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Rape Myth Acceptance: An Exploration of Influential Factors Among College Students

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RAPE MYTH ACCEPTANCE: AN EXPLORATION OF INFLUENTIAL FACTORS AMONG COLLEGE STUDENTS

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The study examines influential factors of rape myth acceptance among 615 college students. Research suggests that the rate for sexual assault in the United States can range from 5% to 22% of the female population (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Kilpatrick, Best, Veronen, Amick, Villeponteaux, & Ruff, 1985; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Russell, 1984; Sorenson, Stein, Siegel, Golding, & Burnam, 1987; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998; 2006). Historically, the sexual assault rates for college women are three times greater than women in the general population (Koss & Gidycz, 1985). A common method for rape prevention, especially on college campuses, is to dispel rape myths that individuals hold about rape victims, rapists, and situations surrounding rape. The current study identifies which factors are the most influential in rape myth acceptance among a sample of college students. Based on the findings, recommendations for prevention programs and policies are discussed. The results of the study can inform future research and add to the current literature.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This dissertation attempted to determine which factors have the most influence on rape myth acceptance among college students. The research was conducted at a large northeastern public university in the United States using a sample of male and female undergraduate students. Current students were selected for the study by a probability sample using a random sample strategy, and the author administered the survey during class. Identification of the factors that influence rape myth acceptance on college campuses is important. The findings can help enhance prevention and rape awareness programs available on campus, increase knowledge and awareness of rape mythology, and reduce or prevent rape.

Rape is defined by the *Uniform Crime Report* (2009) as the "carnal knowledge of a female forcibly and against her will; attempts or assaults to commit rape by threat of force will also be included" (p. 1). Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994) define rape myths as "attitudes and beliefs that are generally false but are widely and persistently held and that serve to deny and justify male sexual aggression against women" (p. 134). These terms will be referred to frequently throughout the study.

Studies in violence against women, especially research on rape and sexual assault, became popular during the 1970s, primarily as a result of the women's movement (Anderson, Cooper, & Okamura, 1997; Kilpatrick, 2004; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). The Higher Education Act of 1999 allocated funding for research examining sexual assault on college campuses. This funding was reauthorized in the Violence Against Women Act for $12 million for the 2007 fiscal year, and $15 million for each of the fiscal years of 2008-2011 (National Alliance to End Sexual Violence, 2009). The reauthorization of the Violence Against

Women Act funding demonstrated that the government was committed to supporting research on sexual victimization (National Alliance to End Sexual Violence, 2009). This federal support has encouraged research on violence against women. However, there are still gaps in the literature regarding which factors have the most influence on college students' rape myth acceptance (Anderson et al., 1997; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). It is anticipated that this study will add to the literature and guide future prevention and awareness programs on college campuses.

A college sample is appropriate for studying rape because women in the age range of 18-24 are most susceptible to being victimized (Parrot, Cummings, Marchell, & Hofher, 1994; Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1998). This age range coincides with traditional students' college careers. Research indicates that women are more vulnerable to sexual victimization while they are enrolled in college. For men, the college years coincide with the period of their greatest likelihood of committing a sexual assault (Burgess, 2007). This combination can be potentially dangerous for victims on college campuses. As a result, rape prevention on college campuses is critical; and colleges and universities continue to improve existing programs and develop new strategies for prevention.

There are several reasons to investigate student rape myth acceptance. First, research suggests that those with a higher rape myth acceptance are more likely to be tolerant of sexually aggressive behavior toward women than those with lower rape myth acceptance (Flood & Pease, 2007; Malamuth, Haber, & Feshbach, 1980; Malamuth, 1986; Morry & Winkler, 2001). By dispelling these myths, individuals may be more likely to refrain from these acts.

Strategies that attempt to address rape myth acceptance of college students are a common outcome measure of the effectiveness of rape prevention programs (Fisher, Daigle, & Cullen, 2008; Schewe, 2002). This approach relies on the fact that rape is related to an acceptance of

rape myths and that changing these beliefs and attitudes can reduce the incidence of rape (Fisher et al., 2008). Other studies have supported this approach (Burt, 1980; Malamuth et al., 1980; O'Donohue, Yeater, & Fanetti, 2003; Yeater, Treat, Viken, & McFall, 2010). However, some researchers have suggested that in order to change the future behavior of a participant, program refreshers may be needed to sustain the changes after successful completion of the program (Fisher et al., 2008; Lonsway, 1996; Schewe, 2002). Research by Schewe (2002), and Lonsway (1996), indicated that attitude changes only last for a limited period of time after the participant finishes the program. To address this short term effect, it may be possible to identify specific factors that influence rape myth acceptance among college students. Universities could then incorporate this information and structure their programs accordingly.

Second, if specific lifestyle choices associated with a higher level of rape myth acceptance can be identified, perhaps those lifestyle choices can be addressed and potentially altered by a rape prevention program that discusses them. For example, one rape myth is that women who drink alcohol are more sexually available (Reddington & Wright, 2005). Consumption of alcohol is a lifestyle choice. Individuals should not assume that women who drink are more likely to engage in sexual activities. If the students in the sample believe this myth, they may be more likely to excuse or tolerate similar behaviors. However, if a rape prevention program can dispel this myth, along with other potentially dangerous lifestyle choices, then sexual assault may be prevented.

Third, this research might uncover a specific factor that rape prevention programs on college campuses do not address. Based on the statistics, both college men and women are vulnerable and can become victims and perpetrators of sexual violence during their college

careers (UCR, 2009). These findings might be used to enhance existing programs and services that are available for college students.

Statistics indicate that universities with a student population of 10,000 could experience more than 350 rapes per year (Fisher et al., 2000; Karjane, Fisher, & Cullen, 2005). The university in this study has over 10,000 students. Thus, there could be at least that many rapes during a given year. These statistics suggest that universities should continue to improve and enhance rape prevention for students.

The National Institute of Justice conducted a study in 1999 to determine how colleges and universities handle sexual assault on their respective campuses. The study collected data from a random sample of colleges and universities in the United States and Puerto Rico that received student financial aid from the Federal Government. This federal assistance required them to comply with the Clery Act (20 U.S.C. § 1092(f)) (Karjane et al., 2005; SOC, 2008). The researchers applied three methods to assess how schools were adhering to the Act's regulations: 1.) a content analysis of the written sexual assault policies; 2.) a survey of campus administrators; and 3.) on site examinations of 8 schools found to use promising practices based on certain criteria to address sexual assault on campus (Karjane et al., 2005).

The study found that there was confusion about what the Clery Act actually requires of participating schools. As a result, the researchers suggested the development of a policy that includes a clear and distinct definition of sexual offenses, improved strategies to encourage reporting incidents, and continued research on issues involving "perpetration of stranger rape myths, the relationship of the victim and the assailant, use of alcohol, and other contributory factors" (Karjane et al., 2005, p. 11). This study indicates that the Federal Government is

concerned with the way that colleges and universities are handling rape prevention. The current study attempts to expand knowledge on a specific area of rape mythology.

The focus of this study will be limited to heterosexual rape with female victims. The narrow focus allows for more specific findings related to this type of crime on campuses. It is recognized that there are different types of rape with male and female victims and perpetrators. Existing rape prevention programs on college campuses can and do focus on a broad range of characteristics in regard to the crime of rape, its victims, and the perpetrators.

As previously noted, this study attempts to identify factors that influence the level of college students' rape myth acceptance. The variables of interest include: gender, race, year in school, major, living arrangements, political affiliation, type of sports team membership, Greek membership, patriarchal attitudes, lifestyle choices, and prior victimization. Based on the published literature, these factors have been found to influence rape myth acceptance. Other variables are included that the author believes may have a possible influence as well. The independent variables were measured by a series of demographic questions, lifestyle questions, the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale (Grasmick, Hagan, Blackwell, & Arnekler., 1996), and the Dating Behavior Scale (Hanson & Gidycz, 1993). The Dating Behavior Scale consists of 15 items that assess the frequency with which participants engage in certain dating behaviors, such as drug and alcohol consumption (Breitenbecher, 2008, p. 1099). The Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale that was used to measure patriarchal beliefs, and it consists of nine items (Grasmick et al., 1996).

The dependent variable, students' level of rape myth acceptance, was measured using the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale developed by Payne, Lonsway, and Fitzgerald in 1994. This scale includes 45 items measuring students' level of agreement with different situations

related to rape and sexual victimization. Based on the results, the researcher will recommend policies and programs for the development or improvement of current rape prevention and awareness strategies on this college campus.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Rape is a serious crime that impacts society in many ways. It is a traumatic event that can have immediate and long term effects on victims. Certain populations, (e.g., college students), may be especially vulnerable. It is useful to discuss the official definition and incidence of rape reported in 2009. The purpose of this study is to determine which factors have the most influence on rape myth acceptance in a sample of college students.

Definition and Incidence

The Federal Bureau of Investigation (F.B.I.) defines rape as "the carnal knowledge of a female forcibly and against her will. Attempts or assaults to commit rape by force or threat of force are also included; however, statutory rape (without force) and other sex offenses are excluded," (*UCR*, 2009, p.1). According to the *UCR*, in 2009, there were 56.6 reports of forcible rapes per 100,000 women in the United States. This rate decreased by 3.4 percent from 2008 (*UCR*, 2009). However, rape and sexual assault continue to be prevalent in our society. For example, the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) found that there were 125,910 rape/sexual assaults (rate of .5 per 100,000) reported in 2009 (NCVS, 2009). This was a 38.7% decrease from 2008, when 203,830 rape/sexual assaults were reported (NCVS, 2009). Other research has suggested that the rate for sexual assault in the United States can range from 5% to 22% of the general female population (Fisher et al., 2000; Kilpatrick, Best, Veronen, Amick, Villeponteaux, & Ruff, 1985; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewksi, 1987; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Russell, 1984; Sorenson et al., 1987; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998; 2006).

Additionally, the F.B.I. reported that in 2009, the rate of rape in Pennsylvania was 29.0 per 100,000 women. The university where this study was conducted reported 7 forcible sexual

offenses on campus and 3 forcible sexual offenses in the residence halls in 2009 (IUP, 2010). These data indicate how difficult it is to identify accurately the percent of the population that has experienced some type of sexual victimization, because many victims do not report their victimization.

Motivation

Felson and Krohn (1990) utilized a sample from the National Crime Survey. The survey included 1,216 respondents who reported being the victim of a rape or attempted rape during the years 1973-1982. From this sample, Felson and Krohn (1990) developed two models that explain motivations for rape. The first is a socio-sexual model. The term "socio-sexual" suggests that sexual behavior is socially motivated rather than the result of uncontrollable urges (Felson & Krohn, 1990, p. 223). The second model is the punishment model. It views rape as a method of harming the victim (Felson & Krohn, 1990).

The results of their study indicated more support for the socio-sexual model. First, rape victims tended to be younger. Second, there was a positive relationship between the age of the offender and the age of the victim (Felson & Krohn, 1990). This relationship is present in consensual relationships as well; men tend to choose partners who are their own age or younger (Felson & Krohn, 1990). The authors also found some support for the punishment model as well. First, offenders with lethal weapons were more likely to injure the victim. Second, men used rape as a way to punish women with whom they had previously been involved (Felson & Krohn, 1990). Both models can provide an explanation for the motives of rape.

Under-Reporting

As noted, rape is extremely underreported (Holmes & Holmes, 2009); and fewer than 5% of completed and attempted rapes are known (i.e., reported) to law enforcement (Fisher et al.,

2000). Women may not report their victimization for many reasons. For example, women might believe that they are to blame for the incident (Yescavage, 1999), or they do not label their victimization as a rape (Bondurant, 2001; Flack, Daubman, Caron, Asadorian, D'Aureli, Gigliotti, Hall, Kiser, & Stine, 2007). Women also may think that authorities will not believe them or think it is their fault (Bondurant, 2001; Flack et al., 2007; Yescavage, 1999).

As a result, the official statistics indicate lower rates of rape and sexual assault than the actual number of rapes committed. Programs and policies designed to inform both men and women about the legal definition of rape may help them label the incident as rape and report their victimization to authorities. The majority of the research included in this literature review has been collected through self-report surveys on victimization. Self-report surveys attempt to capture incidents of victimization that may not have been reported to authorities and included in official statistics.

For a woman to report her victimization, she must first acknowledge that she has been raped. There are many factors that can lead to this recognition. For example, there are individual, situational, and societal factors that can influence a victim's acknowledgment of rape (Bondurant, 2001). Individual factors may include attitudes, beliefs, personality characteristics, and cognitive processes (Bondurant, 2001). Rape acknowledgement may be prevented by self blame of the victim, internalization of blitz rape scripts, and romantic beliefs (Bondurant, 2001). Blitz rape refers to rape by a stranger, and it is infrequent when compared to acquaintance rape (Bondurant, 2001).

Situational factors that influence a woman being able to admit that she was the victim of rape are linked to relational factors. Relational factors include the relationship between the victim and perpetrator or the amount of force used to resist an attack by a victim (Bondurant,

2001; Kahn, Jackson, Kully, Badger, & Halvorsen, 2003; Yescavage, 1999). A victim may not acknowledge the rape if she had a prior relationship with the perpetrator. Similarly, a woman who has reported experiencing an act that would meet the legal definition of rape does not perceive herself as a victim (Littleton & Henderson, 2009). She may think that no one would believe that she was victimized. Or, a victim may only recognize the rape if force or resistance was used to attempt to prevent the victimization.

Finally, the social networks of peers and family can influence a woman to recognize her victimization (Bondurant, 2001). If a victim has sexually aggressive male peers, then she will be less likely to label her assault as rape. This might increase the victim's tolerance of violence; and it affects her ability to label her victimization (Bondurant, 2001). However, if the victim does not view herself as a victim of rape, she will be less likely to report the incident to authorities and receive the appropriate services to deal with the victimization.

Littleton and Henderson (2009) suggest that unacknowledged sexual assault can be a traumatizing experience. They argue that just because a victim is unwilling to view the incident as an assault does not mean that she is unaffected by the experience. Littleton and Henderson (2009) conducted a study in the fall of 2006, and spring of 2007, that examined whether a victim's labeling the victimization as rape predicted posttraumatic stress disorder, or PTSD. The study consisted of 1,744 women from three southern universities, 61% who were labeled as unacknowledged rape victims (Littleton & Henderson, 2009). Consistent with past research, the majority of the victims knew their assailant (Littleton & Henderson, 2009). The study found that 30% of the women who did not recognize their victimization reported symptoms that would meet the criteria for a diagnosis of PTSD (Littleton & Henderson, 2009). However, the symptoms were not as severe as those found in victims who accepted their victimization (Littleton &

Henderson, 2009). Even though unacknowledged victims did not report as severe symptoms as those who recognize their victimization, there are repercussions for both categories of victims.

Littleton and Henderson (2009) reported that the majority of the victims in their sample knew the perpetrator. However, a common misconception about rape is that the perpetrator is usually a stranger to the victim. As previously discussed, this is known as the "blitz rape," (Bondurant, 2001; Kahn et al., 2003). Tjaden and Thoennes (2006) studied a nationally representative sample by using a telephone survey of 8,000 women and 8,000 men to investigate their experiences with rape, physical assault, and stalking. They found that 76% of rapes are committed by a current or former intimate partner, and 17% were by an acquaintance of the victim (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2006). Acquaintance rapes are usually committed for different reasons than stranger rapes because there is a relationship between the victim and perpetrator (Pazzani, 2007; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2006). This reality can also lead to fewer reports of the victimization because the victim may not want to subject an acquaintance to legal action or fear that the police will not believe her.

If victims do not report their victimization to law enforcement or friends/family, there is a possibility that they will not receive the help and care that are needed after such an incident. Researchers found that one fourth of women who have been raped continue to experience negative effects for several years after the victimization (Burnam, Stein, Golding, Siegel, Sorenson, Forsythe, & Telles, 1988; Gidycz, Orchowski, King, & Rich, 2008; Hanson, 1990; Kilpatrick et al., 1985; Littleton & Henderson, 2009). Negative effects can include psychiatric diagnoses, depression, alcohol abuse and dependence, drug abuse and dependence, generalized anxiety, obsessive-compulsive disorder, and posttraumatic stress disorder (Burnam et al., 1988; Kilpatrick et al., 1985; Littleton & Henderson, 2009).

In a study of 540 undergraduate women at a medium sized Midwestern university during the course of an academic year, Gidycz et al. (2008) found that there is a significant relationship between health-risk behaviors such as substance use and psychological distress and history of sexual victimization. Specifically, women who reported a history of sexual victimization were more likely than women who did not indicate a history of victimization to report smoking cigarettes, smoking marijuana, engaging in sexual intercourse at or before the age of 15, having multiple sexual partners, and seriously contemplating committing suicide (Gidycz et al., 2008, p. 757-758).

As previously mentioned, rape is a crime that is difficult to measure. The *Uniform Crime Reports* (UCR) and National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) are two data sources that help to illustrate the prevalence of rape in society. The *UCR* is a compilation of crimes reported to law enforcement authorities. The NCVS is a nationwide, household-based crime victimization survey (NACJD, 2011; Koss, 1993). There are criticisms of both of these measures of rape. For example, NCVS researchers can only collect data from an individual who agrees to participate in the survey. If a rape victim has not told her family about the incident, the interviewee may not be able to respond to questions relating to sexual victimization. Therefore, the rape would not be included in the statistics. For the *UCR*, only crimes reported to the police are included. One of the main reasons why rape is underreported in the *UCR* is because most victims do not report their victimization. As a result, rape continues to be part of the dark figure of crime.

Rape on College Campuses

As noted earlier, the *UCR* data indicate that the overall rate of rape is 56.6 per 100,000 in the United States (2009). College women can experience victimization at a rate three times greater than women in the general population (Burgess, 2007; Koss & Gidycz, 1985; Parrot et

al., 1994); and young women (ages 18-24 years old) are more susceptible to being victimized. Women in this age range experience sexual victimization at a rate four times higher than women in any other age group (DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 1998; Franklin, 2010; Koss, 1988; Parrot et al, 1994). This vulnerability range typically coincides with the ages of female college students.

The landmark study conducted by Koss et al. (1987) explored the prevalence of sexual assault among college students. The study included a sample of 6,159 students from 32 higher educational institutions across the United States. The authors found that since the age of 14, 27.5% of college women reported experiencing, and 7.7% of college men reported perpetrating an act that met the legal definition of rape (Koss et al., 1987). These results suggest that men are less likely to admit to or label their actions as rape compared to women, and that a higher percentage of college women experience some type of sexual victimization during their college career (Koss et al., 1987).

Research on Rape on College Campuses

Several studies examining rape on college campuses found that college women can be more vulnerable to victimization than women in the general population (Gross, Winslett, Roberts, & Gohm, 2006; Fisher et al., 2000; Koss et al., 1987; White & Smith, 2009). A summary of some of the studies on rape on college campuses is presented in Table 1.

Table 1:

Summary table of studies on rape on college campuses

Year	Author	Sample	Method	Results
1987	Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski	6,159 male and female undergraduate students	Self-report questionnaire	Since age of 14, 27.5% women experienced sexual victimization 7.7% men admitted committing an act that would meet the definition of rape
2009	White & Smith	851 male undergraduate students	Self-report survey	49% of the respondents reported at least one incident of physical or sexual aggression during their four years of college. Two peaks of violence from the sample.
2005	Buddie & Testa	1,014 female undergraduate students	Longitudinal study/ Computer-administered questionnaire & face-to-face interviews	Women in college and not in college experienced sexual victimization at same rate. Women living away from their parents reported significantly higher rates of sexual victimization whether they were in college or not.
2006	Armstrong, Hamilton, & Sweeney	87 male and female undergraduate students	Group and individual interviews, ethnographic observation and publicly available information	Most students agreed that one is supposed to party in college, increase chance of "party rape"
2002	Wilson, Calhoun, & McNair	186 male undergraduate students	Self-report survey	16% of men reported engaging in some form of sexually coercive behavior
1996	Schwartz & Nogrady	296 male undergraduate students 22% of sample in fraternity	Self-report survey	Most powerful predictor is if a man's friends engage in sexually aggressive behaviors and how much alcohol he drinks
2007	Burgess	368 male undergraduate students	Self-report survey	Alcohol use, sexual expectation, regularity at drinking parties, and sorority living, contribute to increase in risk factors for sexual assault among college students

For example, one national survey reported that during a women's college career, it is estimated that anywhere from 1/4 to 1/5 of women can experience an attempted or completed rape (Brener, McMahon, Warren, & Douglas, 1999; Fisher et al., 2000). Another study of 935 undergraduate female college students at a state university in the southeastern United States found that 27% of the respondents reported experiencing some type of unwanted sexual contact since enrolling in college (Gross et al., 2006). Fisher et al. (2000) also found a victimization rate of 27.7 per 1,000 female students in a sample of 4,446 students. These data suggest that college campuses are a prime location for sexual victimization (Currier & Carlson, 2009; Fisher, Daigle, & Cullen, 2010; Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001; Meadows, 2007). It is also an appropriate place to concentrate on prevention strategies.

An explanation for the high rate of sexual victimization of women on college campuses may be linked to the lack of understanding among students about what meets the legal definition of rape. For example, a study found that one in twelve college age men admitted having committed an act that would meet the legal definition of rape; and of those, 84% did not consider their actions to be illegal (Koss et al., 1987). The reasons for this finding were not discussed, but it is possible that the perpetrators did not label their actions as sexual assault or rape prior to, during or after committing the act.

White and Smith (2009) conducted a longitudinal study (over a four year span) of 851 undergraduate men at a university they believed to be representative of the typical state college that 80% of U.S. college students attend (p. 28). The study examined men's use of physical force and sexual aggression from adolescence through four years of college. White and Smith (2009) found that 49% of the respondents reported at least one incident of physical or sexual aggression

during their four years in college. The authors found two peaks of violence from the sample. The first was in adolescence, and the other was the second year of college (White & Smith, 2009).

The majority of the research suggests that college women are more vulnerable than women in the same age range who are not in college (BJS, 1998; Buddie & Testa, 2005; Burgess, 2007; Fisher et al., 2000; Karjane et al., 2005; Parrot et al., 1994). Buddie and Testa (2005) examined whether female college students experienced sexual victimization at a higher rate than women who were the same age but not in college. The study consisted of 1,014 women living in Buffalo, New York between May 2000 and April 2002. The authors found that women in college did not experience sexual victimization at different rates than women not enrolled in college (Buddie & Testa, 2005). This study's findings contradict most research. However, the study revealed that women living away from their parents reported significantly higher rates of sexual victimization than women who lived at home with their parents.

Even though the study did not find a difference between women of the same age enrolled in college versus women who were not in college, the statistics suggest that women living away from their parents were at a greater risk of victimization. These findings support the importance of studying college students because the majority of students live on campus or on their own, increasing the possibility of victimization. As a result, the current study examines whether students living on or off campus exhibit higher levels of rape myth acceptance compared to students who commute to campus but continue to live at home.

College Environment

The college environment provides opportunities that other environments cannot. The college lifestyle may involve frequent parties and drinking; and it can be considered what Sanday (1996) characterized as a "rape prone" society (p.193). Sanday (1996) defined a rape prone

society as “one in which the incidence of rape is reported by observers to be high, or rape is excused as a ceremonial expression of masculinity, or rape is an act by which men are allowed to punish or threaten women” (p. 193). Sanday (1996) argued that rape prone attitudes and behaviors on American campuses are adopted by insecure men who bond through homophobia and “having sex.”

These types of activities usually occur on college campuses at house parties or bars. In a study of 87 students from a large Midwestern university during the 2004-2005 academic year, Armstrong, Hamilton, and Sweeney (2006) found that most college students agreed that one was “supposed” to party in college (p. 487). It is possible that attending parties and putting oneself in potentially dangerous situations can increase the risk of victimization.

As a result of engaging in the college lifestyle, men can have sexualized views of their relationships with women. They can often misinterpret friendliness as sexual interest while interacting with women at parties and bars. This occurs when the men are motivated by their own arousal and only pay attention to the encouraging cues, instead of the negative ones (Wilson, Calhoun, & McNair, 2002). Misinterpretation of cues from women and the influence of alcohol and/or drugs can lead to sexual assault because of lack of communication. It is possible that men misread friendly cues from women as sexual interest when women may not intend to express that type of signal to men. Even if they do, it does not mean that women are willing to engage in sexual intercourse with men.

Specifically, Wilson et al. (2002) examined sexually coercive men in a sample of 186 heterosexual male undergraduates from a large southern university. In that study, 16% of men reported engaging in some form of sexually coercive behavior. This behavior ranged from verbally forced sex play to forced intercourse (Wilson et al., 2002, p. 1151). The authors divided

the sample into two groups (coercive men vs. noncoercive men). The coercive men reported drinking significantly more drinks per week compared to the noncoercive male group (Wilson et al., 2002). It is possible that consuming more alcohol regularly can lead to expectancies that can turn violent when there is confusion about appropriate behavior.

Peer groups can contribute to the potentially rape prone society. These groups can provide emotional support, motivation, and guidance concerning women and college (Schwartz & Nogrady, 1996). A study of 296 male students from a Midwestern state university found that the most powerful predictor of a man's likelihood of becoming a perpetrator is whether he has friends who engage in sexually aggressive behavior and how much alcohol he consumes when he drinks (Schwartz & Nogrady, 1996). The findings from Schwartz and Nogrady (1996) support the research on fraternities and athletic teams in attempting to prevent sexual victimization of women on college campuses. However, the results from other studies have been mixed on whether it is productive to focus solely on these male populations (Foubert & Perry, 2007; Koss & Cleveland, 1996; Martin & Hummer, 1989). The current study attempts to identify if type of group membership can influence one's rape myth acceptance.

Alcohol

Along with peer groups, alcohol plays a critical role in incidences of sexual victimizations. Specifically, alcohol has been found to be present in one third of reported rapes (Ullman, Karbatsos, & Koss, 1999). Often, college students consume alcohol in social settings. Many students even believe that partying is a way to experience college life (Armstrong et al., 2006). Due to this perception, alcohol consumption can be a frequent experience for most college students. Koss et al. (1987) found in a study of 6,159 students from 32 institutions across the United States that 74% of perpetrators and 55% of victims of rape had been drinking prior to

the incident. Women may be victimized by assault because their ability to cognitively process the situation is impaired due to alcohol consumption (Fisher et al., 2008). Alcohol use also may explain why women do not report their victimization; they are too ashamed or feel responsible because they were intoxicated or drinking when the incident happened.

