UNIVERSITY WOMEN'S ACKNOWLEDGEMENT OF RAPE: INDIVIDUAL, INTERPERSONAL, AND SOCIAL FACTORS

by

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This study examined predictors of university women's acknowledgement of rape experiences using an ecological framework. Of the 109 university women who reported experiences that met a legal definition of rape, 64% did not label the experience as rape. By using the ecological framework, the influences of interpersonal, individual, and social factors could be seen. Although all three levels were individual predictors of acknowledgement, the interpersonal and individual forces were much stronger. Rape acknowledgement was influenced primarily by the level of force experienced, the degree of the belief that a rape involves a high degree of physical force, and the amount of behavioral self-blame reported by the woman. Of lesser importance were characterological self-blame, the belief that dating equals attractiveness and the number of sexually victimized peers in a woman's peer group. General beliefs about dating and social support factors are not as important as predictors of acknowledgement as the situational factors of the rape and individual factors directly related to the rape.

While assumed to be a positive step for rape victims, acknowledgement also may carry the burden of increased self-blame. The amount of self-blame in this study, however, was low to moderate and self-attributions were lower for all the women than were their attributions of blame toward the perpetrator. Although self-attributions are assumed to be a central issue that rape victims deal with, the level of self-blame in this study, especially when compared to the level assigned to the perpetrator, raises questions about the importance of self-blame to a nonclinical sample of rape victims. Future research is needed to explore the dimensions of self-blame, other self-attributions, acknowledgement, and mental health consequences of rape.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Approximately 15% of the women on college campuses nationwide reported that they have been the victims of behaviors that met a legal definition of rape (Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987). The perpetrators of rapes of college and university women are most likely to be someone the victims knows (Kanin, 1984; Koss, et al., 1987; Rapaport & Burkhart, 1984; Russell, 1984). Contrary to the stereotype of a stranger lurking in an alley or behind a bush, most rapes are committed indoors by an acquaintance of the victim, and do not involve weapons or severe forms of physical violence.

The actual incidence and prevalence of rape is hard to determine because rape is an underreported, hidden crime (Koss, 1985; Koss, et al., 1987, White & Koss, 1990). Police reports and other official statistics have methodological flaws that result in lower rape rates than those reported in surveys (Koss, 1988). Because of the deficiencies in official statistics, many researchers have designed their own studies to determine incidence and prevalence. In one such study, 33% of a sample of 2016 women reported having sex when they did not want to and 12.7% said intercourse occurred through the "use of force or threat of force" (Koss & Oros, 1982). Koss, Gidycz, Wisniewski (1987) surveyed 3187 college women nationally and found 12% had sexual intercourse due to verbal coercion, 12% reported rape attempts, and 15% of the women had been victims of rape (rape was defined as having sexual intercourse, including oral and anal intercourse, when you didn't want to because a man gave you drugs, threatened to use physical force, or used some degree of physical force). Numerous other studies have found

some variability in the incidence and prevalence rates of rape (see Koss, et al., 1994 for a review).

This variability in report rates of rape due to several factors. While the Koss, et al. (1987) study used a large nationwide, representative sample, most other studies have used small samples of college students. The variability in these smaller, convenience samples could be a function of random variability. A more serious problem for comparison of samples is the lack of one clear, concise definition of sexual aggression across samples (Craig, 1990; Muehlenhard, Powch, Phelps, & Guisti, 1992). Some figures include attempted rape and sexually coercive behaviors while others only include cases that meet a legal definition of rape. Furthermore, in the use of rape statistics some researchers refer to lifelong prevalence rates while other researchers will only include incidence rates for a specific amount of time, such as 6 months or a year. Furthermore, the measurement instrument varies from researcher to researcher. Two measures commonly used are the Sexual Experience Survey (Koss & Oros, 1982) and the Coercive Sexuality Scale (Rapaport & Burkhart, 1984). The 1987 nationwide survey of college women is the most accurate estimate of the prevalence of rape victimization on a college campus (15.8%). This figure speaks for itself.

The majority (85%) of the rape victims in the nationwide survey by Koss and her colleagues report that the perpetrator was not a stranger (Koss, Dinero, Seibel, & Cox, 1988). The discovery that the majority of the rapes and sexual assaults are committed by acquaintances, dates, friends, and family members has led to another discovery; many women who have been the victim of behaviors that meet a legal definition of rape do not label the incident as rape (Koss, 1985; Koss, et al., 1988). Of the 3187 women in the nationwide, representative study, 15.8% responded affirmatively to behavioral definitions of rape. Of those women, 27% responded that they had not been raped (Koss, 1988). Despite the fact

that they did not label the event rape, these "unacknowledged" rape victims did feel victimized. For acquaintance rape victims, only 23.1% acknowledged that the experience was rape. However, 65.9% of the acquaintance rape victims labeled the experience as a crime, but not rape, or as a serious miscommunication problem. Only 11.1% said that they did not feel victimized by the experience (Koss, et al., 1988). This suggests that the majority of acquaintance rape victims do feel victimized even if they do not label an incident "rape."

The finding that some women acknowledge rape while others do not raises at least three interrelated questions. One, is it important to understand why some women acknowledge rape and others do not? Two, are unacknowledged rape victims' experiences or personalities somehow different from acknowledged rape victims? Three, why would a woman who has had an experience that meets the legal definition of rape not label the experience as rape? Fortunately, there is empirical evidence to help answer these questions. It does appear important to understand why some women acknowledge rape and others do not as described in the section below. Second, acknowledged and unacknowledged rape victims share similar personality characteristics but have been found to differ on some life experiences. Third, while there has been some theorization and investigation into the reasons for rape acknowledgement, this study will place the multiple factors into a comprehensive model in order to assess the relative contributions of the individual variables.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Importance of Acknowledgement

The consequences for the victim of rape are well known. Janoff-Bulman (1985; 1992) discusses how traumatic experiences such as rape lead a person to question three basic beliefs: that a person is invulnerable or safe; that the person lives in a "just" world which makes sense and where those who do not deserve harm will escape violence; and that the individual is a good person who can cope with life's problems. A rape experience causes a person to question these beliefs. The victimization may cause a person to be shocked or confused that this happened to them. The victim may become fearful, begin to see the world as dangerous, and then lose her autonomy because of her fears. She may feel powerless, out of control, unable to protect herself, or to believe that she will be safe. All of these feelings, together with self-blame, serve to reduce self-esteem. Self-blame has been associated with negative long-term outcomes for rape victims (Katz & Burt, 1988; Koss & Burkhart, 1989; Wyatt, Notgrass, & Newcomb, 1990). Other responses can include depression, anxiety, lack of social functioning, problems with sexuality, suicide ideation and attempts, hostility, somatic complaints, sleep disturbances, obsessive-compulsive complaints (Stekette & Foa, 1987), and lower self-esteem (Gallers & Lawrence, 1991; Wyatt, et al., 1990). Adolescent victims have been found to be particularly at risk for the following symptoms: drug or alcohol use, promiscuity, phobic behaviors, eating disorders, withdrawal from friends and family, drop in school performance, personality changes, self-destructive or risk-taking behaviors, and alienation from family (Hilberman, 1976).

Therapy has been shown to relieve symptoms and allow victims to recover from the experience (Gallers & Lawrence, 1991; Koss & Harvey, 1991). Talking about the victimization has been found to be therapeutic and important to recovery for rape victims in therapy (Davis & Friedman, 1985). The experience of rape is known to have both short-term and long-term consequences that make recovery a challenge for those in treatment. Recovery can take years to achieve and many victims never feel that they recover (Burgess & Holmstrom, 1979; Katz, 1991; Koss & Burkhart, 1989). Victims evaluated many years after a sexual assault are more likely to receive numerous psychiatric diagnoses than nonvictimized women, including substance abuse, major depression, generalized anxiety, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), alcohol abuse and dependence, drug abuse and dependence, and obsessive-compulsive disorder (Kilpatrick et al., 1985; Winfield, George, Schwartz, & Blazer, 1990). The long-term recovery prognosis for untreated rape victims, however, is not known (Koss & Burkhart, 1989). For those who do not receive treatment, recovery may be much more difficult to achieve. For women who do not acknowledge their rape, discussion, both in therapy and with friends and family, is less likely. It therefore seems imperative that victims first acknowledge their experience and then seek help.

Furthermore, there are physical as well as mental health consequences for rape victims. Women who have been raped report more physical health problems after the rape and use physical health care facilities more frequently after the rape than nonvictims (Koss, Koss, & Woodruff, 1991). Victimized women engage in more risky health behaviors, reporting more alcohol use, smoking, and failure to use seat belts (Koss, et al., 1991). Rape victims are more likely to be diagnosed with chronic pelvic pain, headaches, gastrointestinal disorders, premenstrual symptoms, general pain, and psychogenic seizures

(Koss & Heslet, 1992). Clearly, rape has a serious impact on women's mental and physical health.

There is evidence that a victim's lack of acknowledgement does not lessen the impact of experience. Koss (1985) found that victims of acknowledged and unacknowledged rape did not differ on emotions experienced at the time of the assault (e.g. fear, anger) or on the aftereffects of the experience. The aftereffects included the extent to which the victim's self-esteem, sexuality, relationships with men, and overall adjustment were influenced by the assault. Gallers and Lawrence (1991) discuss two cases where rape victims only recognized that they had been raped after seeking treatment for symptoms later diagnosed as rape-related Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). These results suggest that the mental health consequences for rape can be just as severe for unacknowledged as acknowledged rape victims.

Similarly, the impact of acquaintance rape has unique consequences not present in stranger rape (Katz, 1991). Women who are raped by someone familiar to them blame themselves more for the rape, have a lower self-concept, and take longer to feel recovered than do stranger rape victims. The more a woman trusts the rapist before the rape, the more likely she is to blame herself and to report a lower self-concept (Katz, 1991). Moreover, psychological symptoms of depression and anxiety are elevated similarly for acquaintance rape victims (nonromantic acquaintance, casual date, steady date, or spouse/family member) and stranger rape victims (Koss, et al., 1988). The psychological consequences on these variables appear similar across type of rape victim. Although most rapes are acquaintance rapes (Koss, et al., 1987) and acquaintance rape victims are less likely to acknowledge the experience as rape (Koss, et al., 1988), the acquaintance rape victim experiences depression and anxiety equal to that experienced by stranger rape victims, in addition to increased self-blame, a lower self-concept, and longer time to recovery than stranger rape victims.

Unacknowledged rape victims are unlikely to report their experiences to the police, rape crisis centers, or hospital emergency rooms. For instance, Pirog-Good and Stets (1989) found it was a woman's perception of how abusive an event was, not the actual seriousness of the abuse, that predicted whether she would tell anyone about the incident. In other words, it was not her description of how severely she had been physically or sexually abused that predicted whether or not she would tell anyone. She was not likely to disclose unless she defined the event as abusive, regardless of severity. Similarly, Koss (1985) found that how a woman labeled an event influenced her reporting behavior. None (0%) of the unacknowledged rape victims in her study reported the crime to police, rape crisis centers, or hospital emergency rooms; more than half of the unacknowledged rape victims told no one about the incident. Of the acknowledged rape victims, 8% reported to police, 13% reported to rape crisis centers or hospital emergency rooms, and 48% told no one. Women who have been raped by a date are less likely to think they need therapy than women raped by a nonromantic acquaintance even when the level of physical force is the same (Koss, et al., 1988). In sum, unacknowledged rape victims suffer similar mental health consequences but are less likely to seek help for their experiences than are acknowledged rape victims. Thus, acknowledgement may have important mental health consequences for rape victims.

Are Unacknowledged Rape Victims Different?

Although acknowledgement is associated with increased reporting and help seeking behaviors, what factors influence some women to acknowledge over others? Acknowledged rape victims may have had a more severe or traumatic rape experience. Another possibility is that there are differences in personality or personal attributes that lead some women to acknowledge and others to deny a rape experience. A study by Koss (1985) tested three different models of rape victimization: victim precipitation, social control, and situational blame. Each of these

models had been suggested by previous writers as causes of rape victimization. Koss tested the factors suggested in each model against her data on rape victims. Because different writers had proposed each of these models, the three models do not represent mutually exclusive categories. The **victim precipitation** model suggests that there are certain characteristics of sexually abused women which make them more vulnerable. Passivity, submissiveness, and insensitivity to social cues had been proposed as personality characteristics that could make a woman more likely to be sexually assaulted. This model implies that victimization is the result of personal qualities of the individual. The **social control** model contends that certain beliefs and attitudes increase the risk of sexual assault. Specifically, cultural beliefs that support rape and accept violence against women are thought to be internalized by some women more than others. The acceptance of these cultural beliefs contributes to the likelihood of sexual assault. Women who endorse traditional sex-role attitudes, believe in rape myths, and accept violence against women are thought to be more vulnerable to sexual assault. Like the victim precipitation model, this model sees the cause of rape as rooted in individual beliefs, yet differs by focusing on the cultural factors that establish and reinforce these beliefs. The **situational blame** model focuses on aspects of the encounter itself that result in sexual assault. Situational factors tested include the response of the victim to the attack, how well the victim knew the perpetrator, the use of alcohol/drugs by the perpetrator and the victim, the type of force used, the clarity of nonconsent, premarital sexual values, and the dating and sexual history of the victim (Koss, 1985).

Koss (1985) randomly sampled from university classes and used a behavioral questionnaire to assess sexual assault experiences of 2016 women. She found that the personality and attitudinal variables failed to differentiate between the types of victimized women (low, moderate,

high unacknowledged, and high acknowledged), but that situational variables did. Thus, victim precipitation or social control models were not supported, but some facets of the situational blame model were supported. Acknowledged rape victims were more approving of premarital sexual activities and had a greater number of previous sexual partners than nonvictims, but did not differ from unacknowledged rape victims on these variables. The situational model suggests that these values and sexual activity may make a woman more likely to encounter sexual violence. However, due to the correlational nature of the data, it is impossible to separate cause from effect. Liberal sexual values and a greater number of sexual partners could be a reaction to rape rather than a cause. The fact that 38% of the acknowledged rape victims had never had sexual intercourse prior to the rape suggests that rape victims' larger number of sexual partners compared to nonvictims may be an effect not a cause of rape (Koss, 1985).

Unacknowledged rape victims were more likely to have been raped by dates, knew the rapist better, and had a higher level of intimacy with the rapist before the victimization than did acknowledged rape victims. Unacknowledged and acknowledged rape victims did not differ on the total intensity of emotions experienced at the time of victimization or the emotional repercussions (Koss, 1985). The acknowledged and unacknowledged victims also did not differ on other aspects of the assault including types of verbal pressure, types of physical violence, force, amount of aggression experienced, types of resistance, degree of resistance, clarity of nonconsent, and effect of resistance (Koss, 1985). The Koss (1985) study suggests that there are not differences in acknowledged and unacknowledged rape victims on any of the personality or attitudinal variables studied, and that situational factors related to the relationship between the perpetrator and the victim are most important to acknowledgement of rape. Two other studies found that among rape victims, acknowledgers were more likely to have experienced

physical force than were unacknowledgers (Gault, 1993; Kahn, Mathie, & Torgler, 1994). Although conflicting with the Koss (1985) study, which did not find differences between acknowledgers and unacknowledgers on severity of the rape, these studies provide further support for the situational model. Further research should clarify the relationship between acknowledgement and severity of assault. In sum, intrapersonal variables have failed to predict acknowledgement, but situational aspects of the rape have had some success.

Why Would a Woman Fail to Acknowledge a Rape Experience?

The central question of this study is "why do some women acknowledge rape experiences and others do not?" Unfortunately, there does not appear to be a simple answer. Situational variables explain some, but not all of the variance in acknowledgement. As with any complex social phenomenon, it is necessary to examine not only the individual, but also the social world in which that person operates. An ecological framework is a useful way to conceptualize how the individual interacts within the social world (Belsky, 1980; Dutton, 1988; White & Koss, 1993). An ecological framework is a term used to describe a theoretical perspective that integrates Bronfenbrenner's (1977, 1979) emphasis on contextual influences with Tinbergen's (1951) inclusion of a developmental level of analysis in efforts to understand human behavior (Belsky, 1980). By examining the four interrelated, interacting levels of the ecological framework, the influence of multiple variables involved in labeling a rape experience can be studied. A woman who has been raped must struggle to understand and label her experience not only based upon her individual history and dispositions, but also in relation to the behaviors of the rapist, her close friends and family, and larger sociocultural beliefs and expectations. The corresponding levels of the ecological framework - individual/developmental, interpersonal context, social networks, and sociocultural - place a framework upon the

experience that facilitates seeing the multidimensional nature of labeling a rape experience.

The ecological framework is appealing because it allows the researcher to assess different levels involved in a social phenomenon and the inter-relationships between the variables. At the individual/developmental level grouping personality characteristics together with an individual's differential learning history is theoretically attractive because they are both categories of factors that reside within the individual. For instance, although a sexual victimization experience may produce specific anxiety or fear reactions, once acquired these become individual propensities. Thus, the individual/developmental level includes all individual response tendencies regardless of their origin.

The interpersonal context examines the immediate environment in which the aggression occurs. Factors such as the prior relationship between the victim and perpetrator influence acknowledgement. The situational effects of the male-female encounter can be separated from an individual's learning history. Of course, inter-relationships have a bidirectional relationship with an individual. What happens in the interaction will become a part of the individual's learning history and an individual's dispositions and learning history will influence an interaction. Yet, by considering them separately, the tendency to focus on the individual while ignoring important contextual factors is avoided.

Another strength of the ecological framework is the distinction between the interpersonal context and social networks. The interpersonal context is the immediate situation in which an action, in this case, a rape, occurs. Social networks include both organized and unorganized social groups. By dividing social relations into the contextual and structural social forces, characteristics of both factors are studied. This is desirable when studying a multi-causal phenomenon.

The immediate situation contains many important features which can be separated from the larger social and structural world in which the individual is enmeshed. Both, however, are important to consider.

The sociocultural level of analysis encompasses larger cultural values and beliefs which influence individuals. Culture, in this model, is not a monolith; individuals and groups affect culture and cultural factors influence individuals.

Individual/Developmental Level

The individual/developmental level examines individual attitudes, beliefs, personality characteristics, dispositions, and cognitive and developmental processes. This level corresponds to the intrapsychic level of analysis, but includes an individual's differential learning history. Parrot (1991) has suggested women might not label rape experiences as rape partly because of self-blame and the possession of a blitz rape stereotype (defined below). Lloyd (1991) has suggested that romantic beliefs may influence how a person labels abusive behaviors. The person's amount of self-blame for the rape, the internalization of rape scripts, and romantic beliefs are three important aspects of rape acknowledgement that are appropriate for consideration at this level.

Self-blame. The fact that many people accept victim blaming rape myths (Burt, 1980) can contribute to a rape victim's feelings of self-blame, guilt, and shame (Katz & Burt, 1988). Pitts and Schwartz (1993) found that the issue of responsibility was the most common theme among 45 sexual assault survivors who discussed their experience with someone. Katz and Burt (1988) used an interview and questionnaire format to examine factors associated with self-blame in 80 women who had been victims of rape at least six months prior to being in the study. They found that the more a woman knew and trusted the perpetrator before the assault, the greater the self-blame after the rape (see also Mynatt & Allgeier, 1990). Women who were raped by nonstrangers and/or who voluntarily went with the rapist prior to the rape also reported more

self-blame for the incident. Self-blame was associated with higher levels of psychological distress, longer time to recover, more time spent in counseling, and lower self-esteem (Katz & Burt, 1988). Although this study found that self-blame was not helpful to recovery and was stronger in women who knew their attacker, all the women in the above study were acknowledged rape victims, solicited from newspaper advertisements and rape crisis centers. Only one study, to date, has directly examined the effect of rape acknowledgement on self-blame. Mathie et al. (1994) found that acknowledged rape victims felt more responsibility for the rape than unacknowledged rape victims. From the Katz and Burt (1988) study, it could be expected that unacknowledged rape victims would suffer more self-blame, since unacknowledged rape victims usually know their attackers better than acknowledged rape victims (Koss, 1985). They may be more likely to think they should have foreseen or prevented the rape. Also, if a woman does not acknowledge a rape, she may try to minimize the man's role in the event by blaming herself for the incident. A high level of self-blame may prevent a woman from acknowledging a rape and placing blame on the perpetrator.

Blitz-rape Scripts. Several authors have suggested that stereotypes of rape prevent women from accurately labeling an experience as rape (Kahn, et al., 1994; Kelly, 1988; Parrot, 1991). A blitz rape is similar to the rape stereotype: violent attack by a stranger, outdoors, with physical force, the use of weapons, physical harm to the victim, and physical and verbal resistance by the victim. Kahn and his colleagues (1994) found that stereotyped rape scripts influenced acknowledgement in rape victims. Acknowledged victims had scripts of rape that were more likely to include acquaintance rape, while unacknowledged victims were more likely to have scripts of the stereotypical violent, stranger rape. The women who acknowledged rape also had more violent rape experiences and a history of violent sexual experiences. The authors suggest that a combination of the possession

of a violent, stranger rape script and a relatively nonviolent sexual assault experience influence a woman to not label an acquaintance rape as rape.

Romantic Beliefs. A belief that has been suggested as affecting acknowledgement is romanticism (Lloyd, 1991). Beliefs such as "love conquers all" and "love at first sight" could lead women to minimize violence that occurs within a dating relationship. If a person interprets events through a romantic lens, violence could be seen as an obstacle to overcome or as a characteristic of a person that should be accepted. A fanciful, idealistic, passionate view of love could lead a woman to disregard an abusive incident as a sign of overzealous love or attraction. On the other hand, a woman who has pragmatic rather than romantic notions of love should be more likely to acknowledge rape. A woman with a pragmatic attitude toward love would be more cautious and practical about selecting romantic partners rather than being guided by emotion.

Traditional beliefs also have been suggested to play a role in acknowledgement, but research has not supported this hypothesis (Koss, 1985). Bateman (1991) suggests that adolescent rape occurring within a dating context is unlikely to be viewed as rape due to the tolerance for sexual violence in romantic relationships. Not only do many young women feel that rape is sometimes acceptable on dates (Goodchilds, Zellman, Johnson, & Giarrusso, 1988; Miller, 1988), but the more traditional the woman's values, the more likely she is to find forcible rape an acceptable behavior (Fisher, 1986). Endorsement of traditional values, however, does not correlate with acknowledgement of rape in rape victims (Koss, 1985).

It may be that it is not the individual woman's beliefs, but her assessment of the beliefs of others that determines acknowledgement. Pitts and Schwartz (1993) assessed other-blame and rape acknowledgement. They found that rape victims who confided their experience to another

person did not acknowledge the experience as rape if the other person made attributions of blame toward the victim. This suggests that attributions of blame by others are an important factor in the labeling of a rape. Koss (1985) found no difference between acknowledged and unacknowledged rape victims on several measures related to acceptance of rape myths; acceptance of sexual aggression; and traditional attitudes toward women, sexuality and dating. It appears that endorsing traditional sex-role beliefs, rape myths, and acceptance of interpersonal violence does not affect rape acknowledgement.

