

ATTITUDES, IDENTIFICATION, DECISIONS TO REPORT,
AND BYSTANDER FACTORS AMONG
COLLEGE FRESHMAN REGARDING
SEXUAL ASSAULT

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ABSTRACT

Sexual assault has increasingly become a large problem on college and university campuses in the United States. Not only is the frequency of the occurrences problematic, but the lack of reporting, the mishandling of cases, and efforts to stop campus sexual assaults have also garnered a large amount of attention. While many research studies have focused on the effectiveness of educational programs aimed to increase awareness, reporting, and prevention of sexual assault among college students, not many studies have examined if students' abilities to identify sexual assaults in contextual situations and their attitudes regarding sexual assault are affected by these programs. The purpose of this study was to investigate if students entered college with attitudes that are supportive of sexual assault, the ability of first-semester college freshman to identify sexual assault within contexts, students' decision to report a perceived sexual assault, the likelihood that students would intervene as a bystander, and demographics related to student attitudes toward, identification of, and decisions to report sexual assaults.

Participants in this study were 551 freshmen in their first-semester at Temple University, who were 18 or 19 years of age. Participants completed a survey which consisted of demographic questions, 11 original vignettes depicting potential sexual assault scenarios, the updated Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance (IRMA) scale, and the Type T personality questionnaire.

Results revealed that about one-third of students surveyed did not completely disagree with sexual assault-supportive statements on the updated IRMA scale, with the *He Didn't Mean To* and *She Lied* attitudes being the most popularly endorsed. Students

who endorsed sexual assault-supportive attitudes were significantly more likely to misidentify an instance of sexual assault and to not report a perceived sexual assault in some scenarios. In regards to demographics, males were more likely than females to endorse sexual assault-supportive attitudes, to misidentify sexual assaults, to not report a perceived sexual assault in some scenarios, and they were less likely than females to intervene as a bystander in a sexual assault scenario. Sexuality and ethnic identification had some effect on attitudes endorsed and ethnic identity had an effect on the decision to report a sexual assault in two specific scenarios. In addition, the type of high school students attended and the types of sexual education topics they were educated on prior to college were significantly linked to attitudes endorsed, and the type of high school students attended was significantly linked to identifying instances of sexual assault.

The growing issue of campus sexual assault is represented by the amount of students in this study who cannot correctly identify sexual assault situations, by the attitudes that contribute to the occurrences of sexual assault, and by the reasons why students feel sexual assault scenarios should not be reported. The significant relationship between endorsing attitudes and incorrectly identifying sexual assaults, as well as the decision to not report perceived sexual assaults, supports the potentially harmful effects having an attitude that essentially supports sexual assault can have in society. Prevention efforts need to address the root of a problem, which in this case is a culture where sexual assault, largely against women, is excused, dismissed, and subsequently deemed acceptable. Thus, adolescents should be educated and provided with appropriate messaging on topics related to sexual assault well before they enter college.

I dedicate this dissertation to all sexual assault survivors,
and to those who are committed to creating a safer, sex-positive culture.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT.....	iii
DEDICATION.....	v
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	viii
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	8
3. METHODS	23
4. RESULTS	33
5. DISCUSSION.....	57
REFERENCES CITED.....	67
APPENDICES	
A. SURVEY INSTRUMENT.....	71
B. VIGNETTE CATEGORIES.....	77
C. UPDATED IRMA ITEM FACTOR ANALYSIS.....	79

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
3.1 Factor loadings for exploratory factor analysis of the vignette items	27
3.2 Demographic characteristics of the participants	29
4.1 Frequency and mean responses to IRMA items in rank order	33
4.2 Frequency distribution of average total IRMA ratings	35
4.3 Frequency distribution of average total IRMA ratings	35
4.4 Pearson correlation coefficients of gender and high school type with average IRMA attitude rating	37
4.5 Pearson correlation coefficient of sex education received and IRMA attitudes...	38
4.6 Means and standard deviations for ethnicity and IRMA attitudes	39
4.7 Structure matrix of IRMA attitudes	39
4.8 Functions at Group Centroids	40
4.9 Means and standard deviations for sexual orientation and IRMA attitudes	41
4.10 Structure matrix of IRMA attitudes	41
4.11 Functions at Group Centroids	41
4.12 Correlations of IRMA attitudes and correct sexual assault identification	42
4.13 Mean gender scores of correct sexual assault identification	43
4.14 One-way analysis of variance for the effect of sexual orientation on identification of sexual assault	43
4.15 One-way analysis of variance for the effect of ethnicity on identification of sexual assault	44
4.16 Mean high school type scores of correct sexual assault identification.....	44
4.17 Pearson correlations for IRMA attitudes and decision to report a perceived sexual assault	45
4.18 Crosstabulation of gender and decision to report in Andy vignette	46

4.19 Crosstabulation of ethnicity and decision to report in Andy vignette	46
4.20 Crosstabulation of ethnicity and decision to report in Rory vignette	47
4.21 Frequency of reasons for not reporting sexual assault vignettes	48
4.22 Factor loadings for exploratory factor analysis of the Type T items	49
4.23 Correlations of IRMA attitudes Type T personality factors	50
4.24 Factor loadings for exploratory factor analysis of the updated IRMA items.....	51
4.25 Correlations of sexual assault victim and perpetrator response with average IRMA attitude rating	54
4.26 Correlations of IRMA attitudes and vignette types	55

Attitudes, Identification, Decisions to Report, and Bystander Factors among College Freshman Regarding Sexual Assault

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Approximately 19% of women will have experienced an attempted or completed sexual assault while they are in college, and 13.7% of college women will experience a completed sexual assault by the time they graduate (Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2007). For young women, furthering their education may also mean learning to protect themselves from unwanted sexual advances. Concerns over the increasing reports of sexual assault on college campuses are being covered in the media every day, such as the “yes means yes” bill passed in California, a student carrying a mattress around Columbia University’s campus every day until her perpetrator was found guilty, and the conviction of Vanderbilt football players in the sexual assault of a female student (Burke, 2015; Chappell, 2014; Trianni, 2014). Many research studies have focused on the effectiveness of educational programs aimed to increase awareness, reporting, and prevention of sexual assault among college students. However, not many studies look at whether or not students’ abilities to identify sexual assault in contextual situations, and possibly more importantly their attitudes regarding sexual assault, are affected by these programs. Prevention needs to address the root of a problem, which in this case is a culture where sexual assault, largely against women, is excused, dismissed, and subsequently deemed acceptable.

Researchers have established there are attitudes and beliefs likely contributing to a culture in which sexual assault behaviors are acceptable. In 1980 Burt first introduced the construct of rape myth acceptance, or the prejudicial, stereotyped, and/or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists. She also created the Rape Myth Acceptance Scale to assess these

beliefs (Burt, 1980). In addition, Burt (1980) created the Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence Scale to assess beliefs about violence toward women. Burt's research paved the way to highlight the prevalence of rape-supportive beliefs in American culture.

Although sexual assault on college campuses is not a new problem, issues surrounding campus sexual assault in higher education are now being addressed more publicly and becoming a priority of the current Administration. In January of 2014, the White House Council on Women and Girls published the report "Rape and Sexual Assault: A Renewed Call to Action" in response to the increasing reports of sexual assault and mishandling of reported cases on college campuses. This report analyzed data on rape and sexual assault, identified risk factors and the demographics of who is at risk, discussed the impact of these acts, how the criminal justice system and the current Administration has handled these cases, and identified areas of action that need to be addressed (White House Council on Women and Girls, 2014). Thereafter, the White House created the Task Force to Protect Students From Sexual Assault in April 2014, and started the website www.NotAlone.gov to make resources and enforcement data accessible to the public. This Task Force aims to help higher education institutions identify sexual assault problems by administering campus climate surveys, researching and administering prevention programs that include bystander involvement, helping schools respond effectively with trainings and community partnerships, and by making enforcement efforts, data, and resources available to the public (The White House Office of the Press Secretary, 2014). A few days after the Task Force was created, the US Department of Education's Office of Civil Rights (2014) released a list of 55 federally funded universities and colleges across the country under investigation at the time for alleged violations related to the mishandling of sexual assault cases. This list has continued to grow as sexual assault survivors who perceive their cases were not taken seriously

enough by their institutions are speaking out, with the list numbering 86 in November 2014 (Erdley, 2014). Institutions have started to conduct climate surveys to find out not only frequencies sexual assault, but also the frequency of students reporting these incidents and their perceptions of the reporting process. The Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) made headlines in October 2014 when they released the results of their survey that not only asked students about their experiences, but also about their attitudes regarding sexual assault and sexual behaviors. An institution as prestigious as MIT releasing their survey and the results to the public has paved the way for more institutions to be as transparent in their problems with sexual assault, and it has helped to highlight that this problem is pervasive in higher education institutions and is connected to the attitudes of students.

In 2014, several college women garnered much publicity in their attempts to call attention to the mishandling of their cases. Some media outlets have even dubbed 2014 as the year of college sexual assault awareness. In March 2014, the student newspaper the Harvard Crimson published an article written by a student about her account of being sexually assaulted the previous spring, and the university's lack of support and acknowledgement of her complaints (Anonymous, 2014). In April 2014, *The New York Times* published an article detailing the events surrounding a female student's accusation against star football player Jameis Winston of raping her in December 2012, the timeline of the investigation of her report, and the actions of Florida State University in connection to this accusation (Bogdanich, 2014). Winston was never charged with sexual assault or found in violation of the school's conduct code, and he went on to win the Heisman Trophy and be a first-round NFL draft pick. His accuser has since made a documentary of her experiences and perceptions, and those of other college women, of the mishandling of sexual assault cases at universities and colleges. In September 2014, a senior at Columbia

University began to carry a mattress with her across campus, as part of her senior thesis, to represent the emotional baggage she carries with her everyday, until her perpetrator is expelled (Trianni, 2014). This student is one of three students who reported the same perpetrator to Columbia, and she is one of 23 Columbia and Barnard college women who filed a Title IX complaint in April 2014 against their university about the mishandling of their sexual assault cases (Trianni, 2014). In a movement dubbed Carry that Weight, hundreds of college students across the country carried mattresses and pillows at the end of October 2014 in support of sexual assault survivors and to raise awareness of this important issue (Hess, 2014). While every case of campus sexual assault is different, a common theme pervasive in campus culture is that the victims are often blamed and their credibility is called into question, the involvement of alcohol is used to excuse behaviors, and the accused perpetrator(s) are not seen as entirely accountable for a variety of reasons. However, one survivor of campus sexual assault at Vanderbilt University received a victory in January 2015 when two of her five accused rapists were found guilty, and charges are pending for two other men (Burke, 2015). Burke (2015) described this conviction as rare, since many campus sexual assaults go unreported and unprosecuted, but pointed out that the evidence in this case was hard to ignore as students videotaped the gang raping of the student and there was closed-circuit TV footage of the then football players carrying the unconscious woman through a dormitory and into a room (Burke, 2015). Although many people may still have a difficult time believing that attractive, educated, middle-class young men can commit such acts, this case at least raises the awareness, with disturbing graphic evidence, that it does in fact happen.

Programs aiming to raise awareness for sexual assault have existed for many years. Take Back the Night, a well-known foundation that seeks to end sexual violence through awareness

events and initiatives, has existed since the 1970s with events on college campuses and in communities (Take Back the Night Foundation, 2014). Foundations with similar missions to raise awareness specifically on college campuses include The Clothesline Project and Walk a Mile in Her Shoes (www.clotheslineproject.org; www.walkamileinhershoes.org). In regards to prevention, programs historically sought to arm young women with ways to protect themselves such as not consuming alcohol, staying with a group of friends when out, not walking home alone, and never accepting an open drink from someone. While these precautions may be helpful, what these suggestions fail to do is focus on changing what is behind why campus sexual assaults happen, why victims are often blamed and not believed, and why it is hard for perpetrators to be found guilty. Intervention programs have shifted their focus to emphasize bystander intervention programs, aiming to engage peers in intervening when they see someone in danger or at risk of being in danger and encouraging students to hold each other accountable. The White House launched a new public awareness and education campaign, “It’s On Us” in September 2014, which seeks to engage all members of a college campus, and specifically men, in recognizing their responsibility to prevent campus sexual assaults through a series of videos and ads. The press release from the White House Office of the Press Secretary describing this initiative cited a report from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), prepared for the White House’s Task Force to Protect Students from Sexual Assault, that supported bystander intervention being one of the most effective strategies in effective positive and meaningful change to social norms (CDC, 2014). This report from the CDC (2014) also stated “decreasing social norms that facilitate sexual violence” as a key strategy in addressing risk and prevention of sexual violence (p. 6).

While bystander intervention and changing social norms at the college level is essential, it may be best practice for awareness and education programming to start when adolescents are forming their thoughts and opinions about sexuality, as students' beliefs and attitudes of sexual behaviors start forming well before they enter college. If the core of sexual assault is ever to be adequately addressed and prevented, it is important for sexual education programming in middle and high schools to acknowledge and discuss gender roles, sexual relationships, and sexual behaviors in a manner that emphasizes consent and mutual respect within sexual relationships. This study sought to highlight the contribution of sexual assault-supportive attitudes to college campus sexual assaults, and the great need for educators and practitioners in secondary and post-secondary education settings to focus on influencing the perceptions with which students are entering college regarding sexual behaviors, sexual misconduct, reporting these instances, and intervening as a bystander. One of the question this study asked was whether rates of sexual assault-supportive attitudes of college Freshman are consistent with, if not higher than, the current literature on college students' attitudes as a whole student body. A related question is whether entering college freshmen will significantly misidentify instances of campus sexual assault.

One goal of this study was to determine if rates of college freshmen's sexual assault-supportive attitudes upon entering college are consistent with the literature on college students in general. Studying the attitudes of students at the beginning of college will allow colleges to focus prevention efforts on specific aspects of the campus culture, influencing students' attitudes to focus on consent and bystander prevention.