Supporting the research on alcohol and rape, Burgess (2007) found that alcohol use, sexual expectation, regularity of drinking parties, and dormitory living contributed to an increase in risk factors for sexual assault between college students in a sample of 368 male college students from a medium-sized southeastern state university. These findings might be due to a couple of reasons. Men can view women who consume alcohol as more vulnerable targets and, therefore, more sexually available (Fisher et al., 2008). Also, men can misunderstand women's friendliness toward them as sexual interest (Wilson et al., 2002).

Jeanne Clery Act

In order to help decrease sexual victimization rates on college campuses, Congress enacted the *Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Campus Crime Statistic Act* in 1990 (SOC, 2008). The Act requires colleges and universities to disclose statistics involving crimes on campus and security policies to the public in a timely manner. Any university or college receiving federal aid must abide by this Act or be fined for failure to comply (Sloan & Fisher, 2011; SOC, 2008). This Act is intended to augment public awareness of crimes, especially sexual assault and rape, by required reporting of its incidence on specific campuses. As a result, colleges and universities have experienced pressure from the public; and it the institution's responsibility to protect students who are enrolled and to offer prevention programs (Sloan & Fisher, 2011).

Most prevention programs are offered or required prior to or during the first year of college. However, the number of years a student is removed from a prevention program could influence his/her level of rape myth acceptance. The current study investigated if a specific number of years in school relates to a higher level of rape myth acceptance and victimization among the sample.

Overall, rape on college campuses appears to occur frequently and it is prevalent. Even though campus crime has been a part of the college environment since the beginning of higher education, the public and government officials did not label it as a "social problem" until the late 1980s (Sloan & Fisher, 2011). Therefore, most universities and colleges in the United States have designed and implemented rape prevention programs to address the problem of sexual victimization on campuses.

Rape Myths

Individuals who support or engage in sexually aggressive behavior toward women may be more likely to believe in rape myths. Rape myths are defined as prejudicial, stereotyped, or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists (Burt, 1980). Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994) expanded the definition to "attitudes and beliefs that are generally false but are widely and persistently held and that serve to deny and justify male sexual aggression against women" (p.134). The literature suggests that various factors can play a critical role in the level of rape myth acceptance. This study examined which factors have the most influence on rape myth acceptance based on the literature.

Rape myths reject the victim's injury (Carmody & Washington, 2001) and they help excuse the perpetrator's actions by assigning blame to the victim (Boeringer, 1996; 1999). The attitudes and beliefs associated with rape myth acceptance are likely to affect perpetration and

the victim's responses to victimization (Flood & Pease, 2009; Lanier, 2001). Rape myths can be related to negative beliefs about victims of sexual violence as well (Currier & Carlson, 2009). One rape myth contends that women who are dressed provocatively are asking to be raped (Reddington, Kreisel, & Wright, 2005).

It has been suggested that changing or dispelling rape myths may lead to individuals being less likely to engage in or accept sexually aggressive behavior toward women (Lanier, 2001; O'Donohue, Yeater, & Fanetti, 2003). As a result, prevention strategies have included dispelling beliefs related to rape and situations surrounding rape. A summary of studies on rape myths is presented in Table 2.

Table 2:

Summary table of studies on rape myths

Year	Authors	Sample	Method	Results
2004	Frese, Moya & Megias	182 male and female undergraduate students (Spain)	Self-report survey	Strong support that RMA and rape perceptions significantly impact how individuals judge victim responsibility
2005	Loh, Gidycz, Lobo, & Luthra	325 male undergraduate students	Self-report survey	Men who accept RMA are more likely to be tolerant of rape or become a perpetrator
2008	Gover, Kaukinen, & Fox	2,542 male and female undergraduate students	Self-report survey	College men are more likely to engage in higher levels of sexual risk taking behaviors
2001	Morry & Winkler	154 male and female undergraduate students	Self-report survey	The higher level of RMA, the more likely the participant would indicate that sexual assault was accepted or expected in different situations
2010	Yeater, Treat, Viken, & McFall	194 female undergraduate students	Vignettes	Female students with higher RMA relied less on victimization risk information than women with lower RMA

Research on Rape Myths

Generally, the more stereotypical ideas an individual possesses about rape, the less likely s/he will interpret forced sexual intercourse as rape (Frese, Moya, & Megias, 2004). Frese et al. (2004) attempted to identify the relationship between rape myth acceptance and different perceptions of rape situations. The study consisted of 182 undergraduate students from the University of Granada in Spain. The results indicated strong support for the argument that one's rape myth acceptance and rape perceptions significantly impact how individuals judge victim responsibility and the intensity of trauma as a result of a victimization (Frese et al., 2004). Specifically, the authors found that individuals with a higher level of rape myth acceptance attributed more responsibility to the victim, estimated fewer traumas, and would be less likely to recommend that the victim report the victimization to the police (Frese et al., 2004, p. 154).

Individuals who endorse or exhibit sexually aggressive behavior are more likely to be less empathic and supportive of victims and place blame on the victim for the incident (Flood & Pease, 2009). As a result, victims are less likely to report their victimization because they are embarrassed, blame themselves, or have no support system to assist them if they report their victimization (Flood & Pease, 2009). By attempting to dispel rape myths and associated attitudes and beliefs, individuals may be more empathetic toward victims; and more victims may be likely to report their victimization to law enforcement or to agencies where support services are provided. This would enable victims to receive help to cope with their victimization, for perpetrators to be apprehended for their actions, and for more prevention programs to be initiated.

In a study of 325 undergraduate men from a large Midwestern university during the fall of 2000 and spring of 2001, Loh, Gidycz, Lobo, & Luthra (2005) discovered that men who

accept stereotypical rape myths are more likely to be tolerant of rape or become a perpetrator than those who do not adhere to such beliefs. Additionally, Gover, Kaukinen, & Fox (2008) surveyed 2,541 students from two large southeastern universities during the months of August through December of 2005. They found that college men are more likely to engage in higher levels of sexual risk taking behaviors by having a greater number of sexual partners compared to women. Both studies contribute to the literature that shows a relationship between rape myth acceptance and engaging in sexually aggressive behaviors.

The level of rape myth acceptance can also influence individuals' perceptions about sexual victimization. For example, in a study of 154 undergraduate students, Morry and Winkler (2001) found that the higher the level of rape myth acceptance, the more likely the participant would indicate that sexual assault was accepted or expected in many situations. Another study of 194 undergraduate women from a medium sized southwestern university found that female students with higher rape myth acceptance relied less on victimization risk information than women with lower rape myth acceptance when making decisions about potentially dangerous behaviors (Yeater et al., 2010). These are important factors to consider when addressing rape myth acceptance among both men and women. The results indicate that the level of rape myth acceptance can influence one's interpretation of sexual victimization and risk perception in different situations.

Summary of Meta-Analysis Research on Rape Myths

Suarez and Gadalla (2010) suggested that there is little known about rape myth acceptance and demographic, sociocultural, and behavior determinants. Anderson et al., (1997) conducted a meta-analysis examining overall attitudes toward rape in the 1990s. They found that men, age, i.e., older people, traditional gender role beliefs, adversarial sexual beliefs,

conservative political beliefs, and aggressiveness were predictors of rape acceptance. Suarez and Gadalla (2010) subsequently conducted another meta-analysis which highlighted the factors and individual characteristics and beliefs that were related to rape myth acceptance. Their research found that the average rate of rape victimization was 33% of respondents in the studies included in the meta-analysis (Suarez & Gadalla, 2010, p. 2026). These results can inform rape prevention programs and interventions used with rape victims (Suarez & Gadalla, 2010).

Suarez and Gadalla's (2010) study utilized a meta-analysis that included 37 studies, 25 articles, and 12 dissertations. They found that men displayed a significantly higher acceptance of rape myths when compared to women. This is consistent with previous studies. Suarez and Gadalla (2010) reported a strong positive association between rape myth acceptance, sexual aggression, and other hostile attitudes and/or aggressive behaviors toward women.

Identification of factors that have the most influence on rape myths could lead to prevention and awareness programs to address rape in the college student population. These factors include demographic factors (e.g., gender, race, political affiliation, living arrangements at school, year in school, and lifestyle choices), patriarchal attitudes, membership affiliation, and prior victimization. The following section discusses the literature on these factors.

Factors that Influence Rape Myth Acceptance

Various factors can influence the level of rape myth acceptance. It is important to examine an individual's perceptions and attitudes toward rape, rape victims, and rapists to explore which factors can affect negative attitudes (Yamawaki, 2007). The risk factors for sexual assault focus on three general areas. They include the characteristics of the victim, characteristics of the perpetrator, and situational characteristics (Loh et. al., 2005). These factors include differences in socialization experiences, beliefs, and attitudes about sexuality,

personality, and alcohol use. For instance, Loh et al., (2005) differentiate men who are sexually aggressive from those who are not. They found that certain attitudes and perceptions can be related to the level of rape myth acceptance and propensity to commit a sexual assault (Loh et al., 2005). A summary of studies on factors that influence rape myth acceptance is presented in Table 3.

Table 3:

Summary Table of studies on factors that influence rape myth acceptance

Year	Author	Sample	Method	Results
2005	Nagel, Matsuo, McIntyre, & Morrison	220 individuals	Mailed survey	Demographic information, all statistically significant
2007	Pazzani	8,000 women 8,000 men	Secondary data analysis	Income, age, and race significant relationship with likelihood of experiencing a sexual assault
2009	Cross, Zimmerman, & O'Grady	440 male and female undergraduate students	Self-report survey	Students who live in the suite halls are more likely to have higher odds of drinking more frequently, heavy drinking, and drinking more alcohol when they socialized
2007	Yamawaki	126 male and female undergraduate students	Rape scenarios and complete questionnaire	Hostile and benevolent sexism were positively correlated, hostile sexism minimizes rape incidents
2004	Forbes, Adams-Curtis, & White	348 male and female undergraduate students	Self-report survey	Significant relationship with all attitude measures except hostility toward women. Significant relationship between RMA and gender role socialization
1999	Boeringer	477 male undergraduate students	Self-report survey	Fraternity members were more likely to support RMA and athletes agreed with almost all RMA
2002	Brown, Sumner, & Nocera	139 male undergraduate students	5 questionnaires	Found support for prevention programs to sensitize fraternity members and athletes to aggression and violence against women
2005	Locke &	254 male undergraduate	Web-based survey	Strongest link to men's sexual violence and acceptance of RMA was related to

	Mahalik	students		masculinity norms
2000	Humphrey & Kahn	183 male undergraduate students	Self-report survey	Members in the high-risk groups reported committing significant more sexual aggression compared to low risk group
2008	Gage	148 male undergraduate students	Self-report survey of contact and no-contact athletes	Type of sport has an impact on the outcomes of conformity to traditional masculinity norms, rates of sexual aggression, and increased sexual behavior
2009	Chevalier Minow & Einolf	779 female undergraduate students, 438 sorority members/341 non-sorority members	Self-report survey	Alcohol consumption, sorority membership, and attendance at co-ed Greek events all increased female college student's risk of sexual assault
2007	Davis, Combs-Lane, & Jackson	310 female undergraduate students from 4 sororities	Self-report survey	Those who reported a victimization by a friend or acquaintance, and had multiple sexual partners were more likely to engage in risky behaviors
2010	Katz, May, Sorensen, DelTosta	93 female undergraduate students	Self-report survey	46% of respondents who reported an incident of prior victimization also reported another victimization
2001	Gidycz, Layman, Rich, Crothers, Gylys, Matorin, & Jacobs	1,136 male and female undergraduate students	Self-report survey after a prevention program	Strong relationship between past perpetration and repeat perpetration for men
1987	Belknap	762 women who reported rape and 2,523 women not victims	Secondary data analysis of National Crime Survey (1973-1982)	Overall strong support for routine activities theory and rape victimization
2002	Mustaine & Tewksbury	1,196 male and female undergraduate students	Self-report survey	Guardianship component did not influence a woman's attractiveness as a sexual assault target
2003	Tewksbury & Mustaine	1,513 male and female undergraduate	Self-report survey	College students are less likely to use self-protection methods when engaging in activities such as alcohol and drug

		students		consumption
2002	Combs-Lane & Smith	190 female undergraduate students	Self-report survey	26% reported a history of some type of sexual victimization and also engaged in alcohol use and risk-taking behaviors

Research has suggested that hyper-masculine attitudes can be encouraged by fraternities or other peer groups characterized by competition, athleticism, heavy drinking, sexual domination of women, and sexism among members (Boeringer, 1999; Martin & Hummer, 1989; Schwartz & DeKeserdy, 1997). All of these behaviors can occur on college campuses. Sexual aggression can be influenced by a hierarchy of social forces including societal-level support (cultural values, sexual scripts), institutional influences (peer groups, schools, religious institutions), interpersonal context (relationship characteristics, victim characteristics, miscommunication, the situation surrounding the social interaction), and the characteristics of the individual man (attitudes, personality traits, gender schema, attraction to sexual aggression, sex/power motives) (Koss & Gaines, 1993). It is important to consider these variables and to ascertain which is the most influential.

Demographic Factors

Demographic factors such as race and gender have been found to influence the level of rape myth acceptance (Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). Other important factors such as choice of major, year in school, living arrangements, and political affiliations could affect rape myth acceptance as well, especially among college students. Each of these variables could impact the level of rape myth acceptance in different ways. Specifically, prior research has found that African Americans, men, seniors, students living off campus, and conservative respondents would be associated with a higher level of rape myth acceptance (Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). This study attempts to explore if these relationships are found in the current sample.

Nagel, Matsuo, McIntyre, & Morrison (2005) conducted a study involving 220 individuals from the St. Louis, Missouri area regarding attitudes toward rape victims using the 1993 Missouri State Census Data Center. The results indicated that the demographic factors, age, sex, and race, were all influential factors. Specifically, older individuals, men, and African Americans were more likely to be less sympathetic than younger, women, and White respondents in this study (Nagel et al., 2005).

Most studies report that sexual victimization is more common for younger women (Currier & Carlson, 2009; DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 1998; Koss, 1988; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Parrot et al., 1994). Pazzani (2007) conducted a secondary data analysis of the Violence and Threats of Violence Against Women and Men in the United States, the 1994-1996 survey. The study included 8,000 women and 8,000 men. Pazzani (2007) found that income, age, and race had a significant relationship to the likelihood of experiencing a sexual assault. Specifically, higher income, Hispanic women, and older women are less likely to be sexually assaulted than are other women (Pazzani, 2007). Factors linked to sexual victimization may also influence sample respondents' rape myth acceptance.

Gender.

Gender can affect one's level of rape myth acceptance for multiple reasons. Research demonstrated that men are more likely to accept rape myths and blame the victim than women (Caron & Carter, 1997; Currier & Carlson, 2009; Heppner, Humphrey, & Hillenbrand-Gunn, 1995; Hockett, Saucier, Hoffman, Smith, & Craig, 2009; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010; White & Kurpius, 1999). Specifically, a study involving 197 participants found that men were more likely to believe that women should be able to resist a rape if they tried hard enough; women were responsible for their rape because of the way they dressed or acted; and that those women who

are sexually experienced are not really damaged by rape (White & Kurpius, 1999). Beliefs similar to these can affect one's acceptance and interpretation of rape and rape victims; and they may influence individuals to accept or engage in sexually aggressive behavior more often. As a result, it is critical to examine gender as an influential factor in the level of rape myth acceptance.

Choice of major.

There are not any published peer-reviewed studies that specifically examine the relationship between choice of major and rape myth acceptance. When choice of major has been explored, it is usually because colleges and universities want to determine how to recruit more students into different majors at their respective schools or why students chose a particular major (Beggs, Bantham, & Taylor, 2008; Keshishian, Brocavich, Boone, & Pal, 2010; Pringle, Dubose, & Yankey, 2010). From this perspective, if colleges and universities can determine why students select particular majors, they can advertise more efficiently. For example, Beggs et al. (2008) found that in a sample of 852 undergraduate students from a large public university in the Midwest, the number one predictor of choosing a major was that it matched the student's interests. The least influential predictor was based on an information search the student conducted (Beggs et al., 2008). Because students chose a major based on matched interests, there might be personality or demographic characteristics that could play a role in that decision. Those particular characteristics might be related to factors that could influence their attitudes and beliefs.

For example, Courtright, Mackey, and Packard (2005) conducted a study to determine if empathy levels differed among majors in a sample of 633 students at 5 different colleges and universities. Courtright et al. (2005) found that Criminal Justice majors reported a lower level of

empathy than other students. This particular study illustrates that student's attitudes can vary among majors and could possible influence other attitudes and values. Other studies also suggest that choice of major can impact multiple aspects of an undergraduate student's beliefs and values (Cannon, 2005; Courtright & Mackey, 2004; Gabbidon, Penn, & Winston, 2003; Tsoudis-Olga, 2000). The current study considers choice of major as an important factor that could influence undergraduate students' level of rape myth acceptance.

Living arrangements.

Living arrangements at school can affect students' rape myth acceptance and likelihood of engaging in risky lifestyle choices. For example, in a study of 24,000 students in a public university sample located in the rocky mountain region of the United States, Cross, Zimmerman, and O'Grady (2009) found that the type of residence hall influenced alcohol consumption. The study included ten residence halls with a capacity of 5,000 students. Two surveys were administered during the 2006-2007 and 2007-2008 academic years. The first survey, the Alcohol Norms Survey, was administered during the fall of 2006. A total of 440 students responded to this survey. The second survey, the Resident Assessment Survey, was distributed in the fall of 2006 to 251 respondents; and, in the fall of 2007, to 280 respondents (Cross et al., 2009). The results of the Cross et al. (2009) study found that students who live in the suite halls were more likely to have higher odds of drinking more frequently, drinking more often in residence halls, heavy episodic drinking, and drinking more alcohol when they socialize than students who live in the traditional dorm rooms (p. 597-598). Suite halls have a semi-private bathroom that is shared by two adjoining rooms. A traditional dorm room has a community bathroom with individual rooms, usually for two to three people. The study also found that women who reside in co-ed floors drank more than women who live in all-female floors (Cross et al., 2009). These

findings are relevant when considering rape myth acceptance and sexual victimization because alcohol is present in one third of assaults (Ullman et al., 1999); and it has been determined to be one reason why victims do not report their victimization (Flood & Pease, 2009).

Gender role socialization.

As previously discussed, for rape myths and sexual victimization, it is important to consider gender when attempting to identify variables that most influence an individual's level of rape myth acceptance. Suarez and Gadalla's (2010) meta-analysis on rape myths found that in articles and dissertations published between 1997 and 2007, gender had the strongest relationship with rape myth acceptance. Specifically, men exhibited significantly higher levels of rape myth acceptance than women (Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). Not only does gender play an important role, but also the gender roles or socialization of genders are important to consider when studying rape myth acceptance.

Historically, most studies on rape focused on gender role socialization and its relationship to rape (Burt, 1980; Forbes, Adams-Curtis, & White, 2004). Specifically, men and women develop their gender role behaviors and beliefs through the socialization process (Yamawaki, 2007). Society expects men to be dominant, powerful, and sexually aggressive; but women are viewed as passive, submissive, and sexually reluctant (Burt, 1980; Garrett-Gooding & Senter, 1987; Yamawaki, 2007). Men are usually considered the protector and provider in a relationship, and they may believe that they should receive sex as a reward for playing their role (Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001). Men and women will normally maintain this conformity through positive and negative rewards (LaFree, 1989).

King and Roberts (2011) surveyed 334 undergraduate students and hypothesized that students who supported traditional gender roles would be more likely to accept rape myths than

those who rejected traditional gender roles. They found that traditional gender role acceptance was positively related to rape myth acceptance, and that this variable had the most significant relationship in their model (King & Roberts, 2011, p. 9). The gender of the student was found to be the second most significant variable in their model, with men having a higher level of rape myth acceptance than women (King & Roberts, 2011). Other variables included in their study that did not have a statistically significant relationship included age, educational level, and hometown type which included rural, suburban and urban (King & Roberts, 2011).

It is assumed that gender role socialization could influence an individual's level of rape myth acceptance because most myths are linked to the stereotypical explanation of men and women's behavior. These stereotypical beliefs and attitudes may be related to patriarchal values that have been a product of socialization and such beliefs can influence one's level of rape myth acceptance. Individuals who agree with patriarchal attitudes which suggest that men should be the breadwinner, and women should stay at home and take care of the children may manifest greater rape myth acceptance (Grasmick et al., 1996; Hagan et al., 2002; Kim & Titterington, 2009; McCarthy et al., 1999).

The gender socialization process can lead to hyper-masculinity, male peer support for sexual aggression, development of rape myths, and adversarial sexual beliefs (Carr & VanDeusen, 2004; Stephens & George, 2009). Sexual coercion and sexual aggression may occur within a sexist society that has specific sex role stereotypes and a tradition of using sexual violence to control women (Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001). If a man is socialized in such a society, he may be more likely to have a higher level of rape myth acceptance.

Sexism and patriarchal attitudes.

In relation to gender role socialization, research suggests that male sexism is also linked to greater acceptance of rape myths (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Sexism is conceptualized as "hostility toward women that motivates a spectrum of prejudicial attitudes and behaviors" (Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001, p. 869). There are two different types of sexism. The first is hostile sexism "which justifies patriarchy and men's sexual exploitation of women by demeaning and objectifying women" (Forbes et al., 2004, p. 239). The second type is benevolent sexism "which recognizes traditional women's roles and men's dependency on women" (Forbes et al., 2004, p. 239). Either type of sexism can influence an individual's level of endorsing sexually aggressive behavior toward women.

Hostile sexism may stem from strong patriarchal attitudes and values. An individual who has patriarchal attitudes would believe the "ideal" family is when the father is in command, the breadwinner, and the mother is not (Grasmick et al., 1996). People who agree with patriarchy may be more inclined to blame women for their victimization because they put themselves in a dangerous situation. They could also believe that using aggression and force to make women do what they want is acceptable. The current study explores patriarchal values and level of rape myth acceptance among students.

For example, a study of 126 undergraduate students from a large private university found that hostile and benevolent sexism were positively correlated because they both justify traditional gender roles and power relations (Yamawaki, 2007). Results indicated that hostile sexism minimizes rape incidents because men perceive women as exaggerating problems, being easily offended, and seeking benefits or power by using sexuality (Yamawaki, 2007). This attitude

makes it easier for the perpetrator to transfer the blame to the victim; and, therefore, excuse his actions.

Another study of 348 participants from a small Midwestern university investigated the relationship between attitude measures (i.e., traditional sexism, ambivalent sexism, and hostility toward women), and two types of aggression (Forbes et al., 2004). The two types of aggression were self-reports of aggression in dating relationships and self-reports of experiences with sexual coercion (Forbes et al., 2004). The authors found a significant relationship between genders with all attitude measures, except hostility toward women (Forbes et al., 2004).

Previous research suggests that gender role socialization, which can be the result of patriarchal values, can influence one's attitude toward rape victims and level of rape myth acceptance (Burt, 1980; Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001; Garrett-Gooding & Senter, 1987; Grasmick et al., 1996; Hagan et al., 2004; McCarthy et al., 1999; Tieger, 1981; Yamawaki, 2007). The current research can help guide future research, policies, and programs designed to prevent sexual victimization.

Membership affiliation.

A climate that supports rape may create an environment for individuals with similar ideas and beliefs. This type of environment can be found within certain peer groups or organizations such as fraternities or athletic teams (DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 1998; Sanday, 1996). Sanday (1996) discussed how rape-prone cultures can influence attitudes and opportunities for sexually aggressive behavior. These behaviors can occur in various groups that attract like-minded individuals. Although the research has produced mixed results regarding the relationship between rates of sexually aggressive behavior and fraternities or athletic teams (Boeringer, 1996; 1999; Brown, Sumner, & Nocera, 2002; Garrett-Gooding & Senter, 1987; Humphrey & Kahn,

2000; Jackson et al., 2004; Koss & Gaines, 1993; Locke & Mahalik, 2005; Loh et al., 2005; Schwartz & Nogrady, 1996), it is important to include such groups in prevention strategies that address rape myth acceptance among college students because each type of team/organization can influence group members in different ways. This study attempts to distinguish the difference between sports team and Greek organizations and whether there is a relationship between membership and rape myth acceptance.

According to Forbes and Adams-Curtis (2001), college men who report a history of sexual aggression have more sexual partners, attend more parties, drink more alcohol, and are more likely to be members of the Greek system or athletic teams than people without a similar history. Another study found that fraternity members are more likely to use alcohol before having sexual intercourse (Lanza-Kaduce, Capece, & Alden, 2006). These findings may lend some support to a proposal to provide appropriate prevention programs for male group organizations.

For example, a study of 477 men from a large Division One southeastern university with strong support for athletics and the Greek system found that fraternity members were more likely to support beliefs that women like to be physically roughed up, want to be forced into sex, have secret desires to be raped, and that sexually liberated women are promiscuous (Boeringer, 1999). The same study found that athletes agreed more with almost all rape myth statements and with several of the situations measuring sex role stereotyping and adversarial sexual beliefs (Boeringer, 1999). These findings lend support to the contention that there may be a distinct relationship between rape supportive attitudes and membership in fraternities or athletic organizations (Boeringer, 1999). The attitudes could be related to a strong peer influence to be a teammate or a brother, which characterize hyper-masculine environments (Boeringer, 1999).

This pressure could influence members to participate in certain activities or lifestyle choices that are perceived as "normal" in a particular group or organization.

It is possible that fraternities or athletic teams promote behaviors like toughness, aggressiveness, and dominance (Martin & Hummer, 1989). These could be manifested by sexual aggression toward those perceived to be weaker. In a study of 139 male students from a Midwestern university over the course of an academic year, Brown et al. (2002) found that there was support for the importance of prevention programs to sensitize fraternity members and college athletes to aggression and violence against women.

In addition, a study of 296 students from a Midwestern university found that fraternity members were more likely to believe in rape myths than other men on college campuses (Schwartz & Nogrady, 1996). Fraternity members and athletes have reported use of coercion, drugs, and/or alcohol to facilitate assaults (Boeringer, 1996; Lanza-Kaduce et al., 2006). It has been suggested that the association between group affiliation and sexual aggression may be occurring because of the relationship both variables share with a third variable, drinking intensity (Koss & Gaines, 1993). Since both of these affiliations have been linked to parties and consumption of alcohol, it is possible that the members use alcohol and/or drugs to facilitate sexual assault of women at parties.