Interpersonal Context

The interpersonal context refers to the immediate situation in which a rape occurs. Antecedents and consequences of the experience fall into this category. Koss (1985) found that significantly more unacknowledged rape victims knew their offender (100%) than acknowledged rape victims (69%). Unacknowledged rape victims were more likely to have been romantically involved with the perpetrator (76% unacknowledged, 31% acknowledged) (Koss, 1985). In another study it was found that victims of acquaintance rape were less likely to acknowledge rape experiences than were stranger rape victims (23% and 55%, respectively) (Koss, et al., 1988). Thus, it appears that rapes involving someone whom the victim knows, especially romantically, are less likely to be defined by the victim as rape.

Both Parrot (1991) and Bourque (1989) suggest that the more force used in a rape, the more likely a woman will acknowledge the rape. Kahn and associates (1994) confirmed this hypothesis. Acknowledged rape victims were more likely to have had a rape experience that involved physical restraint or attack. Although Koss (1985) did not find a difference between acknowledged and unacknowledged rape victims on variables measuring force and severity of attack, acknowledged rape victims rated the level of force and aggression as lower (but not significantly lower) than unacknowledged rape victims.

Social Networks

The social networks level of analysis examines social structures that directly encroach on an individual's daily life. Work and school groups, friends, family, peer groups, and social support systems are factors that can influence rape acknowledgement. For young women, going to college is not just an academic enterprise but often includes living away from home for the first time with same-aged peers. Freedom from parental restraints coupled with the presence of so many others in the same situation creates a social experience that can be very influential in young women's lives. The peer social network can take on a great importance in an adolescent's life, especially in a university environment. Therefore, the beliefs and attitudes held by the peer group may be a powerful influence on the young woman's acknowledgement of rape.

The peer group has been implicated as a important factor in sexual victimization. Having male friends who are sexually aggressive is an important predictor of female victimization (Gwartney-Gibbs & Stockard, 1989). Both increased opportunity for abuse due to proximity of abusers and peer acceptance of abuse are important to increased risk. It also seems likely that the more common and acceptable rape is among peers, the less likely a woman would be to acknowledge the experience as rape.

Research has shown that the college peer group for women centers on dating and attracting dates (Holland & Eisenhart, 1990). In fact, it could be argued that this emphasis has undergone surprisingly little change since the 1930's. Feminism and coeducation have not emancipated women from their dependency upon men for status and prestige. Many researchers suggest that men have more power in dating relationships than women (Brake, 1985; Breines & Gordon, 1983; Cate & Lloyd, 1992; Dilorio, 1989). Although this idea does not contest the fact that in some dating relationships women may have power equal to or greater than

individual men, the overall structure and meaning of dating in our culture gives men greater power.

When today's dating system is compared to an earlier one, the power differential becomes clearer. Cate and Lloyd (1992) discuss how the history of courtship changed in the early part of the 20th century. When couples went from supervised visits to unsupervised dating, the inherent power in courtship changed (Bailey, 1988). When men came to the woman's home to court her, the woman held some power. Her family supervised and protected her. If she liked a suitor, she could offer to extend his stay, feed him, and ask him to call again. The man was obligated to the woman and her family for their hospitality and had to behave well to be welcomed back. When dating became unsupervised, the man asked the woman out on a date, paid for the date and thus had greater power. The woman was obligated to the man for the expenses of food, entertainment, and transportation and had to behave well to be asked out again. Although unsupervised dating removed the family's ability to protect women and increased the possibility for exploitation of women during dates, this rarely was examined until the 1980's (Kanin, 1957; Waller, 1937, are exceptions).

Not only does the current dating system afford men a greater position of power relative to women because they usually initiate and pay for dates, but also because relationships generally are perceived as more important for women's status than for men's. Breines and Gordon (1983) discuss the immense importance that relationships hold for women. Stereotypes of "spinsters," the belief that women fulfill themselves through marriage, and the emphasis on women's responsibility for relationship maintenance lead women to focus on relationships (Lloyd, 1991). Dilorio (1989) discovered that both men and women expect women to desire relationships with men more than men want relationships with women, thus giving men more power in dating relationships. Brake (1985) summarized research on how the "cult of femininity" keeps women

dependent on relationships with men and focused on appearance and romance. The importance of relationships to women, along with their perceived dependence upon relationships has been suggested as a factor in rape acknowledgment (Estrich, 1987).

As early as 1937, a study of dating on the Pennsylvania State University campus found that a woman's worth was related to dating the "right" kind of man and to how many men were interested in dating her (Waller, 1937). She was defined by who she dated rather than her intrinsic characteristics. Women were dependent upon men and relationships for status (Lloyd, 1991). In the 1960's, Skipper and Nass (1966) discussed several functions of dating including status, achievement, and mate selection. Lloyd (1991) states that these same values are still valid in present day dating. She hypothesizes that the greater the emphasis on valuing women for whom they date (as well as valuing men for being in control) the greater the potential for aggressive dating behavior. In other words, the power imbalance in dating relationships makes abuse more likely.

Holland and Eisenhart's (1990) ethnographic study discovered that university women created and perpetuated a Cultural Model of Romance and Attractiveness (CMRA). This cultural model consisted of beliefs about the importance of being attractive, attracting men, and having dates and boyfriends. There are three important aspects of the cultural model of romance and attraction: (1) the typical progress of a relationship, (2) the motives for relationships, and (3) the equalization of relative attractiveness (Holland, 1988).

The typical progress of a relationship starts with mutual attraction, which leads the man to discover the unique attributes of the woman, then he demonstrates his admiration through treating her nicely, taking her places she likes, and buying her things. In response, she shows her attraction to him by allowing the relationship to become more intimate. The women's motives for the relationship are intimacy and

prestige. Not only do women date for companionship and romance, but also to demonstrate their attractiveness. The more attractive the man, the more prestige and status he carries, the more attractive the woman is judged for having a relationship with him. Thus, one of the primary motives for a young woman to date is to establish her self-worth. Finally, the model allows for the equalization of relative attractiveness. If the woman is more attractive than the man, he can treat her especially well as a means of equalizing the relationship. If the man does not feel that the woman is as attractive as himself, then he can treat her poorly to compensate for her unattractiveness. If she feels less attractive than the man, she can reduce her expectation for good treatment. The woman's expectations are a way of assessing how she has judged her relative attractiveness. The man's treatment of a woman signals his assessment of her relative attractiveness. This cultural model sets a standard whereby many women will tolerate poor treatment from men.

The cultural model is not static but fluid and is created and recreated within each peer group. Therefore, there will be some differences in how things are defined over time and in different groups. Who is defined as physically attractive, what clothing styles are admired, and which men are seen as the highest status dates will depend upon how the group of women have defined prestige. However, based on the literature review presented above on courtship and romance, the basic structure of the model appears to have remained constant for at least 50 years.

It is important to recognize that not all women enjoy or participate in the cultural model to same extent. A woman may accept the beliefs of the model, but feel uncomfortable participating in the "sexual auction block." Holland and Eisenhart (1990) saw three options women commonly took to solve this problem. Some established a protected niche for themselves within the culture. Here they could stand on the sidelines

without running the risk of being devalued or criticized. This was done by developing a relationship with a man, thus demonstrating attractiveness and taking her off the auction block. A variant of this technique, postponement and limitation, consisted of establishing a relationship with a man that was of a restricted nature. Some techniques to do this involved having a boyfriend who lived out of town, or who was busy with school work or athletics, or setting a long engagement. In this way the woman did not have to see the man a great deal, but was removed from the need to date and prove her attractiveness. The third group, a small group of heretics and dropouts, resisted the cultural demands, acted on their own and did not seek group support.

Although not all women believed, enjoyed, and participated in this cultural model to the same degree, the strong presence of the model on the university campus affected all the young women. It was difficult, if not impossible to be unaware of the constant emphasis on romance and attractiveness. Young women were on the "sexual auction block" where their attractiveness and attraction power were continuously evaluated.

The beliefs within the cultural model that the treatment a woman receives from a man is a signal of her attractiveness and attraction power has implications for rape acknowledgement. If a woman is attractive, then men will treat her well. If she is not attractive, then she cannot expect good treatment from men. Conversely, if she is treated poorly, then she must not be attractive. Women who believe in and participate in this cultural model interpret the behavior of men, especially acquaintances and dates, as a reflection not only of the individual man, but also as a reflection of her status within the peer culture. It is hypothesized that rape, under this systems of beliefs, would result in a woman's being defined, by herself and her peers, as not attractive and as having a low power of attraction. Whereas, if she does not acknowledge the rape, then she does not have to deal with the

belief system that interprets the rape as an indication of unattractiveness. Lebowitz and Roth's (1994) thematic content analysis supports the conclusion that acknowledged rape victims face many negative feelings about themselves. They found that acknowledged rape survivors felt that the experience placed them in a category of women that did not deserve respect. Since self-respect, popularity with peers, attractiveness to men, and ability to attract men are so important, a devaluing experience, such as rape, is understandably difficult to acknowledge.

It is hypothesized that the more a woman believes in the cultural model of attractiveness and romance, and the more attractive she feels, the more likely she will experience cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957; Festinger & Carlsmith, 1959) when raped. Cognitive dissonance theory asserts that when a person holds two inconsistent thoughts or beliefs, or acts inconsistent with a belief, then tension is produced. The individual then is motivated to reduce the tension. There are several options for reducing this tension: change of belief, change interpretation of behavior, seek new information that will help redefine the inconsistency, and minimize the inconsistency. For a woman who has been raped and who feels relatively attractive, belief in the cultural model should create cognitive dissonance. Her belief that bad treatment is associated with low attractiveness and her belief that she is attractive are contradictory. This woman should be less likely to acknowledge her rape in order to continue feeling attractive. She will minimize the inconsistency. If a woman has a high belief in the cultural model, but does not see herself as attractive, then she should not experience cognitive dissonance, and should be more likely to acknowledge the rape. If belief in the model is low, the woman should be more likely to acknowledge the rape without regard for her perceived attractiveness.

If the woman is in a dating relationship with the perpetrator, then her commitment and satisfaction with the relationship should influence her acknowledgement. If she is committed to the relationship, satisfied with the relationship, she would be less likely to acknowledge the rape. Acknowledging the rape would create dissonance with her commitment and satisfaction with the relationship.

Sociocultural Level

The sociocultural level examines the social and cultural context of rape; factors such as living in a patriarchal society where violence is considered an acceptable way of solving problems are analyzed for their impact on the acknowledgement of rape. The acceptance of rape myths (Burt, 1980) and of sexual scripts (LaPlante, McCormick, & Brannigan, 1980; Goodchilds, Zellman, Johnson, & Giarrusso, 1988) contribute to the atmosphere in which acknowledgement of rape is difficult. A woman who publicly acknowledges rape may face blame, trivialization, isolation and stigmatization (Koss & Burkhart, 1989). It does not matter whether she personally accepts cultural values about rape. The reaction of others to a woman who acknowledges rape can send the message that she should be ashamed, that she is at least partly to blame, and that she is not as valuable a person as she was before. Beliefs that blame and stigmatize a woman may contribute to women's reluctance to acknowledge a rape experience as the quote below describes.

> Victims of sexual assault must contend with a culture in which socially transmitted myths about rape support a belief in the woman's responsibility for rape (Burt, 1980). In this climate, the cognitive reappraisals that lead to trauma resolution are not likely to occur. Rather than supporting a redefinition of rape as "bad luck," or "not your fault," or "no reflection on you," these cultural myths may reinforce feelings of unworthiness in a raped woman. Burdened by a belief in her responsibility for sexual

> outcome, a woman will find it difficult to obtain validation of the reality of her status as a victim and to rebuild her shattered assumptions. Likewise, the acquaintance rape victim is compromised by her culture and her own socialization in attempting to resolve her trauma. Led to believe that she is responsible for any sexual outcome and faced with an unsupportive social environment (including an assailant who may even ask her to go out with him again), the woman experiences herself as having only the choice of responsibility and self-blame, or denial. It may not be until years later through a chance remark or exposure to similar circumstances that she will recognize her own victimization and her accommodation to it. (Koss & Burkhart, 1989)

Cultural attitudes about rape remain an important aspect of rape acknowledgement. While cultural beliefs are no doubt significant influences on individuals, their effect is distal and therefore, subtle and difficult for psychologists to measure within a culture. Cross-cultural studies have associated variations in the rate of occurrence and in the normative nature of rape with differences in beliefs and customs (Rozee, 1994; Sanday, 1981).

CHAPTER III

STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to examine influences on rape acknowledgement of university women. Based on previous research and theoretical supposition, factors at the individual/developmental, interpersonal, and social network levels of analysis were hypothesized to predict acknowledgement (See Figure 1). In addition to the hypotheses suggested by previous research, the inter-relationships among the variables at the various levels were tested (see Figures 2 and 3).

Interpersonal Level of Analysis Hypotheses

The study was expected to replicate findings that:

1. Acknowledged rape victims were more likely to have had more physical force used and suffered more physical harm during the rape than unacknowledged rape victims.
2. Acknowledged rape victims were expected to report feeling less close and to say they were less well acquainted with the perpetrator than unacknowledged rape victims.
3. If a woman was in a relationship with the perpetrator then the level of commitment and satisfaction with the relationship was expected to predict her acknowledgement.

Individual/Developmental Level of Analysis Hypotheses

4. It was predicted that the greater a woman's self-blame for the rape, the less likely she would be to acknowledge the rape.
5. Unacknowledged rape victims were expected to have more romantic notions of love than acknowledged rape victims (Lloyd, 1991) and less pragmatic beliefs about love.
6. The possession of a blitz rape script was predicted to decrease the likelihood of acknowledgement.

Social Network Level of Analysis Hypotheses

7. It was predicted that the more sexually aggressive men and sexually victimized women in a rape victim's peer group, the less likely she would be to acknowledge the rape.

8. The degree of a rape victim's belief and participation in the cultural model of romance and attractiveness, together with self-perceived level of attractiveness, was expected to predict acknowledgement. Acknowledgement was predicted to be greatest in women who believed in the CMRA and who felt attractive.

Hypothesized Inter-relationships

In addition to these eight hypotheses concerning rape acknowledgement, interrelationships among the variables were expected.

9. Self-blame for the rape was predicted to be positively associated with romantic beliefs, possession of a blitz rape script, closeness to the perpetrator, degree of acquaintanceship with the perpetrator, involvement with a sexually aggressive peer group, and attractiveness and participation in the cultural model of romance and attractiveness. Self-blame was expected to be negatively correlated with severity of the rape attack (see Figure 2).

10. Closeness to the perpetrator and degree of acquaintanceship with the perpetrator is expected to be positively correlated with being a part of a sexually aggressive peer group (see Figure 3).

11. The more a rape victim possess a blitz rape script, the higher the belief in the CMRA (See Figure 3).

12. Commitment and satisfaction in a relationship with a perpetrator should be positively related to a sexually aggressive peer group (See Figure 3).

Development of CMRA Scale

In order to adequately test the hypotheses above, a scale to assess the belief in the CMRA was created. A preliminary study (Study 1) was conducted to establish the psychometric properties of the scale.

CHAPTER IV

METHODS: STUDY 1

Participants

Participants, under the age of 25, were recruited from the introductory psychology subject pool at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro in exchange for partial fulfillment of class requirements. The total number of women who took the CMRA was 358. The ethnic background of the participants was 75.5% European American, 21% African American, 1.7% Hispanic, 1.4% Asian American, and .3% Native American. The majority of the participants were between 17 and 21 years of age (93.8%). The marital status of the students was predominately single (89.5%); 8.5% were engaged, 1.7% were married, and .3% were divorced.

A subgroup of these women (N=202) took the measures to be used to assess reliability and validity of the CMRA and were asked to return in two weeks to retake the CMRA. 175 out of 202 women (87%) returned for the retest. Of these 175 women, 83.3% were European American, 13.3% African American, and 3.3% other minorities. 93.2% of the sample was between 17 and 21 years of age, and 87% were single.

Procedure

To establish the reliability and validity of the scale developed to measure the beliefs in the CMRA, all females in the introductory psychology pool for the fall of 1994 and the spring of 1995 were eligible. Subjects were solicited to take the questionnaires in small groups by sign-up sheets placed on the Psychology 221 Experiment Board. Participants were apprised of the nature of the study and told that they were not obligated to participate or answer any questions that they do not want to (see Oral Presentation, Appendix D). It was emphasized that the study was confidential, only examined data as a group, and that

there was no penalty for withdrawal. After giving written consent (see Appendix D), participants were given the questionnaires to fill out. After taking the survey, the women were given a debriefing statement (Appendix D) and verbally debriefed.

The questionnaire consisted of the CMRA scale and several other scales used to assess the convergent and discriminant validity of the CMRA scale. The scales included were the Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974), the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (SDS) (Reynolds, 1982), the Pragma and Ludus subscales of the Love Attitude Scale (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986), the Relational Assessment Questionnaire (RAQ) (Snell & Finney, 1993), the Rosenberg self-esteem scale (RSE) (1979), the appearance evaluation, appearance orientation, satisfaction with body parts, weight preoccupation, and weight evaluation subscales of the Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire (MBSRQ) (Cash, 1990), the Texas Social Behavior Inventory (Helmreich & Stamp, 1974), the Self-consciousness Inventory (Fenigstein, Scheier, & Buss, 1975), the Acceptance of Traditional Gender Roles (ATGR), Endorsement of Chivalry (EC), Endorsement of Traditional Family Roles (ETFR), Opposition to Equal Job Opportunities (OEJO), and Opposition to Social and Legislative Action to Further Women's Rights (OWR) subscales of the Multicomponent Female-Male Relations Attitude Inventory (MFMRAI) (Ashmore and Del Boca, 1987).

For the assessment of the test-retest reliability of the CMRA, all women in the fall of 1994 (N=202) were asked to come back for a retest in two weeks. An appointment was arranged for interested participants.

Materials

Cultural Model of Attraction and Romance (CMRA) subscales (11) (Appendix C)

A scale was developed to assess different aspects of the cultural model of attractiveness and romance. Based upon descriptions of the model (Holland, 1988; Holland and Eisenhart, 1990), 11 separate beliefs

and methods of participation in the peer culture were identified. For each of these areas, questions were developed that reflected critical elements of these categories. The CMRA has three subscales that assess how much a person participates in the CMRA: Topics of Importance, Use of Slang, and Talk about Guys. Four of the subscales deal with beliefs associated with the CMRA: Dating and Attractiveness are Important, Dating Equals Attractiveness, Treatment by Men Equals Attractiveness, and Relationships Provide Status and Prestige. Two of the subscales, Enjoyment and Attraction Power, measure feelings, the first about the CMRA and the second about a woman's ability to be attractive within the model. The Protected Niche subscale assesses how useful a woman finds a steady relationship as an escape from the CMRA. The Relationship Treatment subscale measures how well a woman is actually treated within an ongoing relationship (if applicable).

In the first step of scale construction, an open-ended set of questions that establish what the participant and her friends talk about, a set of questions to assess the use of peer-related slang, and 104 statements to which agreement was rated on a Likert-scale were given to small sample (N=15) of university women. Items that appeared redundant were deleted. The shortened version retained the open-ended questions, the peer-related slang questions, and 76 statements. The 11 subscales and a description of each are listed below:

1. Topics of Importance (Topics). Topics of Importance is a measure of how much a person participates in various aspects of the cultural model. Based on qualitative responses, items pertaining to involvement in the belief system are counted (e.g., boys, my boyfriend, clothes, my weight). The individual is asked to write 10 things that she (1) thinks about almost every day, (2) talks about with friends almost every day, and (3) that her friends talk about almost every day. Each item is rated on a 5-point Likert scale according to how important the item is to the respondent. For Topics of Importance the importance score for

all items that fit into the cultural model are summed and divided by the total number of responses.

Scoring of these items was done by trained undergraduate psychology majors. The experimenter also coded approximately 10% of the observations coded by the raters. Reliability was calculated by dividing the number of agreements by the number of responses for each question. The inter-rater reliability was .97. Observations were chosen at random from each coding session to be checked for inter-rater reliability. By assessing reliability of each session and providing feedback to the raters, the possibility of drifting definitions over time was reduced.

2. Use of Slang Names (Slang). - Use of Slang Names is a second measure of a person's participation in the cultural model. Holland (1988) reports that the use of slang names is a common way for individuals to locate themselves and others within the cultural model. For instance, if Susan refers to Carole's date as a "geek," she is not only evaluating Carole's date as unattractive, but also as less attractive than herself. She is also, by association, implying that Carole is less attractive than herself. Thus, the use of names is an important way to participate in the cultural model by evaluating relative attractiveness. Since the actual labels used to designate types of men and women are faddish and may vary from group to group, participants are asked to list 10 names that they hear used to refer to (1) guys, and (2) girls. They are then asked to rate on a seven-point scale (1=not at all, 7=a lot) (1) "how often, in general, you hear these names used" (2) "how often, in general, do you use these words," (3) "how often, in general, do you hear your friends using these words," (4) "how much you believe the terms really fit certain guys (girls) you've seen or met." Although the names themselves were not analyzed, the total number of names listed was multiplied by the average of the first 3 rating questions. A number was computed for the male and female names

separately. The two scores were added for a total score. Question 4, was summed for male and female names separately and a mean was calculated. This variable was kept separate because frequency and beliefs were seen as conceptually distinct.

On subscales 3-11 the participants answer the questions using 1-5 Likert scales. For each subscale, the mean of the responses will be used.

3. Talk about Guys (5 items) (Guy Talk). This subscale assesses how much a woman thinks about guys and dating.

4. Dating and Attractiveness are Important (Attimp) (12 items). This subscale assesses how strongly the individual believes that dating and being judged attractive are important to her.

5. Dating Equals Attractiveness (Deqatt) (5 items). The strength of the belief that dating is a sign of attractiveness and that the status of the date affects judgements of the woman's attractiveness are measured with this scale.

6. Treatment by Men Equals Attractiveness (Trteq) (10 items). This scale assesses the belief that the better a man treats a woman the more attractive she is and vice versa.

7. Relationships Provide Status, Prestige (Releq) (7 items). The strength of the belief that dating a man, especially one high in prestige, increases a woman's status.

8. Enjoyment (Enjoy) (9 items). This scale measures how much a woman enjoys being judged by her appearance and who she dates.

9. Protected Niche (Niche) (4 items). These items measure how much a woman enjoys having a boyfriend as a way to escape participation in the cultural model.

10. Attraction Power (7 items) (Attract1). These questions assess how confident a woman feels about her dating ability and physical attractiveness.

11. Relationship Treatment (Reltrt) (12 items). This scale measures how well a woman is actually treated within an ongoing relationship.

Self-Monitoring Scale (Appendix C) (Snyder, 1974; 1987)

Self-monitoring is the extent to which individuals regulate their behavior in social situations. Persons high in self-monitoring change their behavior to fit different interactions. Low self-monitors do not control or change their behavior for different people; they are more likely to act consistently across a variety of settings (Snyder, 1987). The 25 item self-monitoring scale has a Kuder-Richardson 20 reliability of .70 and a one-month test-retest reliability of .83 (Snyder, 1974).