Research Questions

1. To what extent do first-year college students endorse beliefs and attitudes that support sexual assault, as measured by the updated Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance (IRMA) scale? (see below)
2. What demographics are significantly related to sexual assault-supportive attitudes, as measured by the IRMA?
3. Are specific types of attitudes related to sexual assault, as measured by the updated IRMA, significantly related to correct and/or incorrect identification of sexual assault incidents?
4. What demographics are significantly related to misidentification of sexual assault instances?
5. Are there certain attitudes, as measured by the updated IRMA, and/or demographics significantly related to the decision to not report a perceived sexual assault?
6. Are there common themes as to why students would not report a sexual assault?
7. Are students who endorse the big T personality type on the type T scale more likely than those who endorse little T to indicate via vignette they would intervene in a sexual assaultive situation amongst a group of their peers?

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The United States Department of Justice (DOJ) defines sexual assault as “any type of sexual contact or behavior that occurs without the explicit consent of the recipient. Falling under the definition of sexual assault are sexual activities as forced sexual intercourse, forcible sodomy, child molestation, incest, fondling, and attempted rape.” In addition, the DOJ re-defined forced sexual intercourse, or rape, in a press release dated January 6, 2012 as “the penetration, no matter how slight, of the vagina or anus with any body part or object, or oral penetration by a sex organ of another person, without the consent of the victim.”

The National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey is an ongoing national random digit dial telephone survey conducted by the Center for Disease Control and Prevention. The 2010 Summary Report of this survey was completed using data collected during that year from 16,507 adults (9,086 women and 7,421 men). The report found that 18.3% of women and 1.4% of men self-reported having been raped at some point in their lives, with the overwhelmingly majority of female victims (79.6%) reporting having been raped for the first time before the age of 25 (Black, Basile, Breiding, Smith, Walters, Merrick, Chen, & Stevens, 2011). The prevention efforts suggested in this report heavily emphasized the need to continuously address “the beliefs, attitudes and messages that are deeply embedded in our social structures and that create a climate that condones sexual violence, stalking, and intimate partner violence” (p. 4).

The National Institute of Justice submitted a report from the Campus Sexual Assault Study to the U.S. Department of Justice that studied the frequency, types, and reporting of different instances of sexual assault experienced by college students (Krebs, Lindquist, Warner,

Fisher, & Martin, 2007). This study, conducted by RTI International and funded by the National Institute of Justice, surveyed over 6,800 women and men at two large, public universities, one in the South and one in the Midwest. The self-reports of this web-based survey indicated that of the 5,466 female participants, 13.7% reported experiencing at least one completed sexual assault since starting college, 4.7% of participants reported experiencing physically forced sexual assault, 7.8% reported being sexually assaulted while voluntarily being under the influence of drugs and/or alcohol, and 0.6% reported being sexually assaulted while unknowingly being under the influence of a drug (Krebs et al., 2007). These findings, while alarming, are not news to the field of college sexual assault researchers. Although underreported, the statistics on campus sexual assaults have long been known, and the suggestion of a culture that accepts acts of sexual assault has also been supported by research in the field.

The American College Health Association conducts surveys of college students at institutions all over the country each year to assess current health-related trends and statistics. The Spring 2014 report revealed that of the 66,887 undergraduate students surveyed (65.6% female, 33.3% male), 7.6% reported experiencing sexual touching without their consent (9.7% female, 3.5% male), 3.2% reported experiencing a sexual penetration attempt without their consent (4.3% female, 1% male), and 2% reported experiencing sexual penetration without their consent (2.7% female, 0.8% male), just within the past 12 months (American College Health Association, 2014).

The possible harmful outcomes of sexual assault have been known for some time and among different populations. Some of the immediate psychological consequences of sexual assault may include shock, denial, fear, confusion, anxiety, withdrawal, guilt, nervousness, distrust of others, and symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder such as emotional detachment,

sleep disturbances, flashbacks, and mental replay of assault (Felitti, Anda, Nordenberg, Williamson, Spitz, Edwards, Koss, & Marks, 1998; Yuan, Koss, & Stone 2006). Survivors of rape have shown to be at increased risk for depression (Kilpatrick, Edmunds, & Seymour, 1992, Leidig, 1992, Miller, Monson, & Norton, 1995 Tanzman, 1992 as cited in Brener, McMahon, Warren, & Douglas, 1999), and suicidal ideation and attempts (Hartman & Burgess, 1993, Kilpatrick et al., 1992, & Riggs, Alario, & McHorney, 1990 as cited in Brener et al., 1999) among national samples of women. In a study analyzing the 1995 data from the National College Health Risk Behavior Survey (NCHRBS), Brener et al. (1999) found 20% of female undergraduate students reported ever experiencing forced sexual intercourse, and they were significantly more likely to report risky health behaviors than female undergraduates who did not report ever experiencing rape. These health risk behaviors include being in a physical fight with a significant other in the 12 months prior to survey completion, considering suicide in the last 12 months, driving after drinking in the past 30 days, smoking cigarettes, using drugs or alcohol the last time they engaged in sexual intercourse, and having multiple sex partners in the three months prior to completing the survey (Brener et al., 1999). These findings support sexual assault being thought of as a public health concern, as women who are sexually assaulted may be at increased risk for risky behaviors that put others at risk, including themselves. However, this study does not distinguish between women who had reported experiencing their first rape before or during their college years, and the possible differences in health-risk behavior outcomes of women who experienced their first sexual assault in college versus adolescence is not known.

Much of the research on sexual assault is focused on female victims, yet men are also at risk of sexual assault victimization. However, research on male victims is limited (Tewksbury, 2007). Sorenson, Stein, Siegel, Golding and Burnam (1988) conducted a community-based study

in Los Angeles and found that 7.2% of men reported experiencing sexual assault after the age of 15, and Elliott, Mok, and Briere's (2004) study of a stratified random sample of the American population revealed 3.8% of the surveyed men reported sexual assault victimization during adulthood. Struckman-Johnson (1988) reported 16% of their sample of male undergraduates reported having been pressured or forced to have sex at some point in life, and Tewksbury and Mustaine's (2001) study of male undergraduates at 12 universities reported 22.2% of survey participants had been victimized by some form of sexual assault and 8.3 percent had been a victim of a "serious sexual assault" at some point in time. Similar reports, 14%, were seen in Davies, Pollard, and Archer's (2001) British sample of college students. Reports of sexual assaults of men are generally considered to be vastly underreported, perhaps even more underreported than sexual assaults of women, and the data on assaults that occur in college are not well known (Tewksbury, 2007). Men are less likely to report sexual assault due to issues of stigma, shame, fear, and a belief that victims may have their sexuality questioned (Anderson, 1982; Scarce, 1997 as cited in Tewksbury, 2007), and due to a denial of being victimized (Kaufman, Divasto, Jackson, Voorhees, & Christy, 1980; Scarce, 1997 as cited in Tewksbury, 2007). The public health concerns of male victims are just as serious as those for females. Plant, Plant, and Miller (2005) stated that men who reported having been sexually assaulted after age 16 also reported poorer physical health statuses than men who did not report sexual assault, and Elliott et al. (2004) reported higher scores on the Trauma Symptom Inventory for sexually assaulted men than women with sexually assaulted men reporting higher levels of distress on eight of the ten scales of the Inventory than sexually assaulted women. The outcomes of sexual assault for both men and women have serious consequences, and the need to address the issue has never been more supported.

In January 2014, the White House Council on Women and Girls released the Rape and Sexual Assault: A Renewed Call to Action report. This report identified the growing problem of sexual assault in the US, populations at particular risk, the cost of sexual assault to survivors and communities, and it identifies college sexual assault as being a particular problem. The Task Force to Protect Students From Sexual Assault was created in April 2014 and started the www.NotAlone.gov website. This website provides resources and enforcement data, as well as suggestions on components of prevention programs and data collection. The Task Force aims to support higher education institutions identify and prevent sexual assault problems by administering campus climate surveys, researching and administering prevention programs that include bystander involvement, helping schools respond effectively with trainings and community partnerships, and by making enforcement efforts, data, and resources available to the public (The White House Office of the Press Secretary, 2014). A few days after the Task Force was created, the US Department of Education's Office of Civil Rights released a list of 55 federally funded universities and colleges across the country under investigation at the time for alleged violations related to the mishandling of sexual assault cases (US Department of Education's Office of Civil Rights, 2014). This list has continued to grow as sexual assault survivors who perceive their cases were not handled correctly by their institutions are filing Title IX complains, with the list numbering 86 as of November 2014 (Erdley, 2014). Institutions have started to conduct climate surveys to not only find out how many students are victims of sexual assault, but also to collect data on how many students are reporting their experiences and their perceptions of their university's management of reported assaults.

Most of the surveys being conducted in accordance with the Task Force to Protect Students From Sexual Assault are focusing on frequencies of sexual assault and reporting to

campus authorities, not on students' perceptions of sexual assault and related topics. One institution, however, attempted to examine attitudes of undergraduate and graduate students. In their Spring 2014 Community Attitudes on Sexual Assault survey, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) asked students to indicate their level of agreement with statements about rape and sexual assault on 5-point Likert scale (*strongly disagree, disagree, neither, agree, strongly agree*). The summary of the survey, *Survey Results: 2014 Community Attitudes on Sexual Assault*, reported that 67% of undergraduates and 41% of graduate students surveyed responded they agreed or strongly agreed with the statement "Rape and sexual assault can happen unintentionally, especially if alcohol is involved," 15% of female undergraduates and 25% of male undergraduates surveyed responded they agree or strongly agree that "A person who is sexually assaulted or raped while she or he is drunk is at least somewhat responsible for putting themselves in that position," and 31% of female undergraduates and 35% of male undergraduates surveyed responded they agree or strongly agree that "Sexual assault and rape happen because men can get carried away in sexual situations once they've started." MIT's 2014 Community Attitudes on Sexual Assault survey results give evidence that students hold attitudes and views that blame victims, excuse male perpetrators, and support a culture of committing sexual assault.

Research on attitudes that support acceptance of sexual assault and negative perceptions of sexual assault victims largely began to be published in the 1970s and 1980s; although, much of this research focused on men as the perpetrators. In her study on attitudes that contribute to rape myth acceptance, Burt (1980) reviewed literature on this topic, which defined rape myth acceptance as prejudicial, stereotyped, and/or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists. Examples of rape myths include "a woman who goes to the home or apartment of a man on their first date which implies that she is willing to have sex", "women who go braless or wear short

skirts and tight tops are asking for trouble”, “in most rapes the victim is promiscuous or has a bad reputation”, and “many women who report rapes are lying because they are angry and want to get back at the man they accuse” (Burt, 1980). Burt (1980) argued that accepting these rape myths fosters a rape culture where victims are at fault, rape is not a common occurrence, and rapists are not responsible for their behaviors. Burt’s (1980) research supported that those who endorsed higher sex role stereotyping in their attitudes toward women, higher adversarial sexual beliefs that sexual relationships are fundamentally exploitative and neither person in the relationship is to be fully trusted, and higher acceptance of interpersonal violence that force and coercion are legitimate ways to gain compliance in intimate relationships were more likely to also endorse acceptance of rape myths. The acceptance of interpersonal violence was the strongest predictor of rape myth acceptance (Burt, 1980). Among Burt’s (1980) sample of individuals 18-years-old and older, those who were more educated and those who were younger were less likely to adhere to rape myth-supportive attitudes. This finding may suggest college-bound young adults would be less likely to have rape-myth-supportive attitudes. However, increasing reports of sexual assault at colleges and universities say otherwise.

Since Burt’s (1980) study, attention has focused on the culture at colleges and universities related to the rising number of sexual assaults reported. Researchers have investigated the prevalence of sexual assault and sexually aggressive behaviors among college students, although predominantly with men, as well as the proclivity of these young men to commit sexual misconduct. A nation-wide study conducted by Koss, Gidycz, and Wisniewski (1987) revealed 25.1% of the 2,972 college men surveyed reported engaging in some form of sexually aggressive behaviors, with 7.2% reporting sexual coercion, 3.3% attempting rape, and 4.4% reporting rape. Support for the proclivity of men to commit acts of sexual assault was

provided by Malamuth (1981), whose survey revealed an average of 20% of the men surveyed, who were mostly in college at the time, indicated a likelihood (reporting a 3 or higher on a scale of 1 to 5, 1=not at all likely, 5=very likely) of committing rape if they were guaranteed to not be punished. In addition, Malamuth and Ceniti's (1984) study showed those who endorsed a proclivity to rape were also likely to score higher on Burt's (1980) Rape Myth Acceptance Scale and Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence Scale. Later studies showed comparable results for college-aged males endorsing proclivity to commits acts of rape (Berkowitz, 1992; Oslund, Fitch, & Willis, 1996).

Other researchers sought to investigate the underlying beliefs and views of men who report a proclivity to commit rape and a history of sexual aggressive behaviors. Bohner, Reinhard, Rutz, Sturm, Kerschbaum, and Effler (1998) found respondents who reported anti-victim attitudes of rape were significantly likely to endorse proclivity to rape in hypothetical scenarios where they would not be punished, when presented with the attitudinal measure before the behavioral tendencies survey. However, when presented with the hypothetical scenarios before reporting their attitudes, there was no significant relationship between attitudes and proclivity to rape, leading the researchers to infer a causal influence of rape-related attitudes on rape-related behaviors (Bohner et al., 1998). Bohner, et al., (1998) argue it is quite likely that natural situations can easily cue a man's beliefs behind his rape myth acceptance, giving the example that a scenario in which a woman demonstrates reluctance to engage in sexual activity may trigger the rape myth acceptance beliefs such as "if women say no, they always mean yes."

In 2004, Abbey and McAuslan published a study of 197 men at a large urban commuter university surveyed at two different times, one year apart, about their self-reported hostility toward women and frequency of sexually assaulting women. These men answered the Sexual

Experiences Survey, which measured sexual assault perpetration. Hostility toward women was measured using Lonsway and Fitzgerald's (1995) scale, as well as Burt's (1980) three scales on rape myth acceptance, adversarial sexual beliefs, and acceptance of interpersonal violence. These four measures together, at Time 1, had a Cronbach's alpha of .90, indicating reliability (Abbey & McAuslan, 2004). More questions and measures were used to gather participants' dating and consensual sexual experiences, alcohol consumption, acceptability to verbally pressure a woman into a sexual encounter, past misperceptions of women's sexual intentions, callous attitudes toward women, their perceived approval from peers of using different strategies to obtain sex from a woman, delinquency, and the details of a sexual assault or worst date experience (Abbey & McAuslan, 2004). In this sample of male college students, Abbey and McAuslan found 14% of the men reported committing a sexual assault within a 1-year time interval, and non-perpetrators reported less hostile attitudes toward women as well as less delinquency, less alcohol consumption in dating and sexual encounters, and less dating and consensual sex experiences. Abbey and McAuslan (2004) stated their findings suggest prevention programs should focus on targeting the negative attitudes toward women, as repeat perpetrators had more extreme scores on hostile gender beliefs and callous attitudes toward women, even when compared to the men who had reported one instance of sexual assault at Time 1.

