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BIASED PROCESSING AS A FUNCTION OF ATTITUDE ACCESSIBILITY:

APPLICATIONS TO SEXUAL AGGRESSION

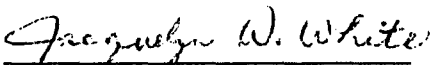
by

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the Faculty of the Graduate School at
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of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

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1995

Approved by


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APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of The Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

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The accessibility of rape-supportive attitudes was measured to examine differences in the strength of attitude relations among self-reported sexually aggressive men. Attitude-perception and attitude-behavior relations were hypothesized to be stronger for men whose attitudes were highly accessible. Accessibility was determined by measuring the response latencies to attitudinal inquiries.

The results indicated that the relation between rape-supportive attitudes and perceptions of manipulative intent were significantly stronger among men whose attitudes were highly accessible. The same trend was evident in the relations between rape-supportive attitudes and sexually aggressive behavior, however the relations were not significantly different.

The findings support the position that attitude accessibility may serve as a moderator in attitude relations. Strongly-held attitudes appear to play a role in guiding perceptual interpretations which may influence behavioral decisions in a direction compatible with the accessed attitude. Thus, highly accessible rape-supportive attitudes may influence the way a man perceives a woman, how he interprets her behavior, and how he chooses to behave during an intimate interaction.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Rape and sexual assault are serious problems in the United States, especially among acquaintances (Allison & Wrightsman, 1993; Parrot & Bechhofer, 1991). Many instances of forced sexual contact among acquaintances may stem from rape-supportive attitudes which result in the biased processing of heterosocial cues. The present study will examine rape-supportive attitudes and their relation with interpersonal perceptual judgments and sexually aggressive behavior.

First, the prevalence and incidence of acquaintance rape and the attitudes and perceptual judgments associated with these assaults will be discussed. The social psychological literature on attitudes then will be summarized briefly. The summary will include a discussion of methods for investigating attitudes, a model of attitude-behavior relation, a discussion of affective and cognitive attitudinal components, and attitude accessibility as a method for investigating attitudes and perceptual judgments related to sexual aggression. Finally, a general overview of the present study will be provided followed by a description of the study itself.

Prevalence and Incidence of Acquaintance Rape

Estimates of the incidence of rape vary depending on the measurement methods used (Koss, 1992). A rape victimization rate of 80 per 100,000 women is reported in the Uniform Crime Reports [UCR]; a rate of 120 per 100,000 women is reported in the National Crime Survey [NCS]

(Koss, 1992). Official rape statistics reported in the UCR and in the NCS, however, may underestimate the number of sexual assaults in the United States.

Although measures and methods vary across studies, independent epidemiologic research suggests that rape incidence is 6 to 10 times higher than current NCS estimates (Koss, 1992). In Russell's (1982) interviews of 930 women in San Francisco, she found that in the 12 months prior to the interview, participants had experienced 25 sexual assaults, which translated into an estimated incidence rate of 2,688 per 100,000 women. In a national sample of 1,725 adolescents, Ageton (1983a,b) found that 680 to 1,270 per 100,000 girls age 11 to 17 reported a sexual attack, rape, or attempted rape. Koss, Gidycz, and Wisniewski (1987) reported similar incidence rates in their national sample of 3,187 women college students. Responding to a survey, 1,660 per 100,000 women reported experiencing forced sexual intercourse or attempted forced sexual intercourse in the previous year. In a more recent collaborative project, Kilpatrick and his colleagues (Kilpatrick & Best, 1990; National Victim Center & Crime Victims Research and Treatment Center, 1992) found in a national telephone survey of 3,220 women, 700 per 100,000 women reported a completed rape in the previous year. Additionally, White and Humphrey (1992) reported in a sample survey of college women, over 10% (a rate of 10,000 per 100,000) had experienced a rape or attempted rape during their freshman year.

A common method for identifying previously undetected sexual offenders is the self-report survey. In 1982, Koss and Oros developed a self-report scale to categorize sexually aggressive behavior.

Categorization of responses on the scale are based on the most severe form of sexually aggressive behavior endorsed by the respondent ranging from "sexually nonaggressive" to "rape." The items on the scale focus on unwanted sexual contact or intercourse through the use of verbal coercion or physical force. The Koss and Oros (1982) scale has been used extensively in research with college populations. Koss and her colleagues (1987) found that 25% of the 2,972 college men in their sample reported using force to obtain sexual contact (7.7% reported behavior that met the legal definition of rape). In a similar study, Rapaport and Burkhart (1984) found that 43% of the men sampled reported engaging in some form of sexually coercive behavior (15% reported acquaintance rape). In a further investigation of sexually coercive behavior, Rapaport and Burkhart (1987) found that 64% of the men sampled ($n = 166$) reported having engaged in some sexually coercive behavior in the past (10% reported rape). Similarly, Malamuth, Haber, and Feshbach (1980) found that over half of men reported at least some likelihood of forcing a woman to engage in sexual intercourse if they could be assured that they would not be caught. In a more recent study, using a multi-item attraction to sexual aggression scale, that percentage dropped to 38-44% (Malamuth, 1989).

These high incidence rates suggest that sexually assaultive behavior may be experienced by many women in "normal" interpersonal relationships. These rates also are consistent with a conceptualization of our culture as providing an atmosphere in which sexual assault can and does occur (Burt, 1991). However, not all men engage in sexually assaultive behavior; individual differences must exist within our

culture which differentiate men who rape from those who do not (Rapaport & Posey, 1991). Two of these factors may be rape-supportive attitudes and resultant perceptual judgments of sexually assaultive men.

Attitudes Associated with Acquaintance Rape

The relationship between rape-supportive attitudes and sexual assault is fundamental to theories and research on sexual aggression. Rape-supportive attitudes, reflective of cultural beliefs and norms, may facilitate sexual aggression (Burt, 1980, 1991). These cultural norms are evident in heterosexual dating scripts.

In essence, males and females learn a cultural language and an interpretive framework for understanding their sexual interactions and for shaping their expectations about those interactions -- a hegemonic cultural framework woven into the fabric of male-female sexual interactions, a framework through which sexual violence is legitimated and reproduced (Matoesian, 1993).

However, gender-related scripts regarding intimate interactions reflect cultural beliefs which may facilitate sexually aggressive behavior (Koss, Goodman, Fitzgerald, Russo, Keita, & Browne, 1994). Knowledge of rape-supportive attitudes serves not only as a measure of the social norms governing sexually coercive interactions, but also as a predictor of individual behavior. Differential acceptance of culturally-shaped attitudes may help explain differences in men who report sexually aggressive behavior from those who do not. These culturally-shaped attitudes supportive of rape may serve as psychological releasers of sexual aggression (Briere & Malamuth, 1983; Burt, 1980). This claim is supported by the observed correlation between attitudes toward rape and self-reported likelihood of raping a woman (Briere & Malamuth, 1983; Malamuth, 1981, 1983; Tieger, 1981), self-reported level of sexually

coercive behavior (Adler, 1985; Feild, 1978; Koss, Leonard, Beezley, & Oros, 1985; Muehlenhard & Linton, 1987; Murphy, Coleman, & Haynes, 1986; Reilly, Lott, Caldwell, & DeLuca, 1992), physical aggression against women in a laboratory setting (Malamuth, 1981; 1983), and domineeringness in conversations with women (Malamuth & Thornhill, 1994). The relation between self-reported rape-supportive attitudes and interpersonal domineeringness with female, but not male, conversation partners provides some evidence of the external validity of studies examining self-reported attitude-behavior relations.

Early studies of attitudes toward rape focused on defining the attitudinal factors related to rape and sexual assault. Feild (1978) provided the first empirical description of the structure of rape attitudes. Using 1,448 respondents, Field identified eight factors underlying attitudes toward rape: women's responsibility for rape prevention, sex as motivation for rape, severe punishment for rape, victim precipitation of rape, normality of rapists, power as motivation for rape, favorable perception of a woman after rape, and resistance as woman's role during rape.

Burt (1980) also provided one of the earliest analyses of attitudes towards rape, examining the interconnection between rape myths and rape-supportive attitudes. Using 598 adult respondents randomly selected from households in the Midwest, Burt identified a relationship between acceptance of rape myths and sex role stereotyping, adversarial sexual beliefs, sexual conservatism, and acceptance of interpersonal violence. Respondents who believed in rape myths were more likely to endorse traditional sex roles, believe that male-female relationships

are naturally filled with conflict, and believe that violence sometimes is an appropriate means to resolve conflict.

Recently, researchers reviewing the attitudes-toward-rape literature have expressed concern with the psychometric properties of many of the scales that have been used (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Larsen and Long (1988) developed a General Attitudes Toward Rape scale to address some of the inadequacies identified in earlier scales (e.g., Burt, 1980; Feild, 1978). Larsen and Long's scale was developed following careful editing and item analysis, and extensive reliability and validity testing. Ward (1988) also developed an Attitudes Toward Rape Victims Scale which emphasized the characteristics and precipitating behaviors of rape victims. Ward's scale was designed specifically to address cross-cultural concerns. Like Larsen and Long's scale, extensive reliability testing was conducted on Ward's attitude scale. Thus, Larsen and Long's General Attitudes Toward Rape Scale and Ward's Attitudes Toward Rape Victims Scale are used in this study.

Perceptual Judgments Associated With Acquaintance Rape

When on a date, a man's attitudes toward women and his motives for engaging in sexual behavior may influence how he perceives the woman, how he interprets her behavior, and how he chooses to behave during an intimate interaction (Muehlenhard & Linton, 1987; Niles, 1990; Shotland, 1989, 1992). Moreover, as the definition of an interpersonal situation is influenced primarily by the perceiver who has the most power in the interaction (Darley & Fazio, 1980), it is particularly important to examine men's interpretations in dating situations that end in rape. Men's more sexualized world view and misinterpretation of women's sexual

interest may contribute to rape in acquaintance relationships (Abbey, 1982, 1987, 1991; Goodchilds, Zellman, Johnson, & Giarrusso, 1988; Kowalski, 1992, 1993).

Men who report engaging in sexually aggressive behaviors in order to gain access to a sexual partner report different reasons for engaging in sexual activities than do men who are sexually nonaggressive. The motives for engaging in sexual activity endorsed most by men who report using force to attain sexual intimacy are self-centered motives in which the woman is an object for the man's sexual activity, not a participant. Motives for sexual activity reported by sexually aggressive men are self-focused on personal enjoyment and satisfaction, rather than on expressions of love (Niles, 1990). Using a scale developed by Nelson (1979), researchers have found that sexually aggressive men are more likely to report engaging in sex for hedonistic reasons (Niles, 1990; Perera, 1990; White & Farmer, 1988) and for conforming to the sexual activity of their peer group (Niles, 1990).

