(2, 176) = 8.08, p < .001$, such that both groups reported decreased support for sex role stereotyping attitudes from the initial testing.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for the Dormitory Group for all Administrations

	Pretest		Posttest		Follow-up	
Scale	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Group I						
SRS	41.12	6.42	41.48	6.65	41.92	6.96
ASB	47.36	6.77	48.24	6.97	48.48	6.89
RMA	59.84	7.19	61.48	7.70	61.56	7.76
SESM	22.52	1.45	22.52	1.45	22.32	1.60
MCSD	12.79	2.72	12.71	2.68	13.17	3.32
Group II						
SRS	39.74	9.65	39.68	9.76	40.11	8.49
ASB	42.37	9.54	42.58	9.52	41.16	12.15
RMA	57.26	10.70	57.37	11.03	58.00	9.51
SESM	21.21	2.12	21.26	2.16	21.42	2.14
MCSD	14.21	5.34	14.32	5.41	14.00	4.99

(table continues)

Scale	Pretest		Posttest		Follow-up	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Group III						
SRS			41.21	4.73	43.22	6.11
ASB			46.44	7.89	48.30	9.19
RMA			60.46	6.56	59.85	8.17
SESM			23.04	.88	23.12	.92
MCSD			14.23	5.35	14.41	4.36
Group IV						
SRS			38.60	7.74	41.06	7.20
ASB			40.27	11.99	43.25	10.62
RMA			59.93	9.48	61.50	8.17
SESM			22.50	.94	22.50	.89
MCSD			14.93	4.16	15.00	4.18

Note. Group refers to treatment condition; I = OXOO, II = O_OO, III = _XOO, IV = __OO. SRS = Sex Role Stereotyping, ASB = Adversarial Sexual Beliefs, RMA = Rape Myth Acceptance, SESM = Sexual Experiences Survey - Male, MCSD = Marlowe Crowne Social Desirability Scale.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for the ROTC Group for all Administrations

Scale	Pretest		Posttest		Follow-up	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Group I						
SRS	40.61	7.03	39.97	7.74	43.58	7.27
ASB	45.06	8.78	46.09	9.74	49.16	7.78
RMA	58.82	9.67	59.55	10.65	62.03	8.82
SESM	21.94	.93	21.97	.91	22.10	.94
MCSD	13.24	4.39	13.28	4.14	14.08	4.76
Group II						
SRS	39.63	6.11	40.94	6.75	46.18	7.72
ASB	44.28	7.93	44.83	9.59	48.53	7.74
RMA	54.83	8.81	56.89	8.25	62.53	7.31
SESM	21.78	.94	21.82	.88	21.94	.90
MCSD	12.38	5.97	12.25	5.77	12.94	4.00

(table continues)

	Pretest		Posttest		Follow-up	
Scale	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Group III						
SRS			40.46	7.98	43.54	9.15
ASB			47.88	9.33	50.87	8.13
RMA			61.42	6.96	63.08	8.16
SESM			22.37	.97	22.32	.96
MCSD			13.71	4.13	13.89	3.81
Group IV						
SRS			40.08	5.47	40.92	5.89
ASB			47.25	6.24	51.30	8.06
RMA			61.15	7.21	62.31	5.62
SESM			22.73	1.01	22.54	.88
MCSD			13.83	4.15	14.00	4.30

Note. Group refers to treatment condition; I = OXOO, II = O_OO, III = _XOO, IV = __OO. SRS = Sex Role Stereotyping, ASB = Adversarial Sexual Beliefs, RMA = Rape Myth Acceptance, SESM = Sexual Experiences Survey - Male, MCSD = Marlowe Crowne Social Desirability Scale.

Table 4

Analysis of Variance for Adversarial Sexual Beliefs

Source	df	E
Between subjects		
Group (G)	1	0.89
G within-group		
error	86	(197.91)
Within subjects		
Administrations (A)	2	6.31**
G x A	2	7.16**
A within-group		
error	172	(10.92)

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors.

****p** < .01.

Table 5
Analysis of Variance for Sex Role Stereotyping

Source	df	F
Between subjects		
Group (G)	1	0.45
G within-group		
error	88	(149.71)
Within subjects		
Administrations (A)	2	16.14***
G x A	2	8.08***
A within-group		
error	176	(10.03)

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors.

***p < .001.

Table 6 presents the results of the ANOVA using RMA as the dependent variable.

Again, a significant interaction effect was found with post hoc tests revealing significant differences between the pre-test and follow-up administrations for the ROTC group $F(2, 172) = 21.13, p < .001$ and between the Dorm and ROTC group at the follow-up administration $F(2, 172) = 8.08, p < .001$, such that both groups reported a decrease in support for rape myths from the initial testing period.

A power analysis was also completed for each measure across conditions resulting in the following estimates of omega squared; SRS = .008, ASB = .006, and RMA = .006.

Table 6

Analysis of Variance for Rape Myth Acceptance

Source	df	E
Between subjects		
Group (G)	1	0.00
G within-group		
error	86	(235.29)
Within subjects		
Administrations (A)	2	21.13***
G x A	2	8.08***
A within-group		
error	172	(11.14)

Note. Values enclosed in parentheses represent mean square errors.

*** $p < .001$.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the long term effectiveness of the Campus Rape Prevention program in changing the attitudes of males who endorse sexually aggressive attitudes towards women. The results of this research fail to support either hypothesis I, that individuals who initially obtained high scores (support for sexual aggression) on the survey measures would show a reduction in those scores following their participation in the prevention program or hypothesis II which stated that the treatment effects of the prevention program would be maintained at the three month follow-up.

Regardless of what group the participants were in or whether they received or did not receive pretesting, participants baseline results indicated a lack of support for sexually aggressive attitudes. In addition, participants of both groups uniformly denied tendencies to respond in a socially desirable manner and denied participating in sexually aggressive behavior.

