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Effects of sexual assault education on college students' rape-supportive attitudes

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Running head: EFFECTS OF SEXUAL ASSAULT EDUCATION

EFFECTS OF SEXUAL ASSAULT EDUCATION ON COLLEGE STUDENTS'
RAPE-SUPPORTIVE ATTITUDES

A Thesis Submitted
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Designation
University Honors with Distinction

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May 2011

EFFECTS OF SEXUAL ASSAULT EDUCATION

This Study by: Jessica Ann Ueland

Entitled: Effects of Sexual Assault Education on College Students' Rape-Supportive Attitudes

has been approved as meeting the thesis or project requirement for the Designation
University Honors with Distinction.

Date

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Date

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EFFECTS OF SEXUAL ASSAULT EDUCATION

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EFFECTS OF SEXUAL ASSAULT EDUCATION

Abstract

Few studies have measured the effectiveness of sexual assault programming in decreasing acceptance of rape myths. This study examined two research questions. First, would students in a class that included a sexual assault education component be more likely to demonstrate a change in degree of rape myth acceptance than students who were not in a class that included sexual assault education? Second, within the treatment group, would males demonstrate a larger change in rape myth acceptance than females? At the end of the course, the treatment group showed a significant decrease in rape myth acceptance; there was not a significant difference in rape myth acceptance by gender. The findings suggest that college students' support of rape myths can be significantly decreased through brief, inexpensive sexual assault education and prevention programming. Implications and future research regarding rape myth acceptance are discussed.

EFFECTS OF SEXUAL ASSAULT EDUCATION

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Effects of Sexual Assault Education on College Students' Rape-Supportive Attitudes

A significant number of college students, especially females, are victims of sexual assault. The Campus Sexual Assault Study (Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2007) found that 19% of college women were victimized by some form of sexual assault. Kilpatrick, Resnick, Ruggiero, Conoscenti and McCauley (2007) found that 11.5% percent of college women have been victims of rape. Despite the number of students who are sexual assault victims, college campus culture accepts jokes about rape and occasionally questions victims' credibility. College students' subscription to several rape myths has led them to hold rape-supportive attitudes.

Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994) define rape myths as "attitudes and beliefs that are generally false, yet widely held, and that serve to justify male sexual violence against women," (p. 134). Three rape myths are especially common in American culture. First, that women regularly lie about being victims of sexual assault. Second, that only promiscuous and/or women of minority races are sexual assault victims (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994, p. 134). Third, that perpetrators commit sexual assault due to uncontrollable sexual desire (Lottes, 1991). These myths trivialize, excuse, and deny the crime that is sexual assault (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994), which affects nearly 20% of college-aged women (Krebs et al., 2007). By subscribing to rape myths, college students transfer blame from the perpetrator to the victim (Anderson, 2007). This contributes to attitudes that support rape.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to measure the impact of sexual assault education on college students' acceptance of rape myths. Students in the treatment group were in a course that included a sexual assault education component, while the control group's classes did not have a

sexual assault education component. The treatment group's course utilized a class lecture, a panel of sexual assault survivors, and media presentations created by students on the subject of campus sexual assault. Changes in both the treatment and control groups' rape myth acceptance were measured and compared through use of a pre-test and post-test.

This study investigated two primary research questions. First, would students in a class that included a sexual assault education component be more likely to demonstrate a change in degree of rape myth acceptance than students who were not in a class that included sexual assault education? Second, within the treatment group, would males demonstrate a larger change in rape myth acceptance than females? Answers to these questions will not only provide insight into why sexual assault occurs, but add to the existing literature on sexual assault education and prevention programs' effectiveness.

A variety of methods have been used in sexual assault programming, from mandatory one-time classes as part of college orientation programming to presentations by peer educators. Sexual assault education programs can have different goals, ranging from education about sexual assault prevalence, to creating empathy for victims, to understanding perpetrators' motives, to preventing victimization. A better understanding of college students' attitudes toward rape, its victims, and its perpetrators can allow sexual assault education and prevention programs to more effectively combat rape myth acceptance.