In this context, misinterpretation of sexual intent is prevalent. Koss and Oros (1982) reported that 70% of college women and 53% of college men reported that a member of the opposite sex, on at least one occasion, had misinterpreted the level of sexual intimacy they desired (whether the respondent desired more or less intimacy was not specified). In a related study, Abbey (1987) found that 72% of college women and 60% of college men reported that their friendliness had been misinterpreted as sexual interest. These findings suggest that misinterpretation of sexual intent is a relatively common experience. Young men and women in our culture do not appear to communicate clearly

about their sexuality. This ambiguous communication may result in misinterpretations that may end in a sexual assault. Given this difficulty in communicating clearly about sexuality in our culture, misinterpretation may be particularly likely by sexually aggressive men who may have a lower threshold for labeling a woman's behavior as sexual.

Young men are particularly alert to any cue of their dates' sexual interest, no matter how subtle (Kanin, 1969). Abbey (1982) found that men rate both male and female actors as having higher sexual desire than do women. This finding has been replicated in several studies using both live interactions (Harnish, Abbey, & DeBono, 1990) and videotaped interactions (Johnson, Stockdale, & Saal, 1991; Shotland & Craig, 1988; Sigal, Gibbs, Adams, & Derfler, 1988). Men are particularly likely to interpret nonverbal cues, especially ambiguous cues, in an interpersonal context in a more sexual manner (Abbey & Melby, 1986; Kowalski, 1992, 1993). For example, women who drink alcohol are more likely to be perceived as being receptive to sexual advances than women who drink non-alcoholic beverages (George, Gournic, & McAfee, 1988). As a result, men may misjudge women's friendly behaviors as conveying sexual interest. Shotland (1989) suggested that

men have lower thresholds for labeling sexually interested behavior than do women...if a miscommunication around sexual intent occurs within a couple, a likely outcome is for the man to perceive sexual intent when a woman felt she communicated none (p. 255).

The man may then expect the woman to reciprocate his sexual advances since he believes that she already has expressed a willingness to comply. Indeed, Bondurant (1994) found that only self-reported sexually

aggressive men, not men in general, were more likely to interpret friendly behaviors as indicating sexual interest. Furthermore, White and Humphrey (1994) found that sexually aggressive men believed that their victims were more interested in sexual activity than sexually nonaggressive men believed their consensual sexual partners to be.

Thus, sexually aggressive men, in particular, may misinterpret women's behavior. Sexually aggressive men have a heightened sensitivity to their own welfare while being relatively insensitive to women's welfare (Penner, Escarraz, & Ellis, 1983). On a date, a man may misinterpret many of a woman's behaviors throughout the evening and feel "led on" by his partner (Abbey, 1991). He may believe either that his date is sexually interested when she is not or that he has the right to force her to engage in sexual intercourse (Giarrusso, Johnson, Goodchilds, & Zellman, 1979; McCroskey, Richmond, & Stewart, 1986). In both cases, his sexual desire takes precedence over hers.

Lipton, McDonel, and McFall (1987) found that incarcerated rapists differed from other imprisoned men when interpreting a woman's cues in a dating situation. The rapists made significantly more errors in reading women's cues, particularly negative cues, than did other men. Ambiguous cues, in particular, appear to contribute to misinterpretations of sexual intent and sexual assault. In a followup study, McDonel and McFall (1991) found that college men who endorsed rape supportive attitudes also were less accurate in decoding women's negative cues and reported a greater likelihood of committing rape. A woman's desire for sexual intercourse may be ambiguous to the man when she engages in

kissing and petting, regardless of her verbal cues (Johnson & Jackson, 1988).

Indeed, many sexual assaults occur between dating partners in social situations in which consensual sexual contact is a possibility (Koss et al., 1985; Muehlenhard, Friedman, & Thomas, 1987). Misinterpretation of sexual interest, in particular, is theorized to be most common between couples who have dated several times, but have not discussed level of sexual contact desired (Shotland, 1989). Level of prior sexual contact also is related to misinterpretation of sexual intent and sexual assault. Kanin (1970) has concluded that men may sometimes respond using physical force when sexual contact has progressed to genital petting and the woman has refused further contact. Indeed, Lisak and Roth (1988) found that sexually aggressive men report feeling teased and taken advantage of by women in dating relationships.

The excuses and justifications provided by convicted rapists for their sexually assaultive behavior suggest attitudinal and biased perceptual foundations for their behaviors. Scully and her colleague (Scully, 1990; Scully & Marolla, 1984) interviewed 114 convicted rapists about their crime(s). Some of the men ($n = 33$, 29%) admitted sexual acts involving their victim, but did not define their own behavior as rape. These men's denials provide insight into "the cultural learning and socially derived perspective of sexually violent men...[and] how men in this society have learned to justify and excuse their violent degradation of women" (Scully, 1990, p. 28). Several themes were identified in the justifications that these convicted rapists provided for their behavior, such as women are seductresses, women mean yes when

they say no, women eventually "relax and enjoy it," and nice girls don't get raped. Each of these justifications define the man's behavior as situationally appropriate or justified given the man's perception of the woman and her behavior. These justifications suggest that sexually aggressive men may rape because their belief system and attitudes provide no compelling reason not to do so. Indeed, the deniers in Scully's sample did not consider themselves rapists.

Much of the research examining perceptual judgments associated with sexual aggression use scenarios describing sexual conflicts (e.g., Bridges & McGrail, 1989; Kowalski, 1992, 1993; Muehlenhard, Friedman, & Thomas, 1987; Shotland & Goodstein, 1983; Yescavage, 1989). The perspective-taking approach, in which the reader takes a participatory role in the scenario, has been used successfully by researchers studying sexual aggression (Bondurant, 1992; Perera, 1992). When individuals take the perspective of an actor rather than an observer, the saliency of situational cues may encourage participants with a history of sexually aggressive behavior to focus on their attitudes and feelings. Thus, participants' perceptions and interpretations of the woman's behavior may be more consistent with their attitudes. Bondurant (1992) found that sexually aggressive men endorsed fewer positive interpretations of a woman's behavior in an intimate scenario in which a dating couple engaged in heavy petting (i.e., genital contact) and the woman verbally refused further sexual activity than did sexually nonaggressive men. Additionally, sexually aggressive men are more likely to endorse items reflecting hostile affect in response to scenarios describing sexual conflict (Bondurant, 1992; Perera, 1992).

Given the substantial groundwork that has been completed using scenarios to understand sexual aggression, this study includes a scenario slightly modified from previous research (Bondurant, 1992; Shotland & Goodstein, 1983) that includes those factors, described previously, that are most likely to differentiate men who report engaging in sexually aggressive behavior from those who report only consensual sexual activity. This scenario also uses the perspective-taking approach to maximize the likelihood that participants' attitudes will be activated while reading the scenario. This study also includes a measure of men's motives for engaging in sexual behavior along with measures of men's perceptual judgments regarding the woman in the scenario. Perceptual measures provide an indicator of the accuracy of the participants' encoding of the information in the scenario, attributions regarding the woman's intent in the scenario, and general attributions regarding the woman's personality traits.

Methods for Investigating Attitudes

In order to best understand sexual aggression, it is important to examine the attitudes and perceptual judgments that may contribute to these assaults. Traditional self-report methods for measuring attitude endorsement, however, may be problematic. Typically, participants respond to attitudinal inquiries on pencil-and-paper questionnaires. The questionnaires usually require respondents to rate their endorsement of each attitudinal statement. Problematically, participants responding similarly on paper-and-pencil questionnaires actually may differ in the strength of their attitudinal endorsements. Some participants responding to the questionnaires may have pre-formed attitudes; others may form an

attitude "on the spot." Converse (1970) suggested that attitudes and nonattitudes (attitudes not previously considered by the person) may account for some of the inconsistent results in attitudinal research. This inconsistent responding affects the ability to predict behavior from self-reported attitudes. Moreover, the small relation often found between attitudes and behaviors has even prompted some researchers to suggest the abandonment of the attitude concept (Wicker, 1969).

Thus, one line of recent research of attitude-behavior relations has followed a different approach to attitude measurement. Fazio and his colleagues (Fazio, 1993; Fazio, Sanbonmatsu, Powell, & Kardes, 1986) suggest that attitudes and nonattitudes be considered on a continuum that reflects accessibility from memory. According to Fazio, attitude accessibility is a moderator of the attitude-behavior relation. The accessibility of an attitude is a function of the associative strength of the attitude object and the attitudinal evaluation. The strength of this association is assessed by measuring the accessibility of the attitude. Thus, on one end of the continuum is the nonattitude. Progression along the continuum reflects attitudes of increasing strength and greater accessibility from memory. Because attitude accessibility may differ for individuals responding similarly on an attitudinal questionnaire, the strength of the attitude-behavior relation also is likely to differ. Moreover, a highly accessible attitude is more likely to be activated automatically in the presence of the attitude object and therefore is more likely to guide behavior (Fazio, 1993; Fazio, Blascovich, & Driscoll, 1992; Fazio, Chen, McDonel, & Sherman, 1982; Fazio, Powell, & Herr, 1983; Fazio et al., 1986).

Therefore, the attitude-behavior relation is expected to be stronger for an individual with a highly accessible attitude. Indeed, when accessibility of attitudes is considered, the attitude-behavior relation is stronger (Fazio, 1989; Fazio et al., 1982; Fazio, Powell, & Williams, 1989). In a field investigation during the 1984 presidential election, Russell Fazio and Carol Williams demonstrated that attitude accessibility moderates attitude-perception and attitude-behavior relations. The researchers measured participants' attitudes toward each of the two candidates. Then, measures of participants' judgments of the candidates' performances during televised debates and of participants' voting behavior during the election were collected months later. The researchers found that judgments and behavior were more congruent for participants whose attitudes were highly accessible than for participants whose attitudes were less accessible. Thus, Fazio and Williams' study provides some evidence for the external validity of attitude accessibility measures.

In order to measure the accessibility of an attitude, latency of response has been considered an appropriate method (Fazio, 1990b; Kardes, Sanbonmatsu, Voss, & Fazio, 1986; Markus, 1977). The latency to respond to an inquiry about an attitude is considered to reflect the strength of the association between the attitude and the attitude object. Thus, the latency is assumed to approximate the likelihood that the attitude will be automatically accessed from memory when the individual encounters the attitude object. This alternate approach to examining attitude strength requires individuals to respond to attitudinal statements as quickly as possible. Attitude accessibility

(as measured by response latency), not necessarily attitude extremity, has been found to be related to the automatic activation of the attitude in the presence of the attitude object (Fazio, Powell, & Herr, 1983; Fazio et al., 1986). Therefore, in this study, both level of attitude endorsement and response latency are recorded for each attitudinal inquiry.