In 2007, Burgess sought to expand the research on sexual assault attitudes supported by college men, and to develop an instrument with updated language and contexts to accurately capture their perceptions and with relevant scenarios. Burgess (2007) developed a research-based instrument, the Rape Attitudes and Beliefs Scale (RABS), which comprehensively measures attitudes of college men that are positively correlated with sexual aggression. Burgess (2007) administered his scale to 368 male and 359 female college students, along with Malamuth's

(1981) Situational Rape Proclivity Scale (SRPS), the Date Rape Attitudes Survey (DRAS), the Openness to Experience Scale, and the Sexually Aggressive History Questionnaire (SAHQ) which consists of the questions: (1) “Have you ever ignored a woman’s indications (verbal or otherwise) that she was NOT mutually interested in sexual intercourse with you, but you went ahead and engaged in sexual intercourse with her anyway?” and (2) “Have you ever used threats of any sort (from threatening to end a relationship to threatening the use of force) to gain sexual compliance from a woman?” Independent *t*- tests showed the mean score of male respondents on the RABS, as well as each subscale, was significantly greater than women’s mean scores, indicating men were more likely to endorse attitudes on the RABS. Exploratory factor analysis of the RABS revealed five subscales, or attitudes, that were each significantly related to reports of sexual aggressive behaviors and proclivity to commit acts of rape (Burgess, 2007). These attitudes included *Justifications* for having sex with women without their consent, which include perceived provocative behaviors and/or signals from women, and the belief that the sex is not seen as rape or as harmful to the woman. This factor was the most significantly indicative of proclivity to rape, as measured by Malamuth’s (1981) scale, and reports of sexually aggressive histories (Burgess, 2007). The *Blame* attitude refers to a reverse-victim perspective that men are the victim as they fell under the control of the woman’s behaviors and/or appearance, and that women are responsible for the prevention of sexual assault. *Tactics* refers to the acceptance of using alcohol, or other means such as professing love, to obtain sex, and that there is nothing wrong in doing so. The *Gender* factor, which paired Burgess’s (2007) original *gender* and *misogyny* domains, encompasses traditional views of gender roles and disliking and/or avoiding women and things considered to be feminine. The fifth factor, *Status*, refers to sexual-status pressure college men feel from peers and society to engage in sexual acts, and their use of

women to fulfill these perceived roles. Each of these attitudes were found to be significantly and positively correlated with participants' endorsements of likelihood to commit rape in various scenarios, if guaranteed to not get caught or receive a punishment, and to report a history of sexual aggression (Burgess, 2007). Endorsement of the attitudes on the RABS is thought to be indicative of college men's perceptions that sexual assault behaviors are acceptable, as well as a measure of the likelihood of men to commit such acts (Burgess, 2007).

Payne, Lonsway, and Fitzgerald (1999) argued that the 24 different instruments that existed at that time to assess rape myth acceptance had varying definitions of the construct. As a result, the researchers created the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMA) which carefully considers the representation of the rape myth construct, how questions are worded, the use of colloquial phrases, and minimizes the potential for response bias (Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999). Based on a literature review of rape myths, 120 items were originally developed and pretested with several college students, resulting in a scale of 95 items after traditional psychometric analyses as well as non-parametric techniques, multidimensional scaling, and cluster analysis (Payne et al., 1999). The 95-item scale was then administered to 780 undergraduate students at a large Midwestern university via an interactive computer program which randomly presented each item to the student, who indicated their level of agreement with each statement on a 7-point Likert scale with 1 meaning *not at all agree* and 7 *very much agree* (Payne et al., 1999). An iterative exploratory factor analysis followed by cluster analysis and principal component analysis revealed seven subscales: *She asked for it; It wasn't really rape; He didn't mean to; She wanted it; She lied; Rape is a trivial event; and Rape is a deviant event* (Payne et al., 1999). Structural equation modeling and an examination of the fit of the models supports a Hierarchical model of the relationship between the rape myth acceptance construct and

both the items and the subscales, with χ^2 (168, $N = 302$), a goodness-of-fit index of 0.91 and an adjusted goodness-of-fit index of 0.87 (Payne et al., 1999). The Hierarchical model states there is a general factor of rape myth acceptance underlying all of the rape myths, and the different subscales of rape myth acceptance account for the majority of variance among different rape myths (Payne et al., 1999). In addition, Multigroup LISREL analyses showed the structure of the IRMA to apply equally to men and women (Payne et al., 1999). To examine construct validity of the IRMA, 176 participants completed several measures to reflect the various constructs within rape myth acceptance: Burt's (1980) Sex-Role Stereotyping Scale and Rombough and Ventimighilia's (1981) Sexism Scale to measure sex-role stereotyping; Burt's (1980) Adversarial Sexual Beliefs Scale and Lonsway and Fitzgerald's (1995) Adversarial Heterosexual Beliefs Scale to measure adversarial sexual beliefs, Lonsway and Fitzgerald's (1995) Hostility Toward Women Scale, and Burt's (1980) Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence and Lonsway and Fitzgerald's (1995) Attitudes Toward Violence scale to measure attitudes toward violence. Correlations between scores on the IRMA and aforementioned measures ranged from $r(174) = .47, p < .001$ to $r(174) = .74, p < .001$. The psychometric analysis of the IRMA supports its validity in measuring rape myth acceptance attitudes and their implications (Payne et al., 1999).

Rape myth acceptance attitudes have become subtler since Payne et al.'s (1999) study, leading McMahon and Farmer (2011) to update the IRMA to reflect more covert attitudes, update the colloquial language used in the scale, and to consolidate the items for each factor. McMahon and Farmer's (2011) updated IRMA scale is comprised of 22 items, as opposed to the original 95 questions, and the language has been updated to reflect contemporary college student populations and subtle rape myths with an emphasis on victim blaming. This instrument was tested with 951 undergraduate students at a large northeastern university. Exploratory structural

equation modeling (ESEM) revealed five factors whose fit was acceptable (Comparative fit index [CFI] = .90, Tucker-Lewis index [TLI] = .97, root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] = .07), and the Cronbach's alpha scores of the subscales ranged from .64 to .80 with an overall Cronbach's alpha of .87 for the updated IRMA measure (McMahon & Farmer, 2011). McMahon and Farmer (2011) hypothesized four scales, but ESEM analysis and confirmatory factor analysis revealed the *He didn't mean to* subscale had two components, one that excused male behavior and another that excused male behavior in relation to intoxication. The resulting five subscales represent the different attitudes students endorsed related to rape myth acceptance: *She asked for it*, *He didn't mean to*, *He didn't mean to* (with an intoxication component), *It wasn't really rape*, and *She lied* (McMahon & Farmer, 2011). Multivariate analysis of covariance (MANOVA) revealed male and female responses were significantly different on each subscale, with men endorsing more attitudes related to supporting sexual assault, and knowing someone who had been sexually assaulted and previous experience with a sexual assault prevention program were not found to be significantly related to scores on the measure.

In addition to the updated IRMA, this study employed vignettes designed to reflect possible instances of campus sexual assault. Participants were asked to indicate whether or not they believe the situation depicts an instance of sexual assault, and if they would encourage the perceived victim to report the incident. One vignette additionally asks the participants to indicate the level to which they would partake in the behaviors described in the vignette or intervene as a bystander. Details of the development and content of the vignettes can be found in the *Methods* section.

Bystander intervention programs are gaining popularity on college campuses as a method of prevention for sexual assault, although evidence on the effectiveness of these programs is

limited (McMahon, 2010). The White House Task Force to Protect Students from Sexual Assault suggests using these types of programs to increase awareness and encourage students to take responsibility for their and others' actions, with the intent to help incite a culture change on college campuses. McMahon (2010) studied the attitudes of the bystanders to see if their rape myth acceptance attitudes were related to whether or not they would act on a possible victim's behalf, and it was found that of 2,338 incoming undergraduate students surveyed, those who reported a greater willingness to intervene as a bystander were female, had previous rape education, and knew someone sexually assaulted, and acceptance of rape myths was negatively related to willingness to intervene. While it is unknown if addressing rape myths increases the likelihood to interfere as a bystander, this study supports the great need to address rape myths in any prevention program, as well as the use of a bystander intervention method of prevention.

The bystander effect refers to situations where intervention to stop a usually dangerous situation does not occur, and bystanders do not intervene. Clearly this is an important concern for sexual assaults where more than two persons are present. What are the personal qualities that may contribute to the motivation to intervene? One possible candidate is what has been labeled Type T personality, or risk-taking, thrill-seeking (T) behavior (Farley, 2001). Intervening in an ongoing or developing sexual assault can involve significant risk. Research with the Type T personality (Walsh, 2015) has suggested it might be associated with willingness to intervene to stop a bully. Farley (2010) has suggested a central role for Type T in heroism. The present study extended that finding by testing any association of Type T with expressed willingness to intervene in a sexual assault situation portrayed via vignette. An additional interest is whether this risk-taking personality may be associated with rape attitudes, as reflected in the updated IRMA. The brief scale to measure Type T is a 7-item self-report Likert measure that has been

incorporated into several studies (Aulenback, 2011; Jennings, 2012; Walsh, 2015) demonstrating satisfactory Cronbach alpha reliability estimates.

As the government and students continue to call for action regarding the issue of sexual assaults on college campuses, intervention and prevention efforts need to address the underlying attitudes and cultural norms that are contributing to this societal problem. Research has already established college students endorse sexual assault-supportive attitudes and beliefs (Abbey & McAuslan, 2004; Berkowitz, 1992; Burt, 2007; Oslund, Fitch, & Willis, 1996). However, it is unclear if students enter college with these attitudes or if the cultures of college campuses are fostering these kinds of perceptions.

In order to investigate the knowledge of and attitudes toward sexual assault in students entering college, this study aimed to find the percentage of first-year college students endorsing beliefs and attitudes that support sexual assault; types of sexual assault-supportive attitudes significantly related to misidentification of sexual assault incidents; types of sexual assault incidents significantly misidentified by students; attitudes significantly related to the decision to not report a sexual assault; and the difference in identification of sexual assault incidents and the decision to report such incidents between male and female students. In addition, this study sought to obtain qualitative data on students' decision to not report sexual assault, and to investigate if willingness to intervene in a group sexual assault situation is related to personal characteristics. The results of this study aim to highlight the importance of educating young adults before and after entering post-secondary education institutions about what constitutes sexual assault, respectful and consensual sexual relationships, and gender equality, to ultimately help reduce the acceptability of sexual assault behaviors.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Participants

Participants were invited to participate in the survey via an email sent by the researcher. Students who were 17 years of age were not eligible to participate, and those who were 20 years old or older, not in their first semester of college, and those who transferred from a different university were excluded from the data analysis to control for the effects of age and extended time between high school and college. I used responses from students who responded to items in each section of the survey, which includes 11 demographic questions, 11 sexual assault vignettes, the 7 items on the type T personality scale, and the 22-items on the updated Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance (IRMA) survey. After excluding participants who did not meet the eligibility criteria and those who skipped entire sections of the survey, there were 551 participants whose responses were analyzed. Of the 551 participants, 77.3% were 18 years of age ($n = 426$), 61.9% were female ($n = 341$), 79.1% identified as heterosexual ($n = 435$), and 70.1% identified as white ($n = 386$).

Measures

Attitudes that support sexual assault

The updated Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance (IRMA) scale is a 22-item revised scale of the original 95-item measure, with language purported to be relevant to current college student populations and to better reflect subtle rape myths with an emphasis on victim blaming (McMahon & Farmer, 2011). The five subscales of the instrument represent different attitudes students endorsed that were related to sexual assault: *She asked for it*, *He didn't mean to*, *He*

didn't mean to (with an intoxication component), *It wasn't really rape*, and *She lied*. Students responded to each item on a 5-point Likert scale (5=strongly agree, 4=agree, 3=neither, 2=disagree, and 1=strongly disagree). For the psychometric features of the revised IRMA, see the above *Literature Review* section. For a table of the updated IRMA items arranged by attitude, please refer to Appendix C.

Identification of instances of sexual assault

I developed a questionnaire designed to measure students' ability to identify instances of sexual assault within different contextual scenarios popularized among college students, and collect quantitative data on reasons why students do and do not report instances of sexual assault. Sexual assault is defined in accordance with US law as any type of sexual contact or behavior that occurs without the explicit consent of the recipient. The sexual behavior vignettes were written with gender-neutral pronouns to control for a gender bias, and they were intended to reflect different facets of the law regarding sexual assault that commonly are unclear to young adults. These categories of scenarios include inferring consent in a monogamous relationship, receiving consent from someone knowingly under the influence of drugs or alcohol, using coercion such as force or phrases of affection, and distributing sexual images of someone without their consent. Within each category there is a more obvious situation and a less obvious situation. There are two vignettes in which no sexual assault occurs, and one vignette involves sexual assault among a group of students as opposed to a pair. After reading each vignette, students responded if they believe a specified person from the vignette was a victim of sexual assault, and if they responded yes they were then asked if they believe that person should report the assault. If the person indicates sexual assault occurred but they did not think it should be reported, they were then given an opportunity to provide their reasoning in an open text box. In

the vignette involving a group of students, the participant was additionally asked to indicate the level to which they would intervene or participate as a bystander in that situation.

Experimental vignette methodology (EVM) increases the realism of experiments by presenting realistic scenarios to participants (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). Using EVM allows researchers to assess intentions, attitudes, and behaviors of participants (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). Paper people studies is a type of EVM involves vignettes primarily in written form that ask participants about decisions, judgments, and choices or behavioral preferences, and have been used for decades (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). In a within-persons design, each person views the same set of vignettes, and comparison across vignettes can be made for each person to investigate the effects of manipulation within one participant and uncover judgment processes of a single participant. After a review of literature on EVM use, design, and analysis, Aguinis and Bradley (2014) conclude EVM can be useful to determine the nature and direction of a causal relationship when two variables are known to correlate, and it is a good choice to investigate sensitive topics in an experimentally controlled way. However, the researchers recognize that no hypothetical scenario can ever truly represent a real-life situation.