The findings of significance on the ASB and SRS for the ROTC group between the post-test and follow-up conditions, on the RMA for the ROTC group between pre-testing and follow-up and between the ROTC and dormitory group on all measures at the follow-up in the direction of increasingly less support for sexually aggressive attitudes lend support for the inclusion of follow-up outcome measures in these studies. The significance detected was for the ROTC participants in the direction of decreased support of sexually aggressive attitudes. While both groups reported a decrease in support for sexually aggressive attitudes the ROTC group reported a significantly

greater decrease in support than dormitory participants reported across administration periods and regardless of the measure. While possible support could be found for the effectiveness of the prevention program due to the decrease in supportive attitudes for the ROTC group across administrations, the power analysis results of omega squared below .001 for all measures indicates that the clinical significance of these changes is inconsequential.

Results of the Marlowe Crowne Social Desirability (MCSD) scale suggest that the 180 participants responded to the attitude survey in an honest manner. In addition, their lack of acknowledgment of having sexually aggressive attitudes would appear to be good news. However, it is not consistent with even the lower end of reported occurrence rates for this type of behavior amongst this setting and population (Koss, et al., 1987). The possibility that some respondents were dishonest in their responses in order to avoid identification as someone who either participated in sexually aggressive behavior or held such attitudes is a strong possibility.

While suggesting that respondents were possibly dishonest underscores the real issue in this and other research in this area. That being that this research failed to identify the target population of males who hold sexually aggressive attitudes towards women as indicated by responses to the Sexual Experiences Survey-Male and other attitude measures and thus was unable to determine the effectiveness of the prevention program in changing those attitudes. One possible reason for these results is the inclusion of the MCSD. The failure of the MCSD to detect socially desirable response styles suggests that all respondents were willing to respond to survey items in an open

and honest fashion without attempting to look good to others. However, I propose that the MCSD was not sufficiently sensitive to detect faking in this environment. Which could be a result of some of the following research design flaws.

First, the design of the prevention program presentation may have provided enough foreknowledge to alert the participants to the general nature of the program and thus possibly compromise the sensitivity and effectiveness of the attitude measures. Second, due to the design of the prevention program presentation, the presentation of the initial survey instruments included the consent form which may have alerted them to the nature of the study and also included the MCSD and the SESM which potentially could have reduced their detection sensitivity due to the demand characteristics of the survey packet. Presenting these measures separately before the beginning of the program might have reduced this possible effect and resulted in identification of males who held sexually aggressive attitudes. Third, the MCSD may not be designed to detect socially desirable response styles in all types of situations thus requiring possible development of social desirability measures directed specifically at this issue. Finally, acquaintance rape was a popular issue at the time of the presentation, potentially increasing participants sensitivity to the issue and affecting their responses to the measures. An example of this sensitivity occurred at the time of follow-up testing when subjects were not in a controlled environment and had the freedom to respond anonymously. Eight ROTC participants returned their follow-up measures uncompleted and with a note indicating roughly that they were reluctant to respond to the research any longer because they feared it might jeopardize their plans for a lifelong military career if their

responses were ever revealed.

Several suggestions for future research and practice may be put forth as a result of this study. First, this and all prevention programs regardless of their purpose would benefit from inclusion of an evaluation component at their inception in order to design a program that takes into account validity, reliability and research design issues. This hopefully would make for more accurate assessment of the programs because they would then have clear goals as to their purpose and have defined procedures for the administration of the program and the assessment measures thus contributing to the cleanliness of the research. This component could be achieved through the involvement of a counseling psychologist with expertise in research design and analysis.

Second, in looking at the evolution of the research in this area one might get the impression that developing prevention programs was premature given the poor ability to accurately identify the target population. For acquaintance rape prevention programs to accurately assess their effectiveness they must focus their programs on sexually aggressive males. In order for this to occur, researcher's must concentrate their efforts on more accurate identification of these males through the development of new or refined assessment measures and procedures. Schewe and O'Donahue (1993) call for the development of assessment measures with sufficient predictive validity because the current reliance on measures that assess the "construct of rape attitudes" is not sufficient for evaluating prevention programs (p. 675). While acknowledging the difficulty in developing predictive measures, the author's offer the following six "criteria and rationale as evidence for the validity of rape scales" (pg. 676):

1. Greater arousal to depictions of rape than to depictions of consenting sex:

Research has shown that some rapists are more aroused by rape stimuli than they are by consenting sex stimuli (e. g., Abbey et al, 1977). Subjects who show equal or greater arousal to rape scenes should generate more deviant scores on any scale purporting to measure rape proclivity.

2. Gender: Men rape more than women (Russell, 1984). Therefore, men should generate more deviant scores than women on any measure attempting to predict rape.

3. Rape convictions: Convicted rapists are more likely to rape in the future than nonrapists (Marshall, Jones, Ward, Johnston, & Barbaree, 1991). Any measure of rape proclivity should be able to distinguish between rapist and nonrapist population.

4. High SES scores: If convicted rapists are more likely to reoffend than nonrapists, then, by implication, individuals who report a past history of coerced or forced sexual encounters should be more likely to use force or coercion in the future. Again, measures of rape proclivity should be able to distinguish between the two populations.

5. Abuse in childhood: men who have been sexually abused are more likely to commit sexual offenses than men who have not been sexually victimized (Kalmuss & Seltzer, 1986). Therefore, men who were victimized as children should obtain more deviant score than men who do not have a history of abuse.

6. Laboratory aggression: Researchers infer that increased aggression in the

laboratory should predict increased use of aggression in situations outside of the laboratory (Malamuth, 1986). Scores on paper-and-pencil measures should therefore correlate significantly with the amount of laboratory aggression.

