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STUDENTS TALKING ABOUT RELATIONSHIPS (STAR): AN EVALUATION OF A SEXUAL ASSAULT PEER EDUCATION PROGRAM

by

Angela R. Evans

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Angela R. Evans
STUDENTS TALKING ABOUT RELATIONSHIPS (STAR): AN EVALUATION OF A SEXUAL ASSAULT PEER EDUCATION PROGRAM

Angela R. Evans, M.A.
Western Michigan University, 1996

This study examined the effectiveness of Students Talking About Relationships (STAR), a sexual assault peer education program at Western Michigan University. Research has shown sexual assault to be a significant problem on college campuses around the country. In response to this research, many universities have instituted sexual assault programming. Unfortunately, the evaluation of these programs has not been as prevalent as their use. This study was proposed to help fill this gap.

This research used a quasi-experimental design in which students were pretested, exposed to the sexual assault program, and post-tested afterwards. Surveys were compared to evaluate whether there were significant changes in student attitudes after exposure to the program.

Results of this research showed these students to be quite knowledgeable about issues, that there was a significant gender gap in attitudes toward rape, and the program was partially successful in changing student attitudes.

In conclusion, although these students were quite knowledgeable about rape, further work is necessary to address rape supportive beliefs on college campuses.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Sexual assault is an issue that historically did not receive much attention in our society. With the influence of the Women's Movement, this began to change in the 1960s. By the 1970s, consciousness raising groups allowed women to talk about their experiences as victims of sexual assault (Largen, 1985). In 1975, Susan Brownmiller wrote what is now a classic book Against Our Will: Men, Women, and Rape in which she explains that rape is not only tolerated but supported by ideology in this culture which encourages sexual hostility toward women (White & Humphrey, 1991). Prior to this time, rape was examined in terms of acts of crime committed by strangers rather than examining the cultural context in which rape exists (Benson, Charlton, & Goodhart, 1992). Brownmiller and other feminists such as Susan Griffin and D. E. H. Russell placed rape in a cultural and historical context which, until that time, had been ignored (Benson et al., 1992). By the early 1980s, acquaintance rape, or rape by a person known to the victim, was given a name and was no longer being ignored (Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991). Although it may have been ignored in the past, to the credit of the Women's Movement, the research on the topic of sexual assault is now quite voluminous.

As discussed by Forst (1993), rape was not the focus of scho-
larly research until the mid-1970s and most of this research focused on examining incidence rates. The first study to receive national attention and place the spotlight on acquaintance rape was done by Mary P. Koss and her associates in 1987. The shocking statistics found in this study prompted an article in *Ms.* magazine and a book by Robin Warshaw, *I Never Called It Rape*. By the late 1980s, the findings of this study were disseminated to the general public and acquaintance rape was even focused on in movies and television shows (Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991). Bohmer and Parrot (1993) point out that the early 1990s have also experienced a rash of media attention to sexual assault: the conviction of two University of Oklahoma football players, Nigel Clay and Mossy Cade; a conviction for the gang rape of a mentally retarded girl in Glen Ridge, NJ; the gang rape trial of St. John's University's lacrosse team; the Thomas-Hill hearings; the Tailhook scandal of the United States Navy; rape trials of Mike Tyson and William Kennedy Smith; charges filed against twenty current and past members of the Cincinnati Bengals football team; Katie Koestner was on the cover of TIME explaining her date rape experience at William and Mary College and Carleton College was sued for not taking action after rapes were reported on their campus. It is apparent that acquaintance rape can no longer be ignored, especially on college campuses.

Forst (1993) explains that now that the problem has been identified, we must explore ways to reduce the problem. She writes, "Because acquaintance rape is partially the result of societal be-
havior, education is a logical solution to the acquaintance rape problem" (Forst, 1993, p. 6). Colleges and universities around the country began to implement programs to try to educate students about acquaintance rape. Part of this attempt is to address support for rape myths and the attitudes and beliefs connected with these myths. Past research found linkages with belief in rape myths, support for interpersonal violence and acceptance of traditional gender roles (Burt, 1980; Field, 1978). Current rape education efforts are geared toward educating students to the effects of these attitudes and beliefs in the hopes of changing them.

Unfortunately many of these programs have not been evaluated for their effectiveness in changing attitudes. Briskin and Gray (1986) among others have pointed out the paucity of research dealing with awareness and prevention programs. Of the research that has been done, as will be discussed in the next chapter, the results have been quite mixed. This research proposes to help fill the gap in sexual assault evaluation research. Western Michigan University has a peer education sexual assault program (STAR) which has never been formally evaluated. Therefore, this research is helpful in two ways. Not only does it help fill the gap in evaluation research in general, it is also helpful to Western's program since the results can be used to make the program more effective.

It should be noted that the focus of this research is on acquaintance rape in heterosexual relationships. Within these relationships, the overwhelming number of rape victims are women so I
will often refer to them as female rather than being gender neutral. It should be noted that men can be victims of sexual assault and are reported to be so about 10% of the time (Ravens, 1991). This number is probably under representative as men are unlikely to report for fear of shame, concerns over their masculinity and the feeling that they should have been able to defend themselves (Ravens, 1991).

Sexual assault has been a problem in the past and will continue to plague our campuses (and larger society in general) if we do not take adequate steps to address the problem. As discussed by Parrot (1988, p. 24), rape is a community problem: "Women can become frightened of men and afraid of having relationships with them, and men can become worried for the women in their lives." Others have identified reasons for the importance of sexual assault education. If rape supportive attitudes are not changed, victims will not come forward to receive needed help and offenders will avoid responsibility for assaultive behavior. In this type of environment, campus rapes have the potential to escalate. This escalation can interfere with the mission of the college because it is difficult for students to learn in an unsafe environment (Adams & Arbabanel, 1988). In the search for a humanist sociology, Schwartz (1991) asks "Before we move too far off campus should we be working on the problem in our own corridors and offices, where women students, faculty, administrators [and staff] are still the objects of harassment, sexual discrimination and rape?" This research is
an attempt to answer this question in the affirmative and evaluate the effectiveness of Students Talking About Relationships (STAR) so that it can be more effective in its attempt to educate students. The following chapters detail the progress of this research beginning with an in-depth literature review on acquaintance rape on college campuses, followed by methodology used in the evaluation, the resulting findings, and, lastly the discussion and conclusions.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

This review of the literature focuses on understanding acquaintance rape on college campuses. It begins with general information such as definitions, incidence rates and information on victims and offenders that is helpful in understanding this topic. Following this discussion, there is an examination of rape myths that surround and contribute to acquaintance rape. This literature review then examines possible explanations for the occurrence of acquaintance rape and the efforts undertaken to change the resulting attitudes and beliefs.

Understanding Acquaintance Rape

To properly evaluate sexual assault programming it is necessary to understand acquaintance rape. In the last decade, much research has been done on college campuses providing a large amount of information on the topic. Previous research has found the rate of sexual assault to be quite high. For this and other reasons to be discussed, it is important to study college campuses and the victims and offenders involved.

Largely through feminist research, sexual assault has been defined and widely recognized as a social problem. When studying sexual assault, it is important to differentiate between the common
terms used in the literature. While the language can be confusing, Bohmer and Parrot (1993) stress the importance of discussing the differences in these terms. Rape, although legally defined differently within each state, can be generally defined as "sexual intercourse against a victim's will and without the victim's consent" (Bohmer & Parrot, 1993, p. 4). This word often conjures up an image of a strange man jumping from the bushes at night to rape a virgin with a knife at her throat, but research has shown that this is the least common type of rape (Warshaw, 1994).

Women are at a far greater risk of what is termed acquaintance rape. Acquaintance rape is defined as "rape in which the victim and the assailant know each other, whether they are friends, spouses, lovers, or people who just know each other slightly" (Bohmer & Parrot, 1993, p. 4). Date rape is a specific form of acquaintance rape that occurs on a date. Sexual assault, acting as an umbrella to the previous terms, refers to all forms of unwanted sexual activity, up to and including rape (Bohmer & Parrot, 1993, p. 4).

As pointed out earlier, contrary to popular thought, it is acquaintance rape or date rape which affects the greatest number of women (Warshaw, 1994). One of the most cited studies on the incidence of acquaintance rape on college campuses was done by Mary Koss and associates. These researchers studied 32 campuses across the country to produce one of the first national samples of the incidence of date rape (Koss, Gidycz & Wisniewski, 1987). The results of that research proved to be shocking: since the age of 14, 27.5%
of the women reported experiencing an attempted or completed rape as defined by the law. In the book *I Never Called It Rape* based on Koss's research, Warshaw (1994) writes that in 84% of these situations the woman knew her attacker and 57% of these attacks happened on dates. Russell (cited in Warshaw, 1994) found that 88% of the women in her sample knew their attacker. While the federal government reports acquaintance rape and stranger rape as occurring almost equally, rape crisis centers report that 60-75% of rapes are between acquaintances (Forst, 1993). Although there are varying estimates due to the age of the population, methodology and the criteria on which the estimate is based (Shotland, 1989), as a whole, research demonstrates that women have more to fear from men they know than from complete strangers.

Koss and her associates were not the first to discover there was a problem with sexual assault on college campuses. As early as 1957, Kanin (1957, p. 197) found 55.7% of the women in a college sample had "been involved in an offensively aggressive episode during the academic year." Interestingly, following this study in 1957, the incidence of sexual assault on campus was largely ignored until Koss's research in the 1980s. Many other studies agree with the high incidence found by Koss. Various studies examining rape and attempted rape in the general population and on college campuses have found incidence rates ranging from 5% to almost 30% (cited in Koss et al., 1987). When including any type of unwanted sexual contact, these percentages become as high as 75% (Garrett-Gooding &
Although the incidence rates of acquaintance rape are high, reporting of this harm is low. Using governmental statistics to ascertain how many rapes occur is problematic because of extensive under reporting. It is estimated that for every rape reported there are 3-10 rapes that are committed (Warshaw, 1994). Three factors found to contribute to the under reporting of acquaintance rape are (1), if the assault occurs between dating partners, (2), if there was prior consensual sexual activity and (3), a minimal use of violence (Warshaw, 1994). Each of these factors are likely to be present in acquaintance rape placing the victim at greater risk of not reporting.

There are many reasons a woman may choose not to report an assault. One of these reasons is that some women may not define what happened to them as rape. This problem inspired the title of Warshaw's (1994) book *I Never Called It Rape*. Lenihan, Rawlins, Eb-erly, Buskley and Masters (1992) found that after a sexual assault education program, the women and significant others that sought help in dealing with sexual assault tripled because more women defined what had happened to them as sexual assault.

On the other hand, there are women who do define what happened to them as sexual assault but are still reluctant to report the attack. Reasons for this often center around blame. The victim may blame herself for what happened. She may also fear blame from others: that campus authorities may not handle the complaints serious-
ly, or that she will be blamed for drinking or for going on the date in the first place. The victim may fear her name will be made public or that her past sexual history will be discussed. She may fear facing the offender and other acquaintances (Bohmer & Parrot, 1993; Warshaw, 1994). She may also fear her charge may not be taken seriously or that people will think she is making a false charge. The idea that many women make false charges is a myth. Only 2% of the reports made to police are falsely reported (Bohmer & Parrot, 1993). This small number of false reports does not justify disregarding the accounts of the many women that have been raped.

Revictimization is another factor for non reports. The woman may not want her privacy invaded further than it already has been. She may feel uncomfortable with medical procedures. She may feel embarrassed. And lastly, many have explored the revictimization of going through the criminal justice process (or judicial hearing in the case of an university) (Bohmer & Parrot, 1993).

The reasons for under reporting are many, but one of the most important resulting consequences is that many victims do not get the help they may need to recover and offenders do not take responsibility for what they have done. As discussed by Adams and Abarbanel (1988, p. 5), "Silent victims suffer profound and long-lasting changes in their lives--changes that affect them psychologically, socially, academically, and developmentally." Under-reporting can also fuel denial by University administrators. They may believe there is not a problem when, more than likely, one does exist (Bohmer & Par-
It is important to study acquaintance rape on college campuses because of the substantial number of men and women it affects. College campuses have a number of risks that may influence the incidence of sexual assault. These high risk factors include the age of college students, the use of alcohol and drugs, and the values that may be held by some groups such as greeks and athletes. Because college men and women are at the highest risk of being involved with sexual assault it is important to find ways to educate them and lower this risk. Considering 26% of 18-25 year olds attend college, there is an opportunity to reach this risk group in substantial proportions (Warshaw, 1994).

One of the risk factors associated with acquaintance rape is age. Colleges and universities contain a large number of students falling in the age range of 16-24 years which is also the highest risk group for being a victim of and perpetrating acquaintance rape (Benson, Charlton, & Goodhart, 1992). Women that fall in the age range of 16-24 are at 4 times greater risk of being sexually assaulted (Warshaw, 1994). Approximately 50% of those arrested for committing rape are under age 24 (Warshaw, 1994). Adams and Abarbanel (1988) explain that traditional students are at risk for violence for a number of reasons. They are in a new setting with new environmental stressors and no parental supervision for the first time. Old support systems are no longer present and students are more susceptible to peer pressures. This is compounded by the fact
they are living among others also experimenting with newfound freedoms. These younger students may have unstable identities, mistaken beliefs of invincibility and are dealing with sexual impulses (Adams & Abarbanel, 1988). Neff (1988) suggests that women may be unsure of how to handle themselves since they are away from home for the first time and may not have the skills to balance independence and security. Men away from home for the first time may feel insecure and seek confirmation of their manhood through sexual behavior (Neff, 1988).

Alcohol and drugs are another reason to study acquaintance rapes on college campuses. As discussed earlier, many first year students are away from home for the first time with no supervision. This is a new and exciting time for students to make their own decisions about life. But this can also be a difficult time since students feel pressure to meet new people and fit in. To help in this difficult process, students may turn to alcohol as a social lubricant. Benson et al., (1992) explain that more than 60% of students reported using alcohol to achieve sexual contact. In a review of the literature, these authors report that the relationship between alcohol use and sexual assault is well-documented. In her study, Koss and others found that 75% of the men and 55% of the women had been drinking or using drugs before the attack (cited in Warshaw, 1994). Koss and O'Neil (cited in Benson et al., 1992) found alcohol to be one of the four strongest predictors of acquaintance rape. Alcohol can inhibit physical responses and affect the judgement of
both men and women placing them at risk to experience acquaintance rape.

Some researching sexual assault have suggested that those involved in the Greek system and athletics are also at risk. Martin and Hummer (1989) suggest that the structure of fraternities can serve to encourage sexual assault. Masculinity, associated with competition, athleticism, dominance, winning, conflict, wealth, material possessions, willingness to drink alcohol and sexual prowess, was highly valued in the fraternities studied by Martin and Hummer (1989). These values can place men at risk of becoming perpetrators of sexual assault. If a sexual assault does occur within the fraternity, group loyalty, group protection, and secrecy can make it difficult to investigate and convict since members will often not cooperate. Another problematic characteristic within these fraternities is the treatment of women as commodities. Women are used as bait, servers, and sexual prey. They are used to attract good recruits on the implicit or explicit promise of sexual access to women (Martin & Hummer, 1989).

Bohmer and Parrot (1993) cite studies which concluded that Greeks and athletes were more likely than other men to assault women. In one study, 35% of Greek men had committed rape, a much higher rate than those men involved with student government (9%) and men not involved in either group (11%). In a second study, an FBI survey reported that athletes from NCAA colleges were 38% more often reported to the police for sexual assault than non-athlete males.
(Bohmer & Parrot, 1993). The characteristics that are most associated with sexual assault such as macho attitudes, excessive alcohol use, and anti-social behavior are more likely to be exhibited by Greek and athletic men (Bohmer & Parrot, 1993).

Now that some of the risks associated with sexual assault have been examined, the question becomes who are the people involved? Before a further discussion of victims and offenders involved in sexual assault, it is important to examine victim blaming in research. In discussing risk factors or characteristics that may be associated with the victim it should be noted these things should not be used as an excuse to justify a rape or blame the victim. Ultimately, the responsibility of a rape occurs with the person who perpetrated it. As Mandocki and Burkhart (1991, p. 180) caution, "Researchers and reviewers studying the behavior of victims must be clear about the distinction between analysis of and blaming for victimization." Bechhofer and Parrot (1991) further caution, one point is important to remember: Just because individuals possess characteristics that have been found to increase the likelihood of victimization does not mean they will be victimized; nor does it mean that they will not be victimized because they lack those characteristics. (p. 20)

In summary, it is important to study the factors involved in acquaintance rape to help solve the problem, but in the past this type of study has led to victim blaming (see Amir, 1971 for victim precipitation as cited in Benson et al., 1992). This type of blame only serves to further victimize women and allows the offender to excuse his behavior. As researchers we must be cautious of the effects our
research will have on others.

With these cautions in mind, contrary to popular thought, research has not found consistent personality characteristics that put victims at risk (Bohmer & Parrot, 1993). In fact, Koss (cited in Benson et al., 1992) suggests that victimization stems from exposure to aggressive men as opposed to certain characteristics in women. Researchers have been unable to find characteristics that compose a typical victim (Craig, 1990). As early as 1957, in the first study on acquaintance rape, Kanin (1957) and Kirkpartrick and Kanin (1957) found that neither dating frequency nor the number of different men dated correlated with sexual assault. They did find that offenders were usually older than the victims and that heterogamous relationships (the man and woman being different from each other) were correlated with unwanted sexual contact (Kanin, 1957; Kirkpatrick & Kanin, 1957). On the other hand, Bohmer and Parrot (1993) list the frequency of men dated as one of two of the most important factors in the occurrence of date rape, with the second one being the degree of intoxication of the man.

Parrot (1988) discusses characteristics that may put a woman more at risk for experiencing date rape. The first of these is low self-esteem. A woman with low self-esteem may not feel her needs are as important as others and therefore may not communicate openly and honestly about what she needs and wants. If she does not openly and honestly communicate her needs and wants, she may end up in a situation that ends in acquaintance rape. Low self-esteem can also
contribute to the feeling of needing a man regardless of the cost. In this situation, the woman may be more open to verbal coercion and have sex with the man to keep him (Parrot, 1991). Parrot (1988) also lists environmental or situational factors that could put a woman at risk. These include parties with loud music (could cover any cries for help), excessive drinking, and not having a ride home.

A second factor that Parrot (1988) lists as a risk is support for traditional sex role stereotypes. She explains that the traditional sex role stereotype prevents a woman from communicating directly of her needs and wants about sex. Some studies show that early verbal or physical resistance can prevent a rape, but this type of reaction is contrary to socialization in the traditional gender role (Benson et al., 1992). Ravens (1991) points out that women who fit the traditional gender role report less victimization, but this may be a function of these women not defining what happened to them as rape. Others write that egalitarian gender roles can also be problematic. Increased assertiveness on the part of a woman can increase her risk, especially if the man subscribes to traditional gender roles, because he may see her as easy or loose and therefore deserving sexual assault (Ravens, 1991). Harney and Muehlenhard (1991) conclude that the research on women's belief in traditional roles is inconclusive; further supporting the contention there is no typical victim.

Being sexually assaulted can become a risk in itself. Warshaw (1994) reports that 42% of raped women had sex with their attacker
again and 55% of men who admit rape said they had sex with their victims again. This does not mean that women are masochistic or enjoy rape, but could be a result of confusion due to the acquaintance rape. The victim might blame herself for what happened and think she misunderstood or was not clear enough with the offender. She may date him again with the intent of being clearer and place herself at risk for further victimization (Warshaw, 1994). Parrot (1988) suggests that if the woman has previously experienced sexual assault, she may not know how to respond to a present risky situation and is therefore assaulted again. Some have found a correlation between childhood sexual assault and sexual assault later in life (Benson et al., 1992). Harney and Muehlenhard (1991) point out that child sexual abuse can lead to poor self-esteem, depression, anxiety, early promiscuity, and drug and alcohol use placing the victim at further risk for another assault.

In looking at the offender, what kind of man commits acquaintance rape? Contrary to popular notions, men who rape are not psychotic or mentally insane. Nor are men biologically programmed to rape. As Warshaw (1994, p. 83) explains, "Rape is not natural to men. If it were, most men would be rapists and they are not." Psychological studies show that convicted rapists have more in common with the normal man than with other sex offenders such as exhibitionists or pedophiles (Garrett-Gooding & Senter, 1987). In studies of convicted rapists, Groth (cited in Reynolds, 1984) found that the majority were neither insane nor mentally retarded. Others have
researched non-convicted, self-identified rapists and found 72% were never arrested, 84% had a high school degree, 58% had college experience, 42% were in white collar occupations, and 26% were married (Smithyman cited in Hall, Howard & Boezio, 1986). A statistic often quoted in the literature on sexual assault suggests around 35% of college men surveyed reported they would rape if there was a guarantee they would not be caught (Malamuth cited in Rapaport & Posey, 1991). Contrary to the popular misconception, date rapists are not crazy or mentally ill. As Jackson (1978, p. 29) explains, "All the evidence suggests Mr. Average rapes Ms. Average."

Although pathological explanations are no longer given much credence and it is accepted that normal men rape, there are characteristics and beliefs that have been correlated with a higher likelihood of sexually assaulting. These beliefs include support for rape myths, traditional gender roles, accepting the use of violence in interpersonal relationships, and a belief that sexual relationships between men and women are adversarial.