Many of the vignettes in this study involve alcohol consumption, students that know one another, and social scenarios. Much research has shown alcohol to be involved with campus sexual assaults, with an average of 50% of campus sexual assaults reportedly involving alcohol use (Abbey, 2002). In the Campus Sexual Assault Study report, 89% of incapacitated sexual assault victims reported drinking alcohol, with 82% reporting being drunk prior to their victimization, and 33% of physically forced victims reported drinking, with 13% being drunk prior to their assault (Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2007). Alcohol use in sexual encounters is particularly sensitive, as it can impair a person's ability to give consent (Abbey,

2002). The Campus Sexual Assault Study reported that 4.7% of the total sample were victims of physically forced sexual assault, 11.1% were victims of incapacitated sexual assault, and the majority of sexual assault victims reported being assaulted by someone they knew (Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2007). In addition, a large number of respondents in this study reported their assault happened at a party (58% of incapacitated sexual assault victims, 28% of physically forced sexual assault victims) and at an off-campus house (61% of incapacitated sexual assault victims, 63% of physically forced sexual assault victims) (Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2007). The vignettes in this study were designed to reflect these statistics of campus sexual assault settings.

As a measure of content validity, two qualified professionals reviewed the vignettes to determine if each scenario depicted sexual assault, and if so which sexual assault factors are reflected in each vignette. These professionals include Frank Farley, PhD, an L.H.Carnell Professor in Temple University's Department of Psychological Studies in Education, who has extensive experience and research expertise related to individuals that exhibit risky behaviors, and Kate Schaeffer, MA, MS, who is currently the Assistant Director and Investigator of Student Conduct at University of Massachusetts Lowell and formerly the Alcohol and Other Drug, Interpersonal Violence, and Mental Health Program Coordinator at Temple University. Both Dr. Farley and Ms. Schaeffer were in 100% agreement with the author that the content within each vignette either does or does not depict a sexual assault scenario, and the facets of sexual assault described within each vignette.

Factor analysis of the participants' responses to the vignettes revealed four distinct categories of sexual assault. To determine if the items were factorable, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy, a test to determine whether the partial correlations among

variables are small, and Bartlett’s test of sphericity, a test to examine the hypothesis that the variables are uncorrelated, were conducted. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .624, above the recommended value of .5. Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 (55) = 920.199, p < .001$) indicating that the vignette items were correlated. Principal components analysis was used because the primary purpose was to identify and compute composite multicultural competence scores for the factors underlying the vignettes. There were four factors with eigenvalues greater than one. The initial eigenvalues showed that the first factor explained 22% of the variance, the second factor 15% of the variance, the third factor 11% of the variance, and the fourth factor 10% of the variance. The four-factor solution, which explained 57% of the variance, was preferred because of the leveling off of eigenvalues on the scree plot after four factors, the insufficient number of primary loadings on the other factors, and the difficulty of interpreting the subsequent factors. All items had primary factor loadings over .4 with no cross-loadings. The proposed factor labels for the types of vignettes are as follows: Factor 1 – Sending Sexual Pictures without Consent, Factor 2 –No Consent Communicated, Factor 3 – No Consent Due to Alcohol Use, and Factor 4 – Not Sexual Assault. The factor-loading matrix for this final solution is presented in Table 3.1. Please refer to Appendix B for a full table of the vignettes listed by name, description, and type.

Table 3.1.
Factor loadings for exploratory factor analysis of the vignette items

	Factor 1 Sending Sexual Pictures without Consent	Factor 2 No Consent Communicated	Factor 3 No Consent Due to Alcohol Use	Factor 4 Not Sexual Assault	Communalities
Ray Vignette	.923				.862
Kris Vignette	.916				.842
Alex Vignette		.736	.152	.139	.586

Table 3.1., continued

Jamie Vignette		.714	.122	.157	.551
Rory Vignette		.579			.345
Andy Vignette	.318	.426			.289
Kelly Vignette			.725	-.158	.563
Cody Vignette		.328	.642	.123	.536
Taylor Vignette	.173	.143	.629	.168	.475
Casey Vignette	.116			.783	.631
Shay Vignette		.123		.780	.624

Note. Factor loadings >.40 are in boldface. Factor loadings <.10 are suppressed.

Self-report of Type T personality

The Type T personality scale (Farley, 2015, personal communication) is a 7-item self-report measure used to assess thrill-seeking and risk-taking personality traits. This scale uses a 4-point Likert scale (1 = does not apply at all; 4 = applies very strongly) to measure level of risk-taking (big T indicates high levels of risk-taking, little T indicates low levels). Research conducted by Aulenbach (2011) reported a Cronbach's alpha of 0.77, and Jennings's (2012) research that indicated a Cronbach's alpha of 0.81. The type T personality measure was used in this study to investigate the possible relationship between likelihood to intervene in an instance of sexual assault involving more than two people and endorsement of the big T personality type.

The survey instrument in its entirety can be found in Appendix A.

Demographic Items

Demographic questions were used to collect participants' information on gender identification, age, the year and semester in which the student started college, type of high school attended, experiences of sexual assault as a victim and reporting sexual assault, experiences committing sexual assault, and formal and informal sex educational received on specific topics. As I wanted to focus on information of students transitioning from high school to college, nontraditional students who were 20 years of age and older and those who had transferred or were not a Freshman were excluded from this study. Variables of gender identification, sexual orientation, ethnicity, the type of high school attended (public, private, parochial, home), experiences with sexual assault (victim or perpetrator), and sexual education received (reproductive and sexual health, consent, sexual relationships, gender roles) were all tested for significant differences in attitudes endorsed and sexual assault identification between the different categories within each variable (for example, testing the differences in attitudes endorsed between male and female participants). Demographic characteristics of the participant pool are detailed in the Table 3.2.

Table 3.2.
Demographic characteristics of the participants

Gender, n (%)	(n=545)
Male	202 (36.7)
Female	341 (61.9)
Other	2 (.4)
Race/ethnicity, n (%)	(n=551)
Asian	76 (13.8)
Asian Indian	15 (2.7)
Black	58 (10.5)
Latino	31 (5.6)
Native American	4 (.7)
Pacific Islander	6 (1.1)
White	386 (70.1)

Table 3.2., continued

Other	16 (2.9)
Sexual Orientation, <i>n</i> (%)	(<i>n</i> =548)
Asexual	28 (5.1)
Bisexual	36 (6.5)
Heterosexual	436 (79.1)
Homosexual	17 (3.1)
Pansexual	13 (2.4)
Unsure	16 (2.9)
Other	2 (.4)
Type of high school attended, <i>n</i> (%)	(<i>n</i> =551)
Home	6 (1.1)
Private Parochial	61 (11.1)
Private Secular	16 (2.9)
Public	453 (82.2)
Public Charter	15 (2.7)
Victim of sexual assault, <i>n</i> (%)	(<i>n</i> =550)
Yes	53 (9.6)
No	445 (80.9)
Unsure	52 (9.5)
Perpetrator of sexual assault, <i>n</i> (%)	(<i>n</i> =550)
Yes	5 (.9)
No	536 (97.5)
Unsure	9 (1.6)
Formal sexual education content received, <i>n</i> (%)	(<i>n</i> =551)
Consent	345 (62.6)
Gender roles	213 (38.7)
Reproductive health	485 (88)
Sexual health	463 (83)
Sexuality	237 (43)
Sexual relationships	336 (61)

Table 3.2., continued

Informal sexual education content received from an adult, <i>n</i> (%)	(<i>n</i>=551)
Consent	289 (52.5)
Gender roles	212 (38.5)
Reproductive health	330 (59.9)
Sexual health	343 (62.3)
Sexuality	234 (42.5)
Sexual relationships	356 (64.6)

Procedure

Participants were invited to participate in the survey, administered by Qualtrics, via an email that I sent. The survey was available online for about six weeks at the end of the Fall 2015 semester. The initial email invitation to participate was sent to 5,332 Freshman student email addresses, and a reminder email was sent four weeks later. Once started, participants had 72 hours to complete the survey. This survey first explained the purpose of the study, the anonymity of the participants' responses, and the survey directions. In addition, the directions included a trigger warning to inform the potential participant of the content of the surveys, as well as information to seek out support in discussing and/or reporting a sexual assault. The same information for reporting and seeking emotional support was provided on each page of the survey. The university used in this study requires first-year students to attend a New Student Orientation program prior to starting their courses, and one portion of this program focuses on presenting education on identifying and reporting sexual assault, as well as giving and receiving sexual consent. Therefore, all students have been provided with definitions of sexual assault and consent prior to taking this survey.

The demographic questions and sexual assault vignettes were presented first, followed by the Type T scale and then the updated IRMA. The items on the updated IRMA were randomized

to control for any influence from the order of survey items, and the Type T scale was presented in the same order it was presented in previous research. The vignette order was randomized, and then presented in the same order for all participants. Once students progressed from the sexual assault vignettes to the Type T scale, they were not be able to go back and change their responses to any vignettes.

As an incentive, students who participated in the survey, and those who were not eligible, were given the option to provide their email address and be entered into a raffle to receive a gift card reward. The end of the survey displayed a link to a separate webpage to submit email addresses, to ensure no identifying information was linked to student responses. The five winners of a \$20 Amazon gift card were notified via the email address they provided in January 2016 of their receipt of the gift card.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

First-Year Students' Endorsement of Attitudes Supportive of Sexual Assault

To explore the extent to which first-year college freshmen endorse attitudes that are supportive of sexual assault, the distributions of the responses to the 22 items from the updated IRMA were examined. The frequency and means of responses to the items are presented in Table 4.1 in rank order of the means.

Table 4.1
Frequency and mean responses to IRMA items in rank order

	1=Strongly Disagree n(%)	2=Disagree n(%)	3=Agree n(%)	4=Strongly Agree n(%)	M
16. If the accused "rapist" doesn't have a weapon, you really can't call it rape.	477(86.6)	61(11.1)	6(1.1)	1(.2)	1.14
15. A rape probably doesn't happen if a girl doesn't have any bruises or marks.	435(78.9)	101(18.3)	7(1.3)	2(.4)	1.22
14. If a girl doesn't physically fight back, you can't really say it was rape.	411(74.6)	121(22)	11(2)	2(.4)	1.27
3. If a girl goes to a room along with a guy at a party, it is her own fault if she is raped.	360(65.3)	169(30.7)	11(2)	5(.9)	1.38
13. If a girl doesn't physically resist sex-even it protesting verbally- it can't be considered rape.	361(65.5)	144(26.1)	27(4.9)	13(2.4)	1.43
12. It shouldn't be considered rape if a guy is drunk and didn't realize what he was doing.	283(51.4)	217(39.4)	37(6.7)	7(1.3)	1.57
17. If a girl doesn't say "no" she can't claim rape.	292(53)	195(35.4)	45(8.2)	12(2.2)	1.59
11. It shouldn't be considered rape if a guy is drunk and didn't realize what he was doing.	270(49)	227(41.2)	39(7.1)	8(1.5)	1.60

Table 4.1., continued

2. When girls go to parties wearing slutty clothes, they are asking for trouble.	298(54.1)	162(29.4)	74(13.4)	11(2)	1.63
1. If a girl is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of hand.	282(51.2)	168(30.5)	84(15.2)	11(2)	1.68
5. When girls are raped, it's often because the way they said "no" was unclear.	246(44.6)	210(38.1)	80(14.5)	8(1.5)	1.72
19. Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at guys.	195(35.4)	222(40.3)	113(20.5)	14(2.5)	1.90
9. Rape happens when a guy's sex drive goes out of control.	215(39)	177(32.1)	129(23.4)	20(3.6)	1.91
20. A lot of times, girls who say they were raped often led the guy on and then had regrets.	186(33.8)	230(41.7)	114(20.7)	15(2.7)	1.92
21. A lot of time, girls who claim they were raped have emotional problems.	192(34.8)	203(36.8)	132(24)	18(3.3)	1.96
18. A lot of times girls who say they are raped agreed to have sex and then regret it.	168(30.5)	238(43.2)	121(22)	18(3.3)	1.98
6. If a girl initiates kissing or hooking up, she should not be surprised if a guy assumes she wants to have sex.	195(35.4)	180(32.7)	145(26.3)	25(4.5)	2.00
4. If a girls acts like a slut, eventually she is going to get into trouble.	201(36.5)	133(24.1)	181(32.8)	30(5.4)	2.07
7. When guys rape, it is usually because of their strong desire for sex.	152(27.6)	174(31.6)	183(33.2)	35(6.4)	2.19
22. Girls who are caught cheating on their boyfriends sometimes claim it was rape.	128(23.3)	196(35.6)	205(37.2)	15(2.7)	2.20
8. Guys don't usually intend to force sex on a girl, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.	123(22.3)	180(32.7)	225(40.8)	17(3.1)	2.25
10. If a guy is drunk, he might rape someone unintentionally.	125(22.7)	139(25.2)	259(47)	21(3.8)	2.32

As shown in Table 4.1, a greater percentage of freshmen responded to IRMA items as “strongly disagree” or “disagree” than “agree” or “strongly agree.” If the criterion of a mean of 2 or above is used as the cut point, the table shows that there are six items with this mean or higher: *if a girl initiates kissing or hooking up, she should not be surprised if a guy assumes she wants to have sex* ($M = 2$), *if a girls acts like a slut, eventually she is going to get into trouble* ($M = 2.07$), *when guys rape, it is usually because of their strong desire for sex* ($M = 2.19$), *girls who are caught cheating on their boyfriends sometimes claim it was rape* ($M = 2.2$), *guys don’t usually intend to force sex on a girl, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away* ($M = 2.25$), and *if a guy is drunk, he might rape someone unintentionally* ($M = 2.32$).

Each participant’s average rating of all 22 updated IRMA items was also explored. Thirty-four percent ($n=189$) of participants had an average rating of 2 or higher, 5.26% ($n=29$) of participants had an average rating of 2.5 or higher, and 0.6% ($n=3$) of participants having an overall average rating of 3 or higher. The frequency distribution of the IRMA overall average rating is shown in table 4.2.