Self-monitoring was expected to have small to moderate positive correlations with the CMRA subscales. The more one engages in self-monitoring, the more likely one is to believe in and participate in the peer culture. However, since modifying behavior to fit into a situation is only a small part of believing in and participation in the peer culture, the correlations should small to moderate. The exceptions to the prediction concern those subscales of the CMRA that do not reflect belief or participation in the peer culture. The attractiveness scale (Attract1), relationship treatment scale (Reltrt), protected niche (Niche), and enjoyment of the peer culture (Enjoy) were not expected to correlate with self-monitoring.

Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Appendix C) (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964)

The Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (SDS) assesses a person's tendency to answer items in a socially desirable fashion. It also has been suggested to be an indirect measure of the need for approval (Crowne, 1979; Crowne & Marlowe, 1964). Three short forms of the SDS were created and tested (Reynolds, 1982). A thirteen-item version was found to have a relatively normal score distribution, to have a Kuder-Richardson 20 reliability of .76, and a .93 correlation with the original SDS. Both the original SDS and the 13-item SDS have similar correlations (.47 and .41, respectively) with the Edwards SDS (another measure of social desirability) (Reynolds, 1982).

All subscales of the CMRA were expected to be uncorrelated with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (SDS) (Reynolds, 1982). Since none of the subscales of the CMRA were assumed to be measuring social desirable responding or the need for approval, two factors that the SDS is thought to measure, the correlations should be about zero.

Love Attitudes Scale (Appendix C) Pragma and Ludus subscales (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986)

The Pragma subscale of the Love Attitudes Scale contains seven items which all relate to pragmatic, planful love attitudes (e.g. "A main consideration in choosing a lover is how she/he reflects on my family," "It is best to love someone from a similar background"). The Ludus subscale also contains seven items that reflect a manipulative, shallow, game-playing orientation to romantic relationships (e.g. "I enjoy playing the 'game of love' with a number of different partners" and "When my lover gets too dependent on me, I want to back off a little"). Participants indicate the extent of their agreement with each question about love using a 5 point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). Hendrick, Hendrick, Foote, and Slapion-Foote (1984) performed a factor analysis on the 54 item Love Attitudes Scale and Pragma, Mania, and Agape emerged as three clear factors; the other three scales, Storge, Ludus, and Eros did not emerge as distinct factors. Hendrick and Hendrick (1986) factor analyzed a revised 42-item Love Attitudes Scale and Pragma and Ludus emerged as separate factors (loadings between .54 and .72 for Pragma and between .47 and .70 for Ludus). These results were confirmed in a second study. The other four subscales appeared distinct but had a few items loading in the .30 range. The internal consistency for Pragma was .81 (.74, second study) and test-retest reliability (4-6 weeks) of .78 (.71, second study). The internal consistency for Ludus was .76 (.74, for second study) and the test-retest reliability was .72 (.82, for second study).

Women have been shown to score slightly higher than men on the Pragma subscale and slightly lower than men on the Ludus subscale (Dion & Dion, 1993; Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986; Hendrick, et al., (1984). Self-esteem was not related to Pragma in two studies (Dion & Dion, 1993; Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986).

Since acceptance and participation in peer system of romance and attractiveness have a practical element, the subscales should correlate positively with the Pragma subscale. The Love Attitude Scale, Pragma subscale, was predicted to have small positive correlations with the belief and participation subscales (Attimp, Deqatt, Trteq, Releq, and Topics, Slang, Guy Talk). The Niche subscale was also expected to be positively correlated with the Pragma subscale since endorsement of the items in the Niche implies a pragmatic attitude toward relationships. No correlation was expected with Enjoy, Attract1, and Reltrt.

The Ludus subscale measures a manipulative and shallow orientation to relationships and love. Some of the items on the Ludus subscale imply promiscuity, taking more than one lover at a time, and remaining independent. Although women who believe and participate in the peer system may see romance as shallow or manipulative, there is not as strong an emphasis on promiscuity and independence as in male peer systems. Probably for this reason, women tend to score lower than men on the Ludus scale. Since some of the items may correlate positively and some may correlate negatively with the CMRA subscales, the correlations with the Ludus subscale were expected to be about zero. Attract1 and Reltrt were exceptions; there were no predictions about the relationship between these two scales and Ludus.

The 4 other subscales, Eros, Storge, Mania, and Agape will not be used because the wording of the individual questions assumes a love affair is ongoing and assesses attitudes thorough behavioral description (e.g. "my lover and I were attracted to each other immediately after we first met," "our lovemaking is very intense and satisfying"). To

assess general romantic attitudes, the Romantic Beliefs Scale will be used (e.g " I am likely to fall in love almost immediately if I meet the right person").

Relational Assessment Questionnaire (RAQ) (Appendix C) (Snell & Finney, 1993)

The RAQ assesses an individual's Relational-preoccupation, Relational-esteem, and Relational-depression. Relational-preoccupation is a person's tendency to become absorbed and obsessed with intimate relationships. Relational-esteem is a person's rating of their ability to have positive interpersonal relationships. Relational-depression is the tendency for a person to negatively evaluate their intimate relationships and to doubt one's capacity to have a meaningful relationship. Factor analysis confirmed the existence of three separate factors (Snell & Finney, 1993). Internal consistency coefficients for the three subscales was .86 for Relational-preoccupation, .86 for Relational-esteem, and .90 for Relational-depression. Four week test-rest reliability scores ranged form .78 to .84. At eight weeks the test-retest reliability scores ranged from .60 to .74. In addition, both convergent and discriminant validity were demonstrated (Snell & Finney, 1993).

It was expected that the higher one's Relational-esteem as measured by the RAQ, the higher the score on the Enjoy, Attract1, Reltrt subscales. Participation, as measured by the three participation subscales, was also expected to be higher if Relational-esteem is higher. The other subscales of the CMRA were not expected to correlate with Relational-esteem.

It was expected that the more one believes in the peer system of dating and attraction, the higher the score on the Relational-preoccupation subscale. The enjoy subscale is expected to have a small negative correlation with the Relational-preoccupation subscale. The more one is preoccupied with having a relationship, the less the peer

culture can be enjoyed. Attract1 and reltrt were not expected to correlate with Relational-preoccupation.

For Relational-depression, a negative correlation was expected for enjoy, attract1, and reltrt. The more depressed a person is about her ability to be a successful partner in a relationship, the less likely she is to enjoy the cultural model, feel attractive, and be treated well in a relationship. No correlation was expected with the other CMRA subscales. The amount of belief and participation in the cultural model should not be affected by Relational-depression.

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE) (Appendix C) (1979)

The Rosenberg self-esteem scale has an internal reliability of .85 (Rosenberg, 1979; 1986). This scale has been used to predict sustaining sexual abuse in a dating relationship (Burke, Stets, Pirog-Good, 1988). Construct validity was established by demonstrating theoretically predicted relationships between self-esteem and depressive affect, anxiety, and peer-group reputation (Rosenberg, 1986). Convergent validity was established by correlating the RSE with other measures of self-esteem. The RSE is associated with the Kelley Repertory Test, $\underline{r}$ = .67, the Heath self-image questionnaire, $\underline{r}$ = .83, and to a psychiatrist's rating, $\underline{r}$ = .56 (Rosenberg, 1986).

The CMRA Attraction Power subscale (Attract1) was expected to have small to moderate positive correlation with the Rosenberg Self-Esteem measure. Since feeling attractive as a person and a date is a sign of good self-esteem, these measures should be correlated positively. Because the Rosenberg measure assesses general self-esteem, it was not thought to be related to any of the other CMRA subscales. General self-esteem should be independent of belief and participation in the cultural model.

Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire (MBSRQ) (Appendix C) (Cash, 1990)

The MBSRQ is a 69-item scale that assesses 10 aspects of attitudes about one's body image. A factor analysis of 1,064 women and 988 men confirmed the subscales (Brown, Cash, & Mikulka, 1990). The subscales to be used in the present study are Appearance Evaluation (AE), Appearance Orientation (AO), Body-area Satisfaction Scale (BASS), Self-classified Weight (SCW), and Overweight Preoccupation (OP). Appearance Evaluation contains 7 items about how satisfied a person is with their physical appearance. Appearance Orientation contains 12 items that assess how much time and energy a person spends on their appearance, Body-area Satisfaction uses 4 items to determine how satisfied a person is with specific areas of the body. Self-classified Weight is assessed with 2 items about how one perceives and label's their weight. Overweight Preoccupation consists of four items that reflect how concerned a person is with being overweight.

For these 5 scales, the internal consistency for 1070 women was found to range from .73 to .89; the one month test-retest reliability scores ranged from .74 to .91 (Brown, Cash, Mikulka, 1990).

The CMRA Attraction Power subscale is a measure of how attractive a person feels physically and how attractive they think others see them as a dating partner. This subscale was predicted to be positively correlated with two measures of personal attractiveness, the Appearance Evaluation and Body-area Satisfaction subscales of the Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire (Cash, 1990), and negatively associated with the Weight Evaluation subscale, a subscale that assesses how unhappy a person is with their weight and the Weight Preoccupation subscale, a measure of obsession with body size. The Appearance Orientation subscale of the MBSRQ is a measure of how much time a person spends on their appearance and should not be related to the Attract1 scale.

Texas Social Behavior Inventory (TSBI) (Appendix C) (Helmreich & Stapp, 1974)

The TSBI is a 32 item measure of social self-esteem or social competence (Helmreich, Stapp, & Ervin, 1974) that has predicted interpersonal attraction in the laboratory, has positive correlations with both the masculinity and femininity subscales of the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (for both men and women), has a positive correlation with social desirability in women, and is not related to scores on the Scholastic Aptitude Test (cited in Helmreich & Stapp, 1974).

A principal components analysis has revealed one factor for the TSBI; an oblique rotation, however, produced four intercorrelated factors for women: dominance, confidence, social competence, and relations to authority figures (cited in Helmreich & Stapp, 1974). The long form of the TSBI was divided into two 16 item short forms. The two short forms were highly correlated with the long form (.974, for version A, .977, for version B), and with each other (.894) among college women. Differences between men and women and between forms were not statistically significant. Factor analyses of version A and B revealed similar results as for the long form (Helmreich & Stapp, 1974). Similarly, Stake and Orlofsky (1981) factor analyzed form A of the TSBI and found three factors: social competence, dominance, and confidence. Since the two short forms of the TSBI are similar to the large form and can be administered more quickly, version A of the TSBI will be used.

It was expected that the higher a person's social self-esteem, the higher their scores on the participation and enjoyment subscales of the CMRA. The more comfortable and confident a person is in social situations, the more likely they are to enjoy and participate in the peer culture. Yet, social self-esteem was not expected to be the only, or even the main reason for participation and enjoyment, so the correlations were expected to be small to moderate. The other subscales

of the CMRA were not expected to be related to the TSBI, with the exception of Attract1. Attract1 was expected to have small to moderate positive correlations with the social self-esteem subscale of the Texas Social Behavior Inventory (Helmreich & Stapp, 1974). Since feeling attractive as a person and a date is a sign of good self-esteem, these measures should be positively correlated.

Self-Consciousness Scale (Appendix C) (Fenigstein, Scheier, & Buss, 1975)

This scale measures three aspects of self-focused attention: Public Self-consciousness, Social Anxiety, and Private Self-consciousness. Public Self-consciousness measures the extent to which a person is aware of the impression they are making on others (e.g. I'm concerned about the way I present myself). Social Anxiety assess a person's tendency to feel nervous in social situations (e.g. I feel anxious when I speak in front of a group). Private Self-consciousness assesses the degree to which an individual focuses on internal thoughts and feelings (e.g. I reflect about myself often). While Public and Private Self-consciousness involve the process of focusing attention on the self, Social Anxiety is the result of this process.

Factor analyses (Fenigstein, et al. 1975) in a pilot study and in two studies with the refined scale confirm the existence and independence of the three separate subscales. The final scale consists of 23 items that are rated on a 1-5 scale point Likert scale ranging from extremely uncharacteristic to extremely characteristic of me. The subscales are approximately normally distributed, men and women do not differ in their responses, and the subscales have an average 2-week test-retest reliability of .80 (individual subscale coefficients ranged for .73-84). In two studies Public Self-consciousness was moderately correlated with Private self-consciousness (study 1, r = .23, study 2, r =.26) and Social Anxiety (study 1, r = .21, study 2, r =.20). Private

Self-consciousness and Social Anxiety were not correlated (study 1, r = .11, study 2, r = -.06).

Women high in Public Self-consciousness have been found to be more sensitive to peer group rejection than women low in Public Self-consciousness; Private Self-consciousness was not related (cited in Fenigstein, et al., 1975). Subjects high in Private Self-consciousness have be found to be more affected by transient emotions; when provoked individuals high in Private Self-consciousness reacted with more aggression than those low in Private Self-consciousness (Fenigstein et al., 1975).

It was expected that the more Public Self-consciousness a person has, as measured by the Self-Consciousness Scale (Fenigstein, et al., 1975), the higher the CMRA subscale scores for participation in the peer system of romance and attractiveness. The more a person participates in the cultural system of romance and attractiveness, the more aware that person should be of the ratings of status that occur in the public sphere. The more aware a person is of the rating system, the more likely that person would be to feel self-conscious in public places. There was not expected to be a correlation between reltrt or enjoy and Public Self-consciousness. The attractiveness scale (attract1) was expected to be negatively associated with Public Self-consciousness. The better a person feels about their attractiveness, the more confident they would feel in public.

The Social Anxiety subscale should not correlate with the participation subscales of the CMRA. A person's level of anxiety may or may not affect participation in the cultural system. However, the belief subscales (Attimp, Deqatt, Trteq, Releq) are expected to have positive correlations with Social Anxiety. Believing that attractiveness and dating are the measures of status and prestige should be associated with higher anxiety in situations where these qualities will be judged. Social Anxiety was expected to correlate negatively

with enjoyment. The more anxious a person is in social situations, the less likely that person is to enjoy a cultural system that rates that person. Niche should be negatively associated with Social Anxiety. If a person is anxious about being judged, finding a niche where one is protected from such assessments should be desirable. The attractiveness scale (Attract1) was expected to be negatively associated with Social Anxiety. The better a person feels about their attractiveness, the less likely they are to be anxious in social situations. Reltrt was not expected to correlate with Social Anxiety.

Private Self-consciousness was not expected to correlate with any of the CMRA subscales. The level of inner awareness and reflection should not be related to participation and beliefs.

Multicomponent Female-Male Relations Attitude Inventory (MFMRAI) (Appendix C) (Ashmore and Del Boca, 1987)

The MFMRAI is a scale that measures attitudes and evaluative responses about men and women on four levels: individual, interpersonal relationships, social roles, and socially defined groups. The 198 items form thirteen subscales of the MFMRAI. In this study 5 subscales were selected which had adequate psychometric properties and tapped distinct areas of gender-related attitudes that were thought to relate to a woman's acceptance of the CMRA. The five subscales are: Acceptance of Traditional Gender Roles (ATGR), Endorsement of Chivalry (EC), Endorsement of Traditional Family Roles (ETFR), Opposition to Equal Job Opportunities (OEJO), Opposition to Social and Legislative Action to Further Women's Rights (OWR). Factor analyses confirmed the uniqueness and coherence of the subscales, although a few of the items did not load highly (.2-.4). The internal consistency coefficients were satisfactory for women, ranging from .71 to .88. The subscales are not correlated with social desirability (r's ranging from -.03-.08). The scales are moderately correlated (r's ranging from .22-.33) with a liberalism-conservatism scale, with the exception of Acceptance of Traditional

Gender Roles which does not correlate with the liberalism-conservatism scale ($r = .07$).

Women's participation and belief in the peer defined culture of romance and attractiveness should be positively correlated with traditional gender attitudes as measured by the Acceptance of Traditional Gender Roles subscale since the CMRA is a system that is based upon traditional male-female relationships. However, belief and participation in the CMRA encompasses specific beliefs that go beyond gender stereotypes. Therefore, the correlations were expected to be small to moderate. The Niche subscale was also expected to have positive association with the Acceptance of Traditional Gender Roles. The more a woman believes in traditional roles, the more likely she is to appreciate the benefits of having a boyfriend. The CMRA subscales for enjoyment, attractiveness, and relationship treatment were not expected to correlate with the traditional gender role beliefs. The other four subscales of the MFMRAI were not expected to correlate with any of the CMRA subscales. These other subscales measures different aspects of male-female relations that should not be closely tied to the belief and participation in the CMRA.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS: STUDY 1

Before undertaking any analyses, the normality of each scale was checked. The responses to the Relational-Depression scale of the Relational Assessment Questionnaire (RAQ) were skewed. This scale was re-expressed as the base-10 log of the original scale to achieve a more normal distribution. In five cases, observations which were 5 or more standard deviations away from the mean were deleted. These outliers did not congregate in any one scale and were not attributed to a single individual. After the deletion of the outliers and the re-expression of the Relational-Depression scale, all scales approximated a normal distribution.

Establishing Reliability and Validity of the CMRA Subscales

Reliability

The internal reliability of the CMRA subscales was determined by computing a Cronbach alpha coefficient on each subscale. In conjunction with the assessment of internal consistency, a principal components analysis was conducted to examine the factor structure of each individual subscale. Separate factor analyses of each subscale were calculated since the sample size (N=358) was judged too small to put all the subscale items into a single factor analysis. The CMRA contains, at present, 76 items, which includes 74 questions that are responded to in a Likert-scale format and two measures of participation attained from more open-ended questions. A principal components analysis for data with a fair amount of measurement error (i.e., most social and personality psychology data) generally require 10-15 subjects for each item included in the analysis.

By comparing results from the internal consistency measures and the factor loadings of the first factor for each subscale, the congruence of each item with the other items in each subscale was determined. A few items that did not load highly on the first factor (below .40) and whose removal raised the internal consistency of the total subscale were dropped. Nine items were discarded from four subscales. (See Table 1 for internal consistency coefficients and factor loadings.)

The Cronbach alpha's for the subscales ranged from .62 to .86. The loadings on the first factor in the principal components analysis for the subscales ranged from .39-.91. Overall these findings suggest that the subscales are internally consistent and that each subscale may be assessing some underlying characteristic. Whether or not the subscales are indeed measuring unique attributes will require further testing with a larger sample. For the purposes of this study, however, the internal reliability of the subscales was judged sufficient.

A two-week test-retest reliability was conducted on the Cultural Model of Romance and Attraction (CMRA) subscales. The test-retest reliability scores for the subscales ranged from .52-.86, with most of the reliability scores falling between .60 and .80 (See Table 2). These reliability scores suggest that there is adequate consistency over time in how the items are perceived.

Each subscale's internal consistency coefficients and test-retest reliability scores were examined and the subscales were roughly categorized into minimal (lowest reliability score between .50 and .59), adequate (lowest reliability score between .60 and .69), good (lowest reliability score between .70 and .79). and excellent (lowest reliability .80 and higher). Although these classifications are somewhat arbitrary and do not have any absolute meaning, the relative assessment of the subscales into categories was deemed a useful evil. These classifications should be understood to be only a rough assessment tool. Accordingly, the Enjoy and Niche subscales can be said to have

minimal reliability. The Topics, Deqatt, Trteq, and Guy Talk, subscales have adequate reliability. The Slang, Attimp, and Releq, subscales have good reliability. The Attract1 and Reltrt have excellent reliability.

Validity

Concurrent and discriminant validity were assessed by correlating CMRA subscales with other well known scales. Of the 190 predictions concerning the relationship between the subscales of the CMRA and other scales, 78% percent (148) of the predictions were supported (See Table 3). Since some of the correlations between scales were expected to be small, a liberal alpha level was set. Correlations with associated probability values of .15 and lower were considered "significant."

The Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974) was expected to have small to moderate positive correlations with the CMRA subscales. The exceptions to the prediction concern those subscales of the CMRA that do not reflect belief or participation in the peer culture. The Attraction Power subscale (Attract1), Relationship Treatment subscale (Reltrt), Protected Niche (Niche), and Enjoyment of the peer culture (Enjoy) were not expected to correlate with Self-monitoring. As shown in Table 3, the predictions were supported in 9 of the 11 subscales. Only Trteq and Guy Talk did not display a positive correlation with self-monitoring.

All subscales of the CMRA were expected to be uncorrelated with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (SDS) (Reynolds, 1982). All subscales except Topics were not significantly correlated with the SDS. Topics had a significant positive correlation with SDS ($r=.12$, $p > .15$).

The Love Attitude Pragma subscale was expected to have small positive correlations with the belief and participation subscales (Attimp, Deqatt, Trteq, Releq, and Topics, Slang, Guy Talk). The Niche subscale was also expected to be positively correlated with the Pragma subscale since endorsement of the items in the Niche implies a pragmatic attitude toward relationships. No correlation was expected with Enjoy, Attract1, and Reltrt. These predictions were supported for all

subscales, except for Topics and Attimp. These two subscales were found to be uncorrelated with the Pragma subscale.

The correlations between the Ludus subscale and the CMRA subscales were expected to be about zero. Attract1 and Reltrt were exceptions; there were no predictions about the relationship between these two scales and Ludus. Six of the 9 subscales did not correlate with the Ludus subscale as expected. Topics, Releq, and Enjoy all had small negative correlations with Ludus. An inspection of these scales reveals that Releq and Enjoy contain questions dealing with relationships being fun and useful. It may be that the more a woman sees relationships as useful for social reasons, the less likely she is to engage in relationships just for sexual pleasure; she may realize the need to protect her status to continue to enjoy the peer culture.

The Relational Assessment Questionnaire (RAQ) Relational-esteem subscale was expected to be positively correlated with Enjoy, Attract1, Reltrt, Topics, Slang, and Guy Talk. The other subscales of the CMRA were not expected to correlate with Relational-esteem. Attract1 and Reltrt were correlated with Relational esteem as predicted, but enjoy was not. Two of the three participation subscales were positively correlated with Relational-esteem (Topics and Slang). Two other scales that were not predicted to be related to Relational esteem were positively correlated, Attimp, and trteq.

It was expected that the more one believes in the peer system of dating and attraction, the higher the score on the Relational-preoccupation subscale. The enjoy subscale is expected to have a small negative correlation with the Relational preoccupation subscale. The more one is preoccupied with having a relationship, the less the peer culture can be enjoyed. Attract1 and reltrt were not expected to correlate with Relational preoccupation. The correlations were all as predicted except for Slang whose positive correlation with Relational preoccupation was a little smaller than anticipated ($r = .09$, $p > .05$).

For Relational-depression, a negative correlation was expected for enjoy, attract1, and reltrt. No correlation was expected with the other CMRA subscales. The amount of belief and participation in the cultural model should not be affected by Relational-depression. As predicted Relational-depression is negatively correlated with attract1 and reltrt, but the prediction did not hold for enjoy. There was no correlation with the other CMRA subscales as hypothesized, except for two. Deqatt and Releq were positively correlated with Relational-depression.