Rapaport and Burkhart (cited in Rapaport & Posey, 1991) found that the most powerful predictor of acquaintance rape in offenders is acceptance of interpersonal violence. Koss (cited in Warshaw, 1994) found rapists were more likely to come from a family background that was strict and used violence, were more likely to find use of force acceptable in relationships and were more likely to see sex and aggression as intertwined. Berkowitz, Burkhart and Bourg (1994) explain that men with a history of sexual coercion are more
hostile to women and more involved in violence. Motives for sexual assault are often linked with dominance, anger, conformity, and recognition (Berkowitz et al., 1994). Three of the four risk factors that Rozee, Bateman and Gilmore (1991) caution are present in potential rapists are linked with violence: power and control, hostility and anger, and, of course, acceptance of interpersonal violence.

Another attitude correlated with sexual assault is an acceptance of men and women as sexual adversaries (Rapaport & Posey, 1991; Warshaw, 1994). Personal characteristics of the man which can put a woman at risk include excessive jealousy and possessiveness with a tendency to invade a woman's space early in the relationship (Sandberg, Jackson, & Petretic-Jackson, 1987). Some researchers have found rapists experienced their first sexual experience at a younger age than non-rapists (Kanin, 1957; Koss cited in Warshaw, 1994). Koss (cited in Warshaw, 1994) found men who rape were likely to drink regularly, were more rape supportive, and believed women to be responsible for rape prevention. Others have blamed traditional gender roles as manifested in masculinity to be problematic. Capraro (1994, p. 22) writes, "In short, the perpetration of rape is not about the woman but about the man and about socialized ways of being a man, in a profound sense." A profeminist attitude (more egalitarian gender roles) in men has been linked with less blaming of the victim and the man being more sure that a situation is rape (Benson et al., 1992). Others found men with a high likelihood of raping scored lower in traditional femininity and showed more sympathy for
the rapist (Garrett-Gooding & Senter, 1987). Craig (1990) succinctly summarizes the sexually coercive male: he is more aggressive, believes that relationships are adversarial, supports rape myths and traditional sex roles, tends to be more sexually experienced but less satisfied with that experience, has a history of family violence, experiences peer approval when sex stands for status, and he has a higher likelihood to be aroused by the use of force.

In conclusion, having an understanding of acquaintance rape is important since it does pose a serious problem at college campuses throughout the country. Although college students face many risks that are associated with acquaintance rape, they are also in an environment conducive to education about these same risks. Education can address those issues that make acquaintance rape more misunderstood than stranger rape and alert men and women to the risk factors that contribute to acquaintance rape. The next section focuses on one factor that contributes to this misunderstanding: rape myths.

Myths Surrounding Acquaintance Rape

A large reason that acquaintance rape is misunderstood can be traced to belief in rape myths. Rape myths, discussed most often in feminist and social psychological literature, are those "prejudicial, stereotyped, or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists" (Burt, 1980, p. 217). Rape myths are misconceptions that are often supported by the general public and these misconceptions effect how
the offender, the victim, and the act are perceived. In general, rape myths deny acquaintance rape is real rape (Estrich, 1987), blame the victim, and excuse or justify the actions of the offender. Examples of rape myths include only a crazed stranger rapes women; if the woman isn't bruised and battered, it is not rape; if the woman is not a virgin, it is not rape; and if a man spends a lot of money on a date, the woman owes him sex (Warshaw, 1994). Other examples, often studied by feminists, include no means yes, women have a secret desire to be raped, women can provoke rape by their behavior, woman often falsely report rape, and women are responsible for rape prevention (Benson et al., 1992). Parrot (1988) includes the myth that victims are often young, white, and financially well-off. In reality, rape victims and offenders come from all racial/ethnic, social and educational backgrounds, although offenders are more likely to violate someone whose characteristics match their own (Garrett-Gooding & Senter, 1987).

Burt (1991) classifies rape myths about women into four different types. Those that fall into the first classification, nothing happened, deny that a rape occurred. This includes believing that women file false reports or have a secret desire to be raped. In the second classification, no harm was done, it is admitted rape occurred, but the rape is not seen as harmful to the victim. It is considered to be just sex. These myths center on the idea that once a women has consensual sex with one man, she implicitly consents to sex with other men or sex with the same person at a later date.
Myths about divorcees or prostitutes fall into this category. She wanted it is the third classification. In these rape myths the woman wanted, invited, or liked the rape. These often hinge on an argument over implicit consent; beliefs such as women always want it, women do not mean no when they say no, or that women could stop a rape if they really wanted to do so. In the last classification, she deserved it, the victim is seen as deserving or bringing on the rape. These include rape myths in which women are perceived to deserve rape because of their actions or dress. Or they may be blamed for putting themselves in a risky situation. An example of this is shown in the double standard that exists for men and women when they drink (Bechhofer & Parrot, 1993; Benson et al., 1992; Warshaw, 1994). This double standard portrays men as less responsible for rape when they drink while women are held as more responsible when they drink. This last category of rape myths also includes the belief that women are manipulative, sly, can not be trusted and make men jump through hoops which may also be used to justify rape (Burt, 1991).

There are also myths concerning men. These include that only crazy men rape and men can not control their sexuality. Burt (1991, her emphasis) explains,

The underlying assumption is that men are not to be held responsible for their excitement and what they do with it. Further, and equally important, woman are to be held responsible, not only for keeping themselves chaste but also for controlling men's sexuality. (p. 33)

Feminist researchers have been instrumental in refuting the
myth that rape is a crime of sex. In what is now a classic feminist book on rape, Brownmiller (1975) examines rape as oppression of women which is linked to control, violence, domination and the devaluing of women. But researchers and practitioners working with the victims and offenders of acquaintance rape note there can be differences in the motivations of stranger rape and acquaintance rape. These distinctions are important to examine.

Parrot and others (Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991; Bohmer & Parrot, 1993; Parrot, 1991; Parrot, 1988) discuss these differences. Stranger rape is often premeditated and motivated by power, domination, and control. On the other hand, Parrot (1988, p. 7) distinguishes that in acquaintance rape "the man probably did not plan at the start of the evening to rape the woman, but he did intend to have sexual intercourse" (Parrot, 1988, p. 7). When he does not get what he feels he deserves or is entitled to, he may become angry and use the force or coercion necessary and commit rape. In examining the categories of rapists proposed by Nicolas Groth, Parrot (1988) places date rapists in with power rapists. Power rapists are men who rape to feel powerful and use as much force as necessary to achieve that aim as opposed to anger rapists who are angry at a woman or women in general or sadistic rapists who torture and mutilate their victims (cited in Parrot, 1988).

Another distinction this researcher finds helpful, found in the work of Medea and Thompson (1974), is the difference between hostility and gratification rapes. Hostility rapes are based on
John Wayne macho masculinity. These men are frightened of anything feminine and therefore fear and hate women. Gratification rapes are not based on a hatred of women but instead on objectification. Sex is a game in which he tries to get the best bargain. Acquaintance rapes motivated by sex as discussed by Parrot, fall into this gratification category. As discussed later, within traditional dating scripts, sex is often treated as a game and socialization allows the objectification of women. Therefore the man may rape to gratify his own needs.

Although these distinctions have been made between stranger rape and acquaintance rape it is important to note that acquaintance rape is still a function of the man overpowering the woman. Although the original motivation may be sex in acquaintance rape, the man still uses force or coercion to get what he wants despite the wishes of the woman. Although there are differences between stranger and acquaintance rape, the notion that rape is a sex crime can still be considered a myth within acquaintance rape.

This distinction between acquaintance and stranger rape is important to examine when discussing rape myths since acquaintance rape often remains murky waters for people when deciding who is responsible for the assault. Although many people accept that stranger rape is harmful, this is not always the case in acquaintance rape. For example, in research that examined acceptance of use of force in intimate situations, men and women believed coercion to be more acceptable in situations where the man and woman knew each oth-
er rather than if the two were strangers (Garrett-Gooding & Senter, 1987). Bechhofer and Parrot (1991) suggest the term date rape appears to relate two opposing concepts:

Dating brings to mind images of happiness, enjoyment, friendship, sexual exploration, cooperation, and sharing. Rape evokes images of force, power, hurt, violation, pain, guilt, and scars. The very term date rape is an oxymoron. (p. 10)

These authors also point to another difficulty some people experience in defining acquaintance rape as real rape (Estrich, 1987), and as harmful as rape committed by a stranger. Within the context of dating, consensual sex is a possibility while in stranger rape it is not. This complicates matters for those outside the situation when trying to determine whether or not a rape occurred and if it did, who they perceive to be responsible.

There are important similarities and differences between acquaintance and stranger rape. Contrary to popular belief, acquaintance rape is not less harmful for women than stranger rape. Similarities shown by research include that harmful effects of acquaintance and stranger rape are often the same (Craig, 1990; Gidycz & Koss, 1991; Mandoki & Burkhart, 1991; Warshaw, 1994). Acquaintance rape victims may feel shock, disbelief, intense fears for personal safety, reoccurring thoughts of the assault, sleep disturbances, anxiety, impaired concentration, mood swings, depression, and feelings of anger, shame and guilt (Adams & Abrabanel, 1988). Jackson (1978, p. 27) explains, "From the victim's perspective it is more than a sexual crime, more than simple physical assault: it is an attack on her mind as well as her body, an attack on her whole per-
son, undermining her will and self-esteem." There have been no differences found in resistance or the degree of post-rape symptoms between acquaintance and stranger rape (Nelson & Torgler, 1990).

While there are similarities between the two, there are also important differences between stranger rape and acquaintance rape. Victims of acquaintance rape are less likely to define their experience as rape meaning they are less likely to get help with recovery (Gidycz & Koss, 1991). Victims may also risk revictimization by the same man: they may blame themselves and feel that they were not clear enough and give the man a second chance. This second chance could result in another assault (Gidycz & Koss, 1991; Warshaw, 1994). Victims are less likely to receive empathy, support, and belief from those around them if those people close to them do not define the situation as rape (Ravens, 1991). The zone of support found in family and friends surrounding victims of stranger rape may be missing for victims of acquaintance rape (Warshaw, 1994). Unlike victims of stranger rape, the acquaintance rape victim may be in a situation where someone she considers a friend sexually assaulted her or her friends and family may blame her for what happened. Because someone known to the victim is responsible for the rape, the acquaintance rape victim may have a difficult time learning to trust again in her relationships (Gidycz & Koss, 1991). Acquaintance rape victims are also less likely to report their victimization because of fear of disbelief from others. The acquaintance rape victim may also find conviction is more difficult if there are not any bruises, cuts,
etc., as evidence that she did not consent. This evidence of force may often be missing with acquaintance rape victim since the offender and victim do know each other (Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991). This can complicate matters for the victim since those outside the acquaintance rape situation may not believe her charge. Often times the trivialization of acquaintance rape, as just discussed, is a function of support for rape myths.

Burt (1991) explains rape beliefs fall along a continuum: at one end, all coerced sex--whether stemming from physical, psychological, or economic factors--is rape, to the other extreme in which there is no such thing as rape. The underlying effect of rape myths is that the more one supports them, the more restrictive a definition of rape one has (Burt, 1991). In a study of support for rape myths, Burt (1980) found that attitudes toward gender role stereotyping, acceptance of interpersonal violence, and distrust of the other gender (shown in adversarial sexual beliefs scale) were correlated with belief in rape myths. In an examination of the literature, Burt (1991) finds that the more one supports rape myths, the more narrow one's definition of what constitutes real rape (Estrich, 1987). Supporters of rape myths are less likely to convict or more likely to give a lighter sentence in a mock jury, more likely to report committing a rape if guaranteed getting away with it, more likely to admit using force in intercourse, and more aroused by violent pornography. Lottes (1991) found that victim callous attitudes (her term for rape myths) were correlated with less egalitarian gen-
der roles, more traditional attitudes toward women's sexuality, adversarial sexual beliefs and a macho personality. Others have found the greater the rape myth acceptance, the greater the tendency to believe the victim precipitated the act, the less likely a vignette was labelled rape, and an enhanced desire to hear the man's side of the story (Burt & Albin, 1981). Some research has shown the harmful effects of acceptance of these myths: low reporting, more blaming of the victim, and harsh and inadequate treatment of the victim by the criminal justice system (Lottes, 1991).

Studies involving college students have shown they do support rape myths. A substantial proportion (from 17% to as high as 75%, depending on the particular myth) of students in Giacopassi and Dull's (1986) study believed rape myths. The myth least likely to be supported is that a woman can not be forced to have sex against her will, while the most supported is that most rapists have severe psychological problems (Giacopassi & Dull, 1986). Gilmartin-Zena (1988) also found support for rape myths in her study of college students. She found confusion over 13 myths, some of which included rape as an act of sex rather than violence, suggestive dress as a causal factor, a belief in false accusations, and the belief that men rape due to uncontrollable passions. Students did dispute myths that downplayed the seriousness of the crime and seemed to accept that any woman can be a victim (Gilmartin-Zina, 1988). Hoehn (1992), whose study focused only on women since it was at an all women college, found the most frequently accepted rape myth to be that
young girls (under 12) can be seductive. Sixty-seven percent of the respondents agreed with this statement. She found other myths supported included women being at least partly responsible for rape and that rape is a crime of sex, not violence (Hoehn, 1992). These kinds of attitudes have been subject to much research in the past decade, but this was not always the case. In 1978, Field pointed out that many researchers had proposed connections between attitudes and treatment of victims but that little empirical research had been done. His study comparing the attitudes of rapists, police officers, rape counselors, and citizens was one of the first studies to fill that void (Field, 1978). In 1980, Burt constructed a set of scales to attempt to measure attitudinal correlates. These scales have since been used extensively in research examining rape attitudes. These scales included a Sexual Conservatism scale which measures restrictions on the appropriateness of sexual partners, sexual acts, conditions or circumstances under which sex should occur and so on. The Adversarial Sexual Beliefs scale measures the expectation that sexual relationships are fundamentally exploitative, that each party to them is manipulative, sly, cheating, opaque to the other's understanding, and not to be trusted. And lastly, the Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence scale which measures how likely the person is to believe that "force and coercion are legitimate ways to gain compliance and specifically that they are legitimate in intimate and sexual relationships" (Burt, 1980, p. 218). Burt's (1980) research focuses on the relationship of sex role stereotyping
and these three scales with acceptance of rape myths. The strongest predictor of attitudes in a sample of 598 Minnesota adults was acceptance of interpersonal violence. Sex role stereotyping and adversarial sexual beliefs had smaller effects on rape myth acceptance but were still significant. Sexual conservatism failed to affect rape myth acceptance (Burt, 1980).

Lottes (1991) replicated these findings in her study of belief systems of sexuality and rape. Of the nine variables examined, the strongest predictors of rape callousness were adversarial sexual beliefs, traditional attitudes towards women's sexuality, macho personality, and negative attitudes toward homosexuality. The myths most supported included sex is the motivation for rape, rape can be justified under certain circumstances, women falsely report rape, and women are responsible for rape prevention (Lottes, 1991). The author explains that "traditional, double-standard, male dominant sex role beliefs were associated with victim callous rape attitudes and egalitarian, more flexible sex beliefs were associated with nonvictim-callous attitudes" (p. 53).

Fischer (1986a) found attitudes toward women to be a strong predictor of whether a person defines a situation as rape (following how definitely the student felt it was rape). Garrett-Gooding and Senter (1987) also found a moderate to strong relationship between sex role conception and attitudes toward sexual coercion. They describe that quite a few students, both male and female, subscribe to traditional gender roles and that coercion was seen as
more acceptable as intimacy in the relationship increased (Garrett-Gooding & Senter, 1987). Further evidence for the effects of traditional gender roles is seen in a study of whether rape tolerance is a function of sexist or antisocial attitudes (Hall et al., 1986). The authors found that men and women who tolerate rape tend to see women as sex objects and support male dominance. The conclusion reached is that

This study provides strong support for the view that rape tolerance is associated with a sexist attitude toward heterosexual relationships. Moreover, rape tolerance is more closely related to sexist attitudes toward relationships than to antisocial tendencies. (p. 114)

The authors also point out that even if those with rape supportive attitudes do not themselves rape, they may reinforce others who will rape (Hall et al., 1986). Lenihan et al., (1992) also found that men who endorse rape myths, have conservative notions about women, and more easily justify rape are more likely to be sexually coercive and more likely to report rape or the use of sexual force. As discussed earlier, many writing about attitudes concerning rape have cited the work of Malamuth who found that 30% of the college men surveyed reported some likelihood of rape if guaranteed not to be caught. These percentages change a bit if attitudes for traditional gender roles are examined. Forty-four percent of those men who subscribed to traditional gender roles reported a likelihood of raping as opposed to 12% of those holding egalitarian gender roles (cited in Gilmartin-Zena, 1988).

Along with attitudes toward women, Fischer (1986a) also found
that the best predictor for defining whether a situation is rape or not is how definitely the student believes the situation is rape. As discussed earlier, rape myths can effect how narrow or broad one's definition of rape is (Burt, 1980). Factors that contribute to the definition of rape include the amount of force used, type of relationship, the woman's dress, drugs and alcohol, the amount of money the man spends, the man's level of sexual arousal, and the level of previous sexual intimacy (White & Humphrey, 1991).

Other significant predictors for tolerance of rape myths are greater tolerance of socially unapproved behavior and less sexual knowledge (Fischer, 1986a). Rapaport and Burkhart (cited in Fischer, 1986a) found sexual coercion to be negatively correlated with personality measures of responsibility and social consciousness, and positively correlated with acceptance of the use of force. Coercive sexuality is correlated with immaturity, irresponsibility, a lack of a social conscious, greater impulsivity, loss of control under the influence of alcohol, and less respect for society's rules (Berkowitz et al., 1994).

Some found that dating activity, such as who initiated, who paid, and where the date took place is related to the justifiability of rape (Harrison, Downes & Williams, 1991). In an examination of literature concerning attitudes, Parrot (1988) found research that 54% of adolescent men at UCLA found forced sex acceptable if the woman says yes and then later changes her mind. Forty percent found it acceptable if the man spent a lot of money and over 33% found
force acceptable if "he is so turned on that he thinks he can't
stop" (Giarusso, Johnson, Goodchilds & Zellman cited in Parrot, 1988,
p. 40). At Texas A & M and Indiana University almost all men felt
that it is acceptable for women to ask men out but, on the other
hand, they then might view her as promiscuous. Forced sex was also
seen as more acceptable if the woman asks for a date, if the man
paid or if the couple went to his apartment (Parrot, 1988).

To summarize, belief in traditional gender roles, acceptance
of interpersonal violence, and adversarial sexual beliefs seem to
influence one's decision of whether sexual assault occurred and
one's attitude toward the victim and offender in sexual assault.
Rape myths also play an important role in the way that the victim,
offender, and the act are perceived. Support for rape myths is pro-
blematic because it leaves the victim responsible and often excuses
or justifies offender behaviors. As long as support for rape myths
and attitudes that support traditional gender roles, acceptance of
interpersonal violence, and adversarial sexual beliefs continue to
exist we will not be able to truly address the problem of sexual
assault. The next section proposes possible explanations for why
these beliefs are perpetuated and supported.

Possible Explanations for Rape Myths and Attitudes

Many theories have been developed to explain the occurrence of
rape. These include psychological, biological, social psychological-
al, and sociocultural approaches. This research focuses on a socio-
cultural approach in explaining sexual assault on college campuses. Sociocultural theory posits rape to be "a logical and psychological extension of a dominant ideology which degrades women and justifies coercive sexuality and is supported by attitudes which emphasize differential power roles for men and women" (Lottes, 1991, p. 38). In other words, rape is committed by what are considered normal men rather than those with a biological or psychological abnormality. Rape is considered to be a learned behavior. Factors within U.S. culture that contribute to rape are gender socialization, acceptance of rape myths, and a belief in an adversarial nature between men and women. As Jackson (1978, p. 37) explains, "Sexual behaviour is social behaviour: though it may appear to be a private matter, each sexual relationship is structured by the cultural values of the society in which it takes place." The following section examines some of the social factors that can influence acquaintance rape.

Some have linked traditional socialization as a contributor in acquaintance rape. Medea and Thompson (1974, p. 11) write, "Rape is simply at the end of the continuum of male-aggressive, female-passive patterns, and an arbitrary line has been drawn to mark it off from the rest of such relationships." Gender roles of both women and men can contribute to the perpetuation of acquaintance rape.

The traditional role for women focuses on kindness, compassion, patience, acceptance, and dependence. "'Ladylke' behavior is quiet, passive, friendly, nonthreatening, pleasant, giving, caring, generous, neat, gentle, and non-violent" (Parrot, 1988, p. 27). If
traditional attitudes are operating, women are seen as more responsible for rape (Parrot, 1991). Traditional gender roles for women view fighting as unladylike. Yet if a woman does not fight back, according to rape myths, the rape will not be considered harmful (Parrot, 1988). This can create a no-win situation for women. Parrot (1988) also suggests that in accordance with traditional gender roles, many women are not comfortable with physical confrontation. She explains that women underestimate their ability to fight back since many have not had the same exposure to contact sports as men (Parrot, 1988). It should be noted that women that are considered liberal, or non-traditional could also be at risk for acquaintance rape. They may take what are perceived to be risks by others who support traditional values (Parrot, 1988).