Third, due to the questionable assumption that attitudes alone can predict behavior, outcome measures that assess more than one construct of the attitude behavior continuum must be developed and included in future research. Theories such as the composite model of attitude behavior relation (Eagley & Chaiken, 1993) provide a framework for assessing individual habits, attitudes, outcome evaluation, intentions and behaviors. Such a framework would offer the opportunity to include measures that would assess a variety of constructs and contribute to a more reasoned evaluation of specific interventions for changing the attitudes and behaviors of sexually aggressive males.

Fourth, research such as Gilbert's, et al. (1991) that included in its design a presentation format based on ELM, must be applauded and encouraged. The nature of this issue is such that it begets the necessity to design prevention programs that take into account the resistance of the target audience. The development of prevention programs that design their presentations around concepts such as Petty and Cacioppo's (1986) central and peripheral routes of persuasion could provide for more effective message presentation and measurable constructs for the purpose of evaluation.

Fifth, the inclusion of a social desirability scale was unique to this study and while the results failed to indicate significance, its inclusion in future research is imperative. The attitudes and beliefs that surround this type of sexually aggressive behavior are

generally known to be socially unacceptable, presumably by even those who hold them. The potential impact on responses to initial and follow-up measures require the use of such scales to ensure the validity of the results.

Finally, recent research (Mann, Nolen-Hoeksema, Huang, Burgard, Wright & Hanson, 1997; Kalichman, Kelly & Rompa, 1997) on the evaluation of prevention programming in the areas of eating disorders and HIV prevention suggest a fundamental revision of beliefs about the efficacy of prevention programs in general. Mann, et al, (1997) reported that in a study of the effectiveness of combining primary (preventing initial occurrence) and secondary interventions (encouraging early treatment) into one prevention program targeting eating disorders that the prevention was ineffective and actually increased the behaviors that they were attempting to reduce. They suggested that the secondary intervention resulted in a message to the participants that their eating disordered behavior was normal thus reducing the stigma and anxiety surrounding their behavior. They speculate that this normalization occurred partially through viewing panel members who were recovering from an eating disorder but who appeared healthy and attractive. They suggest that prevention programs should develop to a higher state than just providing information, which is seen as being ineffective in preventing behaviors. In addition, they suggest the targeting of interventions to either primary or secondary forms of prevention.

The correlation to acquaintance rape prevention research may be the issue of primary prevention. Most acquaintance rape prevention programs are of the information dissemination type that result in little or no change in attitudes and could

thus benefit from a more targeted approach to prevention as suggested by Mann, et al., (1997).

Kelichman, Kelly & Rompa (1997) in a study of HIV risk related behaviors between seropositive gay men and uninfected bisexual men suggest that primary prevention measures while important are ineffective without interventions aimed at changing behaviors.

In summary, the dynamics of acquaintance rape make it a very difficult phenomenon to study accurately. It is an event that victims are often reluctant to acknowledge and it is definitely an event that the perpetrator does not want to acknowledge thus making it difficult to get accurate information about the factors contributing to this event. This requires that the implementation of prevention programs need to be preceded by extensive research identifying the factor's contributing to sexually aggressive behavior amongst acquaintances. It also has to be able to accurately identify individuals with this proclivity and to identify the modes of programming intervention that these individuals will respond to in positive manner. This needs to be followed by research to determine whether the programs are effective in changing targeted behaviors. These steps assume a marriage of research and prevention programming for ongoing evaluation and refinement of procedures and interventions. Measures such as these will not guarantee accuracy but will contribute to more valid theories regarding the occurrence of this event and effective interventions to prevent it.

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Appendix A

Prospectus

The occurrence of date/acquaintance rape has received national attention throughout the 80's and 90's. The focus of this attention has been directed mainly on college campuses where there have been numerous reports of occurrence due to the high population of dating age individuals (Seligmann, 1984).

This paper will examine the empirical research that has been done on date rape up to this point and the development of prevention programs in response to this social problem. It will then propose an evaluation of an existing University based date rape prevention program.

Definition. Bridges and McGrail (1989) described the continuum of rape perpetrators as steady dating partners, acquaintances on a first date, and strangers. For the purpose of this research, date rape will refer to perpetrators who may be steady dating partners and/or acquaintances on a first date.

Occurrence Rates. Initial research into date rape tended to focus on the issue of prevalence rates in order to validate the reality and severity of the problem.

Muehlenhard and Linton (1987) reported in their examination of incidence and risk factors of date rape and sexual aggression against college coeds that 15% of their female population reported being involved in unwanted sexual intercourse. Likewise, Koss (1985) revealed that approximately 20% of her female subject population of college coeds reported being a victim of rape or attempted rape by someone they knew. Seligman (1984) reported the frequency of date rape to be as high as 60% in general

society and potentially higher in areas of high concentration of youth such as college campuses. These rates of occurrence in conjunction with other research (Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1977) show that at least 50% of all sexual assaults go unreported. The culmination of this research brings to light the extent and depth of this seriously overlooked social problem.

Victim Experiences. Research into the effect of date rape on it's victims was an initial focus of the research. One of the results of this area of research has been the identification of differences in experiences between victims of stranger rape versus victims of acquaintance rape (Koss, Dinero & Seibel, & Cox, 1988). This research indicated that victims of acquaintance rape, compared against victims of stranger rape, were more likely to experience multiple episodes of rape by a single offender. They were also less likely to define their experience as rape or report the incident. They exhibited a similar amount of resistance to the rape as did stranger rape victims and reported that the rape was less violent. The most significant factor in this research was the finding that the trauma experienced by acquaintance rape victims was similar to that of stranger rape victims.

Risk Factors. In an attempt to understand the how and why of this type of sexual violence. Koss's (1985) research pointed to the likelihood that most hidden rape victims, those who do not report the incident, were assaulted by an acquaintance or romantic intimate. This led researchers to question what the factor's are that contribute to events such as these between two people who know one another.