Sexual assault prevention literature tends to focus on understanding the attitudes and beliefs of sexual assault perpetrators (Abbey et al., 2007; Fehrenbach, Smith, Monastersky, & Deisher, 2010; Gannon, Collie, Ward, & Thakker, 2008; Greendlinger & Byrne, 1987; Malamuth, 2010) and analyzing characteristics of sexual assault education programming (Anderson & Whiston, 2005; Breitenbecher & Scarce, 2001; Kress et al., 2006). Understanding

college students' beliefs about sexual assault and its victims can help prevention and education programs address the influences that not only justify sexual assault, but also blame the victim. Knowing which methods are most effective in reducing rape-supportive attitudes can ultimately help prevent sexual assault.

Understanding Sexual Assault Perpetrators

The majority of sexual assault studies have focused primarily on understanding why males are often the perpetrators of sexual assault (Abbey et al., 2007; Fehrenbach et al., 2010; Freund, Scher, Racansky, Campbell, & Heasman, 1986; Malamuth, 2010). Few studies have measured how rape-supportive attitudes can be reduced through sexual violence education. Such a change in attitudes can lead students to be more proactive in preventing sexual violence and result in campus cultures that disdain, rather than subtly approve of, sexual assault. This could be a key component in decreasing sexual assault on college campuses.

Reducing rape-supportive attitudes requires an understanding of why sexual assault perpetrators feel justified in assaulting their victims. Perpetrators' justification for sexual violence is similar to the reasoning of college students who hold rape-supportive attitudes. Studies in this field have provided a better understanding of the attitudes and beliefs of sexual assault perpetrators. The existing literature finds that perpetrators have different expectations from non-perpetrators regarding sex. Abbey et al. (2007) found that rapists often use sex as a way to establish power over women. This finding contradicts the common rape myth that perpetrators commit sexual assault due to an uncontrollable sexual desire.

Abbey et al. (2007) also found that perpetrators believe that their peers are supportive of forcing women to engage in sexual activity. A longitudinal study by Abbey and McAuslan (2004) demonstrated that there is a difference even between one-time and repeat offenders.

Regarding the degree of extreme attitudes toward females and sex, one-time “past assaulters felt more remorse, learned more, and held the woman less responsible for what happened than did repeat offenders,” (Abbey & McAuslan, 2004, p. 753-754). This illustrates the rape myth that victims can be blamed to some degree for perpetrators’ actions. The degree to which sexual assault victims are held responsible has not been thoroughly examined.

Abbey et al. (2007) concluded that most of the differences between rapists and non-rapists concerned the ability and desire to form caring relationships with females, with rapists viewing sex as a way to have power over a woman rather than a way of expressing love and intimacy. Additionally, Abbey and McAuslan (2004) reported that one-time perpetrators, unlike repeat offenders, seemed to learn a lesson after committing sexual assault. There is a difference among one-time and repeat offenders in their personal beliefs about sexual assault and its victims. The existing literature does not answer how many of the personal beliefs held by perpetrators are shared to a lesser degree by non-perpetrators, including the average college student.

The attitudes of peers have an effect on the prevalence of sexual assault. Brown and Messman-Moore (2010) found that males’ willingness to intervene in a witnessed sexual assault seemed to be based on what they perceived their peers would think about taking such action. Addressing personal attitudes about sexual assault and its victims can lead to a change in society’s attitudes about sexual assault. Changing societal norms regarding sexual assault acceptance is necessary to meet the goals of sexual assault education and prevention efforts.

Many studies (Abbey et al., 2007; Fehrenbach, et al., 2010; Gannon et al., 2008; Greendlinger & Byrne, 1987; O’Byrne, Hansen, & Rapley, 2008;) have focused on preventing sexual assault by attempting to understand perpetrators’ mindsets. These studies have also

focused on teaching skills for preventing victimization. Instead, it might be more useful to study a root of sexual assault occurrence: acceptance of rape myths by non-perpetrators. Rape-supportive attitudes held by non-perpetrators support sexual assault in the minds of perpetrators by giving them the impression that sexual assault is socially acceptable.