The socialization of men also contributes to acquaintance rape. Holcomb, Sarvela, Sondag, and Holcomb (1993, p. 159) write "socialization of American [sic] men encourages a complex of attitudes and behaviors that predispose men to dominate and abuse women, as well as other men." Reynolds (1984) explains men are taught to be aggressive. They are taught that it is acceptable to trick or seduce women and that sex is a major need and goal that must be fulfilled. Objectification of women allows that need to be fulfilled while absolving men of the responsibility of a rape (Reynolds, 1984).

Warshaw (1994) gives examples of objectification apparent in men's language. As examples of sex as achievement: "I'd like to make it with her," "I hope I score tonight," "I could teach her a
thing or two," and "I really put it to her," (Warshaw, 1994, p. 93). Women can be seen as a commodity in the following statements, "She wouldn't give me any," "I bet I could get her if I tried," "She was the best piece of ass I ever had," and "How would you like a little bit of that?" (Warshaw, 1994, p. 94). Another rather graphic example of objectification comes from what is termed the "4 F process" of dealing with women: "Find 'em; feel 'em; fuck 'em; and forget 'em" (Warshaw, 1994, p. 23). In a class examining politics and sex, Sheffield (1990) uses an exercise on language to illustrate objectification to her students. Male students list words that are used to describe women while female students do the same in reference to men. Sheffield (1990) finds that men's lists are usually longer and more derogatory while women's lists are shorter and contain more complimentary words. Unlike men, when women do use negative terms, it is usually in response to a specific situation rather than being negative in general (Sheffield, 1990).

Berkowitz et al., (1994) suggest that sexual relations are an arena where men can act out traditional gender roles. The male acts as the pursuer and the female as the gatekeeper forming an adversarial relationship. These authors suggest that traditional male socialization allows men to justify or excuse rape supportive behavior. Also problematic are social and peer pressures to show manhood that can result in rape (Berkowitz et al., 1994). The authors explain that "sexually coercive men overvalue being tough, unfeeling, and violent; they risk danger for excitement and minimize em-
pathetic responses. For them, sexual aggression validates and affirms their masculinity" (p. 10).

Research has given support to the idea of socialization effects. Quackenbush (cited in Szymanski, Devlin, Chrisler & Vyse, 1993) found that masculine and undifferentiated men had a higher likelihood of raping than androgynous men. Masculine and undifferentiated men also expressed less empathy for and attributed more responsibility to the victim, perceived the rape less seriously, and were more rape supportive in their beliefs.

Bem (cited in Ravens, 1991) suggests that traditional gender roles are less flexible forcing men to rely on rape myths for information about their interactions with women. Quackenbush (cited in Ravens, 1991) adds that rape myths are relied on for information because the masculine sex role lacks the skills of empathy and caring found in femininity.

Rather than adherence to traditional gender roles, others have suggested that acquaintance rape stems from adherence to exaggerated gender roles: what has come to be termed hypermasculinity (Kanin, 1985; Ravens, 1991). Kanin (1985) has done one of the few studies on the effects of differential sexual socialization on date rapists. He interviewed 71 self-identified undergraduate male rapists and compared them with a control group of 227 undergraduate males. Kanin (1985) found that the rapists had more sexual encounters, had a more persistent quest for sex, used more exploitive means to gain sex (drugs, alcohol, threatening to end the relationship, etc) and
were more likely to have best friends that would approve of exploitative tactics to gain sex from certain women. Rapists were also more likely to be dissatisfied with their sex lives: 79% of the rapists report dissatisfaction as opposed to 32% of the control group. Kanin (1985, p. 224) suggests this dissatisfaction stems from "differential socialization in a hypererotic male culture, a culture where sexual success is of paramount importance in the maintenance of self esteem" and if the hypererotic male is unable to obtain sex consensually, he may resort to coercion or force.

A Hypermasculine Inventory was developed by Mosher and Sirkin in 1984 (cited in Berkowitz et al., 1994) which measures callous sexual attitudes toward women and perceptions of violence as manly, exciting, and dangerous. This scale has been correlated with getting women drunk or high, treating them with anger and/or rejection, verbal threats, and the use of force and exploitation to get sex (cited in Berkowitz et al., 1994). This personality type has been correlated with a man's number of sexual partners, younger age at time of first sex, self-reported likelihood of raping, and number of sexual experiences (Cole cited in Berkowitz et al., 1994). Preliminary research suggests this is promising as an explanation, but as pointed out by Ravens (1991), hypermasculinity needs to be further researched to test it's validity.

Another explanation closely tied to support for traditional gender roles can be found in traditional sexual scripts. Traditional gender role socialization plays a large part in traditional sex-
ual scripts which place men and women at risk for experiencing acquaintance rape. Within the traditional dating script, dating takes on a gamelike quality (Sandberg et al., 1987). At the dictate of gender roles, men are to initiate and control all sexual interactions while women are to be void of any sexual drives (Benson et al., 1992). Warshaw (1994) explains how these games can create problems. Within this script, if the man pays all the expenses, either the man or the woman (or both) may think that she owes him. The woman may end up caught in a double bind in which she is encouraged to be feminine and demure by society, yet she is also responsible for controlling men’s behavior (Benson et al., 1992). Women are expected to be attractive but not have sex (Parrot, 1991). These ideas which promote men and women as battling against one another reinforce the notion that relationships between men and women are adversarial which, as discussed earlier, has been correlated with rape supportive beliefs (Benson et al., 1992).

Traditional dating scripts are also problematic when women are taught that only bad girls have sex before marriage. Within the traditional script, women may protest sex even if they are interested in it, often termed token resistance, to escape this bad girl reputation. While, in traditional dating scripts, a man has learned from his friends that she may do this to protect her reputation so that he may ignore her protests and give her what he thinks she really wants (Warshaw, 1994). Some research has found token resistance plays an interesting role in acquaintance rape.
One study on token resistance found that 59% of respondents believed that the person they were dating said no to sex when they meant yes (Sandberg et al., 1987). Muehlenhard and Hollabaugh (cited in Muehlenhard, 1988) conducted research to examine if women do say no when they mean yes. They found that 39% of the women did report using token resistance. Almost all of the women cite not wanting to appear promiscuous as the reason for doing so. The authors conclude that double standards (as discussed earlier) do affect women's behavior since they have a concern with appearing too promiscuous. They admit that there seems to be a kernel of truth to the charge that women say no when they mean yes. But Muehlenhard (1988, p. 100) amends this conclusion with the caution "it should be emphasized that most women had never engaged in token resistance to sex, and even among those who had, most had done so five or fewer times. Thus this clearly is not a behavior that all, or even most, women engage in." Support for traditional gender roles can also affect whether the man will stop when the woman says no. Some found that men who support more traditional roles are more likely to continue their behavior even after a woman says no (Muehlenhard, 1988).

Conversely, Byers and Wilson (cited in Ravens, 1991) reported that liberal men were more likely to discontinue after a woman said no than traditional men.

Along with token resistance, miscommunication can also play a part in some acquaintance rapes. Traditional gender roles, sexual scripts, and a belief in the use of token resistance culminate in
miscommunication and misunderstandings about sex between men and women. Again, it should be cautioned that misunderstandings are not an excuse or justification for rape. If the woman clarifies what she wants then the action should stop (Shotland, 1989). Men can also take responsibility for rape prevention by clarifying for themselves rather than waiting for the woman to communicate what she wants.

Part of the problem lies in ambiguous and indirect communication about sex. The sexual taboo leaves men and women observing one another's behavior rather than communicating directly about what they want. This indirectness leaves much room for misinterpretation (Muehlenhard, 1988). In accordance with the double bind of the traditional dating script, women must communicate in subtle ways so they do not seem too eager, while men are left to successfully decode this behavior (Jackson, 1978). Women are more likely to use nonverbal communication (it is seen as more acceptable) while this is the type of communication that men are most likely to misinterpret (Abbey, 1991).

Another aspect of this problem is that men view the world in more sexualized terms than women (Abbey, 1991; Muehlenhard, 1988). In studies of college men and women, men usually overemphasized a women's sexual intent, availability, and interest (Berkowitz et al., 1994). Men are more likely to judge women's clothing as a sign of sexual willingness than are women (Nelson & Torgler, 1990). Men rated women as more sexually attractive than women and were more
attracted to the opposite sex (Nelson & Torgler, 1990). Men rate women as more seductive than women when watching couples talk (Abbey cited in Warshaw, 1994). Men and women also differ as to what interested behavior means with men being more likely to see interest in what women consider as friendly (Berkowitz et al., 1994). Koss and Oros (cited in Sandberg et al., 1987) found that 71% of the women in their study reported being in a situation where the man misinterpreted the amount of sexual intimacy they desired. In another study, some women remarked that things they had done their first year of college they would not do again since they were misinterpreted: for example, getting drunk at a party or going upstairs at a frat house (Abbey, 1991). Berkowitz et al. (1994) point out that the problem occurs when men feel they have implicit consent for sex. This can be compounded by the traditional norms of politeness for women; some women do not correct the first misinterpretation increasing the risk for further misperception (Abbey, 1991).

Miscommunication can explain only some cases of acquaintance rape. Some point out that this is an explanation for couples that have been dating only a short time or are not very involved (Kanin, 1957; Shotland, 1989). Miscommunication is a less likely explanation for couples who have been dating for some time. And it is not an explanation for a man who chooses to ignore a woman even after she clarifies what she wants. Importantly, then, it is something likely to be explanatory on college campuses, due to the often short-lived nature of multiple dating experiences.
Sexual assault education must address these sociocultural influences on attitudes if it is to be successful in changing support for rape myths. But some have questioned the assumptions of sexual assault education. One major assumption behind sexual assault awareness education is that a change in attitude will result in a change of behavior. Historically it was assumed that there was a direct correlation between attitude and behavior, but this was challenged by researchers in the 1960s and 1970s who found data to contradict this idea (Hoehn, 1992). Although a direct connection can not be made between attitudes and behavior, many still argue that changing attitudes can make a difference in behavior. Fazio, Powell, and Herr (cited in Hoehn, 1992) explain that an individual's attitudes guide their perceptions and this perception influences the definition of the situation or event. For example, if a woman holds conservative views about rape and is raped after wearing a mini-skirt, she may not define herself as a victim (Hoehn, 1992). Schwartz (1991) recognizes that while a direct link between attitude and behavior can not be made, he offers the suggestion that sexist attitudes contribute to sexual assault in two ways: by providing moral ambiguity to the situation and feeding social support networks.

Some research supports a link between attitudes and behavior. Garrett-Gooding and Senter (1987) found a moderately strong relationship between attitudes and behavior in their study. Men who adhere to traditional sex roles were more likely to accept use of coercion. And the more likely men were to accept the use of coercion, the more
likely they were to use it (Garrett-Gooding & Senter, 1987). Other research has also suggested a link between attitudes and behavior: rape supportive beliefs are supported by convicted rapists, self-reported sexually aggressive men, and men assured of anonymity (Bell, Kuriloff, Lottes, Nathanson, Judge & Fogelson-Turet, 1992). Although a direct link between attitude and behavior has been questioned, it seems that there is enough evidence supporting an indirect link to justify using education in the attempt to reduce the harm produced by sexual assault.

In summary, it is extremely important to study attitudes and the social influences on these attitudes if one is to adequately address the problem of acquaintance rape. If sexual assault education can alert men and women to the social influences on their attitudes, it is hoped that a change in behavior will result. And as seen in this last section, there is some support that a change in attitudes can lead to this change in behavior.

Efforts to Change Attitudes and Beliefs

Since previous research has established the prevalence and harmfulness of acquaintance rape, some universities have turned to sexual assault education programs as a way to address the problem. As will be discussed, although these programs are often used to attempt to change attitudes, the evaluations of the programs have not been as prevalent as their use. Of those evaluations that have been done, the results are mixed as to whether these programs are suc-
cessful. The following section begins with a review of these evaluations and their results. After this, the history, evaluations, and criticisms of peer education, the program of choice for Western Michigan University, are explored. Lastly, an explanation of Students Talking About Relationships (STAR), Western's program, is detailed.

As a whole, although more and more universities are moving toward sexual assault education in one form or another, the evaluations of sexual assault programming are relatively scarce (Forst, 1993; Schwartz & Wilson, 1993). Of those evaluations that have been done, the number of evaluations that focus on the use of peer educators as the means of education are even fewer. One must realize the use of peer educating is a relatively new tool in the field of education. Within peer education itself, sexual assault is a new topic to be covered. Therefore, the number of evaluations of sexual assault peer educating programs are quite small. It is hoped that this research will help to fill this void.

Of the literature that does exist on sexual assault programming in general, the results of the success of these programs are quite mixed. Results have spanned the continuum from no change in women's attitudes to no change in men's attitudes, and from changes in everyone's attitudes to changes in no one's attitudes. Part of the reason for these contradictory findings is probably due to the fact that the programs evaluated are of many different types: ranging from lectures or videos to formal presentations. The small num-
ber of evaluations also means that, in large part, research has not been subject to replication or comparison. The lack of evaluations leaves researchers and program administrators with much to learn about what is and is not effective in sexual assault programming. It is hoped that this research can contribute more information to this problematic lack of knowledge. It is only by doing more evaluations that we can have results for comparison of methodologies and programs.

In a positive evaluation, Schwartz and Wilson (1993, p. 3) concluded in their research that "rape lectures can not only change attitudes toward rape myths, but that these changes can last over time." One of the authors, coordinator of the university's sexual assault education and prevention program, gave a 50 minute lecture on the issues surrounding sexual assault to 21 study skills classes that many students take their first semester at college. A pre- and post-test were given to 346 students to discover if there were any differences in the experimental (those who received the lecture) and control groups (those students who did not receive the lecture). Interestingly, although both men and women changed their attitudes, these changes occurred in different areas. The men exposed to the lecture made minimal changes in their attitudes toward rape but they were more likely to report themselves as concerned about sexual assault and as knowing a friend who had been a victim than those men in the control group. On the other hand, the changes in women's attitudes toward rape after the lecture were dramatic while their
concern with sexual assault and knowledge of a friend who was a victim did not change. The authors suggest the lack of change in women's concern can be explained by the fact that women's concern about sexual assault was already high before the program since women have a larger chance of victimization than do men. The rape lecture was defined as successful since it led to an attitude change in the women and to a sensitization in the men. It should be noted that although the authors do define the program as successful, they also suggest further work must be done to learn how to make more than a minimal change in men.

Nelson and Torgler (1990) compared the effectiveness of watching a video versus reading a brochure in sexual assault education. Eighty-nine psychology students were placed into one of three groups: one which read a brochure on rape awareness, one which watched a video tape on rape awareness, or in the control group where they read literature on career planning. After exposure to either the experimental or control conditions, the students completed two surveys: one measured how liberal his or her attitude was toward women and the other measured acceptance of coercion in obtaining sex. The authors hypothesized that men would be less liberal in their attitudes toward women and would be more likely to use force to obtain sex under some circumstances. They found support for this hypothesis in that men did view women with fewer rights than women and were more likely to find force acceptable under certain circumstances than women. The authors also hypothesized, based on past research,
that men would become less accepting of the use of force in sex while women would not change significantly since they were already unaccepting of using force. Interestingly, they found only partial support for the hypothesis. Both men and women's scores changed from pre- to post-test indicating that both men and women became less accepting of using force after the rape awareness literature. In other words, the women were more accepting of force on the pre-test than the researchers expected and, after being exposed to rape awareness media, became less accepting of the use of force in obtaining sex. There were no differences between the use of a brochure versus a video, and the program was defined as successful for both men and women since they made changes in their attitudes with both strategies.

Forst (1993) examined the effectiveness of using a didactic approach versus improvisational theatre in rape awareness education. The Rape Myth Acceptance scale and Adversarial Sexual Beliefs scale were given to 420 criminal justice and psychology undergraduates at Florida Atlantic University. In agreement with previous research, she found no significant differences in the method of education, but all of the programs increased student knowledge and decreased acceptance of rape myths at the first post-test given immediately after the program. It should be noted that at a second post-test given two weeks after the programming, only the group exposed to didactic sexual assault education remained at the post program level while the other group, those exposed to the improvisational theatre, re-
turned to their pre-workshop level (Forst, 1993).

Fischer (1986b, p. 42) found students to "become more rejecting of date rape, more sure that it was definitely rape, and slightly more liberal in attitudes toward women" after a rape lecture. Fischer conducted surveys in her Human Sexuality classes two successive years: 283 students participated in 1982 and 278 in 1983. In both years students became less accepting of using coercion to obtain sex after a lecture with the exception of one interesting finding. In 1982, Fischer lectured confrontationally in one of her classes and the men in that class actually became more accepting of rape behavior than before the lecture. Fischer did not use this type of approach in 1983 and the men were no longer resistant. Fischer (1986b, p. 43) suggests that "Perhaps, women students were able to incorporate material so presented within their latitude of acceptance, whereas a number of males were not and, thus, rejected the material and moved their attitudes away from it." Without the confrontational format, the rape lectures were found to be successful in changing attitudes in men and women.

Holcomb, Sarvela, Sunday and Holcomb (1993), in their evaluation of a mixed-gender date rape workshop, found it to be successful in changing attitudes even after hypothesizing that it would not be. The 381 health education students were pre- and post-tested for a 35 minute workshop taught by a coed pair. They report that the attitudes of the control group were more tolerant of rape than those in the experimental group after the workshop. In response to the ques-
tion "If a woman goes to the home or apartment of a man on their first date, she is hinting she is willing to have sex." 32% of the control group agreed as opposed to only 7.4% of those exposed to the rape awareness program. Although women did become less accepting of date rape after the program, the effect was much more noticeable in men. The authors did find a significant gender gap, with men being more accepting of date rape, and they suggest that this may be the reason that men were more effected by the program. It could be that men have the most room for improvement (Holcomb et al., 1993). It should be noted that the authors did provide a caution in interpreting the program as a total success since the students were given the post-test right after the program. They suggest that further research should be done to see if these changes in attitude last over time.

Szymanski, Devlin, Chrisler, and Vyse (1993) also found their "Rape Awareness Workshop" to be successful, though there was a greater impact for men than women. While their study focused on gender roles and attitudes toward rape, they included a question on their survey to measure attendance at a rape awareness workshop recently implemented at the college. Those who attended the program believed fewer rape myths, thought women were less responsible for the rape, had more positive feelings about the victim, were more certain the rapist was guilty, and believed the crime to be more serious. In accounting for the difference by gender, the authors suggest a ceiling effect since women are more sensitive to rape and the
issues surrounding it than are men (Szymanski et al., 1993).

Contrary to these programs defined as successful, Borden, Karr, and Caldwell-Colbert (1988, p. 132) found the program they studied to be unsuccessful in changing attitudes: "Men were less empathetic and sensitive in their attitudes toward rape than women, and a rape prevention program was unsuccessful in reducing these differences."

One hundred undergraduate students in an introductory psychology class participated in the study. Of these 100 students, 50 received a 45 minute seminar on rape awareness and prevention from the university sexual assault program coordinator. The only significant finding was a gender gap: the women scored high on both the pre- and post-tests indicating that they were less accepting of myths and more empathetic to the victim than men. The authors were surprised to find that the program had no significant effects on students since it had been, in the past, judged as successful by program participants and staff in informal evaluations.

Hoehn (1992) examined the effectiveness of traditional versus feminist programming at a women's university. The traditional approach included giving facts and information about sexual assault while the feminist approach added a discussion of the effects of gender roles and values. Ninety-five undergraduate women in psychology were randomly assigned to 1 of 3 groups: rape awareness (traditional), gender roles (feminist), or substance abuse (control group). Although Hoehn hypothesized the feminist group would have the largest change, followed by the traditional group and lastly the
control group (if it did change), she found that the three groups did not differ. She found these women fairly liberal in their responses to begin with so that there was not much room for change (Hoehn, 1992).

Wolford's (1993) research on the effectiveness of four different programs resulted in agreement with Hoehn's findings of no difference. Sixty men and 72 women were randomly assigned to one of the following: lecture, video-tape, role-play, or a control group. Although there were no significant differences in the programming, there was a difference between genders with men showing more tolerant attitudes to rape (Wolford, 1993).

Schaeffer and Nelson (1993) also question the effectiveness of rape awareness programs in their study of rape supportive attitudes in relation to residence on campus and education. The authors surveyed 160 men living in a single sex residence hall, a coed residence hall, or a fraternity house to determine their attitudes toward women and acceptance of rape myths. They found that men living in fraternity houses and single-sex residence halls were more likely to hold traditional attitudes toward women and believe rape myths than men who lived in co-ed residences. In regards to evaluation research, they found that men who self-reported attending a sexual assault program reported no differences in their attitudes than those who did not attend such a program. The authors make an important suggestion that might also be applicable to other research: "It may not be reasonable to expect attitudes that have developed
over many years to be changed by a few hours of education" (Schaefer & Nelson, 1993, p. 178).