Muehlenhard (1988) examined the concept of misinterpreted dating behaviors and the risk of date rape. She rated male students on the degree to which they thought

females wanted sex (sex willingness) and how justified they would be in having sex with a female against her wishes (rape justification). The males attitudes toward women were then rated in the context of eleven different dating scenarios. Muehlenhard's results indicated that males had higher sex willingness scores than females and concluded that males may overestimate the females willingness to engage in sex. Traditional males, those who hold to traditional gender roles, had higher rape justification ratings than females and non-traditional males. Both these scales were highest when a female initiated the date, when she went to his apartment or allowed the man to pay for all the dating expenses. She also concluded that males with high rape justification scores were more likely to feel "led on" by females in these situations, resulting in their feeling justified in engaging in sex with a female against her wishes.

Further support is lent to Muehlenhard's "sex willingness" concept by Abbey (1982) who reported that males were more likely to express sexual attraction cues to the opposite sex than were females. Males were also more likely to interpret friendliness on the part of a female as seductiveness and in general view ambiguous stimuli from a female as communicating sexual interest.

Abbey, Cozzerelli, McLaughlin, and Harnish (1987) examined the differences between sexes in their perceptions of cues and found that males rated females higher in sexuality when they viewed them interacting with either males or other females. They were also rated higher in sexuality if they wore revealing clothing. In comparison, males did not rate other males nor did females rate males higher in sexuality scores when interacting with the same or opposite sex individuals or when wearing revealing clothing. It was concluded that males "see more sexuality in females than females do

and with a minimum of cues".

The implications of this area of research point to the severity of this event in terms of the trauma it's victims experience. The research also identifies the male tendency to infer sexuality into female behaviors that females see as normal and non-sexual. The risk here being that a female may be totally unaware of a male's expectations and not prepared to respond to his sexual advances. Resulting as other researchers have indicated, with the male feeling led on and thus able to rationalize forcing sexual intercourse.

Attributions. The findings of sex differences in the interpretation of dating behaviors led researchers such as Jenkins and Dambrot (1987), Bridges and McGrail (1989) and Johnson and Jackson (1988) to investigate individuals' attribution of the cause for date rape. Bridges and McGrail (1989) found that the male college students in their study believe that in sexual interactions it is the female's responsibility to set limits. If a rape occurs in a dating situation it is due in part to the female's failure to set appropriate limits.

In Johnson and Jackson's (1988) investigation of male and female students differential perceptions of stranger and date rape, they found that even though lack of consent was acknowledged in both types of situations, victims of date rape were seen as giving ambiguous messages because of their willingness to take part in kissing and petting. The result of this was that date rape victims lack of consent was seen as less credible than was a victim of stranger rape.

Jenkins and Dambrot (1987) study of attribution of date rape found that men in comparison to women had higher acceptance of rape myths, were less likely to

interpret a forced sexual encounter as rape, and were more likely to see the victim as desiring sexual intercourse. It was also found that these men had also exhibited sexually aggressive behavior in the past. Burt (1980) described the males that Jenkins and Dambrot (1987) identified as having high rape myth acceptance beliefs. Burt (1980) also proposed that these males hold stereotypical sex role attitudes, have adversarial sexual beliefs about females, and view interpersonal violence as acceptable behavior.

The review of the research from this area underscores the high degree of sexualized intent that males infer into females' behavior. It also alluded to the responsibility that males place on females for the occurrence of the sex act.

Socialization Influences. In an effort to examine prior researchers' (Burt, 1980; Burt & Albin, 1981; Check & Malamuth, 1983; Reynolds, 1985) assertions that date rape is a natural extension of the sex role socialization process in our society, which supports aggressive sexuality and objectification of females by males, Quackenbush (1989) examined the attitudinal differences of males on the issue of rape. Males were categorized as either masculine sex-typed, androgynous, or undifferentiated in their sex role orientation. These males were then asked to rate a date rape and stranger rape scenario on the factors of attribution of responsibility for the rape, propensity towards coercive sexual behavior, and rape supportive attitudes.

The results indicated that masculine sex-typed and undifferentiated males reported greater likelihood of committing the depicted date rape than androgynous males did. These males also expressed significantly less empathy toward the date rape victim, viewed the date rape as less serious and held greater acceptance of rape supportive attitudes than their androgynous counterparts did.

Quackenbush (1989) goes on to indicate that androgynous individuals are considered to be in the superior sex role orientation. They exhibit more effective social skills, are considered to be more mature and better psychologically adjusted overall. Undifferentiated individuals are considered to be the least well adjusted. Sex typed individuals fall somewhere in between these classifications regarding psychological adjustment.

According to Quackenbush (1989), the difference among androgynous individuals and sex-typed and undifferentiated individuals is that androgynous individuals have incorporated feminine competencies into their masculine abilities. The impact this has on ones attitudes towards rape is that these individuals have fewer rape supportive beliefs and are able to exhibit greater empathy towards rape victims.

Inversely, masculine sex-typed and undifferentiated males hold attitudes that are more supportive of rape and aggressive sexual behavior towards females. These factors, in combination with their lower level of psychological adjustment, potentially place them at risk for perpetrating forced sex against a female.

Environmental Influences. Kanin (1985) investigated the issue of date rape from the postulate that date rapists were hyper sexualized individuals who exhibit high levels of aspiration regarding sexual encounters. In examining the sexual histories of 71 one self disclosed college age date rapists, he concluded that these individuals believe that they would receive positive feedback from their peer group for behaving in a sexually aggressive manner. These individuals also report experiencing a moderate to high amount of pressure from their peer group to be involved in sexual activity.

The author also examined the influence fathers have on these men's sexual behavior.