Sexual Assault Education and Prevention Programming

Both the type of programming and presenter in sexual assault education efforts affect impact on participants. Peers and graduate students are considered less successful than professors and professional presenters in changing attitudes about sexual assault, according to sexual assault program participants (Anderson & Whiston, 2005). Breitenbecher and Scarce (2001) found that programming that is centered on the beliefs and behavior of potential perpetrators might be effective in preventing sexual assault. A potential perpetrator could be anyone who holds a rape-supportive attitude to any degree, including acceptance of rape myths.

Kress et al. (2006) found that the interactive, mandatory program they studied decreased students' acceptance of rape myths. Based upon the results from a sexual assault prevention program that was mandatory for all first-year students, Rothman and Silverman (2007) concluded that sexual assault prevention associated with education about rape myths, including defining what is consent for sexual activity, is related to reduction in campus sexual assault.

Additional goals of sexual assault programming include creating empathy for victims, educating participants about the prevalence of sexual assault and teaching participants how to prevent victimization. Many programs have multiple goals. Anderson and Whiston's meta-analysis found that programs with multiple foci are not as successful as programs targeting a particular component of sexual assault prevention (2005). Perhaps programs that try to address more than one aspect of sexual assault education and prevention do not go in-depth enough to

make an impact on attitudes toward sexual assault. Programs with a singular goal, such as focusing on reducing rape-supportive attitudes, are more likely to be successful in preventing sexual assault.

Gender division is a common characteristic of sexual assault prevention programming (Anderson & Whiston, 2005). Females are often educated about how to protect themselves from sexual assault, while males are presented with programs intended to create feelings of empathy for female sexual assault victims. Anderson and Whiston (2005) found that there was no difference in program effectiveness for men when the program was male-only in comparison to mixed-gender programming. Banyard, Moynihan, and Plante (2007) found that the co-ed program they analyzed was beneficial for both the males and females. These findings suggest that mixed-gender programs are effective, in addition to being less expensive and time-consuming than two programs.

Campus sexual assault prevention and education programs vary in lengths. Anderson and Whiston's meta-analysis of sexual assault education programs found that brief interventions, such as a one-time class, are less effective than long-term programs in altering attitudes towards rape (2005). This is an important finding, as many colleges tend to have a one-time program on sexual assault, often included in freshman orientation. Support for longer, more frequent programming is reinforced by the conclusion made by Anderson and Whiston (2005) that the effects of sexual assault program decrease over time.

Despite the effectiveness of long-term sexual assault programming, funding and curriculum demands can make offering long-term programs a challenge for universities. A study by Banyard, Moynihan, & Plante (2007) found that a short program can still lead to a considerable change in participants' knowledge and behavior regarding sexual assault when a

long-term program is not viable. When a long-term program for reducing rape-supportive attitudes is not feasible, can a single class or short-term program have a significant effect on decreasing rape-supportive attitudes?

Method

Participants

Participants were recruited from courses at a medium-sized Midwestern state university. The treatment group was from a human sexuality course, which devoted a segment of the class to education about sexual assault. The control group sample was recruited from two psychology courses. A sample of 226 participants completed the pre-test, while 109 participants completed the post-test. Of the 109 post-test participants, 83 contributed data that were appropriate for use in the study. Twenty-two post-test participants were either unable to indicate their anonymous individual numbers that connected their post-test data to their pre-test data, or they failed to fill out the survey instrument in its entirety, so their data were not used in the study. Four male participants, three of whom were in the treatment group, had an unlikely degree of change in their data and their results were thus excluded from the study.

The sample had a mean age of 20.9 years, ranging from 18 to 51 years of age. Caucasian participants made up 87.6% of the sample. This is comparable to the University's overall Caucasian student enrollment of 88.4%. The sample was comprised of 66.4% sophomores and juniors. The sample included 75.2% female participants. The treatment group included 76.5% of the participants (see Appendix C).