A similar study of 254 male college students from universities in the northeastern and mid-Atlantic region investigated how sexually aggressive behavior and endorsement of rape myths can be predicted by masculinity (Locke & Mahalik, 2005). The results indicated that the strongest link to men's sexual violence and acceptance of rape myths was related to masculinity norms about having control over women, and believing that emotional involvement in sexual relationships was inappropriate (Locke & Mahalik, 2005, p. 282). However, the study did not

find a relationship between participation in athletics as a predictor of engaging in sexual aggression or rape myth acceptance (Locke & Mahalik, 2005, p. 282). These data suggest that support for rape myths and sexual aggression in relation to group affiliation of male college students is inconclusive.

Type of fraternity.

The conflicting results concerning fraternities and sexual aggression and athletes and sexual aggression could be related to the fact that not all fraternities and athletic teams provide opportunities that are conducive to sexual assault. Being a member of a high risk group may not be sufficient, in itself, to increase the likelihood of aggressive behaviors, rather members might also have to identify with the group and take on the role of the group (Humphrey & Kahn, 2000). Identification of the type of members of athletic teams and fraternities who may be more likely to support rape myths would be helpful in addressing rape on college campuses. It is not appropriate to categorize all athletic teams and fraternities together when trying to prevent sexual aggression on campuses because different groups can attract different types of men.

For example, there are social, service, and honorary fraternities that would not necessarily have like-minded individuals as members (Gage, 2008). The specific type of fraternity may help to determine how to deal with the organization in a more effective manner. To address this concern, Humphrey and Kahn (2000) conducted a study that had 52 upper-level students who were randomly selected rank the 17 fraternities and 16 sports teams that were available on campus that they believed were at high-risk for sexual assault. The sample consisted of 33 high risk athletes, 22 high risk fraternity members, 49 low risk athletes, 33 low risk fraternity members, and 46 nonmembers (Humphrey & Kahn, 2000).

Once the fraternities and sports teams were divided into a high-risk or low-risk category based on the sample students' opinion, the authors administered surveys to the four highest risk and lowest risk fraternities and sports teams which included items about their sexually aggressive behavior (Humphrey & Kahn, 2000). The authors found that members in the perceived high-risk groups reported engaging in more sexually aggressive behaviors compared to the low-risk groups (Humphrey & Kahn, 2000, p. 1318). The high-risk groups were also found to score higher on marijuana use, drinking frequency, and drinking intensity (Humphrey & Kahn, 2000). These results support the position that focusing on fraternities and athletic teams as a homogenous group may not be as beneficial as identifying which groups are at a higher risk of engaging in sexually aggressive behaviors or beliefs compared to others (Humphrey & Kahn, 2000).

Type of sports team.

Like Greek organizations, athletic teams involve different types of sports: Contact sports and noncontact sports. Contact sports may appeal to those who are more aggressive, and type of sports membership may be related to engaging in sexually aggressive behavior and/or rape myth acceptance. For example, Gage (2008) conducted a study examining the differences between types of sport participation and sexual aggression. The author identified football as a contact sport and tennis and track as noncontact sports. In a study of 148 respondents from a large public university in the Northeast, Gage (2008) attempted to compare athletes' behaviors and attitudes to those of the general population on campus.

The results indicated that the type of sport has an impact on the outcomes of conformity to traditional masculinity norms, rates of sexual aggression, increased sexual behavior, and more negative attitudes toward women (Gage, 2008, p. 1027). Similar to the different types of

fraternities, the type of sport an individual participates in can influence levels of sexual aggression and acceptance of rape myths. This is another important variable in the current study.

Sorority membership.

When examining group membership or affiliation, most research has focused on fraternities and athletic teams and victimization. However, sorority membership is an important variable to consider. Chevalier Minow and Einolf (2009) examined the relationship between sorority membership, sorority participation, and sexual victimization. In a sample of 779 respondents from a large public university, 438 sorority members and 341 nonmembers participated in the survey (Chevalier Minow & Einolf, 2009). The study found that alcohol consumption, sorority membership, and attendance at co-ed Greek social events where alcohol was served all increased female college students' risk of sexual assault (Chevalier Minow & Einolf, 2009, p. 845).

This study identified the different types of fraternities/sororities and athletic teams that are available to college students on one campus. The study then determined if there is a relationship between their participation in a particular group and their level of rape myth acceptance. As a result, the study assessed if group membership is one of the factors that influences rape myth acceptance among student athletes and members of the Greek system.

Prior victimization.

Research on sexual victimization suggests that individuals are more likely to be sexually victimized if they have experienced some type of victimization previously (Baugher, Elhai, Monroe, & Gray, 2010; Gover et al., 2008; Katz, May, Sorenson, & DelTosta, 2010; Pazzani, 2007; White & Smith, 2009). Prior victimization can include both personal and vicarious experiences. Individuals who have been victimized may not report the incident and may be less

likely to receive help (Bondurant, 2001; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2006). Also, people who know someone who have been sexually victimized may hold different beliefs regarding rape. This relationship could vary when compared to someone who has not vicariously experienced sexual victimization. The present study attempts to identify if prior victimization influences college students' level of rape myth acceptance.

The university setting is an ideal place to study the relationship between victimization and rape myth acceptance. When individuals are in college, there is a greater possibility for a number of romantic relationships (Gover et al., 2008). Potentially, this can expose female college students to dating violence. In a study of 2,541 students from two large southeastern universities conducted from August through December of 2005, Gover et al. (2008) found that women reported more physical violence in a relationship and at a higher rate compared to men. This type of violence could affect women's level of rape myth acceptance because they have been exposed to more violence in their past.

Personal experiences with sexual violence are important to study. Individuals who have experienced victimization can be identified as an "at risk" population for future victimization. Prevention programs can address issues that are relevant to those with a history of violent victimization and hopefully lead participants away from situations and decisions that could endanger them. For example, Davis, Combs-Lane, and Jackson (2002) found in a study of 310 undergraduate women from four sororities at a midsized southern public university, that individuals who reported sexual victimization committed by a friend or acquaintance, sexual assault in both childhood and adulthood, and sexual assault by multiple perpetrators were more likely to engage in risky behaviors (p. 624). This suggests that prior victimization may influence

the likelihood of participating in dangerous or risky behaviors, increasing the likelihood of further victimization.

Violence can be learned through a process of exposure and acceptance. It is possible that individuals who are exposed to violence will be more likely to continue the behavior in the future (Mihalic & Elliott, 1997). Observations children make of how their parents behave in intimate relationships can influence their behavior in future relationships because the family can teach approval for the use of violence (Mihalic & Elliott, 1997). Adults may be more likely to turn to violence when they are stressed or not satisfied because they imitate their parent's behavior (Mihalic & Elliott, 1997).

Moreover, aggressive individuals tend to come from aggressive families (Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001; White & Smith, 2009). The previously mentioned Gover at al. study (2008) also found support for the influence of childhood physical violence and witnessing parental violence in subsequent dating relationships. Respondents who witnessed their father hitting their mother were almost twice as likely to perpetrate and experience violence compared to those who did not witness a violent act (Gover et al., 2008).

The previously discussed Pazzani (2007) study also reported that women who had been victims of child abuse or sexual assault were more likely to become victims of an acquaintance rape compared to women who had not experienced similar types of abuse in the past. Schewe, Riger, Howard, Staggs, and Mason (2006) also found that childhood exposure to domestic violence and child abuse are significant risk factors for future sexual assault and domestic violence for women. Those women who have experienced some type of victimization are more at risk to experience re-victimization in their life course. It is advantageous to reach this group

of victims to help protect them in ways that could differ from those who have not been previously victimized.

Humphrey and White (2000) found that female college students who were sexually victimized since the age of 14 were more than four times more likely to experience victimization during college. Katz et al. (2010) also attempted to identify the relationship between prior victimization and risk for later college victimization during the first year of college. The authors hypothesized that prior victimization reported early in the first year of college would predict risk for sexual victimization later that same year. Katz et al. (2010) sampled 93 undergraduate women at a small public college in western New York. They surveyed the respondents at two different time periods; first in October of their first year of college, and then in the following April. The results indicated that 46% of the respondents reported one or more incidents of prior victimization at time one and 31% reported victimization at time 2 (Katz et al., 2010). These findings suggest that prior victimization was a significant predictor of future victimization during the participants' first year of college.

Another study of 1,136 college students from a large university in Ohio found that there was a strong relationship between men's history of perpetration and their likelihood of future perpetration (Gidycz, Layman, Rich, Crothers, Gylys, Matorin, & Jacobs, 2001). Specifically, men who reported a history of being sexually aggressive were approximately three times more likely to commit another sexual assault than those men who did not indicate a perpetration history (Gidycz et al., 2001, p. 1132). Perpetrators may use rape myths to excuse their actions or place the blame on the victim (Burt, 1980, Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994).

Routine Activities/Lifestyle Choice Theory

An individual's choices and actions can lead him/her to potentially dangerous situations. Specifically, college students can be more at risk of becoming a victim of a crime compared to the general population (Currier & Carlson, 2009; Flood & Pease, 2009; Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001; Meadows, 2007). One criminological theory, routine activities theory, is particularly appropriate for this study (Cohen & Felson, 1979).

The routine activity approach to studying crime was developed by Cohen and Felson in 1979. They contend that three components must be present for a crime to occur. First, there must be a motivated offender present. Second, a suitable target is available. Finally, there has to be a lack of capable guardians (Cohen & Felson, 1979). When all three of these converge in space and time, it is more likely that a crime will occur (Cohen & Felson, 1979). The theory suggests that criminal victimizations are not randomly distributed in society but are associated with lifestyle choices and daily routines of individuals (Belknap, 1987; Clodfelter, Turner, Hartman, & Kuhns, 2010; Cohen & Felson, 1979; Combs-Lane & Smith, 2002; Fisher et al., 2005; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003; Svensson & Pauwels, 2008). By identifying which lifestyles and routine activities are most dangerous, potential victimization can be decreased for certain individuals.

Research suggests that routine activities theory may not show as strong a relationship for rape compared to other crimes because routine activities theory assumes that usually the motivated offender is a stranger to the victim (Belknap, 1987; Cohen & Felson, 1979). As previously discussed, statistics suggest that the majority of rapes are committed by a current or former intimate partner or an acquaintance of the victim (Tjaden & Thoennes, 2006). However,

routine activities theory might help explain why sexual victimization occurs and inform policy for prevention measures.

Belknap (1987) conducted a study applying routine activities theory to rape and attempted rape. She used ten years of data collected through the National Crime Survey (Belknap, 1987). The National Crime Survey is attempts to determine unreported crimes as well as crimes reported to the police. However, as Belknap (1987) notes, the National Crime Survey instrument has many limitations; self-reports of rape may be biased; and most studies have no direct questions referring to rape.

Belknap (1987) found that there was overall support for routine activities theory for rape victimization. The results indicated that: (1) rape was most likely to occur at night (71.9%); (2) rape was most likely to occur in the summer months, while people were outside of the home; (3) "prime age" women (those identified as being most active outside of the home) were most at risk of rape; (4) married and widowed women were least at risk for rape victimization, while divorced, separated, and never married women were high risk groups; (5) family income is inversely related to the risk of rape, and (6) the major activities at which women were most at risk included going to school and looking for work, whereas the safest activity is staying at home (Belknap, 1987, p. 350-351). Belknap (1987) studied women in the general population; however, some of her findings could be applicable to the college population as well.

In addition, one finding from the Belknap (1987) study was inconsistent with the routine activities theory literature involved living structure. The study found that the greater number of housing units in an apartment structure resulted in a higher risk of rape (Belknap, 1987). Routine activities theory suggests that a higher number of housing units should decrease the risk of rape because it would increase guardianship over the residents (Cohen & Felson, 1979). This is

relevant to college dormitories and apartments for students, since most students live in dormitories or apartment buildings.

Routine activities and lifestyle choices can make college students more vulnerable than the general population; and female college students are especially at risk of victimization (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002). For example, lifestyle choices subject women to interact with more men in potentially dangerous situations, like parties or bars (Franklin, 2010; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003). Different choices may expose students to situations where they become a suitable target for a motivated offender who is close by when they are without guardianship (Cohen & Felson, 1979). For example, Cohen and Felson (1979) predicted that young adults who were more likely to engage in peer group activities would have a higher rate of victimization compared to those that engaged in family activities (p. 596). This might help explain the high rates of college student victimization; these individuals are less likely to be living at home with their families and more likely to be living in dormitories with other students.

Mustaine and Tewksbury (2002) examined 1,196 college students during the fall 1998 academic term in 12 southern postsecondary institutions in order to determine which factors influence female sexual victimization. They examined individual demographic characteristics, experiences, and daily routines. The study found that the guardianship component did not influence a woman's attractiveness as a sexual assault target (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002). This is consistent with Belknap's (1987) argument that most victimizations are committed by an acquaintance of the victim; therefore, a capable guardian does not play the usual role described in routine activities theory.

Tewksbury and Mustaine (2003) attempted to address the lack of significance between sexual victimization and the guardianship component of routine activities theory. Their study consisted of 1,513 college students from nine postsecondary institutions conducted during the first three weeks of the fall 1996 academic term (Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003). They focused on using self-protection devices such as possessing mace, guns or other weapons. Tewksbury and Mustaine (2003) found that college students are less likely to use self-protection methods when engaging in activities such as alcohol and drug consumption that may increase their risk of victimization. Also, the authors indicated that a student's use of self-protective devices or guardianship measures is dependent on his/her employment status, transportation activities, frequency of associating with strangers, residence in disorderly neighborhoods, use of crack, and perceptions of safety of his/her home (Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003, p. 321).

Lifestyle choices.

Lifestyle choices such as consumption of alcohol, illegal drug use, attending parties regularly, walking home alone, staying at parties alone, and having multiple sexual partners can affect college students' risk for victimization (Buddie & Testa, 2005; Combs-Lane & Smith, 2002; Flack et al., 2007; Franklin, 2010; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Testa, Hoffman, & Livingston, 2010; Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003). The routine activity approach can help explain why certain lifestyle choices may subject individuals to crime victimization more than other choices. Lifestyle choices that may expose individuals to victimization can change as the setting, contexts, and interactions are altered (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003). For example, not every night a female college student goes out to a party exposes her to potentially dangerous situations. However, different choices could result in an increased risk of victimization when the three components of routine activity theory converge. Identifying

common lifestyle choices can help prevention programs focus on critical choices and situations that college students are more likely to engage in or experience.

Combs-Lane and Smith (2002) conducted a study on how lifestyle choices can influence risk for sexual victimization. Specially, the authors predicted that exposure to potential perpetrators through involvement in sexual risk-taking behaviors, routine dating, and social practices would be associated with an increase risk of sexual victimization (Combs-Lane & Smith, 2002). The sample consisted of 190 female college students. The study found that 26% of the sample reported a history of some type of sexual victimization (Combs-Lane & Smith, 2002). In addition, alcohol use and behavioral intentions to engage in risk-taking behaviors were strongly related to new victimization and partaking in risky sexual activities (Combs-Lane & Smith, 2002, p. 177).

In relation to routine activities theory, involvement in relatively routine dating and social activities can be associated with greater future involvement in risk-taking behaviors and an increased risk of sexual victimization (Combs-Lane & Smith, 2002, p. 178). However, the authors suggested that exposure to potential perpetrators was important, and that engaging in certain behaviors may increase a woman's risk of sexual victimization (Combs-Lane & Smith, 2002, p. 178). These risky behaviors may be related to rape myth acceptance and influence the choices women make.

The lifestyle choice of alcohol consumption can contribute to an increased risk of victimization, especially for college students (Carr & VanDeusen, 2004; Corbin, Bernat, Calhoun, McNair, & Seals, 2001; Davis et al., 2002; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Ullman et al., 1999). Specifically, alcohol has been found to be present in one third of reported rapes (Ullman et al., 1999). Many students believe that drinking alcohol is a way to feel engaged in college life

(Armstrong et al., 2006). Koss et al. (1987) found in a study of 6,159 students from 32 institutions across the United States that 74% of perpetrators and 55% of victims of rape had been drinking prior to the incident. Women may be victims of assault due to alcohol because their ability to cognitively process the situation is severely limited (Boeringer, 1996; Fisher et al., 2008). As previously stated, alcohol use may also explain why women do not report their victimization.

Along with alcohol consumption, drug use is also a risky lifestyle choice. Alcohol consumption or drug use plays an important role when society determines who to blame for the victimization. Burt (1980) suggested that women can be held more responsible for their victimization if they have voluntarily engaged in drug use and/or consumed alcohol. Girad and Senn (2008) examined 280 undergraduate students and found that the students' judgment of responsibility and blame for sexual victimization were strongly related to whether the female victim had voluntarily consumed alcohol and used drugs prior to the incident (p.14). Specifically, they found that when women were drugged or deliberately provided excess amounts of alcohol without their knowledge, the perpetrator was held more responsible for the sexual assault compared to when the female victim used drugs or alcohol willingly (Girad & Senn, 2008). It is important to consider voluntary or involuntary participation in risky behaviors, specifically on dates, such as drug or alcohol use when attempting to identify factors that influence rape myth acceptance among college students.

Routine activities and lifestyle choice theory are found in the rape literature. As a result, this theory and its concepts guide the current study's research questions. Possible lifestyle choices may lead to dangerous situations for women on college campuses. By understanding the

link between these choices and an individual's rape myth acceptance, prevention strategies and awareness of victimization on campuses can be improved.

Current Study

The current study identified which factors influence rape myth acceptance among a sample of college students from a large public northeastern university in the United States. The study examined gender, race, major, political affiliation, group affiliation, patriarchal attitudes, sports team membership, year in school, prior victimization (personal/vicarious), illegal drug use, alcohol consumption, and lifestyle choices.

This study differs from previous research in several ways. First, rape myth acceptance is the dependent variable rather than an independent variable. This allowed the researcher to identify which factors influence rape myth acceptance, instead of using it as a predictor of sexual victimization. Second, this study explored how multiple variables impact the level of rape myth acceptance. The inclusion of multiple independent variables like college major, group affiliation, and lifestyle add to the current literature on rape myth acceptance. The researcher also investigated the relationship of rape myth acceptance to all the other independent variables. Third, the impact of these combined variables on rape myth acceptance enhances existing knowledge about the factors that influence students' rape myth acceptance. By contrast, previous studies have only examined one variable at a time controlling for demographic information.

Lifestyle choices, or routine activities, can indicate the likelihood of potentially dangerous activities. Based on the lifestyle choices, students may increase or decrease their chance of sexual victimization. The survey questions asked respondents about their lifestyle choices and experiences.

An analysis of factors that influence rape myth acceptance was conducted. This will help inform university program directors about their current programs and the most appropriate and effective variables for their specific student population. This study is preliminary but it is intended to increase awareness of factors related to rape prevention on a college campus.

Research Questions

Which of the following factors have the most influence on a sample of undergraduate students' level of rape myth acceptance?

RQ1: Which demographic characteristics of college students influence their level of rape myth acceptance?

H1. Men will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance than women.

H2. Non-white students will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to whites.

H3. Students with a conservative political affiliation will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students with liberal political affiliations.

H4a. Social Science majors will have a lower rape myth acceptance than other students not in social science majors.

H5. Students living in off-campus apartments or housing will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students who live in dormitories on campus.

H6: Juniors and seniors are more likely to exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to sophomores and freshmen.

RQ2: Does group membership in college influence the level of rape myth acceptance among college students?

H7. Students who participate in a contact sport will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students who participate in a non-contact sport.

H8. Students who are members of a social fraternity/sorority will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students in a service or honor fraternity/sorority.

RQ3: Do patriarchal attitudes affect rape myth acceptance?

H9. Students who demonstrate a high level of patriarchal attitudes will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students who do not demonstrate as high a level of patriarchal attitudes.

RQ4: Do students who have prior experience with victimization have higher rape myth acceptance?

H10. Students who have experienced personal victimization will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students who have not experienced any personal victimization.

H11: Students who have experienced vicarious victimization will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students who have not experienced vicarious victimization.

RQ5: Which lifestyles influence students' rape myth acceptance?

H12: Students who score higher on the Dating Behavior Scale will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students who do not score as high.

H13. Students' lifestyle choices are related to a higher level of rape myth acceptance.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The study consisted of a probability sample of female and male students at a public university using a random sample strategy. The data were collected through a self-report survey administered during randomly selected classes. Prior arrangements with professors were made to allow access to the classes. The survey was comprised of questions related to rape myth acceptance and factors that influence one's level of acceptance of rape myths. The original version of Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald's 1999 Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale was used to assess the level of rape myth acceptance in the student sample.

Sample

The sample for the study included 615 female and male undergraduate students. A probability sample was used to allow each student on campus to have an equal chance of being selected for the study. The sample procedure involved grouping the sampling frame (college students) into homogenous groups to be randomly selected for inclusion in the study (Maxfield & Babbie, 2008). The sampling frame for this study consisted of 12,827 undergraduate students on the campus of interest who were enrolled at the beginning of the fall 2010 semester for the 2010-2011 academic year. It was important to include both men and women because men's level of rape myth acceptance may affect whether they support and/or engage in sexually aggressive behavior; and women's level of rape myth acceptance may affect their risk of being sexually victimized (Flood & Pease, 2009). It was anticipated that the sample would be similar to the University's demographics and variables of concern which would allow findings made from the sample to be applicable to the University students.

The sample strategy randomly selected classes that represent students in each academic year and all majors. The researcher identified the general education classes that are required of all students. For example, *College Writing* (ENGL101) and *History of the Modern Era* (HIST195) are mandatory courses for all freshmen. By randomly selecting sections of these courses, a representative sample of freshmen from all majors was obtained. The same strategy was employed to select courses that are required for sophomores and upper class students (juniors and seniors). The course, *Research Writing* (ENGL202), is for sophomores; and it was included. Upper-class students must schedule Liberal Studies 499, *Senior Synthesis*, (LBST499) during their junior or senior year. This course enabled the researcher to involve upper-class students in the study. The courses and sections selected were listed for spring 2011 in the university course catalog.

Similar sampling strategies have been employed when conducting research with undergraduate students. Some researchers have employed a convenience sample approach to collect their data (Cannon, 2005; Courtright, et al., 2005; Smith, Meade, & Koons-Witt, 2009). However, the present study's approach allowed for a more accurate representation of the general student population. Owen and Wagner (2008) attempted to identify the difference between years in school among criminal justice majors and authoritarianism. Their research is comparable to the current study because it examined students' year in school and its relationship to a dependent variable.

This strategy selected classes representing students from each academic year and all majors at the university. If a generic random sample of classes is conducted, only one academic major or year of school may be included. For example, if the random sample process selects an *Introduction to Economics* class, then the students who are majoring in economics will be

overrepresented in the sample. It is safe to assume that economic majors may be significantly different than health and physical education majors or other majors. By employing this strategy, a representative sample of majors should be included in the sample.

By utilizing a cross sectional study of the student population, the researcher was able to analyze the data and draw conclusions about the sample at a particular time. The cross sectional study asked students about their rape myth acceptance; but it was difficult to establish temporal ordering (Maxfield & Babbie, 2008). However, cross sectional studies are beneficial because they are more economical and practical (Maxfield & Babbie, 2008). All students who were at least 18 years of age were eligible for participation in the study. The final sample consisted of 615 students representing various majors, years in school, group affiliations, living situations, lifestyle choice, and levels of rape myth acceptance.

Research Design

For the current study, an anonymous survey was conducted. As previously discussed, the survey was administered during classes randomly selected from a class schedule list available on campus. This class list represented classes required for all students who attend the university and included all academic years and majors. Every student had an equal chance of being selected for the study. The goal was to achieve a representative sample of the student population at the college site selected for the study in the spring semester of 2011.

A self-report survey was an appropriate data collection strategy for this study. Self-report surveys can be more accurate than official data because only crimes reported to the police are included in official statistics. As the literature supports, rape is an extremely underreported crime (Holmes & Holmes, 2009; Kilpatrick et al., 1985; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewksi, 1987; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Russell, 1984; Schwartz, 2000; Sorenson et al., 1987). By using a

self-report survey, individuals who have experienced some type of victimization may have had a better chance of being included in the study compared to a sample using official data.

The researcher obtained permission from the professors of the classes randomly selected for the study. Once permission was granted, the researcher requested a date and time to administer the survey in the selected classes. The professor was informed about the study and the length of time the survey participation required. A pilot study was conducted to estimate time and clarity of instructions and questions prior to administering the survey in the classrooms. The researcher over sampled so that a large enough sample was obtained.

The survey instrument included demographic questions, lifestyle choices, patriarchal attitudes, and rape myth acceptance. Items on the survey asked details about one's current level of rape myth acceptance. Based on prior research, rape myth acceptance is strongly related to behaviors that are sexually aggressive toward women and potentially dangerous (Malamuth et al., 1980; Malamuth, 1986). It is possible for women to have a high level of rape myth acceptance as well. The literature indicates that this can happen when women are victimized, but believe they are to blame because they were dressed provocatively or consumed too much alcohol (Reddington & Wright, 2005).

Other items asked respondents questions related to their demographic information (gender, race, year in school, and living arrangements) and lifestyle choices. Lifestyle choice questions included information on illegal drug use, alcohol consumption, group affiliation, and weekend/evening activities. In addition, the survey incorporated questions about prior victimization. These included both personal victimization and vicarious victimization. The survey items were then analyzed to identify which ones have the most influence on the students' rape myth acceptance.

Surveys that have been designed, developed, and tested by researchers in the field were incorporated in the survey questions in the study. Specifically, the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (Payne et al., 1999), the Dating Behavior Scale (Hanson & Gidycz, 1993), and the Patriarchal Attitude-Gender Schema Scale (Grasmick et al., 1996) were used. Each scale has been tested and administered in studies in the field to examine sexual victimization and/or rape myth acceptance. Each scale's internal consistency and reliability were considered. The internal consistency of the scale items must have a Cronbach's alpha equal to or greater than .70. Each author granted permission to use the scales in this particular study (see Appendix A).

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable or the variable of interest in the study is one's level of rape myth acceptance. Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994) define rape myths as "attitudes and beliefs that are generally false but are widely and persistently held and that serve to deny and justify male sexual aggression against women" (p. 134). As previously stated, rape myth acceptance can result in potential attitudes and behaviors that are sexually aggressive toward women or increase their exposure to sexual victimization (Burt, 1980; Payne et al., 1999). A respondent's rape myth acceptance was measured by the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale developed in 1999 by Payne, Lonsway, and Fitzgerald (Payne et al., 1999).