Table 4.2
Frequency distribution of average total IRMA ratings

Range	%	<i>n</i>
1.0 – 1.49	31.4	173
1.5 – 1.9	34.3	189
2.0 – 2.49	29.0	160
2.5 – 2.9	4.7	26
3.0 – 3.49	.4	2
3.5 – 4.0	.2	1
Total	100	551

Each participant’s average ratings for each of the five updated IRMA attitudes were also calculated. The distribution of ratings for each subscale is presented below in table 4.3.

Table 4.3
Frequency distribution of average IRMA attitudes ratings

Range	Attitude									
	<i>She Asked For It</i>		<i>He Didn't Mean To</i>		<i>He Didn't Mean To (Alcohol)</i>		<i>It Wasn't Really Rape</i>		<i>She Lied</i>	
	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>
1.0 – 1.49	39.8	217	15.2	82	30.2	164	70.6	385	27.1	147
1.5 – 1.9	22.7	124	17.6	96	21.7	118	18.5	101	17.3	94
2.0 – 2.49	21.3	116	25	135	38.5	209	9.4	51	32.7	178
2.5 – 2.9	12.7	69	28.5	154	4.8	26	.9	5	13.1	71
3.0 – 3.49	2.8	15	11.7	63	3.9	21	.4	2	8.7	47
3.5 – 4.0	.7	4	2	11	.9	5	.2	1	1.1	6
Total	100	545	100	541	100	543	100	545	100	543

If an average of 2 or higher is the criterion for endorsing an attitude to some extent, 37.4% of the responses indicated an endorsement of the *She Asked For It* attitude, 67.1% of responses endorsed the *He Didn't Mean To* attitude, 48.1% of responses endorsed the *He Didn't Mean To (Alcohol)* attitude, 10.8% of the responses endorsed the *It Wasn't Really Rape* attitude, and 55.6% of the responses endorsed the *She Lied* attitude.

Demographics Related to Sexual Assault Supportive Attitudes

To investigate the potential relationship between the demographic variables and attitudes endorsed on the IRMA, Pearson product moment correlations were computed with the variables for which this analysis is appropriate (i.e., interval scales or dichotomous variables). The demographic variables analyzed this way consisted of age, gender (1 = male, 2 = female), high school type (1 = non-public and other, 2 = public), and sexual education received in formal education settings and from adults. Participants' mean rating of each IRMA attitude were calculated, using the attitudes from the original updated IRMA study (*She Asked for It*, *He Didn't Mean To*, *He Didn't Mean To (Alcohol)*, *It Wasn't Really Rape*, and *She Lied*).

None of the correlations with age were significant, due in large part because there is almost no variability in age since all of the respondents are freshmen. There were significant correlations with gender and high school type. Gender was significantly negatively correlated with the attitudes of *She Asked for It*, *He Didn't Mean To*, *He Didn't Mean To (Alcohol)*, *It Wasn't Really Rape*, *She Lied*, and with the total IRMA average rating. Since gender was scored as males = 1 and females = 2, the negative correlations indicate that males more strongly endorse the rape myth attitudes as compared to females.

The type of high school participants attended was significantly negatively correlated with *She Asked for It*, *He Didn't Mean To*, *It Wasn't Really Rape*, *She Lied*, and with the total IRMA average rating. Negative correlations in this case indicate that students in public schools endorse the attitudes less than students in non-public schools.

Table 4.4
Pearson correlation coefficients of gender and high school type with average IRMA attitude rating

Attitude	Gender	High School
<i>She Asked For It</i>	-.294**	-.135**
<i>He Didn't Mean To</i>	-.160**	-.088*
<i>He didn't Mean to (Alcohol)</i>	-.183**	-.053
<i>It Wasn't Really Rape</i>	-.201**	-.112**
<i>She Lied</i>	-.301**	-.085*
Total IRMA	-.302**	-.121**

** $p < .01$

* $p < .05$

Pearson product-moment correlations were run to assess the relationship between types of sexual education received and average IRMA attitude ratings. The sexual education variables were coded as 1 = Received the Education and 2 = Did Not Receive the Education. The types of sexual education include consent, gender roles, reproductive health, sexual health, sexuality, and

sexual relationships, received in a formal education setting (denoted by SEXED) or from an adult (denoted by ADULT) during the participant’s high school years. Education on gender roles in a formal education setting was significantly correlated with the attitudes of *She Asked for It*, *He Didn’t Mean To*, *It Wasn’t Really Rape*, and *She Lied*; education on sexual health in a formal education setting was significantly related to the attitude of *She Asked for It*; education on sexuality in a formal education setting was significantly related to the attitude of *She Lied*; education on reproductive health from an adult was significantly related to the attitudes of *She Asked for It* and *It Wasn’t Really Rape*; education on sexual health from an adult was significantly related to the attitude of *It Wasn’t Really Rape*; and education on sexuality from an adult was significantly related to the attitude of *He Didn’t Mean It*.

Table 4.5
Pearson correlation coefficient of sex education received and IRMA attitudes

	She Asked for It	He Didn’t Mean To	He Didn’t Mean To (Alcohol)	It Wasn’t Really Rape	She Lied
SEXED Consent	-.019	.007	.035	-.019	.028
SEXED Gender Roles	.153**	.118**	.047	.100*	.142**
SEXED Reproductive Health	.005	-.014	.008	.005	.013
SEXED Sexual Health	-.089*	-.064	-.008	-.082	-.036
SEXED Sexuality	.059	.067	.048	.026	.098*
SEXED Sexual Relationships	.000	.009	.003	-.025	.037
ADULT Consent	-.026	-.019	-.013	-.047	.005
ADULT Gender Roles	-.026	-.022	-.030	-.055	-.019
ADULT Reproductive Health	-.119**	-.052	-.017	-.096*	-.067
ADULT Sexual Health	-.078	-.077	-.002	-.084*	-.050
ADULT Sexuality	-.059	-.113**	-.009	-.066	-.074
ADULT Sexual Relationships	-.049	-.027	.013	-.067	.001

**p < .01

*p < .05

The sexual orientation and ethnicity demographics were transformed due to small group sizes. The result was four sexual orientation groups: Asexual ($n=28$), Bisexual ($n=34$), Heterosexual ($n=426$), Homosexual (16), and Other ($n=34$) which is comprised of those who identified as Pansexual, Homosexual, Unsure, and Other; and four ethnicity groups: African American ($n=54$), Asian ($n=77$), Latino ($n=20$), and White ($n=381$).

To examine the relationship between ethnicity and average IRMA attitude ratings, a four-group discriminant function analyses were conducted. Results revealed two significant functions, Wilks' $\Lambda = .917$, $\chi^2 = 45.03$, $p < .001$ for functions 1 and Wilks' $\Lambda = .966$, $\chi^2 = 18.021$, $p = .021$ for function 2. Function 1, which consists of *She Asked for It*, *She Lied*, and *It Wasn't Really Rape*, discriminates between Asian students and the other ethnic groups. Function 2, which consists of *He Didn't Mean To (Alcohol)* and *He Didn't Mean To* discriminates primarily between Latino students and the other ethnic groups. The means for the five attitudes of the IRMA are presented in Table 4.6 and the results of the discriminant analysis in Tables 4.7 and 4.8.

Table 4.6
Means and standard deviations for ethnicity and IRMA attitudes

Ethnicity	She Asked For It		He Didn't Mean To		He Didn't Mean To (Alcohol)		It Wasn't Really Rape		She Lied	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
African American ($n=54$)	10.34	3.37	6.47	2.02	5.38	2.03	6.3	1.86	9.32	2.78
Asian ($n=77$)	12.04	3.7	7.07	2.16	5.57	1.68	7.4	2.4	11.25	3.23
Latino ($n=20$)	9.1	3.71	5.2	1.78	4.26	1.52	6.16	2.19	8.84	2.73
White ($n=381$)	10.23	3.38	6.25	2.11	5.53	1.72	6.58	2.03	9.85	3.33

Table 4.7
Structure matrix of IRMA attitudes

Attitude	Function		
	1	2	3
She Asked For It	.832*	.396	.029
She Lied	.704*	.314	.529
It Wasn't Really Rape	.632*	.191	.431
He Didn't Mean To (Alcohol)	.099	.880*	.341
He Didn't Mean To	.623	.635*	-.159

Table 4.8
Functions at Group Centroids

Ethnicity	Function		
	1	2	3
African American	-.066	.073	-.331
Asian	.559	-.007	.011
Latino	-.115	-.758	-.052
White	-.098	.030	.047

Unstandardized canonical discriminant functions evaluated at group means

To examine the relationship between sexual orientation and average IRMA attitude ratings, a five-group discriminant function analyses was conducted. The omnibus test was marginally significant, Wilks' $\Lambda = .904$, $p = .035$, $\eta^2 = .015$. The means are presented in Table 4.9 and the results from the discriminant function analysis are contained in Table 4.10 and 4.11.

Table 4.9

Means and standard deviations for sexual orientation and IRMA attitudes

Sexuality	She Asked For It		He Didn't Mean To		He Didn't Mean To (Alcohol)		It Wasn't Really Rape		She Lied	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Asexual (<i>n</i> =28)	11.54	4.11	6.86	2.24	5.86	1.96	7.61	2.95	10.5	3.57
Bisexual (<i>n</i> =34)	8.79	2.63	5.86	2.03	5.53	2.51	6.21	1.68	8.74	3.33
Heterosexual (<i>n</i> =426)	10.66	3.39	6.45	2.08	5.52	1.66	6.69	1.97	10.13	3.25
Homosexual (<i>n</i> =16)	9.19	2.64	6.06	1.65	5.06	1.73	5.5	1.03	9.19	2.54
Other (<i>n</i> =34)	10.46	4.29	5.59	2.52	4.88	1.95	6.26	2.84	8.79	3.44

Table 4.10

Structure matrix of IRMA attitudes

Attitude	Function			
	1	2	3	4
She Asked For It	.947*	.001	.150	-.176
She Lied	.736*	-.170	.346	-.378
It Wasn't Really Rape	.700*	-.117	.423	.537
He Didn't Mean To (Alcohol)	.697*	.686	.067	-.100
He Didn't Mean To	.354	.305	.840*	-.151

Table 4.11

Functions at Group Centroids

Ethnicity	Function			
	1	2	3	4
Asexual	.347	.339	-.004	.073
Bisexual	-.541	.221	.176	-.008
Heterosexual	.060	-.031	.009	-.008
Homosexual	-.376	-.414	.043	.111
Other	-.319	.085	-.305	-.001

Unstandardized canonical discriminant functions evaluated at group means

Overall, the results in the above tables demonstrate that students who identified as asexual have higher means on all of the scales of the IRMA. Thus, these students more strongly endorse the rape myths measured by the updated IRMA.

Attitudes Supportive of Sexual Assault Significantly Related to Identification of Sexual Assault

Pearson product-moment correlations were conducted to assess the relationship between attitudes that are supportive of sexual assault and correctly or incorrectly identifying sexual assault. A total percent correct score across all of the scenarios was computed and correlated with the five scales from the IRMA. There was a significant negative correlation between participants' percent correct and their average rating for each of the attitudes.

Table 4.12
Correlations of IRMA attitudes and correct sexual assault identification

	She Asked for It	He Didn't Mean To	He Didn't Mean To (Alcohol)	It Wasn't Really Rape	She Lied
Percent Correct	-.378**	-.241**	-.239**	-.303**	-.321**

** $p < 0.001$

The correlations in Table 4.12 indicate that, as would be expected, students who more strongly accept the myths about sexual assault are less correct in identifying incidences of sexual assault.

Demographics Significantly Related to Misidentification of Sexual Assault

To investigate the difference in gender of accurately identifying an instance of sexual assault, an independent t-test was conducted using gender and the percent correct of sexual assault vignettes correctly identified by participants. Engagement scores for each level of gender were normally distributed, as assessed by examination of Normal Q-Q plots, but the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances

($p < .001$). The results suggest that males had lower percentages of correctly identifying instances of sexual assault from the vignettes provided in the study ($M=.78$, $SD=.17$) compared to females ($M=.83$, $SD=.14$), a statistically significant difference, $M = -.05$, 95%CI [-.08, -.02], $t(356.16) = -3.291$, $p = .001$.

Table 4.13
Mean gender scores of correct sexual assault identification

GENDER	N	M	SD
Male	200	.7814	.17390
Female	337	.8292	.14271

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if correctly identifying instances of sexual assaults from the vignettes provided was different among sexual orientation groups. There were no outliers, as assessed by boxplot; data were normally distributed for each group, as assessed by as assessed by examination of Normal Q-Q plots, and there was homogeneity of variances, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances ($p = .654$). Results revealed the differences between sexual orientation groups were not statistically significant, $F(3, 541) = 2.347$, $p = .072$.

Table 4.14
One-way analysis of variance for the effect of sexual orientation on identification of sexual assault

	SS	MS	F(3, 541)	p	η^2
Sexual Orientation	.170	.057	1.2.347	.072	.013

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if correctly identifying instances of sexual assaults from the vignettes provided was different among ethnicity groups. The data were normally distributed for each group, as assessed by as assessed by examination of Normal Q-Q plots, but the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated, as assessed by Levene's test

for equality of variances ($p = .017$). Results revealed the differences between ethnic groups were not statistically significant, $F(4, 540) = 1.736, p = .141$.

Table 4.15

One-way analysis of variance for the effect of ethnicity on identification of sexual assault

	SS	MS	$F(3, 541)$	p	η^2
Ethnicity	.168	.042	1.736	.141	.013

An independent-samples t-test was run to determine if there were differences in identification of sexual assault scenarios between public and non-public high school placements. Engagement scores for each level of high school type were normally distributed, as assessed by examination of Normal Q-Q plots, but the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances ($p = .011$). Participants who attended public school were more able to correctly identify sexual assault ($M = .82, SD = 0.15$) than those who attended a non-public school ($M = .76, SD = 0.18$), a statistically significant difference, $M = 0.06, 95\% CI [0.02, 0.1], t(101.44) = 2.902, p = .005$.

