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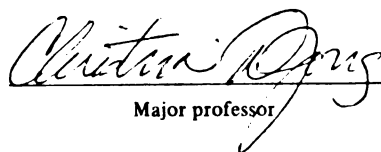
**AN EXAMINATION OF BLAME ATTRIBUTIONS TOWARD
VICTIMS OF SEXUAL ASSAULT**

presented by

Matthew Alan Marner

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

M.S. degree in Criminal Justice


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**AN EXAMINATION OF BLAME ATTRIBUTIONS TOWARD
VICTIMS OF SEXUAL ASSAULT**

By

Matthew Alan Marner

A THESIS

**Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
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ABSTRACT

AN EXAMINATION OF BLAME ATTRIBUTIONS TOWARD VICTIMS OF SEXUAL ASSAULT

By

Matthew Alan Marner

This study examined blame attributed toward victims of sexual assault. Several sets of survey items were used to compare the amount of blame attributed to acquaintance rape victims versus stranger rape victims, male victims labeled or perceived as homosexual versus male victims labeled or perceived as heterosexual, and male victims versus female victims. Gender, age, race/ethnicity, personal victimization experience, victimization experiences of friends, belief in a just world, and belief in unique invulnerability were examined to determine the effects that they had on victim blaming.

Two versions of a survey, created for this thesis, were fully completed by 255 Michigan State University undergraduates. Results showed no significant difference in the amount of blame attributed toward male and female victims, acquaintance rape and stranger rape victims, and homosexual male victims and heterosexual male victims. Belief in a just world and belief in unique invulnerability were shown to be a significant factor on two of four scales related to victim blaming in bivariate analysis, but just world was not significant on any of the four scales and unique invulnerability was significant in only one of four scales in multivariate analysis. Gender of the research subject was shown to be a significant factor related to victim blaming in both bivariate and multivariate analysis.

DEDICATION

To my family and friends for your unconditional love and support. I couldn't have done this without all of you in my life. I hope I've made you proud.

Love, Matt

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I would like to thank Dr. Christina DeJong for making such a significant (.05) difference in my life. Your enthusiasm, wisdom, and compassion have made me a better scholar and a better person. My life is genuinely a better one for having had you in it. Thank you.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Rape is a serious problem for both men and women. Perceptions of rape victims play an important role in the reporting of rapes, as well as physical and psychological recovery of the victim. Victims often overcome great inner turmoil in order to come forward with their experiences of sexual assault. Many victims, both male and female, fear that their moral character, sexual orientation, personal relationships, style of dress, or even their gender will be used to discredit or negate their claims of rape (Groth & Burgess, 1980; Johnson, 1994; Kormos & Brooks, 1994; Schneider, 1992; White & Robinson Kurpius, 1999).

The opinions and stereotypes of others are significant forces in the emotional recovery of the victim (Brems & Wagner, 1993; Davis, Brickman, & Baker, 1991). Negative responses are often encountered by male and female victims from their spouses, families, and friends. Fear of negative perceptions may also affect physical recovery (Kaufman, Divasto, Jackson, Voorhees, & Christy, 1980).

Previous research has shown that victims of acquaintance rape are blamed significantly more for their victimizations than those who were raped by a stranger (Bridges, 1991; Bridges & McGrail, 1989; Kanekar, Shaherwalla, France, Kunju & Pinto, 1991; Kopper, 1996). The claim that stranger rape is a more serious crime than acquaintance rape is often based on the assumption that acquaintance rape is not really rape. In acquaintance rape, there is usually less physical injury and the victim knows the perpetrator, which leads some to believe that the victim has suffered less trauma (Barnett, Quackenbush, Sinisi, Wegman, & Otney, 1992; Bridges, 1991; Bridges & McGrail, 1989; Campbell, 1995).

Research has found that men are far more likely to attribute greater blame to the victim of a sexual assault than are women (Bridges, 1991; Bridges & McGrail, 1989; Kanekar et al., 1991; Pollard, 1992; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992). These negative perceptions may stem from the belief in a just world, acceptance of rape myths, or a greater acceptance of interpersonal violence.

There are significant differences in the way people perceive men and women who have been sexually victimized. Studies have found that female victims of sexual assault are attributed greater blame than male victims of similar attacks (Howard, 1984a,b; Schneider, Ee, & Aronson, 1994).

However, men do not go without blame when they come forward with their victimization experiences. Some of these negative perceptions are based on the myth that males are not upset by sexual assault, in direct contradiction to evidence stating otherwise (Frazier, 1993; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman Johnson, 1992). Other rape myths contend that men should have been able to fight off their assailants, that rape is perpetrated largely upon males that are homosexual, and that male rape only occurs in prisons (Kaufman et al., 1980). Many male victims face hostility and incorrect stereotypes when coming forward with their experiences. Because of the negative aspects of reporting their victimization experiences, it is thought that the majority of male victims do not contact authorities.

Males who are sexually assaulted are an often-overlooked group of victims (Groth & Burgess, 1980; Mitchell, Hirschman, & Nagayama Hall, 1999). Currently, crime statistics do not present much detail about male rape victimization. National statistics include sexual assaults perpetrated by both males and females but do not make

distinctions between the two (Mitchell, Hirschman, & Nagayama Hall, 1999). According to 1995 crime statistics, approximately 19,390 males above the age of 12 were the victims of rape or attempted rape (U.S. Department of Justice, 1997). However, this figure is thought to be an extreme underestimate since male victims of rape rarely report their experiences.

Multiple scales have been used to measure the attribution of blame in cases of sexual assault. Among the most widely used scales are Rubin and Peplau's Just World Scale, Feild's Attitude Toward Rape Scale, Burt's Rape Myth Acceptance Scale, and Ward's Attitudes toward Rape Victims Scale (Anderson, Cooper, & Okamura, 1997; Brems & Wagner, 1993). These scales, among many others, have been used to measure the cognitive components of rape-related attitudes, to identify peoples' false beliefs about rape, and to determine how strongly people believe that the world is a just place.

The scale upon which this research is largely based is the Attitude toward Rape Victims Scale by Ward. The ARVS was designed specifically to measure perceptions of victims rather than perceptions of rape itself (Ward, 1988). Other goals of the ARVS were to correct for North American slang in previous scales and to create a suitable cross-cultural scale that measures blame attribution toward rape victims (Ward, 1988).

This study will test six hypotheses:

H1: Victims of sexual assault perpetrated by an acquaintance and victims of sexual assault perpetrated by a stranger will be attributed unequal levels of blame.

H2: Male victims of sexual assault who are labeled or perceived as homosexual and male victims who are labeled or perceived as heterosexual will be attributed unequal

levels of blame.

H3: Female victims of rape will be attributed significantly more blame than male victims of rape.

H4: Male subjects will attribute significantly more blame to rape victims than female subjects.

H5: Subjects who show a high belief in a just world will assign significantly greater blame to rape victims.

H6: Subjects who show a high belief in unique invulnerability will assign significantly greater blame to rape victims.

Chapter 2: Attributing Blame to Victims

Theoretical Explanations of Rape Perceptions

Just World

The ability to conceive that the world is a fair place and that people get what they deserve is the essence of the just world concept (McCaul, Veltum, Boyechko, & Crawford, 1990; Muller, Caldwell, & Hunter, 1995). Some believe that one's fate or life events are the result of their actions, and that by living a "good" life, their efforts will be rewarded. To believe that one's good actions are not rewarded would teach many people that life is often unpredictable, uncontrollable, and capricious. The idea that somehow, good deeds are rewarded and bad deeds are punished allows people to maintain a sense of control over their lives and environments (Muller et al., 1995). It gives them a psychological safeguard to deny the fact that many negative life events happen to people who also live good lives.

When the concept of just world is applied to rape victims, those who put faith in a just world often find blame in the victim for the negative event that has befallen them (Feldman, Ullman, & Dunkel-Schetter, 1998; Kleinke & Meyer, 1990; Kramer, 1994; Schneider, 1992; McCaul et al., 1990; Whatley & Riggio, 1993). The idea of a just world provides many men and women with a psychological safety net that allows them to believe that the victim must have some fault in the incident. When an incident occurs that threatens their perception of a just world, believers may alter their perceptions of the victim, blaming the victim to maintain their just world beliefs. It is easier on the perceiver's psyche to believe that somehow the victim partially contributed to or deserved the crime that was inflicted. It is important to realize that believers in a just

world may not always allocate the total share of the blame onto the victim, but may only contribute part of the blame.

Unique Invulnerability

The concept of unique invulnerability provides people with a psychological buffer, similar to the just world concept, to the occurrence of negative events. Those who subscribe to this concept provide themselves with an optimistic bias when comparing their chances of negative life events to the chances of the same events happening to others (Helweg-Larsen, 1999; Klar, Medding, & Sarel, 1996; Snyder, 1997). They believe that their choices and their chances of negative events are less than those of their peers or other similar individuals.

The bias of unique invulnerability has been shown to exist not only in perceptions of the possibility of criminal victimization, but also in age at time of death, chances of involvement in automobile accidents, contraction of sexually transmitted diseases, development of lung disease, development of alcoholism, and development of heart disease (Klein, 1996; McKenna, 1993). Even when presented with evidence of their chance for a certain type of negative event, many people will continue to underestimate their own chances for the occurrence of the event (Snyder, 1997).

Variation in Attribution of Blame

Both the concepts of just world and unique invulnerability contribute to the acceptance of rape myths, which are commonly held but false beliefs about the causes and motivations for rape (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Belief in the idea of a just world is probably more likely to allow people to support rape myths than belief in unique invulnerability, because many rape myths address attribution of blame. Unique

invulnerability is an overestimate of other people's risks or a sense of personal immunity, rather than blame toward victims.

There have been many attempts to define what a rape myth is. In a review of the rape myth literature, Lonsway and Fitzgerald proposed that rape myths are "attitudes and beliefs that are generally false but are widely and persistently held, and that serve to deny and justify male sexual aggression against women" (1994: 134). While these authors took great care to analyze the meaning of "myth", their definition clearly excludes male victims as persons who are subjected to detrimental attitudes and false beliefs about sexual assault.

The literature addressing male sexual assault has shown extensive prejudices and false beliefs toward male victims (Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992). Some of these male rape myths include stereotypes such as: male rape only happens in prisons, male rape victims are to blame for being raped, men who are raped are not upset by it, men should be able to fight off a rapist, and men who are raped are probably homosexual (Kaufman et al., 1980; Kramer, 1998). Therefore, a re-definition of rape myths as "attitudes and beliefs that are generally false but are widely and persistently held, and that serve to deny and justify sexual aggression against both females and males" is more suitable. This thesis will investigate some commonly proposed rape myths including the misconceptions that acquaintance rape victims are more blameworthy than victims of stranger rape, female victims are more blameworthy than male victims, and homosexual male victims are more to blame than heterosexual male victims.

Relationship Between Victim and Offender

A large body of research indicates that individuals blame the victim of an acquaintance rape more than stranger rape (Bridges, 1991; Bridges & McGrail, 1989; Kanekar et al., 1991; Kopper, 1996). In some cases, this might be due to judgments about the victim's character (Barnett et al., 1992). In other cases, the blame placed on the acquaintance rape victim may come from what many see as elements of a "real rape". This perception of a real rape may include the false belief that rape victims will have extensive physical injuries and the perpetrator will have used a weapon during the crime. In fact, typical acquaintance rape victims, compared to stranger rape victims, show fewer signs of physical injuries and are not assaulted with a weapon (Campbell, 1995). That many acquaintance rape victims do not report their experiences to authorities or those close to them may lead some to believe that it was not a "real" rape, or the victim would have sought help (Koss, Dinero, Seibel, & Cox, 1988). Other reasons for a greater amount of blame placed on the victim of an acquaintance rape may stem from the fact that a victim may have voluntarily been in the company, or engaged in some sort of amorous behavior with the assailant prior to the rape taking place. To some research subjects, this brings the issue of consent into question. (Kopper, 1996).

Different types of sexual assault can be affected by womens' beliefs in their own unique invulnerability (Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1997). It has been suggested that women have been taught to perceive familiar men as their "protectors" and unfamiliar men as dangerous or untrustworthy (Brownmiller, 1975). Logically, women will probably not become friends or acquaintances with men they fear or distrust. Therefore, by believing that they have chosen to become familiar with protecting and trustworthy

men, women feel that their chances of being raped by the men they know is less than that of other women.

Male Victims

An overwhelming majority of rape research has focused on sexual assaults in which females are victimized. A greatly overlooked aspect of sexual assault is the substantial amount of male-on-male sexual aggression (Groth & Burgess, 1980; Mitchell et al., 1999). Some pervasive and incorrect ideas that have led to the neglected phenomenon of male sexual assault are that: male rape occurs overwhelmingly in prison settings, it is a sexual substitute caused by lack of female victims, and is an outgrowth of the homosexual subculture (Kaufman et al., 1980).

Male victims of rape experience psychological trauma and concerns similar to female victims, such as mood disturbances, sleep difficulties, eating problems, sexual difficulties, and rape trauma syndrome (Frazier, 1993; Mitchell et al., 1999). Male victims reported feeling more anger than female victims after a rape (Frazier, 1993). Like many female victims, male victims are often concerned that others will judge them harshly (Kramer, 1998).