MODE Model of Attitude-Behavior Relation

Fazio (1990a) developed an integrative model, the MODE model of attitude-behavior relation, to describe the processes used in determining behavior. This model suggests two different processing modes for linking attitudes and behaviors: a spontaneous process and a deliberate process. Motivation and opportunity are determinants of which processing mode (automatic or deliberate) is most likely to operate in any given situation. If a person is highly motivated to process the information carefully and has ample opportunity to do so, a conscious, deliberate process will be used to guide behavior. However, this effortful process will be used only if the perceived consequence of a behavior is severe or if the person is highly self-aware. Although these circumstances provide the motivation for systematic processing of the information, the person also must have the time for logically thinking through this process. During this methodical process, related attitudes are considered, but the overall impact of the attitudes is likely to be less influential than in the automatic process because other factors, in addition to attitudes, are considered in making a behavioral decision. In addition to attitudes, the person considers several factors including behavioral norms, perceived consequences, perceived resources/abilities,

perceived opportunity to accomplish the behavior, vested interests, level of moral reasoning, and past experience. Thus, this controlled process is time-consuming and is used in fewer situations than the automatic processes.

Situations in which a person is not highly motivated to process the information in a deliberate manner or has no opportunity to process the information systematically are more likely to involve the spontaneous process to guide behavior. Fazio (1986, 1990a) suggests that most social behavior is largely a function of immediate perceptions rather than deliberate processing. An individual's definition and interpretation of an event is strongly influenced by the social stimuli and by the individual's attitudes, if they are highly accessible and accessed automatically from memory (i.e., there is a strong association). The strength of the attitude-behavior relation is influenced by many factors: whether the association is based on direct or indirect experience (Fazio et al., 1982; Regan & Fazio, 1977; Fazio & Zanna, 1981), repeated association (Fazio et al., 1982; Powell & Fazio, 1984; Roese & Olson, 1994), temporal stability of the attitude (Schwartz, 1978), vested interest in the attitude (Sivacek & Crano, 1982), cognitive-affective attitudinal congruence (Norman, 1975), confidence in the affective evaluation (Fazio & Zanna, 1978a, 1978b), self-monitoring with low self monitors having stronger attitudinal-behavioral associations (Kardes, Sanbonmatsu, Voss, & Fazio, 1986; Snyder & DeBono, 1989; Snyder & Swann, 1976; Zanna, Olson, & Fazio, 1980), the confidence with which the attitude is held (Fazio & Zanna, 1978a, 1978b; Sample & Warland, 1973), the clarity of the attitude as

measured by the width of acceptable levels of attitude endorsement (Fazio & Zanna, 1978a), and attitudinal consistency as measured on semantic differential scales (Bargh, Chaiken, Govender, & Pratto, 1992). Once the attitude is accessed from memory, it influences the person's immediate perceptions in a manner that is congruent with the attitudes accessed. The situation, in general, and the attitude object, in particular, are interpreted in line with the accessed information. The individual's perceptions and subsequent judgments and interpretations of the situation are influenced by the individual's attitudes. The individual's behavior, therefore, is influenced by the person's social construction of the situation. Several researchers have found that participants make attitude-based decisions primarily when they lack motivation for systematic processing as well as the time and attentional resources to make a more thoughtful decision (Fazio, 1989; Jamieson & Zanna, 1989; Sanbonmatsu & Fazio, 1990; Snyder & DeBono, 1989). Sanbonmatsu and Fazio (1990) also have speculated that reliance on attitude-based behavioral decisions may depend on attitudinal factors such as accessibility and confidence as well.

Attitude accessibility is the key component of Fazio's MODE model. Attitude accessibility serves as a moderator of the relation between attitudes and subsequent behavior toward the attitude object through the functional role that attitudes play in guiding perceptual interpretations and behavioral decisions (Fazio, 1989; Houston & Fazio, 1989). Perceptual judgments and behavior may be biased in the direction of the attitude. Several studies have been conducted that demonstrate bias in perceptual social judgments consistent with the participants'

attitudes (Fazio & Herr, 1984; Hastorf & Cantril, 1954; Lau, 1989; Lord, Ross, & Lepper, 1979; Snyder & Swann, 1976). According to Fazio's MODE model of attitude-behavior relation, this biased processing would be predicted only if the attitude is activated from memory. Therefore, highly accessible attitudes, which are more likely to be activated automatically in the presence of the attitude object, will influence perceptual judgments and subsequent behavior. Highly accessible attitudes orient an individual's attention toward objects with potential hedonistic consequences (Roskos-Ewoldsen & Fazio, 1992). Fazio and his colleagues (Fazio, 1989; Fazio & Williams, 1986; Houston & Fazio, 1989) have found biased processing more evident for participants with highly accessible attitudes than for those with less accessible attitudes. As "perception is a constructive, interpretive process" (Darley & Fazio, 1980, p. 868), situational meaning is imposed by the perceiver. A clearer understanding of attitudes in this interpretive process is needed.

Affective and Cognitive Attitudes

Historically, definitions of attitude have included affect, cognition, and behavioral intention as components (Allport, 1935, 1954; Hilgard, 1980; McGuire, 1985; Oskamp, 1977; Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960; Thurstone, 1928). Each component is measured on an evaluative continuum ranging from extremely negative to extremely positive, including the neutral point. Cognitive evaluations include thoughts and beliefs about the attitude object. Affective evaluations include feelings or emotions in relation to the attitude object. Behavioral evaluations include intentions or overt actions with respect to the attitude object.

Considerable research has examined the underlying structure of attitudes to confirm the discriminant validity of separate component measures (Bagozzi, 1978; Bagozzi & Burnkrant, 1979; Breckler, 1984; Crites, Fabrigar, & Petty, 1994; Kothandapani, 1971; Ostrom, 1969; Widaman, 1985). Although the cognitive, affective, and behavioral intention components are interdependent (Zajonc & Markus, 1984), they also have a large degree of independence (Izard, 1984; Zanna & Rempel, 1988). Thus, responses associated with some attitudes may be consistent across response classes while others are less consistent (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). A person may hold strong beliefs in regard to an attitude object, but have feelings which may contradict that belief. For example, a person may believe that a woman who gets drunk at a party is partially responsible if she is raped, but feel that such assaultive behavior is morally reprehensible.

In particular, the distinction between affective and cognitive components has been central to the discussion of attitudes (Insko & Schopler, 1967; Krech & Crutchfield, 1948; Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960; Zajonc, 1980, 1984). Empirical evidence supports the independence of these components (Abelson, Kinder, Peters, & Fiske, 1982; Breckler, 1984; Breckler & Wiggins, 1989; Edwards, 1990, 1992; Millar & Millar, 1990; Millar & Tesser, 1986, 1989; Woodmansee & Cook, 1967). For some attitudes, the affective component may be stronger while for others, the cognitive component may be stronger. Thus, global attitudinal evaluations may be more strongly influenced by either the affective or cognitive component, or both. For example, Abelson and his colleagues (1982) found that affects associated with presidential candidates were

more strongly related to the person's attitudes than judgments about the candidates' traits. Moreover, the differential strength of each component influences the correlations among the components, as well as the ability of an attitude measure to predict behavior. Abelson and his colleagues (1982) suggested that behavioral prediction might be better when using affective reports because they may reflect behavioral motivation more so than cognitive reports. Affect also may be a more direct reflection of experience than cognition, which may be filtered and altered to maintain consistency among attitude judgments as well as other cognitive structures (beliefs, etc.). Thus, affect may be more important when evaluations are made quickly; whereas, cognition may be more important in slower, deliberate evaluations (Zajonc, 1980). Additionally, it has been suggested that attitudes based primarily on affect may lead to greater selective perceptions and attributions about other peoples' behaviors (Zanna & Rempel, 1988).

Two explanations for differences in the predictive ability of attitudinal components are possible. It may be that the relation between affective and cognitive attitudinal components and behavior are simply a matter of one component (affective) being better at predicting behavior than another (cognitive). Alternatively, the relation between attitudes and behavior may be more complex. Millar and Tesser (1986) have suggested that the strength of the attitude-behavior relation is determined by the source on which the attitude is based (i.e., affective or cognitive) and the function of the behavior being measured. Some behavior is instrumental and is cognitively driven. For example, a person who works a puzzle in order to develop analytic abilities is

interested in the puzzle's characteristics that facilitate skill-building, not how the puzzle makes the person feel. Other behavior is consummatory and is affectively driven. For example, a person who works a puzzle simply for fun is interested in the pleasure that the puzzle provides rather than its skill-enhancing characteristics. Therefore, in order to predict behavior, one must know what type of behavior is being predicted and what type of attitudinal component is being measured or manipulated. Attitude-behavior relation cannot be fully understood without exploring both affective and cognitive components (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Eagly, Mladinic, & Otto, 1994; Millar & Tesser, 1986, 1988; Norman, 1975; Rosenberg, 1956; Zanna & Rempel, 1988).

In summary, the distinction between affective and cognitive attitudinal components has been verified empirically. Research has demonstrated that these components are partially independent, and their ability to predict behavior depends in part on the basis of attitude formation, how deeply held the attitude is, which component is currently salient, and the function of the behavior. Despite its importance in attitude-behavior relation, Fazio's MODE model fails to consider the differential influence of affective and cognitive components in guiding behavior. Further, since sexual behavior is typically a consummatory behavior, particularly for men who report hedonistic motives for sexual behavior, affective attitude statements are expected to correlate more strongly with self-reported sexual behavior. Therefore, attitudinal statements that are judged to be based on affective information should be better able to predict sexually aggressive behavior than attitudinal statements that are judged to be based on cognitive information.

Attitude Accessibility and Sexual Aggression

Rape may result from the automatic activation of rape-supportive attitudes in a sexually intimate context. A man who holds strong misogynous attitudes may be more likely to interpret a woman's behavior and make perceptual judgments in a manner congruent with the attitudes that he holds. Hence, the perpetrator's perception of the event will be selective. A man's rape-supportive attitudes may become activated and he may either interpret the woman as a tease and as an object that should be subordinate to his wishes or automatically categorize the woman inappropriately as "sexually interested" and misinterpret friendly cues as signs of sexual interest. Regardless, once the activation has occurred, the woman's behavior will be interpreted in a manner congruent with the activated attitude. This will influence the manner in which the man socially constructs the situation and chooses to behave. Indeed, Higgins and King (1981) found that once an object is defined as an instance of a category (e.g., "sexually interested" woman), characteristics associated with the category are assumed and contradictory information is ignored or distorted. Additionally, the influence of category attributes may occur subconsciously. Thus, the man may be unaware of the potential bias in his perceptual judgments and interpretations of the woman's behavior and may believe his sexual arousal is reciprocated and his behavior (i.e., sexual advances) to be appropriate (although from the woman's viewpoint, it is rape). Because this process is automatic, it is unlikely that the process will be disrupted, except by unusual circumstances (i.e., contextual changes such that a deliberate processing of the situation is initiated).

Indeed, Fazio, Blascovich, and Driscoll (1992) conclude that persons with highly accessible attitudes are less likely to take new information about an attitude object into account when making a behavioral decision.