The CMRA Attraction Power subscale was predicted to be positively correlated with two measures of personal attractiveness, the Appearance Evaluation and Body-area Satisfaction subscales of the Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire (Cash, 1990), and negatively associated with the Weight Evaluation subscale, a subscale that assesses how unhappy a person is with their weight and the Weight Preoccupation subscale, a measure of obsession with body size. The Appearance Orientation subscale was not expected to be related to the Attract1 scale. The Attract1 scale predictions were supported by the correlations with the MBSRQ (see Table 3).

The CMRA Attraction Power subscale (Attract1) also was expected to have small to moderate positive correlations with the social self-esteem subscale of the Texas Social Behavior Inventory (Helmreich & Stapp, 1974) and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem measure. These predictions were supported.

The Texas Social Behavior Inventory (TSBI) was expected to have small positive correlations with the participation and enjoyment subscales of the CMRA. The other subscales of the CMRA were not expected to be related to the TSBI, with the exception of Attract1 (mentioned above). The predictions were not supported for two of the three participation subscales and for enjoy. There were also small negative correlations for deqatt and trteq where no correlation was predicted.

The Rosenberg self-esteem inventory was expected to correlate positively with attract1, mentioned above, but to be unrelated to the other CMRA subscales. The prediction held for 8 of the 11 subscales. Deqatt and Trteq were slightly negatively correlated, and Reltrt was slightly positively correlated.

It was expected that the more Public Self-consciousness a person has, as measured by the Self-Consciousness Scale (Fenigstein, et al., 1975), the higher the CMRA subscale scores for participation in the peer system of romance and attractiveness. There was not expected to be a correlation between reltrt or enjoy and Public Self-consciousness. The Attraction Power subscale (attract1) was expected to be negatively associated with Public Self-consciousness. The better a person feels about their attractiveness, the more confident they would feel in public. Nine out of eleven of these predictions were supported. Only Topics and Reltrt did not correlate as expected.

The Social Anxiety subscale was not expected to correlate with the participation subscales of the CMRA. However, the belief subscales (Attimp, Deqatt, Trteq, Releq) are expected to have positive correlations with Social Anxiety. Social Anxiety was expected to correlate negatively with enjoyment. Niche should be negatively associated with Social Anxiety. The Attraction Power subscale (Attract1) was expected to be negatively associated with Social Anxiety. Reltrt was not expected to correlate with Social Anxiety. All but one of these predictions was supported. Enjoy was not correlated negatively with Social Anxiety.

Private Self-consciousness was not expected to correlate with any of the CMRA subscales. This prediction held for seven of the eleven subscales. Attimp, Deqatt, Enjoy, and Niche did not conform to expectations.

The Multicomponent Female-Male Relations Attitude Inventory (MFMRAI) (Ashmore and Del Boca, 1987) Acceptance of Traditional Gender Roles

subscale was expected to be have small to moderate positive correlations with participation and belief in the peer defined culture of romance and attractiveness. The Niche subscale was also expected to have positive association with the Acceptance of Traditional Gender Roles. The CMRA subscales Enjoyment, Attraction Power, and Relationship Treatment were not expected to correlate with the Acceptance of Traditional Gender Roles. These hypothesized relationships were supported except for Topics, which did not correlate with traditional roles, and enjoy which had a small negative correlation with traditional roles.

The other four subscales of the MFMRAI were not expected to correlate with any of the CMRA subscales. These hypotheses were supported for the Endorsement of Chivalry subscale, for 7 of 11 CMRA subscales correlated with the Endorsement of Traditional Family Roles, for 8 of 11 subscales correlated with the Opposition to Equal Job Opportunities for women, and for 9 of 11 subscales correlated with the Opposition to Social and Legislative Action to Further Women's Rights.

A summary of the validity of the CMRA subscales, the reliability of the subscales, and an overall assessment of each CMRA subscale is presented in Table 4.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION: STUDY 1

Although the reliability and validity of the CMRA subscales were adequate to support the use of the scales in Study 2, there was some variability in the subscales. The Attract1 and Reltrt subscales had the best reliability and validity scores. This is not surprising since these two subscales assess narrow, well-defined constructs. How attractive a person feels and how well she is treated by her boyfriend are concepts which are more concrete and easier to assess than the inferred beliefs and participation about romance and attractiveness. Eight other subscales had adequate to good reliability and validity (Topics, Slang, Attimp, Deqatt, Trteq, Releq, Guy Talk, and Niche). The only subscale with psychometric properties low enough to cause concern was the Enjoy subscale, discussed below. In spite of the difficulties involved in constructing scales to assess belief and participation in the cultural model of romance and attraction, the majority of the subscales displayed adequate reliability and validity.

Only one of the subscales (Topics) was correlated with the Marlowe-Crowne measure of social desirability, and that correlation was small ($r=.12$, $p<.15$). This result provides support for the hypothesis that the CMRA subscales are not measuring or influenced by the need to respond in a socially desirable manner. The participants' responses are more than an effort to seek approval or answer questions as they think they "should." Since Topics was the open-ended section of the scale and asked the person to list what they thought and talked about each day, this subscale may be more subject to socially desirable responding.

Topics relationship with 12 out of 17 subscales was predicted correctly. Evidence for convergent validity is suggested by the

predicted positive correlations with Self-monitoring, Relational-esteem, Relational-preoccupation, and Social Self-esteem (TSBI). Topics failed to demonstrate the expected small positive correlation with the Pragma love attitude scale, Public Self-consciousness, or Acceptance of Traditional Gender Roles. Support for the scale's discriminant validity is found in the expected zero correlations with Relational-depression, general self-esteem (Rosenberg scale), Social Anxiety, Private Self-consciousness, the Endorsement of Chivalry scale, Endorsement of Traditional Family Roles scale, the Opposition to Equal Job Opportunities for Women scale, and the Opposition to Women's Rights subscale. Topics was negatively correlated with the Ludus subscale and positively correlated with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale when correlations were not expected. This participation subscale may be more a measure of how involved in some aspects of the CMRA a person is, but may not reflect any acceptance of the beliefs attached to the CMRA as previously hypothesized. Given the fact that this scale is a composite of lists of things the individual thinks about, talks about, and that her friend talks about everyday that fit into the cultural model of romance and attractiveness, the assessment of beliefs from this subscale may be more difficult that originally thought. However, the scale did correlate with 71% of the other scales as predictive, suggesting a certain degree of validity.

The Slang subscale had higher reliability and validity scores. Only 3 of 17 predictions were inaccurate for this subscale. Support for convergent validity came from predicted positive correlations with Self-monitoring, Pragma, Relational-esteem, Public Self-consciousness, and Endorsement of Traditional Family Roles. The correlation between Relational-preoccupation and Slang and between Social Self-esteem (TSBI) and Slang was smaller than expected. Discriminant validity was supported in the expected nonsignificant correlations between Slang and the Marlowe-Crowne, Ludus, Relational-depression, general self-esteem,

Social Anxiety, Private Self-consciousness, Endorsement of Chivalry, Traditional Roles, and Opposition to Equal Job Opportunities. A negative correlation was found between Slang and Opposition to Women's Rights where none was expected. Slang, the measure of participation in the CMRA by assessing how much a person uses names to evaluate herself and others, may have more to do with Relational-esteem than with Relational-preoccupation, or Social Self-esteem. The small positive correlation with Traditional Roles together with the unexpected small negative correlation with Opposition to Women' Rights suggest that naming may be associated with traditional patriarchal values more than was previously thought.

The third participation scale, Guy Talk, also met 14 out of 17 predictions. Evidence for convergent validity came from predicted positive correlations with Pragma, Relational-preoccupation, Public Self-consciousness, and traditional roles. Guy Talk failed to be positively correlated as expected with Self-monitoring, Relational-esteem, and Social Self-esteem. Support for discriminant validity was supported in nonsignificant correlations with the Marlowe-Crowne, Ludus, Relational-depression, Rosenberg self-esteem, Social Anxiety, Private Self-consciousness, Endorsement of Chivalry, Endorsement of Traditional Family Roles, Opposition to Equal Job Opportunities for women, and Opposition to Women's Rights. This subscale assesses how much women talk to their friends about men as a way to figure out who they are, especially as potential dates or boyfriends. This scale may not be associated with Relational and Social Self-esteem as previously thought. However, the positive correlations with Pragma, Relational-preoccupation, Public Self-consciousness, and Traditional Roles suggest that it does have some validity as a measure of participation in the Cultural Model of Romance and Attractiveness.

The Attimp scale was associated as predicted with 12 out of 17 scales. The support for convergent validity was found in the expected

positive correlations of Attimp with Self-monitoring, Relational-preoccupation, Public Self-consciousness, Social Anxiety, and Traditional Roles. The Attimp scale did not correlate as expected with the Pragma subscale. Evidence for discriminant validity came from the predicted lack of association between Attimp and the Marlowe-Crowne, Ludus, Relational-depression, social self-esteem, general self-esteem, Endorsement of Chivalry, and Opposition to Women's Rights. Relational-esteem was unexpectedly positively associated with Attimp as was Private Self-consciousness, Endorsement of Traditional Family Roles, and Opposition to Women's Rights. The convergent validity of Attimp was clearly superior to its discriminant validity. The belief that attractiveness and dating are important may well be part of the belief in the cultural model but also related to other beliefs not a part of the model.

For Deqatt, 12 out of 17 predictions were accurate. In support of convergent validity, Deqatt was predicted to positively correlate with Self-monitoring, Pragma, Relational-preoccupation, Public Self-consciousness, Social Anxiety, and Traditional Roles. The discriminant validity of this subscale was supported by nonsignificant correlations with the Marlowe-Crowne, Ludus, Relational-esteem, Endorsement of Chivalry, Endorsement of Traditional Family Roles, and Opposition to Women's Rights. Significant positive correlations were found but unpredicted for Relational-depression, Private Self-consciousness, and Opposition to Equal Job Opportunities. Unexpected negative correlations were found between Deqatt and Social Self-esteem and general self-esteem. As with Attimp, the evidence for convergent validity was stronger than for discriminant validity. The questions in the Deqatt subscale all deal with how "pretty girls" get better dates than unattractive girls. The unexpected negative correlations with social and general self-esteem, and Relational-depression suggest that this

measure may be tapping into general negative feelings more than anticipated.

The Trteq subscale was associated as predicted with 13 out of 17 scales. Support for convergent validity was gathered from positive correlations with Pragma, Relational-preoccupation, Public Self-consciousness, Self-anxiety, and Traditional Roles. A positive relationship between Trteq and Self-monitoring was expected, but not found. The hypotheses for establishing the discriminant validity of the Trteq scale were supported by the nonsignificant relationship with the Marlowe-Crowne, Ludus, Relational-depression, Private Self-consciousness, Endorsement of Chivalry, Endorsement of Traditional Family Roles, Opposition to Equal Job Opportunities, and Opposition to Women's Rights. The relationships between Trteq and Relational-esteem, Social Self-esteem, and general self-esteem were significant when no relationship was expected. Like Deqatt, Trteq may be assessing negative feelings about relationships as suggested by the unexpected negative correlations with social and general self-esteem. However, the unexpected positive correlation with Relational-esteem seems counter-intuitive.

For Releq, 13 out of 17 predictions were accurate. Convergent validity received support in the predicted positive correlations of Releq and Self-monitoring, Pragma, Relational-preoccupation, Public Self-consciousness, Social Anxiety, and Traditional Roles. For discriminant validity, support was found in the predicted nonsignificant relationship between Releq and the Marlowe-Crowne, Relational-esteem, Social Self-esteem, general self-esteem, Private Self-consciousness, Endorsement of Chivalry, and Opposition to Equal Job Opportunities. The predictions that Releq would not correlate with Ludus, Relational-depression Endorsement of Traditional Family Roles and Opposition to Women's Right's were not supported. The positive correlations with Traditional Roles, as well Endorsement of Traditional Family Roles and

Opposition to Women's Rights suggests that the belief that relationships are an avenue to gain status and prestige is related to a variety of patriarchal beliefs. The unexpected negative correlation with Ludus perhaps could have been predicted. The more one believes that relationships can provide status and prestige, the less likely that person would be to use relationships for hedonistic sexual reasons which run the risk of reducing her status with her peers. The unanticipated positive correlation with Relational-depression, suggests that Releq may be associated with negative feelings about being in a relationship.

For the Niche subscale 16 out of 17 predictions were in the correct direction. Niche was correctly hypothesized to be associated with Pragma. Relational-preoccupation, social self-esteem, Public Self-consciousness, Social Anxiety, and traditional roles. Evidence for discriminant validity was found in predicted nonsignificant correlations between Niche and self-monitoring, the Marlowe-Crowne, Ludus, Relational-esteem, Relational-depression, general self-esteem, Endorsement of Chivalry, and Opposition to Women's Rights. The correlations between Niche and Private Self-consciousness and Endorsement of Traditional Family Roles were unexpected. The correlation between Niche and Endorsement of Traditional Family Roles makes sense post hoc. Accepting family values where the wife takes care of domestic and child-rearing duties in exchange for the husband's financial support is similar to the belief that having a boyfriend has utilitarian value. In both situations, relationships are seen as part of a social exchange. The relationship between Niche and Private Self-consciousness is unclear. Overall, Niche seems to have good convergent and discriminant validity.

For the Attract1 subscale all the predictions were in the direction hypothesized. This scale demonstrated excellent reliability, convergent and discriminant validity. Attract1 can be assumed to be measuring a woman's assessment of the attractiveness and ability to attract men.

The Reltrt subscale was correlated as expected with 14 out of 16 subscales. Convergent validity was supported by the predicted correlations with Relational-esteem and Relational-depression. Evidence for discriminant validity was found in nonsignificant correlations with Self-monitoring, the Marlowe-Crowne, Pragma, Relational-preoccupation, Social Self-esteem, Social Anxiety, Private Self-consciousness, Traditional Roles, Endorsement of Chivalry, Endorsement of Traditional Family Roles, Opposition to Equal Job Opportunities, and Opposition to Women's Rights. The unpredicted correlations with general self-esteem and Public-Self-consciousness did not provide support for discriminant validity. The positive correlation with general self-esteem as well as Relational-esteem, suggests that the treatment a woman reports receiving in a relationship is higher if she feels better about herself and her ability to have a healthy relationship. As expected, however, the more specific measure of self-esteem for relationships has the highest correlation with treatment in relationships. Thus, even though the correlation between Reltrt and general self-esteem was not predicted, the magnitude of the relationship when compared to Relational-esteem does not call into question the validity of the Reltrt scale.

The Enjoy subscale had poor reliability and validity. The items in this subscale may be poorly written and too vague to measure the construct intended. Enjoyment of the CMRA may be a complex, multi-faceted emotion that wasn't adequately assessed by this set of questions. Due to the questionable reliability and validity of Enjoy, this subscale will not be used in Study 2.

In summary, 10 of the 11 subscales of the CMRA have been found to have adequate reliability and validity to use in the second study. However, further testing of these subscales is needed. Most of the 10 subscales demonstrated better convergent than discriminant validity. Further refinement of the scales should be done to improve the discriminant validity. The collection of more data will allow for a

single factor analysis of all the items in the subscales. When this is done, new groupings of items may improve the reliability and validity scores.

CHAPTER VII

METHODS: STUDY 2

Participants

Participants, under the age of 25, were recruited from the introductory psychology subject pool at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro in exchange for partial fulfillment of class requirements. The total number of women in the study was 109. The ethnic background of the participants was 80% European American, 16% African American, 2.4% Hispanic, 1.9% Asian American. The majority of the participants were between 17 and 21 years of age (93%). The marital status of the students was predominately single (88.4%); 10% were engaged, 1% were married, and .5% were divorced. All participants had been classified as having experiences that meet a legal definition of rape.

Procedure

Participants were selected from mass screening based upon their self-reports of sexual victimization assessed by the Sexual Experiences Survey (Koss, et al., 1987, Appendix C). Subjects were telephoned, apprised of the nature of the study, and asked to participate. Upon arrival participants were told that they were not obligated to participate or answer any questions that they do not want to (Oral Presentation, Appendix D). It was emphasized that the study was confidential, only examined data as a group, and that there was no penalty for withdrawal. After giving written consent (Appendix D), participants were given the questionnaire to fill out. The questionnaire included the CMRA subscales (see description above), the Modified Sexual Experience Questionnaire followed by questions about the most serious victimization experience (Appendix C), the five subscales of the Multidimensional Body Satisfaction Rating Questionnaire (see

description above), the Texas Social Behavior Inventory (see description above), questions about their relationship status (Appendix C), Characterological and Behavioral Self-Blame Questionnaire (SBQ) (Hill & Zautra, 1989)(Appendix C), Victim and Rapist Responsibility, Blame, and Causality Questions (Appendix C), the Pragma subscale of the Love Attitudes Scale (see description above), assessment of sexually aggressive peer group (Gwartney-Gibbs & Stockard, 1989)(Appendix C), the Romantic Beliefs Scale (Sprecher & Metts, 1989)(Appendix C), the Blitz rape script questionnaire (Appendix C) and Rusbult's Relationship Measures (Rusbult, 1980; 1983) (Appendix C). All participants were told before taking the survey that some of the questions asked about sexual experiences and they were debriefed afterwards (Appendix D). To anticipate the possibility that taking the questionnaire might increase thinking about or reliving unpleasant experiences, each participant was given the names and numbers of mental health practitioners in the community (Appendix C).

Materials

Sexual Experiences Survey with Additional Questions (Appendix C)

The SES measures self-reports of women's consensual, coerced, and forced sexual experiences (Koss & Gidycz, 1985; Koss & Oros, 1982). The reliability of this instrument was assessed with 143 introductory psychology women at a large university and was found to have an internal consistency of .74 for women and a one week test-retest reliability of 93% (Koss & Gidycz, 1985). Consistency of self-report was assessed by comparing 68 women's self-report responses to responses in face-to-face structured interviews several months later. The correlation between the self-report and interview was .73, $p < .001$. Only 3% of the women who reported rape experiences on the survey revealed information in the interview that suggested they had misinterpreted the survey or given false answers.

The SES was modified to separate type of sexual activity from type of coercion. Whereas the SES has 10 items that confound type of sexual activity (e.g., intercourse, sex acts, sex play) and type of coercion (e.g, threat of force, physical force, attempt force, use of authority), the modified version of the SES contains 28 questions that ask about four types of sexual behavior (sex play, attempted intercourse, intercourse, and sex acts) for each of seven types of situations (consensual, flattery, verbal pressure, use of authority, threat of force, use of force, intoxication). The modified SES also asks women to record how many times each of the following behaviors has occurred to them. The test-retest reliability is .65 (White & Hoecker, 1994).

Participants were classified as rape victims if they indicate that they had had sexual intercourse or other sexual acts (such as oral or anal intercourse or penetration with an object other than the penis) when they did not want it to happen but the man used threats of physical force to make her comply, used actual physical force, or she was so under the influence of alcohol or drugs that she could not object. These are all behaviors that meet the legal definitions of rape in some states (e.g., Ohio and Michigan).

After taking the SES, the participants were asked to indicate the number of the question in the SES that reflects the most serious experience that had happened to them. If an experience occurred more than once they were asked to answer further questions for the most recent experience. For that experience, information was gathered on the time elapsed since the incident, how well they knew the perpetrator, the relationship to the perpetrator, and the degree of physical harm suffered. Questions about the degree and type of resistance, ethnic orientation/race of the perpetrator, the relative status of the perpetrator compared to the woman were asked. Demographic information was also gathered on ethnic orientation/race, age, and marital status.

Assessment of Acknowledgement (Appendix C)

After taking the SES, the question "have you ever been raped?" was asked. The women who indicated that they had experienced a situation that met a definition of rape and responded affirmatively to this question were considered acknowledged rape victims. Those that responded negatively to this question but who had self-reported experiences on the SES that met the criteria for rape were labeled unacknowledged rape victims.

Characterological and Behavioral Self-Blame Questionnaire (SBQ) (Appendix C) (Hill & Zautra, 1989)

The SBQ is a measure of how much a woman blames aspects of her personality for a rape (e.g. "I'm a bad person"; "I trust people too much") and how much she blames her behavior for a rape ("I didn't resist"). The correlation between characterological and behavioral self-blame in rape victims was .75 (Hill & Zautra, 1989). The internal consistency was reported to be adequate (the coefficient was not reported, but was reported to fall between .68 and .95). No other reliability or validity assessments have been conducted on this scale.

It has been found that both characterological and behavioral self-blame are associated with maladjustment in rape victims, although characterological is more strongly linked (Hill & Zautra, 1989). Other research with rape victims has found both behavioral and characterological self-blame to correlate with depression (Frazier, 1990; Meyer & Taylor, 1986). Anderson and colleagues (1994) pointed out that characterological blame implies behavioral self-blame; if a person thinks they have a personality trait, such as carelessness, that can be blamed for victimization, then they must also behave in a careless manner. However, they found the behavioral and characterological self-blame to uniquely contribute to depression and loneliness.

Because the scale was designed to assess the effect of self-blame on adjustment in rape victims, the frequency of self-blaming thoughts in

the past month was rated on a 5-point Likert scale. Acknowledgement of rape, unlike adjustment, is more likely to be related to the occurrence of self-blaming thoughts than the frequency. The rating scale for this study was altered to examine if they have ever had each of the self-blaming thoughts in response to the incident. For the 12 characterological blame items the participants were given the instructions "Rate on the 5-point scale below how much you feel that each statement reflects A FACTOR THAT MADE YOU RESPONSIBLE FOR THE INCIDENT" . For the 12 behavioral self-blame items the instructions will be given to "Rate on the 5-point scale below how much you feel that each statement reflects A REASON THE EXPERIENCE HAPPENED TO YOU."

The emphasis on cause for the behavioral self-blame questions and responsiblity for the characterological self-blame questions was made in response to Shaver & Drown's (1986) criticism that measures of behavioral self-blame are really assessments of causality and characterological self-blame really measures feelings of responsibility. The instructions were thought to help participants make the distinction between cause and responsiblity. Since the terms characterological self-blame and behavioral self-blame have been used in the literature when studying attributions of rape victims, these terms will be used in this study to maintain consistency with previous research and ease comparisons with other studies. However, what is actually being measured may be attributions of responsiblity and cause which may lack the negative evaluation implied by the word "blame."

Victim and Rapist Responsibility, Blame and Causality Questions (Appendix C)

The construct validity of many scales of self-blame have been called into question because causality, responsiblity, and self-blame have been treated as synonymous by self-blame researchers (Shaver & Drown, 1986). Shaver and Drown (1986) define causality as an antecedent that is sufficient for the occurrence of the event. In a crime such as rape,

causality or partial causality may involve failure to act (e.g. I didn't lock my window/door) or direct actions (e.g. I accepted a date with someone I didn't know very well). Causality does not necessarily include intention to bring about the event or crime. Responsibility is a judgement made after an incident that is based upon consideration of several factors, including contribution to the cause of the event, intent and awareness of the event and its consequences, lack of coercion, and awareness of the moral wrongfulness of the action. Blame is an emotionally laden condemnation. To accept blame is to hold one's self responsible, but to be responsible does not necessarily imply blame. Shaver and Drown (1986) conclude that a victim of a crime cannot be blamed unless they intentionally caused the event; self-blame, although real and emotionally damaging, is not an accurate reflection of reality (Shaver & Drown, 1986). Shaver and Drown suggest that the confounding of causality, blame, and responsiblity has resulted in contradictory results in self-blame research. The authors propose that the three constructs are related but should be assessed separately. For this reason six questions were designed to reflect causality, responsiblity, and self-blame separately.