Table 4.16

Mean high school type scores of correct sexual assault identification

High School Type	n	M	SD
Public	464	.8213	.151
Non-public	81	.761	.176

Attitudes Supportive of Sexual Assault and Demographics Significantly Related to the Decision to not Report a Sexual Assault Situation

Pearson product-moment correlations were run to assess the relationship between the five IRMA attitudes and participants' decision to report a scenario they perceived as sexual assault. There was a significant positive correlation between *She Asked For It* and the decision to

report in scenarios with *Kelly, Alex, Cody, Ray, and Jamie*. There was a positive correlation between *He Didn't Mean To* and the decision to report in the scenarios with *Kelly and Jamie*. There was a significant correlation between *He Didn't Mean to (Alcohol)* and the decision to report in the scenarios with *Kelly, Jamie, and Kris*. There was a significant correlation between *It Wasn't Really Rape* and the decision to report in the scenarios with *Kelly, Cody, Jamie, Kris, and Casey*. *She Lied* was significantly correlated with the decision to report in the scenarios with *Kelly, Alex, Cody, Ray, Jamie, and Kris*.

Table 4.17
Pearson correlations for IRMA attitudes and decision to report a perceived sexual assault

Vignette	He Didn't Mean He Didn't Mean It Wasn't Really				
	She Asked for It	To	To (Alcohol)	Rape	She Lied
Kelly Report	.139**	.118**	.124**	.112*	.145**
Andy Report	-.046	-.035	.062	.007	-.006
Rory Report	-.009	-.004	.030	.004	.038
Alex Report	.142**	.079	.008	.028	.108*
Cody Report	.099*	.068	.040	.111*	.101*
Ray Report	.103*	.000	.092	.055	.101*
Shay Report	.060	.081	.217	-.023	.086
Taylor Report	.074	-.009	.029	.030	.047
Jamie Report	.211**	.122*	.166**	.130*	.221**
Kris Report	.080	.022	.108*	.100*	.114*
Casey Report	-.140	-.237	-.182	-.275*	-.026

** $p < .001$

* $p < 0.05$

As the decision to report answers were coded as 1 = yes and 2 = no, the positive correlations in Table 4.17 indicate participants who responded they would not report a perceived sexual assault were more likely to endorse the significantly correlated attitudes.

A chi-square test for association was conducted between gender and the decision to report a perceived sexual assault with each of the sexual assault vignettes. There were four cells

with frequencies less than five. There was a statistically significant association between gender and the decision to report for the *Andy* vignette, $\chi^2(1) = 6.763, p = .009$. There was a moderate association between gender and the decision to report, $\phi = 0.118, p = .009$.

Table 4.18
Crosstabulation of gender and decision to report in Andy vignette

Gender	Decision to Report		χ^2	ϕ
	Yes	No		
Male	109	67	6.763*	.118
Female	152	154		

*= $p < .05$

A chi-square test for association was conducted between sexual orientation and the decision to report a perceived sexual assault with each of the sexual assault vignettes. There were no significant differences in decisions to report among the different sexual orientation groups.

A chi-square test for association was conducted between ethnicity and the decision to report a perceived sexual assault with each of the sexual assault vignettes. There were two cells with frequencies less than five. There was a statistically significant association between ethnicity and the decision to report for the *Andy* vignette, $\chi^2(4) = 11.981, p = .017$, and for the *Rory* vignette, $\chi^2(4) = 11.274, p = .024$.

Table 4.19
Crosstabulation of ethnicity and decision to report in Andy vignette

Ethnicity	Decision to Report		χ^2
	Yes	No	
African American	27	23	11.981*
Asian	50	21	
Latino	10	9	
White	165	165	

*= $p < .05$

Table 4.20
Crosstabulation of ethnicity and decision to report in Rory vignette

Ethnicity	Decision to Report		χ^2
	Yes	No	
African American	37	7	11.274*
Asian	57	3	
Latino	11	5	
White	247	69	

*= $p < .05$

Common Themes why Students would not Report a Sexual Assault Situation

A qualitative content analysis was conducted on the reasoning participants provided as to why they would not report an incident they reported qualified as sexual assault. The analysis resulted in the following themes of reasoning: the victim is as much to blame as the perpetrator or they should have known better, the behavior was not illegal, there is not enough evidence or information to make a decision to report the incident, if the victim feels they have been assaulted then they can make a report, the incident was not serious enough to report (there was no intercourse or rape, no one was harmed, or making a report would be excessive), the victim did not say “no” or was not assertive enough, authorities would not do anything or take the incident seriously enough, if all parties involved are drinking no one is at fault, the victim should talk with the perpetrator first before deciding to report, the incident is not necessarily sexual assault since it occurred in a romantic relationship, reporting isn’t worth the extra emotional turmoil for the victim, and the perpetrator does not know any better. The frequencies of these reasons given are listed below, separated by the sexual assault vignette in which the reason was provided.

Table 4.21

Frequency of reasons for not reporting sexual assault vignettes

	Kelly <i>n</i> =60	Andy <i>n</i> =204	Rory/ Jalen <i>n</i> =73	Alex/ Noel <i>n</i> =62	Cody/ Danni <i>n</i> =24	Ray/ Morgan <i>n</i> =14	Shay/ Jessie <i>n</i> =3	Taylor <i>n</i> =20	Jamie/ Morgan <i>n</i> =76	Kris/ Kerry <i>n</i> =10	Casey/ Evan <i>n</i> =12
Victim blaming	8		1	6	2	4		5	9	3	2
Not illegal		5				5				2	
Not enough info	19	1	5	1		1		2	1		1
Depends on victim's feelings	9	10	15	4	6	1		4	5	1	4
Not serious enough	2	156	24	3	4	2	1	2	1	1	1
Didn't say no, not assertive		16	14	39	6		2		14		
Authorities won't do anything	1	12	1	1	3	1		1	3		
Not at fault if everyone's drinking	5				2			5			4
Talk to perpetrator first	15		9	5	1				24	3	
Not in a relationship			1	3					14		
Reporting causes too much turmoil		1						1	3		
Perpetrator doesn't know better	1	3	3						2		

Relationship between Type T Personality and Bystander Intervention

A principal components analysis (PCA) was run on the 7-question questionnaire that measured the Type T personality. The suitability of PCA was assessed prior to analysis.

Inspection of the correlation matrix showed that all variables had at least one correlation coefficient greater than 0.3. The overall Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure was 0.83 with individual KMO measures all greater than 0.7, classifications of 'middling' to 'meritorious' according to Kaiser (1974). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was statistically significant ($p < .001$), indicating that the data were likely factorizable. PCA revealed two components had eigenvalues greater than one and which explained 66.2% of the total variance. In addition, a two-component solution met the interpretability criterion. As such, two components were retained, and they are labeled as T-General and T-Mental.

Table 4.22
Factor loadings for exploratory factor analysis of the Type T items

	Factor 1 T- General	Factor 2 T-Mental	Communalities
I am an excitement-seeker/thrill-seeker.	.887		.549
My friends would call me a thrill-seeker.	.863		.788
I would like to have as many exciting experiences as possible.	.735		.769
I am a risk taker.	.703	.372	.633
I enjoy taking physical risks.	.677	.303	.609
I enjoy taking mental chances or risks.		.856	.550
I like to have discussions with people who have different ideas.	.356	.694	.733

A Pearson's product-moment correlation was run to assess the relationship between type T personality and the extent to which participants indicated they would intervene in the *Taylor* sexual assault vignette. There was no significant correlation between level of type T-General endorsement and the extent to which a person reported they would intervene, $r(541) = -.075$, $p = .08$, nor between level of type T-Mental endorsement and intent to intervene, $r(541) = -.02$, $p = .649$.

To investigate a possible relationship between Type-T personality and sexual assault-supportive attitudes, a Pearson product moment correlation was computed with the two Type-T personality factors the five updated IRMA attitudes. The Type T-General personality was significantly positively correlated with the *She Lied* attitude, indicating those who endorse a more risk-taking personality in general have higher endorsement of this attitude. The Type T-Mental personality was significantly negatively correlated with the *She Asked for It* attitude and significantly positively correlated with the *She Lied* attitude, indicating that those who more highly endorse enjoying taking mental chances and having discussions with those who have ideas different from theirs have less endorsement of the *She Asked for It* attitude and more endorsement of the *She Lied* attitude.

Table 4.23
Correlations of IRMA attitudes Type T personality factors

		<i>He Didn't Mean She Asked For It To</i>	<i>He Didn't Mean To Alcohol</i>	<i>It Wasn't Really Rape</i>	<i>She Lied</i>
<i>Type T-General</i>	.003	.04	.028	.025	.112*
<i>Type T-Mental</i>	-.088*	-.062	-.036	-.08	.016

* $p < .05$

Factor Analysis of the updated Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale

To explore the underlying factor structure of the updated IRMA with the responses of this study, principal components analysis (PCA) with an oblimin rotation of the 22 updated IRMA items was conducted on data gathered from 551 participants. To determine if the items were factorable, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy, a test to determine whether the partial correlations among variables are small, and Bartlett's test of sphericity, a test to

examine the hypothesis that the variables are uncorrelated, were conducted. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .930, above the recommended value of .5. Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 (231) = 5615.157, p < .001$) indicating that the updated IRMA items were correlated. Principal components analysis was used because the primary purpose was to identify and compute composite multicultural competence scores for the factors underlying the questionnaire items. There were four factors with eigenvalues greater than one. The initial eigenvalues showed that the first factor explained 39% of the variance, the second factor 8% of the variance, the third factor 6% of the variance, and the fourth factor 5% of the variance. The four-factor solution, which explained 59% of the variance, was preferred because of the leveling off of eigenvalues on the scree plot after four factors, the insufficient number of primary loadings on the other factors, and the difficulty of interpreting the fifth and subsequent factors. All items had primary factor loadings over .38 with no cross-loadings. The factor-loading matrix for this final solution is presented in Table 4.23.

Table 4.24

Factor loadings for exploratory factor analysis of the updated IRMA items

	Factor 1 She Lied	Factor 2 It Wasn't Really Rape	Factor 3 He Didn't Mean To	Factor 4 He was Drunk & Didn't Realize	Communalities
A lot of times, girls who say they were raped agreed to have sex and then regret it.	.805	.211	.158		.726
Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at guys.	.786	.204	.181	.128	.681
A lot of times, girls who say they were raped often led the guy on and then had regrets.	.743	.265	.245	.132	.699
Girls who are caught cheating on their boyfriends sometimes claim it was rape.	.730	.140	.105	.112	.576
A lot of times, girls who claim they were raped have emotional problems.	.581	.196	.256		.444

Table 4.24., continued

When girls get raped, it's often because the way they said "no" was unclear.	.542	.127	.129	.239	.383
If a girl acts like a slut, eventually she is going to get into trouble.	.505	.343	.476		.601
If a girl initiates kissing or hooking up, she should not be surprised if a guy assumes she wants to have sex.	.388	.303	.350	.250	.427
A rape probably doesn't happen if a girl doesn't have any bruises or marks.	.167	.780		.163	.668
If a girl doesn't physically fight back, you can't really say it was rape.	.186	.779		.100	.662
If the accused "rapist" doesn't have a weapon, you really can't call it rape.		.734		.170	.571
If a girl goes to a room alone with a guy at a party, it is her own fault if she is raped.	.239	.670	.253		.577
If a girl doesn't physically resist sex — even if protesting verbally — it can't be considered rape.	.263	.531	.134	.110	.381
If a girl doesn't say "no" she can't claim rape.	.260	.519	.237	.205	.434
If a girl is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of hand	.444	.480	.279	.139	.524
When guys rape, it is usually because of their strong desire for sex.	.185	.148	.770		.650
Rape happens when a guy's sex drive goes out of control.	.159	.217	.762		.653
Guys don't usually intend to force sex on a girl, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.	.390		.562	.302	.559
If a guy is drunk, he might rape someone unintentionally.	.180		.527	.442	.506
When girls go to parties wearing slutty clothes, they are asking for trouble.	.378	.435	.469		.556
It shouldn't be considered rape if a guy is drunk and didn't realize what he was doing.	.167	.303		.834	.820
It shouldn't be considered rape if a guy is drunk and didn't realize what he was doing.	.198	.320		.814	.811

Note. Factor loadings >.40 are in boldface. Factor loadings <.10 are suppressed.

The factor labels proposed for each factor are as follows: Factor 1 = She Lied, Factor 2 = It Wasn't Really Rape, Factor 3 = He Didn't Mean to, and Factor 4 = He was Drunk and Didn't Realize. Internal consistency for each of the scales was examined using Cronbach's alpha. The alphas were moderate to strong: .872 for She Lied (8 items), .829 for It Wasn't Really Rape (7 items), .770 for He Didn't Mean To (5 items), and .876 for He was Drunk and Didn't Realize (2 items). This factor structure differs from the original study's five factors. However, in this study one of the original 22 items was repeated (*It shouldn't be considered rape if a guy is drunk and didn't realize what he was doing*) and another was left out (*If both people are drunk, it can't be rape*). This change in survey questions likely affected the resulting factor structure, leading me to use the original factor structure for analysis.

Additional Analysis

To investigate the potential relationship between being a victim of sexual assault (1 = yes, 2 = no) and being a perpetrator of sexual assault (1= yes, 2 = no) with attitudes endorsed on the IRMA, Pearson product-moment correlations were computed. Being a victim of sexual assault was significantly correlated with the attitudes of *She Asked for It*, $p = .009$; *It Wasn't Really Rape*, $p = .036$; and *She Lied*, $p = .04$.

Table 4.25
Correlations of sexual assault victim and perpetrator response with average IRMA attitude rating

Attitude	Sexual Assault Victim	Sexual Assault Perpetrator
<i>She Asked For It</i>	.112**	.004
<i>He Didn't Mean To</i>	.070	-.025
<i>He didn't Mean to (Alcohol)</i>	.055	-.017
<i>It Wasn't Really Rape</i>	.090*	-.024
<i>She Lied</i>	.088*	.004
Total IRMA	-.052	-.029

Table 4.25., continued

** $p < .01$

* $p < .05$

Positive correlations in this case indicate participants who reported being a victim of sexual assault endorsed attitudes less than those who reported not being a victim. Being a perpetrator of sexual assault was not significantly correlated with any attitudes.

As there was a significant difference between male and female percent correct of identifying instances of sexual assault, each vignette was examined separately. Pearson correlations were computed for gender (1 = male, 2 = female) and whether each vignette was correct (0 = incorrect, 1 = correct). There was a significant positive correlation between gender and correct identification within the *Ray* vignette, $r(537) = .112, p = .009$ and *Taylor* vignette, $r(536) = .181, p < .001$.