As discussed earlier, there are also evaluations that have found programs to be successful with men and not with women or exactly the opposite, successful with women but not with men. Harrison, Downes, and Williams (1991) compared the use of video alone to the use of a combination of video and discussion in sexual assault programming. There were 51 women and 45 men from five sections of a speech communications class who were placed into one of these two respective groups. The groups were then pre- and post-tested on an Attitudes Toward Rape scale to determine the effectiveness of the two different methods. As with other studies comparing differing strategies, (Forst, 1993; Hoehn, 1992; Nelson & Torgler, 1990), there were no significant differences in the two different types of education (video vs. video and discussion). With respect to the effectiveness of the methods in general, the researchers concluded that the programming was successful in changing men's attitudes but not those of women. After experiencing the two types of rape education, men changed their attitudes of victim blaming and denial. On the other hand, women did not experience a significant change from the pre- to post-test. The authors suggest a ceiling effect existed with the women since they scored high on the pre-test in the first place, indicating that they were less supportive of victim blaming and were more knowledgeable about rape. The authors conclude that when comparing men and women, men are more likely to blame the vic-
tim, more likely to believe misconceptions about rape and have less understanding of women's perception of rape. They (Harrison et al., 1991) also explain that

many men lacked information about the seriousness of the issue, had little understanding of women's perceptions of rape and behaviors surrounding it, and had never analyzed the social mores and their own perspectives on sexual aggression.

(p. 138)

This leads to an underestimation of the seriousness of the problem by men and a moral code that continues to support abuse (Harrison et al., 1991).

Lenihan et al., (1992), on the other hand, found that women changed rape supportive attitudes while men were more resistant.

Not only did the male students in this sample hold significantly more negative views of the relationship dynamics between the sexes and a continuing adherence to prorape beliefs, but these men also maintained these belief systems even after exposure to a program designed to challenge their attitudes.

(p. 336).

Using 15 sections of an introductory health class, 821 students participated in a Soloman Four group design where experimental groups were exposed to a 50 minute date rape presentation. The presentation was a combination of a video, lecture and the sharing of a date rape experience. Presenters included two residence hall counselors and two sexual assault crisis counselors. Presentations were arranged so that a man and a woman presented in each class. As discussed earlier, neither the men in the control or experimental groups had a change in scores. Men were more likely than women to accept rape myths and see men and women as sexual adversaries. Women, on the other hand, had significantly lower scores after the presenta-
tion indicating less acceptance of interpersonal violence and rape myths. The authors were also able to find, through their Solomon Four group design, that women were sensitized even by taking the pre-test. Those women who were not involved in the sexual assault programming also changed their scores on some scales indicating less acceptance of sexual conservatism and seeing men and women as adversaries. The authors conclude that just being exposed to the pre-test seemed to make women reexamine some of the beliefs that they supported.

Lenihan and Rawlins (1994) did an evaluation for a rape education program aimed at a special risk group: Greek students. A total of 636 students from fraternities and sororities were given the Rape Supportive Attitudes Survey (RSAS) to assess the effectiveness of a mandatory lecture on rape myths and Greek responsibility. The RSAS consists of four scales measuring different concepts: Adversarial Sexual Beliefs (which measures support for seeing men and women as sexual adversaries), the Sexual Conservatism scale, Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence scale, and lastly the Rape Myth Acceptance scale. The authors found that the men in this sample held more traditional attitudes than the women. They also found there were no changes in either men or women's attitudes after the program with the exception of the Adversarial Sexual Beliefs scale. Unlike past research, not even women changed their acceptance of myths, interpersonal violence and sexual conservatism. The authors write, "This finding is especially discouraging in view of the vulnerabil-
ity of sorority women to sexual assault and the propensity of fra-
ternity men toward sexual aggression, especially group aggression" (Lenihan & Rawlins, 1994, p. 35). It may be in the case of Greek students that education may prove to be more difficult without actual changes in the structure and beliefs of the Greek system as discussed earlier in reference to Martin and Hummer (1989).

From the previous literature review, it is quite apparent that evaluations have been varied in their results. As pointed out by Lenihan et al. (1992, p. 331) and applicable to the literature review in this research: "The most noticeable trend in this literature indicates a consistent gender difference in responses, regardless of the measure used." Although the evaluations of these programs have been inconsistent in defining whether the programs were successful, there is consistency in differences in attitudes about sexual assault based on gender. As will be discussed in the following sections, this gap in attitudes is tied with belief in traditional gender roles and acceptance of interpersonal violence. Calhoun and Townsley (1991) point out that attitudes toward women and women's roles are better predictors of blaming victims than the actual sex of a person. This is an important distinction. Just because a woman is female, does not mean she is not rape supportive. But, on the other hand, men are much more likely to support traditional roles of women and rape myths than are women. Research has continuously shown men to be more rape supportive than women. To summarize, gender roles are extremely important in sexual assault.
The implications of this finding are important for education programs since they will have to address these differences if programs are to effectively change attitudes and beliefs.

The Gender Gap and the Influence of Gender Roles

Although feminist researchers and others have suggested the importance of studying gender roles and rape myths, Barnett and Field (1977) were among the first to empirically research the differences in men and women's attitudes toward rape. They developed an Attitudes Toward Rape questionnaire, which has been used much in subsequent research. After randomly distributing the Attitudes Toward Rape survey to 400 undergraduates, they found a gender gap clustered around three items in the survey. First, women were more likely than men to believe that rape is a male exercise in power over women. Second, men were more likely than women to believe rape was motivated by a desire for sex and third, men were far more concerned with false rape charges; they supported that the degree of woman's resistance should be factored in a rape and it should be difficult to prove rape occurred. Although Barnett and Field (1977, p. 96) did not address the question as to why men held more sexist attitudes than women in the study, they did suggest "It becomes imperative for university administrators to initiate rape awareness programs on their college campuses" to try to counteract these beliefs. A year later, in 1978, Field did a study of the differences between police, citizens, rapists and crisis counselors attitudes
toward rape. After finding a gender gap with citizens, he explains "since male citizens had more traditional views of women's roles than did female citizens, it might be argued that sex differences in attitudes toward rape may be attributed to the respondent's views of women and their roles in society rather than to their sex" (Field, 1978, p. 173).

Other researchers have also explored this gender difference. Fischer (1986a) gave students a vignette to be classified as rape or not based on nine different circumstances. She found a significant difference in gender: more women were in the rejector group who considered the man's behavior unacceptable under the nine circumstances (it was rape), while more men were in the non-rejector group who considered the man's behavior as acceptable (it was not rape). Fischer (1986a) attributes this difference to the Attitude Toward Women scale where she found those who held a more traditional attitude toward women were more likely to accept a man's rape behavior. And it is men who were more likely to hold this traditional attitude.

Garrett-Gooding and Senter (1987) also found this same pattern.

There was a strong relationship between a person's belief in traditional sex-role conceptions and his/her acceptance of the use of coercion there was a large gap between men and women in attitudes: Although the relationship between traditional sex-role conceptions and the acceptance of coercion held for both males and females in the sample, the fact is that men were much more likely to hold traditional sex-role conceptions and also much more likely to accept coercion in sexual interactions. (p. 366)

Unlike past research, which was based on convenience samples,
the authors used a multi-stage, stratified, cluster-sampling technique to obtain 778 respondents in a sample representative of the student population. Not only did they find support for the gender gap but they also found another correlation: there was moderate support for the hypothesis that the more likely men were to accept the use of coercion, the more likely they were to use it (Garrett-Gooding & Senter, 1987). Therefore, the authors suggest that if a sexual assault program could change the support for these traditional attitudes, there is some evidence it may change rape supportive behavior. While disappointed in their negative findings, Garrett-Gooding and Senter (1987, p. 367) conclude that, at the least, "contemporary, egalitarian sex-role conceptions do not promote rape supporting attitudes and behaviors" and suggest that further research should be developed to explore this topic.

Gilmartin-Zena (1988) also found support for a gender gap in her study of 198 sociology students. She found significant gender differences in 50% of the items she used in her research with women being less likely to support rape myths. She suggests this difference could be accounted for with attribution theory. Attribution theory holds that those people who can identify with the victim are more likely to support them and empathize with them. In other words, women are the overwhelming majority of rape victims and therefore, women are more likely to identify with the victim. Men, on the other hand, may be more likely to identify with the perpetrator and therefore have a tendency to blame the victim (so as not to blame
the man or themselves).

Giacopassi and Dull (1986) also concluded that defensive attribution theory was valid in their study of 449 sociology and criminal justice students, and this attribution cut across racial and sexual lines. "Almost without exception, the characteristics of the group that disagreed with an item was of the opposite race and the opposite sex of the group that had the highest proportion of agreement" (Giacopassi & Dull, 1986, p. 72). They explain their findings are both good news and bad news. The good news is this is not a case of men always believing rape myths to the detriment of women. The bad news is that a substantial minority of respondents do believe in rape myths and that these rape myths are based on stereotypic notions. However, with a hopeful attitude, the authors, Giacopassi and Dull (1986) suggest that because

there is an increasing amount of empirical evidence that the myths do not reflect the dominant social orientation towards rape in our society, and since one of the variables associated with their degree of acceptance appears to be their believability, education should be effective in lessening their prevalence. (p. 74)

Lottes (1991) conducted research with 2 different samples, 250 and 390 undergraduates, to specifically address gender differences in rape callous attitudes. After administering a battery of scales, Lottes concludes with three findings: (1) for both men and women, rejection of victim callous attitudes is associated with support for egalitarian and flexible gender roles while acceptance of callous attitudes is correlated with traditional, male-dominant gender roles; (2) variables that assessed sex role ideology were more
predictive of callous attitudes than those that measured sexual experience or permissiveness; and (3) agreeing with other research, finding a gender gap, women were more likely to hold egalitarian beliefs, had less permissive attitudes toward sex, and less callous attitudes toward victims (Lottes, 1991).

Bell, Kuriloff, Lottes, Nathanson, Judge, and Fogelson-Turet (1992) found similar results in their research in which they examined hypersexualized socialization, social consciousness, and liberalism effects on rape callousness in first year students. These authors sent mail questionnaires to the entire entering class (2505) and had a return rate of 22% (557). They point out this return is similar to other surveys and is actually quite good considering the survey contained 140 items. From this set of respondents they found sex-role attitudes to be the best predictor of victim callous attitudes followed by the "exposure to attitudes that stressed conquest of women" (or hypersexualized socialization discussed by Kanin, see earlier discussion) (Bell, et al., 1992, p. 459). Once again, sexual history was not a significant predictor of callous attitudes. In further agreement with other research, a gender gap was found. Men supported victim callous attitudes more often than women and the above variables were better predictors of these callous attitudes for men than for women. Bell et al., (1992) also suggest that since women are the majority of rape victims that they have greater identification and empathy for the victims of sexual assault.

In a study comparing gender and sex role stereotypes and at-
tribution of responsibility in acquaintance rape, Proite, Dannells, and Benton (1993) gave the Attitudes Toward Women scale and date rape scenarios to 160 male and 253 female undergraduates. They found women are more likely to have liberal, profeminist stances than men and those who rejected traditional roles for women (as shown by ATW scale) attributed less responsibility, expectation, and sexual desire to the victim in the sexual assault vignette. Men were more likely to believe that the victim was responsible for the rape and that she wanted sex. Many studies have examined the importance of gender roles on men and women. Support for traditional gender roles influences the attitude one will have toward rape, victims, and offenders. Therefore, for education to be effective it must address these social influences.

The Use of Peer Education

The results of Koss's research and the previous discussion show that sexual assault is a definite problem on college campuses that must be addressed to lessen further victimization. University administrators have many choices on how to deal with the problem ranging from ignoring it to actively getting involved and implementing intervention programs. Peer education programs are one of those intervention programs that are being chosen in universities. Peer education programs are used with a variety of subjects, including wellness, smoking, alcohol, contraception, and sex education (Fennell, 1993). The first peer education program, focusing on the
Asian influenza epidemic, was introduced in 1957 at the University of Nebraska (Sloane & Zimmer, 1993). Gould and Lomax (1993, p. 235) define peer education as simply "instruction or guidance from equals." In other words, it is college students educating other college students.

Winston and Edder (cited in Fennell, 1993) sampled divisions of student affairs to determine the use of students as paraprofessionals and found 70% of 118 schools used peer educators. The use of peer education programs has grown in the last few years. This growth stems from, among other things, an increase in the number of articles written and presentations given in the health field. State and regional training for these types of programs has also become available (Gould & Lomax, 1993). Part of the growth also stems from the cost effectiveness of the program: the students are volunteers or paid small amounts while the professional is freed to spend time in other areas (Fennell, 1993; Gould & Lomax, 1993).

There are many reasons for using peers to teach peers. One of the most important is that students are thought to be more likely to listen to their peers. According to Sloane and Zimmer (1993, p. 241),

people are more likely to hear and personalize a message that may result in changing their attitudes and behaviors if they believe the messenger is similar to them in lifestyle and faces the same concerns and pressures. This appears to be particularly true for youth, who are often at a stage in their lives when they are unable to trust, communicate with, or identify with adults. (p. 241)

Peer educators can also create a safe environment for students to
discuss problems. Sloane and Zimmer (1993) explain that peer educators are able to spread factual information, be examples of positive role models, and suggest solutions to problems. A study at Western Michigan University found that undergraduates rarely speak to adults about significant issues in their lives (DeShon & Sweezy, cited in Sloane & Zimmer, 1993). This study concluded that peers were the most important source of help among students. Peer educators also have the advantage of being on the inside, or as having special insight into the culture of their peers. They live among those they teach so that they are more likely to know the language, provide a credible role model, and can be viewed as an authority in a non-threatening way (Edelstein & Gonyer, 1993).

Unfortunately, no one is sure if the proposed advantages of using students are actually occurring. As many researchers and practitioners in peer education have pointed out, the evaluations of these programs are scarce (Fennell, 1993; Keeling & Engstrom, 1993; Sloane & Zimmer, 1993). This is especially surprising considering the current growth of these programs. Some health educators state they do not have the time, resources, or administrative support to conduct evaluations. Others have found it difficult to get their results published when they do have the opportunity to evaluate (although reasons for this difficulty are not given). Lastly, some have trouble finding support for larger studies in the attempt to replicate results of smaller studies (Sloane & Zimmer, 1993). Of the studies undertaken, the results are mixed (Fennell, 1993). This
study is an attempt to help fill this void, especially when considering the importance of evaluation in these programs.

Keeling and Engstrom (1993) have included evaluation as one of the ten characteristics that help a program stay successful and current. Evaluation allows the program to change when it is not effectively meeting the needs of students. If the program is already successful, evaluation is necessary to keep the program current and flexible so that it changes when the needs of the students change. Keeling and Engstrom (1993) give an example of what can happen if evaluation is missing:

Gradually, some of the programs we invested so much energy in begin to seem a little seedy; some of the educators, like some of the audience, start to feel a little bored, and, before long, we start talking about how nobody comes to the presentations and we start wondering why we have trouble recruiting peer educators; supervisors and trainers begin worrying about burnout, lamenting the loss of the days when students were really clamoring to join the program. (p. 259)

Fennell (1993) also points out that since few evaluations have been done, it leaves these programs at risk to be cut because they do not have evidence of their effectiveness. Some evaluators have pointed out that it is important to use more than consumer satisfaction to determine the effectiveness of programs (Bordon et al., 1988; Fischer, 1986a). As discussed earlier, Bordon et al., (1988) found their rape awareness program to be unsuccessful at changing attitudes even though it had been rated as successful by campus staff and audiences exposed to the program. In-depth evaluations are necessary to determine if a program is truly effective when more stringent methodological standards are applied.
Although peer education programs have many positive attributes, Gould and Lomax (1993) caution that they cannot be used as a panacea. Adequate training is extremely important and these authors lament that many peer educators are not trained enough for the work they must perform. "As an example, 3 to 6 hours of training does not a peer educator make" (Gould & Lomax, 1993, p. 236).

Another problem that can arise in education programs is disregarding the existence of larger social values. Peer educators alone can not be responsible for changing attitudes, when the program participants return to an environment that supports the very ideas that are trying to be changed (Sloane & Zimmer, 1993). Peer education needs support from the larger university environment. Suggestions include a campus sexual assault task force, written policies condemning sexual assault, comprehensive services for providers, security, and policies that discourage alcohol use (Simon, 1993).

Western Michigan University chooses to address sexual assault with a peer education program. Although peer education programs originated in health education, Simon (1993, p. 289) writes that they can be used for sexual assault education since peer pressure is involved. "When students see their friends, fraternity brothers, or team mates facilitating discussion on a difficult subject, they feel at ease and their attention is caught more effectively than if they were taught by an adult" (p. 289).

The current Peer Educators at Western are a coed group of stu-
dents who volunteer their time to the program. The program, titled Students Talking About Relationships (STAR), includes presentations and workshops on sexual assault, sexual harassment, and abuse and violence in relationships (Office of Student Life, 1995). The peer educators receive approximately 30 hours of training spread over 8 weeks. Training consists of readings on general issues in sexual assault, group discussion, and guest lectures from outside experts. These experts include counselors for rape victims, professionals from the criminal justice system and affiliates from the university judicial board. Peer educators not only receive a general education about sexual assault, they also receive training in how to present their material effectively as a group facilitator. As part of their training, they learn information from a script and practice the presentations in front of one another so that they have presentation experience before educating their peers. Programs are available for students, staff, and faculty in the classroom, residence halls, fraternities and sororities, student organizations, training sessions, conferences, and special events (Office of Student Life, 1995). At the time of this research, the 1995/1996 peer education group included 9 men and 11 women (Office of Student Life, 1995).

The current peer educators work from a script which includes definitions of sexual assault and consent issues. Unlike the past, this year the peer educators also presented on the Criminal Sexual Conduct laws in Michigan. Because there are sometimes time limitations in the programs, the Peer Educators may or may not educate on all issues. A video entitled Playing the Game could be shown which
emphasizes the different perspectives of a victim and an offender after a sexual assault has occurred. There may also be an exercise on gender role socialization and the effects this has on communication, belief in rape myths, and dating. The pair may also address myths and stereotypes surrounding sexual assault such as women's clothing or appearance causes rape, women need to be coerced into having sex, men have very little control over their sexual behavior, or you can't be raped by someone you have had sex with before, etc. Prevention, communication, precautions and the effects of intoxication and drug use are also addressed in the program. Lastly, the peer educators give resource information for those who might need to address any sexual assault issues they may have.

Some researchers have suggested the need for special programming that is gender specific, especially with regard to men. As evidenced by the gender gap, on the whole, men's attitudes tend to be more rape supportive than women's. After their evaluation research, Nelson and Torgler (1990), suggest that different strategies must be utilized in teaching men and women. They suggest that women's education should focus on steps that lead to date rape in the hopes that if women can recognize a potentially harmful situation, they may be able to stop it or escape. For men, they suggest addressing socialization that men have experienced which has contributed to their beliefs in myths. Other researchers have suggested that men may need programming geared to meet their own special needs. Berkowitz et al., (1994, p. 14), have suggested that men need men's
programs to truly accomplish attitude changes:

Programs should define rape and sexual assault, challenge rape myths, understand and address male socialization experiences, and encourage men to confront peers who express adherence to rape-supportive beliefs. Because most of the variables predicting men's likelihood of committing a sexual assault are associated with men's experiences in all-male environments or with close male peers, efforts to change male attitudes and behavior may be more effective in all-male groups. (p. 14)

The authors continue to suggest that programs that focus exclusively on women may allow men to avoid responsibility for acquaintance rape because they see it as a woman's problem. They also suggest that coed groups may actually exacerbate the problem of effective education by reinforcing the idea that men and women are adversaries. This could serve to polarize men and women which can widen instead of close the gender gap (Berkowitz, et al., 1994).

An example of this polarization may be seen in Fischer's (1986b) evaluation of the effects of a rape lecture. When she lectured in a confrontational format, men were more likely to find pro-rape behavior as acceptable. She found when she lectured in a non-confrontational format, there was a change in attitudes. She cautions that confrontation may be counterproductive in attempting to change men's attitudes. (It should be noted that the author did not define what makes a lecture confrontational.) Sexual assault programming must be sensitive to this if it is to change men's attitudes and close the gender gap between men and women.

Relatively speaking, men's only programming has just stepped onto the stage of sexual assault programming. Lee (1987, p. 100) writes that the Rape Prevention Education Project, a program devel-
oped for teenage and adult men, was developed because "Men can be presented with the shocking statistics on rape, but until they recognize the responsibility of men for rape and until they can empathize with some of the fear, pain, and anger resulting from a rape, rape prevention efforts will have limited success." An all-male setting is used to encourage men to speak freely. The presenters lead men in empathy exercises and encourage them to get involved in trying to stop rape in a variety of ways from volunteering as escorts or becoming educators in prevention programs to curbing jokes that devalue women among male friends. In a preliminary evaluation of the program the author surveyed 24 undergraduate men who participated in the program and found a significant difference in men's attitudes as less supportive of rape.

Schewe and O'Donohue (1993) also found in their study that men's education programs need to include more than shocking statistics on rape. The study compared two types of education programs for men: one emphasizing rape facts and myths and one emphasizing empathy. Critiquing previous evaluative research on methodological flaws, the authors used a more sophisticated research design for this research. They compared males that were at a high and low risk for sexually assaulting and they tried to control for socially desirable responses. Out of 216 men, 42 were determined to be at high risk for sexually assaulting and 13 at low risk. Those 42 high risk men were randomly assigned to 1 of 3 groups: a victim empathy group, a rape facts group, or no treatment control group. The 13 low risk
males served as a control group to compare to the high risk males. Results indicated that the victim empathy treatment was the most effective. The researchers advise caution in interpreting this program as a complete success since the high risk males were still not down to the normal level of the low risk males and the high risk control group also changed on some of the independent variables. It may be that high and low risk males need different programming to change their attitudes. On the other hand, the lecture on rape facts/myths did not produce any significant changes in the men. This inconsistency from previous findings could be accounted for by the fact that this research controlled for men at high risk for assaulting, socially desired responses and used a control group. The authors conclude that "Considering the relative performance of the empathy treatment compared to the facts treatment and considering the fact that dispelling rape myths and teaching rape facts represent the state of the art in rape prevention, empathy is clearly a factor worthy of further research" (Schewe & O'Donohue, 1993, p. 349).