Measure

Study participants first completed a 16-statement set of questions that included basic demographic items as well as questions about their past and present religious beliefs. The *Rape*

Supportive Attitude Scale (RSAS) (see Appendix A), developed by Lottes (1991), consists of beliefs that promote sexual assault; the *RSAS* measures the degree to which respondents agree with these beliefs. The *RSAS* has been demonstrated to have content validity (Lottes, 1991). The *RSAS* includes 20 statements, each accompanied by Likert scale-style options to indicate the degree to which a participant agrees with a statement.

Procedure

The study was implemented according to procedures approved by the University's institutional review board. The control group's participants were recruited from two classes, as the first control group class sampled did not contribute enough male responses to be comparable to the experimental group. Students in the control group classes who were also enrolled in the treatment group were instructed not to take the questionnaire in both classes and to take the survey as part of the treatment group class if they chose to participate in the study.

To prevent students from feeling pressured to participate in the study, no extra credit or other reward was given for participation. There was no consequence for students who declined to participate. This was stressed to participants in the written participant consent form, as well as in the invitation script read by the survey administrators prior to distributing the questionnaires. The anonymity of each participant's responses was protected, as participants' names and other identifying information were not recorded in any way. Since it was necessary to link participants' pre-tests to post-tests, participants were given a unique number. Each participant's questionnaire included a number on a card that was also written on the first page of the questionnaire packet. Participants were instructed to keep the card in a safe location so that it could be easily accessed later in the semester for the post-test. During the post-test, participants

included their numbered card with their questionnaire packet so the post-test data could be linked to the pre-test data.

Most participants still had their cards in their possession for the post-test. Participants who had misplaced it were asked to write down their number on the front page of the packet if they remembered it. The demographic survey questions were consulted to verify that the number on packets without a numbered card matched the pre-test demographic data for that particular number. The data of the participants who had clearly written the wrong identification number based upon the pre-test demographic data were excluded from the study.

Teaching assistants were utilized to administer the surveys to two of the classes, and the author administered the survey to the third class. When the participants were finished answering the questionnaires, they submitted them in to the survey administrators face-down so that it was impossible for an administrator to link a survey's identifying number with its participant.

During the semester, the treatment group heard a panel of sexual abuse and/or assault survivors speak about the effect of sexual violence on their lives. The treatment group also learned about sexual abuse's prevalence and causes from both class lecture and videos created by a five small groups of students in the class. The video projects were all different in their presentation and themes, but most contained information about the prevalence of sexual abuse on campuses and the effect it has on its survivors.

The pre-test was given to both the control and treatment groups during the first week of the semester before the treatment group had any exposure to the sexual abuse curriculum. The post-test was given to both the treatment and control groups during the last week of the semester. In the treatment group, the post-test was given at the end of the class period in which the class viewed the student media projects.

Results

Participants from both the control and experimental groups saw a change in attitude toward sexual assault victims and perpetrators (see Appendix D). Eighty-three participants provided enough data to permit pre- and post-test data comparison. The highest possible score was 100 points, with a higher score indicating a higher acceptance of the rape myths in the *RSAS*. The entire sample's mean score was 38.74 for the pre-test and 31.86 for the post-test, with an average change of 6.33 points. Participants in the treatment group changed by 7.64 ($SD = 7.29$) points, while control group participants changed by 3.08 ($SD = 7.28$) points. While both groups demonstrated a change in attitude, a significant difference [$t(81) = 2.59, p = 0.01$] was found in the amount of change in each class, with treatment group participants showing a significantly larger change in attitude. While women and men differed in the overall degree to which they accepted the rape myths of the *RSAS*, the amount of change in the degree of both genders' rape myth acceptance was the same [$t(81) = 1.44, p = 0.17$].

Research Questions

Question 1. Would students in a class that included a sexual assault education component be more likely to demonstrate a change in degree of rape myth acceptance than students who were not in a class that included sexual assault education?