Participants were given the instructions "In reference to the experience mentioned above (a rape experience), please rate the following questions on the 5-point scale" where 1=a great deal and 5=not at all. The six questions ask how much the participant (1) caused, (2) was responsible, and (3) was to blame for the incident and how much the other person involved (1) caused, (2) were responsible, and (3) was to blame for the incident. These six questions, in addition to the measures of characterological and behavioral self-blame, provide extra information about the attributions of the woman concerning the rape.

Assessment of Sexually Aggressive Peer Group (Appendix C) (Gwartney-Gibbs & Stockard, 1989)

A sexually aggressive peer group was assessed by two questions asking individuals how many of their (1) male friends were sexually aggressive, and (2) female friends had been sexually victimized. Gwartney-Gibbs and Stockard (1989) found that women who had male friends who had been sexually aggressive had a higher likelihood of sexual victimization. In two cohorts, 99% of the respondents who had male friends who were sexually aggressive also had sexually victimized female friends. The authors suggested that having men in a peer group who were sexually aggressive legitimizes aggressive behavior, increases the women's risk of victimization, and increases the women's tolerance for sexual victimization. Individuals who had sexually aggressive peers and sexually victimized friends were also more likely to have lifestyles that enabled sexual aggression. They were more likely to live in sororities, fraternities, and dormitories, to use alcohol and drugs, and to value social aspects of the college experience.

Romantic Beliefs Scale (Appendix C) (Sprecher & Metts, 1989)

The Romantic Beliefs Scale (RBS) has 15 items that measure four aspects of romantic beliefs a person holds about their love relationships: Love Finds a Way, One and Only, Idealization, and Love at First Sight. The RBS underwent extensive testing and revision before the final version was accepted. Factor analyses on 730 undergraduates (277 males and 453 females) yielded four components that loaded above .50, did not load on any other factor above .45, and were theoretically meaningful (Sprecher & Metts, 1989). Three week test-retest reliability was .75 for the total, and ranged from .49-.73 for the subscales. Cronbach alphas were .81 for the total scale, and .57-.80 for the subscales. The RBS was correlated with several other scales to establish its validity (Sprecher & Metts, 1989).

Blitz Rape Script Questionnaire (Appendix C)

Kahn and associates (1994) found that women who acknowledged rape experiences were less likely to demonstrate possession of a blitz rape script. The categories used by Kahn et al (1994) were put into a questionnaire format to assess the possession of important features of a blitz rape script. Women were instructed to:

> Think of the word "rape." Think of what would happen to a person before, during and after a typical rape experience. Then check below the characteristics that BEST fit what you think the "typical" rape experience includes. By "typical," we mean something that is common to most rapes. There are no right or wrong answers. We want to know your thoughts about a typical rape experience includes.

These instructions were followed by questions such as, "a typical rape is committed a. indoors b. outdoors." The items were summed, with some items reversed, to attain a blitz rape script score. The higher the score, the more a woman endorses features of a blitz rape as typical of a rape experience.

Rusbult's Relationship Measures (Appendix C)

Based upon the interdependence theory (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959), Rusbult developed the investment model to characterize commitment and satisfaction in relationships (Rusbult, 1980). Commitment is how dedicated a person is to continuing a relationship, whereas satisfaction is the emotion attached to a relationship. Commitment and satisfaction do not always covary. It is not necessary to be satisfied with a relationship, for example, to feel committed. Commitment has been found to increase as investments in a relationship increase, as alternative relationships decrease in attractiveness, as rewards increase, as satisfaction increases, and is unaffected by costs (Rusbult, 1980; 1983). Satisfaction increases as

costs decrease and rewards increase (Rusbult, 1980). Commitment has been found to predict decisions to stay in or leave a relationship (Femlee, Sprecher, & Bassin, 1990; Lund, 1985; Rusbult, 1983). Individuals whose relationships break up report lower satisfaction and more attractive alternative partners (Rusbult, 1983; Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow, 1986; Simpson, 1987). Cronbach alphas were computed on these measures 12 separate times during a longitudinal study. In general, the coefficients were between .80 and .96. Only two variables at time 1 were below .45. Factor analyses and test-retest reliability have not been published on these measures.

CHAPTER VIII

RESULTS: STUDY 2

The distribution of each non-categorical variable was assessed for each category of acknowledgement. All of the distributions were approximately normally distributed. The correlations of variables that were conceptually related were calculated to see if the these variables should be combined. For the attribution variables, the CMRA subscales, the romantic beliefs, and the sexually aggressive peer group variables, the intercorrelations were small (.02-.29) to moderate (.30-.60). These variables were kept separate, because, although related, the amount of variability in each of the variables was not totally explained by the other variables. For the variables assessing level of force, the intercorrelation of the measures of physical and verbal resistance were high (.85). As described below, these variables were combined.

The level of force experienced by the acknowledged and unacknowledged rape victims was assessed so that differences, if any, in force could be controlled for in the testing of the other hypotheses. Acknowledged rape victims did report a higher level of physical force (see hypothesis 1 below). A new variable composed of several questions assessing force was created and used as a covariate in testing the other hypotheses (described below). Demographic variables (age, race, marital status, socioeconomic status) were examined to see if there was any association with acknowledgement. Since none of these variables were associated with acknowledgement, they were not included in any further analyses. The alpha level for "statistical significance" was set at .05 unless otherwise indicated.

Overview of Analyses

Logistic regression analyses were conducted to test the first eight hypotheses. In each of these analyses, force was used as a covariate, excluding the analyses where force is used as a predictor variable. The results of the first eight analyses are divided into three categories: interpersonal, individual, and social network influences. After individual predictors of acknowledgement were established, these variables were put into a stepwise logistic regression to find which variables were unique contributors to the predictions of acknowledgement.

Next, the results of analyses testing hypotheses 9-12 are presented. The interrelations of the predictor variables were calculated using standard regression analyses. Force also was used as a covariate in these analyses.

Logistic Regression

When the outcome variable is binary (acknowledged, unacknowledged), the explanatory variables are continuous, and the goal is prediction, logistic regression is recommended over discriminant function analysis (Fienberg, 1991). For a binary response variable, discriminant function analyses predictions are less accurate than logistic regression (Fienberg, 1991). The statistic computed in a logistic regression is the Wald X^2 and the log-odds of an event is often given. A log-odds ratio is the probability of occurrence (in this study, the probability of acknowledgement) divided by the probability of nonoccurrence (in this study, the probability of nonacknowledgement). The log-odds allow for the general interpretation of a variable's effect on the response variable. For instance, "given a high level of explanatory variable X, the odds of acknowledgement are twice as likely as unacknowledgement."

Interpersonal Level of Analysis Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

The hypothesis was tested that acknowledged rape victims would report experiencing more physical force and greater physical harm from the rape than would unacknowledged rape victims. Acknowledged rape victims experienced a higher level of force than unacknowledged rape victims, $X^2 = 32.77$, $p < .0001$ (see Table 5). In fact, less than 10% (5/54) of the women acknowledged the experience if they had experienced unwanted intercourse or sexual acts when intoxicated or when threatened. For women who had experienced physical force, 62% (34/55) acknowledged the experience as rape. It is interesting to note, that few (8.3%) of the women reported threat of force as the highest level of force used in a rape. It may be that the isolated threat of force without the use of force is a fairly rare occurrence. The threat of force may often accompany the use of force.

Acknowledged rape victims reported more verbal and physical resistance than did unacknowledged rape victims (see Table 6 for means, standard errors, and X^2 statistic). Acknowledged rape victims also reported suffering more physical harm than unacknowledged rape victims (see Table 6). It was assumed that the women's reports of verbal resistance, physical resistance, and physical harm were general indicators of the level of force experienced during the rape. A principal components analysis of physical resistance, verbal resistance, and physical harm was conducted. One factor emerged and explained 76% of the variance. The factor loadings ranged from .75 to .93. A new factor was created from these three items and the ordinal variable from the SES that assessed the type of force used in the rape (1 = alcohol or drugs, 2 = threat, 3 = force). This new variable, level of force, was calculated by multiplying the mean of the three variables mentioned above by the type of force. To further validate the creation of the composite variable for force, the intercorrelations of the composite

variable with the individual Likert-scale items was calculated. The intercorrelations ranged from .70-.84, suggesting a high amount of shared variance among the measures. This composite variable was used as a covariate assessing the level of force of the rape in the other analyses.

The null hypothesis that the number of victimization experiences for acknowledged and unacknowledged rape victims was equal was tested. Victimization experiences included unwanted sexual contact, verbal coercion, attempted rape, and completed rape experiences. Although acknowledged rape victims had more victimization experiences ($\underline{M}$ = 25.7, $\underline{SE}$ = 2.91) than unacknowledged rape victims ($\underline{M}$ = 16.9, $\underline{SE}$ = 1.49) when level of force was not in the model, this difference was not significant when level of force was controlled for (See Table 6). The SES does not distinguish totally between acts occurring at the same and at different times. Thus, forced sexual intercourse which has a high level of force may be more likely to included verbal coercion or other forced sexual acts. Another reason for this finding could be that women who have multiple victimizations are more likely to have victimizations that involved higher levels of force than women who have single victimization experiences. Therefore, when the level of force in a rape is controlled for, the number of victimization experiences do not predict acknowledgement.

Hypothesis 2

It was hypothesized that acknowledged rape victims would report being less familiar with the perpetrator and less close to the perpetrator before the rape than unacknowledged rape victims. A chi-square test was computed to see if acknowledged and unacknowledged rape victims differed on how well they knew the perpetrator. No difference was found between groups, X^2 (3, $\underline{N}$ =89) = .71, $\underline{p}$ < .87. The majority of the victims classified the perpetrator as a friend (29%) or boyfriend (39%); 27% of the women responded that the perpetrator was a casual

acquaintance; only 6% said he was a stranger; no one said he was a family member. Acknowledgement also could not be predicted by how close the victim felt to the perpetrator. Closeness failed to predict acknowledgement in a logistic regression when level of force was used as a covariate (see Table 6 for means, standard errors, and X^2 statistic).

A composite of these two items assessing the relationship with the perpetrator before the rape was formed by multiplying the ordinal variable addressing the prior relationship and the Likert scale item for closeness to the perpetrator. This new variable will be used in future analyses. This composite variable, however, did no better than the individual items in predicting acknowledgement when controlling for the use of force in a logistic regression, Wald X^2 (1, N =89) = 2.10, p < .15, log-odds = .06.

Hypothesis 3

It was hypothesized that the level of acknowledgement of women who were in a relationship with the perpetrator could be predicted by belief and participation in the peer model, enjoyment of the peer system, perceived relative attractiveness as compared to her boyfriend, perceived alternatives, and satisfaction and commitment to the relationship. The enjoyment of the peer system could not be tested due to the lack of reliability and validity of this subscale in Study 1. First, each of the relationship variables was individually put into a logistic regression to predict acknowledgement while controlling for level of force. Acknowledgement could not be predicted by any of the relationship variables (comparative attractiveness, perceived alternatives, satisfaction, or commitment to the relationship) (See Table 7). The sample size for women who reported being in a dating relationship with the perpetrator and who answered the relationship questions was small (N=24). Of these 24 women only 4 were acknowledged rape victims. Further analysis of these data were not conducted because of the small number of acknowledged rape victims who filled out these

questions. This low sample size may partly reflect the placement of these questions toward the end of the survey when participants may have been tired. Also acknowledged rape victims may have been less willing to discuss their relationship with the perpetrator and may have been more likely to have purposely left the questions blank.

Individual Developmental Level of Analysis Hypotheses

Hypothesis 4

It was hypothesized that women who have greater self-blame would be less likely to acknowledge their rape experience. It was also expected that the greater the blame toward the perpetrator the more likely the person would be to acknowledge the rape experience. There were eight different measures that assessed different aspects of blame, responsiblity, and causality. The hypotheses for self-blame were tested with each of these variables. For both characterological and behavioral self-blame, the mean for acknowledged and unacknowledged rape victims differed significantly when the level of force was used as a covariate (see Table 6). Contrary to prediction, acknowledged rape victims engaged in more characterological and behavioral self-blame than did unacknowledged rape victims. For characterological and behavioral self-blame the overall means (M = 2.39 and M = 2.07, respectively) suggest that both groups engage in a little characterological and behavioral self-blame (on a 5-point scale, the higher the score, the more the blame) and that both groups engage in more characterological than behavioral self-blame. A paired difference t-test found that the rape victims blamed the rape on their character more than on their behavior, $t_{109}=5.13$, $p < .0001$. All the women in the study can be said to attribute more blame to their character than to their behavior. Acknowledged rape victims, however, attribute more blame to both their character and behavior than do unacknowledged rape victims.

Six items assessing how much blame, responsibility, and causality the woman attributed to herself and the man were analyzed. Scores

ranged from 1-5 with a higher score indicating a higher attribution. A logistic regression, controlling for the level of force, was unable to predict acknowledgement with any of the six variables (see Table 6 for means, standard errors, and Wald X^2 statistics). For both acknowledged and unacknowledged rape victims, the women made greater attributions toward the man than toward themselves. Paired-difference t-tests were conducted on the difference between self and other attributions for cause, responsiblity, and blame. In each case, the women's attributions were significantly higher for the men than for themselves (cause, t_{106} = 10.08, $p < .0001$; responsiblity, t_{106} = 9.36, $p < .0001$; blame, t_{105} = 6.34, $p < .0001$).

In summary, the hypothesis that the higher the self-attributions the less likely a woman would be to acknowledge the rape was not supported. Acknowledged rape victims engaged in more characterological self-blame and behavioral blame than unacknowledged rape victims when level of force was controlled for. Both groups of women felt more characterological than behavioral self-blame. Although the items measuring cause, responsiblity, and blame attributed to the man and woman were not significantly different for acknowledged and unacknowledged rape victims, all the women attributed significantly greater cause, responsiblity, and blame to the men than to themselves.

Hypothesis 5

Unacknowledged rape victims were hypothesized to be more likely to have romantic notions of love and less likely to have pragmatic notions of love than acknowledged rape victims. When controlling for the level of force, romantic beliefs and Pragma were not able to predict acknowledgement in logistic regression analyses. The means, standard errors, and X^2 values are presented in Table 6. In summary, none of the predictions about the relationship between romantic beliefs and acknowledgement were supported when level of force was controlled.

Hypothesis 6

It was expected that the possession of a blitz rape script would decrease the likelihood of acknowledgement. Table 8 shows the mean, standard error, and Wald X^2 for each item of the blitz rape script scale. Several items differentiated acknowledged from unacknowledged rape victims. Unacknowledged rape victims were more likely than acknowledged rape victims to endorse items consistent with a blitz rape script: physical attack, threats to use a weapon, use of a weapon by the perpetrator, screams by the victims, and severe physical harm to the victim. Acknowledged rape victims were significantly more likely than the unacknowledged rape victims to endorse items consistent with an acquaintance rape script: physical restraint, mild physical harm, and drinking by the victim. There also were several items on which the two groups did not differ when the level of force was controlled for. A composite variable, "blitz," was created by taking the average of the items endorsed more frequently by the unacknowledged rape victims. This composite variable predicted the level of acknowledgement when controlling for the use of force in a logistic regression, Wald X^2 (1, N =89) = 12.91, $p < .0003$, Log-odds -2.15. The unacknowledged rape victims were more likely to endorse blitz rape items as representative of a typical rape. This composite variable was used in the analyses below.

Social Network Level of Analysis Hypotheses

Hypothesis 7

It was predicted that the more sexually aggressive men and sexually victimized women in rape victims' peer groups, the less likely they would be to acknowledge the rape. The two questions asking how many of the woman's female friends had been sexually victimized and how many of her male friends had been sexually aggressive were analyzed separately. A logistic regression found a trend toward significance in the number of victimized female peers prediction of acknowledgement when level of

force was in the model, Wald X^2 (1, N =88) = 2.69, p < .10, log-odds = .27. The acknowledged rape victims reported knowing more women who had been sexually victimized (M = 2.74, SE = .13) than did the unacknowledged rape victims (M = 2.33, SE = .08). When the level of force of the rape was controlled for, the number rape victims who reported having sexually aggressive male peers did not predict acknowledgement, Wald X^2 (1, N =88) = .24, p < .62, log odds = -.07 (acknowledged M = 1.95, SE = .13; unacknowledged M = 1.86, SE = .09). Hence, the hypotheses were not supported. Sexually aggressive and victimized peers did not decrease acknowledgement. There was no effect of sexually aggressive peers on acknowledgement and there was a trend toward a higher level of acknowledgement for women with a greater number of sexually victimized peers.

Hypothesis 8

The degree of a rape victim's belief and participation in the cultural model of romance and attractiveness, together with self perceived level of attractiveness, predicted acknowledgement for only one of the ten CMRA subscales (see Table 9). Deqatt was the only subscale of the CMRA to predict acknowledgement when controlling for level of force. The attractiveness measure did not contribute to the prediction. Consistent with the prediction, the belief that dating equals attractiveness was higher in unacknowledged than acknowledged rape victims (M = 2.49, SE =.12 and M = 2.86, SE =.09, respectively). The means for each of the CMRA subscales ranged from 2.49 to 3.84 with most of the means between 3.00 and 3.50, indicating a moderate amount of agreement with the statements.

Stepwise Logistic Regression Analysis of Predictors of Rape Acknowledgement

A stepwise logistic regression of the significant predictors of acknowledgement was done to assess the unique predictive ability of each of the variables. Level of force, characterological self-blame,

behavioral self-blame, possession of blitz rape script, number of sexually victimized peers, and deqatt were put into the model as predictors of acknowledgement. Of these variables, level of force, possession of blitz rape scripts, and behavioral self-blame were unique contributors to the prediction of acknowledgement. Table 10 presents the results of the stepwise procedure.

Hypothesized Inter-relationships

Hypothesis 9

Self-blame for the rape was predicted to be positively associated with romantic beliefs, closeness to the perpetrator, degree of acquaintanceship with the perpetrator, involvement with a sexually aggressive peer group, endorsement of a blitz rape script, and attractiveness and participation in the cultural model of romance and attractiveness and negatively associated with severity of the rape attack. The 8 variables assessing behavioral and characterological self-blame and cause, responsiblity, and blame were examined with each of the predictor variables (see Table 11).

Romantic beliefs predicted attributions in only two cases (see Table 11). The more a woman blamed her character for the rape, the more likely she was to believe in an ideal, "true love" and a higher belief in "love at first sight" was associated with higher self-blame. Having sexually aggressive male peers did not predict any of the attribution variables, and having sexually victimized female peers predicted only one variable, attribution of cause to the self. The more friends that a woman had that had been sexually victimized, the less likely she was to feel she caused the rape. However, behavioral self-blame, another measure of cause, was not predicted by number of sexually victimized peers. Possession of a blitz rape script did not predict any of the attribution variables.

Having a prior relationship with the perpetrator was important for predicting self-attributions, but not for predicting attributions to the

man. For each of the self-attribution variables (characterological self-blame, behavioral self-blame, cause, responsiblity, and blame) the better a woman knew a man before the rape, the less likely she was to engage in self-attributions. The relationship with the man did not predict any of the attributions toward him.

The amount of force in the rape also accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in attributions. The higher the self-attributions, the more likely the woman was to have been in a rape situation where a lower level of force for used. This was true for all of the self-attribution variables except for characterological self-blame. For characterological self-blame, the relationship also was in the hypothesized direction, but did not reach "statistical significance." For attributions for the perpetrator, the higher the level of force involved, the higher the attribution.

It was hypothesized that attributions to the self would be positively associated and attributions to the man would be negatively associated with the CMRA subscales. For the self-attributions the hypothesis received partial support. Several of the CMRA subscales were positively associated with self-attributions (see Table 11). However, out of 50 analyses, only 8 reached statistical significance. Women were more likely to blame themselves the more they believed that treatment by a man defines her attractiveness, that relationships provide status and prestige, that dating provides a useful niche, and for Guy Talk. Women were more likely to feel they caused the rape the more they believed attractiveness is important, that relationships equal status and prestige, that dating provides a useful niche, and Slang.

For attributions to the man, only 3 of 20 analyses reached statistical significance and these were opposite of the predicted direction. Women were more likely to attribute cause to the man if they believed treatment by a man defined attractiveness. Women were more likely to attribute blame to the men if they believed attractiveness is

important and that dating provides a useful niche. These results are counter-intuitive and do not support the hypothesis.

In summary, the attribution hypotheses received weak or no support for romantic beliefs, Pragma, sexually aggressive peer groups, blitz rape scripts, and the CMRA subscales. For both the prior relationship with the man and the level of force, the attributions were as predicted in every case. The situational features are important for attributions, but the individual and social variables carry little predictive value once level of force is taken into account.

Hypothesis 10

The hypothesis that the relationship with the perpetrator was expected to be positively correlated with being a part of a sexually aggressive peer group was not supported. Controlling for the level of force used in the rape, neither the number of males friends who were sexually aggressive nor the number of victimized female friends accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in prior relationship status, t (1,86) = -1.58, $p < .12$ and t (1,86) = -.88, $p < .38$, respectively. The number of sexually aggressive males in the peer group did not predict level of force in the rape, $t_{89} = .89$, $p = .38$, but the number of sexually victimized females in the peer group did, $t_{89} = 2.04$, $p = .04$. The more female friends who had been sexually victimized, the higher the level of force used in the rape.

Hypothesis 11

It was expected that the more a rape victim possessed a blitz rape script, the higher the predicted belief in the CMRA. This hypothesis was supported in two of the ten CMRA subscales when level of force was used as a covariate (see Table 12). The higher the belief that dating equals attractiveness, the more likely a woman possessed a blitz rape script. Similarly, the better the treatment a woman reports receiving in an ongoing relationship, the more likely she is to possess a blitz rape script.

Hypothesis 12

Commitment and satisfaction in a relationship with a perpetrator should be positively related to a sexually aggressive peer group and to attractiveness and participation in the cultural model of romance and attractiveness. None of the hypotheses were supported (see Table 13). Commitment and Satisfaction in a relationship with a perpetrator did not predict sexually aggressive and victimized peers or the CMRA subscales.

CHAPTER IX

DISCUSSION: STUDY 2

Predictors of Acknowledgement

Several interpersonal variables were important predictors of acknowledgement. The greater the force, the more verbal and physical resistance, and the more physical harm, the more likely a person was to acknowledge the rape. These findings support previous research (Gault, 1993; Kahn et. al., 1994; Kibler, 1986) that higher levels of force are associated with acknowledgement (see Koss, 1985 for an exception). The level of force experienced by a woman in a rape appears to be a critical feature in acknowledgement. Of all the predictors, force accounted for the most variance in acknowledgement and mediated the relationship between several other variables and acknowledgement. That is, when force was put into the model, relationships that had been significant predictors of acknowledgement were reduced to "insignificance." Altogether, the level of force reported by a rape victim appears to be the most powerful determinant of acknowledgement and should be considered in all future studies of rape acknowledgement.