Another men's program, "Man to Man About Rape," was started in the Fall of 1989 to augment a program aimed at coed or women only groups. "The program was designed to educate men about male socialization, intimacy, violent behavior, objectification, father-son relationships, and sexual behavior" (Ring & Kilmartin, 1991, p. 82). The authors explain that many men did not want to attend mixed-sex education programs because they perceived them to be "pejorative and accusatory" (Ring & Kilmartin, 1991, p. 83). Male students suggest-
ed they would be more comfortable and open if a male led the program. The design of the program focuses on making men comfortable expressing feelings in small groups. In one interesting exercise, men are shown a centerfold and then asked to assume that same pose. Those who pose are then asked to describe how they felt: "in addition to feeling subjugated and embarrassed, the poses were awkward and difficult to complete" (Ring & Kilmartin, 1991, p. 83). Although there had not been a formal evaluation of this program, men who participated felt they had a better understanding of the effects of male socialization and its contribution to rape.

It is only recently that Berkowitz (1994) writes of one of the first evaluations comparing mixed and single-sex education programs. Earle (1992, cited in Berkowitz, 1994) compared three different types of education programs. One program used male peer educators educating small groups of men (men's only program). A second used professionals educating small coed groups while the third program used professionals lecturing to a large coed group. Pre-tests were given two weeks before the program while post-tests were given immediately after the program. Results of the surveys indicated that the men's only program was the only program to show a significant liberalization of attitudes. Berkowitz (1994) also points out that the perception of rape as a severe crime did not change in any of the groups and, interestingly, those men in the large group lecture format became significantly less liberal in their attitudes toward women. Berkowitz (1994, p. 41) defines the men's only program as
successful but, amends "The impact of a one-time educational workshop, however, is limited by definition." He suggests that follow-up is necessary. He has found that although the men that participate in the men's only program are often satisfied with it, they also have desire to discuss the issue further with women. It may be that a men's only program is an effective way to bypass men's defensive barriers after which they are more comfortable in talking with women about the issue.

Klein's (1993) dissertation research also examined the differences in same-sex, coed, and no treatment groups. One hundred and thirty-three students were assigned to one of three groups and met weekly for eleven 2 hour sessions led by experienced professionals. The program was defined as successful in changing student attitudes for all treatment programs, but those in the same sex groups reported a more positive experience than those in the mixed groups. Men in the men's only groups reported more cohesiveness and more encouragement for independent actions than those in the treatment group. All men who received the program were significantly more empathetic after the program (Klein, 1993).

In concluding, the efforts to change men and women's attitudes toward rape have been numerous. Unfortunately research evaluating the effectiveness of the programs in use is not quite as prevalent. Of the research done, the results have been extremely mixed as to their success. Many times, success depends on how the researcher has defined it: is it when men and women both change or when one or
the other changes? One of the problems is simply that more research needs to be done to fill the gaps in knowledge. This research proposes to do that in studying Western Michigan University's peer education program on sexual assault: Students Talking About Relationships (STAR).

Summary

This review of the literature has shown the importance of doing further evaluation research on sexual assault programming. Research has shown the incidence of acquaintance rape to be quite high (Koss et al., 1987). Certainly high enough that universities around the country began to take steps toward education as a means to reduce the rates of acquaintance rape on their campuses. Education is proposed as a way to dispel those ideas that contribute to the perpetuation of acquaintance rape. As discussed in this literature review, these include beliefs in rape myths which devalue women and justify the actions of the offender. It also includes support for violence in interpersonal relationships and believing men and women have adversarial relationships in which they take advantage of one another. Education can teach men and women about the importance of gender roles and clear communication. As described in this chapter, Western Michigan University addresses sexual assault with a peer education program. Although presenters pass out evaluation forms at almost every presentation (a further explanation of these forms can be found in chapter V), a formal evaluation has never been done to
evaluate the effectiveness of the program. This thesis, as explained in the following chapter, proposes to fill this need.
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

To effectively evaluate the Sexual Assault Peer Education program, this research uses a pre-test/post-test quasi-experimental design (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). In this research, respondents were pre-tested using a survey, exposed to a sexual assault education program, and post-tested afterwards. The two samples were then compared for differences. No control group was used. A survey designed to assess student's attitudes and knowledge about sexual assault serves as the pre- and post-test. The two surveys were then matched by use of an anonymous identifier and T-tests for pairs were analyzed to assess if any significant changes resulted from exposure to the Sexual Assault Peer Education program.

Instrument

The questions were constructed from existing literature and modified by the director of the Peer Educator program and researcher to best address the content of the program. Because existing surveys and scales did not accurately match the content of the current Peer Educating program, a combination of different survey questions was used along with questions created by the program director to specifically match the content of this program. The final survey utilized information from the following scales: the Rape Myth Ac-
ceptance Scale (Burt, 1980), Attitudes towards Rape scale (Schwartz & Wilson, 1993), Acceptance of Rape Myths scale (Gilmartin-Zena, 1988), Revised Attitudes toward Rape questionnaire (Harrison, Downes & Williams, 1991), Rape Empathy scale (Dietz, Blackwell, Daley & Bentley, 1982), and Attitudes toward Rape Victims scale (Ward, 1988).

The pre-test consists of 47 questions addressing knowledge and beliefs about sexual assault (see Appendix A for pre-test). It is split into 5 general sections. The survey begins with three questions addressing the importance of communication in relationships. This is followed by two questions measuring the perception of sexual assault as a general and local problem. The next two questions tap into respondent knowledge of the incidence rates for acquaintance rape. Student's knowledge of legal factors are also examined. Nineteen variables split into two sections are used to address knowledge of situations that are legally considered rape. The last part measuring attitudes toward rape consists of 23 questions in which respondents indicate amount of agreement with various rape myths. These questions were posed in both the positive and negative in the attempt to control for response set and were then recoded for analysis. The remaining four questions on the survey are used for demographic information: sex, university class standing, race/ethnicity, and age. The post-test contains exactly the same questions with the addition of one final question which asks the respondent if he or she saw the sexual assault program (see Appendix A for post-test). This question is included to attempt to control for those
students who may have been present for the post-test, but not present on the day of the STAR program was given.

Finally, to compare the pre- and post-tests, students were asked to write the last four digits of their social security number on the survey. This is effective as an identifier since it allows an easily remembered identifying number but still guarantees anonymity. Lenihan et. al (1992) used this technique successfully in matching surveys in their program evaluation. It was found to be successful in this research also.

Sample

Because of the researcher's time and funding limitations, the sample chosen for the research is a convenience sample. Although the results of the research are not generalizable to the population, they will allow for a preliminary evaluation of the program in question to see how effective it is with the students sampled.

University 101 classes, used to introduce first year students to life at the University, were the main target for surveys since the Peer Educators have regularly made presentations within these classes. Unfortunately, the response rate of professors requesting the program was lower during the timeframe of this research than in the past. Since the number of students in the University 101 classes are purposely kept small, the sample was expanded by surveying other classrooms. The final sample consisted of 7 University 101 classrooms, 2 classes in Physical Education-Professional, and 2
classes in Sociology. Two of the University 101 classrooms were given only a post-test. The sampling of other classes and curriculums created a more diverse sample. The final sample consisted of 309 pre-tests and 316 post-tests. Two hundred and thirteen respondents took both the pre- and post-tests.

Time Frame of the Research

Human Subjects Institutional Review Board approval to begin the research was received on August 3, 1995 for the duration of one year (See Appendix B for approval letter). The administration of surveys was completed between September and December of 1996. This project was completed by June 1996, within the allotted time frame.

Data Collection

In order to retest the class after the peer education presentation, the time period for data collection was limited to the length of one semester, or 14 weeks. The pre-test was given early in the fall semester of 1995 during the months of September and October. Various presentations by the Peer Educators were given throughout the months of September, October and November. The post-tests began as early as October and finished in the second week of December. A goal of two weeks was set between the pre- and post-tests and the presentation so that students would not be exposed to the survey immediately before or after the presentation. Because of class schedules it was not always possible to achieve this goal.
Some pre- and post-tests fell as close to a week before or after the presentation, but none were given immediately before or after. Analysis of the data took place in the winter and spring semesters of 1996.

Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There will be a significant difference in pre-test and post-test scores measuring student's attitudes toward rape.

Hypothesis 1A: Those who are exposed to the program will be more likely to see sexual assault as a problem.

Hypothesis 1B: Those who are exposed to the program will be more familiar with incidence rates of sexual assault.

Hypothesis 1C: Those who are exposed to the program will be more likely to know when an act is legally rape.

Hypothesis 1D: Those who are exposed to the program will be more likely to disagree with rape myths.

Hypothesis 2: Women will be more knowledgeable about incidence of rape and less rape supportive than men on the pre-test but will score similarly to men in legal knowledge of rape.

Hypothesis 3: STAR will be effective in lessening the gender gap found in the attitudes of men and women. After the program men and women should answer similarly in terms of incidence rates, legal knowledge of rape, and disagreement with rape myths.

Hypothesis 4: Men will be less likely to see communication as important in relationships.
Hypothesis 5: Men will be less likely to see sexual assault as both a widespread and local problem.

Method of Analysis

The nature of the research design calls for a comparison of scores. Such comparison can be between pre-test and post-tests, between pre-tests for sub-samples, and between post-tests for different subsamples. The use of T-tests allows for a determination of whether differences found were statistically significant.
CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Demographics

In this sample, 309 students took the pre-test and 316 took the post-test. Of those that completed the pre-test, 88.0% were White-non Hispanic while the other 12% classified themselves as Asian or Pacific Islander (6.5%), Hispanic (2.3%), African American (1.6%), Native American (0.3%) and other. With respect to sex, 37.9% were male and 61.8% were female. The average age of the students taking the pre-test was 19.1. Over half (54.4%) of the students are first year students, 20.4% were juniors, 12.6% sophomores, and the remaining 11.7% were seniors. The over representation of first year students occurred because of the focus of this research on University 101 classes which, as discussed in the methodology chapter, targeted first year students.

Those taking the post-test are quite similar in demographics. Those classifying themselves as White-non Hispanic made up 86.1% of the sample while 5.4% classified themselves as Asian or Pacific Islander, 2.5% as Hispanic, 3.8% as African American, and 0.3% Native American. With regard to sex, 35.8% were male and 63.3% were female. As on the pre-test, 54.4% were first year students, while 17.4% were juniors, 11.1% were sophomores, and 7.9% were seniors. The average age of those taking the post-test was 18.6. Slightly
under three-quarters (72.5%) of the total number of post-test respondents reported seeing the sexual assault education program.

After matching the surveys by identification numbers, 213 students took both the pre- and post-test (see Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>35.2%</td>
<td>35.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>64.8%</td>
<td>64.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class standing:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Year</td>
<td>57.7%</td>
<td>57.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophomore</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
<td>9.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race/Ethnicity:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian/Pac. Island</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native American</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White-Non Hispanic</td>
<td>91.0%</td>
<td>89.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Age</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With respect to race/ethnicity on the pre-test for these matched pairs, 91.0% were White-non Hispanic. African Americans made up 5.2% of the sample, Hispanics 2.8%, and Native Americans and other each made up 0.5%. More women (64.8%) took the pre-test than men (35.2%). Over half (57.7%) of the students were first year, 12.2% were soph-
sophomores, 20.7% juniors, and 9.4% were seniors. The average age of those who took the pre-test was 19.3. The demographics on the post-test were very similar with some slight shifting. On the post-test, one person indicated his or her race to be Asian/Pacific Islander (as opposed to the pre-test in which there were no Asian/Pacific Islanders), and the percentage of White, non-Hispanic shifted from 91.0% to 89.6%. Respondents classifying themselves as African American were slightly higher on the post-test (5.2% to 6.1%). Slightly fewer students classified themselves as sophomores (12.2% to 11.7%).

After selecting those people who indicated that they did see the program on the post-test, the number of respondents dropped to 159 (see Table 2). Demographics of these respondents were similar on their pre- and post-test with the exception of there being slightly fewer first year students (53.5%) and slightly more juniors (23.9%) who saw the program.

In comparison to the general population at Western Michigan University, this sample is overrepresented by females and whites. As discussed earlier, because of the focus on the University 101 classrooms, the sample is younger than the general population.

Initial Findings

The initial findings stem from an initial review of the data before hypothesis testing was analyzed. The examination of the initial findings is broken into the five general areas that were used
on the surveys. The results are discussed in the following order: communication, extent of the problem of sexual assault, incidence of sexual assault, legal scenarios, and rape myths.

Table 2
Demographics for Pre-test/Post-test
Who Saw STAR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>34.0%</td>
<td>34.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>66.0%</td>
<td>65.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class standing:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Year</td>
<td>53.5%</td>
<td>53.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophomore</td>
<td>11.9%</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>23.9%</td>
<td>23.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race/Ethnicity:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>5.1%</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian/Pac. Island</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native American</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White-Non Hispanic</td>
<td>90.4%</td>
<td>88.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Age</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 159

Communication

A series of three questions beginning the survey focused on communication between men and women. The first question asked students how well they believed men and women communicate. Scores ranged from 1, extremely poor, to 5, extremely well. As indicated
by the mean of 3.516 on the pre-test and 3.389 on the post-test, many students believe that men and women communicate fairly well with one another (see Table 3). The next two questions addressed the importance of communication. These questions were coded so that the higher the mean the more likely students were to find communication important (1 = least important and 5 = most important). In each of these questions students rated communication as close to very important (see Table 3). Students rated communication in general as very important to a relationship on both the pre- and post-tests (4.962, 4.900).

Table 3
Communication Means on the Pre-test and Post-test for Those Who Saw STAR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Between men and women</td>
<td>3.516</td>
<td>3.389</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Importance</td>
<td>4.962</td>
<td>4.900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Importance of discussing sex</td>
<td>4.692</td>
<td>4.699</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interestingly, in response to the last communication variable, the importance of discussing sex, the means on the pre- and post-test (4.692, 4.699) were lower than those for the importance of communication in general. This might indicate evidence of the sexual taboo as discussed in the literature review. Although students find communication important to the success of a relationship, there may be
more hesitancy to discuss the issue of sex.

Extent of the Problem of Sexual Assault

Two questions were designed to assess students' belief of sexual assault as a widespread and local problem. Students were more likely to answer that sexual assault is a widespread problem than a problem on Western's campus. Almost 90% (89.8%) of those taking the pre-test believed sexual assault is a widespread problem (see Table 4). Only 54.8% of these respondents believe it to be a problem on Western's campus. This trend continues on the post-test, although the percentage of those seeing sexual assault as a problem increases (94.0% and 71.6%, respectively). Although students are more likely to see sexual assault as a problem after the program, they are still less likely to see it as a problem on their own campus.

Table 4

Percentage of Respondents Agreement With Extent of Problem for Pre-test/Post-test Who Saw STAR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. Widespread problem</td>
<td>89.8%</td>
<td>94.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n = 127</td>
<td>n = 182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Problem at WMU</td>
<td>54.8%</td>
<td>71.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n = 73</td>
<td>n = 116</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Incidence of Sexual Assault

Two questions were asked to assess student's general knowledge of the incidence rates of sexual assault. In each of these cases, the correct answer for the incidence rate question was answer number 4. As can be see in Table 5, the students in this sample were fairly knowledgeable about incidence rates.

Table 5

Incidence Percentages for Pre-test and Post-test for Those Who Saw STAR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. Percent assaulted</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>23.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>57.9</td>
<td>65.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Number of victims</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 in 52</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 in 33</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 in 15</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 in 6</td>
<td>57.9</td>
<td>81.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n = 159  n = 229

In response to the variable measuring percentage of women assaulted by men they know, 57.9% of those taking the pre-test answered correctly. On the second incidence variable, almost 60% (57.9%) of those taking the pre-test answered correctly that 1 in 6 women will be victims of rape or attempted rape in one year. On the post-test the percentage of correct answers increases. Sixty-five percent
(65.5%) answered correctly the number of women assaulted by known men and 81.2% answered correctly the number of college women assaulted each year. It seems that being exposed to the program gave students more knowledge about rate of incidence.

**Legal Scenarios**

A series of questions were designed to assess student knowledge on the content of Michigan's Criminal Sexual Conduct law. Students were asked whether a series of behaviors, broken into two sections, could be legally defined as rape on both the pre- and post-test. A large majority of the students answered that the various acts are sexual assault (see Table 6). On most of the variables, over 95% of the respondents answered that the behavior described is rape. In the first section of the pre-test (variables 8-19) legal variables, the only two variables that dropped below this percentage are if the woman did not physically resist or try to get away (89.9%) and if the woman was not the man's wife (90.5%).

In the second section of pre-test legal variables (variables 43-49), only one variable is under 95%: 92.5% of the respondents taking the pre-test agreed that touching someone's breasts, buttocks, or genitals when they have clothes on was against the law when done against the victim's will as opposed to the other variables which receive over 96% support. The lesser degree of support may be explained by the fact that of all the scenarios this one was the most likely to be misidentified as not against the law.
Table 6
Percentage of Respondents Agreement That Scenario is Legally Rape for Pre-test/Post-test Who Saw STAR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8. Resistance</td>
<td>89.9%</td>
<td>90.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Woman drunk</td>
<td>95.6</td>
<td>95.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Man drunk</td>
<td>98.7</td>
<td>96.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Injury</td>
<td>98.7</td>
<td>96.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Wearing condom</td>
<td>98.1</td>
<td>95.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Gave in from fear</td>
<td>97.5</td>
<td>96.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. No ejaculation</td>
<td>99.4</td>
<td>96.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Woman passed out</td>
<td>99.4</td>
<td>96.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. No physical attack</td>
<td>98.1</td>
<td>96.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Woman is wife</td>
<td>90.5</td>
<td>91.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Consent from threat</td>
<td>99.4</td>
<td>96.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Previous sex</td>
<td>97.5</td>
<td>95.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. Touch naked</td>
<td>96.2</td>
<td>96.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. Touch clothes</td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td>96.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. Vaginal intercourse</td>
<td>97.5</td>
<td>98.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. Anal intercourse</td>
<td>99.4</td>
<td>98.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. Oral sex</td>
<td>97.5</td>
<td>98.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. Oral sex/masturbate</td>
<td>98.1</td>
<td>99.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. Penetrate with object</td>
<td>98.1</td>
<td>98.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(n = 159 \quad n = 229\)

Again, this same trend of knowledge is seen on the post-test with slightly higher percentages. Those scenarios least likely to be seen as legally rape on the pre-test are the same on the post-test: lack of physical resistance (90.4%) and when the victim is the man's wife (91.6%). On the post-test, however, the percentage agreeing that variable 44 touching someone when they have clothes on is illegal increases to 96.5% making it comparable to the other legal variables on the post-test.
Rape Myths

The rape myth section of the survey was coded so that the higher the score, the more one disagreed with rape myths. Scores range from a low of 1.000, or strong agreement with a rape myth to a high of 5.000, or strong disagreement with the myth. It should be noted that a majority of respondents disagreed with most of the rape myths (see Table 7).

Table 7

Rape Myth Means for Pre-test/Post-test Who Saw STAR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20. Hesitate-back off</td>
<td>4.516</td>
<td>4.659</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Attacker known</td>
<td>4.862</td>
<td>4.856</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Clear and forceful no</td>
<td>4.176</td>
<td>4.237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Passed out-no consent</td>
<td>4.755</td>
<td>4.747</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Man can be victim</td>
<td>4.535</td>
<td>4.358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Visit man's home-sex</td>
<td>4.497</td>
<td>4.524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Woman can resist</td>
<td>4.342</td>
<td>4.424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Necking-blame victim</td>
<td>4.642</td>
<td>4.655</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Hesitate-talk into</td>
<td>3.836</td>
<td>4.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. False accusation</td>
<td>3.201</td>
<td>3.459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Drinking and arousal-sex</td>
<td>4.415</td>
<td>4.437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Woman initiates</td>
<td>4.348</td>
<td>4.467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Foolish but no blame</td>
<td>3.911</td>
<td>4.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Traumatic experience</td>
<td>4.805</td>
<td>4.734</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Previous sex-no assault</td>
<td>4.563</td>
<td>4.616</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Socialization</td>
<td>3.414</td>
<td>3.522</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Sex experience-damaged</td>
<td>4.323</td>
<td>4.447</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Men rape due to urge</td>
<td>3.538</td>
<td>3.576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. 2 days after-false</td>
<td>4.239</td>
<td>4.349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Prior sex no complaint</td>
<td>4.711</td>
<td>4.646</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Know-not rape</td>
<td>4.774</td>
<td>4.712</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. Drink/drug-no consent</td>
<td>4.786</td>
<td>4.764</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n = 159  n = 229
The majority of students sampled are either not very supportive of rape myths or recognized the politically correct answers to these survey questions. Disagreement with the rape myths ranged from means as low as 3.201 to as high as 4.862 depending on the particular myth. Those myths least supported on the pre- and post-tests included variable 21, if the attacker is known it is not an assault (4.862, 4.856); variable 23, if a person is passed out from drinking or drugs consent is not necessary (4.755, 4.747); variable 34, forced sex is not a traumatic experience (4.805, 4.734); variable 41, you cannot be sexually assaulted by someone you know (4.774, 4.712) and variable 42, if a person is drunk or drugged, then consent is not necessary (4.786, 4.764). Although many of the myths in this survey were not supported, there were some with which students were less likely to disagree or be undecided.