Niles (1990) examined whether rape-supportive attitudes that were highly accessible were better able to predict self-reported sexual aggression than attitudes with low accessibility. A sample of 83 men were divided into low and high accessibility groups based on their response latencies to attitudinal items presented over a tape-player and recorded on a computer. The number of sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men were similar in both high and low accessibility groups. Correlations between attitudes and self-reported sexual behavior of both high and low accessibility groups were computed and compared using a z -test for the difference between two independent correlation coefficients. In general, the correlations between attitudes and behavior were stronger in the high accessibility group. In particular, Niles (1990) found that the relationship between adversarial sexual beliefs and self-reported sexual aggression and between hedonistic motives for engaging in sexual behavior and self-reported sexual aggression were significantly stronger in the high accessibility group than in the low accessibility group (adversarial $r = .59$ [high], $r = .33$ [low], $p < .10$; hedonism $r = .52$ [high], $r = .18$ [low], $p < .05$). This study suggested that the relation between attitudes and sexually aggressive behavior for men whose attitudes are highly accessible is stronger than for men whose attitudes have low accessibility. This study, however, has not been published or replicated and further research must be conducted to examine the importance of attitude

accessibility in moderating sexually aggressive behavior. Additionally, although assumed by Niles (1990), the relation between attitudes and sexually aggressive men's perceptions and interpretations of women's behavior has not been investigated.

Purpose and Overview of Study

The present study was designed to examine the relation between attitudes, perceptual judgments, and self-reported sexually aggressive behavior. The general hypothesis was that measures of men's attitudes and perceptual judgments would aid in the classification of men as sexually aggressive or sexually nonaggressive using a logistic regression model. Several factors were considered for inclusion in the model. In general, men classified as sexually aggressive were expected to be more likely to endorse rape-supportive attitudes, particularly affective attitudes. Men classified as sexually aggressive also were expected to be more likely to report hedonism and conformity as motives for engaging in sexual behavior and less likely to report love as a motive. Additionally, inferences regarding the woman's intent and general attributions about the woman after reading a scenario of a nonconsensual sexual encounter were expected to aid in the classification of men as sexually aggressive or sexually nonaggressive. Men classified as sexually aggressive were expected to rate the woman's intent as more sexual and hostile than sexually nonaggressive men. Additionally, men classified as sexually aggressive were expected to perceive a woman more sexually and more negatively in general than men classified as sexually nonaggressive. Based on the theoretical support for the importance of accessibility in moderating attitude-behavior

relations, interaction terms using attitude accessibility were included in the logistic regression model to classify sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men. It was predicted that men with attitudes that were relatively accessible, that is, men who were able to respond relatively quickly to attitudinal inquiries, would be more likely to display behavior consistent with their attitudes. Of all these individual predictors considered, highly accessible affective attitudes and hedonistic motives for engaging in sexual behavior were predicted to be most likely to be included in the final model for classifying men as sexually aggressive.

Second, to understand better the importance of attitude accessibility, attitude-perception and attitude-behavior relations were examined. The strength of attitude-perception and attitude-behavior relations for men categorized in both the low and high attitude accessibility groups were compared. The hypothesis was that men whose attitudes were highly accessible would display perceptual judgments and behaviors that were more consistent with their attitudes than men whose attitudes were relatively inaccessible.

Finally, an exploratory analysis of the strength of affective and cognitive attitudinal components in attitude-behavior and attitude-perception relations among self-reported sexually aggressive men was conducted. The hypothesis was that affective component would be more congruent with men's perceptions of the woman described in the nonconsensual sexual scenario and self-reported sexual behavior than the cognitive component.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Participants

One hundred seventy-two sexually active men were drawn from a pool of 339 men who participated in the mass screening of students at the beginning of the 1993-94 fall and spring semester Introductory Psychology classes at a large state university in the Southeast. A sample of 170 was needed to detect a difference in correlations of .52 and .18 (correlation coefficients obtained in study by Niles, 1990) with a power of 80% and an alpha of .05. Participants received partial fulfillment of a course research requirement or a small monetary reimbursement (\$5.00) if research requirements had been met.

Materials

Sexual Experiences Survey. A self-report survey, labeled "Sexual Experiences Survey" (revised Koss & Oros, 1982; see Appendix A) was administered to male students during initial screenings. The survey, a 32-item behavioral questionnaire that categorizes men along a continuum of sexual aggression, was answered on a five point scale ranging from never to more than five times. The revised scale distinguishes between the behavioral tactic used and the outcome (i.e., level of sexual contact); these distinctions were not made in the original scale. The revised scale also includes two questions regarding alcohol consumption rather than one item as on the original scale. Behavioral tactics included on the questionnaire include flattery, verbal coercion, misuse

of authority, physical force, threat of physical force, or deliberate intoxication or drugging to obtain sexual intimacy without the woman's consent. Significant correlations have been found between self-report on the original Koss & Oros (1982) questionnaire and men's stated level of aggression in an interview two weeks later ($r = .61$, $p < .001$) lending support for the construct validity of this measure (Koss & Gidycz, 1985). Men were less willing to report sexually aggressive behavior in the interview than on the questionnaire. Koss and Gidycz (1985) also reported test-retest reliability of .93 and an internal consistency reliability of .89 using a Cronbach alpha. Reliability and validity information for the revised Sexual Experiences Survey are being analyzed by White and her colleagues (White, personal communication, January 7, 1993). Internal consistency of items in this study's sampling pool was high (Cronbach's alpha = .92).

Consistent with Malamuth (1986) and White, Donat, and Humphrey (in press), the number of self-reported sexually aggressive behaviors were summed to produce a total sexual aggression score. If a man reported that he had engaged in a behavior five or more times (i.e., a response of "5" on the response scale), the response was coded as five for purposes of computing summed scale scores. Higher scale scores denote greater endorsement of items describing sexually aggressive behavior. Men who did not endorse any of the sexually aggressive items on the survey, but reported engaging in consensual sexual activities were given a sexual aggression score of zero. The summed sexual aggression score was used in the correlational analyses where it was appropriate to

include men who reported sexual behaviors along the entire continuum and where a larger sample size was needed.

For analyses using categorical data, men were divided into two groups labeled sexually nonaggressive and sexually aggressive. Men in the sexually nonaggressive group reported only consensual sexual activities. Men in the sexually aggressive group included the men with the highest summed scale scores. Approximately 45 men were needed in each group to ensure sufficient power. Thus, a cutoff was determined by examining the data to determine the summed score that would provide a sufficient number of self-reported sexually aggressive men. In this manner, men who reported fewer sexually aggressive behaviors and less severe tactics were excluded from the categorical analyses.

Demographic Information. Four items requesting general demographic information (race, age, year in college, and sex) about the sample were included.

Factual items. Ten factual items (e.g., The earth revolves around the sun) were included. These items (see Appendix B) served three purposes: (a) to familiarize participants with the computerized task, (b) to assess whether participants were reading presented items and understood the response scale, and (c) to assess whether sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men differed in their response times to neutral items similar in format to the experimental items presented later. Scale scores were computed for each participant by summing the number of correct responses across the ten items. The factual items required a 9th grade reading level and has a Flesch Reading Ease score of 59.5 (fairly easy).

Attitudinal Measures.

Attitudes Toward Rape Victims Scale. This scale (see Appendix B) was developed by Ward (1988) to measure attitudes toward women who are raped (e.g., A raped women is a less desirable woman). The scale consists of 25 items; eight of which are reverse-scored. Responses are given on a 5-point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. A scale score is calculated by summing responses across items after reverse-scoring has been completed. Ward (1988) reported high internal consistency for the scale (Cronbach's alpha = .83 and .86 in two samples) and evidence of construct validity and single dimensionality. A test-retest reliability of .80 after six weeks also was reported. Internal consistency was confirmed in the sample used in this study (Cronbach's alpha = .84). The Attitudes Toward Rape Victims Scale required a 9th grade reading level and has a Flesch Reading Ease score of 59.9 (fairly easy).

General Attitudes Toward Rape Scale. This 22-item scale (see Appendix B) was developed by Larsen and Long (1988) following a four phase scaling effort. Item analysis was conducted, followed by evaluation of reliability and known group validity. The scale was correlated with the Feild (1978) and Burt (1980) measures to obtain an estimate of concurrent validity. Finally, item analysis was re-examined using a large sample and the scale's relationship to several personality dimensions was evaluated. Initial item analysis with corrected part-whole correlations ranged from .54 to .91 ($p < .001$). Eleven of the 22 items are reverse-scored. Responses are given on a 5-point scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. A factor analysis by Larsen

and Long (1988) revealed three factors, although the authors argued for the unidimensionality of the scale. A factor analysis for the sample used in this study revealed only one factor with an eigenvalue ≥ 2 , internal consistency was .70. The General Attitudes Toward Rape Scale required a 7th grade reading level and has a Flesch Reading Ease score of 68.7 (easy).

Affective/cognitive attitude scales. Items from the Attitudes Toward Rape Victims Scale and the General Attitudes Toward Rape Scale were used to create two attitude scales: one containing affective items, one containing cognitive items. To assign items as affective or cognitive, five independent judges were given operational definitions of affective and cognitive statements along with copies of the attitudinal items (White, Donat, & Humphrey, in press). A cognition was defined as a statement that could be verified, i.e., one that provided information or fact about the attitude object (though the statement did not actually have to be true), or a statement of belief, with judgment missing. An affective statement was defined as opinion which provides a value judgment, a conclusion about someone's character (i.e., good/bad, right/wrong, etc.), or injunctions (i.e., should statements indicating how things ought to be). Each judge then assigned each item to the cognitive or affective category. Results revealed that at least four judges agreed on 78% of the items categorized. Three out of five judges agreed on the remaining items. Items on the affective and cognitive scales had high internal consistency (Cronbach's alphas = .76 and .82 respectively). The derived scales, however, were highly correlated with the original scales. Spearman correlation coefficients between the

affective and cognitive scales and the scales developed by Ward (1988) and Larsen and Long (1988) ranged from .79 to .93. Therefore, separate analyses using first the original scales and then the affective/cognitive derived scales were necessary.

Reasons for Sexual Behavior Survey. Twenty-one items concerning participant's reasons for engaging in sexual behavior (i.e., love, hedonism, and conformity) were included. The factors, developed by Nelson (1979), have high reliability (Cronbach's alpha = .817 to .871) and have been found to be moderately effective in predicting sexually aggressive behavior (Niles, 1990; Perera, 1990; White & Farmer, 1988). The Reasons for Sexual Behavior Survey requires an 8th grade reading level and has a Flesch Reading Ease score of 65.7 (fairly easy). Responses are given on a 5-point scale ranging from extremely important to not important at all. Internal consistency for each factor was confirmed in this sample: hedonism (Cronbach's alpha = .84), love (Cronbach's alpha = .78), and conformity (Cronbach's alpha = .86).