He determined that the significant factor in these situations was the degree to which the father took a strong position of disapproval towards inappropriate sexual behavior.

This had more influence on a son's behavior than if the father took a positive, encouraging or indifferent posture towards sexual aggression (Kanin, 1985).

For these date rapists it was found that they experienced a high degree of social pressure for sexual achievement. According to the author, this pressure makes it more difficult for these men to deal with sexual rejection and they experience a higher degree of sexual frustration when rejected due to their high sexual aspirations. This frustration precipitates their disregard for the female's rejection and culminates in forcing unwanted sexual intercourse.

Kanin (1985) goes on to indicate that any physical violence or pain inflicted during a date rape is a secondary function for these males. The primary motivation of forcing sexual intercourse appears to be the reestablishment of the male's self-worth.

This area of research again points to the issue of males' self worth and its impact on their sexual attitudes and behavior. The risk of committing a forced sex act for males who seek psychological validation from peer groups who hold sexually aggressive attitudes appears high.

Prevention Programs. The response to this issue by various community and university prevention groups have focused on support and intervention for victims and development of programs focused on preventing the occurrence of such acts. The programs have taken the form of dramatic plays involving students acting out dating situations in which sexual aggression takes place (Lee, 1987; Miller, 1988). Following the presentations both play actors and audience members share their reactions in an

attempt to raise male and female students awareness of the factors and the effects. An offshoot form of this involves the use of video presentations rather than live play acting.

Another type of program is didactic in nature, with students receiving statistics on the occurrence rates and impact of sexual aggression and then either discussing the issue in a forum between the sexes or within sexes (Lee, 1987; Miller, 1988). The other most common type of program has a victim of date rape share her experience from the actual assault to the resultant aftereffects to a group of male and female students who then are encouraged to enter into discussion about the issue (Miller, 1988).

Although numerous articles have supported these forms of programs or suggested other forms of intervention that universities should employ (Miller, 1988; Pace & Zaugra, 1988; Roark, 1987), there have been few that addressed the issue of whether prevention programs are accomplishing their stated goals.

Those that have attempted to address this issue, such as Lee (1987) and his examination of a rape education/prevention programs effectiveness in changing males' empathy levels and attitudes toward rape, showed positive effects from the program but the research used a sample of only 24 males.

More recently, Gilbert, Heesacker and Gannon (1991) assessed a psycho educational intervention program aimed at changing sexually aggressive male attitudes towards women. Their research incorporated both a standard prevention program format and a current social model of attitude change (Elaboration Likelihood Model). Their application of the program and model was to 75 male undergraduates. Unfortunately, the size of the populations used in these two studies and the fact that

neither were actually university sanctioned prevention programs limits the generalization of their results.

Evaluation of current prevention programs as done by Lenihan, Rawlins, Eberly, Buckley, and Masters (1992) resulted in inconsistent results. Lenihan, et al (1992), assessed university students attitudes toward rape and rape myths and measured the impact of change in those attitudes following exposure to an acquaintance rape education program. Students in introductory health classes were exposed to a 50 minute date rape program using a combination of lecture, video of date rape situations, plus a sharing of a date rape experience by one of the presenters. The presenters included three women and one man. Two were sexual assault crisis counselors and one was a residence hall counselor.

Using the Rape Supportive Attitude Survey, a 36 item Likert Scale measure to assess attitude change from pretreatment to post-treatment but no follow up to assess for degree of change over time. They discovered that only the female students showed a significant change in attitudes in the direction of less supportive attitudes. Males in both the control and treatment group showed no change in rape supportive attitudes.

Summary of literature and purpose of this study. The research conducted on this topic over the last twelve years has identified date rape as a serious and traumatic event that is occurring at an alarming but under reported rate. It has also brought several factors to the forefront as potential contributors to the act of date rape. The research has pointed to the misinterpretation of both verbal and non-verbal communication on the part of both sexes as factors that contribute to misunderstandings about sexual intent. The resulting attributions then lead to the perpetuation of certain myths about

sexual expectations, interactions and rape itself.

The research has also alluded to the societal influences of traditional male gender development and the negative influence it can have on the development of male expectations of female sexual behavior. These influences can lead to the creation of expectations on some males' part that they must pursue sexual intercourse at any cost in order to preserve their self worth.

Community groups have developed both educational and prevention programs to address these issues in various formats. University based prevention programs have received much attention due to their relationship to the large group of dating individuals on their campuses and the concern for preventing such incidents from occurring (Roark, 1987).

The scientific community is now only beginning to respond to the question of the effectiveness of these programs in achieving their stated goals of prevention. Initial attempts at evaluating this question were beset by design flaws that led to questionable results (Gilbert, Heesacker, & Gannon, 1991; Lee, 1987). Other studies (Lenihan et al, 1992) showed no change in male attitudes toward date rape but did show change in female attitudes in the direction of less accepting viewpoints towards date rape behaviors.

The purpose of this study will be to address the issue of prevention program effectiveness via change in attitudes on the part of males. Males are the identified group because they are seen as the perpetrators of date rape in the majority of cases. Thus, it is their attitudes that are seen as needing to be changed.

In reviewing the previous research, a number of issues have arisen that may have a

significant influence in the accurate assessment of a programs effectiveness. One is the possible influence of peoples desire to appear as thinking and acting in socially acceptable ways. The resultant in this area of research is that males may not want to be viewed as a "rapist" or someone who would take advantage of a "helpless female" and therefore respond to any questioning of that type of behavior in a way that will result in his appearing as a standup type of guy.

Pretesting itself might not control for this because the nature of the questions on the survey may alert an individual who is concerned about this issue. In order to assess for this possible type of response pattern a social desirability scale will be included in the assessment measures.