Variable 30, women often falsely accuse men of sexual assault (3.201, 3.459), had the most support of all of the rape myths. On the pre-test, only 39.0% of respondents strongly disagreed or disagreed that women often falsely report rape. Over one-third (33.3%) were undecided, while 27.7% of the students agreed or strongly agreed that women often falsely report rape. The same trend continues on the post-test but the percentages of disagreement are higher: 47.6% disagree or strongly disagree, 35.8% undecided, 16.6% agree or strongly agree. Students were also more likely to believe the myth addressed in variable 38, men sexually assault due to uncontrollable urges (3.538, 3.576). Approximately half of the students (52.5% on
the pre-test and 52.9% on the post-test) disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement. Approximately 30% (30.4% on the pre-test and 28.8% on the post-test) were undecided while just under 20% (17.1% on the pre-test and 18.3% on the post-test) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. The last myth, variable 36, that students evidence some confusion over is the influence of socialization on sexual assault (i.e., boys are raised to be aggressive, while girls are raised to be passive) (3.414, 3.522). Again approximately half (52.3% on the pre-test and 55.3% on the post-test) of the respondents agreed with this statement, while 30.6% on the pre-test and 32.0% on the post-test reported being undecided on the influence of socialization. Just under one-fifth (17.2%) of the pre-test sample answered they disagreed or strongly disagreed that socialization has an influence on the incidence of sexual assault, while 12.7% of the post-test sample answered the same.

Aside from these findings, an interesting finding did arise from differing wording of two questions that measured essentially the same variable. One question on the survey asks students "If you want to have sex and your partner communicates some reluctance or hesitancy, you should back off" while the other one asks, "If you want to have sex and your partner communicates some reluctance or hesitancy, there is nothing wrong with trying to talk them into it." These two different wordings resulted in two differing responses. On the pre-test, students were more likely to support this rape myth when it was posed in the second form (with mean of 4.516 when writ-
ten in the first form as opposed to 3.836 in the second). This same trend is also seen on the post-test (4.659 as opposed to 4.070). A possibility may be that students are aware of a politically correct answer which was harder to distinguish in the second question. This awareness may be present since sexual assault has received heavy media attention in the late 1980s and early 1990s with the Thomas-Hill case, William Kennedy Smith and Mike Tyson trials, and the Tailhook scandal (Bohmer & Parrot, 1993; Forst, 1993). Researchers may have to design surveys in which the politically correct answer is not as apparent to tap into more subtle changes in respondent attitudes.

It seems that the general public has become more knowledgeable about basic facts of acquaintance rape (it is considered a crime) and this seems to be the case with this sample. These students seemed to be fairly knowledgeable about the extent of the problem and incidence rates and distinguishing what is legally rape. The good news is that an overwhelming majority of the respondents were not rape supportive. However there does still seem to be some support for or indecisiveness over some myths, such as false reporting, men raping due to an uncontrollable urge (still debated in the literature), and the contribution of gender socialization to acquaintance rape.

Hypothesis Testing

To assess changes over time, or whether the program was effec-
tive for those students who said they saw the program, T-tests for pairs were used to measure significant differences in answers from the pre- to the post-test. To test these hypotheses, the surveys were split into 5 parts: communication, extent of sexual assault as a problem, knowledge of incidence rates, legal definitions, and rape myths.

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis states that the program should be effective in educating students in four of these areas: extent of the problem, knowledge of incidence rates, knowledge of legal issues and support for rape myths. The first hypothesis, Hypothesis 1A, suggests that after seeing STAR, the perception of sexual assault as a problem will increase. This hypothesis is supported by the results (see Table 8). Students were asked (a) if sexual assault is a widespread problem, and (b) if sexual assault is a problem on Western's campus. After collapsing the answer categories into dichotomous categories, a T-test for pairs was run to analyze changes (although the data is nominal, this test is analogous to a test of proportions if the answer categories are coded 0 and 1). On both of these questions, respondents became more sure that sexual assault is a problem. As to sexual assault being a widespread problem a T-test ($t = 1.91$) shows significance at a .10 alpha level. This change was significant for both men ($t = 1.42$) and women ($t = 1.36$) on a .10 alpha level. On the second question, students were asked whether they believed
there was a sexual assault problem on Western's campus. Students were more likely to agree there was a problem after seeing the program ($t = 2.57, p<0.01$). This relationship is again significant for both men ($t = 2.19 p<0.05$) and women ($t = 1.43 p<0.10$). The results of this section on the extent of the problem should be interpreted with care. Some respondents reported being undecided on the issue (ranging from 17.6% to 54.1% depending on the variable and survey examined) and these students were excluded from the analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Total Sample</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. Sexual assault - widespread</td>
<td>1.91*</td>
<td>1.42*</td>
<td>1.36*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n = 114</td>
<td>n = 80</td>
<td>n = 34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. WMU-sexual assault problem</td>
<td>2.57***</td>
<td>1.43*</td>
<td>2.19**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n = 57</td>
<td>n = 38</td>
<td>n = 19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < .10$
** $p < .05$
*** $p < .01$

The second hypothesis, Hypothesis 1B, suggests that students will be more knowledgeable about incidence rates. This is measured by two multiple choice questions: one addressing the percentage of rapes committed by someone the victim knows and the other asking how many college women are victims of rape or attempted rape each year. Although there were no differences between the pre- and post-test
mean scores for program participants on the first question, there was a statistically significant difference ($t = 5.75, p<0.01$) on the second question, number of college women assaulted (see Table 9). This significant finding on the second question was found for both men ($t = 4.35, p<0.01$) and women ($t = 3.88, p<0.01$). However, with regard to the first variable, the percentage of women assaulted by someone they know, although not significant for all program participants, was significant for men ($t = 2.11, p<0.05$) who participated in the program.

Table 9

T-tests of Significance of Incidence for Those Who Saw STAR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Total Sample</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. % assaulted</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>-0.25</td>
<td>2.11**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. # victims</td>
<td>5.75***</td>
<td>3.88***</td>
<td>4.35***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n = 158</td>
<td>n = 104</td>
<td>n = 55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < .10$
** $p < .05$
*** $p < .01$

The third hypothesis, Hypothesis 1C, suggests those who saw the STAR program would more readily recognize an act as legally rape regardless of the circumstances (see Table 10). To determine if there were changes between the pre- and post-tests, T-tests for pairs were again utilized. As discussed earlier, students were given various scenarios and asked if they believed the situation to be
legally rape. Interestingly, a large majority of the students were already knowledgeable about the legal aspects of rape. Therefore, there were not very many significant changes between the pre- and post-tests with respect to legal variables. Of the nineteen variables used to measure this, only one, variable 44, showed a significant difference ($t = 1.74$) at the .05 level. This significance held for women ($t = 1.68$, $p<0.05$) but not for men.

### Table 10

T-Tests of Significance of Legal Variables for Those Who Saw STAR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Total Sample</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8. Physical resistance</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-0.33</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Woman drunk-no response</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Man drunk-ignore refusal</td>
<td>-1.13</td>
<td>-1.42*</td>
<td>-0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. No physical injury</td>
<td>-0.58</td>
<td>-1.42*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Man wearing condom</td>
<td>-0.82</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-1.43*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Gave in out of fear</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. No ejaculation</td>
<td>-1.64*</td>
<td>-1.35*</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Woman-wife</td>
<td>-1.35*</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Man did not attack</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-0.58</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Woman-wife</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Consent from threat</td>
<td>-1.35*</td>
<td>-1.75**</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Previous sex</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>-0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. Against law-touch naked</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. Against law-touch clothes</td>
<td>1.74**</td>
<td>1.68**</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. Against law-vaginal inter.</td>
<td>-0.82</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.43*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. Against law-anal intercourse</td>
<td>-0.58</td>
<td>-0.58</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. Against law-oral sex</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. Against law-oral/masturbate</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. Against law-penetrate object</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < .10$
** $p < .05$
*** $p < .01$
Three other legal variables were also significantly different, at the .10 level, but in the undesired direction: students were less likely to answer that the act was legally rape. On the pre-test, support for these three variables, if the man did not ejaculate, if the woman was passed out or asleep, and if the man convinced her to give in or go along by making some kind of threat, was very high with 99.4% of the respondents answering these situations were legally rape. On the post-test these percentages dropped to 96.9%, 96.5%, and 96.9% respectively. Although over 95% of the students still correctly identified these situations as legally rape, it is interesting to see this statistically significant drop in the means. It is also interesting to note that the two scenarios that had the least support as rape as discussed earlier (if the woman was the man's wife and if the woman did not physically resist) did not change from the pre- to post-test in a statistically significant manner.

The last section of the first hypothesis, hypothesis 1D, suggests that after seeing STAR, students should become less rape supportive. T-tests for pairs were again used to analyze changes over time. Of the 23 variables measuring agreement with rape myths, a statistically significant difference was found between the pre- and post-test on twelve (see Table 11). Of these twelve, two of the variables were significant in the undesired direction: students became more supportive of (or less likely to disagree with) the myths. The first one, significant at the .01 level, is variable 24, a man
cannot be a rape victim (z = -2.52). On the pre-test, the mean score was 4.535, while on the post-test this percentage dropped to 4.358.

Table 11
T-Tests of Significance of Rape Myths for Those Who Saw STAR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Total Sample</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20. Hesitate-back off</td>
<td>3.01***</td>
<td>2.63***</td>
<td>1.59*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Attacker known-sexual assault</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-0.33</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Clear and forceful no</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Passed out-no consent</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>-1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Man can be victim</td>
<td>-2.52***</td>
<td>-2.27**</td>
<td>-1.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Visit man's home-sex</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.63*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Woman can resist rapist</td>
<td>1.93**</td>
<td>2.29**</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Necking-blame victim</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>-0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Drunk, bar, home = sex</td>
<td>2.50***</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>2.38***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Hesitant-talk into</td>
<td>2.66***</td>
<td>1.96**</td>
<td>1.94**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. False accusation</td>
<td>4.02***</td>
<td>3.42***</td>
<td>2.12**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Drinking and arousal-sex</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Woman initiate contact</td>
<td>2.39***</td>
<td>4.09***</td>
<td>-0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Foolish but no blame</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Traumatic experience</td>
<td>-2.06**</td>
<td>-2.14**</td>
<td>-0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Previous sex-no assault</td>
<td>1.46*</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Socialization</td>
<td>2.16**</td>
<td>2.45***</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Sex experience=damaged</td>
<td>2.45***</td>
<td>2.02**</td>
<td>1.38*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Men rape due to urge</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. 2 days after=false</td>
<td>2.64***</td>
<td>1.89**</td>
<td>1.87**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Prior sex=no complaint</td>
<td>-1.15</td>
<td>-1.42*</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Know=not rape</td>
<td>-1.16</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-1.50*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. Drinking/drug-no consent</td>
<td>-0.46</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>-1.55*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n = 158  n = 104  n = 55

* p < .10  ** p < .05  *** p < .01

When examining men and women separately, the change was sig-
significant for women ($t = -2.27$, $p<0.05$) but not for men. This same situation occurred with the statement that forced sex is traumatic for the victim, variable 34 ($t = -2.06$, $p<0.05$). The pre-test mean of 4.805 dropped to 4.734 on the post-test.

Students were less likely to believe that a man can be a rape victim and less likely to believe that forced sex is traumatic for the victim on the post-test. Again, this change was significant for women ($t = -2.14$, $p<0.05$) but not for men. Interestingly, with the statement Sexually experienced women can be damaged by sexual assault, variable 37 which is comparable to variable 34, there was a significant difference ($t = 2.45$, $p<0.01$) between the pre-test and the post-test in the desired direction. On the pre-test the mean score was 4.323 and on the post test this mean increased to 4.447. This relationship was significant for both men ($t = 1.38$, $p<0.10$) and women ($t = 2.02$, $p<0.05$). Although students were less likely to see forced sex as traumatic, they were more likely to believe that sexually experienced women can be damaged by sexual assault.

There were also 9 other variables that were significant in the desired direction. Students became less supportive of (more likely to strongly disagree with) these rape myths. As discussed earlier, the two variables which asked students if they should back off if their partner is hesitant to have sex had differing levels of agreement depending on the way they were worded. Although there were differing levels of support, on both of these variables, students became less supportive of the myth on the post-test (significant at
the .01 level). With regard to variable 20, if you want to have sex and your partner communicates some reluctance or hesitancy, you should back off ($t = 3.01$), the mean score changed from 4.516 to 4.659. The change was significant for both men ($t = 1.59$, $p<0.10$) and women ($t = 2.63$, $p<0.01$). On the second question, variable 29, If you want to have sex and your partner communicates some reluctance or hesitancy, there is nothing wrong with trying to talk them into it ($t = 2.66$, $p<0.01$), the mean changed from 3.836 to 4.070. Again, this was significant for both men ($t = 1.94$, $p<0.05$) and women ($t = 1.96$, $p<0.05$).

Students also made significant changes in their agreement with variables dealing with false charges (at the .01 level). In response to variable 30 Women often falsely accuse men of sexual assault ($t = 4.02$), the pre-test mean was 3.201 as opposed to 3.459 on the post-test. When examining men and women, the change was significant for both (women, $t = 3.42$, $p<0.01$ and men, $t = 2.12$, $p<0.05$). Students were also more likely to strongly disagree with the statement, variable 39, that a report of sexual assault 2 days after the act has occurred is probably a false report ($t = 2.64$) on the post-test (4.239 to 4.349). Again, this was true for both men ($t = 1.87$, $p<0.05$) and women ($t = 1.89$, $p>0.05$).

Of the remaining 5 variables that changed, two were significant at .01, two at .05, and one at the .10 level of significance. Those significant at the .01 level focus on blaming the victim. In response to variable 28, A woman who gets drunk and picks up a guy
at the bar and goes home with him is asking for trouble and it is her fault if they have sex without her consent ($t = 2.50$). The mean score changed from 4.157 on the pre-test to 4.284 on the post-test. On the second variable (variable 32), If a woman initiates contact, she is to blame ($t = 2.39$) the mean score changed from 4.348 to 4.467. These students were less victim blaming on these two statements after seeing the program. When examining the T-tests for men and women, there are some interesting differences. In response to the first question, blaming the woman if she picked up a guy at the bar, significance was found for only the men ($t = 2.38$, $p < 0.01$). On the other hand, exactly the opposite was found on the other variable, women initiating contact, only women significantly changed their answers ($t = 4.09$, $p < 0.01$).

The two variables that significantly changed at the 0.05 level were variable 26 any healthy woman can successfully resist a rapist if she really wants and variable 36 which measures the belief in socialization on the perpetuation of sexual assault. Students were less likely to support that myth that any woman can resist a rapist ($t = 1.93$, $p < 0.05$). On the pre-test the mean score was 4.342 while after the program the mean increased to 4.424. With regard to socialization ($t = 2.16$, $p < 0.01$) after the program, students were more likely to agree that socialization plays a part in sexual assault (the mean score changed from 3.414 to 3.522). When examining men and women separately, on both of these variables, only the women were significant (women can resist, $t = 2.29$, $p < 0.05$ and socializa-
tion, $t = 2.45, p<0.01$). Neither were significant for men. The last variable to change, variable 35 "Once a couple has had sexual intercourse that issue is resolved and it is no longer possible for that man to sexually assault that woman" was significant at the .10 level ($t = 1.46$). Students were more likely to strongly disagree with this statement after the program (4.563 on the pre-test to 4.616 on the post-test). But, as should be noted, this finding is significant at a lower level than the others within the rape myth section. When breaking the sample down by sex, there were no significant differences in the answers. There were no other significant differences from the pre- to post-tests on the other variables for the total sample.

There are some significant differences found for men and women separately not found in the two combined. Women were less likely to disagree with the statement in variable 40, "women who have had prior sexual relationships should not complain about sexual assault" on the post-test ($t = -1.42, p<0.10$). Significant differences in the undesired direction for men were found for variable 41, "you can not be sexually assaulted by someone you know" ($t = -1.50, p<0.10$) and "if a person is drunk and drugged then consent is not necessary" ($t = -1.55, p<0.10$). In response to the statement "A woman who goes to the home of a man on their first date implies that she is willing to have sex," variable 25, men were more likely to disagree after the program ($t = 1.63, p<0.10$). There were no other significant differences found in the T-tests for men and women.
As discussed in the initial findings, there were three myths which students evidence some support for: false reporting, socialization effects, and men raping due to an urge. Interestingly, the only myth of these three most supported that did not significantly change after the program is the one proclaiming that men rape due to uncontrollable urges. The program did not seem to change student attitudes about this myth although it did on the other two.

Those Who Did Not See the Program

On the post-test, the last question asked whether the respondents saw the STAR program in their class. As discussed earlier, 72.5% of the respondents answered that they had seen the program. Almost 20% (19.6%) of the students reported they did not see the STAR program. After matching for pairs, T-tests were performed on 42 pairs who had not seen the program to see if there were any significant changes (see Table 12). Because of the small number of pairs, men and women were not examined separately. Interestingly, there were some statistically significant changes on some of the variables. Beginning with the variables measuring knowledge about incidence rates, there was a significant change (\( \bar{t} = 3.70, p<.01 \)) in variable 7, how many women are victims of rape or attempted rape in a year. With respect to the legal variables, there were four in which there were significant differences. Three of these changes were not significant with those students who saw the sexual assault program. The variable which changed for those who did not see the program in
the same direction as those who did is variable 8 "If the woman did not physically resist or try to get away" ($t = 2.22, p<0.01$). The other three variables showing significant change were not significant with those who saw STAR. These included variable 9 "If the woman was so drunk that she could not respond physically or verbally ($t = 1.43, p<0.10$), and variable 47, oral sex is against the law if done against the victim's will ($t = 1.43, p<0.10$). The respondents were more likely to classify these situations as rape on the post-test. However, with the third legal variable to significantly change ($t = -1.43, p<0.10$), variable 12 if a man was wearing a condom, on the post-test, respondents were less likely to say that this is rape.

With regard to the rape myths, the findings are quite complicated. As discussed earlier, for those who saw the sexual assault program; with respect to false accusations (variable 30), the total sample and men and women made significant change in their answers from the pre- to post-test. Those who did not see the program did the same ($t = 3.29, p<0.01$). They were more likely to disagree that women often make false accusations. This same situation, those who did not see the program changing significantly in the same direction as those who did, occurred with variable 36, measuring socialization as a factor in rape ($t = 1.38, p<0.10$), variable 34 rape as a traumatic experience ($t = -1.60, p<0.10$), variable 32 the woman is to blame if she initiates contact ($t = 2.24, p<0.05$), and variable 35 once a couple has had intercourse, sexual assault is not possible ($t$
- 1.52, p<0.10).

Table 12
T-Tests of Significance of All Variables for Those That Did Not See STAR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Total Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Incidence:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. % assaulted</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. # victims</td>
<td>3.70***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Legal:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Physical resistance</td>
<td>2.22**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Woman drunk=no response</td>
<td>1.43*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Man drunk=ignore refusal</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. No physical injury</td>
<td>-0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Man wearing condom</td>
<td>-1.43*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Gave in out of fear</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. No ejaculation</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Woman=pass out/asleep</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Man did not attack</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Woman=wife</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Consent from threat</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Previous sex</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

43. Against law-touch naked     | 0.57         |
44. Against law-touch clothes   | 0.57         |
45. Against law-vaginal inter.  | 1.00         |
46. Against law-anal intercourse| ----         |
47. Against law-oral sex        | 1.43*        |
48. Against law-oral/masturbate | 0.00         |
49. Against law-penetr object   | ----         |

**Rape Myths:**                   |              |
20. Hesitate-back off            | 0.57         |
21. Attacker known=sexual assault| 0.90         |
22. Clear and forceful no        | 0.33         |
23. Passed out=no consent        | -0.60        |
24. Man can be victim            | -0.45        |
25. Visit man's home=sex         | 1.55*        |
26. Woman can resist rapist      | 0.71         |
27. Necking=blame victim         | 0.00         |
28. Drunk, bar, home = sex       | 1.03         |
29. Hesitant-talk into           | -0.28        |
Table 12--Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Total Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30. False accusation</td>
<td>3.29***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Drinking and arousal-sex</td>
<td>1.31*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Woman initiate contact</td>
<td>2.24**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Foolish but no blame</td>
<td>1.55*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Traumatic experience</td>
<td>-1.60*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Previous sex-no assault</td>
<td>1.52*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Socialization</td>
<td>1.38*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Sex experience-damaged</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Men rape due to urge</td>
<td>-1.48*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. 2 days after-false</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Prior sex-no complaint</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Know-not rape</td>
<td>-1.35*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. Drinking/drug-no consent</td>
<td>-0.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Sexual assault - widespread                          | 0.00         |
5. WMU--sexual assault problem                          | 1.00         |

n = 42

*n p < .10  **** T-test could not be performed
** p < .05
*** p < .01

On two other variables, those who did not see the program changed significantly in the same direction as the men who did see the program. These variables are variable 25 a woman who goes to the home of a man on their first date implies that she is willing to have sex (\( t = 1.55, p < 0.10 \)) and variable 41 You can not be sexually assaulted by someone you know (\( t = -1.35, p < 0.10 \)). The last two variables that were significant for those who did not see the program were not significant for those who did see the program. These variables are variable 31 once a man has been drinking and becomes sexually aroused, he cannot control his behavior (\( t = 1.31, p < 0.10 \)), variable 38 men
men sexually assault due to uncontrollable sexual urges ($t = -1.48$, $p<0.10$) and variable 33 a woman who has been sexually assaulted may have done something foolish, but she’s never to be blamed for being assaulted ($t = 1.55$, $p<0.10$). Those students who said they did not see the program were less likely to believe a man can not control his sexual behavior when he is drinking and less likely to blame the woman for the assault, but they were less likely to disagree with the statement that men rape due to uncontrollable sexual urges.