Practice Scenario. A scenario (see Appendix C) was developed as a method for measuring participant reading speed. The Practice Scenario requires the same reading grade level (5th grade) and has a similar Flesch Reading Ease score (81.9; very easy) as the Intimate Scenario described below. The response time to read the scenario was used to calculate each participant's average reading time per word. The average reading time per word was measured to determine whether sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men differed in their reading speed.

Intimate Scenario. A scenario (see Appendix C) based on research by Shotland & Goodstein (1983) and by Bondurant (1992) was used. This scenario describes an ambiguous intimate interaction. The scenario has been constructed carefully to include cues most likely to differentiate sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men. The Intimate Scenario requires a 5th grade reading level and has a Flesch Reading Ease score of 84.5 (very easy).

Perception and Interpretation Scales. To obtain an indication of the accuracy of the participants' encoding of the information included in the scenario, twenty-two true/false statements describing situations that may/may not have occurred in the scenario were included (see Appendix C). Statements included both general and specific sexual items (e.g., "Diane's underwear was removed," and "Diane removed her underwear"), as well as nonsexual items (e.g., "You went to Janus Theatre").

Eleven statements regarding the woman's intent in the scenario were answered on a 5-point scale from "very likely" to "very unlikely" (see Appendix C). The statements included a wide variety of motives for the woman stopping sexual activity: "Diane was serious about you and didn't want casual sex to mess up the relationship," "Diane wanted to deliberately frustrate you to make her feel in control," and "Diane was not on birth control and didn't want an unplanned pregnancy."

Twenty-nine bipolar adjectives regarding perceptual attributions about the woman also were included (see Appendix C). The adjectives included a wide range of personality descriptors, such as

"flirtatious/frigid," "warm/cold," "stubborn/meek," and "gullible/skeptical."

Procedure

During screening, the men were administered the demographic items and the Sexual Experiences Survey. All responses were given on a five point scale and recorded on a computer sheet. All computer sheets were coded with a number that corresponded to the survey. Immediately following screening, the computer sheets and questionnaires were separated to ensure participant confidentiality. Participants were contacted by matching selected computer sheets with permission sheets on which the respondents had given permission for the researcher to contact them for future research. Once the participant had been contacted and appropriate research credit had been recorded, identifying information was destroyed.

Upon arriving at the study, participants were given a consent form to read and sign (see Appendix D). Each participant was seated individually in front of a computer before given general instructions. Further instructional statements were presented on the computer screen throughout the experiment to guide the participant through the task. Participants were asked to respond to each of the attitudinal statements and perceptual measures as quickly and as accurately as possible. Participants completed the experimental task while the experimenter waited outside the room, therefore, the participant responded to the items in privacy.

An IBM-compatible computer was used to measure responses and response latencies to all the items for each participant. At the

beginning of the study, the computer displayed instructions on the screen and collected demographic information. Once the participant finished reading the instructions, he pressed a button to continue. The computer sequentially displayed the demographic, factual, and attitudinal items individually on the screen. The attitude items were presented in random order. The participant's response to each item triggered the presentation of the next item.

After the attitudinal portion of the study was completed, another set of instructions appeared on the computer screen. The computer then displayed the Practice Scenario as an example of the type of task that followed. The intimate scenario followed. After the scenario, a set of items regarding the content of the scenario, the woman's intent, and participant's perceptual judgments of the woman in the scenario were presented sequentially.

Once the participant completed the computerized task, the participant was prompted to get the experimenter. Participants were thanked for their participation and debriefed (see Appendix E).

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Overview of Results

The results are ordered to present general descriptive information and preliminary analyses prior to the hypothesis testing analyses. The results are presented parallel to the order of the Methods section and are compatible with the order in which the participants answered the items. Tables corresponding with the text are in Appendix F. First, a description of the number of participants and their responses to the Sexual Experiences Survey and demographic items are presented. Information is provided about the sampling pool from which the participants were drawn. Information also is provided about the categorized sample used for the logistic regression analysis to test the first hypothesis and about the general sample used for the correlational analyses required to test the other hypotheses.

Second, several preliminary analyses are presented comparing sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men using the smaller categorized sample. Although most of these analyses are solely for descriptive purposes prior to the logistic regression analysis, some of the analyses were necessary to address potential concerns about differences in the reading times of sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men (explanations for the use of each of these materials is included in the Methods section). Response times for answering the

factual items, reading the practice scenario, and reading the intimate scenario were compared.

Third, a description of the method used to assign men to high and low accessibility groups is provided followed by results from the logistic regression analysis to predict sexually aggressive behavior. This analysis provides the results for the first hypothesis that attitudinal and perceptual measures previously described would aid in the classification of sexually aggressive men. Specifically, highly accessible affective attitude items and hedonistic motives for engaging in sexual activity were predicted to be most likely to be included in the final model for classifying sexually aggressive men.

Fourth, correlations with sexual aggression and with perceptions of manipulative intent comparing accessibility groups are provided. These analyses provide the results for the second hypothesis that men whose attitudes were highly accessible would display perceptual judgments and behaviors that were more consistent with their attitudes than men whose attitudes were relatively inaccessible.

Lastly, correlations with sexual aggression and with perceptions of manipulative intent comparing affective and cognitive attitude statements are provided. These exploratory analyses provide the results for the third hypothesis that affectively-based attitudes would be more congruent with men's perceptions of the woman described in the nonconsensual sexual scenario and self-reported sexual behavior than cognitively-based attitudes.

Participants

Three men were excluded from the analyses due to incomplete or inaccurate data, leaving a resultant sample of 169. Most participants received partial fulfillment of a course research requirement ($n = 164$); a few ($n = 5$) received a small monetary reimbursement (\$5.00) for participation because their research requirements had been met.

Self-Reported Sexual Behaviors

A substantial minority of men reported engaging in each nonconsensual sexual activity (2-44%). In general, as the conflictual nature of the interaction increased, self-report declined with fewer men reporting the use of threats and physical force to obtain sexual intimacy. Fourteen men (4.1%) reported using physical force to engage in sexual intercourse. For further detail on the type of behavior reported by men in the sampling pool, see Table 1, appendix F.

The sexual behaviors self-reported by men included in the study were similar to the men in the sampling pool (see Table 2). In this study, further grouping of behaviors into "sexually aggressive" and "sexually nonaggressive" categories was conducted. All men who did not endorse any of the sexually aggressive items on the survey, but reported engaging in consensual sexual activity with a woman were categorized as "sexually nonaggressive" ($n = 49$). The 44 men who received the highest scale score were categorized as "sexually aggressive." Men categorized as sexually aggressive had total Sexual Experiences Scale scores ranging from 58 to 121. Twelve of the men categorized as "sexually aggressive" reported using force or threat of force. Half of the men ($n = 22$) reported using alcohol or drugs to engage in sexual activity; five of

these men deliberately drugged the woman so she would be unable to resist. Five men reported using verbal coercion. The remaining five men reported numerous instances of flattery to engage in sexual intercourse and other sexual acts. Men using repeated flattery did not differ significantly from the rest of the men categorized as "sexually aggressive" and were retained in subsequent analyses.

An analysis of variance revealed that the summed Sexual Experiences Survey score was comparable with categorized level of sexually aggressive behavior, $F(1,151) = 234.56, p < .0001$.

Demographics

Demographics for the sample used in correlational analyses ($n = 169$) and for the categorized sample used in categorical analyses ($n = 93$) were similar to the pool of men from which they were chosen (see Table 3), with the exception of ethnicity. Participants in the study and in the categorized sample were more likely to be of a minority ethnicity than the men in the sampling pool. In both the sampling pool and sample, men were predominately White college freshmen between the ages of 17 and 20.

Demographic Items for Categorized Men

For purposes of comparison, demographic categories were collapsed to ensure adequate cell sizes (Ethnicity: White/Ethnic Minority; Age: 17-20 years/21+ years; College year: Freshman/Sophomore/Junior-Senior-Special). Demographics were similar for men classified as sexually aggressive and nonaggressive men (χ^2 [race] = 0.17, $p = .68$; χ^2 [age] = 2.25, $p = .13$; χ^2 [college year] = 2.81, $p = .25$).

Factual Items for Categorized Men

Participants provided correct responses consistently to the ten factual items. Sexually aggressive and nonaggressive men did not differ in the number of items correct, $M = 9.52$ and $M = 9.59$ respectively, $t(91) = 0.51$, $p = .61$. The most commonly missed items were:

1. "The earth revolves around the sun," which was answered incorrectly by 21 (12.4%) of the men.
2. "The sun rises in the West," which was answered incorrectly by 33 (19.5%) of the men.

Two men responded incorrectly to all ten factual items. Their data were excluded from analyses.

Participants also did not differ in their response latencies to the factual items. Self-reported sexually aggressive and nonaggressive men read and responded to the items at an average rate of 4.5 words per second ($t(91) = -0.24$, $p = .81$).

Attitudinal Items for Categorized Men

A multivariate analysis of variance was performed on seven dependent variables: Attitudes Toward Rape Victims scale score, General Attitudes Toward Rape scale score, affective attitude scale score, cognitive attitude scale score, hedonistic sexual motivation scale score, loving sexual motivation scale score, and conforming sexual motivation scale score. The independent variable was categorized self-reported sexual behavior (sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive). With the use of Wilks' criterion, the combined dependent variables were significantly affected by categorized sexual behavior, $F(7,85) = 6.39$, $p < .0001$. Univariate analyses of variance revealed that

participants differed significantly ($p < .001$) on all the attitudinal factors administered, except love as a sexual motivation. Self-reported sexually aggressive men were more likely to endorse rape supportive attitudes than sexually nonaggressive men. Sexually aggressive men also were more likely to report hedonistic and conforming reasons for engaging in sexual activity. Sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men did not differ in their endorsement of love as a motive for engaging in sexual activity, although sexually nonaggressive men were somewhat more likely to report this motive. A comparison of mean responses for sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men is presented in Table 4. Examination of the mean responses shows that, in general, men reported stronger disagreement with affective attitude items than cognitive attitude items.

Practice Scenario Reading Time for Categorized Men

Participants did not differ significantly in their reading times for the practice scenario ($t[91] = 0.98, p = .33$). Self-reported sexually aggressive men read at an average rate of 5.0 words per second while sexually nonaggressive men read at an average rate of 5.3 words per second.

Dating Scenario Responses for Categorized Men

Participants did not differ significantly in their reading times for the dating scenario ($t[91] = 1.31, p = .19$), but self-reported sexually aggressive men were somewhat more likely to take more time to read through the scenario than sexually nonaggressive men. Sexually aggressive men read at an average rate of 4.1 words per second while

sexually nonaggressive men read at an average rate of 4.5 words per second.

Despite spending slightly more time reading the dating scenario, self-reported sexually aggressive men were significantly more likely to miss true/false items regarding the scenario's content. Of the 22 true/false items, sexually aggressive men answered an average of 18.5 items correctly while sexually nonaggressive men answered an average of 19.6 items correctly ($t[91] = 2.37, p = .02$). A comparison of the percentage of correct responses to each item by sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men are presented in Table 5.