Many men face stereotypes and rape myths when they come forward with their experiences, which may explain why it is widely assumed that the number of reported male rapes is vastly underreported. Male victims fear the stereotype that men should be able to defend themselves against sexual assaults, the prospect of not being believed, the fact that their sexual orientation may be called into question, and the fact that their sexual history may be brought into question since some states have Rape Shield Laws that only apply to female victims (Kaufman et al., 1980; Kramer, 1998). Because of the

misconception that many male rape victims are homosexual, there is a concern that homonegative prejudices have a detrimental affect on perceptions of male rape victims.

While much research has shown that male-on-male sexual assault encompasses both heterosexual and homosexual perpetrators and victims, many homonegative stereotypes about male rape persist (Groth & Burgess, 1980; Kramer, 1998; Mitchell et al., 1999). Research has shown that many male rape victims are subjected to prejudicial behavior and discriminatory attitudes based on their homosexuality or perceived homosexuality (Kramer, 1998). Juries have acquitted criminal defendants of rape charges when overwhelming evidence is presented, largely in part due to negative perceptions and stereotypes about the sexual orientation of the victims (Kramer, 1998).

Some of these misperceptions and stereotypes about homosexuals or those mistakenly perceived as homosexual are that they were more to blame for the attack due to their promiscuity, which is commonly linked with negative judgments of female victims. It bears mentioning that promiscuity in homosexual men is seen as a negative behavior, while promiscuity among heterosexual men often goes without negative condemnation (Kramer, 1998). Other misperceptions are that male victims, due to their alleged homosexuality, were less traumatized and experienced more pleasure from the rape than did women (Kramer, 1998).

Gender Differences of Victim in Receiving Blame

Since most of the blame attribution literature has focused on blame only toward female victims, relatively few studies have compared blame attribution to both male and female victims. The few studies that have been conducted have found that female victims of sexual assault are attributed greater blame than male victims of similar attacks

(Howard, 1984a,b; Schneider et al., 1994).

However, Howard found that women were not attributed universally greater blame. Items used in Howard's study in which the male victim did not fight back, looked scared, and did not try to escape resulted in more blame toward the male victim than the female victim who displayed the same behavior (Howard, 1984a,b).

Gender Difference of Subjects in Attribution of Blame

A large proportion of the blame attribution literature has been dedicated to the differences between men and women's perceptions of rape victims. Most of the research has shown that men place more blame on the victim of rape than women (Bridges, 1991; Bridges & McGrail, 1989; Kanekar et al., 1991; Pollard, 1992; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992). There is also some evidence that women might denigrate rape victims more than men under some circumstances (Sinclair & Bourne, 1998), while others studies find no gender differences between attribution of rape blame (Johnson, 1994).

Why are males more likely than females to blame victims of rape for their own victimization? Men may attribute more blame to victims than women do because they believe more strongly in the idea of a just world (Whatley & Riggio, 1993). Also, because women may see similarities between themselves and a rape victim, their empathy toward the victim may increase and they will be less apt to blame the victim than men will, regardless of their just world beliefs (Kleinke & Meyer, 1990).

In cases where women denigrate the rape victim (who is usually female) more than men, it is possibly because of their shared vulnerability with the victim. The idea of unique invulnerability, the psychological safety net, may be used by women who need to

believe that there is something different about them that will keep them from being victimized (Sinclair & Bourne, 1998). Female subjects may even show more concern about the safety of their female peers over their own safety from sexual assault (Nurius, 1999).

Independent Variables

Sex

The gender of the respondent is a major factor in attributing victim blame. The literature has shown that males assign greater blame far more often than do females (Anderson et al., 1997; Bridges, 1991; Bridges & McGrail, 1989; Kanekar et al., 1991; Pollard, 1992; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992). It was expected that male subjects would attribute more blame to victims.

Victimization Experience

The experience of being a victim of sexual assault, or even knowing someone who has been sexually assaulted, may have an effect on the responses to survey items. It may be hypothesized that victims or those who know victims may empathize more with rape victims and may respond in a more victim-supportive manner than those with no victimization experience. Respondents who see a similarity between themselves and the victim may be more likely to empathize and less likely to attribute blame to the victim (Kleinke & Meyer, 1990). It was expected that subjects with prior victimization experiences or those who know people who have been victimized will attribute significantly less blame than those who had not been victimized or do not know any victims of sexual assault.

Race/Ethnicity

There has been some research to determine if people of differing ethnicities attribute unequal amounts of blame toward a rape victim. Research has shown that members of minority communities, especially males, are more likely to subscribe to rape myths (Lefley, Scott, Llabre, & Hicks, 1993). Those who assigned greater blame to the victim also held a more traditional view of females and may have been less inclination to view specific acts as rape, even though they may be legally defined as such (Lefley et al., 1993). The research has found that Hispanic males, followed by African-American males, and then Anglo males are the most likely to hold victim-blaming attitudes (Lefley et al., 1993). Some research has shown that Asian students are more likely to endorse negative attitudes toward rape victims than Caucasian students (Mori, Bernat, Glenn, Sele, & Zarate, 1995).

Other studies have also pointed out ethnic differences in both the view that rape is acceptable and attitudes toward rape victims (Dull & Giacopassi, 1987; Fischer, 1986). The present study focuses on whether there are significant racial or ethnic differences in attitudes specifically toward rape victims.

Age

It has been shown that age has an affect on the acceptance of rape myths. Meta-analytical review has shown that as the age of respondents increased, so did their acceptance of rape myths (Anderson et al., 1997). Conclusions about the effect of age have been criticized because many surveys are taken amongst college-age populations, and little is known about the attitudes of older subjects (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). It was expected that students who were significantly older than the subject pool mean

would attribute more blame than those around the mean or younger. This study is somewhat limited in the generalization of the findings as the survey group was composed of college students. Further research should attempt to include subjects with a wider age range.

Gender

Most of the research has shown that men place more blame on the victim of rape than women (Bridges, 1991; Bridges & McGrail, 1989; Kanekar et al., 1991; Pollard, 1992; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992). While there is some research that finds no difference between blame attributions of men and women, consistent with most of the literature, it was expected that male subjects would assign more blame to victims than female subjects.

Belief in a Just World

Believers in a just world often blame victims of negative circumstances (Feldman et al., 1998; Kleinke & Meyer, 1990; Kramer, 1994; Schneider, 1992; McCaul et al., 1990; Whatley & Riggio, 1993). It was expected that those with a higher belief in a just world would attribute more blame to the victim than those with a low belief in a just world.

Unique Invulnerability

Those who believe in unique invulnerability see their chances for the occurrence of negative life events as less than the chances of others (Helweg-Larsen, 1999; Klar et al., 1996; Snyder, 1997). Believers in unique invulnerability feel that they make better choices than others, and that these choices are a sort of safety net that keeps bad events from happening to them. It was expected that those with a higher belief in unique

invulnerability would attribute more blame to sexual assault victims in the survey than those with a low belief in unique invulnerability.

Chapter 3: Data and Methods

This chapter will discuss the creation and refinement of previous scales used to assess attitudes toward rape and rape victims. Four scales, the Just World Scale by Rubin and Peplau, the Attitudes Toward Rape Scale by Feild, the Rape Myth Acceptance Scale by Burt, and the Attitudes toward Rape Victims Scale by Ward, have all had an impact on the study of sexual assault and its victims. This chapter will also discuss the creation of a new scale that measures blame attributions toward rape victims, partially based on Ward's scale.

Previous Use of Scales

Just World Scale

Rubin and Peplau (1973) created a 16-item scale, later changed to a 20-item scale, that measures the degree to which subjects believe that the world is a just place where good people are rewarded and bad people are punished. Compared to non-believers, believers in a just world have been found to be more religious, more authoritarian, more oriented toward internal controls, more likely to have negative attitudes toward victims of social injustice, and more apt to admire existing social institutions (Rubin & Peplau, 1975).

The Just World Scale includes items that ask about abstract situations in which people generally get what they deserve, as well as defined situations that ask about foul play in professional sports and men who exercise and subsequently have heart attacks (Rubin & Peplau, 1975). The original 16-item scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .79, based on data collected from 66 respondents (Rubin & Peplau, 1973). Subsequent research found correlations between the Just World Scale and scales that measured authoritarian

submission, interpersonal trust, religiosity, Protestant Ethic, and locus of control (Rubin & Peplau, 1975).

Attitudes Toward Rape Scale (ATR)

Feild (1978) created the first scale that measured attitudes toward rape. The Attitudes Toward Rape Scale was an attempt to identify the cognitive aspects of rape-related attitudes. Feild found eight independent factors including: 1) the woman's responsibility for rape prevention, 2) the relation of sex to rape, 3) punishment for the rapist, 4) the role of women in precipitating rape, 5) perceived "normality" of the rapist, 6) power motivation in rape, 7) the attractiveness of the victim after rape, and 8) expected behavior of a woman during rape (Anderson et al., 1997). The validity of the scale has been documented through both sex and group (counselors, police, rapists, and citizens) differences in responses and in the relationship between most subscales and attitudes toward women's roles (Ward, 1988). The ATR scale is the second most cited instrument in rape attitudes literature (Anderson et al., 1997).

Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (RMAS)

The most widely utilized measure in rape acceptance literature is Burt's 19-item Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (Anderson et al., 1997). Burt (1980) created the scale to identify false beliefs about rape, rapists, and their victims that are used by people to downplay the seriousness of rape and attribute blame to the victims (Anderson et al., 1997). The Rape Myth Acceptance Scale found four factors: 1) disbelief of rape claims, 2) victim responsibility for rape, 3) rape reports as manipulation, and 4) the belief that rape only happens to certain types of women (Anderson et al., 1997). The RMAS was shown to be both internally consistent and reliable and has shown validity in a

correlational analysis; RMAS scores were significantly related to sex-role stereotyping, adversarial sexual beliefs, and acceptance of interpersonal violence (Ward, 1988).

Attitudes toward Rape Victims Scale (ARVS)

In an effort to further refine a measure of attitudinal variables toward the victims of rape, Ward created the 25-item Attitudes toward Rape Victims Scale (1988). Ward argues that Feild's scale, the ATR, encompasses too many dimensions in too few items. She has also stated that Feild measures attitudes toward the act of rape as opposed to attitudes toward rape victims in half of the dimensions (Ward, 1988). Ward argues that Burt's scale, the RMAS, contains ambiguous or lengthy and awkward statements that are punctuated with North American slang (Ward, 1988). Therefore, the creation of the ARVS was spurred by the need for a cross-cultural index that assesses attitudes toward the victims of rape (Ward, 1988).

Ward had three major features in mind when constructing the ARVS: 1) the specific assessment of attitudes toward rape victims as opposed to attitudes toward rape in general, 2) the emphasis on simplicity and conciseness in language and the omission of idiomatic phrases found in existing scales, and 3) suitable cross-culturally relevant items in the assessment of attitudes toward rape victims for the purpose of extending the scale's utility (Ward, 1988). The scale reflected four notions of: 1) victim blame, 2) disbelief, 3) denigration, and 4) trivialization (Ward, 1988).

The ARVS was shown by Ward to have a Cronbach's alpha of between .83 and .86 in cross-cultural settings, and a test-retest reliability of .80 (1988). Another study has reported the Cronbach's alpha for the ARVS at .75 (Lee & Cheung, 1991). The construct validity of measures of unfavorable attitudes toward victims was established in

correlations with Burt's scales of adversarial sexual beliefs and acceptance of interpersonal violence (Ward, 1988). The ARVS consists of 25 statements measured on a 5 point Likert scale of "disagree strongly, disagree mildly, neutral (neither agree nor disagree), agree mildly, or agree strongly", with corresponding scores of 0 to 4. Two of the statements on the ARVS were taken directly from Feild's Attitudes Toward Rape Scale and five were statements reworded from Feild's ATR scale and Burt's RMAS scale (Ward, 1988). The ARVS contains 8 positive statements and 17 negative statements, with reverse scoring for the positive items, and has a range of 0 to 100, with higher scores reflecting more unfavorable attitudes toward rape victims (Ward, 1988).

Creation of a New Scale

Ward's Attitudes toward Rape Victims Scale will serve as the basis for the creation of a new scale that intends to measure attitudes toward rape victims. The ARVS is used primarily as a model, not for its cross-cultural suitability, which is one of its noteworthy assets, but for its isolation of attitudes toward victims of rape as opposed to rape itself. The benefit of concise statements and cross-cultural suitability is not disregarded however, as both are beneficial to gaining insight into the attitudes of survey subjects.

While Ward's scale will be used as a model, it leaves many measures of attitudes toward rape victims unaddressed. First, the ARVS contains statements in which only women are the victims of sexual assault, completely ignoring the fact that men may also be sexually victimized. Second, the ARVS does not measure differences in perceptions between victims of divergent, classifiable types of rape such as stranger rape and acquaintance rape. Third, the ARVS does not address differences in perceptions of male

victims who are labeled or perceived as homosexual as compared to heterosexual, thus completely ignoring any effect that homonegativity may have on perceptions of male rape victims.