**Hypothesis 2**

To test this hypothesis suggesting that women will be more knowledgeable about the incidence of rape and less supportive of rape myths than men on the pre-test, but will score similarly in legal knowledge of rape, T-tests for groups were run to compare the mean scores of men and women who took the pre-test (see Table 13).

### Table 13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>T-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. % assaulted</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. # victims</td>
<td>-2.28**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males n = 117</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females n = 191</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < .10$
** $p < .05$
*** $p < .01$
Partial support was found for this hypothesis. With respect to the knowledge of rape incidence, there was a significant difference in the means in one of the two variables. Women were more likely to answer the correct number of women who are victims of acquaintance rape ($t = -2.28, p<0.05$). In response to variable 6, the percentage of victims assaulted by men they know, men and women answered similarly.

Hypothesis 2 was fully supported with respect to support for rape myths (see Table 14). Consistent with other research that found a gender gap in men and women's attitudes, for every variable measuring disagreement with rape myths on the pre-test, women were more likely to disagree.

All of these variables, except for three, were significant at 0.01 alpha level. The variable measuring support for the effects of socialization on acquaintance rape was significant at 0.05 level of significance. The last two variables, men rape due to an urge and a man can not be a victim were also less likely to be disagreed with by women, but at the 0.10 level of significance. Regardless of the level of disagreement shown with each of the variables individually, women were consistently more likely to disagree with these myths than men.

The last part of this hypothesis, that men and women will score similarly on the legal variables, was not fully supported (see Table 15). Women had significantly different scores on seven of the twelve variables in the first set of legal variables, and two
of seven in the second set.

Table 14
T-Tests of Significance to Examine Gender Difference on the Pre-test--Rape Myths

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>T-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20. Hesitate-back off</td>
<td>-3.37***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Attacker known=sexual assault</td>
<td>-3.19***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Clear and forceful no</td>
<td>-5.47***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Passed out=no consent</td>
<td>-2.47***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Man can be victim</td>
<td>-1.54*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Visit man's home=sex</td>
<td>-7.40***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Woman can resist rapist</td>
<td>-3.33***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Necking-blame victim</td>
<td>-4.94***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Drunk, bar, home = sex</td>
<td>-5.20***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Hesitant-talk into</td>
<td>-5.05***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. False accusation</td>
<td>-8.04***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Drinking and arousal=sex</td>
<td>-2.98***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Woman initiate contact</td>
<td>-4.64***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Foolish but no blame</td>
<td>-2.76***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Traumatic experience</td>
<td>-3.87***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Previous sex=no assault</td>
<td>-4.98***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Socialization</td>
<td>-1.90**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Sex experience=damaged</td>
<td>-3.36***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Men rape due to urge</td>
<td>-1.42*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. 2 days after=false</td>
<td>-5.06***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Prior sex=no complaint</td>
<td>-5.90***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Know=not rape</td>
<td>-3.02***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. Drinking/drug=no consent</td>
<td>-3.63***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Males \( n = 117 \)
Females \( n = 191 \)

* \( p < .10 \)
** \( p < .05 \)
*** \( p < .01 \)

Women were more likely to say that the following constitute rape:
If the woman was so drunk that she could not respond physically or verbally \( (t = -1.33, p<0.10) \), If the man was so drunk that he did
not 'notice' her refusal or resistance ($t = -1.63$, $p<0.10$), If the woman was not physically injured ($t = -1.35$, $p<0.10$), If the woman said no and then gave in out of fear ($t = -2.30$, $p<0.05$), If the woman was passed out or asleep ($t = -1.60$, $p<0.10$), If the woman was the man's wife ($t = -1.47$, $p<0.10$), and If the man convinced her to give in or go along by making some kind of threat ($t = -1.58$, $p<0.10$).

Table 15

T-Test of Significance to Examine Gender Differences on the Pre-Test--Legal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>T-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8. Physical resistance</td>
<td>-0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Woman drunk-no response</td>
<td>-1.33*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Man drunk-ignore refusal</td>
<td>-1.63*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. No physical injury</td>
<td>-1.35*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Man wearing condom</td>
<td>-0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Gave in out of fear</td>
<td>-2.30**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. No ejaculation</td>
<td>-0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Woman-pass out/asleep</td>
<td>-1.60*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Man did not attack</td>
<td>-1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Woman-wife</td>
<td>-1.47*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Consent from threat</td>
<td>-1.58*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Previous sex</td>
<td>-0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. Against law-touch naked</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. Against law-touch clothes</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. Against law-vaginal inter.</td>
<td>-1.29*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. Against law-anal intercourse</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. Against law-oral sex</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. Against law-oral/masturbate</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. Against law-penetrated object</td>
<td>2.88***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Males $n = 117$
Females $n = 191$

$* p < .10$
$** p < .05$
$*** p < .01$
In the second set of legal variables women were more likely to say that vaginal intercourse is against the law ($\chi^2 = -1.29, p<0.10$), but they were less likely to answer that penetration with an object is against the law ($\chi^2 = 2.88, p<0.01$).

It should be noted, as discussed earlier, that in this sample, an overwhelming majority of the students answered that all of these various acts were against the law.

**Hypothesis 3**

The third hypothesis suggests STAR will be effective in closing the gender gap found in attitudes of women and men. This hypothesis is based on the gender gap found within the literature on attitudes about acquaintance rape. Some have suggested a ceiling effect for women in sexual assault programming. Because women are already knowledgeable about rape issues, they are less rape supportive before the program and therefore do not have much room for improvement. On the other hand, men are usually less knowledgeable and therefore do have room to change their attitudes and knowledge. To test this hypothesis, t-tests for groups were run to compare the means of the men and women who saw the program and these were compared to those who took the pre-test. As noted in the earlier section, women were less likely to be rape supportive on the pre-test and it was hoped this gender gap would not be evident after seeing the STAR program. With respect to the variables measuring knowledge of incidence rates, there were no longer any significant differences in men and women's
means (see Table 16).

Table 16

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>T-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. % assaulted</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. # victims</td>
<td>-1.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Males $n = 81$
Females $n = 149$

* $p < .10$
** $p < .05$
*** $p < .01$

Although women were still more likely to answer correctly on the number of college women that are victims of acquaintance rape, this difference was no longer statistically significant.

The legal variables on the post-test were similar (see Table 17). On the post-test, the only significant differences in men's and women's means on the first set of legal variables occurred with one variable: women were still more likely to say a rape did occur when the victim was the man's wife ($t = -1.48$, $p<0.10$). The other variables on which there was a significant difference on the pre-test were no longer statistically significant. On the second set of legal variables, the only significant difference in means occurred with oral sex as against the law when done against the victim's will. In this case, it was men who were more likely to answer this as against the law ($t = 1.74$, $p<0.05$). The two variables on the pre-test
on which men and women differed, vaginal intercourse and penetration with an object, were no longer significant on the post-test.

Table 17

T-Tests to Examine Gender Differences on the Post-Test--Legal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>T-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8. Physical resistance</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Woman drunk—no response</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Man drunk—ignore refusal</td>
<td>-1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. No physical injury</td>
<td>-0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Man wearing condom</td>
<td>-0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Gave in out of fear</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. No ejaculation</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Woman—pass out/asleep</td>
<td>-0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Man did not attack</td>
<td>-1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Woman—wife</td>
<td>-1.48*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Consent from threat</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Previous sex</td>
<td>-0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. Against law-touch naked</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. Against law-touch clothes</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. Against law-vaginal inter.</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. Against law-anal intercourse</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. Against law-oral sex</td>
<td>1.74**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. Against law-oral/masturbate</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. Against law-penetrate object</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Males n = 81
Females n = 149

* p < .10  
** p < .05  
*** p < .01

This trend toward a closing of the gender gap, however, did not continue with the variables measuring support for rape myths (see Table 18). As on the pre-test, all of the rape myth variables were significantly different with respect to men’s and women’s an-
swers. Once again, the women were more likely to disagree with the rape myths, with only two variables showing significance at less than 0.01: a man can not be a victim of sexual assault ($t = -1.87$, $p<0.05$) and the effects of socialization on acquaintance rape ($t = -1.47$, $p<0.10$).

Table 18
T-Tests to Examine Gender Differences on the Post-Test--Rape Myths

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>T-Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20. Hesitate-back off</td>
<td>-3.65***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Attacker known=sexual assault</td>
<td>-3.31***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Clear and forceful no</td>
<td>-4.00***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Passed out=no consent</td>
<td>-3.78***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Man can be victim</td>
<td>-1.87**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Visit man's home=sex</td>
<td>-5.64***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Woman can resist rapist</td>
<td>-5.86***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Necking=blame victim</td>
<td>-5.93***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Drunk, bar, home = sex</td>
<td>-5.43***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Hesitant-talk into</td>
<td>-4.08***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. False accusation</td>
<td>-6.46***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Drinking and arousal=sex</td>
<td>-3.77***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Woman initiate contact</td>
<td>-6.44***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Foolish but no blame</td>
<td>-2.67***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Traumatic experience</td>
<td>-3.15***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Previous sex=no assault</td>
<td>-4.98***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Socialization</td>
<td>-1.47*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Sex experience=damaged</td>
<td>-4.20***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38 Men rape due to urge</td>
<td>-2.51***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. 2 days after=false</td>
<td>-4.89***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Prior sex=no complaint</td>
<td>-6.16***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Know=not rape</td>
<td>-4.10***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. Drinking/drug=no consent</td>
<td>-4.84***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Males $n = 81$
Females $n = 149$

* $p < .10$
** $p < .05$
*** $p < .01$
As in the first hypothesis, those who said they did not see the program were also examined to see if there were any statistically significant differences in the men's and women's answers. Although there were significant differences found, there were not as many as with those who saw the program (see Table 19). There were no significant differences in the means of men and women on the variables measuring incidence rates and on the first set of legal variables. There were two significant differences on the second set of legal variables but they are different from those who saw the program. Men were more likely to say that it is against the law to touch someone's breasts, buttocks, or genitals when they are naked ($t = 1.44$, $p<0.10$) and forcing another to perform oral sex or masturbate ($t = 1.43$, $p<0.10$) against that person's will.

There were also significant differences between men and women who did not see the program in support for rape myths, but not to the degree that there were for those who did see the program. Rather than all of the variables being significant, only on 14 of the 23 did men and women differ. Of these 14, only two are significant to the 0.01 level of significance (unlike those who saw the program, in which almost all are significant at this alpha level). These variables include that many women make false accusations ($t = -2.36$, $p<0.01$) and that if a woman goes to the home or apartment of a man on their first date she implies that she wants sex ($t = -3.06$, $p<0.01$). Six variables are significant at the 0.05 level with women being less likely to support: the man should not be blamed if the
no was not clear and forceful ($t = -2.04$), any healthy woman can resist a rapist ($t = -1.81$), a drunk woman who goes home with a man she met the bar is asking for trouble ($t = -2.24$), a drinking man can not control his behavior ($t = -2.17$), and a woman who initiates contact with a man is to blame for sexual assault ($t = -1.93$). Women who did not see the program are also more likely to see the effects of socialization on the perpetuation of sexual assault ($t = -1.93$, $p < 0.05$). Those variables that are significant at the 0.10 level are if the partner communicates hesitancy, you should back off ($t = -1.68$), if the attacker is known to the victim it is still sexual assault ($t = -1.38$), if a woman engages in necking and/or petting, she is to blame for the assault ($t = -1.60$), it is acceptable to talk a hesitant partner into sex ($t = -1.63$), a report of sexual assault two days later is probably false ($t = -1.51$) and women who have had prior sex should not complain about sexual assault ($t = -1.64$). Women were less likely to support these rape myths. It should be noted that these differences should be interpreted with caution since the number of men and women who did not see the program was small (26 males and 36 females).

**Hypothesis 4**

This hypothesis, men will be less likely to see communication as important in relationships, was partially supported by the findings. Chi Square was performed on the three communication variables to assess if there were any sex differences.
Table 19
T-Test to Examine Gender Differences on the Post-Test for Those Not Seeing STAR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>T-Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Incidence:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. % assaulted</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. # victims</td>
<td>-0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Legal:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Physical resistance</td>
<td>-0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Woman drunk=no response</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Man drunk=ignore refusal</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. No physical injury</td>
<td>-0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Man wearing condom</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Gave in out of fear</td>
<td>-1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. No ejaculation</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Woman=pass out/asleep</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Man did not attack</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Woman=wife</td>
<td>-0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. Consent from threat</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Previous sex</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43. Against law-touch naked</td>
<td>1.44*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44. Against law-touch clothes</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45. Against law-vaginal inter.</td>
<td>-1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46. Against law-anal intercourse</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47. Against law-oral sex</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48. Against law-oral/masturbate</td>
<td>1.43*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49. Against law-penetrate object</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rape Myths:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Hesitate-back off</td>
<td>-1.68**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Attacker known-sexual assault</td>
<td>-1.38*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Clear and forceful no</td>
<td>-2.04**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Passed out=no consent</td>
<td>-1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Man can be victim</td>
<td>-0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. Visit man's home=sex</td>
<td>-3.06***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Woman can resist rapist</td>
<td>-1.81**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. Necking-blame victim</td>
<td>-1.60*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Drunk, bar, home = sex</td>
<td>-2.24**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. Hesitant-talk into</td>
<td>-1.63*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. False accusation</td>
<td>-2.36***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Drinking and arousal=sex</td>
<td>-2.17**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. Woman initiate contact</td>
<td>-1.93**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. Foolish but no blame</td>
<td>-0.78</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 19--Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>T-Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>34. Traumatic experience</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. Previous sex=no assault</td>
<td>-1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. Socialization</td>
<td>-1.93**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. Sex experience=damaged</td>
<td>-0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Men rape due to urge</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. 2 days after=false</td>
<td>-1.51*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40. Prior sex=no complaint</td>
<td>-1.64*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Know-not rape</td>
<td>-0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42. Drinking/drug=no consent</td>
<td>-1.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Males n = 261  
Females n = 36

* p < .10  
** p < .05  
*** p < .01

Some variables were recoded to compensate for small cell numbers.

With respect to the first question on the pre-test which asked students how well men and women communicate, women were more likely to say that men and women communicate fairly well (64.9% to 57.3%, respectively), but the relationship is not significant (see Table 20). On the post-test, this same relationship appears, but this time it is significant at the .01 level. This time 65.5% of the women believed that men and women communicate fairly well as opposed to 51.3% of the men. Gamma (0.18) shows this to be a weak relationship.

The second communication variable measured how important communication was to a relationship. Once again, women were more likely to see communication as very important in a relationship. Chi-square was significant at the .01 level on both the pre- and post-
test (see Table 21). An analysis of Gamma shows the strength of these relationships to be strong. The pre-test gamma value (0.74) is moderately strong while on the post-test it is a quite strong (0.93).

Table 20

Communication Between Men and Women by Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th></th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairly</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extremely</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi Square = 4.18  
\[ p = 0.24 \]  
not significant

Chi Square = 15.92  
\[ p = 0.00 \]  
gamma = 0.18  
-- = Not applicable due to recoding

On the pre-test, 98.4% of the women found communication very important to a relationship while 90.4% of the men answered very important. The percentages were similar on the post test with 99.5% of the women and 87.7% of the men answering very important.

The third communication variable measured how important it is to discuss sex in an relationship. Once again, women are more likely to say it is very important (see Table 22). Chi-square is sig-
significant at the .01 level for both the pre- and post-tests.

Table 21

Communication Importance by Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th></th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Important</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi Square</td>
<td>-10.43</td>
<td>Chi Square</td>
<td>-21.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>-0.00</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>-0.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gamma</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>gamma</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 22

Importance of Discussing Sex by Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th></th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Important</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Important</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi Square</td>
<td>-17.09</td>
<td>Chi Square</td>
<td>-24.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>-0.00</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>-0.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gamma</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>gamma</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the pre-test, 71.2% of the women and 47.9% of the men feel dis-
cussing sex is very important. On the post-test, these percentages are 80.0% and 54.0% respectively. Gamma shows these relationships to be moderate (pre-test, 0.42; post-test, 0.54). It is interesting to note that the percentage of both men and women who believed that it is very important to discuss sex in relationships went down from the second variable which measures the general importance of communication in relationships. Men and women seem to find discussing sex as less important in relationships.

When T-tests are examined for those that experienced the sexual assault program, there was a significant difference found. This occurred for the total sample ($t = 1.61, p<0.10$) in the importance of discussing sex. It seems seeing the program made students more likely to believe that discussing sex is very important. This finding is not significant when the sample is divided by sex.

**Hypothesis 5**

This hypothesis, men will be less likely to see sexual assault as a widespread and local problem, was also partially supported. Men were less likely than women to see sexual assault as both a widespread and local problem. Beginning with the first question which asked whether students believed sexual assault to be a widespread problem, over half of the respondents answered it was (see Table 23). On the pre-test women were more likely than men to consider sexual assault a widespread problem (72.3% to 53.0% respectively). Chi-Square shows this relationship to be significant as the 0.01 level.
However, Gamma (-0.03) shows this relationship to be very weak. This same pattern was found on the post-test with 78.5% of the women and 65.5% of the men answering sexual assault is a widespread problem. In this case, chi square shows this relationship to be significant at the .05 level and again, the relationship is quite weak (0.09). Because women are, in large part, the victims of sexual assault, they may have more reason to fear being victimized.

Table 23

Widespread Sexual Assault by Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi Square  = 15.07
p  = 0.00
gamma  = -0.03

Chi Square  = 8.24
p  = 0.02
gamma  = 0.09

In a subsequent question, respondents were asked if they felt sexual assault is a problem on Western's campus. On this question, there were no sex differences in respondents' answers (see Table 24). Responding to this question on the pre-test, over half of the men (54.7%) and women (58.1%) were undecided as to whether Western has a problem with sexual assault. This same pattern held for the post-
test with 51.3% of the men undecided and 51.5% of the women undecided. As discussed earlier, seeing the program seemed to make students more aware of sexual assault as a problem in general and on Western's campus.

Table 24

Western Sexual Assault by Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Totals</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi Square = 2.50  
\( p = 0.29 \)  
not significant

Chi Square = 1.52  
\( p = 0.47 \)  
not significant

Summary

What was presented here are the findings of the analysis. A general summary and how these findings relate to the literature will be presented in the next chapter.
CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this research was to examine the effectiveness of the sexual assault peer education program at Western Michigan University (STAR). This program is designed to give students more knowledge about issues surrounding sexual assault including extent of the problem, incidence rates, legal knowledge, and information about rape myths.

Of particular importance in this study is that the students in this sample are fairly knowledgeable about the issues involved in sexual assault and not very rape supportive. With respect to knowledge of the extent of the problem, although before the program over half of the students believed that sexual assault is a problem on campus and almost 90% believed it is a widespread problem, after being exposed to STAR students became more sure that sexual assault is both a widespread and local problem. However, students were still more likely to believe that sexual assault is a widespread problem rather than a local problem on Western’s campus. Students may be able to admit there is a problem elsewhere but they may have a more difficult time admitting it’s occurrence on their own campus.

This same trend of success of the STAR program is also seen with the ability of students to correctly identify incidence rates of acquaintance rape. Over half of the students could correctly
identify the number of acquaintance rapes on the pre-test. But after being exposed to the program student knowledge of incidence rates did increase on one variable. With regard to the other variables, only men significantly changed their answers.

Contrary to this successful finding for the first two areas, students did not become more knowledgeable of legal aspects of sexual assault after being exposed to the program. This could stem in large part from the fact that students were very knowledgeable on the pre-test. As discussed earlier, on most of the variables, over 92% of students answered that the varying circumstances were legally rape. It is interesting to note, as discussed in Chapter IV, that the two legal variables with the least support (if the victim was the man's wife and if the woman did not physically resist) also did not show change after the program. A possible explanation with respect to the woman resisting, as discussed by Bechhofer and Parrot (1991), is that it may be difficult for some to comprehend the harmfulness of acquaintance rape since consenting sex could be a possibility in a dating context (as opposed to stranger rape, where it is not). It may be that some students believe that the woman must physically resist or she is consenting to the act. With respect to the confusion over the woman being the man's wife, it is interesting to note that for many years a woman could not be legally raped by her husband because it was not against the law. Since it was once acceptable, some students may not be aware of the changes in the law that have taken place.
While these students are not very supportive of myths, they did evidence some confusion over or agreement with some of the myths. Those myths about which students are unsure include the effects of socialization, that men rape due to uncontrollable urges and the belief that women often make false accusations. These findings agree with those in other research. Others have found support in their research for the myth that men rape due to urges (Gilmartin-Zena, 1988) or psychological problems (Giacopassi & Dull, 1986) and false accusations (Gilmartin-Zena, 1988; Lottes, 1991). The myths that are least supported in this research include that a person cannot be sexually assaulted by an acquaintance; if a person is drinking, using drugs, or passed out consent is not necessary; and forced sex is not traumatic. Other researchers also found disagreement with some of these myths. Giacopassi and Dull (1986) found the least supported rape myth to be that a woman cannot be raped against her will, while the students in Gilmartin-Zena's study (1988) disputed myths that downplayed the seriousness of the crime and accepted that any woman can be a victim. The students in this sample and in these other studies seem to accept basic information such as women can be victims of acquaintance rape and that this is a serious crime. On the other hand, there seem to be some myths that still need to be addressed which seem to have larger social support such as false accusation, men raping due to urges and the influence of traditional gender roles.