Ratings of Diane's Intent for Categorized Men

Participants were asked to rate 11 items regarding the woman's possible intent in the dating scenario presented. The participants rated the likelihood of each reason for Diane refusing further sexual activity. A multivariate analysis of variance was performed using the 11 items as dependent variables. The independent variable was categorized self-reported sexual behavior (sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive). With the use of Wilks' criterion, the combined dependent variables were significantly affected by categorized sexual behavior, $F(11,81) = 2.66, p = .0059$. Univariate analyses of variance revealed significant effects for six of the items. Not surprisingly, sexually aggressive men were more likely to endorse items that suggested that Diane was manipulative or that the relationship was adversarial. Item means for sexually aggressive and nonaggressive men are given in Table 6.

A scale score to measure manipulative intent was constructed using the six items found to significantly discriminate self-reported sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men. A factor analysis revealed that the scale was unidimensional and had an internal consistency of .87. A t -test comparing sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men was significant (t [91] = 3.82, p < .0003). Sexually aggressive men were more likely to report that Diane's intentions were manipulative than sexually nonaggressive men.

Perceptual Ratings of Diane

Twenty-nine bipolar adjectives were included to examine men's perceptions of Diane. A factor analysis conducted on the items yielded three factors with eigenvalues greater than two. These factors (named competence, meekness, and sexual interest) along with their factor loadings are included in Table 7. After dividing the items into factors, internal consistency was moderate (competence = .77, meekness = .53, sexual interest = .58). T -tests comparing self-reported sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men's perceptual ratings were calculated for each factor. Sexually aggressive men were more likely to perceive Diane as incompetent than sexually nonaggressive men (t [91] = -2.24, p = .03). Sexually aggressive and nonaggressive men did not differ in their perceptions of Diane's meekness and sexual interest, t [91] = -0.16, p > .87 and t [91] = 0.89, p > .38, respectively.

Mean ratings for individual perceptual items are presented in Table 8. Self-reported sexually aggressive men were more likely to rate Diane as aggressive, incompetent, indifferent, dependent, and irresponsible than sexually nonaggressive men. The largest difference

was in the rating of Diane as either teasing or sexually direct, with sexually aggressive men much more likely to rate Diane as a tease.

Assignment of Men to Low and High Accessibility Groups

Initially, men were divided into low and high accessibility groups based on their actual response times to the attitudinal items included in the computerized protocol. Although sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men hadn't differed in their response times, differences were found between men in the high and low accessibility groups. Men categorized in the high accessibility group responded significantly faster to the neutral factual items than the men categorized in the low accessibility group ($t[167] = 137.8, p < .0001$). Thus, men initially categorized in the high accessibility group simply may have been faster readers than men in the low accessibility group. To adjust for reading time of attitudinal statements, each participant's average reading time per word (as measured during the practice scenario) was multiplied by the number of words in each attitudinal statement and subtracted from the response time for that attitudinal item. This adjustment has been recommended by Fazio (1990) for studies using response latency measures of attitude accessibility. After this adjustment was made, men were divided into low and high accessibility groups based on their adjusted response times to the attitudinal items.

Median splits of the adjusted response times were performed at each level of response for each of the attitudinal items. This procedure ensured that any inferences drawn about attitude accessibility were not confounded with attitude extremity. At each level of response, those whose latency was faster than the median were assigned to the high

accessibility group for that item and those with latencies equal to or slower than the median were assigned to the low accessibility group for that item. The same procedure was followed for each of the response levels for each item. The total number of high accessibility responses were then summed for each participant. Based on the total number of high accessibility responses, participants were divided into accessibility groups with approximately half of the men categorized into the high accessibility group ($n = 85$) and half of the men categorized into the low accessibility group ($n = 84$). Fazio and Williams (1986) used a similar method to define high and low accessibility groups.

An alternate method of assigning men to high and low accessibility groups was explored. Rather than categorizing men overall as either members of the high accessibility group or the low accessibility group, men were categorized into the high or low accessibility group separately for each attitude scale. Thus, a man could be in the high accessibility group for the affective attitude scale, but in the low accessibility group for the cognitive attitude scale. Assignment of men to accessibility groups using this method proved to be problematic. Because of the limited number of items used to determine accessibility, division of the men into high and low accessibility groups often resulted in comparisons with drastically different sample sizes. Any man whose response time was equal to or slower than the median response time at each level of response for a particular item was assigned to the low accessibility group for that item. Thus, in many cases, the sample size in the low accessibility group was two-times larger than the sample size in the high accessibility group. Additionally, the literature shows that

use of a larger pool of items to determine accessibility increases the reliability, as demonstrated by Himmelfarb (1993). This conclusion was confirmed in this study. Analyses performed using the individual scale accessibility were inconsistent, particularly when examining correlations with level of manipulative intent. Thus, this method for assigning men to accessibility groups separately for each scale was not used.

Predictors of Sexually Aggressive Behavior

To better understand the relationship between sexual aggression and the factors studied, a logistic regression analysis was conducted to test the first hypothesis. The logistic regression analysis determined the probability of engaging in sexually aggressive behavior based on predictors, including rape-supportive attitudes, attitude accessibility, and sexual motives. Because of the large number of predictor variables, preliminary analyses were conducted before identifying a final model. Preliminary analyses showed each variables' individual contribution to predicting self-reported sexual aggression (see Table 9).

Upon examination of the individual predictive value of each variable considered in the logistic regression model, the researcher chose the attitude interaction term with the highest predictive power (the interaction of affective attitude scale items and accessibility) and forced its inclusion in the model. A stepwise logistic regression analysis then chose the remaining variables. Hedonistic sexual motivation ($\chi^2 = 11.19$, $p = .0008$) and the interaction of love as a sexual motivation and accessibility ($\chi^2 = 9.54$, $p = .0002$) were entered into the model. After entry of these variables into the model, the

interaction between the affect attitude scale and accessibility was $\chi^2 = 13.65$, $p = .0002$. After these variables were included, no other variables met the selection criteria for entry. Odds ratios and confidence intervals are presented in Table 10. This model correctly categorized 74.2% of men with a sensitivity of 72.72% and a specificity of 75.5% (see Table 11).

Correlations Comparing Accessibility Groups

Correlations between attitudes, sexual behavior, and perceptions of manipulative intent in both the high and low accessibility groups were calculated to test the second hypothesis.

In general, correlations between self-reported level of sexual aggression and each of the factors were somewhat higher in the high accessibility group. Within the high accessibility group, seven factors were significantly correlated ($p < .05$) with self-reported sexual aggression: Attitudes Toward Rape Victims scale, General Attitudes Toward Rape scale, affective attitude scale, cognitive attitude scale, hedonism as a sexual motivation, conformity as a sexual motivation, and ratings of Diane's level of manipulative intent. Within the low accessibility group, six of the factors were significantly correlated ($p < .05$) with self-reported sexual aggression: Attitudes Toward Rape Victims scale, General Attitudes Toward Rape scale, affective attitude scale, cognitive attitude scale, hedonism as a sexual motivation, and ratings of Diane's level of manipulative intent.

A z -test to compare correlation coefficients for two independent groups (i.e., high and low accessibility groups) then was calculated. Before the correlation coefficients were compared, the values required a

Fisher's r-to-z transformation to adjust for nonnormality of the correlation coefficients. The relations for high and low accessibility groups were significantly different for only one of the factors: conformity as a sexual motivation. Correlations and significance values are presented in Table 12.

Similarly, correlations between level of manipulative intent and each of the factors tended to be higher in the high accessibility group. Within the high accessibility group, eight factors were significantly correlated ($p < .05$) with ratings of Diane's level of manipulative intent: Attitudes Toward Rape Victims scale, General Attitudes Toward Rape scale, affective attitude scale, cognitive attitude scale, hedonism as a sexual motivation, conformity as a sexual motivation, perceptions of Diane's competency, and perceptions of Diane's sexual interest. Within the low accessibility group, seven of the factors were significantly correlated ($p < .05$) with ratings of Diane's level of manipulative intent: Attitudes Toward Rape Victims scale, General Attitudes Toward Rape scale, affective attitude scale, cognitive attitude scale, hedonism as a sexual motivation, conformity as a sexual motivation, and perceptions of Diane's competency.

A z-test to compare correlation coefficients for two independent groups (i.e., high and low accessibility groups) then were calculated. Before the correlation coefficients were compared, the values required a Fisher's r-to-z transformation to adjust for nonnormality of the correlation coefficients. Several of the relations for high and low accessibility groups were significantly different: Attitudes Toward Rape Victims scale, General Attitudes Toward Rape scale, affective attitude

scale, cognitive attitude scale, and conformity as a sexual motivation. Men whose attitudes were highly accessible were significantly more likely to perceive Diane's intent in a manner compatible with their attitudes. Correlations and significance values are presented in Table 13.

Similar analyses were conducted to examine the correlation between the accuracy of men's perceptions of the content of the dating scenario (as measured by the responses to the 22 true/false items) and the attitudinal factors. Correlations were not significant for either low or high accessibility groups. However, the pattern of results suggests that the relation between the number of perceptual errors and rape-supportive attitudes may be higher in the high accessibility group (see Table 14).

Correlations Comparing Affective and Cognitive Attitude Statements

Correlations between affective/cognitive attitudes and sexual behavior and perceptions of manipulative intent were calculated to test the third hypothesis. The correlation between the affective attitude statements and self-reported sexual aggression was .31; the correlation between the cognitive attitude statements and sexual aggression was .32 ($Z = 0.10, p > .46$). Affective and cognitive attitude items did not differ significantly in their relation to sexual behavior. Similar results were found using analyses of covariance to determine if one of the attitudinal components accounted for a significant portion of the variance in sexual aggression after controlling for the other component. After adjustment for cognitive attitude items, self-reported sexual aggression did not vary significantly with affective attitude item endorsement, $F(2,92) = 3.27, p = .07$. Similarly, after adjustment for

affective attitude items, self-reported sexual aggression did not vary significantly with cognitive attitude item endorsement, $F(2,92) = 3.30$, $p = .07$.