The *Rape Supportive Attitude Scale* (Lottes, 1991) was utilized to compare rape myth acceptance by students in a course which included a sexual assault education component with students in a course that did not include such a component. Students in the course that included a sexual assault education component changed by approximately 4.56 points more than the students in the courses without any specific sexual assault education, a statistically significant change.

Question 2. Within the treatment group, would males demonstrate a larger change in rape myth acceptance than females?

A correlational analysis of the average change in rape myth acceptance by gender demonstrated that while there was a difference in overall acceptance of rape myths based on gender, the amount of change by gender was not significant. Although men demonstrated a higher acceptance of rape myths, their rate of rape myth acceptance did not change more than women's.

Discussion

Limitations

This study had three limitations. The first was the low number (25% of the sample) of male participants. However, the number of male respondents did permit statistical analyses. There are explanations for a large difference in participants by gender. First, more female students are enrolled in the University. Second, the sampled classes tend to appeal to female students.

A second limitation was the wording used in the *Rape Supportive Attitude Scale*. The scale, developed by Lottes in the early 1990's, employs some phrases not used by today's collegians. For example, statement 13 of the *RSAS* reads: "Many times a woman will pretend she doesn't want to have intercourse because she doesn't want to seem loose, but she's really hoping the man will force her," (Lottes, 1991). Today's college students do not typically use the term "loose" to describe a promiscuous woman. The out-of-date terms in some of the *RSAS* statements might have affected the responses of participants. Future users of the *RSAS* would be encouraged to update some of the statements to better reflect the current terms used by college students.

A third limitation concerned the possibility of a correlation between religion and rape-supportive attitudes. A poorly phrased demographic question could have led many participants to inaccurately report religious identity. A large percentage of participants described themselves as “Other” when asked with which religion they identify. It is possible that many participants would actually be considered Protestant but did not understand that “Protestant” is an umbrella term for many Christian denominations. If this study were replicated using the same demographic survey, asking students to simply write down their religious affiliation, rather than picking from options that could be misleading, confusing or limited would be advised. Due to this possible confusion with religious identification, any correlation between religious identity and rape-supportive attitudes was not examined.

Implications and Future Research

The treatment group is unique because it utilized more than one teaching method. Not only was there a lecture on sexual assault, but students had the opportunity to hear first-hand accounts of sexual assault victims’ experiences. This was accompanied by projects created and presented by their peers on the subject.

Peer acceptance or disapproval can influence whether or not people take action to prevent harm to another, such as in a situation when someone observes a woman being taken advantage of or attacked. College students’ rape myth acceptance can be decreased if they perceive that their peers expect them to take action if they are aware of someone being sexually assaulted or hear a joke about sexual violence. This can ultimately prevent sexual assault (Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010).

The powerful influence of peer approval should be taken into account when designing sexual assault prevention and education programs. The effect of hearing from actual survivors

can impact the rape-supportive attitudes of those who hear the details of their experiences. Based on the results of this study, this combination of peer disapproval of sexual assault and the empathy and shock that can result from hearing a survivor's story can have a significant effect on college students' attitudes towards sexual assault victims. This can potentially lead to a reduction in cultural attitudes that support sexual assault, as well as reducing sexual assault itself.

Students in the control group also demonstrated a change in the degree to which they agreed with the rape-supportive statements of the *RSAS*. This suggests that perhaps interacting with people in college who hold different opinions and viewpoints can have an effect on attitudes held about rape perpetrators and victims, even without experiencing sexual assault prevention and educational programming. The effects of acculturation warrant further study. Continued research into what factors would lead to such a change in the control group's attitudes without experiencing the treatment course that included content explicitly about sexual assault would be valuable in creating the most effective programming possible.

Future research should strive to study the longitudinal effects of sexual assault education and prevention on attitudes toward sexual assault victims. While this study showed that attitudes can change over a semester, it is unknown if these attitude changes will persist with time. The attitude change in the sampled students might lead them to be more proactive in discouraging attitudes and jokes that support rape in campus culture. Future study measuring if the effects of such attitude change persist would be valuable.