The second issue has to do with the whole reason for providing these programs and that is to change an individuals attitude. However, none of the prior research attempts have looked at attitude change for any period other than from pretesting to post-testing. Therefore, this research will include an additional follow-up testing period of three months.

Background Information. The Campus Rape Prevention Program at the University of Oklahoma is coordinated through the Advocates for Sexual Awareness committee. This committee is made up of representatives from the University Police Department, Housing Programs, Goddard Health Center, Legal Counsel, Counseling and Testing Services, Women's Resource Center, United Ministry Center, Student Affairs, and several academic departments.

It was developed in response to the increasing awareness that sexual assault in any form was a serious problem on this campus. Additionally, it was becoming apparent

that date rape was overlooked and under reported and that this posed a serious risk to the health and safety of the students.

Three subcommittees were formed: Institutional Policy, Education, and Crisis Response. The Institutional Policy subcommittee developed the university policy statement and instituted changes in policies and procedures. The Educational subcommittee developed the "Campus Rape" presentation, designed the training program, and recruited, trained and evaluated the presenters. The Crisis Response subcommittee presented a rape awareness program to Sororities, established a victim support group, linked itself with the Crisis Hot Line and developed and distributed printed educational material.

The goal of the rape prevention program is to increase student awareness concerning the risk of rape, provide information on rape prevention and treatment and do it in a way that incorporates males into the process of prevention. It is the programs belief that rape is a male problem with a female consequence.

Statement of the Problem

1. There is a relationship between a male student's attitudes and beliefs in relationship to his sexually aggressive behavior.
2. Male student attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors can be changed through experiencing a didactic rape prevention program.

The purpose of this study will be to evaluate the effectiveness of the current

University based campus date rape prevention program. The study will compare changes in scores on three scales (Rape Myth Acceptance, Adversarial Sexual Beliefs, Sex Role Stereotyping) between the observed groups. The scales will be administered to half of each group prior to the presentation of the prevention program and to all group members after the presentation of the program and three months following the presentation of the program.

Hypotheses:

1. Male students who initially obtain high scores on the three attitude scales and who participate in the rape prevention program will show a reduction in scores on attitude scales administered following the prevention program.
2. Treatment effects will exist at the three month follow-up.

Assumptions and Limitations

This study must rely on self report measures concerning attitudes and behaviors that are not condoned by society in general. It is assumed that male participants will be honest in their responses to these scales and not attempting to respond as they feel others would want them to.

Methods and Procedures

Participants

250 male college freshman from the university will take part in a university based rape prevention program. Approximately one third of the subjects will consist of ROTC members and two thirds will be on campus dormitory residents.

Instrumentation

Three attitude scales will be administered in order to assess baseline attitudes and any change in attitude brought about by the prevention program. All scales are a Likert response format from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" The scales are:

Adversarial Sexual Beliefs (ASB)(9 items)("A lot of women seem to get pleasure from putting men down."), Sex Role Stereotyping (SRS)(9 items)("There is something wrong with a woman doesn't want to marry and raise a family."), and Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (RMA)(14 items)("Any healthy woman can resist a rapist if she really wants to."), (Burt, 1980).

These measures all have acceptable levels of internal consistency as reported by Burt (1980). They are .80 for the Adversarial Sexual Belief scale, .80 for the Sex Role Stereotyping scale, and .88 for the Rape Myth Acceptance scale. The combined scale validity of the ASB, SRS, and RMA are reported to be .466 (Burt, 1980).

A fourth scale, Sexual Experiences Survey (SESM)(Koss & Oros, 1980)(12 items)("Have you ever had a woman misinterpret the level of sexual intimacy you desired?), will be administered to all males in the pretest measure. This measure will assess for prior sexual experiences that included the use of force in order to obtain sexual gratification.

This self report measure has not yet been thoroughly statistically analyzed for reliability and or validity at this time. The authors report that a factor analyzation of initial survey data report that the factors account for 67.3% of the variance. However, they report that validity of an instrument that is designed to identify respondents who may not want to be identified is difficult to ascertain and that further research is needed to identify characteristics of sexually aggressive individuals and their victims.

A fifth scale, Social Desirability (SD) (Crowne & Marlowe, 1961) will be included with the other measures to assess for response styles that indicate a need for approval or desire for social conformity.

Program Description

The rape prevention program is targeted for both male and female students. The program is approximately one hour in length and begins with students receiving information about statistics on rape. They then view a film entitled "Campus Rape" (Rape Treatment Center, 1990) that presents four vignettes about rape (2 date rape, 2 stranger rape). The focus of the tape is 1) the victims experience and reaction to the rape, 2) family and friends reaction, and 3) types of support services and prevention tips.

Following presentation of the tape there is a review of the major points and a brief discussion (15-20 minutes). Students then receive a written packet of information covering the material they received in the presentation.

This prevention program falls into the didactic category of presentation. Dissemination of information is the focus of the program and interaction between genders is encouraged but not required in order for the program to be considered

successful.

Design and Analysis

A Solomon four-group design (Cambell & Stanley, 1963) was used to control for the effects of pretesting. Subjects from both the Dorm group and the ROTC group were randomly assigned to one of four treatment groups. Group I subjects were pretested, administered treatment and then post-tested. Group II was pretested and post-tested but received no treatment. Group III received the treatment and post-testing but no pretesting. Group IV was post-tested only. All four groups received the 3 month follow up testing.

A total scale score will be tabulated for each of the attitude scales; RMA, SRS, and ASB. In consideration of possible pretest effects, the first analysis will consist of a simple t-test of means on these scales between the group that did not receive a pretest and the group that did receive a pretest. If pretest effects exist then a Three Way Repeated Measure MANOVA with two between factors and one within factor will be done to adjust for these effects.

If no pretest effects exist then a One Way ANOVA on cell means for each group will be done. If groups are different then a MANOVA for each group will be done. If there is no difference between groups then only one MANOVA for the whole population will be done.