There were several other factors which predicted acknowledgement even when level of force was used as a covariate (see Figure 4). Blitz rape scripts, characterological self-blame, behavioral self-blame, number of sexually victimized peers, and Dating Equals Attractiveness were all predictors of acknowledgement. Of those variables, level of force, behavioral self-blame, and blitz rape scripts were unique contributors to the prediction of acknowledgement.

This study extends Kahn et al.'s research by assessing the unique contribution of the possession of a blitz rape script in the prediction of acknowledgement when adjusting for the other predictors of

acknowledgement. The greater a woman's endorsement of items consistent with a blitz rape script, the less likely she is to acknowledge the rape. The belief that a rape involves physical attack, threats to use a weapon, the use of a weapon, screams by the victim, and physical harm to the victim reduce the likelihood that a woman will label forced sexual relations as rape even when level of force and other predictors of acknowledgement are in the model. These aspects of a blitz rape script convey a picture of extreme force and violence that is atypical of most rapes. If a woman accepts this narrow, stereotypical view of rape, she will be less likely to recognize an experience as rape that does not conform to this stereotype. It is interesting that other features of a blitz rape script, rape by a stranger and rape occurring outdoors, were not significant predictors when force was used as a covariate. This suggests that the most important aspect of a blitz rape script is the belief in a high level of force, not who the perpetrator is or where the rape occurred. Since the data are correlational, however, it is not clear whether the possession of a blitz rape script causes the lack of acknowledgement. It is possible that the labeling of an experience as "not rape" may lead a woman to redefine the concept of "rape" in more extreme terms to support this decision. For unacknowledged rape victims, the possession of a blitz rape script could just as easily be a justification for denial as it could be a hinderance to labeling. Only a prospective study can answer this question.

Both behavioral and characterological self-blame predicted acknowledgement when level of force was controlled. The relationship, however, was opposite the hypothesized direction. It was thought that the more women blamed themselves, the less likely they would be to label the experience rape because acknowledgement was thought to be an indictment of the man. Self-blame, it was thought, would reduce the ability of women to blame the man. Whereas the original hypothesis assumed that acknowledgement would be associated with a positive

outcome, lower self-blame, the reverse occurred. Defining the event as a rape was associated with increased behavioral and characterological self-blame. The word "rape" may be so loaded with implications for victim culpability in our society, that labeling the experience as rape is concomitant with increased self-blame. While assumed to be a positive step for rape victims, acknowledgement also may carry the burden of stigmatization and self-deprecation for the rape victim because of the negative associations attached to rape victims in our culture. Lebowitz and Roth (1994) argue that women in our culture are seen as responsible for their sexual abuse (see also Abbey, 1987; Burt, 1980), and that the role of therapy is to try to deconstruct culturally instilled self-blame. They suggest that during a time of trauma a person may question and drop more positive schemas in search for a way to understand the victimization (Lebowitz & Roth, 1994). Even women who have eschewed more negative rape myths may fall back on schemas of female cause, responsibility, and blame in trying to understand and cope with a rape. That acknowledged rape victims in the present study blamed themselves more than unacknowledged rape victims supports this view of self-blame as socially constructed. By defining her experience as rape, a woman is simultaneously defining her culpability. Janoff-Bulman (1992) argues that self-blame is one way victims try to rebuild a meaningful world from the shattered assumptions that surround a traumatic event. Although her theory suggests that behavioral self-blame promotes adjustment, this contention has not been supported in rape victims (Frazier, 1990; 1991; Frazier & Schauben, 1994; Hill & Zautra. 1989; Meyer & Taylor, 1986). Self-blame may help make sense out of the personal upheaval that results from rape, but the price is self-derogation and the associated poorer adjustment.

The prediction that unacknowledged rape victims would blame themselves more was based upon previous findings that the closer the relationship with the perpetrator the greater the self-blame (Katz &

Burt, 1988) and that unacknowledged rape victims usually know their attackers better than acknowledged rape victims (Koss, 1985). However, in this study unacknowledged rape victims did not report knowing their attacker better than acknowledged rape victims. Thus, when level of relationship with the perpetrator does not distinguish acknowledged and unacknowledged rape victims, blame is greater for acknowledged rape victims. Previous studies may have confounded level of relationship and blame. It is also possible that when a woman labels an experience rape, she thereby affirms the seriousness of the sexual abuse. This difference in perceived seriousness of the experience may lead acknowledged rape victims to blame themselves more than unacknowledged rape victims.

Since behavioral and characterological self-blame were correlated and behavioral self-blame was a stronger predictor of acknowledgement, only behavioral self-blame remained in the stepwise regression model predicting acknowledgement. The overlap between the two measures in the prediction of acknowledgement is consistent with the argument that characterological and behavioral self-blame may be inseparable in the case of rape victims (Katz & Burt, 1988) and that characterological blame implies behavioral blame (Frazier, 1990; Pitts & Schwartz, 1993). Both Frazier (1990) and Meyer and Taylor (1986) found considerable overlap between behavioral and characterological self-blame as predictors. These researchers also found, as was found in this study, that although the two variables were related, they were distinguishable and could not be assumed to be measuring the same thing.

Since greater self-blame is associated with poorer adjustment in rape victims (Frazier, 1990; 1991; Frazier & Schauben, 1994; Hill & Zautra. 1989; Meyer & Taylor, 1986) the greater self-blame in acknowledged rape victims may indicate poorer adjustment. Although Koss (1985) found no difference in aftereffects of rape for acknowledged and unacknowledged rape victims, she used the mean of four single item

ratings of self-esteem, sexuality, relationships with men, and overall adjustment as her measure of aftereffects. Future research is needed not only to expand the knowledge of mental health correlates of acknowledgement using a variety of reliable and valid measures, but also to distinguish between short-term and long-term consequences of rape as a function of acknowledgement. The amount of self-blame in this study was low to moderate and self-attributions were lower for all the women than were their attributions toward the perpetrator. Although self-attributions are assumed to be a central issue that rape victims deal with (Katz & Burt, 1988; Lebowitz & Roth, 1994; Pitts & Schwartz, 1993), the level of self-blame in this study, especially when compared to the level assigned to the perpetrator, raises questions about the importance of self-blame to rape victims. Abbey (1987) found self-attributions to occur at a low frequency among acknowledged rape victims from a rape crisis center. The relationship between self- and other-attributions needs to be explored further. The importance and frequency of self-attributions in a nonclinical population may be lower than previously thought. Self-attributions may be associated with poorer adjustment in victims who seek medical or psychological support than from a university population most of whom do not seek support. Abbey (1987) points out that many measures of responsibility and avoidability do not necessarily imply self-blame or guilt. The measures of characterological and behavioral self-blame may be addressing responsibility and cause, respectively, but not self-blame. Therefore, care should be taken not to dismiss the importance of self-blame when other self-attributions have been the focus of many studies. Although the one-item measure of self-blame did not predict acknowledgement in this study, it cannot be considered to be a comprehensive measure of self-blame. Future research is needed to explore the dimensions of self-blame, other self-attributions, acknowledgement, and mental health consequences of rape.

Gwartney-Gibbs and Stockard (1989) reported that associating with a sexually aggressive peer group increased the probability that females within the peer group would be victimized. They suggested that sexually aggressive interactions in the peer group would legitimize these behaviors. It was predicted that a greater number of sexually aggressive male peers and sexually victimized female peers would increase the tolerance for sexual victimization and thereby, reduce the likelihood for acknowledgement. Instead, the number of sexually aggressive male peers had no predictive ability for acknowledgement and the number of sexually victimized female peers was higher for acknowledged rape victims than for unacknowledged rape victims when force was controlled. The present study does not confirm an increased tolerance for rape, in the form of lower rape acknowledgement, associated with peer group membership. It may be that some women in peer groups with sexually aggressive and sexually victimized peers have a higher tolerance for sexual aggression, but this does not appear to be the case for actual rape victims. Perhaps the knowledge of peer victimization creates a supportive climate that facilitates acknowledgement. It is also possible that women who acknowledge a rape are likely to discuss the rape with their peers. These conversations could result in reciprocal disclosures of sexual victimization from the rape victims friends. Future research should investigate the role of social support and awareness of sexual victimization as influences on acknowledgement.

Of all the CMRA subscales, only Dating Equals Attractiveness predicted acknowledgement when level of force was controlled and attractiveness did not contribute to the prediction. The more women reported believing that the type of person one dates is a measure of their attractiveness, the less likely they were to acknowledge a rape experience. Belief in this aspect of the peer culture may lead a woman to value her dating status and minimize an experience (rape) that would

reduce her prestige. It is not uncommon for rape victims to be stigmatized, especially by men who may see them as "damaged" or "unappealing." This stigma may reduce acknowledgement in women who believe that dating is important for attractiveness. The ability of Deqatt to predict acknowledgement was not strong and Deqatt did not stay in the model once Characterological Self-blame, Behavioral Self-blame, number of sexually victimized female peers, and blitz rape scripts were added to the model. The belief that dating is a measure of attractiveness is an influence on acknowledgement, albeit a small influence.

The predicted relationship between belief in the Cultural Model of Romance and Attractiveness and acknowledgement was not found for nine of the ten subscales. For these CMRA subscales, some of the relationships were in the hypothesized direction, but statistically insignificant when level of force was used as a covariate. In general, the acceptance of these broader cultural beliefs and participation in the peer group were not successful predictors of acknowledgement. Apparently general beliefs about dating are not as important as predictors of acknowledgement as force, self-blame, and specific beliefs about what the characteristics of a typical rape.

The role of relationship with the perpetrator in acknowledgement is unclear. While the finding in this study that perpetrator relationship was unrelated to acknowledgement is consistent with Kibler's (1986) research, two other studies have found that unacknowledged rape victims knew their perpetrator better before the rape than did acknowledged rape victims (Gault, 1993; Koss, 1985). Although the present study controlled for level of force, an improvement over previous studies, the relationship variables would not have predicted acknowledgement even if force had not been in the model. The level of relationship was approximately evenly distributed between the two levels of acknowledgement, even for women who reported being raped by a stranger,

a group who would be expected to unanimously acknowledge the rape. Although the sample for this study may have been unusual in regard to relationship with the perpetrator, the Gault (1993), Kibler (1986), and Koss (1985) studies all sampled from undergraduate university women and used similar assessment techniques. Future research is needed to clarify the nature of the association between the relationship with the perpetrator and acknowledgement in university women and in other populations.

In sum, by using the ecological framework, the influences of interpersonal, individual, and social factors could be seen. Although all three levels were individual predictors of acknowledgement, the interpersonal and individual forces were much stronger. Rape acknowledgement is influenced primarily by the level of force experienced, the degree of the belief that a rape involves a high degree of physical force, and the amount of behavioral self-blame reported by the woman. Of lesser importance are the belief that dating equals attractiveness and the number of sexually victimized peers in a woman's peer group.

Interrelationships among Predictor Variables

This study replicated Mynatt and Allgeier's (1990) finding that the lower the level of physical force involved in the rape, the greater the self-blame. (See Figure 5 for a summary of the variables that were associated with attributions about the rape.) The lower the force in the rape, the more a woman engaged in behavioral self-blame, and had attributions of self-cause, self-responsiblity, and self-blame. In addition, in all three of the perpetrator attribution measures, increased force was associated with increased attributions. The man was more likely to be assigned cause, responsiblity, and blame the higher the level of force. Clearly, the level of force experienced in a rape is a critical feature for the attribution of a rape. If a rape involves a higher level of force, a woman may be less likely to feel that she

could have avoided it or that she caused or was responsible for the experience. At lower levels of force, there may be more ambiguity about what she could have done differently. For instance, women who were using alcohol and could not object would fit into a lower level of force and may report that if they had not drunk so much, they could have prevented the rape. Since both the attribution and force measures are retrospective self-reports, it is not possible to establish cause or accuracy of perceptions. While it seems logical to assume that a higher level of force may lead a woman to greater attributions toward the perpetrator and lower attributions toward herself, higher attributions could also cause a person to remember and report a higher level of force. Level of force appears to be an important variable in attribution and in acknowledgement.

Although previous studies (Katz & Burt, 1988; Mynatt & Allgeier, 1990) have found that the more a woman knew a man before an assault, the greater the self-blame, this study found just the opposite with not just one but all five self-attribution measures when level of force was controlled. The present research differed from earlier work by using a university sample of acknowledged and unacknowledged rape victims and by using level of force as a covariate. The prior studies used victims recruited from rape crisis centers who were all acknowledged rape victims. The discrepancy in findings between these studies and the present study may be due to the inclusion of unacknowledged rape victims. Self-blame and perpetrator relationship may function differently in different groups of rape victims. Women who disclose their rape to rape crisis center workers also may be exposed to higher levels of force and know the perpetrator less well than the women in this sample. In the Burt and Katz (1998) study, for instance, 71% of the rapists were total strangers (62%) or had just met immediately before the rape (9%). In contrast, only 6% of the rapists in the present study were strangers. Among these university women who knew

their perpetrator, the context of the rape may have been different than for the rape crisis center clients.

Self-attributions may be higher among those less acquainted with the perpetrator because of the type of situation in which these rapes occurred. Thirty-eight percent of the rapes in the present study occurred at a party or group event; 26% of the rapes were committed by a casual friend; and 41% were raped because they were under the influence of alcohol and could not resist. Women who are raped under these conditions may attribute responsiblity to themselves for exercising poor judgement, drinking too much, and trusting men they did not know well. Future research is needed to explore the relationships among level of acquaintance with the perpetrator, self-attributions, and level of force in acknowledged and unacknowledged rape victims.

Of the romantic beliefs, only two were associated with attributions about the rape. The more a woman believed that love can be perfect, the more likely she was to blame her character for the rape. Similarly, the more a woman believed in love at first sight, the more likely she was to engage in self-blame for the rape. These findings provide support for the hypothesis that romantic beliefs are associated with self-blame. The more a woman accepts romanticized notions of dating and romance, the more likely she will be to accept blame for a rape. As Lloyd (1991) suggested, romantic beliefs may have a role in leading women to minimize violence by blaming themselves for rape experiences. The robustness of this finding is questionable, however, when considering that this relationship was only found in 2 out of 32 analyses. Moreover, the fact that the romantic beliefs failed to predict acknowledgement suggests that although associated with self-blame, romantic beliefs are not associated with minimizing rape through lack of acknowledgement. Thus, the effects of generalized romantic beliefs have limited utility in predicting self-attributions and no utility in predicting acknowledgement.

Women who had a greater number of sexually victimized peers were less likely to say they caused the rape to occur. However, since they did not reflect less self-attributions on the other four measures, they may still be engaging in a good bit of self-attribution. Their lower response on the self-cause item may reflect their greater awareness of the "correct" answer due to discussion with others who have been victimized rather than their true belief. Another possibility is that the women do distinguish attributions of cause from responsiblity and blame. While the awareness of sexually victimized peers may be associated with cause, it has no association with responsibility and blame. They may genuinely feel they are did not cause the rape, although they do experience other self-attributions. Having a greater number of female peers who have been sexually victimized also was associated with level of force (see Figure 6). Perhaps women who have had higher levels of force were more likely to discuss the experience with their friends, who in turn shared their experiences. Or a greater knowledge and awareness of peers' sexual victimization could influence women's perceptions or reports of force. The more aware a woman is of sexual victimization, the more likely she is to perceive sexual force when it occurs to her. If she is unaware of sexual victimization in her peers, she may be more likely to minimize any reports of sexual force.

The beliefs in the cultural model of romance and attractiveness were associated with attributions in 11 out of 80 analyses, and three of these associations were opposite the predicted direction (see Figure 5 for a summary). The higher the belief or participation in the CMRA subscales, the greater the self-attributions. The beliefs of the CMRA may influence a woman to over-attribute a rape to her behavior or personality. Although there were several CMRA subscales associated with the self-attribution measures, there is not clear pattern between CMRA subscale and type of attribution. Also, the low number of hypotheses supported (8/80) raises the question of whether these associations may

be due to chance. The puzzling finding that the direction of the relationship between three of the CMRA subscales and perpetrator-attributions was opposite from the expected direction, increases the concern that these associations may be random. Replication of the findings with another sample will provide additional information about the strength and direction of the relationships between CMRA subscales and self-attributions for the rape.

At this time, the support for the link between belief in the CMRA and self-attributions is modest. Belief in the peer system that emphasizes the importance of dating and attractiveness may be associated with attributions toward the self about a rape victimization. The correlations between the self-attributions measures and the CMRA subscales may also be an indirect reflection of the association between the CMRA subscales and traditional roles. Sex-role stereotyping and rape myths have shown strong positive correlations (Burt, 1980). The CMRA subscales that predicted self-attributions were the same ones that were positively associated with the Acceptance of Traditional Gender Roles Scale in the validation part of Study 1. Therefore, these associations could be tapping into acceptance of rape myths which blame a woman for a sexual assault.

The association between perpetrator-blame and the CMRA subscales was unexpected. Perhaps the more a woman believes in the peer system of CMRA, the more likely she is to hold a man responsible for sexually aggressive male behavior. There may be an aspect to the peer system that allows women to hold men responsible for poor treatment of women. Rather than always placing women at a disadvantage, belief in the peer system may provide woman an avenue to find fault with some men. For women who believe in the CMRA, men who sexually assault women may be evaluated poorly, seen as unattractive, and as men to be avoided by the victim and her friends in the future.

Dating Equals Attractiveness and Relationship Treatment were the two CMRA subscales associated with the possession of blitz rape scripts (See Figure 6). The more a woman possessed a blitz rape script, the more likely she was to believe that dating equals attractiveness and to report good treatment within a heterosexual relationship. All of these subscales could be related to a sense of invulnerability. The more a woman believes in a blitz rape script, the less likely she may be to think a rape could happen to her. An acquaintance rape script suggest that rape occurs more frequently and that it could happen to anyone. In contrast, a blitz rape is an extreme act of violence that occurs rarely. If a woman believes that attractive women get the best dates, she may imagine a reciprocity in male-female encounters that would make sexual assault by an acquaintance rare unless it was provoked. Furthermore, if a woman is in a relationship where she feels she is being treated well, she may find it more difficult to understand how an acquaintance, date, or boyfriend could rape a woman. The relation between possession of a blitz rape script and each of the CMRA subscales may reflect this shared sense of invulnerability.

Limitations

The results are limited by the correlational nature of this study. A relationship between two variables cannot be assumed to be a causal relationship. A longitudinal study would allow for the temporal sequencing of the relationships, but cause can only be assured in an experimental design. Although experimental manipulation of acknowledged and unacknowledged rape victims is not possible, a longitudinal study is feasible. This study is further limited by the reliance on self-report data. Unfortunately, this is a problem with few alternative solutions. Due to the underreporting of rape, the lack of acknowledgement by many victims, and the negative response by many agencies such as the justice system, self-report is the best method to date. Clinical, emergency room, and rape crisis center samples are of limited utility in studying

acknowledgement. Additionally, the study is limited to university women between the ages of 18 and 25 who are primarily white and middle class. The results cannot be generalized to other groups of rape victims.

The assessment of the relationship between a rape victim and a perpetrator with whom she is romantically involved needs to be explored further. Although 34 women said the assailant was a boyfriend, only 24 women completed the relationship questions. Of those 24 only 4 were acknowledged rape victims. Focus groups might help the researcher understand if the instructions or the questions themselves are perceived by the participants in a way that would reduce responding, especially among acknowledged rape victims. It may be that thinking about and responding to questions about the relationship with an acknowledged rapist is more disturbing than for a person who is not acknowledged as a rapist. Another possibility is that the instructions were not clear for this set of instructions.

Implications for the CMRA Scale

The future of the CMRA subscales is promising. Adequate reliability and validity were established for all the subscales except Enjoy. The convergent validity was good for most of the subscales, but the discriminant validity, while acceptable, could be improved. When a larger sample size is attained, a factor analysis of the entire scale can be conducted. The subscales may then be re-formed using this information. It is possible that these refined subscales may display higher convergent and discriminant validity. The hypotheses concerning rape acknowledgement can then be tested with these refined measures to see if they are any more successful as predictors.

Even if the CMRA does not prove useful for the prediction of acknowledgement, it may be a worthwhile scale for assessing the women's beliefs about romance and attraction. The women in this study indicated a moderate acceptance of the beliefs about attraction and romance. These beliefs may be associated with university women's achievement and

achievement motivation (as suggested by Holland and Eisenhart, 1990), vulnerability for developing eating disorders, increased tolerance of physical violence in relationships, and with general well-being. The correlations with self-esteem in Study 1 suggest that some subscales of the CMRA are associated with lower self-esteem (e.g. Dating Equals Attractiveness and Treatment Equal Attractiveness) while others are associated with higher self-esteem (e.g Attraction Power and Relationship Treatment). The CMRA subscales may provide tool for assessing culturally related individual beliefs and a wide range of other variables concerning a university population.

Future Research

The relationship between acceptance of the CMRA beliefs and how much a woman minimizes or tolerates physical abuse in dating relationships could be explored. Since 32% of the women in a national sample of higher education students reported being the victim of courtship violence (White & Koss, 1991), this form of abuse may be normative for university women. The CMRA beliefs may be associated with the minimization of physical abuse more so than for rape which occurs with a lower frequency.

There is a great need to clarify what is meant by terms such as self-blame, responsiblity and cause. The refinement of the definition and measurement of these terms, as well as the study of their interrelationships is called for. The mental health correlates of acknowledgement including the influence of self-attributions are another direction for future work. Finally, the replication of the study in other groups of rape victims will provide information about the generalizability of the results to other contexts.