For this thesis, I have created two versions of a survey that attempt to account for some of the shortcomings of previous scales that measure the attribution of victim blame. I have added items that address the issue of male sexual assault, items that address perceived or actual homosexuality of male victims, items addressing blame attributed to stranger rape victims versus acquaintance rape victims, and items that address male versus female victims.

Data Collection

The subjects utilized in this study consisted of a convenience sample of undergraduate students from Michigan State University during the fall semester of 2000. The subjects were drawn from criminal justice undergraduate courses. It was hoped that by sampling from lower level courses that the subjects would be unbiased by any graduate level criminal justice study which has dealt with sexual assault or victimization. Lower level courses often contain students from a variety of academic majors as well.

The sampling was nonrandom in nature and consisted of over 300 research subjects. Two different surveys were utilized in the data collection. Some survey items were used with a female as the victim, and others with males as the victim, but both in the same situation. Male and female equivalent items were divided up between the two surveys so that both would not appear on the same survey. Other items that compared blame toward male versus female victims, acquaintance rape versus stranger rape victims, and homosexual male versus heterosexual male victims within the same

statement were put on both surveys.

Proposed Analysis

Univariate Analysis

The univariate analysis utilized in this research consisted of one sample t-tests. To test Hypothesis 1, the mean point total for items assessing blame toward acquaintance rape victims was compared to a neutral mean of 1. To test hypothesis 2, the mean point total for items assessing blame toward homosexual male victims was compared to a neutral mean of 1. The neutral mean of 1 indicates that subjects assess equal amount of blame to both stranger and acquaintance rape victims, and both homosexual and heterosexual male rape victims. Subsequent analysis was conducted using cross tabulations and corresponding bar charts to evaluate the differences in responses by male and female subjects.

Bivariate analysis

Bivariate analysis was used to compare the mean scores on 32 statements. Sixteen of the statements had a female as the victim, and sixteen of the statements had a male as the victim in the same situation. The mean of each statement in a pair was compared to the mean of the other statement in that pair, which utilized the same situation with the opposite gender as the victim. This analysis was used to test Hypothesis 3, which states that female victims will be attributed more blame than male victims.

Bivariate analysis was also utilized to compare the z-scores of subjects on two scales measuring female victim blame (the NATFV1 and NATFV2 scales) and two scales measuring male victim blame (the NATMV1 and NATMV2 scales) according to the gender of the subject. This analysis was used to test Hypothesis 4, which states that male

subjects are more likely to attribute a higher amount of blame. To test both Hypothesis 5 and 6, I utilized bivariate correlation to determine if there was a correlation between scores on just world and unique invulnerability items and the mean scores on the four scales used to assess male and female victim blame (the NATFV1, NATFV2, NATMV1, and NATMV2 scales).

Multivariate analysis

Regression analysis of scales used to measure the negative attitude toward female and male victims (NATFV1, NATFV2, NATMV1, and NATMV2) was utilized in the multivariate analysis. As a continuation of testing Hypothesis 4, regression was used to control for victimization experiences of self and friends, race, age, just world belief, and unique invulnerability belief in order to determine if gender of the subject alone is a significant factor in the attribution of blame toward sexual assault victims.

Chapter 4: Analysis

This chapter will discuss the analysis of the independent and dependent variables, as well as the creation of the multiple scales used in the analysis. This study utilized seven independent variables including; age, gender, race/ethnicity, personal victimization experience, close or friendly relationship with the victim of a sexual assault, belief in a just world, and belief in unique invulnerability. The dependent variables in the study include individual survey items as well as several different scales; the Negative Attitudes Toward Female Victims 1 scale (NATFV1), the Negative Attitudes Toward Female Victims 2 scale (NATFV2), the Negative Attitudes Toward Male Victims 1 scale (NATMV1), and the Negative Attitudes Toward Male Victims 2 scale (NATMV2).

The aforementioned scales are classified by the items pertaining to blame toward males and females from the corresponding version of the survey from which they were taken. For example, some items assessing blame toward females from the first version of the survey (See Appendix A) make up the scale NATFV1. Some items assessing blame toward female victims that were utilized in the second version of the survey (See Appendix B) would be NATFV2. The same logic applies with the male blame assessment items. When referring to these scales in the analysis, I will use the shorthand abbreviations: NATFV1, NATFV2, NATMV1, and NATMV2. The items included in the NATFV1, NATFV2, NATMV1, and NATMV2 scales were chosen after review of factor analysis and reliability testing, and were also chosen to match counterpart items on a scale that measures the opposite gender. For example, the seven items included in the NATFV1 scale are comparable to the seven items included in the NATMV2 scale, and

the seven items included in the NATFV2 scale are comparable to the seven items included in the NATMV1 scale.

Abbreviations of individual survey items, the survey on which they appeared, the author of the survey items, and which hypotheses they were used in the analysis of are contained in Appendix C. Note that items with an abbreviation ending with a “2” indicates they were reverse coded. These items were written to not place blame on the victim, in hopes of reducing response bias by creating items where the respondent has to indicate his/her agreement or disagreement about situations in which the victim is blamed and other situations in which the victim is not blamed.

Independent Variables

The independent variables utilized in this study measure factors that might affect a person’s decision to blame the victim of sexual assault. The independent variables related to three of the hypotheses in this study include gender, belief in a just world, and belief in unique invulnerability. It was hypothesized that male subjects would assign greater victim blame than female subjects (Hypothesis 4). It was also hypothesized that subjects who agree that the world is just (Hypothesis 5) or agree with the idea of unique invulnerability (Hypothesis 6) would assign greater blame to victims than those who disagree.

The original number of responses to the survey was 312. There were 57 surveys not completed. The majority of rejected surveys were not included in the analysis because respondents did not indicate which version of the survey they had completed (version 1 or 2), making it impossible to use their responses due to different items on the two versions of the survey. It is assumed that there was no bias in the sample selection.

Therefore, subsequent analysis is based on responses contained in the 255 completed surveys.

Age

The mean age of the subjects was 19.82 years, with a standard deviation of 1.93 years (See Table 1). The variable age was negatively skewed, which is not surprising since the surveys were given to undergraduates. The bulk of respondents ranged from 18 to 22 years old, with this 5-year grouping making up 92.3% of the responses.

Gender

Of the 255 responses, the frequency of male respondents was 144 or 56.5% (See Table 1). There were 111 female respondents, comprising 43.5% of the responses.

Race/Ethnicity

Of the responses, 230 or 90.2% of the respondents considered themselves Caucasian (See Table 1). African American was listed for 13 responses, or 5.1% of the total. There were 3 Hispanic/Latino respondents, comprising 1.2 % of the total. There were 8 Asian/Pacific Islander respondents, comprising 3.1 % of the total. Only one subject responded as Other, comprising .4 % of the total. The results are not surprising considering that Michigan State University has a predominantly Caucasian student body.

Personal Victimization Experience

Respondents were asked whether they had ever been sexually assaulted. A definition of “sexually assaulted” was given on both versions of the survey. This variable is nominal level, with options of yes or no. Of the responses, 21 respondents, or 8.2%, indicated that they had been the victims of sexual assault (See Table 1). Those who

indicated that they had not been sexually assaulted consisted of 234 respondents, or 91.8% of the responses.

Close or Friendly Relationship with Victim of Sexual Assault

Respondents were also asked if they had a close or friendly relationship with a person who had been sexually assaulted. This variable is nominal level, with options of yes or no. Of the responses, 86 or 33.7% of the respondents indicated that they were close or friendly with someone who had been the victim of sexual assault (See Table 1). Those who indicated that they were not friendly or close with a victim consisted of 169 responses, or 66.3%, of the responses.

Table 1 – Descriptive Statistics for Independent Variables (N = 255)			
Age	Mean	19.82	
	Standard Deviation	1.93	
Variable	Category	Number of Valid Responses	Percentage of Valid Responses
Gender	Male	144	56.5%
	Female	111	43.5%
Race / Ethnicity	Caucasian	230	90.2%
	African American	13	5.1%
	Hispanic/Latino	3	1.2%
	Asian/Pac. Islander	8	3.1%
	Other	1	0.4%
Personal Victimization?	Yes	21	8.2%
	No	234	91.8%
Friend Been Victimized?	Yes	86	33.7%
	No	169	66.3%

Belief in Just World

Six of the items used in the surveys were taken from Rubin & Peplau's (1975) Just World Scale, only five of which were used in the final analysis (See Appendix C). These items were selected from Rubin & Peplau's scale due to this researcher's belief

that they might give an accurate reflection of how people view the world as it relates to criminal victimization.

The means of subjects' responses to five items were used in the creation of a scale that measured a belief in a just world. This scale was utilized as an independent variable in the analysis. The combination of the five scores was labeled "Just World Belief Scale". The mean z-score for subjects on this scale was 1.52. This mean shows that respondents generally believe in a just world. Table 2 shows the survey items measuring just world beliefs and their abbreviations.

Table 2 – Just World Items and their Abbreviations	
Basically, the world is a just place.	Wrldjust
By and large, people deserve what they get.	Dserv
Many people suffer through absolutely no fault of their own.	Suffer2
People who get "lucky breaks" have usually earned their good fortune.	Luckybrk
People who meet with misfortune have often brought it on themselves.	Misfort
Scale consisting of subjects z-score from means on items from Wrldjust, Dserv, Suffer2, Luckybrk, & Misfort	Just World Belief Scale

Belief in Unique Invulnerability

A search of the literature revealed no scale that specifically addressed the belief in unique invulnerability. Therefore, four items were created to measure the strength of respondents' attitudes about their own invulnerability.

The means of subjects' responses to four questions were used in the creation of a scale that measured a belief in their unique invulnerability. This scale was utilized as an independent variable in the analysis. This combination of four scores was labeled "Unique Invulnerability Scale". The mean z-score for subjects on this scale was -2.12. This mean shows that respondents generally do not feel a sense of unique invulnerability.

Table 3 shows the survey items that measured respondents' beliefs in unique invulnerability and their abbreviations.

Table 3 – Unique Invulnerability Items and their Abbreviations	
I make smarter decisions than others.	Smart
Negative events are less likely to happen to me than to happen to others.	Negevent
Violent crimes are just as likely to happen to me as they are to happen to others.	Violcrim2
There is a significant difference between people who have bad things happen to them and myself.	Sigdif
Scale consisting of subjects z-score from means on items Smart, Negevent, Violcrim2, & Sigdif	Unique Invulnerability Scale

Dependent Variables

There were two versions of the survey used in this study. Each version consisted of a combination of 10 just world and unique invulnerability ordinal level items (used as independent variables in the analysis) and 26 victim-blame attribution ordinal level items, in a Likert-scale format. The 36 items on each survey had possible responses of disagree strongly, disagree mildly, neutral (neither agree nor disagree), agree mildly, or agree strongly. The items were scored 1-5, strongly disagree measuring 1 and agree strongly measuring 5. Fifteen of the 36 items were reverse coded to attribute no blame toward the victim in hopes of reducing respondent bias, and were reverse scored in the analysis. The reverse scoring was used as a result of including “positive” statements that did not indicate victim blame. It was hoped that by including a combination of items that both attributed blame and did not attribute blame, the findings would be more robust than they would have been by using only items that attributed blame. Both surveys also contained 5 questions that asked for demographic/ personal history information including age,

gender, race/ethnicity, whether the respondent had been sexually victimized, and whether the respondent was close or friendly with a victim of sexual assault.

The ten just world and unique invulnerability items were placed as the first ten items on each survey and were used to create two independent variables, belief in a just world and belief in unique invulnerability. The remaining 26 items on each survey that specifically measure attitudes toward rape victims are a combination of items taken directly from Ward's ATRV scale and items I've created that Ward's scale did not address. Ward's scale utilized items that measured attitudes only toward female victims. Therefore, equivalent items asking about attitudes toward male victims of sexual assault in the same situations were created. Additional items were created that reflected ideas not addressed in Ward's scale, such as differences in attitudes toward victims of stranger and acquaintance rape or attitudes toward male victims labeled or perceived as homosexual (See Appendix C).

Seventeen items with either a female victim or a male victim in the same situation were selected for each of the two versions of the survey. No two items with the female victim and the male victim in the same situation were placed on the same survey, in order to reduce bias in answering. Nine additional items that compared blameworthiness of male victims as opposed to female victims, and homosexual men against heterosexual men within the same item (for example: Gay men probably enjoy being raped more than straight men) were created by this researcher and were included on both versions of the survey (See Appendix C).

Throughout the tables included in the analysis, abbreviations for the survey items are used. The following tables, (Tables 4-10) display the survey items and their

abbreviations for future reference. The items in Table 4, which measure the amount of blame attributed toward acquaintance rape victims, were used to test Hypothesis 1.

These items include situations that are commonly associated with acquaintance rape, including lack of traumatic physical injuries, not contacting medical help or law enforcement personnel, and lack of resistance by the victim of an acquaintance rape. Therefore, it should be noted that while these items did not specifically state that the victim was involved in an acquaintance rape, the items include commonly occurring themes in acquaintance rapes and the literature addressing them.