Correlations between affective/cognitive attitudes and perceptions of manipulative intent were calculated. The correlation between the affective attitude statements and manipulative intent was .58; the correlation between the cognitive attitude statements and sexual aggression was .51 ($Z = 0.90$, $p > .18$). Affective and cognitive attitude items did not differ significantly in their relation to perceptions of manipulative intent. However, the trend is consistent with the hypothesis that the relation between affective attitudes and perceptions would be stronger than the relation between cognitive attitudes and perceptions. Two analyses of covariance also were performed on perceived level of manipulative intent to determine if one of the attitudinal components account for a significant portion of the variance in perceived intent after controlling for the other component. Results revealed that after adjustment for cognitive attitude items, perceptions of manipulative intent varied significantly with affective attitude item endorsement, $F(19,168) = 1.86$, $p = .02$. In contrast, after adjustment for affective attitude items, perceptions of manipulative intent did not vary significantly with cognitive attitude item endorsement, $F(19,168) = 1.22$, $p = .26$.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to examine the relation between attitudes, perceptual judgments, and self-reported sexually aggressive behavior. Based on a review of the attitudes-toward-rape literature, it was predicted that men's attitudes and their motives for engaging in sexual behavior would aid in the classification of men as sexually aggressive or sexually nonaggressive. Moreover, it was hypothesized that men whose attitudes were highly accessible would make perceptual judgments and report engaging in sexual behaviors more consistent with their attitudes than men whose attitudes were less accessible. Thus, men whose rape-supportive attitudes were highly accessible would be more likely to perceive a woman's sexual refusal as manipulative and to report engaging in sexually aggressive behavior. In addition, exploratory analyses were conducted to assess the relative strength of affective and cognitive attitudinal components in attitude-perception and attitude-behavior relations among self-reported sexually aggressive men. It was hypothesized that the affective component of attitudes would correlate more strongly with men's perceptual judgments and self-reported sexually aggressive behavior than the cognitive component.

Predictors of Sexually Aggressive Behavior

Consistent with past research, rape-supportive attitudes were demonstrated to be effective in the prediction of self-reported sexually

aggressive behavior. Differences in the mean responses for sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men were consistent across attitude scales and across affective and cognitive components. As has been noted in the literature (White, Donat, & Humphrey, in press), however, the differences reflect differences in level of disagreement. Although sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men both disagree with most attitude items, sexually aggressive men are less strong in their condemnation. Furthermore, affective attitude items were rejected more strongly for both sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men. Although some men believed certain rape-supportive statements about women, overall men were less likely to make value judgments about the woman's character or her actions or to place injunctions on her behavior.

Motives for engaging in sexual behavior also distinguished self-reported sexually aggressive from sexually nonaggressive men. Sexually aggressive men were more likely to endorse hedonistic reasons for engaging in sexual behavior than sexually nonaggressive men who were somewhat reluctant to endorse this motive. Sexually aggressive men's motives may be more focused on personal enjoyment and satisfaction rather than the intimate, interpersonal aspect of sexual activity. Although sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men did not differ in their mean level of endorsement of love as a sexual motive, sexually nonaggressive men were somewhat more likely to support this motive. Additionally, while sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men both reported that conformity was not an important sexual motive for them, sexually nonaggressive men were fairly adamant

in their lack of endorsement for this item with a mean close to the bottom of the scale. Sexually aggressive men may be more likely to be influenced by the sexual behaviors of their peer group than sexually nonaggressive men. Indeed, other studies have suggested that men who engage in sexually aggressive behavior appear to belong to a subgroup of men who have a heightened interest in sexual pursuit and conquest (Kanin, 1985; Mahoney, Shively, & Traw, 1988). Thus, sexual activity, even sexually assaultive behavior, may be supported by their peer group. Malamuth and Check (1980) found that self-reported likelihood of raping a woman was strongly correlated with a belief that one's peer group would approve of such behavior. This finding was further supported in a longitudinal study which found that peer approval of sexual intercourse and forced sexual activity were better predictors of sexually aggressive behavior than any other factor measured (Ageton, 1983a,b).

These attitudes and motives for engaging in sexual behavior appear to be related to biased processing of the information presented in the intimate scenario used in this study. Self-reported sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men's accuracy of recall for specific events in the scenario differed significantly. Sexually aggressive men were less accurate in their recall despite a tendency to spend slightly more time reading the scenario. Sexually aggressive men were most likely to make errors in reporting who initiated activities early in the scenario which allowed for privacy and alcohol consumption. Sexually aggressive men were more likely to report that Diane suggested going to the man's apartment and to mistakenly believe that the man was not the one who poured the wine. Furthermore, ratings of Diane's intent in the study

scenario revealed differences in the perceptual judgments made by sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men. These men did not differ in their ratings of items regarding logistical or relational reasons for Diane refusing further sexual activity (e.g., not having birth control, or being concerned about the relationship). Sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men, however, did differ in their level of disagreement for items that suggested that Diane was manipulative or that the relationship was adversarial (e.g., not caring about the man's feelings, wanting to deliberately frustrate or tease the man). Sexually aggressive men reported less disagreement with these items than sexually nonaggressive men. Sexually aggressive men appeared to be more likely to question the genuineness of Diane's reasons for refusing further sexual activity and believe that her behavior was hostile.

Perceptual ratings of Diane using bipolar adjectives revealed no overall differences between self-reported sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men. Although differences were expected, the lack of significant results may be due to the lack of specificity of the bipolar ratings. The dimensions included were very general. This hypothesis is supported by the finding that the largest difference among the bipolar adjectives was for the dimension, sexually-direct and teasing. This suggests that the ratings may have differed if they were more relevant to the specific scenario included in the study. Moreover, the ratings required the men to make judgments about Diane's character. As demonstrated by the overall disagreement with affective attitude items, both sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men are less

likely to endorse attitude items that included value judgments. Thus, the inability to find significant differences may be due to a general reluctance to make sweeping conclusions about Diane's character based on the limited information provided in the scenario.

A logistic regression model was used to predict the odds of a man being sexually aggressive based on the factors investigated in this study. The data suggest that the interaction of accessibility and affective attitude items, hedonism as a motive for sexual behavior, and the interaction of love as a sexual motive and accessibility were significant predictors of sexual aggression. If the affective attitude component is highly accessible, a man is more likely to engage in sexually aggressive behavior. Moreover, if hedonistic motives are high and love motives are relatively low in accessibility, the likelihood of a man behaving in a sexually assaultive manner is further increased. Thus, highly accessible rape-supportive attitudes (particularly those which include negative value judgments and injunctions against women who are raped) and a narrow sexual focus on personal satisfaction appear to contribute to the relative risk that a man will engage in sexually aggressive behavior. However, examination of the odds ratios reveals that the relative risk contributed by each factor is small. This confirms other research that suggests that a broader multivariate emphasis is needed to best predict sexual aggression (Malamuth & Brown, 1994; Malamuth, Heavey, & Linz, 1993). The factors included in this model represented a rather restricted range of possible factors related to rape and sexual assault. Further research that combines attitude accessibility and motives for engaging in sexual behavior with other

factors (i.e., patterns of antisocial behavior, peer group influences) is needed.

Accessibility and Perceptions of Manipulative Intent

Correlations with perceptions of manipulative intent were significantly stronger in the high accessibility group. Men whose attitudes were highly accessible were more likely to make judgments about a woman compatible with their attitudes than were men whose attitudes were less accessible. Thus, sexually aggressive men whose attitudes were strongly held were more likely to perceive a woman's intent as manipulative following a scenario describing a sexual conflict. Moreover, correlations between conformity as a motive for engaging in sexual behavior and perceptions of manipulative intent were significantly stronger in the high accessibility group. Sexually aggressive men who are particularly sensitive to the compatibility of their sexual activity with other members of their peer group may be particularly likely to perceive Diane's refusal as adversarial and insincere. This is compatible with the suspicious schema model of sexual aggression proposed by Malamuth and Brown (1994). In their study of sexually aggressive men's perceptions of women's communications, Malamuth and Brown found that men who report engaging in sexually assaultive behavior tend to believe women cannot be trusted to disclose their true level of sexual interest. Thus, sexually aggressive men tend to perceive women as hostile and manipulative. Moreover, a man with a hedonistic interest in engaging in sexual activity may not rely on indicators of mutual consent. Therefore, sexual aggression may be particularly likely when a man has a high level of hostile masculinity

and of sexual promiscuity (Malamuth, Sockloskie, Koss, & Tanaka, 1991).

Accessibility and Sexually Aggressive Behavior

Correlations with self-reported sexually aggressive behavior, however, did not differ as predicted. Although the relation between rape-supportive attitudes and self-reported sexually aggressive behavior were somewhat higher in the high accessibility group, correlations between high and low accessibility groups were not significantly different for any of the factors except conformity as a sexual motive. These results, while compatible with previous work, suggest that methodological differences between this study and Niles (1990) may be useful to explore systematically. In particular, differences in oral versus visual presentation of attitude items require study. Larger differences between high and low accessibility groups were found when attitude items were presented orally (Niles, 1990). Although reading times between self-reported sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men did not differ in this study, there may be a conceptual difference between rape-supportive attitudes presented by computer and rape-supportive attitudes heard being spoken by a male voice. Additionally, different attitude scales were used in the earlier study. Several of the attitude items in this study were reverse-scored. Perhaps participants in the earlier study lapsed into a response set, thus differences between groups may have been easier to find because of reduced variance within the groups. Additionally, Niles included the measure of self-reported sexual behavior in the computerized task following the attitudinal items. This study used measures of self-reported sexual behavior obtained weeks prior to the study. It is

possible that in Niles' study, attitudinal inquiries may have made salient information that participants might not have ordinarily considered when responding to the later behavioral items. Indeed, previous research suggests that earlier questions can bias responses to subsequent, related questions. Schuman and Presser (1981) report that during conduct of the National Crime Survey, all respondents were asked to report victimization experiences. Half of the respondents were asked a series of questions about their attitudes toward crime prior to reporting their victimization experiences; the remaining respondents were not asked about their attitudes toward crime. Reports of victimization were higher for respondents who answered the earlier attitude questions than for respondents who were not asked these questions. Apparently, the attitude questions activated memories of victimization experiences. A similar response effect may have occurred in the study by Niles (1990). In addition, it also may be helpful to examine whether experimenter gender may serve as a cue for retrieval of specific attitudes toward women prior to the experimental task. Although the experimenter's contact with the participants was limited to obtaining consent and conducting the debriefing, their influence cannot be discounted. Furthermore, since female experimenters were used in both studies, the influence of experimenter gender could not be assessed.

The Role of Accessibility as a Moderator of Sexually Aggressive Behavior

The results of this study are compatible with Fazio's (1990) MODE model of attitude-behavior relation. Attitude accessibility does appear to moderate attitude relations. However, in this study, the difference was evident only for perceptual judgments. This finding is not

surprising. According to Fazio's model, once an attitude is accessed from memory, the situation, in general, and the attitude object, in particular, are interpreted in line with the accessed information. The individual's perceptions and subsequent judgments and interpretations of the situation are influenced by the individual's attitudes. The individual's behavior, however, is influenced through the person's social construction of the event (Houston & Fazio, 1989). Thus, behavioral decisions are influenced only in part by one's attitudes. Many other factors may influence whether a man behaves in a sexually assaultive manner. Situational factors (i.e., use of alcohol and drugs, the social context) and interpersonal factors (i.e., interactions between the couple, the couple's dating history, the influence of peers) also influence behavior. Thus, the inclusion of attitude accessibility as a moderator in attitude relations may be an important addition to future studies of attitudes and their relation to sexually aggressive behavior, primarily through their influence on social perceptions.