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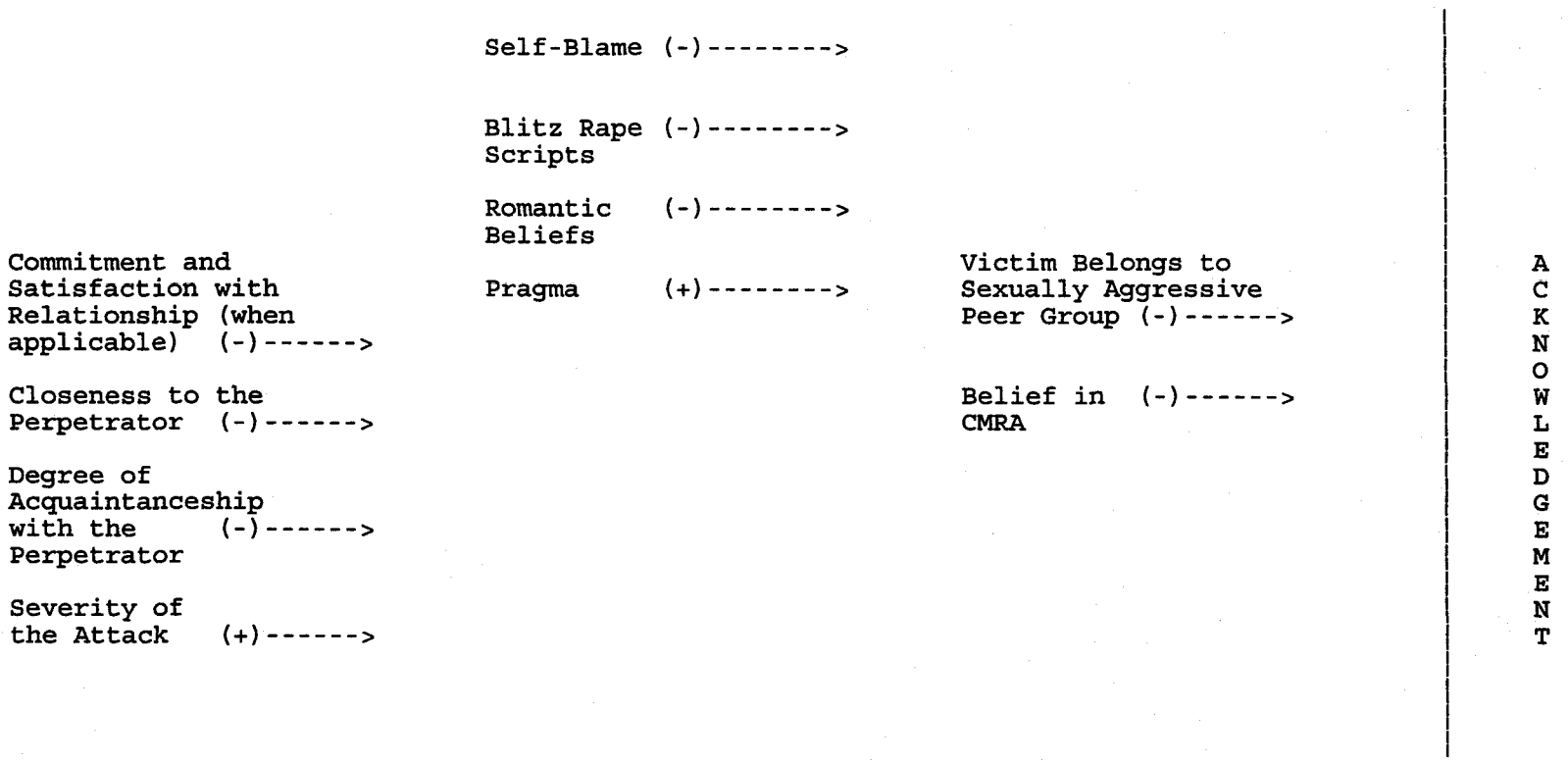
APPENDIX A

FIGURES

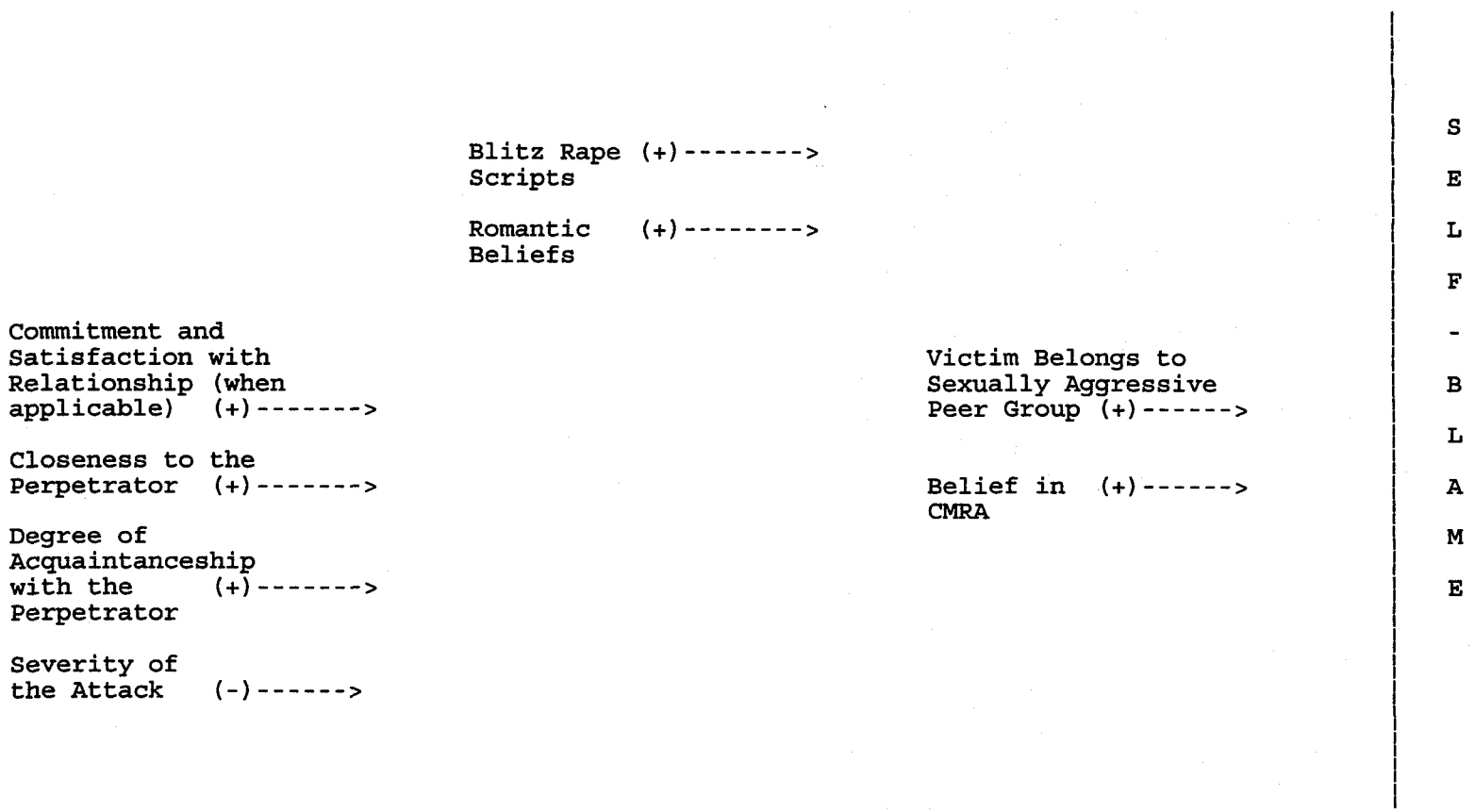
Figure 1

Hypothesized Predictors of Rape Acknowledgement
Hypotheses 1-8



Note. (-) indicates a negative relationship, (+) a positive relationship between the predictor variable and acknowledgement

Figure 2 Hypothesized Inter-relationships Among Self-Blame and Other Predictor Variables
Hypothesis 9



Note. (-) indicates a negative relationship, (+) a positive relationship between the predictor variable and acknowledgement

Figure 3 Hypothesized Inter-relationships Among Predictor Variables

Hypotheses 10, 11, 12

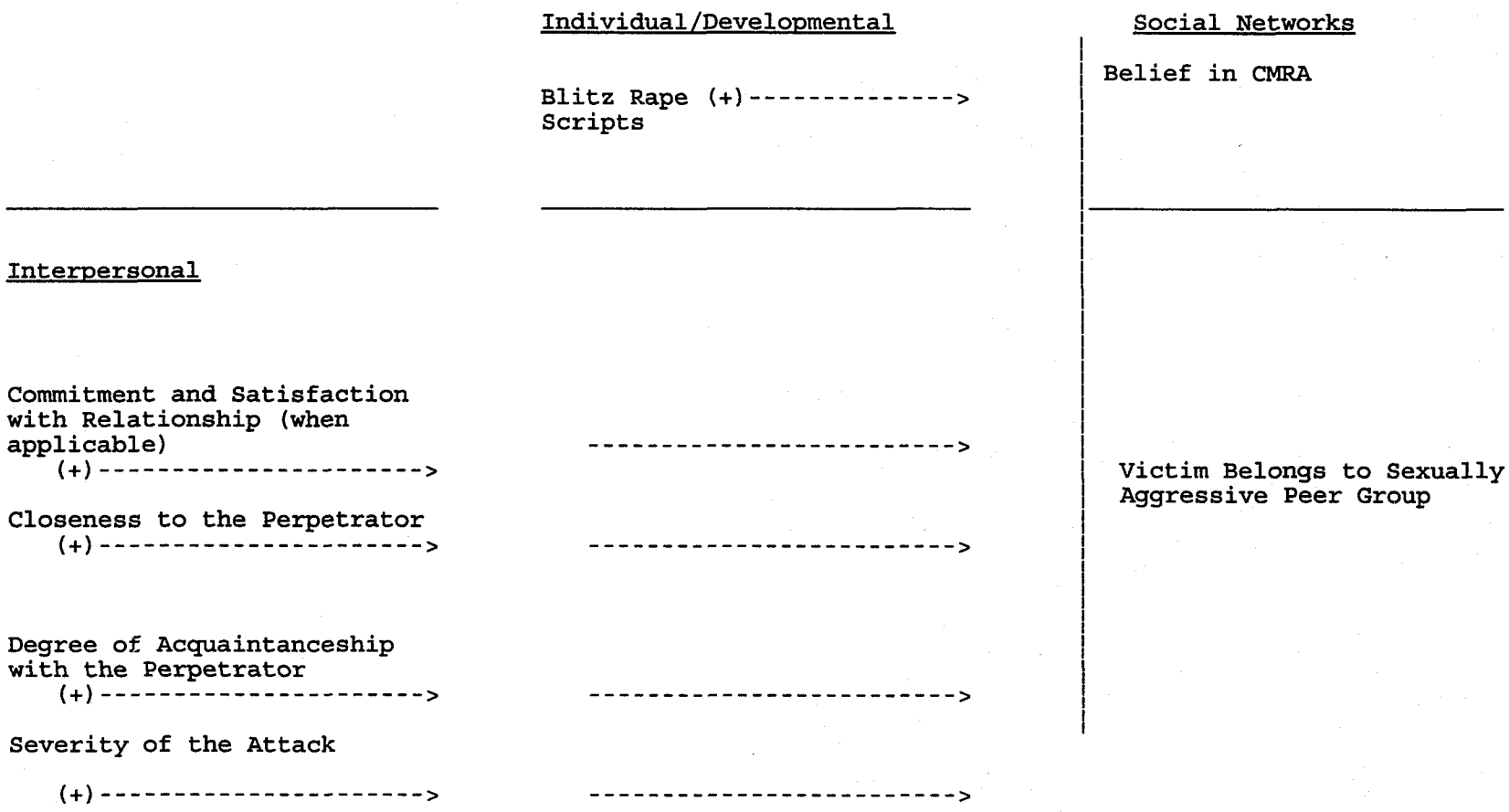
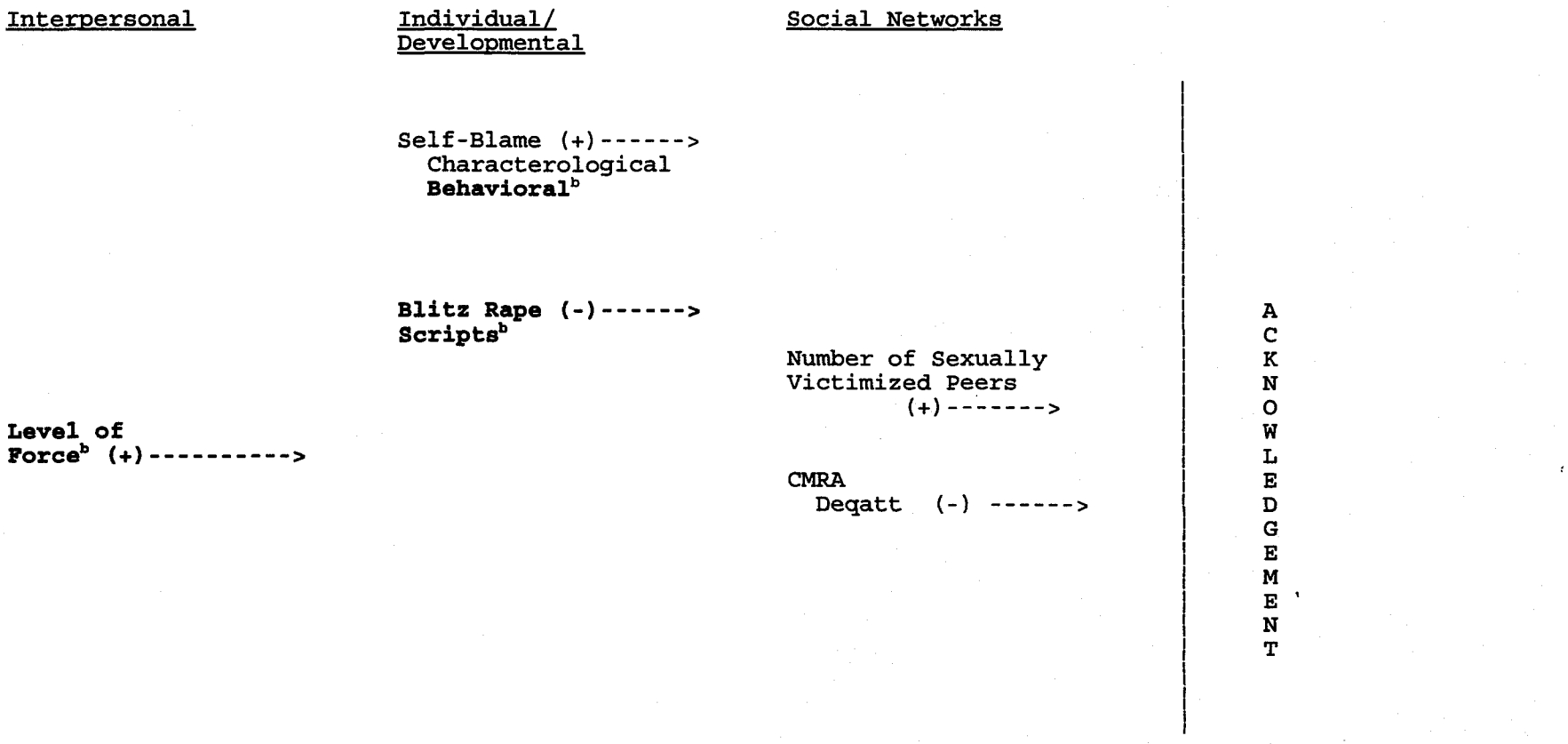


Figure 4

Predictors of Rape Acknowledgement[a]
Hypotheses 1-8

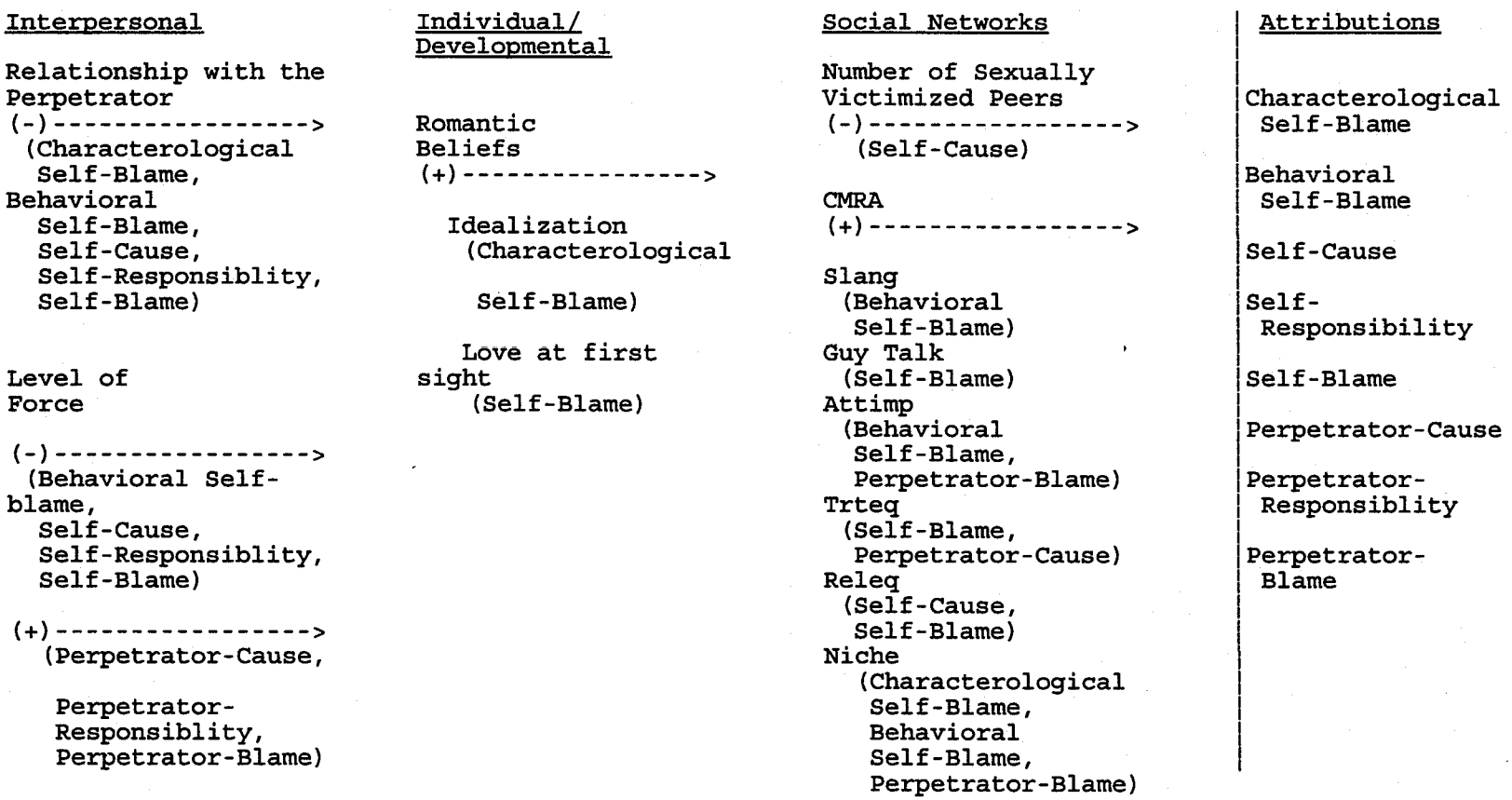


Note. (-) indicates a negative relationship, (+) a positive relationship between the predictor variable and acknowledgement

a Level of Force was a covariate

b Variables in bold were unique contributors to the prediction of acknowledgement in a stepwise logistic regression

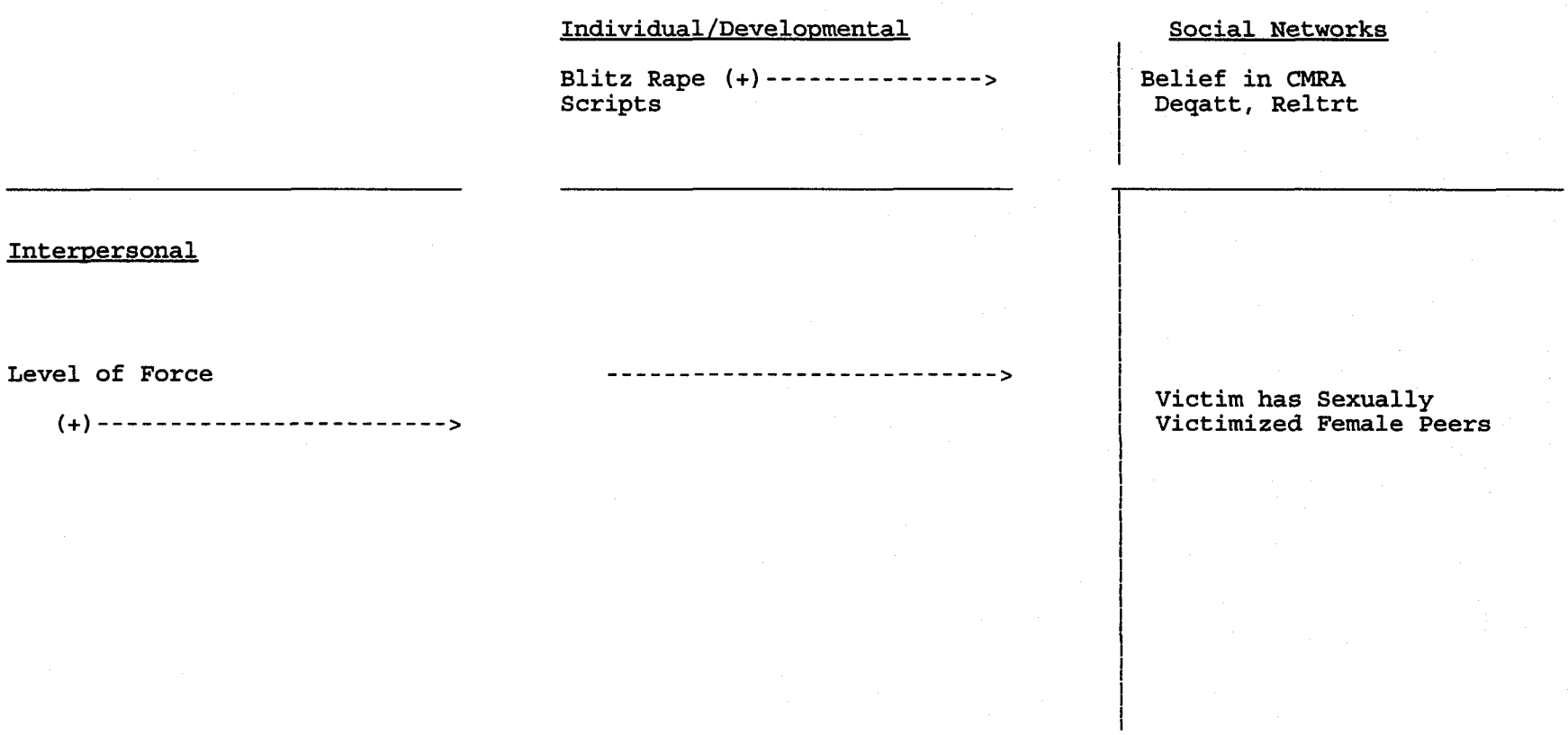
Figure 5 Inter-relationship Among Attributions and Other Predictor Variables[a]
Hypothesis 9



Note. (-) indicates a negative relationship, (+) a positive relationship between the predictor variable and acknowledgement. Attribution variable associated with other predictor variable is in parentheses.
a Level of Force was a covariate

Figure 6

Inter-relationships Among Predictor Variables[a]
Hypotheses 10, 11, 12



[a] Level of Force was a covariate

APPENDIX B

TABLES

Table 1 Summary of Internal Consistency and Principle Components Analyses For Each Subscale of the CMRA (N=358)

	# of Items	Cronbach Alpha	Range of Factor Loadings by the 1st Factor	% of Variance Explained of the 1st Factor
Topics	1	n/a	n/a	n/a
Slang	4	.82	.76-.83	64
Guy Talk	3	.71	.57-.91	65
Attimp	(12) 11	(.80) .83	(.16-.76) .49-.78	(34) 43
Deqatt	5	.68	.54-.76	44
Trteq	(10) 8	(.65) .63	(.34-.70) .40-.70	(25) 28
Releq	(9) 7	(.66) .71	(.05-.71) .45-.71	(29) 37
Enjoy	(9) 5	(.49) .62	(.01-.72) .40-.74	(23) 39
Niche	4	.69	.67-.78	53
Attract1	7	.86	.53-.86	55
Reltrt	12	.82	.39-.75	35

Note. Items deleted: Attimp, #9; Trteq, # 2,7; Releq, #1,2; Enjoy, 4,5,6,7.
Numbers in parentheses refer to the original scale if items were later deleted

Table 2 Two-Week Test-Retest Reliability Scores For Each Subscale of the CMRA

	N	Pearson Correlation Coefficient	# of items in subscale	Test Mean	Retest Mean
Topics	165	.68	1	4.53	4.60
Slang	172	.70	4	3.50	3.36
Guy Talk	170	.60	3	3.72	3.75
Attimp	171	.78	11	3.83	3.67
Deqatt	171	.69	5	2.73	2.59
Trteq	171	.67	8	5.72	5.65
Releq	171	.80	7	3.28	3.29
Enjoy	171	.52	5	2.02	2.06
Niche	169	.54	4	3.46	3.50
Attract1	171	.86	7	3.44	3.52
Reltrt	133	.80	12	3.89	3.99

Table 3

Concurrent and Discriminant Validity Correlations For Each Subscale of the CMRA[ab]

	Self-Monitoring	Marlowe-Crowne	Love Attitudes (a) Pragma	(b) Ludus	Relational Assessment Questionnaire (a) Esteem	(b) Preoccupation	(c) Depression
Topics	.20***	**.12***	**-.08**	**-.14****	.12*	.33****	-.05
N	173	176	187	177	187	184	187
Slang	.14*	.08	.13*	-.04	.29****	**.09**	-.02
N	174	178	191	179	190	187	190
Guy Talk	**.03**	-.06	.11*	-.08	**.04**	.12*	.02
N	174	178	193	179	190	187	190
Attimp	.23***	-.01	**.08**	.03	**.18****	.43****	.09
N	174	180	193	179	190	187	190
Deqatt	.18**	.03	.14**	-.05	.03	.12*	**.14***
N	176	178	193	179	190	187	190
Trteq	**.05**	-.06	.19***	-.0007	**.15****	.11*	-.003
N	174	178	193	179	190	187	190
Releq	.26****	.06	.13*	**-.11***	-.09	.27****	**.17****
N	174	178	193	179	190	187	190
Enjoy	.08	-.01	.07	**-.13***	**-.03**	-.12*	**.02**
N	174	178	193	179	190	187	190
Niche	.01	-.05	.15**	.08	.10	.22***	-.08
N	174	178	193	179	190	187	190
Attract1	.01	.08	-.05	---	.34****	-.07	-.26****
N	174	178	193		190	187	190
Reltrt	-.03	-.06	.05	---	.26***	.11	-.31****
N	129	132	193		143	141	143

Note. *p < .15, **p < .05, ***p < .01, ****p < .001

[a] slight fluctuations in sample size due to missing data.