Table 4 – Acquaintance/Stranger Rape Items and their Abbreviations	
The extent of a woman's resistance should not be a major factor in determining if a rape has occurred.	Wmstrug 2
The amount a man struggled should not be a major factor in determining if he was raped.	Mnstrug 2
A man who claims he was raped by someone he does not know is more believable than a man who claims to have been raped by someone he does know.	Man- sabl v
A woman who claims that a stranger raped her is more believable than a woman who claims to have been raped by an acquaintance.	Wom- sabl v
A woman with physical injuries is more likely to be telling the truth about being raped than a woman without physical injuries is.	Wominjr
A man without physical injuries is more likely to be lying about being raped than a man with physical injuries is.	Maninjr
Men who do not contact medical personnel, law enforcement personnel, or mental health professionals probably were not raped.	Mancntct
A woman who does not contact the police, medical, or mental health professionals probably was not raped.	Wom- cntct

The items in Table 5 were used in Hypothesis 2 to measure the amount of blame attributed toward homosexual male victims.

Table 5 – Homosexual / Heterosexual Male Victim Items and their Abbreviations	
A gay man who is raped is probably just as traumatized as a straight man that is raped.	Gytrmst2
Gay men probably enjoy being raped more than straight men.	Gymr-enjy
Gay men are more responsible for being raped than straight men due to their behaviors and lifestyle.	Gybhvr
Gay men who are raped probably did not get what they deserved.	Gayman 2

The items in Table 6 were used in Hypothesis 3 to compare blame attributed to female victims versus male victims. The categories in this table consist of both male and female equivalent items. One survey used a situation with a female as the victim, while the other survey had a male as the victim.

Table 6 – Type of Statement with Male and Female Victim Equivalent used in Bivariate Analysis and their Abbreviations	
Category measuring desirability of victim from items Rapwom & Rapman	Rapedes
Category measuring extent of victim resistance in blame attribution from items Mnstrug2 & Wmstrug2	Struggle
Category measuring belief in the victim as innocent of wrong-doing from items Wominct & Maninct2	Innocent
Category measuring blame toward those with previous sexual experiences with a man from items Womprior & Manprior	Priorsex
Category measuring belief that it would be good for some victims to be raped from items Mangdrp & Womgdrp	Rapegood
Category assessing blame toward victims rape while taking a ride with a stranger from items Manstngr & Womstgr2	Rapestgr
Category assessing blame toward people out alone at night from items Womalone & Manalone	Alonengt
Category assessing whether rape accusations by prostitutes should be taken seriously from items Womprst2 & Manprost	Prostitute
Category assessing subjects agreement that victim should blame self from items Menblame & Womblam2	Blamerpe
Category assessing agreement that victim can fight off rapist if he/she really tries from items Hlthywom & Hlthyman	Healthy
Category measuring blame toward those with previous sexual experiences with a man from items Womexp & Manexp	Sexexp
Category assessing subjects agreement that victim deserved to be raped from items Mandsrv2 & Womdesrv	Deserve
Category assessing subjects agreement that someone who claims stranger rape is more believable than someone who claims acquaintance rape from items Womsablv & Mansablv	Stranger
Category assessing whether victim with physical injuries is more believable than victim without physical injuries from items Maninjr & Wominjr	Injury
Category assessing whether victim who did not contact medical, law enforcement, or mental health personnel is lying from items Womcntct & Mancntct	Contact

The items in Tables 7 through 10 were used to test Hypothesis 4, which links gender of the rape victim to attributions of blame attributions toward female and male subjects, Hypothesis 5 which links victim blame to just world belief, and Hypothesis 6 which links victim blame and belief in unique invulnerability. These items were used to create the NATFV1, NATMV1, NATFV2, and NATMV2 scales that measured attitudes toward female victims and male victims. The scales NATFV1 and NATMV2 have equivalent items for male and female victims and the scales NATMV1 and NATFV2 have equivalent items for male and female victims.

Table 7 – Negative Attitudes Toward Female Victims 1 (NATFV1) Items and their Abbreviations

A raped woman is a less desirable woman.	Rapwom
A raped woman is usually not an innocent victim.	Wominct
Any female may be raped.	Anywom2
A woman who goes out alone at night puts herself in a position to be raped.	Womalone
A healthy woman can successfully resist a rape if she really tries.	Hlthywom
A woman who claims that a stranger raped her is more believable than a woman who claims to have been raped by an acquaintance.	Womsablv
A woman who does not contact the police, medical, or mental health professionals probably was not raped.	Womcntct

Table 8 – Negative Attitudes Toward Male Victims 2 (NATMV2) Items and their Abbreviations

Men who are raped are less desirable.	Rapman
A raped man is usually an innocent victim.	Maninct2
Any man can be raped.	Anyman2
A man who goes out alone at night invites rape.	Manalone
Nearly any man can fight off a rapist if he really tries.	Hlthyman
A man who claims he was raped by someone he does not know is more believable than a man who claims to have been raped by someone he does know.	Mansablv
Men who do not contact medical personnel, law enforcement personnel, or mental health professionals probably were not raped.	Mancntct

Table 9 – Negative Attitudes Toward Male Victims 1 (NATMV1) Items and their Abbreviations

The amount a man struggled should not be a major factor in determining if he was raped.	Mnstrug2
It would be good for some men to be raped.	Mangdrp
Men who are raped while accepting rides from strangers get what they deserve.	Manstngr
Male prostitutes who claim to have been raped should be doubted.	Manprost
Men should blame themselves for being raped.	Menblame
In the majority of cases, men who were raped did not deserve it.	Mandsrv2
A man without physical injuries is more likely to be lying about being raped than a man with physical injuries is.	Maninjr

Table 10 – Negative Attitudes Toward Female Victims 2 (NATFV2) Items and their Abbreviations

The extent of a woman's resistance should not be a major factor in determining if a rape has occurred.	Wmstrug2
It would do some women good to be raped.	Womgdrp
Women, who accept rides from strangers and are subsequently raped, did not deserve to be raped.	Womstgr2
Accusations of rape by female prostitutes should not be viewed with suspicion.	Womprst2
Women should not blame themselves for being raped	Womblam2
In most ceases when a woman was raped, she deserved it.	Womdesrv
A woman with physical injuries is more likely to be telling the truth about being raped than a woman without physical injuries is.	Wominjr2

Reliability and Factor Analysis of Scales

Scales were created to measure belief in a just world, belief in unique invulnerability, negative attitudes toward female victims, and negative attitudes toward male victims. Two different scales were created to measure both negative attitudes toward female victims (NATFV1 and NATFV2), and negative attitudes toward male victims (NATMV1 and NATMV2) due to the two different survey versions. The NATFV1 and NATMV2 scales are comprised of seven equivalent items and the NATFV2 and NATMV2 scales are comprised of seven equivalent items.

Reliability tests were used to determine which items should be discarded from the analysis due to weak ability to measure the same concept as the other items in the scale. The alpha values for the Just World Belief Scale, Unique Invulnerability Scale, and NATFV2 scale were weak, all measuring below .5. The alpha values for the NATMV1, NATMV2 and NATFV1 scales were moderate, measuring .6352, .4634, and .5182 respectively.

Factor analysis was utilized to create scales and the factor scores for respondents on those scales. For example, four items measuring different aspects of belief in unique invulnerability were subjected to factor analysis resulting in a Unique Invulnerability Scale. Each item on the Unique Invulnerability Scale had a factor loading of .472 or higher. Respondents' factor scores showed their agreement with the general idea of unique invulnerability. Values for each scale are z-scores, which indicate distance away from the average feelings about unique invulnerability. Positive values on the factor score indicate a strong belief in unique invulnerability, while negative values indicate a low belief in unique invulnerability. The benefit of using factor analysis to create scales lies in the ability to weight some items in the scale more heavily than others. In a simple summary scale (where items are simply added together), each item receives the same weight. For example, the item Negevent has the largest factor loading in the Unique Invulnerability scale, with a factor score of .79. This indicates that it is the best measure of unique invulnerability out of the four items comprising the scale.

In factor analysis, the normal minimum for factor loading is .5. However, the small number of subjects, coupled with the exploratory nature of the study, required a less stringent standard in order to analyze and interpret the findings.

Just World Belief Scale

Of the six just world items used in the scales, only five were present in the final Just World Belief Scale. The alpha reliability of the five items was low, measuring .4508 (See Table 11). The five items factor loaded at .4 or above (See Table 11). Two of the items had a factor loading of between .4 and .5, two items had a factor loading between .5 and .6, and one item had a factor loading of .755.

Table 11 –Reliability and Factor Loading - Just World Belief Scale (Alpha = .4508)	
Variable	Factor Loading
Wrldjust	.432
Dserv	.755
Suffer2	.488
Luckybrk	.531
Misfort	.580

(N = 255)

Unique Invulnerability Scale

All four of the unique invulnerability items were included in reliability and factor analyses. The alpha reliability of the four items was moderate, measuring .4966 (See Table 12). The factor analysis of the unique invulnerability items, like the just world items, displayed moderate factor loadings greater than .4. Two of the items were between .45 and .50, while the other two items were both above .70 (See Table 12).

Table 12 -Reliability and Factor Loading -Unique Invulnerability Scale (Alpha =.4966)	
Variable	Factor Loading
Smart	.495
Negevent	.790
Violcrim2	.472
Sigdif	.746

(N = 255)

Negative Attitudes Toward Female Victims

Items from both surveys that measured negative attitudes toward female victims were measured for reliability and factor loading and formed two scales. The first scale,

NATFV1, included seven items from the first version of the survey, while the second scale, NATFV2, included seven items from the second version of the survey. The alpha reliability of NATFV1 was moderate, measuring .5182 (See Table 13). Factor analysis of this scale showed a moderate fit between the seven items, all but one of which had a loading between .35 and .71 (See Table 13).

The NATFV2 scale was not as reliable or well fitting as NATFV1. The alpha reliability of NATFV2 was weak, measuring .2722 (See Table 13). Factor analysis showed a weak fit between the seven items. Three of the items had factor scores below .23, while the other four had factor scores above .58 (See Table 13).

Table 13 –Reliability and Factor Loading – Negative Attitudes Toward Female Victims (NATFV1 & NATFV2)

NATFV1	Variable	Factor Loading
(Alpha = .5182)	Rapwom	.655
	Wominct	.525
	Anywom2	.132
	Womalone	.346
	Hlthywom	.591
	Womsablv	.663
	Womcntct	.712
NATFV2	Variable	Factor Loading
(Alpha = .2722)	Womstrug2	.178
	Womgdrp	.650
	Womstgr2	.650
	Womprst2	.234
	Womblam2	.645
	Womdesrv	.575
	Wominjr2	.018

Total (N = 255)

NATFV1 (N = 139)

NATFV2 (N=116)

Negative Attitudes Toward Male Victims

Two scales consisting of responses to items that measured negative attitudes toward male victims were subjected to reliability testing and factor loading. The first scale, NATMV1, included seven items from the first survey, while the second scale, NATMV2, included seven items from the second survey. The alpha reliability of NATMV1 was moderate, measuring .6352 (See Table 14). Factor analysis of NATMV1 showed a good fit between the seven items, all but one of which were between .41 and .67 (See Table 14).

The second scale, NATMV2, was not as reliable and well fitting as NATMV1. The alpha reliability of NATMV2 was barely moderate, measuring .4634 (See Table 14). Factor analysis of NATMV2 showed a moderate fit between the 7 items. Five of the seven scores were between .46 and .64, while the other two were below .20 (See Table 14).

Table 14 – Reliability and Factor Loading – Negative Attitudes Toward Male Victims (NATMV1 & NATMV2)

NATMV1	Variable	Factor Loading
(Alpha = .6352)	Mnstrug2	.544
	Mangdrp	.405
	Manstngr	.635
	Manprost	.531
	Menblame	.664
	Mandsrv2	.671
	Maninjr	.489
NATMV2	Variable	Factor Loading
(Alpha = .2722)	Rapman	.204
	Maninct2	.620
	Anyman2	.178
	Manalone	.568
	Hlthyman	.460
	Mansablv	.634
	Mancntct	.643

Total (N = 255)

NATMV1 (N = 139)

NATMV2 (N=116)

Univariate Analysis

The items utilized in the analysis of Hypothesis 1, which identifies blame attributions toward victims of acquaintance rape and stranger rape, and Hypothesis 2 which identifies blame attributions toward male victims labeled or perceived as either homosexual or heterosexual, were subjected to one sample t-tests for analysis. The null hypotheses for Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2 stated that the items in these analyses assessing would have a mean of 1, meaning that acquaintance rape victims and stranger rape victims, and homosexual and heterosexual male victims, were blamed equally for their victimization.

A mean of 1 would indicate that subjects would strongly disagree that one type of victim was more responsible for their victimization than the other type of victim. If response means were significantly above 1, the null hypothesis would be rejected. A

mean significantly greater than 1 but below 3 suggests that subjects agree that acquaintance rape victims are not more to blame, but that their agreement is not as strong or not absolute. If the mean was greater than 3, it would suggest that subjects feel that acquaintance rape victims or homosexual male victims are more to blame than stranger rape victims or heterosexual male victims.