The success of the program in addressing rape myths is a bit
complicated. The program seems to be effective in addressing some of the myths but not others. Significant changes for those who were exposed to the program occurred on approximately half (12 of 23) of the variables. The program was effective in changing scores for both men and women on five of these variables: two addressing backing off when a partner is hesitant, two addressing false accusations and one addressing the fact that sexually experienced women can be damaged by sexual assault. After the program women were more likely to disagree that any healthy woman can resist a rapist, that if a woman initiates contact she can be blamed for an assault, and were more likely to agree that socialization plays a part in sexual assault. On the other hand, interestingly, women were less likely to believe that a man can be a victim and that rape is a traumatic experience. Men were more likely to disagree after being exposed to the program that if a woman gets drunk at the bar, picks up a man and goes home with him, she is to blame. Although on a majority of the variables measuring support for rape myths the students did not change, it must be remembered that the scores were quite high to begin with on the pre-tests.

As previously discussed, because approximately 20% of those taking the post-test answered they did not see the program, these respondents were examined as a group akin to a control group. Although there was no formal control group, this group not exposed to the program was analyzed to see if there were significant changes in their answers from the pre-to post-test. Lenihan et al., (1992),
in a Soloman Four group design, found that the pre-test sensitized the women in their sample. The students in this sample who did not see the program also made significant changes in some of their answers. Those students who did not see the program were more likely to correctly identify the number of women that are victims of rape (incidence), were more likely to disagree with the myth addressing false accusations, were less likely to blame the woman if she initiates contact, less likely to believe that once a couple has had intercourse the man cannot rape the women and were less likely to disagree with the myth that rape is a traumatic experience. On these variables those who did not see the program changed answers in the same direction as those who did see the program, so that caution must be issued in interpreting the program as being a success in changing student attitudes.

The other hypotheses in this research address the gender gap that has been consistently found in other research (as discussed in the literature review). As in other studies (Barnett & Field, 1977; Bell at al, 1992; Fischer, 1986a; Garrett-Gooding and Senter, 1987; Giacopassi and Dull, 1986; Gilmartin-Zena, 1988; Lottes, 1991; Pro- ite et al., 1993) the results of this research also show a gender gap. Women were more likely to find communication important, were more likely to believe that sexual assault is a problem, were more likely to disagree with rape myths, and to some degree were more likely to be knowledgeable about legal issues in rape. Although after being exposed to the program, this gender gap did seem to les-
sen on the incidence and legal variables it was still glaringly ap-
parent with regard to rape myths. Women were still more likely
to disagree with these myths after the program.

Summary of Hypothesis Testing

The following is a summary of the results of the hypothesis
testing. The first hypothesis, which suggests there will be a sig-
nificant difference in the pre- and post-test scores for those par-
ticipating in the program, was split into four subparts. Hypothesis
1A, which suggested knowledge of the extent of the problem of sexual
assault would increase after STAR, was supported. Students were
more likely to believe that sexual assault is a widespread and local
problem after the program. Hypothesis 1B was partially supported.
Students did become more knowledgeable about incidence rates after
the program. The one exception to this is that, unlike the men, the
women did not significantly change their answers in response to the
number of women who are sexually assaulted by acquaintances. Hypo-
thesis 1C, which suggests that students will become more knowledgable about legal aspects of sexual assault, was not supported. Stu-
dents were already quite knowledgeable about what circumstances con-
stitute sexual assault. Hypothesis 1D, the STAR program should be
effective in changing students' attitudes about rape myths, was also
only partially supported. Students changed their attitudes in the
desired direction (they were more likely to disagree with rape myths) after the program on only about half of the variables (10 of 23).
Hypothesis 2 was also only partially supported. Support was found in the fact that the women were more knowledgeable about incidence of rape and less supportive of rape than men. On the other hand, contrary to the suggestion of the hypothesis that men and women would score similarly on the legal variables, women were more likely to answer some acts were legally rape then men.

Hypothesis 3, men will more effected by the program, was only partially supported. Men's means moved closer to the women's after the program with respect to knowledge of incidence rates and legal variables, but there was still a considerable gap in the support for rape myths, with women being more likely to disagree.

As with these other hypotheses, Hypothesis 4, men will be less likely to see communication as important, was also only partially supported. Although it was consistently found that women found communication to be more important than men, not all of these relationships were significant and some were proven to be weak.

Lastly, Hypothesis 5 was partially supported. Although women were more likely than men to believe that sexual assault is a widespread problem, this differentiation by sex disappeared in response to sexual assault being a problem on Western's campus. Men and women answered similarly to this question.

In conclusion, with the exception of Hypothesis 1A which was fully supported, the rest of the research hypotheses were only partially supported.
Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

The first limitation that should be noted about this study is that it is not based on a random sample and therefore cannot be generalized to any other populations. The results of this research apply only to the students that were surveyed. Although it is promising that the findings in this research are in agreement with other research that has been done in the sexual assault education programming area, the conclusions reached in this research are applicable only to these respondents.

A possible second limitation might be found in the instrument used in this research. As repeatedly discussed, the majority of respondents were not rape-supportive. It is difficult to determine if this is because social attitudes in general are actually less rape supportive or if students are better able to pick the politically correct response. The late 1980s and early 1990s experienced highly publicized cases of sexual assault that could have served to educate the public. On the other hand, in the survey used, the politically correct answer was quite easy to spot. As suggested by others (Forst, 1993; Wolford, 1993), in further research it may be necessary to use questions in which the rape supportive answer is harder to distinguish. In this research, as previously discussed, there was a difference in the results of two questions that were worded slightly differently. Those further researching this topic might keep this example in mind when creating their own surveys.

Another problem with the instrument is that no questions were
included to examine if students had experienced prior rape education programs (such as high school, etc.). This question might have been helpful in trying to explain the high amount of knowledge found in this sample. A suggestion for future research is to include a method that could measure the level of previous rape education in a sample.

Caution should also be issued in interpreting this program as a complete success in changing students' attitudes. As noted in Chapter IV, those students who said they did not participate in the program were compared to those who said they did see the program. It was found that those who did not see the program also made significant changes in the same manner as those seeing the program on some of the variables. Those doing further research might use a Solomon Four Group design to better study this effect.

As another suggestion, the STAR program may also benefit from a process evaluation now that an outcome evaluation has been done. Outcome evaluations measure how effective the program is at changing attitudes and/or behavior while a process evaluation focuses on the structural components or the program (Croll, Jurs & Kennedy, 1993). A process evaluation focuses on recruitment, training, and the importance of knowledge, delivery and sensitivity in presentation skills (Croll et al., 1993). Croll et al., (1993) suggest both evaluation components are necessary to have an effective education program.

Considering the results of this research, that students were
already quite knowledgeable, a process evaluation might allow the program director to make the necessary changes to address the level of knowledge of the audience. For example, immediately after many of the STAR presentations, participant feedback forms are given to participants. Students are asked what they liked about the presentation, what they suggest to improve the program, and they rate it on a scale from 1 to 10. A preliminary examination of these forms proved to be informative. Although most students are positive about the program, the majority still do not give it the highest rating possible (10). Although not all of the participants suggested changes for the program, by not giving it the highest marks they are suggesting it could somehow use improvements. On the other hand, many students did take the time to suggest improvements for the program. Among these are suggestions for (a) the program content and (b) the individuals making presentations. Suggestions for the program content include the use of role plays to involve the students more, using more realistic situations, or having a victim speak about her experience. Although it may not be possible to change it, some students in the 8:00 a.m. classes complained about the timing of the program. Some suggested the need for an updated or a different video (because they had seen it before), but many students listed the video as one of the things they liked best about the presentation.

The effectiveness of a program depends, to a large part, on the people presenting. This was apparent in these evaluations of the program. Feedback on the program differed with the different
skills of the people presenting. Although the goal of the peer education program is to have one female and one male presenting at all times, this was not always possible. It is interesting to note that students often made note of this and suggested the need for a male or female partner when that person was missing. Students seem to appreciate the use of a coed pair in the education. Other suggestions for peer educators included speaking louder and more practice of their scripts so that they did not read the notes and felt more comfortable in the classroom. Many students commented on the lack of student involvement regardless of the reason why: the early time, the lack of presenter enthusiasm, or lack of class enthusiasm. Interestingly, some students commented, in line with the findings of this research, that they were already familiar with the information presented and would like to hear new information presented in new ways. One woman commented she had seen the exact same program 3 years earlier. On the other hand, others commented that the information was new and helpful to them. The program may need to find ways to address these differing levels of knowledge. On the positive side, students often gave the video a positive review and, in support for peer education, they enjoyed the open and honest communication of their peers. Some commented they enjoyed the fact their peers made them comfortable in discussing a difficult topic. They also seemed to enjoy the informal, 2-sided presentation design of the program. They felt it put both men and women at ease in discussing what can be a potentially volatile topic.
Another difficulty arose in the evaluation of the STAR program. Because of the time limitations placed on the peer educators it was not always possible for them to cover everything in their script. To attempt to reduce complications stemming from this, a form was designed for peer educators to check off those topics they covered and for any comments they might have about how well the presentation went. Unfortunately, the researcher received only 5 forms of the 11 classrooms and none of the presenters made any comments on the presentation, making it difficult to address any changes based on differing content of the presentations. In discussion with one of the individuals teaching a sociology class exposed to the program, he explained that when socialization effects were not covered in the program, he addressed them in class afterwards. It is difficult to control for what students could have learned in class as opposed to the program itself.

One last possible problem occurs with the different classes used in this research. The two sociology classes used are social problems classes which often address the effects of sexism and acquaintance rape. On the other hand, there are the physical education classes which may not have the same exposure to rape information. It is possible that these classes had differing attitudes that, if opposing, could have balanced each other out. But, there is no way to be sure since this research did not control for these effects. Those doing further research may want to consider the content of the classrooms they sample.
A promising suggestion for further research, considering the gender gap found in this research, can be found in the work of Kanin (1985) on hypermasculine men. Unlike Schewe and O'Donahue (1993), this study did not differentiate among men who supported egalitarian and hypermasculine beliefs. Schewe and O'Donahue (1993) suggest that this differentiation could make a difference in the findings of evaluation research. They suggest that these opposing egalitarian and hypermasculine beliefs could cancel out one another in research that does not differentiate between the two. More research needs to be done on this topic (Ravens, 1991).

Another suggestion to better address educating men, is that men may need education programs in which men educate other men (Berkowitz, 1994). Men's only programming may allow men to feel more comfortable in sexual assault education and therefore more open to the presentation (Lee, 1987; Ring & Kilmartin, 1991). But it should be noted that men who participate in men's only programming often desire to discuss the problem of sexual assault further with women (Berkowitz, 1994). Although men's only programming could be used to bypass men's defensive barriers, it should not be used as a substitute for men and women discussing the subject between one another. As discussed in the literature review, communication between men and women can prove to be important in stopping acquaintance rape.

In conclusion, although these students were fairly knowledgeable about the topic of acquaintance rape, the program did seem effective in changing student knowledge of the extent of the problem
and incidence rates. The program also appears to be effective in helping to close the gender gap between men and women in these two areas. On the other hand, it seems there is still more work to be done to address rape myths, especially in lessening the gender gap. It seems education and further evaluation research are viable alternative steps to use to address the problem of sexual assault on college campuses.
Appendix A

Survey Instruments Pre-test and Post-test
PRE-TEST

Dear Survey Participant:

You are invited to complete this short survey on your feelings and beliefs regarding some of the issues involved in gender communication and interaction. Your participation is completely voluntary and you may discontinue completing the survey at any time without prejudice or penalty.

We ask that you answer as honestly as possible since all of the information you give will be anonymous. Do not write your name on the survey. Put only the last four digits of your social security number at the end of the survey in the boxes provided to aid us in maintaining distinct surveys.

If you have any questions, please contact Angie Evans at 387-5294 or Dr. Susan Caulfield at 387-5291. You may also contact the Chair, Human Subjects Institutional Review Board (387-8293) or the Vice President for Research (387-8298) if questions or problems arise during the course of the study.

When you have completed your survey, remain seated and work quietly. Someone will collect the surveys when everyone has finished.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.
DIRECTIONS: This is NOT a test. Please circle the response that you find best describes your beliefs. Please circle only one response per question.

1. How well do men and women, in general, communicate with each other?
   1. extremely well
   2. fairly well
   3. undecided
   4. poor
   5. extremely poor

2. When two people have a relationship, how important is communication in the success of that relationship?
   1. very important
   2. important
   3. undecided
   4. unimportant
   5. very unimportant

3. How important is it for men and women to discuss the issue of sex?
   1. very important
   2. important
   3. undecided
   4. unimportant
   5. very unimportant

4. Do you feel that sexual assault is a widespread problem on college campuses around the country?
   1. No
   2. Yes
   3. Undecided

5. Do you feel that sexual assault is a problem here on Western's campus?
   1. No
   2. Yes
   3. Undecided

6. Approximately, what percentage of women who are sexually assaulted are sexually assaulted by someone they know?
   1. 10%
   2. 25%
   3. 50%
   4. 80%
7. How many college women are victims of rape or attempted rape each year?
   1. 1 in 6
   2. 1 in 15
   3. 1 in 33
   4. 1 in 52

For each of the following scenarios (Questions 8 - 19), imagine that a man has sexual intercourse with a woman either against her will (she said, "no, stop") or without her consent. Under each of these circumstances, would the act legally be a rape or not? Please circle either yes or no.

8. Yes No If the woman did not physically resist or try to get away.
9. Yes No If the woman was so drunk that she could not respond physically or verbally.
10. Yes No If the man was so drunk he did not "notice" her refusal or resistance.
11. Yes No If the woman was not physically injured.
12. Yes No If the man was wearing a condom.
13. Yes No If the woman said "no" and then gave in out of fear.
14. Yes No If the man didn't ejaculate.
15. Yes No If the woman was passed out or asleep.
16. Yes No If the man didn't physically attack (slap, punch, kick, etc) the woman.
17. Yes No If the woman was the man's wife.
18. Yes No If the man convinced her to give in or go along by making some kind of threat(s).
19. Yes No If the man and woman have had sex before.

For the following questions, please circle the letters that correspond to the response you feel best represents your thoughts and feelings.
The response key is as follows:

SA = Strongly Agree  A = Agree  U = Undecided  D = Disagree  SD = Strongly Disagree

20. If you want to have sex and your partner communicates some reluctance or hesitancy, you should back off.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

21. If the attacker is known to the victim (e.g., date, relative, or a neighbor) you can still call it sexual assault.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

22. If a woman didn’t say "no" clearly and forcefully, then the man shouldn’t be blamed for not taking it seriously.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

23. If a person is passed out from drinking or drugs then consent is not necessary.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

24. A man can not be a victim of sexual assault.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

25. A woman who goes to the home or apartment of a man on their first date implies that she is willing to have sex.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

26. Any healthy woman can successfully resist a rapist if she really wants to.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

27. If a woman engages in necking or petting it is her own fault if her partner forces sex on her.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

28. A woman who gets drunk and picks up a guy at a bar and goes home with him is asking for trouble and it is her fault if they have sex without her consent.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

29. If you want to have sex and your partner communicates some reluctance or hesitancy, there is nothing wrong with trying to talk them into it.
   SA   A   U   D   SD

30. Women often falsely accuse men of sexual assault.
   SA   A   U   D   SD
31. Once a man has been drinking and becomes sexually aroused, he cannot control his behavior.
SA A U D SD

32. If a woman initiates contact with a man, things go further than she wants, and she is sexually assaulted, she is to blame.
SA A U D SD

33. A woman who has been sexually assaulted may have done something foolish, but she's never to be blamed for being assaulted.
SA A U D SD

34. Being forced to have sex is a very traumatic experience for the victim.
SA A U D SD

35. Once a couple has had sexual intercourse then that issue is resolved and it is no longer possible for that man to sexually assault that woman.
SA A U D SD

36. Socialization in our society is related to sexual assault because of the ways in which we raise our children (i.e., boys are raised to be aggressive, while girls are raised to be passive).
SA A U D SD

37. Sexually experienced women can be damaged by sexual assault.
SA A U D SD

38. Men sexually assault due to uncontrollable sexual urges.
SA A U D SD

39. A report of sexual assault 2 days after the act has occurred is probably a false report.
SA A U D SD

40. Women who have had prior sexual relationships should not complain about sexual assault.
SA A U D SD

41. You cannot be sexually assaulted by someone you know.
SA A U D SD

42. If a person is drunk or drugged then consent is not necessary.
SA A U D SD
43. In Michigan, which of the following acts are against the law ("Criminal Sexual Conduct") if done against the victim's will. Circle as many responses as you believe apply.

1. Touching someone's breasts, buttocks, or genitals when they are naked.
2. Touching someone's breasts, buttocks, or genitals when they have clothes on.
3. Vaginal intercourse.
5. Oral sex.
6. Forcing another to perform oral sex or masturbate.
7. Vaginal or anal penetration with an object.

The following questions concerning your background help us to better analyze the data. Again, please circle the best response.

44. What is your sex?
1. Male
2. Female

45. What is your class standing?
1. First Year
2. Sophomore
3. Junior
4. Senior

46. What is your race/ethnicity
1. African American
2. Asian/Pacific Islander
3. Hispanic
4. Native American
5. White - Non-Hispanic
6. Other ____________________(please specify)

47. What is your age? ________ (please write your age on the line provided)

Please write the last four digits of your social security number in the following boxes:

Thank you for your time and cooperation!!
POST-TEST

Dear Survey Participant:

You are invited to complete this short survey on your feelings and beliefs regarding some of the issues involved in gender communication and interaction. Your participation is completely voluntary and you may discontinue completing the survey at any time without prejudice or penalty.

We ask that you answer as honestly as possible since all of the information you give will be anonymous. Do not write your name on the survey. Put only the last four digits of your social security number at the end of the survey in the boxes provided to aid us in maintaining distinct surveys.

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When you have completed your survey, remain seated and work quietly. Someone will collect the surveys when everyone has finished.

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   2. important
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   5. very unimportant

3. How important is it for men and women to discuss the issue of sex?
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   2. important
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   4. unimportant
   5. very unimportant

4. Do you feel that sexual assault is a widespread problem on college campuses around the country?
   1. No
   2. Yes
   3. Undecided

5. Do you feel that sexual assault is a problem here on Western's campus?
   1. No
   2. Yes
   3. Undecided

6. Approximately, what percentage of women who are sexually assaulted are sexually assaulted by someone they know?
   1. 10%
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   4. 80%
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   3. 1 in 33
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11. Yes No If the woman was not physically injured.
12. Yes No If the man was wearing a condom.
13. Yes No If the woman said "no" and then gave in out of fear.
14. Yes No If the man didn't ejaculate.
15. Yes No If the woman was passed out or asleep.
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28. A woman who gets drunk and picks up a guy at a bar and goes home with him is asking for trouble and it is her fault if they have sex without her consent.
SA  A  U  D  SD

29. If you want to have sex and your partner communicates some reluctance or hesitancy, there is nothing wrong with trying to talk them into it.
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30. Women often falsely accuse men of sexual assault.
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31. Once a man has been drinking and becomes sexually aroused, he cannot control his behavior.

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1. Male
2. Female

45. What is your class standing?
1. First Year
2. Sophomore
3. Junior
4. Senior

46. What is your race/ethnicity
1. African American
2. Asian/Pacific Islander
3. Hispanic
4. Native American
5. White - Non-Hispanic
6. Other __________________(please specify)

47. What is your age? ________ (please write your age on the line provided)

48. Did you hear the Sexual Assault Peer Educators (also known as STAR - Students Talking About Relationships) speak in this class?
1. No
2. Yes
3. Undecided

Please write the last four digits of your social security number in the following boxes:

Thank you for your time and cooperation!!
Appendix B

Protocol Clearance From the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board
Date: August 3, 1995

To: Angela Evans

From: Richard Wright, Chair

Re: HSIRB Project Number 95-08-01

This letter will serve as confirmation that your research project entitled "An evaluation of the sexual assault peer educators" has been approved under the exempt category of review by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board. The conditions and duration of this approval are specified in the Policies of Western Michigan University. You may now begin to implement the research as described in the application.

Please note that you must seek specific approval for any changes in this design. You must also seek reapproval if the project extends beyond the termination date. In addition if there are any unanticipated adverse reactions or unanticipated events associated with the conduct of this research, you should immediately suspend the project and contact the Chair of the HSIRB for consultation.

The Board wishes you success in the pursuit of your research goals.

Approval Termination: Aug. 3, 1996

cc: Caulfield, SOC
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Schwartz, M. D. & Wilson, N. (1993). We’re talking but are they listening? The retention of information from sexual assault programming for college students. Free inquiry in creative sociology, 21(1), 3-8.