[b] coefficients in bold did not conform to prediction

Table 3, con't

Concurrent and Discriminant Validity Correlations For Each Subscale of the CMRA[ab]

	Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire						
	(a) Appearance Evaluation	(b) Appearance Orientation	(c) Body Satisfaction	(d) Weight Preoccupation	(e) Weight Evaluation	TSBI	Rosenberg Self-Esteem
Topics	--	--	--	--	--	.11*	.002
N						189	189
Slang	--	--	--	--	--	**.09**	-.02
N						193	193
Guy Talk	--	--	--	--	--	**.07**	-.02
N						195	195
Attimp	--	--	--	--	--	-.03	-.10
N						195	195
Deqatt	--	--	--	--	--	**-.11***	**-.15****
N						195	195
Trteq	--	--	--	--	--	**-.13***	**-.16****
N						195	195
Releq	--	--	--	--	--	-.02	-.04
N						195	195
Enjoy	--	--	--	--	--	**-.11***	-.07
N						195	195
Niche	--	--	--	--	--	-.09*	-.002
N						195	195
Attract1	.60****	.08	.45****	-.17***	-.29****	.39****	.35****
N	195	195	195	195	195	195	195
Reltrt	--	--	--	--	--	.06	**.12**
N						150	150

Note. *p < .15, **p < .05, ***p < .01, ****p < .001

[a] slight fluctuations in sample size due to missing data.

[b] coefficients in bold did not conform to prediction

Table 3, con't

Concurrent and Discriminant Validity Correlations For Each Subscale of the CMRA[ab]

	Self-Consciousness Inventory			MFMRAI[c]				
	(a) Public Self-Cons.	(b) Social Anxiety	(c) Private Self-Consc.	(a) Trad. Roles	(b) Endorse Chivalry	(c) Fam. Roles	(d) Opp. to Equal Jobs	(e) Women's Rights
Topics	**.08**	-.08	-.03	**.05**	.008	.07	.05	.06
N	182	182	182	191	191	191	185	185
Slang	.11*	-.02	.04	.13*	.02	.03	-.06	**-.15****
N	183	183	183	194	194	194	188	188
Guy Talk	.19***	.09	.05	.18**	.03	.005	-.05	-.08
N	183	183	183	194	194	194	188	188
Attimp	.27****	.27****	**.16****	.30****	-.01	**.15****	**.13***	.04
N	183	183	183	194	194	194	188	188
Deqatt	.28****	.20***	**.12***	.18**	- .02	.05	**.13***	.05
N	183	183	183	194	194	194	188	188
Trteq	.26****	.11*	.09	.25****	-.06	.04	-.04	.004
N	183	183	183	194	194	194	188	188
Releq	.23***	.13*	.01	.12***	-.06	**.17****	.04	**.11***
N	183	183	183	194	194	194	188	188
Enjoy	.03	**.04**	**-.20*****	**-.11***	.04	**.15****	**-.20*****	-.004
N	183	183	183	194	194	194	188	188
Niche	.14**	.31****	**-.13***	.29****	-.004	**.15****	.09	-.002
N	183	183	183	194	194	194	188	188
Attract1	-.29****	-.34****	-.04	-.06	-.02	-.04	.01	.04
N	183	183	183	194	194	194	188	188
Reltrt	**-.13***	.003	-.07	-.03	-.05	.02	.06	-.007
N	138	138	138	145	145	145	141	141

Note. *p < .15, **p < .05, ***p < .01, ****p < .001

[a] slight fluctuations in sample size due to missing data.

[b] coefficients in bold did not conform to predictions

[c] Multicomponent Female-Male Relations Attitude Inventory

Table 4

Summary of Reliability and Validity Assessment For Each Subscale of the CMRA

	Validity			Reliability	Summary
	Obtained/Expected Predictions	Percentage Obtained	Evaluation of Validity[a]	Evaluation of Reliability[b]	Overall Evaluation[c]
Topics	12/17	71%	Good	Adequate	Adequate+
Slang	14/17	82%	Excellent	Good	Good+
Guy Talk	14/17	82%	Excellent	Adequate	Adequate++
Attimp	12/17	71%	Good	Good	Good
Deqatt	12/17	71%	Good	Adequate	Adequate+
Trteq	13/17	77%	Good	Adequate	Adequate+
Releq	13/17	77%	Good	Good	Good
Enjoy	8/17	47%	Minimal	Minimal	Minimal
Niche	15/17	88%	Excellent	Minimal	Adequate
Attract1	21/21	100%	Excellent+	Excellent	Excellent
Reltrt	14/16	88%	Excellent	Excellent	Excellent

[a] Excellent+ = 90-100%, Excellent = 80-89%, Good = 70-79%, Adequate = 60-69%, Minimal= below 50%.
[b] Based on lower correlation of (1) internal consistency and (2) test-retest of each subscale. Excellent = .80 and higher, Good = .70-.79, Adequate = .60-.69, and Minimal = .50-.59.
[c] Overall Evaluation is a conservative estimate based on reliability and validity classification. These categories are not to be taken to have any absolute meaning. They have heuristic value only.

Table 5 Relationship Between Type of Force as Measured by the SES and Acknowledgement[a]

Question (Paraphrased)		Ack-nowledged	Unack-nowledged	Total
Alcohol				
Has (sexual intercourse or other sexual acts) occurred when you knew you did not want it to happen, but you were intoxicated or under the influence of alcohol or drugs that you could not object?	N	4	41	45
	Percent	3.7%	37.6%	41.3%
Threaten Force				
Has a man said he would use physical force (such as grabbing, hitting, choking, pinching, or in any other way restraining your movement or physically hurting you), but did not, to make you have sexual intercourse or other sexual acts when you did not want to?	N	1	8	9
	Percent	1%	7.3%	8.3%
Use Force				
Has a man used physical force (such as cornering you, pinning you against a wall, grabbing you, holding you down, hitting you, or otherwise restraining your movement or physically hurting you) to make you have sexual intercourse or other sexual acts when you did not want to?	N	34	21	55
	Percent	31.2%	19.3%	50.5%
	Total			
	N	39	70	109
	Percent	35.9%	64.2%	100%

[a] X^2 (2, N = 109) = 32.77, p < .0001.

Table 6

Situational Factors, Attributions, and Romantic Beliefs as Predictors of Acknowledgement in Logistic Regression Analyses When Controlling for Level of Force

	Acknowledged Rape Victims		Unacknowledged Rape Victims			
Variable	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Wald X^2	Log-Odds
Situational Variables						
Type of Force[ab]	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	32.77****	n/a
Verbal Resistance[b]	3.46	.16	2.29	.17	15.51****	.38
Physical Resistance[b]	3.54	.17	2.27	.19	15.61****	.34
Physical Harm[b]	3.00	.19	1.50	.12	21.58****	.59
# of Victimizations	23.79	2.16	20.99	1.89	.77	.01
Type of Relationship[a]	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	.71	n/a
How Close	2.58	.30	2.64	.21	2.63	-.17
Attributions						
Characterological	2.66	.12	2.23	.11	5.37*	-.48
Behavioral	2.32	.10	1.83	.09	8.61**	-.76
He Caused	4.72	.14	4.54	.13	.85	.18
He Responsible	4.59	.14	4.56	.12	.01	.02
He to Blame	4.42	.19	4.19	.17	.86	.13
She Caused	2.81	.21	2.67	.19	.17	.17
She Responsible	2.94	.21	2.52	.19	1.62	-.15
She to Blame	3.31	.23	2.86	.21	1.49	-.12
Romantic Beliefs						
love finds a way	3.68	.13	4.02	.11	2.57	-.29
one and only	3.11	.17	3.48	.15	2.10	-.19
idealization	2.83	.14	2.74	.12	.23	.08
love at first sight	2.74	.16	2.74	.14	.03	.02
Pragma	3.37	.14	3.12	.12	1.54	.21

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$, ****$p < .0001$, two-tailed tests
[a] X^2 analysis for categorical data
[b] force not controlled for because force is a composite of these variables

Table 7 Relationship Variables as Predictors of Acknowledgement When Controlling for Level of Force

Variable	Acknowledged Rape Victims (n=4) Mean	SE	Unacknowledged Rape Victims (n=20) Mean	SE	Wald X^{2a}	Log Odds
Comparative Attractiveness	1.67	.12	1.72	.22	.07	-.15
Alternatives	2.91	.25	3.13	.15	.52	-.77
Commitment	3.50	.41	3.60	.05	1.13	-.65
Satisfaction	2.81	.34	2.97	.27	1.59	-.82

Table 8 Blitz Rape Script Items as Predictors of Acknowledgement in Logistic Regression Analyses When Controlling for Level of Force (N=89)

	Acknowledged Rape Victims		Unacknowledged Rape Victims			
Variable	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Wald X^2	Log-Odds
Blitz Rape Scripts						
Stranger	.09	.07	.26	.06	2.94	-.60
Outdoors	.16	.08	.34	.07	2.53	-.45
Verbal Coercion	.90	.07	.70	.07	2.95	.58
Physical Threat	.75	.09	.61	.08	1.10	.27
Physical Restraint	.73	.09	.48	.08	3.55*	.49
Physical Attack	.38	.09	.81	.07	8.84**	-.95
Threatens to Use Weapon	.44	.09	.74	.08	4.70*	-.56
Uses a Weapon	.13	.08	.44	.07	5.57*	-.70
Victim Screams	.54	.08	.84	.07	4.33*	-.57
Victim Cries	1.00	.00	1.00	.00	n/a[a]	n/a[a]
Victim Tries to Leave	.91	.06	.83	.05	.71	.33
Victim Protests	.83	.04	.99	.04	n/a[a]	n/a[a]
Victims Struggles	.93	.03	1.00	.00	n/a[a]	n/a[a]
Severe Physical Harm	.14	.09	.63	.07	10.55***	-1.06
Mild Physical Harm	.91	.08	.62	.07	5.09*	.66
Victim Drinking	.46	.08	.16	.07	5.40*	.68
Man Drinking	.58	.09	.56	.08	.05	.06
Victim Flees	.72	.08	.81	.07	.47	-.21
Victim Tells Police	.03	.05	.12	.04	1.25	-.51
Victim Tells Friend or Relative	.51	.09	.37	.08	1.12	.26
Victim Tells No One	0	0	.	.	n/a[a]	n/a[a]
Victim Avoids Man Afterwards	.96	.03	.99	.02	n/a[a]	n/a[a]
Man Threatens Loved One	.32	.09	.59	.09	3.19	-.46
Rapist Flees	.76	.07	.92	.06	2.80	-.59

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$, ****$p < .0001$, two-tailed tests
[a] logistic regression could not estimate parameters because of a lack of variability in at least one group

Table 9 Logistic Regression Analysis - Predicting Acknowledgement with CMRA Subscales and Attractiveness when Controlling for Level of Force

CMRA Subscale	N	Attractiveness	df	Wald X^2	Log-Odds
Topics	88		1	.91	-.07
		Appearev	1	.42	-.11
Slang	89		1	.18	-.07
		Appearev	1	.41	-.11
Guy Talk	89		1	.47	.11
		Appearev	1	.31	-.10
Attimp	89		1	.14	.07
		Appearev	1	.42	-.11
Deqatt	89		1	4.62*	-.39
		Appearev	1	1.30	-.21
Trteq	89		1	.78	.12
		Appearev	1	.26	-.09
Releq	89		1	.77	.18
		Appearev	1	.29	-.09
Niche	89		1	.04	-.03
		Appearev	1	.43	-.11
Reltrt	74		1	1.70	-.44
		Appearev	1	.87	-.17
Attract1[a]	89		1	.40	-.11

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, ****p < .0001, two-tailed tests
[a] Attractiveness measure not used as a covariate with this variable.

Table 10 Stepwise Logistic Regression Analysis of Predictors of Rape Acknowledgement

Variable	B	SE B	Wald X^2	p	Log-Odds
Step 1					
Level of Force	.40	.08	24.85	.0001	.17
Step 2					
Level of Force	.51	.11	22.43	.0001	.22
Blitz Rape Script	-4.96	1.38	13.03	.0003	-2.15
Step 3[a]					
Level of Force	.68	.15	21.56	.0001	.30
Blitz Rape Script	-5.73	1.60	12.79	.0003	-2.52
Behavioral Self-Blame	-2.24	.81	7.73	.005	.97

Note. Six variables were used as predictors: level of force, characterological self-blame, behavioral self-blame, possession of blitz rape scripts, number of sexually victimized peers, and Deqatt.

[a] Step three correctly classified 86.2% of the acknowledged rape victims.

Table 11 Predictors of Cause, Responsibility, and Blame When Controlling for Level of Force

	Behavioral Self-Blame	Cause		Responsibility		Characterological Self-Blame	Blame	
		He	Self	He	Self		He	Self
Variable	t	t	t	t	t	t	t	t
Romantic Beliefs								
Love Finds a Way	-.33	.70	-1.07	.02	-1.20	.33	.42	.65
One and Only	-.54	.32	.10	-.51	-1.13	-1.10	-1.16	-1.48
Idealization	.01	.07	1.23	-.10	-.09	2.06*	-.01	1.04
Love at First Sight	1.77	.86	1.25	.77	1.46	1.21	.72	1.95*
Pragma	1.73	1.36	.61	1.36	.64	1.49	-.32	1.16
Sex. Aggressive Peers	-.54	-.80	-1.47	-.78	-1.59	.48	.55	1.50
Sex. Victimized Peers	-.30	-.10	-2.40**	.41	-1.44	.28	.31	.59
Blitz Rape Script	-.83	-.87	-.84	-1.16	-.63	-1.28	.34	.02
Prior Relationship	-5.16****	-1.35	-2.90**	-.75	-2.75**	-3.72***	-1.61	-2.05*
Level of Force	-1.92*	2.61**	-5.57****	3.87***	-6.53****	-1.17	4.66****	-3.47***

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, ****p < .0001, two-tailed tests

Table 11 (con't) Predictors of Cause, Responsibility, and Blame When Controlling for Level of Force

	Behavioral Self-Blame	Cause		Responsibility		Characterological Self-Blame	Blame	
		He	She	He	She		He	She
Variable	t	t	t	t	t	t	t	t
CMRA Subscales								
Topics	.64	-.07	.29	.84	-.31	.79	1.84	1.07
Slang	2.50*	-.25	1.41	-.54	1.07	1.51	.80	1.00
Guy Talk	1.02	-.45	1.13	-.59	.02	1.66	.48	1.98*
Attimp	2.92*	.05	.63	.19	.24	1.61	2.24*	.40
Deqatt	.51	-1.52	1.30	-1.49	1.55	.04	-1.27	-.09
Trteq	1.69	2.46**	.67	.51	.77	1.45	1.44	2.47**
Releq	1.20	.58	2.07*	.18	1.78	1.51	.96	2.17**
Niche	3.26*	.80	.33	.27	-.62	2.17*	2.28*	.25
Attract1	-.52	1.58	-.12	.60	-.94	-.69	-1.14	-.46
Reltrt	.15	-1.10	-.05	-.53	-.01	-.16	-.25	.45

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, ****p < .0001, two-tailed tests

Table 12 CMRA Subscales as Predictors of Blitz Rape Script When Controlling for Level of Force

Variable	t
Topics	-.61
Slang	-.08
Guy Talk	-1.31
Attimp	-.28
Deqatt	2.52**
Trteq	-.82
Releq	-.46
Niche	-.82
Attract1	.05
Reltrt	1.89*

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001, ****p < .0001, two-tailed tests

Table 13 Regression Analyses for Variables Predicting Commitment and Satisfaction When Controlling for Level of Force (N = 24)

Variable	Commitment		Satisfaction	
	B	SE B	B	SE B
Sexually Aggressive Peers	-.16	.12	.04	.04
Sexually Victimized Peers	-.13	.11	.20	.09
Topics	.04	.06	.19	.12
Slang	.22	.08	.03	.10
Guy Talk	.05	.10	.07	.15
Attimp	.20	.12	.29	.17
Deqatt	.04	.11	.22	.11
Trteq	.19	.15	.01	.09
Releq	.10	.13	.13	.09
Niche	.21	.09	.11	.21
Attract1	-.03	.16	.08	.11
Reltrt	.19	.21	.20	.08

Note. None of the B's were statistically significant.

APPENDIX C

SCALES

APPENDIX D

ADMINISTRATIVE FORMS

Oral Presentation

I want to thank you for coming today. I want to ask you to please leave at least one seat between you and your neighbor. I'll wait for you to move now. (wait)

This study is investigating attitudes, social experiences, and personal relationships. You will be given a test packet with several different questionnaires. Some of the material deals with sensitive topics and you do not have to answer any question you do not want to. You may withdraw at any time without penalty and you are free to ask any question you wish.

The test packet will take between one and two hours to fill out, some of you may take a little longer or finish a little quicker.

Your answers are completely confidential and your name and social security number will NOT be connected with your responses in any way while the results are being analyzed. Individual responses will not be analyzed; the data will be added together and analyzed as a group.

As soon as you receive your test packet, you may begin working. Please be sure to read the instructions at the beginning of each page. The first page is a consent form. Please read and sign this first, detach it from your packet, raise your hand and I will take them up. (Hand out test packets).

_____ _____

Signature of Person Obtaining Consent on Behalf of UNCG — Date

NOTE: Complete statement of what is to be said to subject is required.

Consent Form

In this study, we are examining the relationship between attitudes and experiences. Some of the questions you will be asked deal with personal relationships and sexual experiences. All answers that you give will be confidential. Your name will not be connected with your answers when the data are being analyzed. If at any time you would like to stop, you may leave without being penalized. You will not lose research credit for stopping early. Please ask the experimenter if you have any questions before signing the consent form.

I agree to participate in the present study being conducted under the supervision of Dr. White, a faculty member of the Psychology Department of The University of North Carolina at Greensboro. I have been informed, either orally or in writing or both, about the procedures to be followed and about any discomforts or risks which may be involved. The investigator has offered to answer further questions that I may have regarding the procedures of this study. I understand that I am free to terminate my participation at any time without penalty or prejudice. I am aware that further information about the conduct and review of human research at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro can be obtained by calling 379-5878, the Office of Sponsored Programs.

_____ _____

Name Date

I agree to be contacted in the future about possible participation in other related research projects. I recognize that agreeing to be contacted in no way obligates me to participate in any future studies.

_____ _____

Name Date

To help us enter your research credit correctly, please print your name, social security number, and Psychology 221 section number/instructor below.

_____

Name

_____

Social Security Number

_____

Psychology 221 section number/instructor

Debriefing Statement

This study is a correlational study examining the relationship between attitudes and experiences. The purpose of a correlational study is to gather information and examine the relationships between items. Your scores on each test will not be studied individually. Rather we are interested in the perceptions and attitudes of a group of people. Correlations are done between the items for the entire group of participants. The higher the correlation coefficient the stronger the relationship. There are no independent or dependent variables in this study.

You may be asked to participate in a follow-up study. Students will be picked to come back and participate in a study where you will be asked to take measures related to the ones taken today.

Some of the questions in the survey asked about how much blame, responsiblity, and cause you attributed to yourself for unwanted sexual acts. We asked those questions because past research has shown that women tend to blame themselves <u>even though they are not to blame in any way.</u> The purpose of those questions is to find out if you blame yourself. If you were coerced or forced into sexual behaviors when you did not want to, you are not to blame.

Because the questionnaires you have filled out ask about personal experiences, it is not unusual for you to remember or think about these or related experiences more afterwards. Some people may feel upset or troubled by these thoughts; this is not abnormal or uncommon. If you are disturbed, it can be helpful to talk to someone. Below is a list of individuals or places that provide counseling, some on a sliding scale (you pay according to how much you earn).

UNCG Counseling Center	334-5874
UNCG Psychology Department Clinic	334-5662
Turning Point	333-6910
Jane Perrin	272-8076
Floyd Heiney	275-9889
Paula Pile & Barbara Metz	274-4669
Your local mental health center	

We would like to thank you for participating in this study. If you have any questions or would like to discuss this study further, please contact either Barrie Bondurant or Dr. White in the psychology department.