Typically, rape myth acceptance has not been examined as a dependent variable. The majority of studies apply rape myth acceptance as an independent variable measuring its impact on future sexual aggression or victimization. The studies that used rape myth acceptance as a dependent variable were considered in this study. Previous research that examined rape myth acceptance as the dependent variable only explored its relationship to one independent variable, while controlling for demographic information (Baughler, Elhai, Monroe, & Gray, 2010;

Boeringer, 1999; Carmody & Washington, 2001; Caron & Carter, 1997; Currier & Carlson, 2009; Gidycz et al., 2001; Heppner, Good, Hillenbrand-Gunn, Hawkins, Hacquard, Nichols, DeBord, & Brock, 1995; Hockett et al., 2009; Johansson-Love & Geer, 2003; Paul, Gray, Elhai, & Davis, 2009; Schwartz & Nogrady, 1996). This study explored how multiple variables influence rape myth acceptance while considering all relevant factors at the same time. The analyses allow for the identification of the variables which have the most influence.

Rape Myth Acceptance Scale

As previously stated, a student's rape myth acceptance was measured by Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald's Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMAS) which was developed in 1999. Rape myths were operationalized as "attitudes and beliefs that are generally false but are widely and persistently held, and that serve to deny and justify male sexual aggression against women" (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994, p. 134). The original 45-item IRMAS was found to be "theoretically sound and statistically well functioning" (Payne et al., 1999 p. 48). The Cronbach's alpha, α, for the IRMAS is .93. Payne et al. (1999) established that the internal consistency and reliability for both scale and subscale scores were adequate (Payne et al. 1999, p. 60). This version was used and the literature documents support for this scale (see appendix B).

The IRMAS has items from seven subscales that were identified during its development. The subscale labels include *She asked for it* (8 questions), *It wasn't really rape* (5 questions), *He didn't mean to* (5 questions), *She wanted it* (5 questions), *She lied* (5 questions), *Rape is a trivial event* (5 questions), and *Rape is a deviant event* (7 questions) (Payne et al., 1999, p. 51). Survey items from the IRMAS from each of the subscales include: "A lot of women lead a man on and then they cry rape; A woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex; Rape happens when a man's sex drive gets out of control" (Payne et al.,

1999, p. 50). Response categories for the IRMAS use a Likert scale that ranges from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Higher scores indicate a greater level of rape myth acceptance.

In their meta-analysis, Suarez and Gadalla (2010) found that many different instruments have been used to measure rape myth acceptance. Of the studies included in the meta-analysis, 74% of the studies (n=27) used the Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (RMAS) developed by Burt in 1980. A total of 16% of studies (n=6) applied the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMAS) developed by Payne et al. (1999). One reason Burt's RMAS has been more commonly utilized is because it has been administered for a longer time. Therefore, it has been tested and used in research (Anderson et al., 1997; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). However, a number of studies in the literature have employed the IRMAS as the measurement instrument of rape myth acceptance (Baugher et al., 2010; Girad & Senn, 2008; Loh et al., 2005; Payne et al., 1999; Paul et al., 2009).

The IRMAS was chosen for this study because it is a more modern scale that includes updated language regarding the topic of rape (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Payne et al., 1999). Payne et al. (1999) argued that Burt's RMAS has some theoretical and psychometric issues, along with content validity, item wording, and criterion-related validity problems (for a full discussion see Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). For these reasons, the IRMAS was selected for this study.

Independent Variables

The previous literature established that demographic variables can influence rape myth acceptance. These demographic factors include gender, race, choice of major, year in school, living arrangements, political affiliation, group membership affiliation, and prior victimization

(vicarious and personal). Each of these variables was examined to determine its impact on the student sample's level of rape myth acceptance.

Based on routine activity and lifestyle choice theories, the lifestyles of the students in the sample were analyzed as well. Different lifestyle choices may expose students to potentially dangerous situations (Belknap, 1987; Clodfelter et al., 2010; Cohen & Felson, 1979; Combs-Lane & Smith, 2002; Fisher et al., 2005; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003; Svensson & Pauwels, 2008). As a result, lifestyle choices such as living arrangements while in college, consuming alcohol and/or other drugs, attending parties frequently, walking home alone, number of sexual partners, and use of self protection strategies can all influence the risk of victimization and rape myth acceptance among college students (Buddie & Testa, 2005; Combs-Lane & Smith, 2002; Flack et al., 2007; Franklin, 2010; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Testa, Hoffman, & Livingston, 2010; Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003). Lifestyle activities were operationalized as activities that individuals engage in consistently throughout their life. Response categories for the lifestyle questions asked respondents to indicate how often they engaged in the activities per week while enrolled in college. For example, "How often do you party at a fraternity per week?" These lifestyle choices were explored in relationship to the level of rape myth acceptance that students in the sample exhibited.

Demographic Survey Items

The demographic survey items identified the respondents' gender (male/female), race (White, African American, or other), major, year in school (freshmen, sophomore, junior, seniors), living arrangements (on campus dormitory, off campus apartment, off campus house, commute), political affiliation (conservative, liberal, or other), group membership affiliation

(sports team membership and Greek organizations), and prior victimization (vicarious and personal).

Dating Behavior Scale

The Dating Behavior Scale (DBS) was developed by Hanson and Gidycz in 1993. The DBS consists of 15 items that assess the frequency with which participants engage in certain dating behaviors, such as drug and alcohol consumption (Breitenbecher, 2008, p. 1099). This scale measures student participation in the lifestyle choices. These activities could influence the level of rape myth acceptance of a respondent. Items on the scale include questions such as: "On the first few dates, I consume alcohol or drugs" (Hanson & Gidycz, 1993). Other items inquired about the consumption of alcohol or drugs by one's partner, spending time alone with one's dating partner in an isolated location, paying for one's own expenses, and planning the activities that will take place during the date (Hanson & Gidycz, 1993). The full scale is in appendix B.

Breitenbecher (2008) altered the language in the original DBS items to make the items gender neutral. This is beneficial for this study because both men and women were asked to participate. The DBS response categories consisted of a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 6 (always); and possible scores on the DBS range from 15 to 105 (Breitenbecher & Gidycz, 1998). Higher scores on the DBS indicate more frequent engagement in risk-related dating behaviors (Breitenbecher, 2008). These scores were compared to the level of rape myth acceptance the respondent exhibited to determine if there is a significant relationship between the dating behaviors and rape myth acceptance. Hanson and Gidycz (1993) reported that the DBS has a 1-week test-retest reliability of .77 and an internal consistency reliability of .63.

The DBS has been used in several studies that examined risk-related behaviors on dates (Breitenbecher, 2008; Breitenbecher & Gidycz, 1998; Breitenbecher & Scarce, 2001; Gidycz et

al., 2001). Research suggests that engaging in certain dating behaviors may influence an individual's level of rape myth acceptance (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002; Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003).

Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema

The Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema was developed by Grasmick et al. in 1996 and consists of nine items. The patriarchal attitude scale has been used in criminological studies that explore patriarchy in families and power-control theory and its relationship to gender risk perceptions and delinquency (Grasmick et al., 1996; Hagan et al., 2004; Kim & Titterington, 2009; McCarthy et al., 1999). According to Grasmick et al. (1996), the ideal patriarchal family is "one in which the father is in the command class, i.e., in a position with authority over others in the workplace, and the mother is not" (p. 183). This suggests that individuals who believe that this is the only appropriate living style would argue that women do not and should not have as many rights or responsibilities as men (Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001; Yamawaki, 2007). As a result, this patriarchal outlook could influence beliefs relating to sexual victimization.

To assess the patriarchal attitudes of the participants, nine attitudinal statements were used (Grasmick et al., 1996; Kim & Titterington, 2009). Response categories required participants to indicate their level of agreement with statements relating to the gender specific nature of household and workplace activities on a Likert Scale (Grasmick et al., 1996; Kim & Titterington, 2009). For example, a question inquired about the degree to which an individual agreed with a statement, "Men are by nature better leaders for the family than are women." Higher scores indicated more agreement with patriarchal attitudes. The scale has a Cronbach's Alpha of .854 (Grasmick et al., 1996).

Survey Administration

The survey was constructed to encourage participants to complete it during the class period. The pilot test provided a time frame that allowed the researcher to determine the length of time participants required to finish the survey. Response rate was not a problem because classroom survey administration typically yields a high level of participation (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009). Anticipating that there would be a few incomplete surveys or ineligible students included in the final sample, the researcher decided to survey a larger number of students for the sample.

The survey was administered to potentially all majors in randomly selected classes based on year in school. The researcher utilized specific classes required for students during their undergraduate education. Prior permission was granted by professors of the sections included in the study. The survey administration took place during the spring 2011 semester.

The main part of the survey contained the IRMAS, DBS, and the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scales. Since these scales contain questions that are sensitive in nature, they appear in the middle part of the survey. Dillman et al. (2009) stated that sensitive questions should be included after the introductory questions and before the demographic questions. This allowed the student to respond to easier questions before being exposed to questions on sensitive topics.

Each participant was given an informed consent prior to the administration of the survey. The informed consent contained the details about the survey, the students' right to terminate participation at any time, and how confidentiality would be maintained. Furthermore, it identified any potential risks related to participation in the survey, and contact information for services that might be needed as a result of participation in the survey. The confidentiality of the

respondents was communicated to potential participants in the informed consent and in the directions of the survey. It can be difficult to obtain honest and accurate information in rape and sexual victimization studies. Self-report surveys and confidentiality agreements can help address this issue.

After the completion of the survey, the researcher thanked the participants and acknowledged how their efforts have helped further research related to rape myth acceptance and rape prevention/awareness on their campus. The respondents were encouraged to contact the researcher to obtain the overall results in aggregate form. Students were only included in the survey one time. If a student had already participated in another class, s/he was asked to only complete the survey once. This prevented duplication.

Human Rights Protection

There are many issues to consider when conducting research on human participants. These rights have been established by a code of ethics developed by professionals (Maxfield & Babbie, 2008). These rights include: no known harm to participants, voluntary participation, anonymity and confidentiality, and no deception of subjects (Maxfield & Babbie, 2008). Discussions on the voluntary nature and confidentiality of participants have been addressed. To review, the students were given an informed consent form that they signed prior to engaging in the study. This made the respondents aware that their participation was completely voluntary and could be terminated at any point during the survey. Also, the researcher explained that the respondents' answers were confidential and that their answers would not be linked to individuals.

This study posed no known harm to its participants. However, the researcher is aware of the potential emotional distress participation in this study may cause. For this reason, contact

information for counseling services was provided to each participant. This allowed an individual who experienced some type of emotional distress to obtain services voluntarily.

The purpose of the survey and study were clearly stated in the informed consent that each potential respondent signed before completing the survey (see Appendix C). This ensured that no deception occurred on behalf of the researcher. Permission to conduct this study was obtained from the University's Institutional Review Board prior to the administration of the survey (for full protocol see Appendix D). This ensured participants that the design and implementation of the study met rigorous university guidelines, and that the study was deemed appropriate. Responses were placed in a locked cabinet in the faculty administration office.

Analysis Plan

The first step in the analysis plan was to run descriptive statistics with the sample selected. Descriptive statistics are used to "describe characteristics or some phenomenon from either a sample or a population" (Bachman & Paternoster, 2004, p. 22). The main statistics involve summary measures of centrality or location, dispersion, and association between variables (Miethe & Gauthier, 2008).

The next step included bivariate analysis with the dependent variable, rape myth acceptance, and each of the independent variables. This analysis determined if there is a significant relationship between the dependent variable and any of the independent variables. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a "statistical approach for examining group differences on a quantitatively measured dependent variable" (Miethe & Gauthier, 2008, p. 226). This determines "whether knowledge of group membership helps explain variation in the dependent variable (Miethe & Gauthier, 2008, p. 226). One-way ANOVA was conducted with each of the independent variables. Variables that were tested by ANOVA include race (Caucasian/African

American/Asian/other), major, year in school (freshmen/sophomore/junior/senior), and political affiliation (liberal/conservative/other). Findings about the significance of individual independent variables with the dependent variable, rape myth acceptance, will be discussed.

Another bivariate analysis included t-tests to measure the differences between two groups (Bachman & Paternoster, 2004). For example, to determine the difference between male students and female students separate t-tests were conducted. Other variables incorporated in the t-tests were membership in a fraternity (vs. no membership) for type of Greek organization, membership on a sports team (yes/no), social science major (yes/no), experienced victimization (yes/no), and vicariously experienced victimization (yes/no). The significance of these variables was determined by using t-tests with the dependent variable.

Once the significance of each independent variable was identified by the use of bivariate analysis, multivariate regression was conducted. The bivariate analysis only examined the relationship between the dependent variable and one independent variable (Bachman & Paternoster, 2004). To determine the effect of the independent variables on the dependent variable, hierarchical multiple regression was used (Bachman & Paternoster, 2004). Hierarchical multiple regression allows the model to control for significant variables at the previous step (Lee, Chronister, & Bishop, 2008). The hierarchical regression for this analysis established the predictive strength of demographic variables, victimization variables, patriarchal scale variables, dating behaviors, and lifestyle variables on rape myth acceptance (Lee et al., 2008).

After completion of the data analysis, findings about which independent variables are the most influential on rape myth acceptance are presented. Many studies have employed the statistical methods utilized in this study (Baughler et al., 2010; Belknap, 1987; Breitenbecher & Gidycz, 1998; Breitenbecher & Scarce, 1999; Brown et al., 2002; Buddie & Testa, 2005;

Chevalier Minow & Einolf, 2009; Currier & Carlson, 2009; Davis et al., 2002; Forbes et al., 2004; Frese, Moya, & Megias, 2004; Gage, 2008; Humphrey & Kahn, 2000; Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2003). This study adds to the current literature on rape myth acceptance by examining influential factors of rape myth acceptance as the dependent variable instead of using it as an independent variable.

Summary

The methodology and analysis plan helped facilitate the development of appropriate conclusions about which variables are significantly related to rape myth acceptance. It also allowed the researcher to determine which factors have the most influence. The findings will aid future researchers and inform the current literature on rape myth acceptance.

There are several policy implications that may be developed from this study and will be discussed in the following chapters. For example, the findings could help college campuses develop more effective rape prevention strategies. A summary table of each variable, how it was measured, and how it was coded is included in Appendix E.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter discusses the analysis that was conducted and the results of the study. First, the description and frequencies of the sample are presented. Second, t-test, analysis of the variance, and bivariate correlations are discussed. Finally, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted, and the results are presented and explained.

The study involved a sample of 615 undergraduate students from a large public university in the northeast part of the United States. The study was conducted during the spring 2011 semester. With permission of the professors, an anonymous survey was administered during regularly scheduled classes. The sample data were collected by randomly selecting specific classes required by the university. The researcher administered the survey to the students. Items on the survey included demographic data, the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale, the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale, the Dating Behavior Scale, and lifestyle questions. These data were analyzed and will be discussed in the following sections.

Frequency and Descriptive Statistics

Table 4 illustrates the demographic data reported from the sample of 615 undergraduate students who were surveyed. The average age of the sample respondents was 20.37 years old. The youngest respondent was 18 years of age and the oldest respondent was 37. The sample consisted of 235 (37.6%) male students, and 390 (62.4%) female students. This sample demographic variable is somewhat different from the actual gender distribution at the University which is 43% men and 57% women. With regard to race, 553 (88.5%) of the respondents identified themselves as white; 41 (6.6%) identified themselves as African American; and 31 (4.9%) were grouped in the “other” category. These racial data are more similar to the

demographics of the student population of the University which is 13% minority. The self-identified political affiliation of the students in the sample was 217 (34.7%) conservative, 260 (41.6%) liberal, and 148 (23.7%) other. The other category might include students who do not identify with any political affiliation or who perceived themselves as independents.

The sample included 221 (35.4%) freshmen, 169 (27%) sophomores, 36 (5.8%) juniors, and 199 (31.8%) seniors. The classes that were selected for the sample were freshmen level English/History required classes (HIST195, *History of Modern Era,* and ENG101, *College Writing*), sophomore level English classes (ENG202, *Research Writing*), and Junior/Senior liberal studies classes (LBST499, *Senior Synthesis*). The sections of the liberal studies classes randomly selected had more seniors enrolled in them than juniors for the 2011 spring semester. Therefore, juniors were underrepresented in the sample.

The living arrangements for the student sample were also obtained: There were 284 (45.4%) students living in the dormitories on campus. One hundred and ninety eight (31.7%) of the students in the sample live off campus in apartments, and 89 (14.2%) students live in houses off campus. Fifty four (8.6%) students in the sample commute from home. The percent of students in the sample who live on campus (N=284 or 45.4%) in the dormitories is greater than the general student population at the University in the study. According to University data, 29% (N=4,367) of students live on campus in the dormitories (IUP, 2011).

Table 4:

Descriptive Statistics for the sample of undergraduate students (N=615)

Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
AGE	18	37	20.37	2.309

Variable	Frequency	Percentage %
GENDER		
Male	235	37.6
Female	390	62.4
RACE		
White	553	88.5
African American	41	6.6
Other	31	4.9
POLITICAL AFFILIATION		
Conservative	217	34.7
Liberal	260	41.6
Other	148	23.7
YEAR IN SCHOOL		
Freshmen	221	35.4
Sophomore	169	27.0
Junior	36	5.8
Senior	199	31.8
LIVING ARRANGEMENTS		
Dormitory	284	45.4
Off Campus Apartment	198	31.7
Off Campus House	89	14.2
Commute From Home	54	8.6
TYPE OF GREEK ORG.		
Social	66	10.6
Service	36	5.8
Honorary	73	11.7
None	450	71.9
SPORTS MEMBERSHIP		
Yes	51	8.25
No	574	91.8
SOCIAL SCIENCE MAJORS		
Yes	115	18.7
No	500	81.3

The student's choice of major was another variable of interest in the study. A total of 86 majors were listed on the survey by the student respondents. The top nine in terms of highest

frequency majors in the sample are Criminology with 63 students (10.1%), Nursing with 48 students (7.7%), Accounting with 32 students (5.1%), Business Management with 28 students (4.5%), Psychology with 26 students (4.2%), Communication Media with 22 students (3.5%), Fashion Merchandising with 21 students (3.4%), Marketing with 19 students (3.0%), and both Child Development and Family Relations and Small Business Management with 18 students each (2.9% each). Together these nine majors comprise of 33.7% (N=207) of the sample. Twenty five students did not have a major listed and were labeled undecided (4.0%).

The student identified majors were then collapsed to combine similar majors. This would allow for more accurate interpretation of the students' choice of majors in the sample and its relationship to rape myth acceptance. This combination was based on the University's undergraduate catalog of courses and majors available. For example, all business majors (Accounting, Business Management, Finance, Human Resource Management, Management, Management Informational Systems, Marketing, Small Business Management, Sports Administration, and Sports Management) were grouped together under the title "Business". All education majors (Business Education, Chemistry Education, Early Childhood Education, Elementary Education, Middle Level Education, Music Education, Social Science Education, and Special Education) were combined under the category "Education".

Table 5 identifies the major groups that were used in the analysis. As a result, the top combined nine majors from the sample are 18.4% Business (N=115), 11.7% Education (N=73), 10.1% Criminology (N=63), 7.7% Nursing (N=48), 7.7% Journalism/Communication/English (N=48), 5.4% Health and Physical Education (N=34), 4.3% Natural Sciences/Geology/Pre-Med (N=27), 4.2% Psychology (N=26), and 3.4% Fashion Merchandising (N=21). The top nine

majors comprised 80% (N=495) of the sample. These majors will be used in the analysis of majors and the relationship with rape myth acceptance later in this chapter.

In subsequent analyses, sample respondents' choice of major was also combined to show which students were social science majors and which ones were not. Social science majors include Criminology, Sociology/Anthropology, Psychology, and Political Science. There were a total of 115 social science majors in the sample (18.7%). In the independent sample t-tests, social science majors were compared to non-social science majors.

Table 5:

Combined majors of sample respondents (N=615)

Major	Frequency	%
Business	115	18.4
Education	73	11.7
Criminology	63	10.1
Nursing	48	7.7
Journalism/Communication/English	48	7.7
Health and PE	34	5.4
Natural Sciences/Geology/Pre-Med	27	4.3
Psychology	26	4.2
Fashion Merchandising	21	3.4
Safety Science	18	2.9
Math/Computer Science	16	2.6
Hospitality Management	15	2.4
Political Science	14	2.2
Speech Pathology	13	2.1
Dietetics/Nutrition	12	1.9
Sociology/Anthropology	12	1.9
History	12	1.9
Interior Design	9	1.4
Nuclear Medicine/Respiratory Care	8	1.3
Fine Arts	7	1.1
Geography	4	.6
Religious/Asian Studies	3	.5
Others	2	.3
Undecided	25	4.0

The distribution of majors in the sample was similar to the data on majors published by the University. Specifically, the top ten most popular majors for first year students at the

University are Criminology (N=229), Psychology (N=152), Business (N=152), Health and Human Services (N=135), Elementary Education (N=126), Humanities and Social Sciences (N=124), Communication (N=120), Biology (N=99), Nursing (N=98), and Natural Sciences (N=94) (IUP, 2011).

The University also publishes information on the number of students in each of the colleges. The College of Health and Human Services has 4,400 students. This College includes Criminology and Nursing, two of the top nine majors of the sample. The College of Business and Information Technology has 2,040 students. Both Business Management and Accounting are in this College. The College of Natural Sciences and Mathematics has 2,001 students, including the Department of Psychology. The College of Humanities and Social Sciences has 1,865 students. There are 735 majors in the College of Fine Arts. In sum, the top nine majors selected by the sample respondents are similar to the popular majors and colleges of the University population; and therefore, appear to be representative of the student population at the University (IUP, 2011).

Student membership in both Greek organizations and athletic teams is another demographic variable explored in the study. Table 4 presents the number of the students in the sample involved in a Greek organization. Each type of Greek organization is listed in the table. A total of 66 students indicated that they are members of a social fraternity/sorority (10.6%). Thirty six students are members of a service fraternity/sorority (5.8%), and 73 students are members of an honorary fraternity/sorority (11.7%). The remaining 450 students in the sample indicated that they are not members of any Greek organization at the University.

According to the Office of Student Life and Greek Life at the University, there are 1,506 students (28%) involved in a Greek organization during the 2010-2011 academic year (IUP,

2011). The sample respondents who indicated that they were members of a Greek organization could be members of more than one type of Greek organization. The survey instrument did not ask the respondents to indicate which organizations they were members of, but rather to check all that apply. As a result, the total number of sample participants who reported that they were members of a Greek organization (N=175 or 28%) is difficult to compare to the University's data where each student is only counted once. However, the sample included an adequate number of respondents who are members of Greek organizations.

Table 4 also provides the number of students in the sample who were members of a varsity athletic team at the University. Only 51 students in the sample indicated that they are members of a varsity sports team (8.2%). By contrast, 574 students were not a member of a varsity athletic team (91.8%). According to the University's athletic office (IUP, 2011), there were 402 students (3%) on a varsity team at the University during the 2010-2011 academic year. The total number of student athletes in the sample is somewhat larger than the actual student athlete population at the University. However, it is still difficult to draw conclusions because athletes in the sample represented only 8.2% of the respondents.

Rape prevention is an important component of a University, especially in student support services. At this University, rape prevention is addressed during freshmen/new student orientation. According to the University's website, orientation is a mandatory event for all incoming students enrolling at the school (IUP, 2011). Even though it is stipulated that students are required to attend the orientation and rape prevention programs, it is possible that the students may not attend some programs offered during orientation. Identifying which students attended the rape prevention program is important because the program may influence their level of rape myth acceptance. Table 6 shows the percentage of the sample who reported attending a

rape prevention program while at the University. There are two separate rape prevention programs: one for female students and one for male students.

For this sample, 360 (57.6%) students in the sample reported that they had attended the rape prevention program offered during the freshmen/first year orientation; and 265 (42.4%) students reported that they did not attend the program. Of those who indicated attending the program, 313 (86.9%) students stated that they believed that the program was beneficial to their knowledge about rape. However, 47 (13.1%) students reported that the rape prevention program was not beneficial.

Table 6:

Frequency of previous exposure to prevention programs (N=615)

Variable	N	%
Attended Prevention Program		
Yes	360	57.6
No	265	42.4
Program Beneficial		
Yes	313	86.9
No	47	13.1
Transferred		
Yes	54	8.6
No	571	91.4
Attended Prevention Program (N=54)		
Yes	17	31.5
No	37	68.5
Program Beneficial (N=17)		
Yes	12	66.7
No	5	33.35

As noted above, students in the sample may not have attended the rape prevention program during freshmen/first year orientation because they missed it or chose not to attend the program during orientation. Alternatively, some students transferred to the University after attending another college or university. The University provides a brief orientation program

including a rape prevention program for students who transfer. For this reason, identifying which rape prevention program the students in the sample attended is important because the programs are not only offered at different stages of an academic career but at various times and with diverse program formats.

Table 6 also illustrates the number of sample respondents who transferred to the University, whether they attended the rape prevention program, and if they perceived it as beneficial. For this sample, 54 (8.6%) students transferred to the University, and 571 (91.4%) students did not transfer. This is similar to the actual number of transfer students at the University; there were 680 transfer students in the fall of 2010 or 5.3% of the total student population (IUP, 2011). Of the 54 students who transferred in the sample, 17 (31.5%) individuals reported that they had attended the rape prevention program; and 37 (68.5%) students reported that they did not. Of those who participated in the program, 12 (66.7%) found the program to be beneficial, while 5 (33.4%) students reported that they did not.

Along with participation in prevention programs, past victimization may influence rape myth acceptance among students in the sample. Table 7 provides data on sample respondents who reported being a victim of a crime (i.e., assault, theft). It also shows the percent of victims who are men and women. For this sample, 182 (29.1%) students reported being a victim of a crime, while 443 (70.9%) students reported that they have not been a victim. The data on gender of these victims indicate that 77 (12.3%) students are men, and 105 (16.8%) students are women. If a respondent reported being a victim of a crime, s/he was asked about the perpetrator. A total of 70 (38.3%) were victimized by a stranger, 90 (49.2%) knew their perpetrator, and 23 (12.6%) selected the option on the survey that stated “Do not know”. If a respondent selected “Do not know,” it is interpreted that the respondent did not know who the perpetrator was. In brief, the

perpetrator could have been a stranger or an acquaintance, but the respondent was unable or unwilling to indicate who it was.