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Appendix B

University of Oklahoma - Norman Campus

Informed Consent Form

Title of Project: Evaluation of a Prevention Program

**Investigator: Ed Northam, M.A., Ph.D. candidate in the
Department of Educational and Counseling
Psychology. (Phone 360-0748)**

**This is to certify that I, _____ (Print Full Name),
hereby agree to participate as a volunteer in a scientific investigation as part of an
authorized research program of the University of Oklahoma under the supervision of
Ed Northam.**

**The purpose of this study is to evaluate the effectiveness of the Campus Rape
Prevention Program.**

**Subjects will be asked to complete four short survey scales prior to and directly after
receiving the prevention program and again at 3 months following completion of the
program. Completion of the scales will require approximately 15 minutes of the
subjects time.**

**I understand that I may experience some mild anxiety while completing the survey
scales.**

**I understand that this research may result in greater awareness on my part of my
attitudes and beliefs about my behavior with the opposite sex.**

I understand that the information obtained from or about me will be kept confidential to

the following extent: The participants responses and identity will not be able to be matched. The completed scales will be separated from the identifying name and address prior to data tabulation and will be kept in a separate locked file cabinet that only the researcher will have access to.

Once the follow-up phase of the research has been completed the subjects name and address will be destroyed. Subjects responses will be destroyed at the completion of the research project.

I understand that I am free to refuse to participate in any procedure or answer any question at any time without any prejudice to me. I understand that I am free to withdraw my consent and to withdraw from the research at any time without prejudice to me.

I understand that by agreeing to participate in this research and signing this form that I do not waive any of my legal rights.

I understand that the research investigator named above will answer any of my questions about the research procedures, my rights as a subject, and research related discomfort at any time.

Date

Signature

-1-

ATTITUDE SURVEY

Please print your name, address and phone number in the following spaces so that we may contact you to arrange the follow-up portion of this research study.

THIS SLIP OF PAPER WILL BE REMOVED FROM THE PACKET PRIOR TO THE TABULATION OF DATA. YOUR IDENTITY AND YOUR RESPONSES WILL NOT BE ABLE TO BE MATCHED ONCE THEY ARE SEPARATED. THIS PAPER WILL ALSO BE KEPT IN A SEPARATE SECURED FACILITY FROM THE DATA AND WILL BE DESTROYED ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED THE FOLLOW-UP PACKET.

Name _____

Address _____

Phone _____

INSTRUCTIONS

On the following page, please complete the coding section by using the last four digits of your social security number. If you do not have a SSN please use some four digit sequence that you can remember (such as numerical month and day you were born).

You will be asked to use these same four digits again in the future.

After completing the code please fill in the demographic information and then the code and scale items on the following pages.

-2-

Demographic Information

Code: (last four digits of Social Security number) _____

Age: _____

Sex: _____

Grade Level beginning Fall 1992: _____

Dating frequency (example: twice a month):

Percent of time that alcohol is consumed on dates: _____

Parents income status (check one):

_____ under \$10,000

_____ \$50,000 - \$75,000

_____ \$10,000 - \$25,000

_____ \$75,000 - \$100,000

_____ \$25,000 - \$50,000

_____ over \$100,000

-3-

Code: _____

INSTRUCTIONS FOR COMPLETING SCALES

ON THE FOLLOWING PAGES ARE 29 STATEMENTS. PLEASE USE THE FOLLOWING SCALE TO SHOW YOUR LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH THE STATEMENTS:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
STRONGLY AGREE	SOMEWHAT AGREE	UNSURE	SOMEWHAT DISAGREE	STRONG DISAGREE		

Example: OU's football team is the best in the nation.

2**SRS**

1. A man should fight when the woman he's with is insulted by another man. _____
2. It is acceptable for the woman to pay for the date. _____
3. A woman should be a virgin when she gets married. _____
4. There is something wrong with a woman who doesn't want to marry and
raise a family. _____
5. A wife should never contradict her husband in public. _____
6. It is better for a woman to use her feminine charm to get what she wants
rather than ask for it outright. _____
7. It is acceptable for a woman to have a career, but marriage and family
should come first. _____

-4-

8. It looks worse for a woman to be drunk than for a man to be drunk. _____

9. There is nothing wrong with a woman going to a bar alone. _____

ASB

10. A woman will only respect a man who will lay down the law to her. _____

11. Many woman are so demanding sexually that a man just can't satisfy
them. _____

12. A man's got to show the woman who's boss right from the start or
he'll end up henpecked. _____

13. Women are usually sweet until they've caught a man, but then they let
their true self show. _____

14. A lot of men talk big, but when it comes down to it, they can't
perform well sexually. _____

15. In a dating relationship a woman is largely out to take advantage of a
man. _____

16. Men are out for only one thing. _____

17. Most women are sly and manipulating when they are out to attract a
man. _____

18. A lot of woman seem to get pleasure in putting men down. _____

RMA

19. A woman who goes to the home or apartment of a man on their first date
implies that she is willing to have sex. _____

-5-

20. Any female can get raped. _____
21. One reason that women falsely report a rape is that they frequently
have a need to call attention to themselves. _____
22. Any healthy woman can resist a rapist if she really wants to. _____
23. When women go around braless or wearing short skirts and tight tops,
they are just asking for trouble. _____
24. In the majority of rapes, the victim is promiscuous or has a bad
reputation. _____
25. If a girl engages in necking or petting and she lets things get out of hand,
it is her own fault if her partner forces sex on her. _____
26. Women who get raped while hitchhiking get what they deserve. _____
27. A woman who is stuck-up and thinks she is too good to talk to guys on
the street deserves to be taught a lesson. _____
28. Many women have an unconscious wish to be raped, and may then
unconsciously set up a situation in which they are likely to be attacked. _____
29. If a woman gets drunk at a party and has intercourse with a man she's
just met there, she should be considered "fair game" to other males at
the party who want to have sex with her too, whether she wants to or
not. _____