Blame Attribution Toward Victims of Acquaintance Rape

Hypothesis 1 contends that victims of sexual assault by an acquaintance and victims of sexual assault by a stranger would be attributed an unequal amount of blame. Responses to eight items were subjected to analysis by one sample T-test. Four of the eight items used females as the victims of sexual assault; the other four items used males in the role of the victim. While only two of the items specifically mentioned rape by a person known to the victim, the other six items encompassed concepts identified in literature that have been used to negate the seriousness of acquaintance rape or blame an acquaintance rape victim, such as lack of injuries, not contacting help, and the amount of resistance by the victim.

The null hypothesis, that subjects blame acquaintance rape victims equally as much as stranger rape victims, was rejected. The mean of the responses to all eight items were significant (See Table 15). Rather than strongly disagreeing, subjects mildly disagreed that acquaintance rape victims are no more to blame for their victimization than stranger rape victims. Even though the null hypothesis was rejected and the amount of blame was not equal, the subjects still disagreed, albeit less strongly, that acquaintance rape victims are more blameworthy than stranger rape victims.

Table 15 – One Sample T-test – Comparison of Mean for Blame Attribution Toward Acquaintance Rape Victims to Neutral Mean

Variable	Mean	Significance
Wmstrug2*	3.05	.000
Mnstrug2**	2.76	.000
Mansablv*	2.56	.000
Womsablv**	2.18	.000
Wominjr*	2.57	.000
Maninjr**	2.41	.000
Mancntct*	1.60	.000
Womcntct**	1.46	.000

** (N = 139)

* (N = 116)

While the subjects as a whole disagreed acquaintance rape victims were more blameworthy than stranger rape victims, further analysis of the responses revealed interesting differences between the attitudes of male and female respondents. Cross-tabulations and bar charts reveal that male respondents were more likely than female respondents to agree that acquaintance rape victims were more to blame than stranger rape victims.

Responses to all eight items showed that the percentage of males who agreed with blame attribution toward acquaintance rape victims was higher than the percentage of females who attributed blame (See Table 16). Females were more likely to disagree than males that acquaintance rape victims deserve more blame than stranger rape victims. Scores range from 1 (Disagree Strongly) to 5 (Agree Strongly).

Table 16 - Percentage Who Attributed Blame Toward Acquaintance Rape Victims		
	Gender of Respondents	Score of 3, 4, or 5
Wmstrug2	Male	62.7%
	Female	51.0%
Mnstrug2	Male	61.1%
	Female	41.9%
Mansablv	Male	64.2%
	Female	38.8%
Womsablv	Male	39.0%
	Female	30.6%
Wominjr	Male	56.8%
	Female	32.6%
Maninjr	Male	54.6%
	Female	29.1%
Mancntct	Male	22.4%
	Female	2.0%
Womcntct	Male	14.3%
	Female	1.6%

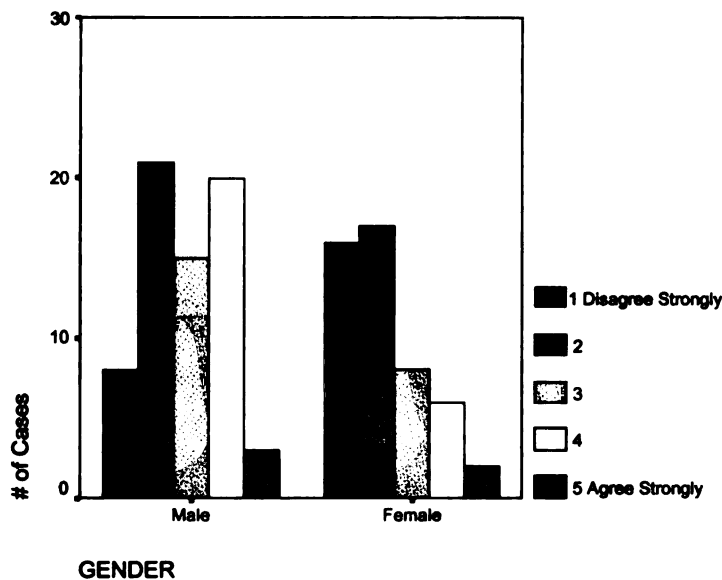
Further understanding can be garnered through closer analysis of two sets of responses utilized in the analysis of Hypothesis 1. The item assessing blame toward female victims who do not display physical injuries and the item assessing blame toward male victims who do not display physical injuries, a common occurrence in acquaintance rape situations, showed that men were far more likely to blame the victim. The percentage of women who disagreed that the presence of injuries on a female victim did not warrant blame attribution (score of 1 or 2) was 67.4% of the responses, while for men it was 43.2% (See Table 17).

Viewing the data in bar chart format, it can be seen that the chart representing the responses of male subjects is somewhat bell-shaped, indicating a large degree of variance. The female bar chart shows a positive skew, indicating less blame attribution (See Bar Chart 1)

Table 17 – Frequencies and Percentages of Response Scores – Wominjr						
	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Male Subjects	8 11.9%	21 31.3%	15 22.4%	20 29.9%	3 4.5%	67 100.0%
Female Subjects	16 32.7%	17 34.7%	8 16.3%	6 12.2%	2 4.2%	49 100.0%

(N = 116)

Bar Chart 1 – Wominjr



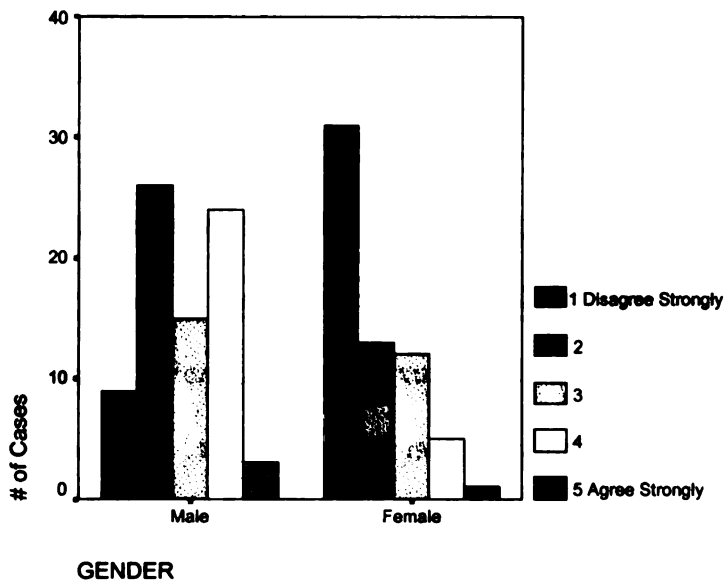
The percentage of female subjects who disagreed that the presence of injuries on a male victim did not warrant blame attribution (score of 1 or 2) was 71.0% of the responses, while for male subjects it was 45.5% (See Table 18). Again, female subjects were less apt to assign victim blame. Viewing the data in a bar chart, the male responses group to the middle, again showing a large degree of variance in the responses. Female responses have a positive skew, indicating less blame attribution (See Bar Chart 2). There is far less variance in the female responses than in the male responses.

Table 18 – Frequencies and Percentages of Response Scores – Maninjir

	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Male Subjects	9 11.7%	26 33.8%	15 19.5%	24 31.2%	3 3.9%	77 100.0%
Female Subjects	31 50.0%	13 21.0%	12 19.4%	5 20.9%	1 2.9%	62 100.0%

(N=139)

Bar Chart 2 - Maninjir



Blame Attribution Toward Male Victims Labeled or Perceived as Homosexual

Hypothesis 2 contends that male victims of sexual assault, labeled or perceived as homosexual, will be attributed an unequal amount of blame compared to male victims who are labeled or perceived as heterosexual. Responses to four items were subjected to analysis by one sample T-test. These items encompassed rape myths that have not been substantially addressed in academic literature, such as gay men are not as traumatized or are more deserving of rape than straight men.

The null hypothesis for Hypothesis 2 would state that items assessing blame toward homosexual male rape victims and would have a mean of 1, meaning that male rape victims labeled or perceived as homosexual and male rape victims labeled or perceived as heterosexual would be blamed equally for their victimization. A mean of significantly greater than 1 but below 3 indicates that subjects disagree that homosexual male victims are more to blame than straight male victims, while a mean greater than 3 suggests that subjects feel that homosexual male victims are more to blame than straight male victims.

The null hypothesis, that subjects blame male homosexual victims equally as much as they blame male heterosexual victims, was rejected. The mean of the responses to all four items were significant (See Table 19). Rather than strongly disagreeing, subjects mildly disagreed that homosexual male rape victims are no more to blame for their victimization than heterosexual male rape victims. Even though the null hypothesis was rejected and the amount of blame was not equal, the subjects still disagreed, albeit less strongly, that homosexual male victims were more blameworthy than heterosexual male victims.

Table 19 – One Sample T-test – Comparison of Mean for Blame Toward Male Homosexual Victims Compared to Neutral Mean

Variable	Mean	Significance
Gytrmst2	1.95	.000
Gymrenjy	1.88	.000
Gybhvr	2.02	.000
Gayman2	2.56	.000

(N =255)

As was the case with the responses to Hypothesis 1, further analysis shows that while the respondents as a whole disagreed homosexual males are more to blame than heterosexual males, male subjects assigned greater blame to the victim than female

subjects. On each of the four items, males had a higher percentage of responses that indicated blame attribution (See Table 20). Females were more likely to disagree that males labeled or perceived as homosexual were to blame for being victimized. Scores range from 1 (Disagree Strongly) to 5 (Agree Strongly).

Table 20 - Percentage Who Attributed Blame Toward Homosexual Male Rape Victims		
	Gender of Respondents	Score of 3, 4, or 5
Gytrmst2	Male	35.4%
	Female	10.8%
Gymrenjy	Male	38.9%
	Female	13.5%
Gybhvr	Male	42.4%
	Female	14.4%
Gayman2	Male	51.4%
	Female	42.3%

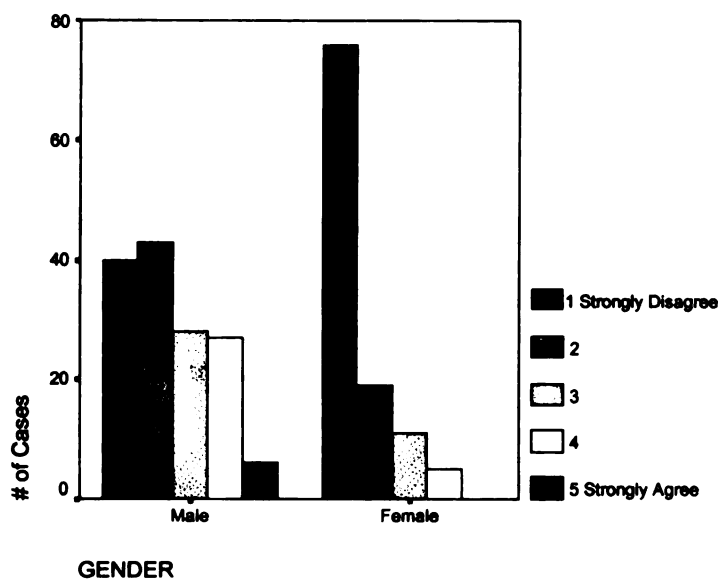
Looking at one of the items that asks respondents whether gay men are more responsible for being raped than straight men due to their behaviors and lifestyle (Gybhvr), will provide better insight as to the differences in blame attribution between male and female subjects. Female respondents disagreed that homosexual male rape victims should be attributed blame with 85.6% of their responses, compared to just 57.6% of male responses (See Table 21).

A visual representation of the data does even more to show the stark difference between male and female responses (See Bar Chart 3). The male data groups toward left-center and shows a great deal of variance in responses, while the female data has a severe positive skew, indicating less blame attribution. There is very little variance in the female responses, indicating that most female subjects show a strong opinion about the lack of blameworthiness for homosexual male rape victims due to their lifestyles and behaviors

Table 21 – Frequencies and Percentages of Response Scores – Gybhvr

	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Male Subjects	40 27.8%	43 29.9%	28 19.4%	27 18.8%	6 4.2%	144 100.0%
Female Subjects	76 68.5%	19 17.1%	11 9.9%	5 4.5%	0 0.0%	111 100.0%

(N=255)

Bar Chart 3 - Gybhvr**Bivariate Analysis****Difference in Assignment of Blame by Gender of Victim**

Hypothesis 3 contends that female victims of rape will be attributed more blame than male victims of rape. There were 32 questions utilized in this analysis, 16 from each version of the survey (See Appendices A & B). Each of the 16 questions had a counterpart on the opposite survey in which the situation was the same, but the gender of the victim was opposite.

Each of the 16 items on each version of the survey had a corresponding gender. The mean scores for each item were compared to the mean scores of the counterpart item from the other survey, in which the gender was opposite. The variables listed in Table 22 are abbreviations for the type of situation to which there are female and male equivalent statements, one from either survey. The situation for both the male and female versions of the item is the same.

Fifteen of the sixteen sets of items were used in analysis. The set of items not included were thought to overlap with the concept of unique invulnerability and were excluded in hopes of keeping the responses valid. Of the fifteen sets of items in which there were male and female counterparts as victims, 10 sets of the items had significantly different means (See Table 22). Of the 10 sets with significantly different means, only 3 of the mean differences signified a higher level of blame attribution toward female victims.