Table 7:

Frequency of victimization experiences of sample respondents (N=615)

Variable	N	Percentage %
Victim of Crime		
Yes	182	29.1
No	443	70.9
Male Victims		
Yes	77	12.3
No	158	25.3
Female Victims		
Yes	105	16.8
No	285	45.6
Perpetrator of Crime		
Stranger	70	38.3
Someone you knew	90	49.2
Do not know	23	12.6
Knew a Victim of a Crime		
Yes	481	77.0
No	144	23.0
Perpetrator of Crime		
Stranger	194	40.2
Someone they knew	213	44.2
Do not know	75	15.6
Victim of a Sexual Crime		
Yes	140	22.4
No	485	77.6
Male Victim		
Yes	16	2.6
No	219	35.0
Female Victim		
Yes	124	19.8
No	266	42.6
Perpetrator of Crime		
Stranger	19	13.6
Someone you know	120	85.7
Do not know	1	.7
Knew a Victim of Sexual Crime		
Yes	366	58.6
No	259	41.4

Perpetrator of Crime		
Stranger	39	10.7
Someone they knew	298	81.4
Do not know	29	7.9

The students in the sample were also asked to report if they knew someone who had been a victim of crime. As indicated in Table 7, 481 (77.0%) students reported that they knew someone who was a victim of a crime and 144 (23.0%) did not. With regard to the perpetrator, 194 (40.2%) students knew someone who had been victimized by a stranger, and 213 (44.2%) reported that the victim knows who the perpetrator was. By contrast, 75 (15.6%) students did not know the victim's perpetrator and selected, "Do not know".

In addition to being a victim of a crime, sample respondents were asked if they have ever been a victim of a sexual crime during their lifetime. This could include any measure of sexual contact from unwanted touching to forced sexual intercourse. Table 7 shows the number of students who report having been sexually victimized in this study, the gender of the victim, and who the perpetrator was. In this sample, 140 (22.4%) students indicated that they have been a victim of a sexual crime, and 485 (77.6%) have not been a victim. This is lower than the rate that Suarez and Gadalla (2010) reported in their meta-analysis; they found the average rate of victimization was 33%. Of the 140 victims, 16 (2.6%) were men and 124 (19.8%) were women. In regard to the perpetrators of the sexual crimes, 19 (13.6%) were strangers, 120 (85.7%) were acquaintances, and 1 (.7%) were unknown to the victims.

In addition, the sample participants were asked if they knew someone who had been a victim of a sexual crime. Table 7 shows the number of student respondents who knew someone who was a victim of a sexual crime and the perpetrator. In this sample, 366 (58.6%) students reported that they knew someone who was a victim of a sexual crime, while 259 (41.4%)

students did not know a victim. Of the 366 students who knew a victim of a sexual crime, 39 (10.7%) students stated the perpetrator was a stranger, 298 (81.4%) reported their friend/acquaintance was victimized by someone s/he knew, and 29 (7.9%) reported that the victim did not know or did not reveal who the perpetrator was.

T-Test

The first of three bivariate analyses conducted in this study utilized the t-test which allows conclusions to be made about the differences between two variables (Bachman & Paternoster, 2004). Independent sample t-tests were conducted to determine if a significant relationship existed between the independent variables and the dependent variable, rape myth acceptance. The variables included in the t-tests were gender, membership in a social fraternity, membership in an honorary fraternity, membership in a service fraternity, membership on a sports team, being a victim of a crime, knowing someone who was a victim of a crime, being a victim of a sexual crime, knowing someone who was a victim of a sexual crime, and the combined major variable, social science major versus non-social science major. Each of these variables was analyzed in separate t-tests. Table 8 demonstrates the T values and significance levels of each independent variable.

Table 8:

T-test analysis of gender, type of Greek organization, victimization, sport membership, and social science major (N=615)

Independent Variable		N	M	SD	*t*
Gender:	Male	232	105.21	29.518	-8.601***
	Female	383	85.70	25.798	
Member of Social	Yes	63	89.40	28.825	1.065
	No	552	93.48	28.831	
Member of Service	Yes	36	81.97	26.644	2.387*

	No	579	93.75	28.845	
Member of Honorary	Yes	72	89.76	25.308	1.032
	No	543	93.50	29.262	
Victim of Crime	Yes	181	90.04	28.413	1.681
	No	434	94.32	28.946	
Know Victim of Crime	Yes	475	92.59	28.778	.739
	No	140	94.64	29.068	
Victim of Sexual Crime	Yes	138	84.41	26.280	4.050***
	No	477	95.56	29.080	
Know Victim Sexual Crime	Yes	360	89.83	28.048	3.324***
	No	255	97.62	29.364	
Sports Membership	Yes	50	105.28	26.862	-3.149**
	No	565	91.98	28.775	
Social Science Major	Yes	115	87.87	32.294	2.147*
	No	500	94.87	27.876	

*sig at the p <.05 level **sig at p<.01 level ***sig at p < .001 level

Note: Yes=1, No-0

For gender, the probability of error (p) was significant at the .001 level (.000). This suggests that there is a significant difference between men and women when rape myth acceptance is considered. The t-test results indicate a 19.51 average point difference on the Illinois Rape Myth Scale, IRMAS, between male (M=105.21, SD=29.518) and female students (M=85.70, SD=25.798), t (613) = -8.601, p =.000 respondents with a 95% confidence interval of -23.958 and -15.051. On average, men will score 19.51 points higher than women on IRMAS. These data suggest that men adhere to rape myths to a greater extent than women.

Another significant variable was membership in a service fraternity with p= .017. Again, there is a significant difference on the IRMAS between those students in a service fraternity (M=81.97, SD=26.644) and those who are not (M=93.75, SD=28.845), t (613) =2.387, p=.017 in regard to their level of rape myth acceptance. The mean difference between those in a service fraternity and those who are not in a service fraternity is 11.78 points with a 95% confidence interval of 2.088 and 21.467. This analysis suggests that those students in a service fraternity scored lower on the IRMAS than those who are not in a service fraternity. This could be due to

the type of individual service organizations' appeal compared to other types of Greek organizations.

Hypothesis seven stated that there is a difference in the level of rape myth acceptance between respondents who engage in contact and non-contact sports. For this particular analysis, the variable had to be dichotomized because not enough of the sample respondents were members of a contact sport versus members of a non-contact sport. Therefore, it is not possible to assess if there is a difference between types of sport, but only if there is a difference between those who play a sport and those who do not.

However, membership on a sports team was statistically significant at $p = .002$. This analysis indicates that there is a significant difference between those individuals who are on a sports team (M=105.28, SD=26.862) and those who are not (M=91.98, SD=28.775), t (613) =-3.149, p=.002 on the IRMAS. The mean difference between sample respondents who are members of a varsity sports team compared to those who are not is 13.3 points on the IRMAS with a 95% confidence interval of -21.596 and -5.007. Sample respondents who are members of a sports team score higher on the IRMAS than those who are not; i.e., they have a higher level of rape myth acceptance.

The victimization variables were measured by identifying whether the respondent was a victim of a sexual crime and knew a victim of a sexual crime. Both of these variables were statistically significant. The variable "been a victim of a sexual crime" was significant with p=.000, and the variable "knowing a victim of a sexual crime" was significant at p=.001. Specifically, individuals who have been a victim of a sexual crime (M=84.41, SD=26.280) scored significantly different on the IRMAS than those who have not been a victim (M=95.56,

SD=29.080), *t* (613) =4.050, p=.000. The mean difference between being a victim of a sexual crime and not is 11.15 points on the IRMAS with a 95% confidence interval of 5.743 and 16.555.

In addition, those sample respondents who knew a victim of a sex crime (M=89.83, SD=28.048) were also found to be statistically different on the IRMAS from those who did not know a victim (M=97.62, SD=29.364), *t* (613) = 3.324, *p* =.001. The mean difference between knowing a victim of a sex crime and not is 7.79 points on the IRMAS with a 95% confidence interval of 3.185 and 12.380.

Surprisingly, the relationship between rape myth acceptance and the variables, being a victim of a sexual crime and knowing a sexual crime victim, is in the opposite direction than the literature suggests (Baugher et al., 2010; Gover et al., 2008; Katz et al., 2010; Pazzani, 2007; White & Smith, 2009). Based on those studies, it would be assumed that those that have been exposed to prior sexual victimization, personally or vicariously, would have a higher rape myth acceptance level. This is because there is a high risk of re-victimization of sexual crime victims. The current study found that respondents who identified themselves as a prior victim of a sexual crime scored 11.15 points lower than those respondents who were not victims of a sexual crime on the IRMAS, and 7.79 points lower if the sample respondent knew a sexual crime victim. In brief, this finding should be explored in future research. These preliminary findings also suggest that being a victim of a sexual crime and knowing a victim of a sexual crime are related to the respondent's level of rape myth acceptance. Possible explanations for this finding will be discussed in Chapter V.

The last significant variable at the *p* = .05 level was the combination variable, "social science major." There is a significant difference between being a social science major (M=87.87, SD=32.294) and not being a social science major (M=94.25, SD=27.876), *t* (613) =2.147, *p*

=.032 on the IRMAS. The mean difference on the IRMAS between being a social science major and not being a social science major is 6.38 points on the IRMAS with a 95% confidence interval between .545 and 12.223.

The social science variable was then recoded and ANOVA was conducted to determine the difference among the four majors that were included in the social science variable (i.e., Criminology, Psychology, Political Science, and Sociology/Anthropology). Each social science major was compared against the other social science majors (N=115). The ANOVA analysis found that the social science variables were not statistically significant with a *p* value of .176 and F statistic of 1.678. This suggests that the social science majors are not significantly different from one another when predicting rape myth acceptance. Therefore, it is acceptable to code the social science variable dichotomously (yes/no).

The variables, gender, membership in a service fraternity, being a victim of a sexual crime, knowing a victim of a sexual crime, sports membership, and being a social science major, all were found to be significant. Therefore, they will be included in the hierarchical multiple regression model. However, variables that were not significant in the t-tests will not be included in further analysis. The following variables did not have a significant relationship with rape myth acceptance in the sample. Membership in a social fraternity failed to be statistically significant between those respondents who were members (M=89.40, SD=28.825) and those who were not (M=93.48, SD=28.831), t (613) =1.065, p =.288. This analysis suggests that hypothesis eight, which predicted that individuals in a social fraternity would score higher on the IRMAS than those who are not, should be rejected. Also, the current results contradict two previously cited studies (Gage, 2008; Humphrey & Kahn, 2000), which found that type of Greek organization would be significant.

In addition, being a member of an honorary fraternity was not significant. Specifically, the scores of individuals in an honorary fraternity (M=89.76, SD=25.308) were not statistically significant when compared to those who were not members (M=93.50, SD=29.262), *t* (613) =1.032, *p* =.302. The only Greek membership variable that was significant was being a member of a service fraternity. However, the Greek membership variables need to be interpreted with caution because only 5.8% of the sample respondents reported membership in a service fraternity, 11.8% were members of an honorary fraternity, and 10.7% were members of a social fraternity.

Two other variables were not significant at the .05 level: being a victim of a crime and knowing someone who was a victim of a crime. The variables, being a victim of a crime and knowing a victim of a crime, were not significant at p=.093 and p=.460 respectively. In brief, being a victim of a crime was not significant in this analysis. However, being a victim of a sexual crime and knowing a victim of a sexual crime were both significant in this study ($p_{=.}$ 000, p= .001).

Analysis of Variance

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a "statistical approach for examining group differences on a quantitatively measured dependent variable" (Miethe & Gauthier, 2008, p. 216). It will determine "whether knowledge of group membership helps explain variation in the dependent variable" (Miethe & Gauthier, 2008, p. 226). One-way ANOVA was conducted with each of the independent variables after the t-tests were completed to test variables with three or more response categories. These variables included year in school, political affiliation, living arrangements, race, and major. The significant variables from the ANOVA included a post-hoc test to determine differences between response categories. The Tukey's post-hoc analysis was

used in this study. This test allows the researcher to determine if there is a significant relationship, and where the biggest difference between categories occurs (Tukey, 1977). Table 9 illustrates the significance levels and F statistic from the ANOVA.

The variables that were not significant in the ANOVA were living arrangements and race. The variable, living arrangements, was not significant at the .05 level with a p= .141 and an F statistic of 1.830. This suggests that different living arrangements among college students in this study do not affect their level of rape myth acceptance. Whether students live on campus, off campus, or commute from home does not appear to make a difference.

Race was not significant at the .05 level with a p value of .905 and a F statistic of .100. Specifically, there was no difference between students' race and their level of rape myth acceptance. As a result, both hypotheses two and five were rejected. This finding is contrary to the literature which suggests race can influence rape myth acceptance (Pazzani, 2007; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010).

The sample respondent's reported year in school, political affiliation, and choice of major were all significant at the .05 level. However, none of the scales had strong statistical power in the Eta Squared statistic. Year in school was significant with a p=.018 and an F statistic of 3.381. This suggests that there is a difference between years in school and level of rape myth acceptance. Specifically, depending on which year the student respondent reports s/he is influences his/her score on the IRMAS. The Tukey's post-hoc test showed that the biggest difference was found between freshman year and junior year (sig. = .046). This finding suggests there is a difference in level of rape myth acceptance between students who are freshmen and juniors with a mean difference of 13.456. In brief, freshmen scored 13.456 points higher on

average on the IRMAS than students in their junior year of college, meaning that freshmen in this sample reported higher levels of rape myth acceptance than juniors.

Political affiliation was significant with a *p* value of .000 and F statistic of 9.971. Students who identify with conservative and liberal groups demonstrated the most significant differences on the IRMAS. The Tukey's post-hoc test showed that the biggest difference in political affiliation was between conservative and liberal affiliations with a significance level of .000 and a mean difference of 10.823 points. The other difference was between liberals and those respondents who selected the "other" category with a .003 significance level and mean difference of 9.680 points. Students who marked "other" might have no political affiliation, or could perceive themselves as neutral, independents, or they may have chosen not to disclose their affiliation.

The final variable that was significant was choice of major. Previous analysis determined that being a social science major was statistically significant. Therefore, further tests were conducted to determine if specific majors were significant when predicting rape myth acceptance. The ANOVA found that major was significant with a *p* value of .000 and F statistic of 2.248. The Tukey's post-hoc test illustrated that the biggest difference in majors was between Business majors and Education majors with a significance level of .000 with a mean difference of 21.560 points (SD=4.236), with Business majors scoring higher on the IRMAS. Another significant difference was between Business majors and Psychology majors with a significance level of .038 with a mean difference of 22.868 points (SD=6.110), with Business majors scoring higher on the IRMAS. These findings suggest that Business majors vary the most from other majors.

Once again, the choice of major variable was recoded to include only the social science majors (Criminology, Psychology, Political Science, and Sociology/Anthropology) to determine if there is a significant difference between the four social science majors. The ANOVA determined that that the model was not significant with a *p* value of .176. As a result, being identified as a social science major was not statistically significant when predicting the student's score on the IRMAS.

Table 9:

Analysis of the variance of independent variables

Variable	F statistic	Eta^2	Significance level
Year in School	3.381	.000	.018*
Political Affiliation	9.971	.001	.000***
Living Arrangements	1.830	.001	.141
Race	.100	.006	.905
Major	2.248	.001	.000***

*sig at the $p<.05$ level**sig at $p < .01$ level ***sig at $p < .001$ level

Correlations

The next analysis conducted involved correlations to determine if a relationship existed between the independent variables and the dependent variable and the strength of that relationship (Miethe & Gauthier, 2008, p.235). Specifically, correlations were utilized to determine if the variables, lifestyle scale, Dating Behavior Scale, and the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale, had a significant relationship with rape myth acceptance. Table 10 shows the findings of the bivariate correlation. All the scores on these three instruments were significantly related to the dependent variable, rape myth acceptance. The Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale was significant at the .000 level; the Dating Behavior Scale was significant at the .006 level; and the lifestyle scale was significant at the .020 level. For each of

the scales, the higher the respondent scored on the scale, the higher his/her reported level of rape myth acceptance.

Pearson's Correlation or the correlation coefficient (*r*) indicates strength and direction of the relationship. The closer the *r* value is to one, the stronger the relationship (Miethe & Gauthier, 2008, p.239). The Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale had the strongest positive relationship with the dependent variable, rape myth acceptance score. This means that when the respondent's score on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale increases, the score on the IRMAS will increase as well. Specifically, a higher score on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale means that the respondent agreed with statements indicative of patriarchal values. For example, "Mothers should encourage their daughters to seek a career just as they do their sons." This correlation is relatively strong with an *r* value of .444, making it the strongest of the three scales. By contrast, the *r* value for the Dating Behavior Scale was .111 and the lifestyle choice scale was .094.

The Dating Behavior Scale correlation indicated a somewhat weaker positive relationship with rape myth acceptance. Again, this correlation demonstrates that a higher score on the DBS was related to a higher score on the IRMAS. A higher score on the DBS means that the sample respondent engages in more dangerous dating behaviors than respondents who score lower on the scale. The strength of the relationship is not strong with an *r* value of .111. Finally, the lifestyle score had the weakest positive relationship of the three scales with the dependent variable, rape myth acceptance. This correlation suggests that the higher the score on the Lifestyle scale, the higher the score on the IRMAS as well. This relationship is extremely weak with an *r* value of only .094. However, all variables were significantly related to the respondent's rape myth acceptance score.

Table 10:

Correlations between scale variables and rape myth acceptance

Variable	Correlation Coefficient (*r*)	Significance Level
Patriarchal-Attitude Gendered Schema	.444	.000***
Dating Behavior Scale	.111	.006**
Lifestyle Score	.094	.020*

*sig at the $p<.05$ level**sig at $p<.01$ level ***sig at $p<.001$ level

Bivariate Correlation

Bivariate correlation analyses were also conducted with all independent variables to determine if there were any multicollinearity issues. Multicollinearity is when independent variables are highly correlated with each other (Bachman & Paternoster, 2004, p. 511). It is important to select independent variables that are strongly related to the dependent variable, rape myth acceptance, but not to each other (Bachman & Paternoster, 2004, p. 511). The general rule is to have the Pearson Correlation less than .8. This would mean that there is no multicollinearity issue if the Pearson Correlation for all variables is less than .8. The highest Pearson Correlation (.450) was between living arrangements and year in school. Overall, there is no multicollinearity issue with this model. The results of the bivariate correlation are in Table 11.

Table 11:

Bivariate Correlations

Variable	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**	**13**	**14**	**15**	**16**	**17**	**18**
1 Year in School	-	.099*	.058	.023	.450***	.089*	.086*	.096*	.160***	.079*	.081*	.104**	-.095*	.065	-.084*	-.015	.010*	-.103*
2 Race		---	-.017	.008	-.018	-.022	.063	-.089*	.018	.057	.085*	-.001	.036	.034	.018	.101*	-.007	-.002
3 Gender			---	.000	.099*	-.020	-.050	-.046	.062	.056	-.290***	-.118**	.036	.034	.301**	.057	-.070	.328***
4 Political affil				---	-.083*	-.019	.027	.020	.005	.001	.033	.045	-.057	.009	-.082*	.031	.099*	-.036
5 Living Arrgmts					---	.023	-.079*	.063	.108*	.047	.050	.078	-.109**	.009	-.070	-.135***	-.033	-.069
6 Social Member						---	.027	.005	.043	.027	-.022	.014	-.045	-.002	-.027	.218***	.032	-.043
7 Service Member							---	.060	-.007	-.044	-.001	-.001	.002	.024	-.110**	.017	-.078	-.096*
8 Honor Member								---	-.003	-.026	-.004	-.018	-.054	-.018	-.094*	-.029	-.052	-.042
9 Victim of Crime									---	.326***	.222***	.110**	.066	.068	-.053	.137***	.033	-.068
10 Know a Victim										---	.121**	.311***	.038	.064	-.001	.113**	.050	-.030
11 Victim Sex Crime											---	.281***	-.090*	-.027	-.145***	.073	.091*	-.161***
12 Know Victim Sex Crime												---	.002	.031	-.165***	.063	.046	-.133***
13 Sports Member													---	-.036	.043	.021	.007	.126**
14 Social Science														---	.021	.037	.011	-.086*
15 PS score															---	.040	.061	.444***
16 LS score																---	.401*	.094*
17 DBS score																	---	.111**
18 IRMAS score																		---

*Sig at $p<.05$ level **sig at $p < .01$ level ***sig at $p < .001$ level N=615

Hierarchical Multiple Regression

Multiple regression is utilized to determine the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable (Bachman & Paternoster, 2004). Hierarchical multiple regression allows the model to control for significant variables at the previous step (Lee et al., 2008). The hierarchical regression for this analysis identified the predictive strength of demographic variables, victimization variables, patriarchal scale variables, dating behaviors, and lifestyle variables on rape myth acceptance (Lee et al., 2008). After the significant variables were established by the bivariate analyses, those variables were used in the hierarchical multiple regression to determine which factors had the most influence on rape myth acceptance in the undergraduate student sample. The significant variables include: demographic variables (gender, membership in a service fraternity, membership on a varsity sports team, year in school, political affiliation, and being a social science major), victimization variables (victim of a sexual crime, knowing a victim of a sexual crime), and lifestyle/attitude variables (score on lifestyle scale, score on Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale, and score on the Dating Behavior Scale).

Changes in the model were explored at each step in the hierarchical multiple regression. Only significant variables were included in the following step and were controlled for in each of the following blocks (Lee et al., 2008). At each step, insignificant variables are removed from the model. Results of the hierarchical multiple regression are in Table 12.

The R-squared statistic represents how much variance in the dependent variable is explained by the independent variables (Bachman & Paternoster, 2004). The R squared for the final model was .278. This means that the variables can explain 27.8% of the variance when predicting rape myth acceptance. This leaves much of the variance unexplained. This finding is important to consider when interpreting the results for the study.

Table 12:

Rape myth acceptance predicted by demographic, victimization, and lifestyle variables

Unstandardized coefficient (standardized coefficient)

Variable	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7
Gender	19.686 (.331)***	20.698 (.348)***	20.962 (.353)***	20.559 (.346)***	19.924 (.335)***	13.744 (.231)***	14.312 (.241)***
Social Science Major		-9.759 (-132)***	-9.232 (-.125)***	-8.991 (-121)***	-8.726 (-.118)**	-8.487 (-.115)***	-8.624 (-.117)***
Year in School			-2.494 (-.108)**	-2.319 (-.101)**	-2.125 (-.092)*	-1.390 (-.060)	-1.451 (-.063)
Sports Membership				9.334 (.088)*	9.624 (.091)*	9.198 (.087)**	9.030 (.085)**
Know a Victim of Sexual Crime					-4.635 (-.079)*	-1.992 (-.034)	-2.369 (-.040)
Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale Score						2.839 (.362)***	2.748 (.350)***
Dating Behavior Score							.327 (.101)**
Model R^2 (Adjusted R^2)	.110 (.108)	.127 (.124)	.138 (.134)	.146 (.140)	.152 (.145)	.268 (.261)	.278 (.269)

*Sig at p<.05 level **sig at p < .01 level ***sig at p < .001 level N=615

Table 12 illustrates the independent variables that were significant in the model. The final model shows that 5 independent variables were significant when predicting rape myth acceptance among undergraduate students. Specifically, gender (p=.000), social science major (p=.001), sports membership (p=.015), Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale score (p=.000), and Dating Behavior Scale score (p=.004) were all found to be significant when predicting level of rape myth acceptance. Men, non-social science majors, athletes, higher scores on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale, and higher scores on the Dating Behavior Scale were all associated with a higher score on the IRMAS, measuring rape myth acceptance.

The most influential variable from the hierarchical multiple regression models was the score on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale with a Beta of .350. This means that for every one point increase on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale there would be an increase on the

IRMAS by 2.748. In brief, those respondents who adhere to more patriarchal views such as believing that men are better natural born leaders than women will score higher on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale. The analysis indicated that a higher score on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale is related to a higher score on the IRMAS.

The second most influential variable was gender with a Beta of .241. Again, if the sample respondent were a male student, his score on the IRMAS increased by an average of 14.312 points on the IRMAS. Briefly, male students had significantly higher IRMAS scores than female undergraduate students in the sample.

The other significant variables were being a social science major (p=.-001, beta=--.117), score on Dating Behavior Scale (p=.004, beta=.101), and being on a sports team (p=.015, beta=.085). Each of these variables had a significant influence on the level of rape myth acceptance. Specially, non-social science majors, a higher score on the DBS, and being an athlete were all associated with a higher score on the IRMAS.

Logistic Regression

One area of concern with rape prevention programs on this particular campus was the attendance at the "required" prevention program offered during orientation. Table 6 demonstrated the number of sample respondents who reported attending the prevention program during orientation. Of the 615 sample respondents, only 360 or 57% reported that they attended the program. Since it is intended to be a requirement of the orientation program, this number is extremely low. As a result, students who should have had prior exposure to information related to rape myths at the orientation prevention program have not. Conversely, student respondents may have forgotten that they attended such a program. This is a problem when strategies such as a freshmen or transfer orientation prevention program may be the only means of accessing the student population during their college career.

To address this issue, the current study utilized a logistic regression model to determine if any of the significant factors from the analysis were influential on whether students attended the prevention program during orientation. Logistic regression is used to "predict the probability that a case will be classified into one as opposed to the other of the two categories of the dependent variable" (Menard, 2002, p. 12). Logistic regression allowed the researcher to determine the relationship between a dichotomous dependent variable and multiple independent variables (Liao, 1994).

In this case, the dependent variable is attendance at the prevention program (yes/no). The independent variables that were included in the logistic regression model were the variables that would found to be significant in the hierarchical regression model (e.g., Patriarchal-Attitude Gendered Schema scale score, gender, sports membership, social science major, and Dating Behavior Scale score). This allowed conclusions to be made that if the variables that were the most significant when predicting rape myth acceptance were also influential in predicting whether someone would have attended the prevention program. Table 13 illustrates the results of the logistic regression.