Future research should also examine male victimization. Most research has focused on females victims, but it is possible that males are sexual assault victims in greater numbers than generally believed. It is important for researchers to avoid stereotypes when designing studies. Even though data suggest that females are usually the victims of sexual assault, there could be

many factors that prevent male victims from reporting victimization and thus cause the numbers of male victims to appear smaller than they are.

The amount of change demonstrated in the treatment group was significant, despite the fact that both the control and treatment groups saw a change in rape myth acceptance. This suggests that sexual assault prevention and education should be included in college curricula. Class discussion, a survivor panel, and student project presentations had a significant effect on participants' rape-supportive attitudes. The University has recently opened a grant-funded center focused on preventing campus violence and developing curricula for such efforts. Utilizing curricula similar to that of this study's treatment class could be an effective way for the University to work toward its goals of preventing campus sexual violence. The University could also develop new curricula and training based upon the results of this study, which sampled its own students and courses.

The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of sexual assault education and prevention efforts on college students' rape-supportive attitudes. This study's findings clearly suggest that sexual assault education can be significantly effective with just a single class session and discussion devoted to sexual assault, accompanied by student presentations. This is both time- and cost-effective. A short discussion, survivor panel and media presentation had a significant effect on attitudes, suggesting that more intensive education and prevention efforts could have an even greater effect on rape-supportive attitudes.

Conclusion

The findings of this study are beneficial to sexual assault prevention education. Knowledge of the degree to which college students hold rape-supportive attitudes can help create programming that effectively reduces sexual assault prevalence. Instead of continuing to focus

on understanding perpetrators' motives and justifications for committing sexual assault, it is more beneficial to study how to reduce cultural rape-supportive attitudes. Addressing rape-supportive attitudes held by college students can lead to a decrease in perpetrators' acceptance of sexual assault. This can prevent and decrease sexual assault.

The results of this study suggest that brief prevention and education efforts can result in significant decreases in rape-supportive attitudes. This can, as a result, reduce victim-blaming and decrease intolerance for beliefs that suggest sexual assault is ever justified. Decreases in rape-supportive attitudes could decrease the prevalence of sexual assault. College students are given the message that they are "the future." If we want future generations to be intolerant of sexual violence and abuse, it is imperative that higher education seek to educate students about the dangers of rape-supportive attitudes. This study demonstrates that such instruction can be delivered efficiently through relatively inexpensive, time-effective methods.

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Appendix A

Demographic Survey

1. What is your gender?
 - a. Female
 - b. Male
2. What is your age in years?
3. What is your classification?

 - a. Freshman
 - b. Sophomore
 - c. Junior
 - d. Senior
 - e. Graduate Student
 - f. Other
4. What is your current grade point average?
 - a. 3.51-4.0
 - b. 3.01-3.5
 - c. 2.51-3.0
 - d. 1.51-2.5
 - e. 1.01-1.5
 - f. Below 1.0
 - g. Not Applicable
5. Where have you lived the majority of your life?
 - a. City over 500,000
 - b. City 125,000-499,999
 - c. City 75,000-124,999
 - d. City 25,000-74,999
 - e. City 10,000-24,999
 - f. City 2,500-9,999
 - g. City under 2,500
 - h. Farm or ranch
6. What is your race?
 - a. Native American
 - b. Asian
 - c. Black
 - d. Hispanic
 - e. Caucasian (White)
 - f. Other
7. In what type of residence do you live?
 - a. Residence hall/dormitory/university-owned apartment
 - b. Off-campus rental house or apartment
 - c. Sorority or fraternity house
 - d. Parent's home
 - e. Your own house