The items that showed significantly more blame toward the female victim pertained to the fault of the rape victim for taking a ride with a stranger, the fault of the rape victim for going out alone at night, and the unbelievability of a prostitute's accusations of rape. Men were blamed more in situations in which the perceiver agreed that a man should have been able to fight off his attacker, in which the victim was labeled or perceived as homosexual, and in which the desirability or innocence of the victim was questioned.

Table 22 - Independent Samples T-test – Comparison of Means of Blame Attributions Toward Female and Male Victims

Variable	Gender	Mean	Sig.
Rapedes	Female**	1.85	.000
	Male*	2.64	
Struggle	Male**	2.76	.118
	Female*	3.05	
Innocent	Female**	1.47	.000
	Male*	2.33	
Priorsex	Female**	1.23	.003
	Male*	1.54	
Rapegood	Male**	1.35	.272
	Female*	1.24	
Rapestgr	Male**	1.60	.030
	Female*	1.89	
Alonengt	Female**	3.23	.000
	Male*	1.62	
Prostitute	Male**	2.38	.000
	Female*	3.20	
Blamerpe	Male**	1.48	.432
	Female*	1.57	
Healthy	Female**	1.72	.000
	Male	2.42	
Sexexp	Female**	1.17	.000
	Male*	1.83	
Deserve	Male**	1.80	.000
	Female*	1.26	
Stranger	Female**	2.18	.005
	Male*	2.56	
Injury	Male**	2.41	.287
	Female*	2.57	
Contact	Male**	1.46	.144
	Female*	1.60	

** (N = 139)

* (N = 116)

The data from the independent samples T-test generally fail to reject the null hypothesis that female victims are blamed equally as much as male victims. Female victims were attributed significantly higher blame on only 3 sets of the 10 survey items.

Male victims were attributed greater blame on the other 7 significant sets. The other 6 sets of items either had no significant difference between the mean blame attribution scores. It appears that male victims are blamed far more often than female victims of sexual assault.

Difference in Assignment of Blame by Gender of Subject

Hypothesis 4 contends that male subjects will attribute significantly more blame to rape victims than female subjects. Independent samples t-tests were run on the NATFV1, NATFV2, NATMV1, AND NATMV2 scales.

The level of significance of the difference between the mean z-scores for blame attribution by male versus female subjects on all four scales allows for the rejection of the null hypothesis. A value of .05 or less signifies that the difference between the mean z-scores by male and female subjects is significant. The level of significance of the difference between male and female subjects' level of blame on the NATFV1 scale was .000, well below the requisite level of .05 to reject the null hypothesis (See Table 23). The level of significance on the NATFV2 scale was .014. The level of significance on the NATMV1 scale was .000. The level of significance on the NATMV2 scale was .001.

The difference in the means for all of the scales supported Hypothesis 4, showing that males in the study attributed significantly more blame to victims of sexual assault across scales. On every scale, female subjects had a negative mean, while male subjects had a positive mean. Females were more likely to disagree mildly with attribution of blame toward victims, while males were more likely to agree mildly with attribution of blame toward victims.

Table 23 – Independent Samples T-test – Male vs. Female Subjects Attributions of Blame

Scale	Gender of Subject	Mean	Significance
NATFV1	Male	.450	.000
	Female	-.558	
NATFV2	Male	.181	.014
	Female	-.247	
NATMV1	Male	.365	.000
	Female	-.453	
NATMV2	Male	.252	.001
	Female	-.345	

* Total (N = 255)

Ver. 1 (N = 139)

Ver. 2 (N=116)

Just World Belief and Victim Blame

The fifth hypothesis, that those with high belief in a just world will assign more blame to rape victims, was generally supported in this analysis. Based on the correlation matrices, belief in a just world was positively related to blame towards female and male victims on the NATFV1 and NATMV1 scales, but not toward female and male victims from the NATFV2 and NATMV2 scales. Considering that the NATFV1 and NATMV1 scales are considered the better of the four scales, the hypothesis finds some support.

The Pearson Correlation shows a weak correlation of .280 between scores on the Just World Belief Scale and victim blame on the NATFV1 scale (See Table 24). The variables have a 2-tailed significance of .001 at the 0.01 level. The direction of the correlation is positive, meaning the higher the belief in a just world, the higher the level of blame toward female rape victims on the first version of the survey.

The Pearson Correlation shows a weak correlation of .253 between scores on the Just World Beliefs Scale and victim blame on the NATMV1 (See Table 24). The variables have a significance of .003 at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). The direction of the

correlation is positive, meaning the higher the belief in a just world, the higher the level of blame toward male rape victims on the first version of the survey. Just world beliefs were unrelated to victim blame on the NATFV2 and NATMV2 scales.

Table 24 – Significance & Correlation – Just World & Victim Blame		
NATFV1	Pearson Correlation	.280
	Significance	.001**
NATFV2	Pearson Correlation	.072
	Significance	.442
NATMV1	Pearson Correlation	.253
	Significance	.003**
NATMV2	Pearson Correlation	.017
	Significance	.857

**** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 (2-tailed)**

Ver. 1 (N = 139)

Ver. 2 (N= 116)

Unique Invulnerability Belief and Victim Blame

The sixth hypothesis, that those with high belief in unique invulnerability will assign more blame to rape victims, was generally supported in this analysis. Based on the correlation matrices, belief in unique invulnerability was positively related to blame toward female victims using the NATFV1 scale and blame towards male victims using the NATMV1 scale.

The Pearson Correlation shows a weak correlation of .322 between scores on the Unique Invulnerability Scale and victim blame on the NATFV1 scale (See Table 25). The variables have a 2-tailed significance of .000at the 0.01 level. The direction of the correlation is positive, meaning the higher the belief in a just world, the higher the level of blame toward female rape victims on the first version of the survey. Belief in unique invulnerability was unrelated to female victim blame on the NATFV2 scale.

The Pearson Correlation for the NATMV1 scale shows a weak correlation of .266 between unique invulnerability beliefs and male victim blame (See Table 25). The variables have a 2-tailed significance of .002 at the 0.01 level. The direction of the correlation between unique invulnerability and male victim blame on the NATMV1 scale is positive, indicating that subjects with a higher belief in unique invulnerability attributed significantly greater blame toward male victims than did subjects with a low belief in unique invulnerability. Belief in unique invulnerability was unrelated to male victim blame on the NATMV2 scale.

Table 25 – Significance & Correlation – Unique Invulnerability & Victim Blame		
NATFV1	Pearson Correlation	.322
	Significance	.000**
NATFV2	Pearson Correlation	-.009
	Significance	.921
NATMV1	Pearson Correlation	.266
	Significance	.002**
NATMV2	Pearson Correlation	.107
	Significance	.254

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 (2-tailed)

Ver. 1 (N = 139)

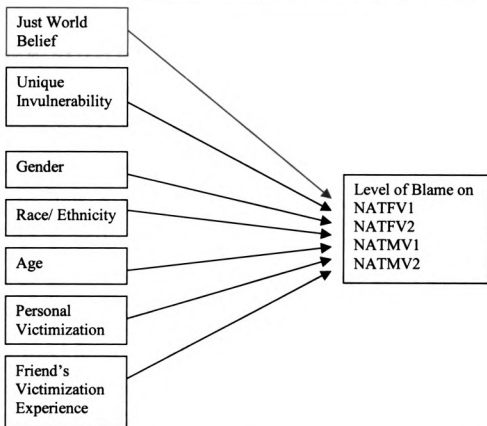
Ver. 2 (N = 116)

Multivariate Analysis

Multiple Regression

The use of multiple regression allows for analysis of an independent variable, while controlling for the effects of the other independent variables. The NATFV1, NATFV2, NATMV1, and NATMV2 scales were utilized as the dependent variables, while scores on the Just World Belief Scale and Unique Invulnerability Scale, gender, race/ethnicity, age, personal victimization, and friend's victimization experience were utilized as the independent and control variables (See Model 1).

Model 1 – Multiple Regression – Independent, Controlling, and Dependent Factors



The variables gender, race/ethnicity, personal victimization, and friend's victimization experience were dummy coded for analysis. Race/ethnicity was dummy coded into categories of white "0" and non-white "1". Gender was coded with males as "0" and females as "1". Personal Victimization and Friend's Victimization Experience were both coded as "0" for yes and "1" for no. Scores on the Just World Belief Scale and the Unique Invulnerability Scale were not recoded, as they are both interval level variables. Age was not recoded, as it is a ratio level variable.

Using multiple regression to account for variation in victim blame on the NATFV1 scale, the R-square statistic was .316 (See Table 26). The seven independent and control variables accounted for approximately 32% of the variation in victim blame on the NATFV1 scale. The significance of gender was less than .001, and Beta showed a moderate relationship between the variables, measuring -.429 (See Table 26). The significance of belief in unique invulnerability was .024, and Beta showed a weak relationship between the variables measuring .180.

Using the NATFV1 scale, gender is the overwhelming determinant of subject attribution of blame toward a victim, controlling for the other independent variables. Belief in unique invulnerability was the only other significant variable with an influence on victim blame, when controlling for the other variables. This finding is important because it further supports the notion that the gender of the subject plays a vital role in whether that person will blame victims of sexual assault.

Table 26 – Multiple Regression – Independent Variables & NATFV1

R-square	Variable	Significance	Beta
.316	Constant	.032	
	Just World Belief	.195	.103
	Unique Invulnerability Belief	.024	.180
	Gender	.000	-.429
	Age	.109	-.120
	Race/Ethnicity	.619	-.037
	Personal Victimization	.856	.014
	Friend's Victimization	.482	-.055

(N=139)

Using multiple regression to account for variation in victim blame on the NATFV2 scale, the R-square statistic was .073 (See Table 27). The seven independent and control variables accounted for approximately 7% of the variation in negative attitudes toward female victims from the second survey. Gender of the subject was significantly related to victim blame on the NATFV2 scale, controlling for the other six factors. The significance of gender was .029, and Beta showed a weak relationship between the variables, measuring -.220 (See Table 27).

Table 27 – Multiple Regression – Independent Variables & NATFV2

R-square	Variable	Significance	Beta
.077	Constant	.202	
	Just World Belief	.609	.049
	Unique Invulnerability Belief	.535	-.060
	Gender	.029	-.220
	Age	.289	-.102
	Race/Ethnicity	.820	.022
	Personal Victimization	.360	-.088
	Friend's Victimization	.762	-.029

(N=116)

Using multiple regression to account for variation in victim blame on the NATMV1 scale, the R-square statistic was .203 (See Table 28). The seven independent and control variables accounted for approximately 20% of the variation in negative attitudes toward male victims from the first survey.

Gender of the subject was significantly related to victim blame on the NATMV1 scale, controlling for the other six factors. The significance of gender was less than .001, and Beta showed a weak relationship between the variables, measuring -.341 (See Table 28).

Table 28 – Multiple Regression – Independent Variables & NATMV1			
R-square	Variable	Significance	Beta
.273	Constant	.486	
	Just World Belief	.182	.155
	Unique Invulnerability Belief	.095	.143
	Gender	.000	-.341
	Age	.719	-.029
	Race/Ethnicity	.817	-.018
	Personal Victimization	.968	-.003
	Friend's Victimization	.568	.048

Ver 1. (N=139)

Using multiple regression to account for variation in victim blame on the NATMV2 scale, the R-square statistic was .158 (See Table 29). The seven independent and control variables accounted for approximately 16% of the variation in negative attitudes toward male victims from the first survey.

Gender was significantly related to male victim blame on the NATMV2 scale, controlling for the other six factors. The significance of gender was .001, and Beta showed a moderate relationship between the variables, measuring -.315 (See Table 29). Age was also significantly related to male victim blame using the NATMV2 scale, controlling for the other six factors. The significance of age was .034, and Beta showed a weak relationship between the variables, measuring -.195.

Table 29 – Multiple Regression – Independent Variables & NATMV2

R-square	Variable	Significance	Beta
.259	Constant	.018	
	Just World Belief	.892	.012
	Unique Invulnerability Belief	.739	.031
	Gender	.001	-.315
	Age	.034	-.195
	Race/Ethnicity	.103	.151
	Personal Victimization	.964	-.004
	Friend's Victimization	.456	-.069

Ver 2. (N=116)

The use of multiple regression shows that male subjects are more likely to display negative attitudes toward both female and male victims of sexual assault. Those with a stronger belief in a just world on the NATMV1 scale were more likely to display victim-negative attitudes. Younger individuals on the NATMV2 scale were more likely to engage in victim-blaming behavior. The finding that younger subjects were more likely to blame victims runs counter to other academic literature which states that older individuals are more likely to blame victims.

Effects of Gender

The analyses in this chapter have shown that gender is consistently related to victim blame. Univariate analyses showed differences in blame attribution between males and females through closer examination of cross-tabulations and bar charts. Bivariate analyses showed that belief in a just world and belief in unique invulnerability were also a significant determinant of victim blame. However, multiple regression showed that belief in unique invulnerability was significantly related to victim blame, while controlling for six other factors, in only one of four scales (NATFV1). Belief in a

just world was not a significant factor, while controlling for six other factors, in any scale utilized for multiple regression.