Table 13:

Logistic regression results for attendance at prevention program (N=615)

Variable	B	S.E.	Exp (B)
Gender	-.442	.186	.643*
Rape Myth Score	-.001	.003	.999
SportsMembership	.402	.313	1.494
Patriarchal Score	-.043	.026	.958
DBS Score	-.005	.009	.995
Social Science	.066	.217	1.068
Constant	1.400	.539	4.056
Cox/Snell R^2	.024		
Nagelkerke R^2	.033		

* p < .05, **p<.01, ***p < .0001

As a result of the logistic regression model, only one variable was found to be statistically significant. That variable was gender. Based on the findings of the model, the odds of attending the

rape prevention program required during orientation, decreased by 44.2% if the sample respondent was a male student. This is important to identify for policy recommendations because program coordinators and administrators can address this issue in the future.

Research Hypotheses

A summary table of research questions and hypotheses with results is included in Appendix F.

Research Question 1: Which demographic characteristics of college students influence their level of rape myth acceptance?

The first research question included multiple hypotheses regarding the demographic data of the student sample. The hypotheses were: men will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance than women; non-white students will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance than whites; students with a conservative political affiliation will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students with liberal political affiliations; choice of major will influence level of rape myth acceptance; students living in off-campus apartments or housing will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students who live in dormitories on campus; and juniors and seniors are more likely to exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to sophomores and freshmen. When a higher level of rape myth acceptance is exhibited, the sample respondent scored higher on the IRMAS. Therefore, s/he indicates stronger agreement with the false, stereotypical, or prejudicial statements about rape that are included in the scale.

The first hypothesis that men would exhibit a higher rape myth acceptance level was derived from the literature (Caron & Carter, 1997; Currier & Carlson, 2009; Heppner et al., 1995; Hockett et al., 2009; Suarez & Gallada, 2010; White & Kurpius, 1999). The t-test results for this sample supported this hypothesis illustrating that men have a higher rape myth acceptance. Once the difference between gender was identified, it was then included in the regression model. In the regression analysis, gender was found to be the second most influential variable in the regression

model. Specifically, being a male or female student respondent can affect the sample respondent's score on the IRMAS.

The second hypothesis stated that non-white students would have a higher rape myth acceptance than white students. Again, this hypothesis was developed from the current literature (Nagel, et al., 2005; Pazzani, 2007; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). However, the results from the ANOVA indicated that race was not a significant variable. In brief, there is no difference in the sample between races in relation to level of rape myth acceptance.

The third hypothesis focused on political affiliation and suggested that political affiliation would influence rape myth acceptance. Specifically, those with a conservative affiliation would have a higher rape myth acceptance than those with liberal affiliations. The results of the analysis indicated that political affiliation was significant in influencing rape myth acceptance. Specifically, respondents who identified with a conservative political affiliation scored higher on the IRMAS. As a result, the variable was included in the regression analysis. However, the final regression model showed that political affiliation was not significant when all variables were considered. Therefore, political affiliation did not have a significant impact on level of rape myth acceptance.

The fourth hypothesis examined being a social science major and its influence on rape myth acceptance. It predicted that being a social science major would result in lower rape myth acceptance. In the analyses conducted, the t-test indicated that being a social science major was significant. Choice of major was found to be significant on the IRMAS as well in the ANOVA. Specifically, Business majors had the biggest difference on the IRMAS compared to both Education and Psychology majors.

The fifth hypothesis stated that students living off campus would exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance than those living on campus. This variable, off campus housing, was not significant in the ANOVA test. This will also be discussed in Chapter V.

The last hypothesis related to research question one stated that year in school would influence rape myth acceptance. Specifically, upper-class students (juniors and seniors) would exhibit higher

rape myth acceptance. The analysis found that year in school was statistically significant. The biggest difference was between freshmen and juniors, with freshmen scoring 13.456 points higher on the IRMAS than juniors. By contrast, the difference between freshmen and seniors was close to significance with a *p* level of .074 and a mean difference of 6.851 points. This finding suggests that hypothesis six should be rejected, since juniors and seniors did not exhibit a higher rape myth acceptance score.

Research Question 2: Does group membership in college influence the level of rape myth acceptance among college students?

Research question two was developed from the literature suggesting that group membership, such as Greek organization and athletic teams, can influence rape myth acceptance among college students (DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 1998; Sanday, 1996). The hypotheses associated with this research question are: Students who participate in a contact sport will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students who participate in a non-contact sport; and students who are members of a social fraternity/sorority will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students in a service or honor fraternity/sorority.

Hypothesis seven stated that students who participated in a contact sport will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to those who participate in non-contact sports. The survey instrument asked respondents to indicate which type of sport they participated in (i.e., contact vs. no-contact). Unfortunately, there were not enough respondents who identified themselves as playing a contact versus a non-contact sport. Therefore, that category was collapsed. The analysis was conducted by demonstrating whether respondents were members of a varsity sport (yes/no). The t-test showed that membership on a sports team was statistically significant. The regression model illustrated that sports membership was the third most influential variable when predicting rape myth acceptance. Those respondents who are members of a varsity sports team have a higher level of rape

myth acceptance compared to those respondents who are not members of a sports team. However, there is no way to differentiate the type of sports that the respondent was associated with in this study.

Hypothesis eight predicted that students who were members of a social Greek organization would have a higher level of rape myth acceptance than those in a service or honorary fraternity/sorority. The analysis showed that the only Greek membership variable that was significant was being a member of a service fraternity/sorority. This is contrary to the current literature which found that type of Greek organizations would influence level of rape myth acceptance (Gage, 2008; Humphrey & Kahn, 2000). The t-test showed that the level of rape myth acceptance actually decreased if the respondent were a member of a service fraternity. However, the Greek organization variables must be interpreted with caution because the sample did not include a large number of individuals in each of the different types of Greek organizations. The only significant Greek organization variable, "membership in a service fraternity," was included in the regression model. However, this variable was insignificant when all other variables were considered.

Research Question 3: Do patriarchal attitudes affect rape myth acceptance?

Research question three was associated with the hypothesis that student respondents who scored higher on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale would have a higher level of rape myth acceptance. The bivariate correlations indicated that the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale had the most significant relationship with rape myth acceptance when compared to all the scales used in the study. In the regression, the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale was the most significant variable when predicting rape myth acceptance. Specifically, for every one point increase on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale, there would be an increase on the IRMAS by 2.729. Those respondents who scored higher (agreed with more Patriarchal values, such as believing that the father should be the breadwinner of the family) on the scale would also score higher on the IRMAS. In sum, the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale variable is the most influential when attempting to predict rape myth acceptance from this student sample of respondents.

The Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale was used to measure the level of agreement respondents had with patriarchal values. This may be related to gender role socialization. For example, individuals could be socialized to believe that men should be the sole provider of the family. Some of the literature suggests that individuals with a more patriarchal view will be more likely to excuse a male perpetrator's actions in a rape compared to those who do not have strong patriarchal views (Burt, 1980; Garrett-Gooding & Senter, 1987; Yamawaki, 2007). This finding will be discussed in Chapter V.

Research Question 4: Do students who have prior experience with victimization have higher rape myth acceptance?

The fourth research question stated that individuals who have been previously victimized are more likely to be sexually victimized or re-victimized in the future (Baugher et al., 2010; Gover et al., 2008; Katz et al., 2010; Pazzani, 2007; White & Smith, 2009). Hypothesis ten stated that students who have experienced personal victimization will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students who have not experienced any personal victimization. In this study, the hypothesis was considered through two different questions. The first measure asked respondents to indicate if they have ever been a victim of a crime (i.e., theft, assault); and the second measure inquired if they have ever been a victim of a sexual crime (i.e., unwanted touching to forced sexual intercourse).

The bivariate analysis showed that only being a victim of a sexual crime (i.e., forced sexual intercourse) was statistically significant. By contrast, sample participants who indicated that they were a victim of a crime (i.e., theft, assault) did not have responses that were statistically significant. In brief, only those respondents who had experienced some type of unwanted sexual contact were influenced in regard to their level of rape myth acceptance. For that reason, hypothesis ten was partially supported when sexual crime victimizations were examined.

The other hypothesis related to research question number four stated that students who have experienced vicarious victimization will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to

students who have not experienced vicarious victimization. Again, this was measured in two ways. Similarly, the survey asked respondents to identify if they knew a victim of a crime (i.e., theft, assault) and if they knew a victim of a sexual crime (i.e., forced sexual intercourse).

The bivariate analysis indicated that knowing a victim of a sexual crime was significant. The sample respondents who knew someone who had been a victim of unwanted sexual contact were influenced in relation to their level of rape myth acceptance. However, the regression model showed that knowing a victim of a sexual crime was not statistically significant when the other variables were considered with a *p* value of .281 (Beta=-.040). In sum, hypothesis eleven was partially supported.

Research Question 5: Which lifestyles influence students' rape myth acceptance?

The last research question is related to routine activity theory (Currier & Carlson, 2009; Flood & Pease, 2009; Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001; Meadows, 2007). The survey questions inquired about the frequency of different lifestyles of the sample. Based on the literature, college students can be at risk of becoming a victim of a sexual crime because of their lifestyle choices (Currier & Carlson, 2009; Flood & Pease, 2009; Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001; Meadows, 2007). For this reason, two hypotheses were derived from this research question. The first suggested that students who score higher on the Dating Behavior Scale will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students who do not score as high. For example, "On the first few dates, I have at times "blacked out" (lost consciousness, can't remember what happened) from drugs or alcohol." The bivariate correlation showed that the DBS score was significant. The DBS was found to be one of the influential variables in the regression model with a significance level of .006 and correlation coefficient (*r*) of .111. Even though it has a somewhat weak relationship with the dependent variable, it is still significant and was included in the analysis.

The second hypothesis related to research question five was that students' lifestyle choices are related to a higher level of rape myth acceptance. This variable was measured by a series of lifestyle questions which asked respondents to indicate how often they participated in certain behaviors. For

example, "How often do you go out to parties/bars with a group of friends and go home to someone's place that you just met that night?" The bivariate correlation showed that this was the weakest relationship among the three scales with rape myth acceptance, but it was still significant (p=.020, r= .094). However, the lifestyle variable was not significant in the regression model when all variables were included.

Summary

In conclusion, the analysis in this study consisted of t-tests, ANOVA, correlations, and hierarchical multiple regression. Each test (bivariate analyses and multiple regression) yielded significant variables that were included in the regression model. The significant variables from the t-tests were gender, membership in a service fraternity, being a victim of a sexual crime, knowing a victim of a sexual crime, being a social science major, and membership on a sports team. The significant variables from the ANOVA were year in school, choice of major, and political affiliation. The correlation analysis indicated that all three scales, the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale, Dating Behavior Scale, and lifestyle choice scale, were statistically significant. Finally, the hierarchical multiple regression model found that the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale score, gender, sports membership, being a social science major, and the Dating Behavior Scale were the most influential variables when predicting rape myth acceptance among this sample a undergraduate students.

Once the significant variables were determined, they were included in the hierarchical multiple regression model. The regression showed which variables had the most influence in predicting rape myth acceptance when all other variables were controlled. For this sample, the most influential variables were found to Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale score (p=.000, Beta=.350), gender (p=.000, Beta=.241), being a social science major (p=.001, Beta=-.117), Dating Behavior Scale score (p=.004, Beta=.101), and sports membership (p=.015, Beta=.085). In brief, the single most influential

variable when predicting rape myth acceptance among this sample of college students is their score on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale. The hierarchical regression model had an R^2 of .278. This model can explain 27.8% of the variance in the dependent variable, rape myth acceptance. This is a relatively strong R^2. However, there is a considerable amount of variance that is left unexplained. Most of the results of the analysis were consistent with the current literature. Future considerations and limitations of the study will be discussed in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to determine which factors influence rape myth acceptance among a sample of undergraduate students from a large northeastern public university. Lifestyle choices, patriarchal values, and routine activities were examined as possible factors that could influence college students' rape myth acceptance. Along with a number of demographic characteristics, specific variables were found to be significant after analyses were conducted. Independent bivariate t-tests, ANOVA tests, and correlation analyses determined which of the independent variables were significant. Once these significant variables were identified, they were included in the hierarchical multiple regression model. The significant variables in the regression model were Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale score, gender, sports membership, being a social science major, and Dating Behavior Scale score. These results will be interpreted in this chapter.

Identifying and understanding variables which influence the level of a rape myth acceptance among college students is important because the information can be used to help lower rape myth acceptance among undergraduate students and possibly prevent sexual victimization on college campuses. This study was exploratory in nature; and it examined variables that have not been considered previously in the published research. Suggestions for future research are also included in this chapter.

Discussion of Findings

The following section discusses the findings of each of the significant variables from the hierarchical multiple regression. To clarify, those variables that were found to be significant in the hierarchical multiple regression model were the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale score, gender, sports membership, being a social science major, and the Dating Behavior Scale score. These variables will be discussed in detail.

Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema

The most significant variable in the regression model was respondents' scores on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale. This finding is consistent with previous research, especially that of Burt (1980), Forbes & Adams-Curtis (2001), Forbes et al. (2004), Garrett-Gooding & Senter (1987), and Yamawaki (2007) which found that patriarchal attitudes are associated with a higher risk of victimization and possibly rape myth acceptance. A high score on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale indicates that the respondent exhibits beliefs that men should be the powerful, dominant figure in a relationship and women should be submissive and passive. For example, if a respondent scored higher on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale, s/he would be more likely to agree with statements that relate to men being in control of a situation regarding the sexual relationship between two individuals on the IRMAS. These attitudes can influence how one would respond to questions regarding rape on the IRMAS, such as "A woman who 'teases' men deserves anything that might happen."

The Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale contains items similar to traditional gender role beliefs that can exist in society. Specifically, gender socialization is related to hyper-masculinity, male peer support for sexual aggression, development of rape myths, and adversarial sexual beliefs (Carr & VanDeusen, 2004; Stephens & George, 2009). In the current study, respondents' scores on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale were the most influential when predicting rape myth acceptance. Specifically, a higher score on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale resulted in higher score on the IRMAS.

Gender

The second most influential variable was gender. Again, this finding is consistent with the previous research. Research has demonstrated that men are more likely to accept rape myths and to blame the victim (Caron & Carter, 1997; Currier & Carlson, 2009; Heppner et al., 1995; Hockett et al., 2009; Suarez & Gallada, 2010; White & Kurpius, 1999). This study found that gender was associated

with a difference in score on the IRMAS. Specifically, male undergraduate students scored significantly higher than female undergraduate students did.

The University where the study was conducted already has separate rape prevention programs for men and women available during the freshmen orientation. However, the University combines the programs for genders at the transfer student orientations. Based on the current research and the findings from this study, the University should consider separate gender programs for all orientation programs because there is a significant difference between male and female students when it comes to rape myth acceptance. Prevention programs should address the genders independently at freshmen orientation, at transfer orientation, and at various intervals during students' undergraduate career.

Social Science Major

With respect to academic major, being a social science major was a significant variable which influenced the level of rape myth acceptance. Specifically, being a social science major (i.e., Criminology, Sociology/Anthropology, Political Science and Psychology) is associated with a score that is 6.38 points lower on the IRMAS when compared to non-social science majors. This finding suggests that students in those majors are more sensitized to rape myths and have been made aware of them either prior to their college education or during it.

The existing published literature did not yield any citations pertaining to choice of major and its impact on rape myth acceptance. The current study found that being categorized a social science major can influence the student respondent's score on the IRMAS. The ANOVA also revealed that the largest difference on the IRMAS and choice of major involved Business and Education and Psychology. Specifically, Business majors scored significantly higher on the IRMAS than Education and Psychology Majors. The current study was only able to explore choice of major as a significant variable and it is suggested that more research focus on this variable in relation to its influence on undergraduate students' level of rape myth acceptance.

Dating Behavior Scale

The Dating Behavior Scale was another significant variable in the regression model. This finding was consistent with the current literature that found that an individual's choices and actions on dates can lead him/her to potentially dangerous situations. Specifically, college students can be more at risk of being a victim of a crime compared to the general population (Currier & Carlson, 2009; Flood & Pease, 2009; Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001; Meadows, 2007). The DBS focused on actions that could expose students to situations that could result in sexual victimization.

This scale can be used to identify students who would be more likely to engage in activities that might put them in potentially dangerous situations during their college career (i.e., drinking alcohol excessively on dates with a new boyfriend or girlfriend). Prevention strategies can be developed that could help students recognize such choices early to reduce the risk of sexual victimization. The scale is one technique to identify which students may benefit from specific information that is pertinent to their lifestyles.

Since this study was not conducted longitudinally, it is difficult to determine if the DBS scale score would influence the score of the IRMAS or if the IRMAS score influenced the respondent's score on the DBS. As a result, it can only be concluded that there is a correlation between the two variables and not a causal relationship. Future research can attempt to determine which actions/beliefs occur first among undergraduate students by conducting a longitudinal study that focuses on these specific dating behaviors.

Sports Membership

Membership on a varsity sports team was the last variable that was statistically significant when predicting rape myth acceptance in this study. This finding was consistent with the literature (Boeringer, 1999; DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 1998; Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001; Jackson, Veneziano, & Riggen, 2004; Lanza-Kaduce et al., 2006; Martin & Hummer, 1989; Sanday, 1996) which found a positive relationship between sports team membership and rape myth acceptance. Sports teams can

provide an environment for aggressive individuals. Sanday (1996) discussed how rape-prone cultures can influence attitudes and opportunities for sexually aggressive behavior. These behaviors can occur in different groups that attract like-minded individuals. This study found that being a member of a sports team is a strong predictor of higher rape myth acceptance.

However, it is important to remember that other studies have found mixed results between rape myth acceptance and groups, such as athletic teams (Boeringer, 1996; 1999; Brown et al., 2002; Garrett-Gooding & Senter, 1987; Humphrey & Kahn, 2000; Jackson et al., 2004; Koss & Gaines, 1993; Locke & Mahalik, 2005; Loh et al., 2005; Schwartz & Nogrady, 1996). In addition, there might be other factors such as alcohol use that are relevant to consider when interpreting studies examining athletic teams.

The original purpose of the study was to identify the difference between types of sports teams and rape myth acceptance. However, the sample did not provide enough students in each category to allow for analyses and accurate conclusions to be drawn about the different types of athletic teams (i.e., contact vs. no-contact). As a result, the categories were collapsed and conclusions were made based on membership on a sports team versus no membership. Future research should attempt to identify the difference between contact and no-contact sports membership in relation to level of rape myth acceptance.

Insignificant Variables from the Hierarchical Regression

The bivariate analyses illustrated that certain variables were significant and were included in the hierarchical multiple regression. The results of the significant variables from the regression model have already been discussed but the insignificant variables from that particular model included political affiliation, membership in a service fraternity, being a victim of a sexual crime, and lifestyle score. These variables were not significant in the regression model when all independent variables were considered.

The most surprising insignificant variable is being a victim of a sexual crime. Prior research on sexual victimization suggested that individuals are more likely to be sexually victimized if they have experienced some type of victimization previously (Baugher et al., 2010; Gover et al., 2008; Katz et al., 2010; Pazzani, 2007; White & Smith, 2009). The current research attempted to determine if victims of a sexual crime would have a higher level of rape myth acceptance than non-victims.

The bivariate analysis indicated that being a victim of a sexual crime was statistically significant. Specifically, respondents who indicated that they were a victim of a sexual crime scored lower on the IRMAS than respondents who were not a victim of a sexual crime. Therefore, it was included in the hierarchical multiple regression model. However, when all the significant independent variables were considered in the regression model, being a victim of a sexual crime was found to be insignificant and excluded from the final model of the hierarchical regression.

This finding could be interpreted in different ways. The first is that the victims in the sample received the appropriate care and treatment after their victimization and obtained important information that allowed them to heal and protect themselves from future victimization. In this case, it would be possible that the victims are well informed about sexual victimization and do not manifest false or stereotypical beliefs about rape or rape victims. Their experiences after victimization may have contributed to a lower level of rape myth acceptance.

Another possible interpretation is that not enough information was obtained from the student sample about sexual victimization. As a result, the variable was found to be insignificant but could still impact the level of rape myth acceptance associated with the victim if more specific questions were asked on the survey. For example, questions could inquire about the details surrounding the victimization, such as when it occurred, the age of the victim, the relationship to the assailant, and how many times the victimization occurred. Future research should still consider this as a possible influential variable and explore more details about sexual victimization and its relationship with rape myth acceptance.

Contrary Findings

The majority of the variables that were found to have a significant relationship with rape myth acceptance were consistent with previous research (Boeringer, 1999; Burt 1980; Caron & Carter, 1997; Currier & Carlson, 2009; DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 1998; Flood & Pease, 2009; Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001; Forbes et al., 2004; Garrett-Gooding & Senter, 1987; Heppner et al., 1995; Hockett et al., 2009; Jackson, Veneziano, & Riggen, 2004; Lanza-Kaduce et al., 2006; Meadows, 2007; Sanday, 1996; Suarez & Gallada, 2010; White & Kurpius, 1999; Yamawaki, 2007). However, past research suggests that certain variables that were included in the present study would have a significant relationship with rape myth acceptance. However, in the current study, those particular variables did not reach significance.

The independent variables that did not have a significant relationship with rape myth acceptance in the bivariate analyses, and therefore, were not included in the hierarchical regression model were: membership in a social fraternity, membership in a honorary fraternity, being a victim of a crime, knowing a victim of a crime, living arrangements, and race. The following section will discuss each of these findings.

Membership in a Social and Honorary Greek Organization

There have been conflicting results regarding membership in Greek organizations and rape myth acceptance (Boeringer, 1996; 1999; Brown et al., 2002; Garrett-Gooding & Senter, 1987; Humphrey & Kahn, 2000; Jackson et al., 2004; Koss & Gaines, 1993; Locke & Mahalik, 2005; Loh et al., 2005; Schwartz & Nogrady, 1996). Some research identified the different types of Greek organizations and their influence on level of rape myth acceptance (Gage, 2008; Humphrey & Kahn, 2000). Even though the research suggests that the type of Greek membership influences the level of rape myth acceptance, the current study did not find a significant relationship between that variable and membership in social and honorary fraternities. The only significant relationship was found to be

between rape myth acceptance and membership in a service fraternity, where individuals in a service fraternity scored lower on the IRMAS than respondents who were not in a service fraternity.

As noted previously, the results of the current study should be interpreted with caution because there were only a small number of Greek members in the student sample that was collected. This could explain why membership in the different types of Greek organizations did not have a significant relationship with rape myth acceptance.

Being a Victim of a Crime and Knowing a Victim of a Crime

The hypotheses related to the victimization variables (i.e., being a victim of a crime, knowing a victim of a crime, being a victim of a sexual crime, knowing a victim of a sexual crime) were only partially supported. Being a victim of a sexual crime and knowing a victim of a sexual crime were both significant in the bivariate analyses. However, simply being a victim of another crime and knowing a victim a crime was not significant. The current literature suggests that individuals with prior experience with victimization can be predisposed to future or repeat victimization (Baugher et al., 2010; Gover et al., 2008; Katz et al., 2010; Pazzani, 2007; White & Smith, 2009).

Experiences with victimization were predicted to influence the level of an individual's rape myth acceptance. The current study only found support for prior experience with sexual crimes. It is possible that students were not aware of the different types of crime and/or did not consider certain acts to be crimes. Therefore, they did not acknowledge being a victim of any particular crime. In addition, the questions on the survey may have been too ambiguous for students to separate the two types of victimization. As result, these results should be interpreted with caution.

Living Arrangements

Routine activities theory guided the current research. This theory states that a crime will be more likely to occur if there is a lack of a capable guardian, a suitable target, and a motivated offender (Cohen & Felson, 1979). For students living in on-campus dormitories, the chance of having suitable targets should be reduced and they should be more likely to have capable guardians because students

are assumed to be aware of their neighbors. As a result, they should be less exposed to dangerous situations and potential strangers. By contrast, students living off campus in either apartments or houses may not know their neighbors as well.

A review of the literature did not reveal any published study that examined the relationship between living arrangements of college students and level of rape myth acceptance. Future research should consider focusing on this variable. Even though the current research did not find a significant relationship between living arrangements and rape myth acceptance, it might be explored further. The current study only included one question about living arrangements. If more questions about the type of living arrangements (i.e., how long has the respondent lived there, how many roommates, whether s/he knows the neighbors) were asked, it is possible that a significant relationship might be identified.

Race

Prior research has suggested that race is an influential variable when examining rape myth acceptance (Nagel et al., 2005; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). The current study did not find a significant relationship between race and the dependent variable. One possible explanation for this finding is that the University where the study was conducted is predominately Caucasian. In brief, there were not enough minority group members in the sample. Future research should include race and some of the other insignificant variables because influential factors can vary from campus to campus.

Implications

The purpose of this study was to examine factors that influence rape myth acceptance among a sample of undergraduate students. Prior research has not focused on multiple predictor variables when examining rape myth acceptance. This study attempted to determine which variables were most significant. It is possible that this research can help inform prevention and awareness strategies on college campuses about rape myths.

This study adds to the current literature examining rape myth acceptance on college campuses. Current research typically focuses on one independent variable and rape myth acceptance (Flood &

Pease, 2009; Frese et al., 2004; Gover et al., 2008; Loh et al., 2008; Morry and Winkler, 2001; Yeater et al., 2010). This study augments the existing research by considering multiple factors and identifying which one has the most influence on the level of rape myth acceptance. Most of the findings of the study were consistent with the previous research.

The findings regarding significant variables can assist the University where the study was conducted. Specifically, the program administration can focus on those particular factors to develop strategies of prevention and awareness that are relevant for certain groups of students. For example, the study discovered that the most influential variable was the respondent's score on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale. The University could concentrate on addressing patriarchal attitudes during the administration of rape prevention programs available to the undergraduate students.

Specific Recommendations for Policy

This study was exploratory. It examined multiple variables and their relationship with rape myth acceptance. There are specific policy recommendations that can be made based on the findings of this study. However, the policy recommendations should be interpreted with caution because they are based on the findings from one particular study conducted on one college campus.

Program agenda.

One suggestion based on the findings from the current research would be to focus rape prevention programs on patriarchal attitudes. This variable was found to be the most significant variable in predicting level of rape myth acceptance among college students. If programs could tailor the topic areas to address issues related to patriarchal attitudes, universities might be able to reduce students' agreement with or support of rape myths.