-6-

*** PLEASE RESPOND TO THE FOLLOWING TWO STATEMENTS USING THE FOLLOWING CHOICES OF ANSWERS.***

1 2 3 4 5

ALMOST ALL ABOUT 3/4 ABOUT 1/2 ABOUT 1/4 ALMOST NONE

30. What percentage of women who report a rape would you say are lying because they are angry and want to get back at the man they accuse. _____

31. What percentage of reported rapes would you guess were merely invented by women who discovered they were pregnant and wanted to protect their own reputation. _____

*** PLEASE RESPOND TO THE NEXT STATEMENT USING THE FOLLOWING CHOICES OF ANSWERS.***

1 2 3 4 5

ALWAYS FREQUENTLY SOMETIMES RARELY NEVER

32. A person comes to you and claims they were raped. How likely would you be to believe their statement if the person were:

Your best friend? _____

A neighborhood woman? _____

A young boy? _____

A black woman? _____

A white woman? _____

-7-

***** THE FOLLOWING ITEMS REQUIRE A YES OR NO RESPONSE.*****

SESM

HAVE YOU EVER:

33. Had sexual intercourse with a woman when you both wanted it? _____
34. Had a woman misinterpret the level of sexual intimacy you desired? _____
35. Been in a situation where you became so sexually aroused that you could
not stop yourself even though the woman didn't want to have sexual
intercourse? _____
36. Had sexual intercourse with a woman even though she didn't really want to
but did because you threatened to end your relationship otherwise? _____
37. Had sexual intercourse with a woman when she really didn't want to but she
did because she felt pressured by your continual arguments? _____
38. Obtained sexual intercourse by saying things you really didn't mean? _____
39. Been in a situation where you used some degree of physical force
(twisting her arm, holding her down, etc.) to try to make a woman engage in
kissing or petting when she didn't want to? _____
40. Been in a situation where you tried to get sexual intercourse with a woman
when she didn't want to by threatening to use physical force (twisting her
arm, holding her down, etc.) if she didn't cooperate, but for various reasons
sexual inter-course didn't occur? _____

-8-

41. Been in a situation where you used some degree of physical force
(twisting her arm, holding her down, etc.) to try to get a woman to have sexual
intercourse with you when she didn't want to, but for various reasons sexual
intercourse did not occur? _____
42. Had sexual intercourse with a woman when she didn't want to because you
threatened to use physical force (twisting her arm, holding her down, etc.) if
she didn't cooperate? _____
43. Had sexual intercourse with a woman when she didn't want to because you
used some degree of physical force (twisting her arm, holding her down,
etc.)? _____
44. Been in a situation where you obtained sexual acts with a woman such as anal
or oral inter-course when she didn't want to by using threats or physical force
(twisting her arm, holding her down, etc.)? _____
45. Before voting I thoroughly investigate the qualifications of all the
candidates. _____
46. I never hesitate to go out of my way to help someone in trouble. _____
47. It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged. _____
48. I have never intensely disliked anyone. _____
49. On occasion I have had doubts about my ability to succeed in life. _____
50. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way. _____
51. I am always careful in my manner of dress. _____

-9-

52. My table manners at home are as good as when I eat out in a restaurant. _____
53. If I could get into a movie without paying and be sure I was not seen,
I would probably do it. _____
54. On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too
little of my ability. _____
55. I like gossip at times. _____
56. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority
even though I knew they were right. _____
57. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener. _____
58. I can remember "playing sick" to get out of something. _____
59. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone. _____
60. I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake. _____
61. I always try to practice what I preach. _____
62. I don't find it particular difficult to get along with loud mouthed
obnoxious people. _____
63. I sometimes try to get even, rather than forgive and forget. _____
64. When I don't know something I don't at all mind admitting it. _____
65. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable. _____
66. At times I have really insisted on having things my own way. _____
67. There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things. _____
68. I would never think of letting someone else be punished for my

-10-

- wrongdoings. _____
69. I never resent being asked to return a favor. _____
70. I have never been bothered when people expressed ideas very different
from my own. _____
71. I never make a long trip without checking the safety of my car. _____
72. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of
others. _____
73. I have almost never felt the urge to tell someone off. _____
74. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me. _____
75. I have never felt that I was punished without cause. _____
76. I sometimes think when people have a misfortune they only got what
they deserved. _____
77. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings. _____

Appendix C

11/28/93

Hello!

A few months ago you took time out of your busy schedule to complete a questionnaire regarding your attitudes concerning dating and sexual behavior.

I want you to know how important your participation in this research project is and the benefit you are offering your fellow students on the OU campus. Your completion of these questionnaires aids us in evaluating the university's prevention programs and assists in fine tuning these programs for maximum effectiveness.

I know that you are now moving into final exams and a busy time of the semester but I would like to impose on you to take a few minutes of your time to complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it in the stamped, self addressed envelope provided.

Your participation is greatly appreciated!

Sincerely,

Ed Northam, MA

Appendix D

1/12/94

Hello!,

A few weeks ago I sent you a follow-up questionnaire to complete. This was in response to your initial involvement in the study on dating and sexual behavior attitudes that you participated in earlier in the fall.

I know that this is an extremely busy time of year for you. However, your effort in taking a few minutes to complete this follow-up form will be greatly appreciated. Your involvement is an important part of the process by which the University is evaluating it's prevention programs that it provides the student body.

PLEASE TAKE A FEW MOMENTS TO COMPLETE THE QUESTIONNAIRE AND RETURN IT IN THE STAMPED SELF ADDRESSED ENVELOPE.

Thank You,

Ed Northam, M.A.