In addition to responses to the vignettes, the relationship between gender and the extent to which a person would intervene was also investigated with a Pearson product-moment correlation analysis. There was a significant positive correlation between gender and the extent to which a person would intervene, $r(537) = .267, p < .001$. This indicates females were more likely to intervene at a higher degree than males.

A Pearson product-moment correlation was computed to examine the relationship between the IRMA attitudes and the vignette factors. The vignettes depicting a picture being distributed without consent were significantly correlated with the *He Didn't Mean To* attitude, the vignettes depicting no explicit consent were significantly correlated with each of the attitudes, and the vignettes not depicting sexual assault were not significantly correlated with any of the attitudes.

Table 4.26

Correlations of IRMA attitudes and vignette types

	<i>She Asked For It</i>	<i>He Didn't Mean To</i>	<i>He Didn't Mean To Alcohol</i>	<i>It Wasn't Really Rape</i>	<i>She Lied</i>
<i>Picture No Consent</i>	.064	.042	.110*	-.026	.045
<i>No Explicit Consent</i>	.324**	.215**	.165**	.250**	.280**
<i>Alcohol-Involved No Consent</i>	.181**	.136**	.133**	.127**	.212**
<i>Not Sexual Assault</i>	.024	.069	-.018	-.041	.029

** $p < .001$ * $p < .05$

The correlations in Table 4.25 indicate those who had a higher endorsement of IRMA attitudes were more likely to report that situations in which no verbalized consent is given, including when alcohol was involved, did not constitute sexual assault.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The primary objectives of this study were to examine college freshmen's attitudes about sexual assault, their ability to identify an incident of sexual assault, whether or not they would report an incident, and whether or not they would intervene in one particular incident. More specifically, the extent to which students endorse attitudes that are supportive of sexual assault, the relationship between attitudes and misidentification of sexual assault, demographics related to endorsing sexual assault-supportive attitudes, demographics related to the misidentification of sexual assault, demographics related to not reporting a perceived sexual assault, the reasons why students would not report a perceived sexual assault, and the relationship between previous sexual education topics and attitudes were examined for potential relationships. In addition, the type-T personality type was examined for a potential relationship with students' reported likelihood to intervene in a sexual assault scenario.

First-Year Students' Endorsement of Attitudes Supportive of Sexual Assault

The first research question focused on examining the extent to which students endorse attitudes, as measured by the updated IRMA, that are research-supported to be supportive of sexual assault. The results of the study show that 34.3% of students had overall average ratings on the IRMA higher than 2 (where 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, and 4 = strongly agree). This indicates that about a third of the college freshman surveyed did not completely disagree with the items on the IRMA, on average. In a further analysis of endorsement of the five different IRMA attitudes, as measured by an average rating of 2 or higher, results indicated that 37.4% of students endorsed the *She Asked For It* attitude, 67.1% of students endorsed the *He Didn't Mean To* attitude, 48.1% of students endorsed the *He Didn't*

Mean To (Alcohol) attitude, 10.8% of the students endorsed the *It Wasn't Really Rape* attitude, and 55.6% of the students endorsed the *She Lied* attitude. This is an alarming percentage of college freshmen that hold attitudes that dismiss, excuse, and ultimately support sexual assault occurring for one reason or another. These first-semester college students have received information on sexual assault, including giving and receiving consent, bystander intervention, and legal definitions of sexual assault during their mandatory orientation at the beginning of the semester and in an online module, which addresses scenarios of sexual assault much like those in this study, which is also mandatory for first-year students to complete. These results highlight the need for education on the complex issue of sexual assault to be addressed much earlier than a student's first year of college, as students are likely entering college with their attitudes already developed.

Demographics Related to Sexual Assault Supportive Attitudes, Identification, and Decision to Report

Gender, sexuality, ethnicity, high school type, and prior education on topics of sexual education were analyzed to investigate possible relationships to participants' sexual assault-supportive attitudes endorsed and the ability to identify sexual assault occurrences. There was a significant relationship between gender and ratings on each attitude scale, as well as the overall average IRMA rating, between gender and the percent of correctly identified sexual assault scenarios, and there was a significant difference in male and female participant's decision to report a perceived sexual assault in the *Andy* scenario. Male participants were significantly more likely to endorse each of the attitudes of the IRMA and they correctly identified significantly less incidents of sexual assault than female participants. Further analysis indicated males were less likely to correctly identify sexual assault in the *Ray* and *Taylor* vignettes specifically. In the scenario of *Andy*, in which a person is groped while dancing at a party, fewer males indicated

they would report an incident of perceived sexual assault than female participants. Additional analysis revealed there is also a significant relationship between gender and the extent to which a person would intervene in a group sexual assault situation (depicted in the *Taylor* scenario), with female's indicating they would intervene to a significantly higher degree.

In regards to sexuality, sexuality identification was significantly related to the endorsement of some attitudes. Discriminant function analysis revealed students who identify as Asexual had significantly higher endorsement of the *She Asked For It* and *She Lied* attitudes. Sexuality was not significantly related to correctly identifying incidents of sexual assault or the decision to report a perceived sexual assault.

Ethnicity was significantly related to the endorsement of some attitudes. Discriminant function analysis revealed students who identify as Asian had significantly higher endorsements on the *She Asked For It*, *It Wasn't Really Rape*, and *She Lied* attitudes, and students who identify as Latino had significantly lower endorsements of the *He Didn't Mean to* and *He Didn't Mean To (Alcohol)* attitudes. Ethnicity was not significantly related to correctly identifying incidents of sexual assault, but it was significantly related to the decision to not report a perceived sexual assault. Results revealed there was a significant association between a person's ethnicity and his or her decision to report sexual assault in the scenarios of *Andy*, in which a person is groped while dancing at a party, and *Rory*, in which a person is unexpectedly kissed by an unknown person. Overall, these results indicate prevention and intervention programs may want to take into consideration specific cultural norms that may be related to sexual assault-supportive attitudes. Non-western cultures with strict, traditional gender roles may contribute to accepted attitudes of victim-blaming and excusing sexual assault behaviors.

The type of high school that participants attended was revealed to be significantly related to attitudes and identification of sexual assault. Results revealed that students who attended public high schools had significantly lower endorsements of sexual assault-supportive attitudes, and they correctly identified a significantly higher number of sexual assault incidents compared to their peers who did not attend a public high school. The kind of sexual education students received while in high school was also significantly related to attitude endorsement. Pearson correlations revealed that students who reported not receiving formal sex education on gender roles had significantly higher endorsement of all IRMA attitudes except *He Didn't Mean To (Alcohol)*, those who endorsed receiving sexual health education were more likely to endorse the *She Asked for It* attitude, and those who did not receive education on sexuality were more likely to endorse the *She Lied* attitude. Correlations revealed that students who reported receiving education on the following topics from an adult in high school had significantly higher endorsement of the specified attitudes: reproductive health with *She Asked for It* and *It Wasn't Really Rape*, sexual health with *It Wasn't Really Rape*, and sexuality with *He Didn't Mean It*. These results indicate students who receive sexual education in high school may be less likely to endorse attitudes that are supportive of sexual assault. It appears that receiving education on gender roles has a broader impact in decreasing endorsement of several negative attitudes that contribute to acceptance of sexual assault. The only attitude that was not significantly correlated with prior education was *He Didn't Mean To (Alcohol)*. This may indicate prior sex education on the topics of consent, gender roles, sexuality, reproductive health, sexual health, or sexual relationships does not have an effect on the perception that alcohol may cause men to commit sexual assault. It should be noted, however, that it is possible the sex education students receive in high school, whether in a formal education setting or from a trusted adult, may consist of

messages and attitudes similar to those on the IRMA that are supportive of sexual assault. This implies that sex educators and adults responsible for providing education and messaging should be aware of the biases and attitudes they model for students.

Additional analyses examined differences in students who reported having been a victim of sexual assault and those who reported having committed a sexual assault. Those who reported having been a victim of sexual assault were significantly less likely to endorse the attitudes of *She Asked For It, It Wasn't Really Rape*, and *She Lied*. There was no significant relationship with participant's report of committing a sexual assault and endorsement of attitudes. However, there were very few students in this sample who reported having committed a sexual assault and the attitudes of this group of students cannot be accurately investigated.

Attitudes Supportive of Sexual Assault Significantly Related to Identification of Sexual Assault and the Decision to Report

The endorsement of sexual assault-supportive attitudes was found to be significantly negatively correlated to correctly identifying sexual assault, as measured by participants' overall percent correctly identified. This implies that students who have a higher endorsement of any of the attitudes had a significantly lower percent of correctly identified sexual assault scenarios. In addition, each attitude was significantly correlated with the decision to not report an identified sexual assault in several vignettes. This was supported by further analysis that correlated the IRMA attitudes with the four different types of sexual assault vignettes. Vignettes depicting a picture with sexual content being distributed without consent were significantly correlated with the *He Didn't Mean To* attitude, the vignettes depicting no explicit consent was given were significantly correlated with each of the attitudes, and the vignettes not depicting sexual assault were not significantly correlated with any of the attitudes. Those who had a higher endorsement of IRMA attitudes were more likely to report that situations in which no verbalized consent is

given, including when alcohol was involved, did not constitute sexual assault. These results indicate there is a significant relationship between students holding beliefs that are supportive of sexual assault and not interpreting instances of sexual assault as such. This has serious implications for the importance of changing the sexual assault-supportive culture on college campuses.

Common Themes why Students Would not Report a Sexual Assault Situation

Another aim of this study was to examine the responses participants provided as to why they would not report an incident they believed constituted sexual assault. The purpose of this analysis was to investigate if reasons to not report a sexual assault are aligned with attitudes supportive of sexual assault, as measured by the IRMA, or if there are other reasons students may wish to not report a sexual assault. A content analysis confirmed both of these hypotheses. There were twelve themes that emerged from the reasons given for not reporting an identified sexual assault, and some of them were well aligned with existing IRMA attitudes. *The victim is to blame, the victim did not say no or wasn't assertive enough, the perpetrator does not know any better, the if all parties involved are drinking no one is at fault, the behavior was not illegal, there is not enough evidence or information to make a decision to report the incident, and the incident was not serious enough to report* reasons are all aligned with the five IRMA attitudes. Reasons that did not align with an attitude were: *if the victim feels they have been assaulted then they can make a report, authorities would not do anything or take the incident seriously enough, the victim should talk with the perpetrator first before deciding to report, the incident is not necessarily sexual assault since it occurred in a romantic relationship, and reporting isn't worth the extra emotional turmoil for the victim.* With the exception of *if the victim feels they have been assaulted then they can make a report*, these other reasons provided are still harmful to the

alleged victim as they minimize the significant impact that the feeling of being violated can have on a person.

Relationship between Type T Personality and Bystander Intervention

Students who endorsed a Type-T personality were not significantly more likely to intervene as a bystander in a group sexual assault scenario, as depicted in the *Taylor* vignette. This indicates that students who endorsed having a risk-taking personality, either T-general or T-mental, did not indicate they would intervene any more than students who did not endorse being risk-takers. Additional analysis revealed, however, that students with a higher endorsement of the T-general personality had a significantly higher endorsement of the *She Lied* attitude, and that students with a higher endorsement of the T-mental personality had a significantly lower endorsement of the *She Asked For It* attitude and a significantly higher endorsement of the *She Lied* attitude. This suggests there may be a link between having a more risk-taking personality and endorsing the *She Lied* attitude, and between taking mental chances and risks and being less likely to endorse the *She Asked For It* attitude.

Implications

The major implication of this study is that adolescents should be educated and provided with appropriate messaging on topics related to sexual assault well before they enter college. This study revealed an alarming percentage of students having some level of endorsement of different sexual assault-supportive attitudes, and the type of high school students attended and the kind of topics they reported receiving education on were significantly related to endorsing sexual assault-supportive attitudes. Thus, it is imperative to intervene at an early age. However, this would require a culture change in which discussions of sexual relationships, giving and

receiving consent, and perceptions of genders and gender roles are more openly discussed without damaging biased messages.

While some level of endorsement of these attitudes does not indicate that each of these students will commit a sexual assault in their life, it highlights the biases that exist on college campuses that excuses, dismisses, and refutes sexual assaults that occur more often than these students can identify. The significant relationship between endorsement of attitudes and the inability to correctly identify sexual assaults that have occurred, as well as the decision to not report a perceived sexual assault in some scenarios, supports the potentially harmful effect having an attitude that essentially supports sexual assault can have in society. This is a complex problem that cannot be solved with education alone, as the majority of students in this study can correctly identify a situation that meets the legal criteria of sexual assault. The growing issue of campus sexual assault is represented by the amount of students who cannot correctly identify sexual assault situations, by the attitudes that contribute to the occurrences of sexual assault, and by the reasons why students feel sexual assault scenarios should not be reported. The attitudes that lie at the root of these problems are a reflection of a culture where sexual harassment and sexual assault is minimized, diminished, and ultimately accepted. It appears that intervening at the college level is too late.

Limitations

This study is not without its limitations. First, there may have been a self-selection bias in the freshman students who chose to participate in the study. Those who chose to respond may have been more knowledgeable, or interested, on the topic of campus sexual assault, and students who have a higher endorsement of attitudes that are supportive of sexual assault may have been less likely to participate in this study based on its description. In addition, the survey

administration did not control for participants taking the survey more than once, which may have occurred. Second, in the administration of the updated IRMA, one of the questions was left out while another was repeated, which may have limited the measurement of the IRMA attitudes. In addition, the updated IRMA is heteronormative and the negative attitudes are predominantly against women. This is purposeful, as the large majority of sexual assaults are against women, but it leaves out any potential negative attitudes that are supportive of sexual assault in the LGBT community. Third, the vignettes used in this study were gender-neutral, and participants were not asked to report which gender they believed the alleged victim was. The gender that participants thought an alleged victim was might have had a significant impact on whether or not they perceived the situation as sexual assault and if they thought the incident should be reported.