For example, programs could focus on dispelling the belief that individuals may have related to men being the dominant one the in the relationship. Previous research (Burt, 1980; Garrett-Gooding & Senter, 1987, Yamawaki, 2007), as well as the current study, found that individuals who believe men should be dominant, powerful, and sexually aggressive usually have a higher level of rape myth

acceptance. If prevention programs on college campuses attempt to address beliefs such as these, it may be possible to reduce rape myth acceptance and potentially the risk of sexual victimization.

The program could also address other issues related to patriarchal attitudes. This could be achieved by discussing egalitarian lifestyles compared to patriarchy, dispelling any myths related to patriarchal attitudes, and encouraging equal responsibility in relationships. These strategies might be related to students' level of agreement with the Patriarchal-Gendered Schema Scale.

In addition to patriarchal attitudes, gender, was also a significant variable when predicting rape myth acceptance. This is currently addressed in the University's program curriculum but the present study adds related support that this is an appropriate approach when addressing rape myth acceptance. Possibly combining topics that address both gender issues and patriarchal attitudes can help improve the effectiveness of rape prevention strategies on college campuses. The current study also supports the notion that male and female students should have separate prevention programs.

Major courses.

Another significant variable that was found in the regression model was choice of major. This is another avenue that has not been explored when addressing rape myth acceptance in terms of prevention strategies. Because this is a significant influential factor, University departments should consider introducing topics that discuss issues related to rape myth acceptance as part of the speaker series as well as in class (i.e., Six O'Clock Series). The Six O'Clock Series is a program that is offered to the public that discusses one particular topic of focus. This program could focus on rape myths or sexual victimization on campus. Professors could encourage students to attend or have the speaker come to their particular classes.

The current study found that being a social science major was significantly related to a lower rape myth acceptance compared to non-social science majors. This could be related to the fact that social science majors are more sensitized or exposed to information pertaining to rape and sexual

victimization throughout their major courses. As a result, other majors should consider addressing similar topics throughout their curriculum as well.

For example, Business majors might want to incorporate an ethics course or an elective into their curriculum that addresses issues related to their particular major, as well as patriarchal attitudes, sexual assault, and victimization. This information might increase the awareness of Business majors about the topic of sexual victimization. Courses that do not typically address this topic might consider having a speaker come into the class. This might allow for the dissemination of information that can dispel rape myth acceptance.

Program attendance.

The logistic regression analysis (Table 13) indicated that the only statistically significant variable that increased the odds of attending the orientation rape prevention program is gender. From this sample, only 57% of eligible students reported that they had attended the rape prevention program. If the program is one of the main strategies the University employs to address rape myths and sexual victimization, it is important that students participate in the program. Furthermore, the findings illustrate that only slightly over half of sample respondents actually experienced the program, and that the odds of attending are significantly related to the gender of the student. Even though attendance at the rape prevention program during orientation is mandatory, it is clearly not being enforced. Furthermore, these data suggest that greater efforts to encourage participation must occur. For example, students might be precluded from other orientation activities if they do not demonstrate proof of attendance.

Since the current study has identified that gender is significantly related to attendance, program coordinators can focus on making sure that male undergraduate students are well aware that their attendance and participation at the programs are required by the University. Greater efforts have to be made to encourage full student participation. Frequent reminders about the program should help direct

students, particularly the men, to the program during orientation. Successful completion can also include an incentive like a free beverage coupon or discounts at the Student Co-Op store.

The University should consider identifying who attends the program and who does not. This can be done by having a sign in sheet at the program or using other means for taking attendance. Students who do not attend during orientation should be required to participate in the rape prevention program at another point. Until students participate in some type of form of rape prevention program, there could be a hold on their student account that prevents them from registering for classes the following semester. This strategy is used when students have parking tickets or violate other University policies. As a result, all students would be required to attend some type of prevention program prior to registering for their second semester courses. It is assumed that attendance at the summer orientation program would dramatically increase because students already have to attend orientation before starting classes in the fall semester.

It is important that students receive some type of prevention program during their college career. Since orientation is an easy way to reach students that are enrolled at the University, requiring attendance at the rape prevention program should help increase awareness about rape myths and sexual victimizations. Furthermore, ongoing programs throughout the students' baccalaureate education are essential.

Strengths and Limitations

As with most studies, there are limitations of this particular research. The first limitation of the study is the lack of generalizability of the findings to other universities. The study was conducted at a large public university in the northeast part of the United States. It is possible that the sample of students may be dramatically different than students at other universities. As a result, future research should conduct similar studies at other colleges and universities to identify which factors are influential in relation to rape myth acceptance at other campuses. This study can help inform such studies.

Another limitation of the study is that it is cross sectional in nature, thus it captures one point in a student's life. This makes it difficult to determine the causal relationships between the variables. Specifically, it is impossible to identify if the beliefs and lifestyle choices of the undergraduate students were established before or after the development of their perceptions of rape myths. This was measured by the Dating Behavior Scale. As a result, the conclusions drawn from this study about this variable can only indicate that there is a significant relationship between the two variables and that they are correlated. It is impossible to determine if the score of the DBS influenced the score of the IRMAS. Future researchers can address this limitation by conducting a longitudinal study with these variables.

A third limitation is the issue of social desirability. As noted, students may not answer the survey honestly. Social desirability occurs when respondents answer the survey questions how they think they should, rather than being candid (Maxfield & Babbie, 2008). This would bias the results and interpretations of the findings. It is possible that the sample respondents in this study selected responses they perceived to be socially desirable.

In addition to the limitations of this study, some of the variable categories (i.e., group membership in Greek organizations and type of sports team) did not have enough respondents and had to be collapsed into dichotomous variables. The original purpose of the study was to determine the difference among types of Greek organizations and types of sports team. As noted previously, the findings on the Greek organizations should be interpreted with caution because of the small number of respondents in each of the categories. Similarly, the type of sports team (contact vs. no-contact) was collapsed because there were not enough respondents in the two different categories to be included in the analysis. The dichotomous variables were still used in the analysis but their original reasons for inclusion could not be tested. Future research should focus on particular groups of students in order to achieve enough variability in the different categories and to draw conclusions about these populations of students.

One of the strengths of the study is the large sample size: there were 615 respondents. This sample was fairly representative of the student population at the University where the study was conducted. In addition, the study also included a probability sample using a random sample strategy, which allowed every student an equal chance of participation in the study. This particular strength allows for more accurate interpretations from the sample data to the University population.

The study involved an extensive survey that included multiple variables that the literature suggested as relevant. The variables identified can be easily replicated in future research. The study also included the variable, choice of major, to correlate with rape myth acceptance, which was a new direction to explore. The study adds to the current literature and suggests future research that could be conducted on similar topics. For example, exploring other possible factors that might influence students' level of rape myth acceptance or developing new strategies to design and implement rape prevention programs that address relevant and important variables.

Future Research

Throughout this chapter various suggestions have been made for future research. Possibly, the most important is to continue studying multiple variables and their influence on rape myth acceptance. Numerous variables can influence undergraduate students' level of rape myth acceptance. Furthermore, a general informational prevention strategy may not always work as effectively as it should. By examining the student population at a particular school, factors can be identified that can help tailor programs to be "school-specific". These programs may be able to eliminate or reduce rape myth acceptance among undergraduate students. In this study, a respondent's score on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale was the most influential when predicting rape myth acceptance. As a result, this University should focus on this variable. Other campuses may identify alternative factors that are influential.

The current study determined that 27.8% of the variance is explained by the variables included in the analysis. This leaves 72.2% unexplained. Possible explanations might include other demographic

factors like students' hometown (whether it is urban, rural, or suburban), religious affiliations (denomination and frequency of participation in religious activities), number of sexual partners or prior sexual experiences, nature of work experience, and academic standing (GPA). Additional influential factors could also be parents' occupation, parents' level of education, socioeconomic status, or frequency of victimization. These factors might further explain students' level of rape myth acceptance.

Even though this study did not find a significant relationship between different Greek organizations, this population of students can be considered in future prevention and awareness strategies. Prior research suggested that there is a difference between the types of Greek organizations (i.e., social, service and honorary) and sports membership (contact vs. non-contact) in regard to their level of rape myth acceptance, but the results have been inconsistent (Boeringer, 1996; 1999; Brown et al., 2002; Gage, 2008; Garrett-Gooding & Senter, 1987; Humphrey & Kahn, 2000; Jackson et al., 2004; Koss & Gaines, 1993; Locke & Mahalik, 2005; Loh et al., 2005; Schwartz & Nogrady, 1996). Researchers can continue to examine these populations of college students. If they conduct a study with a larger number of Greek members, there may be different results.

A final suggestion for future research would be to conduct a longitudinal study. By expanding the study over years, the researcher could administer the survey to see how and if the students change throughout their college career. Then, the researcher would be able to determine when or under which circumstances a respondent's score on a scale increases or decreases and if that is related to his/her level of rape myth acceptance.

For example, the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale and the IRMAS can be administered prior to the start of a student's freshmen year during orientation. They can then be administered during each of the following years throughout his/her education. The researcher would be able to determine if the score on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale and the IRMAS

increased, decreased, or remained constant over the four year span. As a result, the relationship between the variables would be more accurately established.

In sum, future research should consider examining rape myth acceptance as the dependent variable because identifying which factors influence rape myth acceptance can allow for more tailored prevention and awareness strategies. Measuring rape myth acceptance is a straightforward process and providing strategies to address the issues of rape myth can be more effective when influential factors are identified. For example, in this study it was discovered that a higher score on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale is associated with a higher scale on the IRMAS. Therefore, the attitudes, issues and topics that are included on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale can be incorporated in prevention and awareness strategies.

Conclusion

The purpose of this dissertation was to determine which factors have the most influence on rape myth acceptance among a sample of undergraduate students. The variables in the study were included based on the current literature (Burgess, 2007; Burt, 1980; Flood & Pease, 2007; Gross et al., 2006; Malamuth et al., 1980; Malamuth, 1986; Morry & Winkler, 2001; Payne et al., 1999; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010; White & Smith, 2009). Specifically, the demographic variables were gender, race, living arrangements, year in school, political affiliation, choice of major, prior victimization, Greek organization membership, patriarchal attitudes, lifestyle choice, and sports team membership.

Each of these variables was examined in bivariate analyses to determine if they were significantly related to rape myth acceptance. Once the significant variables were identified, they were included in a multivariate regression model. The regression model illustrated that the most influential variables were score on the Patriarchal Attitude-Gendered Schema scale, gender, being a social science major, sports team membership, and score on the Dating Behavior Scale. For this particular sample, it is suggested that these factors should be considered when developing new and revised strategies for prevention and awareness of sexual victimization on college campuses.

The strengths and limitations of the study have been discussed. Future research has been suggested based on the findings of this particular study. Replication studies should be undertaken at other universities to determine which factors may be the most influential on different campuses. The results of this study contribute to the current literature and help to inform future prevention and awareness strategies about rape on college campuses.

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APPENDIX A

Original Authors' Permission

Subject: RE: Research Permission From: Kim Lonsway **Date:** 11/11/10 02:51 PM **To:** 'Katie L Herman'

Of course. It's in the public domain, so you don't need our permission, but it's nice to hear from you anyway. Just to make sure, I would recommend using the newest version of the scale, which is technically the IRMAS. I'll attach the scale development piece. We used an earlier version of the scale in a JPSP article, so you could use that, but the final version is better.

Best of luck with your project: -kim

Kimberly A. Lonsway, Ph.D.

Research Director

EVAW International

Co-Editor, Sexual Assault Report

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(805) 547-9981 Phone / Fax

Kim@evawintl. org

http://www.evawintl.org

We envision a world where gender-based violence is unacceptable; where perpetrators are held accountable, and victims receive the compassion, support, and justice they deserve.

On-Line Training Institute - Available now! Learn cutting edge developments in the criminal justice and community response to sexual assault: http://www.evawintl.org/evaw courseware/

SAVE THE DATE - International Conference on Sexual Assault, Domestic Violence and Stalking - April 11-13, 2011 - Intercontinental Chicago O'Hare, Chicago, Illinois - http://www.evawintl.org/conferenc

------- Original Message----------

From: Katie L Herman [mailto:k.1.herman@iup.edu] Sent: Thursday, November 11, 2010 8:17 AM To: klonsway@charter.net Subject: Research Permission

Dr Lonsway,

I am currently a doctoral student at Indiana University of Pennslyvania. I

am starting my dissertation on rape myth acceptance

among college students. Specifically, I am researching on what factors have

the most influence on one's rape myth acceptance in college.

I am writing to request your permission to use your Rape Myth Acceptance

Scale (1995) that you developed in my research.

I look forward to hearing from you. Have a great day!

Sincerely, Katie
Herman

Katie L. Herman, MA

Doctoral Candidate

Criminology Department

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

RE: Permission to use scales

Subject: RE: Permission to use scales From: Kimberly Breitenbecher **Date:** 11/11/10 05:18 PM To: Katie L Herman

Attached Files

- breitenbecher & scarce (2001) .pdf (5404 KB)
- SCS.pdf (268 KB)
- SAKS.pdf (134 KB)
- breitenbecher (2008).pdf (134 KB)

Katie,

Hi there. I appreciate your interest in my research. I'm happy to share the measures with you. The Dating Behavior Survey appears in an article that I published in 2008. I have attached a copy of the article to this message.

I no longer have copies of the Sexual Communication Survey or Sexual Assault Awareness Survey, at least not the versions that appeared in the 1993 article, I continued to update and revise these measures as I used them in later research. I have attached copies of the most recent versions (the only versions I have) of the Sexual Communication Survey and the Sexual Assault Knowledge Survey. You can use the 2001 article (attached) as a reference for these, if you like.

The SCS is scored by summing the responses. Items #1 and #2 are reverse-scored.

The SAKS is scored by summing the number of correct responses. The correct responses are circled on the attached copy.

Please feel free to modify or adapt any of the measures to suit your needs. Good

luck with your project.

Regards,

Kim Breitenbecher

Kimberly Hanson Breitenbecher, Ph.D.

Associate Professor

Department of Psychological Science

BEP 357

Northern Kentucky University

Highland Heights, KY 41099

(859) 572-5519

breitenbeche@nku.edu

------Original Message----------

From: Katie L Herman [mailto:k.l.herman@iup.edu1 Sent:
Wed 11/10/2010 10:59 AM To: Kimberly Breitenbecher
Subject: Permission to use scales

RE: SPN Profile Message: research permission Page 1 of 1

APPENDIX B

Survey Instrument

Part A:

Instructions: Please answer the following questions to the best of your knowledge. Please read carefully because there are second parts if the answer is "yes" to questions. Check the box that corresponds with the most correct answer for yourself.

1. What is your age? _____

2. What is your major? (list both if double major) _____

3. What is your minor? _____

4. What year in school are you (credits that have been completed as of January 16, 2011)?

□ 0-29 credits (Freshman) □ 30-59 credits (Sophomore)

□ 60-89 credits (Junior) □ 90 and above credits (Senior)

5a. Did you attend the rape prevention program available for all first year students during orientation?

□Yes (if yes, go to # 5b) □No (go to #6)

5b. Did you find the rape prevention program beneficial/informative?

□Yes □No

6a. Did you transfer to IUP?

□Yes (if yes, go to #6B) □No (go to #7)

6b. Did you attend the rape prevention program available for transfer students during orientation?

□Yes (if yes, go to #6C) □No (go to #7)

6c. Did you find the rape prevention program beneficial/informative?

□Yes □No

7. What race do you identify with?

□White □African American □Latino □Asian □Other _____

8. What gender do you identify with?

□Male □Female

9. Politically, how do you identify yourself?

□Conservative □Liberal □Other _____

10a. Do you currently live in a dormitory or suite on campus?

□Yes (go to #11) □No (if no, go to #10b)

10b. Where do you live if you do not live on campus?

□Off campus apartment □Off campus house

□Commute from home □Other_____

11. Please indicate which type of Greek organization you are currently a member of at IUP?

□Social □Service □Honorary □None □I do not know

12. Please indicate which type of varsity sports team you are currently a member of at IUP?

□Contact sport (i.e., football) □Noncontact sport (i.e., golf)

□None □I do not know

13a. Have you ever been a victim of a crime (i.e., theft, robbery, assault) in your life time?

□Yes (if yes, go to #13b) □No (go to #14)

13b. If yes, by whom?

□Stranger □Someone you know □I do not know

14a. Has someone you know ever been a victim of a crime (i.e., theft, robbery, assault) in your lifetime?

□Yes (if yes, go to #14b) □No (go to #15)

14b. If yes, by whom?

□Stranger □Someone they knew □I do not know

15a. Have you ever experienced someone touching or forcing you to do something sexual against your will in your life time?

□Yes (if yes, go to #15b) □No (go to #16)

15b. If yes, by whom?

□Stranger □Someone you knew □I do not know

16a. Has someone you know ever experience someone touching or forcing them to do something sexual against their will in your lifetime?

□Yes (if yes, go to #16b) □No (go to #17)

16b. If yes, by whom?

□Stranger □Someone they knew □I do not know

Part B:

Instructions: Please indicate your level of agreement by checking the corresponding box with the following statements. Responses range from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 6 (Strongly Agree).

QUESTION	1 STRONGLY DISAGREE	2 SOMEWHAT DISAGREE	3 DISAGREE	4 AGREE	5 SOMEWHAT AGREE	6 STRONGLY AGREE
17. If a woman is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of control.	□	□	□	□	□	□
18. Although most women wouldn't admit it, they generally find being physically forced into sex a real "turn on.'	□	□	□	□	□	□
19. When men rape, it is because of their strong desire for sex.	□	□	□	□	□	□
20. If a woman is willing to "make out" with a guy, then it's not a big deal if he goes a little further and has sex.	□	□	□	□	□	□
21. Women who are caught having an illicit affair sometimes claim that it was	□	□	□	□	□	□

rape.						
22. Newspapers should not release the name of a rape victim to the public.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. Many so-called rape victims are actually women who had sex and "changed their minds" afterwards.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. Many women secretly desire to be raped.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. Rape mainly occurs on the "bad" side of town.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. Usually, it is only women who do things like hang out in bars and sleep around that are raped.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27. Most rapists are not caught by the police.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28. If a woman doesn't physically fight back, you can't really say that it was rape.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29. Men from nice middle-class homes almost never rape.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
30. Rape isn't a big problem as some feminists (advocates for women's rights) would like people to think.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
31. When women go around wearing low-cut tops or short skirts they're just asking for trouble.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
32. Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at men.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
33. A rape probably didn't happen if the woman has no bruises or marks.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
34. Many women find being forced to have sex very arousing.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
35. If a woman goes home with a man she doesn't know, it is her own fault if she is raped.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
36. Rapists are usually sexually frustrated individuals.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
37. All women should have access to self-defense classes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
38. It is usually women who dress suggestively that are raped.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
39. Some women prefer to have sex forced on them so they don't have to feel guilty about it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
40. If the rapist doesn't have a weapon, you can't really call it rape.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
41. When a woman is a sexual tease, eventually she is going to get into trouble.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
42. Being raped isn't as bad as being mugged or beaten.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
43. Rape is unlikely to happen in the woman's own familiar neighborhood.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
44. In reality, women are almost never raped by their boyfriends.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
45. Women tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

46. When a man is very sexually aroused, he may not even realize that the woman is resisting.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
47. A lot of women lead a man on and then they cry rape.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
48. It is preferable that a female police officer conduct the questioning when a woman reports a rape.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
49. A lot of times, women who claim they were raped just have emotional problems.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
50. If a woman doesn't physically resist sex- even when protesting verbally- it really can't be considered rape.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
51. Rape almost never happens in the woman's own home.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
52. A woman who "teases" men deserves anything that might happen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
53. When women are raped, it's often because the way they say "no" was ambiguous.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
54. If a woman isn't a virgin, then it shouldn't be a big deal if her date forces her to have sex.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
55. Men don't usually intend to force sex on a woman, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
56. Society should devote more effort to preventing rape.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
57. A woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
58. Rape happens when a man's sex drive gets out of control.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
59. A woman who goes to the home or apartment of a man on the first date is implying that she wants to have sex.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
60. Many women actually enjoy sex after the guy uses a little force.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
61. If a woman claims to have been raped but has no bruises or scrapes, she probably shouldn't be taken too seriously.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Part C:

Instructions: Please indicate your level of agreement by checking the box that corresponds with each statement. Responses range from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 4 (Strongly Agree).

QUESTION	1 STRONGLY DISAGREE	2 DISAGREE	3 AGREE	4 STRONGLY AGREE
62. It is acceptable for a mother to work full-time when her youngest child is under the age of 5.	☐	☐	☐	☐
63. Preschool children are likely to suffer if their mothers are employed.	☐	☐	☐	☐
64. It is difficult for young children when their mothers are employed full-time.	☐	☐	☐	☐
65. Parents should encourage just as much independence in their daughters as in their sons.	☐	☐	☐	☐
66. Mothers should encourage their daughters to seek a career just as they do their sons.	☐	☐	☐	☐
67. It is much better for everyone if the man earns the living and the woman takes care of the home and family.	☐	☐	☐	☐
68. If a husband and a wife both work full-time, they should share household takes equally.	☐	☐	☐	☐
69. If a woman is offered a promotion, her husband should be willing to move for the sake of her career.	☐	☐	☐	☐
70. Men are by nature better leaders for the family than are woman.	☐	☐	☐	☐

Part D:

Instructions: Please indicate on average <u>HOW MANY TIMES PER WEEK</u> you participate or engage in the following activities during the school year at IUP. Check the box under the corresponding number.

HOW MANY <u>TIMES PER WEEK</u> DO YOU…	0 Times	1 Time	2 Times	3+ Times
71. How often do you go out at night for leisure?	☐	☐	☐	☐
72. How often do you spend your leisure time: A. Go dancing?	☐	☐	☐	☐
B. Go to a bar where one is a regular customer?	☐	☐	☐	☐
C. Go bar hopping?	☐	☐	☐	☐
D. Party at a friend's house?	☐	☐	☐	☐
E. Party at the house of a stranger?	☐	☐	☐	☐
F. Party at a fraternity?	☐	☐	☐	☐
G. Attend a club function at IUP?	☐	☐	☐	☐
H. Go to the movies?	☐	☐	☐	☐
I. Go to a musical concert?	☐	☐	☐	☐
J. Cruise/Drive around?	☐	☐	☐	☐
K. Hang out with friends?	☐	☐	☐	☐
L. Engage in illegal drug use?	☐	☐	☐	☐

M. Try a variety of types of illegal drugs?	☐	☐	☐	☐
N. Drink alcohol?	☐	☐	☐	☐
O. Get drunk during the week?	☐	☐	☐	☐
P. Be drunk in public?	☐	☐	☐	☐
Q. Stay out late (past midnight)?	☐	☐	☐	☐
73. How often do you work until late at night (after 10pm)?	☐	☐	☐	☐
74. How often do you go out to parties/bars with friends and come home with the same friends?	☐	☐	☐	☐
75. How often do you go out to parties/bars with a group of friends and come home alone?	☐	☐	☐	☐
76. How often do you go out to parties/bars with a group of friends and go home to someone's place that you just met that night?	☐	☐	☐	☐
77. How often do you go out to parties/bars with a group of friends and bring someone back to your place that you just met that night?	☐	☐	☐	☐
78. How many classes do you miss on average during the week?	☐	☐	☐	☐
79. How many classes do you miss on average during the week because of the previous night's activities?	☐	☐	☐	☐

Part E:

Instructions: We would like to ask some questions about your dating behaviors. As your answer these questions, please think about your typical behavior on the first few dates that you have with a new partner. Mark the box indicating how often you participating in the behavior in question ranging from 1 (never) to 6 (always).

QUESTIONS	1 NEVER	2 VERY RARELY	3 RARELY	4 OCCASIONALLY	5 VERY FREQUENTLY	6 ALWAYS
80. Partners that I go out with initiate the first few dates (ask me out).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
81. On the first few dates, I consume alcohol or drugs.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
82. On the first few dates that we have, my partner and I do things that allow us to spend time alone together (such as spending time alone together in my room or my partner's room).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
83. On the first few dates that we have, my partner consumes alcohol or drugs.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
84. On the first few dates, I consume alcohol enough alcohol or drugs to become drunk or high.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
85. On the first few dates that we have, I allow my partner to plan what we do.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
86. On the first few dates that we have, my date and I spend part of						

the time “parking” (kissing or other sexual activities in a car).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
87. I pay for my own expenses on the first few dates that I have with a new partner.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
88. On the first few dates, my partner consumes enough alcohol or drugs to become drunk or high.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
89. On the first few dates, I provide my own transportation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
90. On the first few dates, my partner and I chose group activities (i.e. double dates).	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
91. On the first few dates, I have at times “blacked out” (lost consciousness, can’t remember what happened) from drugs or alcohol.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
92. On the first few dates, my partner and I chose activities that I suggest.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
93. Before I go out with a new partner for the first time, I try to find out about him or her.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
94. If new partner makes sexist remarks on the first few dates that we have, I stop dating him or her.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX C

Informed Consent Form

Dear IUP Student,

You are invited to participate in a research study. The following information is provided to help you to make an informed decision about participating in this survey. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to ask. You are eligible to participate because you are a student enrolled during the current semester at Indiana University of Pennsylvania (IUP).

The purpose of this study is to determine which factors have the most influence on students' level of agreement and beliefs with situations regarding rape. Participation in this study will require approximately twenty minutes of your time, and this is not considered a part of the course. Participation or non-participation will not affect the evaluation of your performance in this class. You will be asked to complete an anonymous survey inquiring about different behaviors and beliefs you have. There are no known risks associated with this research. The benefits from this study could inform rape prevention and awareness strategies on college campuses. It will also add to the current literature and aid in future research on the topic.

Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. You are free to decide to participate in this study or to withdraw at any time. It will not adversely affect your relationship with the investigators or IUP. Your decision will not result in any loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you choose to participate, you may withdraw at any time by submitting a blank or incomplete survey when other respondents have completed. Upon your withdraw, all information pertaining to you will be destroyed. If you choose to participate, all information will be held in strict confidence and will not affect your academic standing or services you receive from the University. Responses will be locked in a filing cabinet in the faculty advisor's office. Survey responses and signed consent forms will be collected and store separately to prevent connecting respondents to their surveys. The surveys will be destroyed at the conclusion of the research project. Your response will be considered only in combination with those from other participants. The information obtained in the study may be published in scientific journals or presented at scientific meetings but your identity will be kept strictly confidential.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please sign the statement below and deposit in the designated box by the door. Take the extra unsigned copy with you. If you choose not to participate, sit quietly while the others complete the survey. Then, deposit the unsigned copies in the designated box by the door. If needed, the Counseling Services available at IUP can be found at G-31 Suites on Maple East or reached by calling 724-357-2621.