The reason for the failure of just world belief and unique invulnerability belief in influencing victim blame, when controlling for other factors, may be the presence of gender as a significant variable. Gender may influence just world and unique invulnerability beliefs, which then influence victim blame. To determine if gender was a significant influence on just world and unique invulnerability beliefs, I conducted bivariate analyses utilizing independent samples t-tests.

Gender proved to be a significant influence on subjects' beliefs in a just world. Males had a significantly greater belief in a just world than females did (See Table 30). The mean score for males on the Just World Belief Scale was .193, while the mean score for females was -.250. The significance of t was .000. Females, as a group, disagreed that the world is a just place, while males tended to agree that the world is a just place.

Table 30 - Independent Samples T-test– Just World Belief Scale & Gender

Gender	N	Mean	Significance (2-tailed)
Male	144	.193	.000
Female	111	-.250	

Gender also proved to be a significant influence on subjects' beliefs in their own unique invulnerability. Males had a significantly greater belief in unique invulnerability than females did (See Table 31). The mean score for males on the Unique Invulnerability Scale was .234, while the mean score for females was -.303. The significance of t was .000. Females, as a group, disagreed that they were uniquely invulnerable, while males, as a group, agreed that they were uniquely invulnerable.

Table 31 – Independent Samples T-test– Unique Invulnerability Scale & Gender			
Gender	N	Mean	Significance (2-tailed)
Male	144	.234	.000
Female	111	-.303	

Further discussion about the relevance and meaning of the findings will be included in the next chapter.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Three of the hypotheses tested in this study were supported, while the other three hypotheses were not supported. The contentions in Hypothesis 1, Hypothesis 2, and Hypothesis 3 did not find support. The contentions in Hypothesis 4, Hypothesis 5, and Hypothesis 6 did find support.

H1: Subjects, as a whole, disagreed that acquaintance rape victims were more to blame than stranger rape victims, however male subjects were more likely than female subjects to attribute blame toward acquaintance rape victims.

H2: Subjects, as a whole, disagreed that homosexual male victims were more to blame than heterosexual male victims, however male subjects were more likely than female subjects to attribute blame toward homosexual male victims.

H3: Subjects did not attribute more blame to female victims, but rather attributed more blame toward male victims.

H4: Male subjects attributed greater blame toward rape victims than female subjects.

H5: Those with a higher belief in a just world attributed greater blame than those with a low belief in a just world.

H6: Those with a higher belief in unique invulnerability attributed greater blame than those with a low belief in unique invulnerability.

Findings

Hypothesis 1

The lack of support for my first hypothesis contradicts previous research, finding that subjects, as a whole, did not blame acquaintance rape victims significantly more than stranger rape victims. Reasons for this contradiction might be that current undergraduate students are more aware about the incidence of acquaintance rape, especially among college students, than in the past.

Another reason for the lack of difference in blame could be that five statements in which the victim was male were included. As stated previously, academic research has not clearly shown if males are assaulted more by strangers or by acquaintances. The research also fails to state whether those who sexually assault males are usually male or female. The literature has shown a tendency for subjects to blame female acquaintance rape victims, but has not addressed blame toward male acquaintance rape victims. It may be possible that subjects view male victims of acquaintance rape in a different manner, which may dilute findings about opinions toward acquaintance rape victims as a whole, when the group includes both male and female victims.

Further research assessing blame toward acquaintance rape and stranger rape victims could benefit by measuring attitudes toward male victims of acquaintance rape as compared to both male victims of stranger rape. Analysis of attitudes toward male victims of acquaintance rape versus female victims of acquaintance rape could also be a prosperous direction. The analysis of the gender of the victim, along with the victim's relationship to the perpetrator might provide clarity as to what type of victim is blamed more and for what reason.

Hypothesis 2

The lack of support for my second hypothesis contradicts previous research. I found that subjects, as a whole, did not blame male rape victims labeled or perceived as homosexual significantly more than they blamed male rape victims who were labeled or perceived as heterosexual. Perhaps the lack of support for this hypothesis may result from the fact that a college-aged sample may be less homonegative than the general population.

The lack of empirical research in comparing blame attribution between gay and straight male victims may have caused this researcher to state the hypothesis in the wrong direction, attributing more blame to homosexual male victims, rather than attributing more blame to heterosexual male victims. Perhaps subjects see sexual victimization as an inherent factor that exists within the gay lifestyle, and are more spiteful toward heterosexual men who were victimized. However, the findings for Hypothesis 3 suggest that subjects may not be influenced by the sexual orientation of the male victim, but simply by the fact that the victim is male.

Hypothesis 3

The lack of support for my third hypothesis contradicts previous research, finding that subjects did not blame female rape victims significantly more than male rape victims. Reasons for the lack of support could include subjects' empathy for both female and male victims of rape or the fact that subjects blame male victims more than female victims. The independent samples t-test run on the 16 sets of survey items revealed only 3 sets of items that displayed greater blame toward a female victim, while 7 sets of items

attributed greater blame toward male victims. It seems that male victims are seen as far more to blame for their victimization than females.

Men were blamed more in situations in which the perceiver thought that men should be tough enough to resist a rape, in which the victim was homosexual, and in which the desirability or innocence of the victim was called into question. The presence of male blame in which the victim was labeled or perceived as homosexual points to a need for better measurements of blame which specify whether the gender of the victim or the sexual orientation of the victim is the major target of blame. Hypothesis 2 supports the idea that subjects do not blame homosexual male victims more than heterosexual male victims. It is likely that the items used in this hypothesis in which the males were blamed significantly more than females for having previous sexual relations with a man, resulted in greater blame not from a negative view toward the victim as a homosexual, but rather a negative view towards the victim as a male. Items that better differentiate and measure responses toward various male rape myths, such as males should have been able to defend themselves or that male rape victims are homosexual, might be able to clarify just why it is that male rape victims are blamed more often than females.

Hypothesis 4

Analysis supported my fourth hypothesis, that male subjects will attribute significantly more blame to rape victims than female subjects. The independent samples t-tests showed that male subjects agreed that some blame should fall the victims on the NATFV1, NATFV2, NATMV1, and NATMV2 scales. Female subjects disagreed that blame should fall on the victims in all four of the scales.

Perhaps female subjects feel a type of universal empathy for victims of crime. It would be interesting to discover if female subjects attributed less blame attribution than male subjects on scales measuring many different types of criminal victimization. It may be possible that females may feel some sort of commonality with victims that the Unique Invulnerability Scale does not measure.

The belief in a just world may also hold promise in further investigation into gender differences in victim blame attribution. Perhaps future research could further analyze gender differences in just world belief by subject gender, instead of victim gender. It was shown that gender was a significant influence on both belief in a just world and belief in unique invulnerability. Perhaps the linkages between gender, just world beliefs, unique invulnerability beliefs, and victim blame could be clarified in subsequent research.

Hypothesis 5

Analysis supported my fifth hypothesis, that those with high belief in a just world will assign more blame to rape victims than those with a low belief in a just world. Bivariate analysis showed that just world beliefs were significantly related to victim blame on the NATFV1 and NATMV1 scales. Although the NATFV2 and NATMV2 scales did not show any correlation with just world beliefs, the two scales that showed significant influence, NATFV1 and NATMV1, are considered the better scales by this researcher.

Utilizing multivariate regression, none of the scales were significantly impacted by just world beliefs, while controlling for six other variables. However, this lack of impact may be from the use of responses from only five just world statements in the

survey and its analysis. There may be too few just world items in the scale utilized to gain an accurate understanding as to the involvement of just world beliefs in the blaming of victims.

Another shortcoming may be that just world beliefs cannot be accurately measured by including only statements that ask about the deservedness of criminal victimization. Rubin and Peplau's Just World Scale is a 20-item survey that asks about not only criminal victimization, but the deservedness of non-victimization circumstances such as heart attacks. A comparison of scores on Rubin & Peplau's Just World Scale with a separate survey asking about victimization might be able to better explain the correlation between just world belief and blame attribution toward sexual assault victims.

The significant impact of gender on beliefs in a just world also needs to be further investigated. Reasons why male subjects were more apt to believe in a just world than female subjects should be further evaluated.

Hypothesis 6

Analysis supported my sixth hypothesis, that those with high belief in unique invulnerability will assign more blame to rape victims. Bivariate analysis showed a correlation between belief in unique invulnerability and victim blame on the NATFV1 and NATMV1 scales.

However, multiple regression showed that belief in unique invulnerability was significant in only one of the four scales (NATFV1), when controlling for six other factors. Perhaps there were too few items, only four, to gain a clear understanding of the role of unique invulnerability in victim blaming. The clearly significant factor influencing unique invulnerability and victim blaming was the gender of the subject.

Therefore, a better understanding of how gender affects belief in unique invulnerability, and how victim blaming is affected by this influence, should be a focus of future research.

Implications of Gender Differences in Victim Blaming

The overwhelming influence of the gender of subjects on victim blaming warrants further discussion. Males tended to be more critical of victims than females in nearly every regard. Why did male subjects blame sexual assault victims more than female subjects did?

Perhaps the answer lies in the differences in sex role socialization between males and females. The difference in how men and women see themselves in relation to others, along with the source of their personal worth, are developed through different definitions of what is appropriate for men and what is appropriate for women. During the sex role socialization process, females come to view their intrinsic self-worth as tied to the ability to care for others (Gilligan, 1982). They find that interdependence, relationships, and communication are what constitute a female identity. To inflict hurt, in any form, upon another is viewed as selfish and immoral because it shows a lack of caring for others (Gilligan, 1982). The expression of care comes to be seen by women as a moral responsibility.

For males, the sex role socialization process instills a self-worth based upon logic, law, rules, and order. Men come to rely on the notions of truth and fairness as absolutes (Gilligan, 1982). Males, rather than finding value and identity within attachments to others, find it in separation from others (Gilligan, 1982). Men seek individuality, not connection, as a means of empowerment and masculinity.

The female psychological perspective, as opposed to the male perspective, leads not only to a less violent life, but also a maturity based on interdependence and taking care of others (Gilligan, 1982). Females participate in an ongoing process of attachment that creates and sustains a human community, while males strive to be unattached from others (Gilligan, 1982).

This difference in the development in men and women as to what constitutes empowerment and identity may factor into victim blaming. Perhaps pro-victim attitudes by female subjects constitute an ability to care for others, a result of their sex role socialization and a pillar to their female identity. To state that a victim deserved their victimization would be selfish and contradict what it means to be female. Males might hold more negative attitudes toward victims because attachments and the ability to care about others are not the inherent principles in male sex role socialization as they are in female sex role socialization.

If Gilligan is correct, males may contradict their masculinity by stating that the victim is not to blame for their victimization. For males, rules and logic dictate thought. Therefore it may not be a stretch for them to believe that for some reason, the sexual assault was justified because of the actions of the victim.

Another possible reason for greater victim-blaming attitudes by male subjects could be that males may not think about sexual victimization as much as females. Sexual assault is seen largely as a problem where females are the victims. Some people are not even aware that men can be raped. Therefore, females may be better educated about the issue and its many facets than males are. Level of knowledge about sexual assault might provide insight into gender differences in perception of victims. If females worry about

sexual assault more than men do, perhaps they also think about the victims of sexual assault and the situations they may face more than men do, resulting in greater empathy toward the victims.

Suggestions for Future Research

There are several directions for improvement in which this study may lead future research. This thesis has shown some problem areas to avoid in subsequent efforts to understand sexual victimization. First, the sample utilized in this study was small, only 255 usable cases. A larger sample might produce more reliable results.

Second, the sample was relatively young, with the bulk of respondents between ages 18 and 22. Academic research has shown that there are significant differences between the way college students view the world as opposed to older, non-college students (Schneider, 1992). Along with age, the fact that the respondents are pursuing higher education may also be a source of response bias.

Third, the racial/ethnic makeup of the sample was rather homogeneous. Over 90% of the respondents were Caucasian. This does little to point out any differences in perceptions of rape victims influenced by race or ethnicity. Student populations tend to consist of limited racial and ethnic diversity, and may limit the cultural expression of whatever demographic diversity does exist (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). A sample with a greater minority representation might provide some insight into cultural differences, if any exist.

Fourth, the sample was taken from criminal justice undergraduate courses. It was assumed that not all of the respondents would be criminal justice majors or would have enough knowledge about criminal victimization to taint the responses. However, perhaps

criminal justice courses attract a certain type of individual that is not representative of college students in general. Further studies may utilize courses from a variety of majors in which to survey students.

Fifth, the survey contained statements that required a variety of analyses, from univariate to multiple regression. While it may seem that the variety of analyses could add to the reliability of the survey items, further research would be able to better address which type of survey items and which format in to use them in would provide the most reliable and valid responses. The use of reverse coding for some of the items may have also caused confusion among some of the subjects or have affected the analyses in some manner. It is worth noting that the scale NATFV2, which was the weakest of the four victim blame scales, was comprised of five items with reverse coding.