8. What is your marital status?
- a. Never married
 - b. Legally married
 - c. Separated
 - d. Divorced
 - e. Widowed
9. How do you present your sexual orientation to others?
- a. As heterosexual (as someone attracted exclusively to the opposite sex)
 - b. As bisexual (as someone attracted to persons of both sexes)
 - c. As homosexual (as someone attracted to exclusively the same sex)
 - d. Other
10. How do you rate your self-esteem?
- a. High
 - b. Above average
 - c. Average
 - d. Below average
 - e. Low
 - f. Unsure
11. Were you raised to believe in a supreme being such as God, Allah, etc?
- a. Yes
 - b. No
12. How would you describe the intensity of religious beliefs in your home while growing up?
- a. Very intense
 - b. Moderately intense
 - c. Not at all intense
 - d. Unsure
13. What was your religion?
- a. Protestantism
 - b. Catholicism
 - c. Judaism
 - d. Islam
 - e. I consider myself an Agnostic
 - f. I consider myself an Atheist
 - g. Other
14. Do you currently believe in a supreme being such as God, Allah, etc?
- a. Yes
 - b. No
 - c. Unsure
15. How would you describe the intensity of your current religious beliefs?
- a. Very intense
 - b. Moderately intense
 - c. Not at all intense
 - d. Unsure

16. How often do you attend religious services?

- a. Several times a week
- b. Once a week
- c. Nearly every week
- d. Several times a year
- e. Less than once a year
- f. Never

Appendix B

Rape Supportive Attitude Scale

Directions: Circle all of your answers on this answer sheet. Indicate whether you *strongly disagree* (1), *disagree* (2), are *undecided* or *have no opinion* (3), *agree* (4), or *strongly agree* (5).

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

Remember: Be sure that the statement you are reading corresponds to the statement number you are marking on the answer sheet. Mark only one response for each statement.

1. Being roughed up is sexually stimulating to many women.

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

2. A man has some justification in forcing a female to have sex with him when she led him to believe she would go to bed with him.

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

3. The degree of a woman's resistance should be the major factor in determining if a rape has occurred.

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

4. The reason most rapists commit rape is for sex.

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

5. If a girl engages in necking or petting and she lets things get out of hand, it is her fault if her partner forces sex on her.

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

6. Many women falsely report that they have been raped because they are pregnant and want to protect their reputation.

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

7. A man has some justification in forcing a woman to have sex with him if she allowed herself to be picked up.

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

8. Sometimes the only way a man can get a cold woman turned on is to use force.

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

9. A charge of rape two days later after the act has occurred is probably not rape.

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

10. A raped woman is a less desirable woman.

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

11. A man is somewhat justified in forcing a woman to have sex with him if he has had sex with her in the past.

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

12. In order to protect the male, it should be difficult to prove that a rape has occurred

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

13. Many times a woman will pretend she doesn't want to have intercourse because she doesn't want to seem loose, but she's really hoping the man will force her.

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

14. A woman who is stuck-up and thinks she is too good to talk to guys deserves to be taught a lesson.

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

15. One reason that women falsely report rape is that they frequently have a need to call attention to themselves.

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

16. In a majority of rapes the victim is promiscuous or had a bad reputation.

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

17. Many women have an unconscious wish to be raped, and may then unconsciously set up a situation in which they are likely to be attacked.

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

18. Rape is the expression of an uncontrollable desire for sex.

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

19. A man is somewhat justified in forcing a woman to have sex with him if they have dated for a long time.

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

20. Rape of a woman by a man she knows can be defined as a “woman who changed her mind afterwards.”

Strongly disagree (1) Disagree (2) Undecided (3) Agree (4) Strongly agree (5)

Lottes, I. (1991). Rape supportive attitude scale. In Davis, C. M., Yarber, W. L., Bauserman, R., Schreer, G., & Davis, S. L., eds. *Handbook of sexuality-related measures*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 1998: 106-108.