Katie Herman
Doctoral Candidate
Department of Criminology
G-19 Wilson Hall
Indiana, Pa 15701
724-357-1250

Dr. Alida V. Merlo
Professor/Dissertation Chair
Department of Criminology
112 Wilson Hall
Indiana, Pa 15701
724-357-5610

This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724/357-7730).

VOLUNTARY CONSENT FORM:

I have read and understand the information on the form and I consent to volunteer to be a subject in this study. I understand that my responses are completely confidential and that I have the right to withdraw at any time. I have received an unsigned copy of this informed Consent Form to keep in my possession.

Name (PLEASE PRINT)

Signature

Date

I certify that I have explained to the above individual the nature and purpose, the potential benefits, and possible risks associated with participating in this research study, have answered any questions that have been raised, and have witnessed the above signature.

_____

Date Investigator's Signature

Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board

for the Protection of Human Subjects

Human Subjects Review Protocol

1. **Principal Investigator**

   Name Katie Herman Department Criminology

   Position/Rank Doctoral Candidate E-Mail Address: k.l.herman@iup.edu

   Address 1300 Oakland Ave Apt B.

   Indiana Pa 15701

   Phone where you can be reached during the day 724-992-0850

   Date of Submission 2/28/11

2. **Co-Investigator (e.g. thesis/dissertation committee chair; use a second sheet for any additional names):**

   Name Dr. Alida Merlo Department Criminology

   Position/Rank Professor Office Phone 724-357-5610

   Address 112 Wilson Hall E-Mail Address_amerlo@iup.edu

3. **Project Title Rape Myth Acceptance: An Exploration of Inflectional Factors Among College Students**

4. **Check one: Thesis Dissertation X Faculty Research**

   Student Research Staff Research

   Dates during which project will be conducted: From 3/11 To 5/11

5. **A. Project Funding Source: Check as many as apply:**

   External Grant: Agency name:

   IUP Grant

   X Non-funded research

   Other

   B. If grant funded, application deadline or date of transmittal

   (Please submit one copy of grant proposal as soon as it is available).

6. **Consider each of the following separately and place an X next to each to indicate that the information is complete. PLEASE NUMBER ALL PAGES!!!**

   X A. PURPOSE, RESEARCH VARIABLES, AND POPULATION

<u>Purpose of the study</u>-State concisely and realistically what the study is intended to accomplish.

The purpose of this study is to attempt to determine which factors have the most influence on rape myth acceptance among college students. The research will be conducted on the campus of IUP with a sample of male and female undergraduate students. Current students will be selected for the study by a random sample strategy, and the author will administer the survey during class. Identification of the factors that influence rape myth acceptance on college campuses is important. The findings can help enhance prevention and rape awareness programs available on campus and increase knowledge of rape mythology.

<u>Background</u>-Briefly state the background of the study, including some relevant references and identify the main questions the current study is intended to address.

The UCR reports that the rate of rape is 56.6 per 100,000 in the United States (2009). The rate of rape on college campuses can be even more alarming. College women can experience victimization at a rate three times greater than women in the general population (Burgess, 2007; Koss & Gidycz, 1985; Parrot, Cummings, Marchell, & Hofher, 1994). Young women (ages 18-24 years old) are more susceptible to being victimized. Research has found that women in this age range experience sexual victimization at a rate four times higher than women in any other age group (DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 1998; Franklin, 2010; Koss, 1988; Parrot et al, 1994). This age range for women occurs usually during their college career.

Multiple studies examining rape on college campuses found that college women can be more susceptible to victimization than women in the general population (Gross, Winslett, Roberts, & Gohm, 2006; Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Koss et al., 1987; White & Smith, 2009). For example, a national survey found that during a women's college career, it is estimated anywhere from 1/4 to 1/5 of women can experience an attempted or completed rape (Brener, McMahon, Warren, & Douglas, 1999; Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000). Another study of 935 undergraduate female college students at a state university in southeastern United States found that 27% of the respondents reported experiencing some type of unwanted sexual contact since enrolling in college (Gross et al., 2006). Fisher, Cullen, & Turner (2000) also found a victimization rate of 27.7 per 1,000 female students in a sample of 4,446 students. These statistics suggest that college campuses are a prime location for sexual victimization (Currier & Carlson, 2009; Fisher, Daigle, & Cullen, 2010; Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001; Meadows, 2007). It is also an appropriate place to concentrate prevention strategies.

Individuals who support or engage in sexually aggressive behavior toward women may be more likely to believe in rape myths. Rape myths are defined as prejudicial, stereotyped, or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists (Burt, 1980). Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994) expanded the definition to "attitudes and beliefs that are generally false but are widely and persistently held and that serve to deny and justify male sexual aggression against women" (p.134). The literature suggests that many factors can play a critical role in the level of rape myth acceptance. This study will examine which of the factors have the most influence on rape myth acceptance based on the literature.

The current study will identify which factors influence rape myth acceptance among a sample of college students from a large public northeastern university in the United States. The study will examine gender, age, race, major, year in school, gender role, socialization, group affiliation, sports team membership, prior victimization (personal/vicarious), illegal drug use, alcohol consumption, and lifestyle choices. The influence of these factors in rape myth acceptance will help inform future research and rape prevention programs on college campuses.

Characteristics of the Subject Population-The following information should be provided:

a. Age Range-What is the age range and why was it chosen?

The age range for the study will be college students who are enrolled at IUP during the spring semester of 2011. This range was chosen because the purpose of the study is to determine which factors influence college students' level of rape myth acceptance. Students under the age of 18 will be excluded from the study.

b. Sex-What is the sex of the subjects? If there is a restriction, provide the rationale.

Male and female students will both be included in the study.

c. Number-What is the estimated number of subjects?

The total number of students involved will be approximately 600.

d. Inclusion Criteria-What are the specific inclusion criteria?

The inclusion criterion for the study is that the participants must be enrolled in courses at IUP during the spring semester of 2011. Students must be 18 years or older to participate. If they are not, they will be asked to not participate. Participation is voluntary.

e. <u>Exclusion Criteria</u>-What are the specific exclusion criteria? Clear rationale should be provided for the exclusion of any particular population group, unless the title of the study reflects the restricted population range.

N/A

f. <u>Vulnerable Subjects</u>-If vulnerable subjects will be included (children, pregnant women, fetuses, prisoners, mentally disabled persons), provide justification of the need to use these subjects in research.

N/A

_X_ B. METHODS AND PROCEDURES

<u>Method of Subject Selection</u>-Describe the study's method(s) of identification and recruitment of prospective subjects. Provide a copy of any planned advertisements.

The subjects will be selected from a random sample strategy. The sample strategy will randomly select classes that will represent students in each academic year and all majors. This will be done by identifying the general education classes that are required of all students. The list of courses and sections that are available for spring 2011 will be included in the sampling frame to randomly select for inclusion in the study.

<u>Study Site</u>-State the location(s) where the study will be conducted. Include letters of approval to conduct the study from all non-IUP sites.

The study will be conducted in randomly selected classrooms on IUP campus during the spring semester of 2011. Prior permission will be obtained from each of the professors to administer the survey during the class periods.

<u>Methods and Procedures Applied to Human Subjects</u>-Describe in detail the study design and all procedures (sequentially) to be applied to subjects. Attach copies of any instruments to be used, such as surveys, rating scales, or questionnaires.

The proposed study will consist of a probability sample of female and male students from the university using a random sample strategy. The data will be collected through a self-report survey administered during randomly selected classes selected for the study. Prior arrangements with professors will be made to allow access to the classes. The survey will consist of questions related to rape myth acceptance and factors that influence one's level of acceptance of rape myths. The original version of Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald's 1999 Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale will be used to assess the rape myth acceptance in the student sample. Other scales that will be used on the survey include the Dating Behavior Scale (DBS) developed by Hanson and Gidycz in 1993 and patriarchal

attitude-gender schema scale commonly used in the field of criminology (Kim & Titterington, 2009). Based on the results, suggestions will be made to improve and enhance current rape prevention programs. The findings will also add to the current literature and identify future research on rape myth acceptance among college students. The full survey instrument can be found in Appendix A.

_X_ C. RISKS/BENEFITS

Potential Risks-Identify the potential risks of the study. Specify the types and levels of risk.
No known harm or risk should occur as a result of participating in this study.

Protection Against Risks-For all studies involving greater than minimal risk, specify the procedures for preventing or minimizing any potential risks.
No known harm or risk should occur during/after participation in the study. Information and contact information for counseling services will be provided for those participants who experience any emotional distress as a result of participating in the survey.

Potential Benefits-Describe any potential non-monetary benefits of the study, both for subjects and for society in general.

There are several explanations related to student rape myth acceptance. First, research suggests that those with a higher rape myth acceptance are more likely to be tolerant of sexually aggressive behavior toward women than those with lower rape myth acceptance (Flood & Pease, 2007; Malamuth, 1986; Malamuth, Haber, & Feshbach, 1980; Morry & Winkler, 2001). By dispelling these myths, individuals may be more likely to refrain from these acts.

Addressing rape myth acceptance of college students is a common outcome measure of the effectiveness of rape prevention programs (Fisher, Daigle, & Cullen, 2008; Schewe, 2002). It relies on the fact that rape is related to acceptance of rape myths and that changing these beliefs and attitudes can reduce future incidences of rape (Fisher et al., 2008). Other studies have supported this approach (Burt, 1980; Malamuth, Haber, & Feschbach, 1980; O'Donohue, Yeater, & Fanetti, 2003; Yeater, Treat, Viken, & McFall, 2010). However, other researchers have suggested that in order to change the future behavior of a participant, program refreshers may be needed to sustain the change in rape myth acceptance after the program is completed (Fisher et al., 2008; Lonsway, 1996). Some research has shown that attitude changes only last for a limited period of time after the program (Lonsway, 1996; Schewe, 2002). To combat this, it may be possible to identify specific factors that influence rape myth acceptance among college students. These data could help make this method of prevention more effective, especially with the college student population.

Second, if lifestyle choices can be identified that lead to greater rape myth acceptance, perhaps those lifestyle choices can be addressed and potentially altered by attending and participating in a rape prevention program that discusses those choices. For example, one rape myth is that women who drink alcohol are more sexually available (Reddington & Wright, 2005). Consumption of alcohol is a lifestyle choice. Individuals should not assume women who drink are more likely to engage in sexual activities. If the students in the sample believe this myth, they may be more likely to excuse or tolerate similar behaviors as a result. However, if a rape prevention program can address this myth, along with other potentially dangerous lifestyle choices, then problems regarding sexual assault may be prevented.

Third, this research might uncover a specific factor that rape prevention programs on college campuses do not address. Based on the statistics, both college men and women are vulnerable and can become victims and perpetrators of sexual violence during their college careers (UCR, 2008). These findings might be used to enhance existing programs and services that are available for college students.

Statistics suggest that universities with a 10,000 student population could experience more than 350 rapes per year (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000; Karjane, Fisher, & Cullen, 2005). The university in this study has over 10,000 students. Thus, it could be susceptible to experiencing at least that many rapes during a given year. As a result, this university should continue to improve and enhance rape prevention for students. The benefits of the study will not only help improve the university's knowledge about the level of rape myth acceptance among the students but also add to the current literature on the topic for future research.

Compensation for Participation-Describe any monetary or other forms of compensation which will be provided to subjects, and any conditions which must be fulfilled to receive compensation.

N/A

Alternatives to Participation-Describe any alternatives to participation in the study which might be advantageous to the subject. If the subjects are to receive academic credit for research participation, describe the alternatives available to earn equivalent academic credit.

There is no alternative to participation in the study. If a student chooses not to participate, s/he will be asked to sit quietly while the rest of the class completes the survey. There is no benefit for students to participate in the study in relation to the course in which the survey will be administered.

<u>Information Withheld</u>-Identify the nature of any information to be purposely withheld from subjects, and provide justification for the non-disclosure.

N/A

<u>Debriefing</u>-Describe the procedure for post-study debriefing of subjects.

N/A

__X__ D. CONFIDENTIALITY

Describe explicitly how confidentiality of data will be maintained. If any information with subject identifiers will be released, specify the recipients. Include a statement that all data will be retained for at least three years in compliance with federal regulations.

Confidentiality will be maintained in this study by having the students complete an anonymous survey. This survey will be collected as soon as the participant has completed the survey. The researcher will keep the surveys for data collection in a locked filing cabinet in the faculty advisor's office. Survey responses and signed consent forms will be collected and stored separately to prevent connecting respondents to their surveys. No one will handle the surveys except for the researcher. There will be no identifiers on the survey that would allow the researcher or anyone else to connect the respondent's answers to the survey after it has been collected.

7. **<u>Protected Populations and Sensitive Subjects</u>: If <u>any</u> Human Subjects from the following list would be involved in the proposed activity, place an X next to the category.**

___minors	**___fetuses**	**___pregnant women**
___test subjects for	**___abortuses**	**___illegal behavior**
___ new drugs or clinical devices	**___incarcerated**	**___mentally disabled**

___educationally or economically disadvantaged persons

8. **<u>Nature of Risk</u>. In your judgment, does your research involve more than minimal risk? "Minimal risk" means that the risk of harm anticipated in the proposed research is not more likely than those risks encountered in daily life, or during routine physical or psychological examinations/tests.**

____Yes ___X__No

9. **In your judgment, does your research fall under one of the six exempt categories? (List of Exempt Categories attached.) If you believe it does, indicate the number of the category under which you are claiming an exemption.**

No

10. **Does your project fall under one of the categories eligible for expedited review? (List of Expedited Review Categories attached.) If you believe it does, indicate the number of the category under which you are claiming expedited review.**

    Yes, # 2

11. **Additions to or changes in procedures involving human subjects as well as any problems connected with the use of human subjects once the project has begun must be brought to the attention of the IRB.**

    I agree to provide whatever surveillance is necessary to ensure that the rights and welfare of the human subjects are properly protected. I understand that I cannot initiate any contact with human subjects before I have received approval/or complied with all contingencies made in connection with the approval. I understand that as the principal investigator I am ultimately responsible for the welfare and protection of human subjects and will carry out the project as approved.

    _____

    Signature of Principal Investigator/Program Director Date

12. **Approval by Faculty Sponsor <u>(REQUIRED FOR ALL STUDENTS)</u>:**

    I affirm the accuracy of this application, and I accept the responsibility for the conduct of this research and supervision of human subjects as required by law. THE PROPOSED PROJECT HAS BEEN APPROVED BY THE THESIS/DISSERTATION COMMITTEE.

    _____

    Signature Date

FOR COMMITTEE USE ONLY

DEPARTMENT COMMITTEE RECOMMENDATION:

This project:

poses minimal risk.

poses greater than minimal risk.

is Exempt from Continuing Review.

requires Expedited Review.

requires full IRBPHS Review.

Signature **Date**

IRBPHS:

Approved to Proceed _____ **Disapproved**

Signature **Date**

APPENDIX E

Variables and Coding

Variable	Survey Question	Code
Major	What is your major?	Each major coded separately
Year in school	What year are you?	0=Freshmen, 1=Sophomore, 2=Junior, 3=Senior
Race	What race do you identify with?	0=White, 1=African American, 2=Other
Gender	What gender do you identify with?	0=Female, 1=Male
Political Affiliation	Politically, how do you identify yourself?	0=conservative, 1=liberal, 2=other
Living Arrangement	Do you currently live in a dormitory or suite on campus?	0=No, 1=Yes
	Where do you live if you do not live on campus?	0=off campus apartment, 1=off campus house, 2=commute from home, 3=other
Greek Organization Membership	Please indicate which type of Greek organization you are currently a member of at IUP?	0=Social, 1=Service, 2=Honorary, 3=None, 4=I don't know
Sports Membership	Please indicate which type of varsity sports team you are currently a member of at IUP?	0=Contact, 1=Non-contact, 2=None, 3=I don't know Dichotomized: 0=No, 1=Yes
Personal Victimization	Have you ever been a victim of a crime (i.e., theft, robbery, assault) in your life time?	0=No, 1=Yes
	If yes, by whom?	0=Stranger, 1=Someone you know, 2=Don't know
Vicarious victimization	Has someone you know ever been a victim of a crime (i.e., theft, robbery, assault) in your lifetime?	0=No, 1=Yes

	If yes, by whom?	0=Stranger, 1=Someone you know, 2=Don't know
Personal Sexual Victimization	Have you ever experienced someone touching or forcing you to do something sexual against your will in your life time?	0=No, 1=Yes
	If yes, by whom?	0=Stranger, 1=Someone you know, 2=Don't know
Vicarious Sexual Victimization	Has someone you know ever experience someone touching or forcing them to do something sexual against their will in your lifetime?	0=No, 1=Yes
	If yes, by whom?	0=Stranger, 1=Someone you know, 2=Don't know
Patriarchal Attitudes	It is acceptable for a mother to work full-time when her youngest child is under the age of 5.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree
	Preschool children are likely to suffer if their mothers are employed.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree
	It is difficult for young children when their mothers are employed full-time.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree
	Parents should encourage just as much independence in their daughters as in their sons.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree
	Mothers should encourage their daughters to seek a career just as they do their sons.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree
	It is much better for everyone if the man earns the living and the woman takes care of the home and family.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree
	If a husband and a wife both work full-time, they should share household task equally.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree
	If a woman is offered a promotion, her husband should be willing to move for the sake of her career.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree

	Men are by nature better leaders for the family than are women.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree
Lifestyles	How often do you go out at night for leisure?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	How often do you spend your leisure time going dancing?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	…Go to a bar where one is a regular customer?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	… Go bar hopping?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	… Party at a friend's house?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	… Party at the house of a stranger?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	... Party at a fraternity?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	… Attend a club function at IUP?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	... Go to the movies?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	…Go to a musical concert?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	…Cruise/Drive around?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	…Hang out with friends?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	… Engage in illegal drug use?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	…Try a variety of types of illegal drugs?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	…Drink alcohol?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times

	…Get drunk during the week?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	…Be drunk in public?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	..Stay out late (past midnight)?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	How often do you work until late at night (after 10pm)?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	How often do you go out to parties/bars with friends and come home with the same friends?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	How often do you go out to parties/bars with a group of friends and come home alone?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	How often do you go out to parties/bars with a group of friends and go home to someone's place that you just met that night?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	How often do you go out to parties/bars with a group of friends and bring someone back to your place that you just met that night?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	How many classes do you miss on average during the week?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
	How many classes do you miss on average during the week because of the previous night's activities?	0=0 times, 1=1 time, 2= 2 times, 3= 3 or more times
Dating Behaviors	Partners that I go out with initiate the first few dates (ask me out).	1=Never, 2=Very Rarely, 3=Rarely, 4=Occasionally, 5=Very Frequently, 6=Always
	On the first few dates, I consume alcohol or drugs.	1=Never, 2=Very Rarely, 3=Rarely, 4=Occasionally, 5=Very Frequently, 6=Always
	On the first few dates that we have, my partner and I do things that allow us to spend time alone together (such as spending time alone together in my room or my partner's room).	1=Never, 2=Very Rarely, 3=Rarely, 4=Occasionally, 5=Very Frequently, 6=Always

	On the first few dates that we have, my partner consumes alcohol or drugs.	1=Never, 2=Very Rarely, 3=Rarely, 4=Occasionally, 5=Very Frequently, 6=Always
	On the first few dates, I consume enough alcohol or drugs to become drunk or high.	1=Never, 2=Very Rarely, 3=Rarely, 4=Occasionally, 5=Very Frequently, 6=Always
	On the first few dates that we have, I allow my partner to plan what we do.	1=Never, 2=Very Rarely, 3=Rarely, 4=Occasionally, 5=Very Frequently, 6=Always
	On the first few dates that we have, my date and I spend part of the time "parking" (kissing or other sexual activities in a car).	1=Never, 2=Very Rarely, 3=Rarely, 4=Occasionally, 5=Very Frequently, 6=Always
	I pay for my own expenses on the first few dates that I have with a new partner.	1=Never, 2=Very Rarely, 3=Rarely, 4=Occasionally, 5=Very Frequently, 6=Always
	On the first few dates, my partner consumes enough alcohol or drugs to become drunk or high.	1=Never, 2=Very Rarely, 3=Rarely, 4=Occasionally, 5=Very Frequently, 6=Always
	On the first few dates, I provide my own transportation.	1=Never, 2=Very Rarely, 3=Rarely, 4=Occasionally, 5=Very Frequently, 6=Always
	On the first few dates, my partner and I chose group activities (i.e. double dates).	1=Never, 2=Very Rarely, 3=Rarely, 4=Occasionally, 5=Very Frequently, 6=Always
	On the first few dates, I have at times "blacked out" (lost consciousness, can't remember what happened) from drugs or alcohol.	1=Never, 2=Very Rarely, 3=Rarely, 4=Occasionally, 5=Very Frequently, 6=Always
	On the first few dates, my partner and I chose activities that I suggest.	1=Never, 2=Very Rarely, 3=Rarely, 4=Occasionally, 5=Very Frequently, 6=Always
	Before I go out with a new partner for the first time, I try to find out about him or her.	1=Never, 2=Very Rarely, 3=Rarely, 4=Occasionally, 5=Very Frequently, 6=Always

	If new partner makes sexist remarks on the first few dates that we have, I stop dating him or her.	1=Never, 2=Very Rarely, 3=Rarely, 4=Occasionally, 5=Very Frequently, 6=Always
Rape Myth Acceptance	If a woman is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of control.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Although most women wouldn't admit it, they generally find being physically forced into sex a real "turn on.'	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	When men rape, it is because of their strong desire for sex.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	If a woman is willing to "make out" with a guy, then it's not a big deal if he goes a little further and has sex.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Women who are caught having an illicit affair sometimes claim that it was rape.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Newspapers should not release the name of a rape victim to the public.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Many so-called rape victims are actually women who had sex and "changed their minds" afterwards.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree

	Many women secretly desire to be raped.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Rape mainly occurs on the "bad" side of town.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Usually, it is only women who do things like hang out in bars and sleep around that are raped.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Most rapists are not caught by the police.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	If a woman doesn't physically fight back, you can't really say that it was rape.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Men from nice middle-class homes almost never rape.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Rape isn't a big problem as some feminists (advocates for women's rights) would like people to think.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree

	When women go around wearing low-cut tops or short skirts they're just asking for trouble.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at men.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	A rape probably didn't happen if the woman has no bruises or marks.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Many women find being forced to have sex very arousing.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	If a woman goes home with a man she doesn't know, it is her own fault if she is raped.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Rapists are usually sexually frustrated individuals.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	All women should have access to self-defense classes.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree

	It is usually women who dress suggestively that are raped.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Some women prefer to have sex forced on them so they don't have to feel guilty about it.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	If the rapist doesn't have a weapon, you can't really call it rape.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	When a woman is a sexual tease, eventually she is going to get into trouble.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Being raped isn't as bad as being mugged or beaten.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Rape is unlikely to happen in the woman's own familiar neighborhood.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	In reality, women are almost never raped by their boyfriends.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree

	Women tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	When a man is very sexually aroused, he may not even realize that the woman is resisting.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	A lot of women lead a man on and then they cry rape.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	It is preferable that a female police officer conduct the questioning when a woman reports a rape.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	A lot of times, women who claim they were raped just have emotional problems.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	If a woman doesn't physically resist sex- even when protesting verbally- it really can't be considered rape.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Rape almost never happens in the woman's own home.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree

	A woman who "teases" men deserves anything that might happen.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	When women are raped, it's often because the way they say "no" was ambiguous.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	If a woman isn't a virgin, then it shouldn't be a big deal if her date forces her to have sex.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Men don't usually intend to force sex on a woman, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Society should devote more effort to preventing rape.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	A woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Rape happens when a man's sex drive gets out of control.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree

	A woman who goes to the home or apartment of a man on the first date is implying that she wants to have sex.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	Many women actually enjoy sex after the guy uses a little force.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree
	If a woman claims to have been raped but has no bruises or scrapes, she probably shouldn't be taken too seriously.	1=Strongly disagree, 2=Somewhat Disagree, 3=Disagree, 4=Agree, 5=Somewhat Agree, 6=Strongly Agree

APPENDIX F

Research Questions and Hypotheses Results

Research Question	Hypothesis	Supported or Rejected
1. Which demographic characteristics of college students influence their level of rape myth acceptance?	H1: Men will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance than women.	Supported
	H2: Non-white students will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to whites.	Rejected (Variable not significant in regression model)
	H3: Students with a conservative political affiliation will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students with liberal political affiliations.	Rejected (Variable not significant in regression model)
	H4: Social Science majors will have a lower rape myth acceptance than other students not in social science majors	Supported
	H5: Students living in off-campus apartments or housing will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students who live in dormitories on campus.	Rejected (Variable not significant in the ANOVA)
	H6: Juniors and seniors are more likely to exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to sophomores and freshmen.	Rejected (Variable was significant, but the relationship was in the opposite direction)
2. Does group membership in college influence the level of rape myth acceptance among college students?	H7: Students who participate in a contact sport will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students who participate in a non-contact sport.	Supported (Variable was dichotomous to include membership vs. no membership)

	H8: Students who are members of a social fraternity/sorority will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students in a service or honor fraternity/sorority.	Rejected (only Greek membership variable that was significant was the service organization in the bivariate analysis, but not significant in the regression model)
3. Do patriarchal beliefs affect rape myth acceptance?	H9: Students who demonstrate a high level of patriarchal values will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students who do not demonstrate as high a level of patriarchal values.	Supported
4. Do students who have prior experience with victimization have higher rape myth acceptance?	H10: Students who have experienced personal victimization will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students who have not experienced any personal victimization.	Partially Supported (Personal experience with sexual crimes was significant, but not other crimes)
	H11: Students who have experienced vicarious victimization will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students who have not experienced vicarious victimization.	Partially Supported (Vicarious experience with sexual crimes was significant, but not with other crimes)
5. Which lifestyles influence students' rape myth acceptance?	H12: Students who score higher on the Dating Behavior Scale will exhibit a higher level of rape myth acceptance compared to students who do not score as high.	Supported
	H13: Students' lifestyle choices are related to a higher level of rape myth acceptance.	Supported