Sixth, the two versions of the survey contained some items with similar situations, but were not worded in exactly the same way. For example, an item on Survey 1 reads “A woman who goes out alone at night puts herself in a position to be raped”, while the counterpart item on Survey 2 reads “A man who goes out alone at night invites rape.” The fact that these two items, while containing a similar idea, are worded differently may have made the comparison and use of the items in analysis less reliable. Future studies would likely benefit from having items worded exactly the same, except for the gender of the subject.

Implications & Summary

It is important to understand why victims of sexual assault are sometimes blamed for their victimization. This research has shown that the gender of a person interpreting a sexual assault situation has a significant effect upon that person’s likelihood to blame the

victim. Determinants of victim blame are important to understand because it has been shown that judgmental attitudes of individuals have an effect on the legal processes in which victims find themselves (Pollard, 1992).

What do we do with the knowledge that gender has an overwhelming influence on victim-blaming? The knowledge that men are more likely to blame victims must be used to promote the alteration of current sex role socialization for boys. A fundamental change in society regarding how we view masculinity and femininity in relation to our treatment and of others must be undertaken. Society needs to teach males early on that caring about others does not constitute weakness. Men need to be taught that to empathize with the situations of others does not make one less of a man and that detachment does not have to be a vital part of the male identity. Boys and men must be instilled with the ability to communicate and value relationships and attachments, as well as the knowledge that these attributes are not in conflict with a positive male identity. If boys and men are continually instilled with the idea that caring about others makes one weak or less manly, true progress towards victim empathy remains unattainable on a societal level.

A host of other implications arises from males and their tendency toward victim denigration. A male perspective dominates the history of law and justice in this country. Not until 1920 were women given the constitutional right to vote. No female has been elected president in the 200 plus years of the United States. Only two women have sat on the Supreme Court and the United States Congress has been overwhelmingly masculine in its makeup throughout its existence. The role of women in the creation and implementation of federal, not to mention state, laws has been subservient to the

masculine role. If those who make laws, decide judicial outcomes, and implement sentencing are overwhelmingly male and are affected by sex role socialization and its implications as described by Gilligan, then systemic conflict and power differential between males and females who decide which people receive justice will remain a real issue.

An overhaul of how we view and treat people in general, not to mention victims of sexual assault, is needed. This change needs to begin early on with the socialization of children. Males and females alike need to be taught that nobody, regardless of whether they are male or female, gay or straight, deserves to be blamed for being raped.

It is commonly stated that sexual assaults are not often reported. If individuals who have been sexually assaulted are in constant fear of harsh judgment when coming forward with their stories, sexual assault will continue to be one of the most underreported crimes. If the extent of the problem is never in plain view, solutions and effective prevention are highly unlikely.

APPENDIX A

Survey 1

**** BEFORE ANSWERING ANY QUESTIONS, indicate your age in the first two columns of the SECTION box on the Scantron form. Also enter the number 1 in the FORM box on the Scantron form.**

After entering your age in the SECTION box and the number 1 in the FORM box, continue with the questions below in the numbered section of the Scantron form.

Please indicate your opinion according to the following scale:

**(1) Disagree Strongly (2) Disagree Mildly (3) Neutral (Neither Agree nor Disagree)
(4) Agree Mildly (5) Agree Strongly**

- 1) Basically, the world is a just place.
- 2) By and large, people deserve what they get.
- 3) Many people suffer through absolutely no fault of their own.
- 4) I make smarter decisions than others.
- 5) Negative events are less likely to happen to me than to happen to others.
- 6) People who get “lucky breaks” have usually earned their good fortune.
- 7) I’ve found that a person rarely deserves the reputation he or she has.
- 8) Violent crimes are just as likely to happen to me as they are to happen to others.
- 9) There is a significant difference between people who have bad things happen to them and myself.
- 10) People who meet with misfortune have often brought it on themselves.

Please indicate your opinion according to the following scale:

**(1) Disagree Strongly (2) Disagree Mildly (3) Neutral (Neither Agree nor Disagree)
(4) Agree Mildly (5) Agree Strongly**

For the purposes of this survey, the word rape means: Penetrated orally, vaginally, or anally with a penis or object against his/her wishes

- 11) A raped woman is a less desirable woman.
- 12) Gay men who are raped probably did not get what they deserved.
- 13) The amount a man struggled should not be a major factor in determining if he was raped.
- 14) A raped woman is usually not an innocent victim.
- 15) Women who have had prior sexual relationships with a man should not complain about being raped.
- 16) Male prostitutes who claim to have been raped should be doubted.
- 17) It would be good for some men to be raped.
- 18) Any female may be raped.
- 19) A gay man who is raped is probably just as traumatized than a straight man that is raped.
- 20) Men who are raped while accepting rides from strangers get what they deserve.
- 21) A woman who goes out alone at night puts herself in a position to be raped.
- 22) Men should blame themselves for being raped.
- 23) A healthy woman can successfully resist a rape if she really tries.
- 24) Sexually experienced women are not really damaged by rape.
- 25) In the majority of cases, men who were raped did not deserve it.
- 26) A woman who is raped is almost always more traumatized than a man who is raped.
- 27) A man who is raped is probably homosexual.

Please indicate your opinion according to the following scale:

**(1) Disagree Strongly (2) Disagree Mildly (3) Neutral (Neither Agree nor Disagree)
(4) Agree Mildly (5) Agree Strongly**

For the purposes of this survey, the word rape means: Penetrated orally, vaginally, or anally with a penis or object against his/her wishes

-
- 28) A woman who claims rape is more believable than a man who claims rape is.
- 29) Gay men probably enjoy being raped more than straight men.
- 30) Its ok for a woman to be traumatized by rape, but a man who is raped should move on with his life.
- 31) A man is more likely to be raped by someone he knows than by someone he's never met before.
- 32) A woman who claims that a stranger raped her is more believable than a woman who claims to have been raped by an acquaintance.
- 33) A man without physical injuries is more likely to be lying about being raped than a man with physical injuries is.
- 34) Men are more to blame for being raped than women are because they should have been able to fight off the rapist.
- 35) A woman who does not contact the police, medical, or mental health professionals probably was not raped.
- 36) Gay men are more responsible for being raped than straight men due to their behaviors and lifestyle.
-

Please answer some questions about yourself.

- 37) What is your gender? (1) Male (2) Female
- 38) What is your race/ethnicity? (1) Caucasian (2) African American
(3) Hispanic/Latino (4) Asian / Pacific Islander (5) Other
- 39) Have you ever been sexually assaulted (Been penetrated orally, vaginally, or anally with a penis or object against your wishes)? (1) Yes (2) No

40) Do you have a close or friendly relationship with a person who has been sexually assaulted (Been penetrated orally, vaginally, or anally with a penis or object against her/his wishes)? (1) Yes (2) No

APPENDIX B

Survey 2

**** BEFORE ANSWERING ANY QUESTIONS, indicate your age in the first two columns of the SECTION box on the Scantron form. Also enter the number 2 in the FORM box on the Scantron form.**

After entering your age in the SECTION box and the number 2 in the FORM box, continue with the questions below in the numbered section of the Scantron form.

Please indicate your opinion according to the following scale:

**(1) Disagree Strongly (2) Disagree Mildly (3) Neutral (Neither Agree nor Disagree)
(4) Agree Mildly (5) Agree Strongly**

- 1) Basically, the world is a just place.
- 2) By and large, people deserve what they get.
- 3) Many people suffer through absolutely no fault of their own.
- 4) I make smarter decisions than others.
- 5) Negative events are less likely to happen to me than to happen to others.
- 6) People who get “lucky breaks” have usually earned their good fortune.
- 7) I’ve found that a person rarely deserves the reputation he or she has.
- 8) Violent crimes are just as likely to happen to me as they are to happen to others.
- 9) There is a significant difference between people who have bad things happen to them and myself.
- 10) People who meet with misfortune have often brought it on themselves.

Please indicate your opinion according to the following scale:

**(1) Disagree Strongly (2) Disagree Mildly (3) Neutral (Neither Agree nor Disagree)
(4) Agree Mildly (5) Agree Strongly**

For the purposes of this survey, the word rape means: Penetrated orally, vaginally, or anally with a penis or object against his/her wishes

-
- 11) Men who are raped are less desirable.
 - 12) The extent of a woman's resistance should not be a major factor in determining if a rape has occurred.
 - 13) Men who have had prior sexual relationships with a man should not complain about being raped.
 - 14) It would do some women good to be raped.
 - 15) Gay men who are raped probably did not get what they deserved.
 - 16) Any man can be raped.
 - 17) Women, who accept rides from strangers and are subsequently raped, did not deserve to be raped.
 - 18) A gay man who is raped is probably just as traumatized than a straight man that is raped.
 - 19) A man who goes out alone at night invites rape.
 - 20) Accusations of rape by female prostitutes should not be viewed with suspicion.
 - 21) Women should not blame themselves for being raped.
 - 22) A man who is raped is probably homosexual.
 - 23) A raped man is usually an innocent victim.
 - 24) Nearly any man can fight off a rapist if he really tries.
 - 25) Men who have had sexual experience with other men are not really damaged by rape.
 - 26) In most cases when a woman was raped, she deserved it.
 - 27) A woman who is raped is almost always more traumatized than a man who is raped.

Please indicate your opinion according to the following scale:

**(1) Disagree Strongly (2) Disagree Mildly (3) Neutral (Neither Agree nor Disagree)
(4) Agree Mildly (5) Agree Strongly**

For the purposes of this survey, the word rape means: Penetrated orally, vaginally, or anally with a penis or object against his/her wishes

28) Gay men probably enjoy being raped more than straight men.

29) A woman who claims rape is more believable than a man who claims rape is.

30) Its ok for a woman to be traumatized by rape, but a man who is raped should move on with his life.

31) A woman is more likely to be raped by a stranger than by an acquaintance.

32) A man who claims he was raped by someone he does not know is more believable than a man who claims to have been raped by someone he does know.

33) A woman with physical injuries is more likely to be telling the truth about being raped than a woman without physical injuries is.

34) Men are more to blame for being raped than women are because they should have been able to fight of the rapist.

35) Men who do not contact medical personnel, law enforcement personnel, or mental health professionals probably were not raped.

36) Gay men are more responsible for being raped than straight men due to their behaviors and lifestyle.

Please answer some questions about yourself.

37) What is your gender? (1) Male (2) Female

38) What is your race/ethnicity? (1) Caucasian (2) African American
(3) Hispanic/Latino (4) Asian / Pacific Islander (5) Other

39) Have you ever been sexually assaulted (Been penetrated orally, vaginally, or anally with a penis or object against your wishes)? (1) Yes (2) No

40) Do you have a close or friendly relationship with a person who has been sexually assaulted (Been penetrated orally, vaginally, or anally with a penis or object against her/his wishes)? (1) Yes (2) No

APPENDIX C

Survey Items

Survey Items Utilized in Analysis			
Item	On Which Survey?	Developed By or Derived From	Used To Measure Which Hypothesis?
Wrldjust	Both	Rubin & Peplau	5
Dserv	Both	Rubin & Peplau	5
Suffer2	Both	Rubin & Peplau	5
Luckybrk	Both	Rubin & Peplau	5
Misfort	Both	Rubin & Peplau	5
Smart	Both	Marner	6
Negevent	Both	Marner	6
Violcrim2	Both	Marner	6
Sigdif	Both	Marner	6
Rapwom	1	Ward	4,5,6
Rapman	2	Marner	4,5,6
Wmstrug2	2	Ward	1,3,4,5,6
Mnstrug2	1	Marner	1,3,4,5,6
Wominct	1	Ward	3,4,5,6
Manincent2	2	Marner	3,4,5,6
Womprior	1	Ward	3
Manprior	2	Marner	3
Mangdrp	1	Marner	3,4,5,6
Womgdrp	2	Ward	3,4,5,6
Anywom2	1	Ward	4,5,6
Anyman2	2	Marner	4,5,6
Manstngr	1	Marner	3,4,5,6
Womstgr2	2	Ward	3,4,5,6
Womalone	1	Ward	3,4,5,6
Manalone	2	Marner	3,4,5,6
Manprost	1	Marner	3,4,5,6
Womprst2	2	Ward	3,4,5,6
Menblame	1	Marner	3,4,5,6
Womblam2	2	Ward	3,4,5,6
Hlthywom	1	Ward	3,4,5,6
Hlthyman	2	Marner	3,4,5,6
Womexp	1	Ward	3
Manexp	2	Marner	3
Mandsrv2	1	Marner	3,4,5,6
Womdesrv	2	Ward	3,4,5,6
Wommrman	Both	Marner	Not used

Wommrbly	Both	Marner	Not used
Manmovon	Both	Marner	Not Used
Womstaq	2	Marner	Not Used
Manstaq	1	Marner	Not Used
Womsablv	1	Marner	1,3,4,5,6
Mansablv	2	Marner	1,3,4,5,6
Maninjr	1	Marner	1,3,4,5,6
Wominjr2	2	Marner	1,3,4,5,6
Manmrblm	Both	Marner	Not Used
Womcntct	1	Marner	1,3,4,5,6
Mancntct	2	Marner	1,3,4,5,6
Rpmnhomo	Both	Marner	Not Used
Gytrmst2	Both	Marner	2
Gymrenjy	Both	Marner	2
Gybhvr	Both	Marner	2
Gayman2	Both	Marner	2

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