Appendix C

Table 1

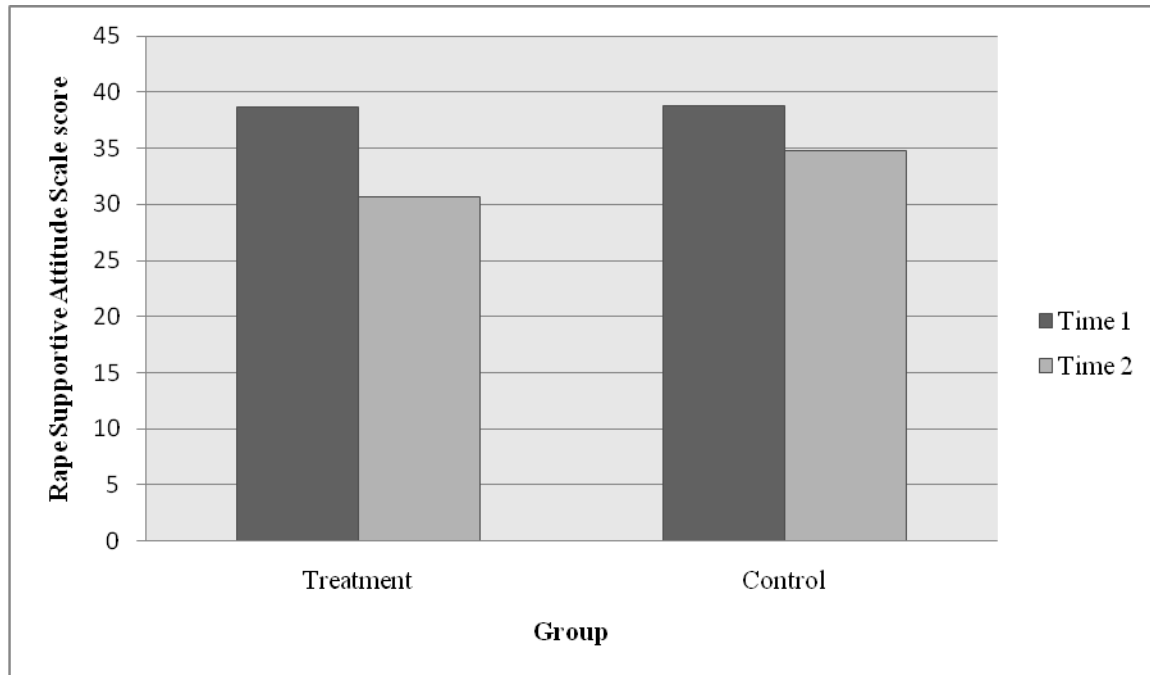
Participant Characteristics (Percentage of Each Sample in Parentheses)

| Characteristic | Pre-Test Participants (<i>n</i> = 226) | Post-Test Participants (<i>n</i> = 83) |
|--------------------------|--|--|
| Group | | |
| Treatment | 173 (76.5) | 59 (71.1) |
| Control | 53 (23.5) | 24 (28.9) |
| Gender | | |
| Male | | |
| Treatment | 39 (17.3) | 12 (14.5) |
| Control | 17 (7.5) | 9 (10.8) |
| Female | | |
| Treatment | 134 (59.3) | 47 (56.6) |
| Control | 36 (15.9) | 15 (18.1) |
| Ethnicity | | |
| Asian | 4 (1.8) | 2 (2.4) |
| Black | 12 (5.3) | 5 (6.0) |
| Hispanic | 4 (1.8) | 3 (3.6) |
| Caucasian (White) | 198 (87.6) | 73 (88.0) |
| Other | 8 (3.5) | 0 (0.0) |
| Class^a | | |
| Freshman | 19 (8.4) | 8 (9.6) |
| Sophomore | 82 (36.3) | 28 (33.7) |
| Junior | 68 (30.1) | 25 (30.1) |
| Senior | 55 (24.3) | 21 (25.3) |
| Graduate | 1 (0.04) | 1 (1.2) |

^a One participant did not give this information.

Appendix D

Figure 1

Change in Rape Supportive Attitude Scale Score

Time 2: $t(85) = 1.92, p = 0.05$