Future Directions

This study serves to highlight the need for much more future research of the cultural norms that are supporting occurrences of sexual assault; a culture where a lack of a clear and emphatic no, gender biases, the involvement of alcohol, and minimizing the effect of having one's body violated are all contributing to sexual assaults being dismissed and allowed. As this study focused on the attitudes of first semester college students, future research should concentrate on the attitudes high school students hold, to further emphasize the need for prevention and intervention efforts prior to college. This was the first time the vignettes in this study were widely disseminated, and future studies should conduct a confirmatory factor analysis to verify the factor structure of the vignettes. It may be beneficial to ask future participants which gender they perceive the alleged victim in each vignette to be.

The qualitative analysis in this study examined the reasons participants provided for not reporting a perceived sexual assault, and several themes emerged. Future research should further

analyze these themes and compare them to the IRMA attitudes, as it is hypothesized that the reasons align with the IRMA attitudes and also reveal other reasons not yet measured. These new reasons may be helpful to incorporate into an updated attitude measurement scale.

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APPENDIX A: SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Part I: Please answer the following demographic information.

1. What is your current age:
 - 17
 - 18
 - 19
 - 20+
2. What year in school are you:
 - Freshman (first-year)
 - Freshman (transfer/not first-year)
 - Sophomore, Junior, Senior
3. With which gender do you identify:
 - Male
 - Female
 - Other: _____
 - I do not wish to respond
4. With which sexual orientation do you identify:
 - Asexual
 - Bisexual
 - Heterosexual
 - Homosexual, gay, or lesbian
 - Pansexual
 - Unsure
 - Other: _____
5. Which of the following best describes your ethnic background? (Check all that apply)
 - Asian
 - Asian Indian
 - Black or African American
 - Hispanic or Latino
 - White or Caucasian
6. Which type of high school did you attend:
 - Home (including an online school)
 - Private parochial (religious)
 - Private secular (non-religious)
 - Public
 - Public charter
7. Have you received any of the following information as part of a formal sex education curriculum at your high school? (Check all that apply)
 - Giving and receiving sexual consent
 - Gender roles
 - Reproductive health
 - Sexual health

- (a) Has Casey been a victim of sexual assault? Yes No
- (b) (If replied “yes”) Do you think this should be reported? Yes No
- (c) (If replied “yes” to (a) and “no” to (b)) Please indicate why:
3. Jamie and Morgan have been dating for several months and are sexually active. One night, Jamie expresses wanting to have sex and Morgan says, “I’m really tired.” Jamie’s first attempts to get Morgan in the mood don’t succeed, but Jamie eventually just starts undressing Morgan, and Morgan goes along with it.
- (a) Has Morgan been a victim of sexual assault? Yes No
- (b) (If replied “yes”) Do you think this should be reported? Yes No
- (c) (If replied “yes” to (a) and “no” to (b)) Please indicate why:
4. Alex and Noel have been on a few dates and are now back at Alex’s apartment. They have been making out for a while when Alex starts trying to unbutton Noel’s pants. Noel pushes Alex’s hand away and says “no” a few times while laughing and still kissing Alex. Alex tries a few more times, stating “But I like you so much,” and Noel stops pushing Alex away, and they then have sex.
- (a) Has Noel been a victim of sexual assault? Yes No
- (b) (If replied “yes”) Do you think this should be reported? Yes No
- (c) (If replied “yes” to (a) and “no” to (b)) Please indicate why:
5. Taylor is hanging out with friends in a dorm room drinking alcohol. Another person, who is visibly intoxicated, comes in and starts dancing provocatively. Taylor’s friends, who are drunk, plan to each have sex with this person, who doesn’t seem to object to the sexual advances. Taylor’s friends then each receive oral sex from this person.
- (a) Has the unnamed person been a victim of sexual assault? Yes No
- (b) (If replied “yes”) Do you think this should be reported? Yes No
- (c) (If replied “yes” to (a) and “no” to (b)) Please indicate why:
- (d) If you were Taylor, please indicate which of the following you would be most likely to do in this situation:
- I might join in the fun, especially if I’ve been drinking a lot.
 - I wouldn’t stop my friends from having fun, but I wouldn’t join in either.
 - I would leave the room.
 - I would tell my friends to stop. If they did not stop, I would leave the room.
 - I would leave and find the Resident Assistant.
 - I would leave and call campus security or the police.
 - I would tell my friends to stop, and threaten to call someone (Resident Assistant, campus security, or police) if they did not stop.
6. Cody and Danni have been playing beer pong at a party at Danni’s house, where both have been drinking throughout the evening. After many games, Cody says, “I don’t feel so good.” Danni offers a bedroom to sleep in, and Cody accompanies Danni to the room. Danni initiates sex with Cody, who doesn’t say anything, and they use a condom.

- (a) Has Cody been a victim of sexual assault? Yes No
 (b) (If replied “yes”) Do you think this should be reported? Yes No
 (c) (If replied “yes” to (a) and “no” to (b)) Please indicate why:
7. After a heavy night of drinking, Kelly wakes up in bed next to a friend, and realizes they had sex at some point in the night. However, the last thing Kelly remembers was going to bed alone.
 (a) Has Kelly been a victim of sexual assault? Yes No
 (b) (If replied “yes”) Do you think this should be reported? Yes No
 (c) (If replied “yes” to (a) and “no” to (b)) Please indicate why:
8. Rory and Jalen are both in the library late, and don’t know each other but have exchanged glances and made eye contact a few times. Rory gets up to retrieve a book from the stacks, and Jalen follows Rory and pushes Rory against the bookshelves and starts kissing Rory.
 (a) Has Rory been a victim of sexual assault? Yes No
 (b) (If replied “yes”) Do you think this should be reported? Yes No
 (c) (If replied “yes” to (a) and “no” to (b)) Please indicate why:
9. Andy is at a party dancing with friends, and a person starts dancing with Andy that Andy finds attractive. This person slides their hands down Andy’s back and squeezes Andy’s buttocks. Andy moves the person’s hands away, and the person says “You shouldn’t look so hot if you don’t want to be touched.”
 (a) Has Andy been a victim of sexual assault? Yes No
 (b) (If replied “yes”) Do you think this should be reported? Yes No
 (c) (If replied “yes” to (a) and “no” to (b)) Please indicate why:
10. Kris sent Kerry sexy pictures when they were dating, and Kerry is now posting the pictures on social media after finding out Kris had sex with someone else.
 (a) Has Kris been a victim of sexual assault? Yes No
 (b) (If replied “yes”) Do you think this should be reported? Yes No
 (c) (If replied “yes” to (a) and “no” to (b)) Please indicate why:
11. Ray and Morgan dated for a while, during which time Morgan had texted Ray nude pictures. After breaking up, Ray decided to send some of the nude pictures of Morgan to their friends.
 (a) Has Morgan been a victim of sexual assault? Yes No
 (b) (If replied “yes”) Do you think this should be reported? Yes No
 (c) (If replied “yes” to (a) and “no” to (b)) Please indicate why:

Part III: The following statements pertain to your personality. Please indicate the extent to which each statement applies to you.

	Does not apply at all	Applies slightly	Applies somewhat	Applies very strongly
1. I would like to have as many exciting experiences in my life as possible.				
2. I am an excitement-seeker/thrill-seeker.				
3. My friends would call me a thrill-seeker.				
4. I am a risk taker.				
5. I enjoy taking mental chances or risks (eg. I share a new idea when I am not sure how other people will take it).				
6. I enjoy taking physical chances or risks.				
7. I like to have discussions with people who have ideas that are different or opposite to mine.				

Part IV: The following questions are asking about how you feel about statements regarding sexual assault and sexual behaviors, and how strongly you agree with them. There is no correct answer. The question is not whether you feel these statements apply to all cases of sexual assault, or if there is a case where a statement may not apply.

Please note: These statements are intentionally heteronormative in nature – in other words, they are gendered and are based on sexual situations that occur between one man and one woman (it is assumed that they are heterosexual). While it is true that people of any gender can commit assault and/or be assaulted, these particular statements are meant to reflect very specific beliefs tied to gender that some people hold.

Question	Strongly Disagree 1	Disagree 2	Agree 3	Strongly Agree 4
1. If a girl is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of hand.				
2. When girls go to parties wearing slutty clothes, they are asking for trouble.				
3. If a girl goes to a room alone with a guy at a party, it is her own fault if she is raped.				
4. If a girl acts like a slut, eventually she is going to get into trouble.				
5. When girls get raped, it's often because the way they said "no" was unclear.				
6. If a girl initiates kissing or hooking up, she should not be surprised if a guy assumes she wants to have sex.				
7. When guys rape, it is usually because of their strong desire for sex.				
8. Guys don't usually intend to force sex on a girl, but				

sometimes they get too sexually carried away.				
9. Rape happens when a guy's sex drive goes out of control.				
10. If a guy is drunk, he might rape someone unintentionally.				
11. It shouldn't be considered rape if a guy is drunk and didn't realize what he was doing.				
12. If both people are drunk, it can't be rape.				
13. If a girl doesn't physically resist sex — even if protesting verbally — it can't be considered rape.				
14. If a girl doesn't physically fight back, you can't really say it was rape.				
15. A rape probably doesn't happen if a girl doesn't have any bruises or marks.				
16. If the accused "rapist" doesn't have a weapon, you really can't call it rape.				
17. If a girl doesn't say "no" she can't claim rape.				
18. A lot of times, girls who say they were raped agreed to have sex and then regret it.				
19. Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at guys.				
20. A lot of times, girls who say they were raped often led the guy on and then had regrets.				
21. A lot of times, girls who claim they were raped have emotional problems.				
22. Girls who are caught cheating on their boyfriends sometimes claim it was rape.				

APPENDIX B: VIGNETTE CATEGORIES

Name	Description	Factor/Type
Ray	Ray and Morgan dated for a while, during which time Morgan had texted Ray nude pictures. After breaking up, Ray decided to send some of the nude pictures of Morgan to their friends.	Sending sexual pictures without consent
Kris	Kris sent Kerry sexy pictures when they were dating, and Kerry is now posting the pictures on social media after finding out Kris had sex with someone else.	Sending sexual pictures without consent
Alex	Alex and Noel have been on a few dates and are now back at Alex’s apartment. They have been making out for a while when Alex starts trying to unbutton Noel’s pants. Noel pushes Alex’s hand away and says “no” a few times while laughing and still kissing Alex. Alex tries a few more times, stating “But I like you so much,” and Noel stops pushing Alex away, and they then have sex.	No verbalized consent
Jamie	Jamie and Morgan have been dating for several months and are sexually active. One night, Jamie expresses wanting to have sex and Morgan says, “I’m really tired.” Jamie’s first attempts to get Morgan in the mood don’t succeed, but Jamie eventually just starts undressing Morgan, and Morgan goes along with it.	No verbalized consent
Rory	Rory and Jalen are both in the library late, and don’t know each other but have exchanged glances and made eye contact a few times. Rory gets up to retrieve a book from the stacks, and Jalen follows Rory and pushes Rory against the bookshelves and starts kissing Rory.	No verbalized consent
Andy	Andy is at a party dancing with friends, and a person starts dancing with Andy that Andy finds attractive. This person slides their hands down Andy’s back and squeezes Andy’s buttocks. Andy moves the person’s hands away, and the person says “You shouldn’t look so hot if you don’t want to be touched.”	No verbalized consent
Kelly	After a heavy night of drinking, Kelly wakes up in bed next to a friend, and realizes they had sex at some point in the night. However, the last thing Kelly remembers was going to bed alone.	No verbalized consent with alcohol
Cody	Cody and Danni have been playing beer pong at a party at Danni’s house, where both have been drinking throughout the evening. After many games, Cody says, “I don’t feel so good.” Danni offers a bedroom to sleep in, and Cody accompanies Danni to the room. Danni initiates sex with Cody, who doesn’t say anything, and they use a condom.	No verbalized consent with alcohol
Taylor	Taylor is hanging out with friends in a dorm room drinking alcohol. Another person, who is visibly intoxicated, comes in and starts dancing provocatively. Taylor’s friends, who are drunk, plan to each have sex with this person, who doesn’t	No verbalized consent with alcohol (group)

	seem to object to the sexual advances. Taylor's friends then each receive oral sex from this person.	
Casey	Casey and Evan met at a party at Casey's house, where each of them had about one to two drinks per hour throughout the night. At the end of the night, Casey invites Evan to stay overnight. Once upstairs, they start kissing and Evan asks Casey to have sex. Casey replies yes and they use a condom.	Not sexual assault
Shay	During their first date, Shay tells Jessie, "I never have sex on the first date." Later that same evening they go back to Jessie's apartment and after kissing for a while, Shay asks Jessie if there's a condom they can use. Jessie says yes, and then they have sex.	Not sexual assault

APPENDIX C: UPDATED IRMA ITEM FACTOR ANALYSIS

Attitude Factor	Item
<i>She asked for it</i>	1. If a girl is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of hand.
	2. When girls go to parties wearing slutty clothes, they are asking for trouble.
	3. If a girl goes to a room alone with a guy at a party, it is her own fault if she is raped.
	4. If a girl acts like a slut, eventually she is going to get into trouble.
	5. When girls get raped, it's often because the way they said "no" was unclear.
	6. If a girl initiates kissing or hooking up, she should not be surprised if a guy assumes she wants to have sex.
<i>He didn't mean to</i>	7. When guys rape, it is usually because of their strong desire for sex.
	8. Guys don't usually intend to force sex on a girl, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.
	9. Rape happens when a guy's sex drive goes out of control.
<i>He didn't mean to (alcohol)</i>	10. If a guy is drunk, he might rape someone unintentionally.
	11. It shouldn't be considered rape if a guy is drunk and didn't realize what he was doing.
	12. If both people are drunk, it can't be rape.
<i>It wasn't really rape</i>	13. If a girl doesn't physically resist sex — even if protesting verbally — it can't be considered rape.
	14. If a girl doesn't physically fight back, you can't really say it was rape.
	15. A rape probably doesn't happen if a girl doesn't have any bruises or marks.
	16. If the accused "rapist" doesn't have a weapon, you really can't call it rape.
	17. If a girl doesn't say "no" she can't claim rape.
<i>She lied</i>	18. A lot of times, girls who say they were raped agreed to have sex and then regret it.
	19. Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at guys.
	20. A lot of times, girls who say they were raped often led the guy on and then had regrets.
	21. A lot of times, girls who claim they were raped have emotional problems.
	22. Girls who are caught cheating on their boyfriends sometimes claim it was rape.