The possible automaticity of highly accessible attitudes' influence as suggested by Fazio's model, raises additional questions regarding intention and awareness. If automatically activated, attitudes' influence on perception may be preconscious and biased perceptions may be accepted as accurate interpretations (Bargh, 1989). Thus, further research is needed to explore the accessibility and possible automaticity of rape-supportive attitudes.

The Role of Affective and Cognitive Attitude Components

Preliminary research also suggests that the affective component of attitudes may be more useful than the cognitive component in predicting

perceptions of manipulative intent (White, Donat, & Humphrey, in press). In contrast, the importance of distinguishing affective and cognitive components for the prediction of self-reported sexually aggressive behavior, however, was not supported in this study (although the individual contributions of both components approached significance, $p = .07$). Thus, the distinction between affective, cognitive, and behavioral intention components of an attitude may have both theoretical and practical significance, particularly for our understanding of sexually aggressive men's social perceptions. After controlling for shared variance, the affective component was significantly related to perceptions of manipulative intent, while the cognitive component was not. Differences in sexually aggressive men's ratings of affective and cognitive attitude items may be related to the manner in which the attitude was formed initially, the contextual salience of the attitudinal components at the time of testing, or the function that the sexually aggressive behavior serves (White, Donat, & Humphrey, in press). Clearly, further research is needed to explore the foundations of this difference.

In addition, basic research is needed to explore the relation between the construct of attitude accessibility and the affective, cognitive, and behavioral intention components of attitudes. To date, no research has been conducted that explicitly attempts to assess the accessibility of each of these attitudinal components. Moreover, it is unclear whether differential accessibility of attitudinal components can be manipulated, or whether levels of accessibility are relatively chronic (Bargh, Chaiken, Govender, & Pratto, 1992; Chaiken, & Bargh,

1993; Fazio, 1993). Perhaps research that manipulates the contextual salience of affective and cognitive components is actually manipulating component accessibility.

Further work also is needed to distinguish affective and cognitive attitudinal components and their relation to sexual aggression. Attitude items categorized as primarily affective may be contaminated with cognitive statements. In this study, the distinction between affective and cognitive attitudinal items was fuzzy. Since attitude items from existing scales were used, often both affective and cognitive items contained cognitive elements. Furthermore, the categorization of statements as affective may be criticized because the statements required verbal translation of an attitude's affective component (Breckler & Berman, 1991). For example, in this study, the statement "Raping a virgin is worse than raping a nonvirgin" was categorized as affective because of its strong value-laden elements. However, this statement also includes cognitive elements, such as an understanding of the definitions of virgin/nonvirgin and beliefs about the consequences of rape for a victim. In addition, the extent to which the affective attitude items and the cognitive attitude items were saturated with evaluative meaning for the participants was not assessed. In a post-hoc analysis, a blind reviewer's ratings of the affective and cognitive attitude items did not differ in intensity. However, participant ratings may have revealed differences. Thus, failure to find larger differences between affective and cognitive attitudes may have resulted from the contamination of affective items with cognition or from differences in item intensities (Eagly, Mladinic, & Otto, 1994).

Conclusions

Rape-supportive attitudes were found to be effective in predicting sexually aggressive behavior. Furthermore, men who reported engaging in sexually aggressive behavior were more likely to perceive a woman's sexual refusal as hostile and manipulative. Although these factors revealed statistically significant differences between sexually aggressive and sexually nonaggressive men, the differences were relatively small. This finding is consistent with previous research examining the relation between rape-supportive attitudes and self-reported sexual aggression. This study contributes to the attitude-toward-rape literature by examining the relation of self-reported sexually aggressive behavior and perceptions of manipulative intent with (a) the accessibility of rape-supportive attitudes, and (b) the affective and cognitive components of rape-supportive attitudes. The relation between rape-supportive attitudes and perceptions of manipulative intent were significantly stronger among men whose attitudes were highly accessible. The same trend was evident in the relations between rape-supportive attitudes and sexually aggressive behavior. Thus, highly accessible rape-supportive attitudes may serve an important role in moderating attitude relations. Strongly-held attitudes may guide perceptual interpretations which may in turn influence behavioral decisions in a direction compatible with the accessed attitude. Thus, highly accessible rape-supportive attitudes may influence the way a man perceives a woman, how he interprets her behavior, and how he chooses to behave during an intimate interaction.

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Appendix A: Sexual Experiences Survey

Males engage in a variety of sexual behaviors with females. Some engage in certain behaviors more than others. We would like to know how often you have experienced each of the sexual behaviors under each circumstance listed. Some of you may have had several of these experiences. Read each behavior and circumstance carefully and then rate the number of times that you have had the listed experience since age 14. Please answer regardless of the kind of relationship you had with the female (i.e., stranger, just met, casual acquaintance, date, fiance, girlfriend, younger, older, same age, etc.). After each is a space where you may explain what happened.

Let A= never (0 times)
 B= one time
 C= two times
 D= 3-5 times
 E= more than 5 times

How often have any of the following occurred when you both wanted to (i.e., she consented or offered no resistance)?

- 1. sex play (fondling or kissing or petting, but not intercourse)
- 2. attempted sexual intercourse but for whatever reason intercourse did not occur?
- 3. sexual intercourse (inserted penis, ejaculation not necessary)
- 4. other sexual acts, such as oral or anal intercourse or penetration with an object other than the penis

How often have you said flattering things that you really did not mean such as, you love her, she's special, you will continue the relationship, etc.) to make her do any of the following when she did not want to?

- 5. sex play (fondling or kissing or petting, but not intercourse)
- 6. attempted sexual intercourse but for whatever reason intercourse did not occur?
- 7. sexual intercourse (inserted penis, ejaculation not necessary)
- 8. other sexual acts, such as oral or anal intercourse or penetration with an object other than the penis

Appendix A cont.

Let A= never (0 times)
 B= one time
 C= two times
 D= 3-5 times
 E= more than 5 times

How often have you used verbal pressure or arguments to make her do any of the following when she did not want to?

- ___ 9. sex play (fondling or kissing or petting, but not intercourse)
 ___ 10. attempted sexual intercourse but for whatever reason intercourse did not occur?
 ___ 11. sexual intercourse (inserted penis, ejaculation not necessary)
 ___ 12. other sexual acts, such as oral or anal intercourse or penetration with an object other than the penis

How often have you used your position of authority or status (such as boss, supervisor, camp counselor) to control her (by denying a promotion, firing her, giving a bad report, or otherwise affecting her future or reputation, etc.) to make her do any of the following when she did not want to?

- ___ 13. sex play (fondling or kissing or petting, but not intercourse)
 ___ 14. attempted sexual intercourse but for whatever reason intercourse did not occur?
 ___ 15. sexual intercourse (inserted penis, ejaculation not necessary)
 ___ 16. other sexual acts, such as oral or anal intercourse or penetration with an object other than the penis

How often have you said you would use physical force (such as grabbing, hitting, choking, pinching, or in any other way restraining her movement or physically hurting her), but you did not, to make her do any of the following when she did not want to?

- ___ 17. sex play (fondling or kissing or petting, but not intercourse)
 ___ 18. attempted sexual intercourse but for whatever reason intercourse did not occur?
 ___ 19. sexual intercourse (inserted penis, ejaculation not necessary)
 ___ 20. other sexual acts, such as oral or anal intercourse or penetration with an object other than the penis

Appendix A cont.

Let A= never (0 times)
 B= one time
 C= two times
 D= 3-5 times
 E= more than 5 times

How often have you used physical force (such as cornering her, pinning her against a wall, grabbing her, holding her down, hitting her, or otherwise restraining her movement or physically hurting her) to make her do any of the following when she did not want to?

- ___21. sex play (fondling or kissing or petting, but not intercourse)
- ___22. attempted sexual intercourse but for whatever reason intercourse did not occur?
- ___23. sexual intercourse (inserted penis, ejaculation not necessary)
- ___24. other sexual acts, such as oral or anal intercourse or penetration with an object other than the penis

How often have each of the following occurred when you knew she did not want it to happen, but she was so intoxicated or under the influence of alcohol or drugs that she could not object?

- ___25. sex play (fondling or kissing or petting, but not intercourse)
- ___26. attempted sexual intercourse but for whatever reason intercourse did not occur?
- ___27. sexual intercourse (inserted penis, ejaculation not necessary)
- ___28. other sexual acts, such as oral or anal intercourse or penetration with an object other than the penis

How often has each of the following occurred when you knew she did not want it to because you deliberately gave her alcohol or drugs so she could not object?

- ___29. sex play (fondling or kissing or petting, but not intercourse)
- ___30. attempted sexual intercourse but for whatever reason intercourse did not occur?
- ___31. sexual intercourse (inserted penis, ejaculation not necessary)
- ___32. other sexual acts, such as oral or anal intercourse or penetration with an object other than the penis

Appendix B: Demographic Information, Instructions, Factual Items, and Attitudinal Items

Demographic Information

Please indicate which items describe you best:

1. Race
 - a. European or European American
 - b. African or African American
 - c. Asian Pacific Islander or Asian American
 - d. Native American
 - e. Other
2. Age
 - a. 17-18 years
 - b. 19-20 years
 - c. 21-22 years
 - d. 23-24 years
 - e. 25 + years
3. Year in college
 - a. Freshman
 - b. Sophomore
 - c. Junior
 - d. Senior
 - e. Special or Graduate
4. Sex
 - a. Female
 - b. Male

Appendix B cont.**Computerized Instructions**

Statements will be displayed on the computer screen followed by a message stating "respond now". After the message, you may respond by pressing one of the five buttons labeled on the computer screen. "1" means strongly disagree and "5" means strongly agree. Later in the experiment, the meanings of the numbers you press will change, simply watch the computer screen for messages. If you have difficulty during the experiment remembering what the numbers mean, simply look again at the computer screen above the keys. If you hit an incorrect key, the computer will continue to ask you to "respond now" and will make a little beeping sound. You are asked to respond to each of the statements as quickly as possible. Just give your first reaction. There are no right or wrong answers. I simply want your opinion. Some of the statements will ask your opinion about your feelings about sexuality and sexual behaviors. All responses will be kept confidential. If you have any questions, please ask the experimenter who is waiting outside the room. The first set of questions about sports are provided to help familiarize you with the task. Feel free to stop and get the experimenter to answer your questions if the task is not clear.

If you have no questions, press any key to continue.

Appendix B cont.

Factual Items

A series of statements that people feel differently about follow. Please carefully read each statement, and answer it as quickly and as accurately as possible according to the way that you feel. There are no right or wrong answers. All responses should be given on a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 = "strongly agree" to 5 = "strongly disagree". For example, consider the statement "People should brush their teeth three times a day". If you strongly agree with this statement you would answer with 1; if you moderately agree, you would give the rating 2; a rating 3 would mean you neither agree or disagree; 4 would indicate moderate disagreement; 5 would indicate strong disagreement. Press the return key when you are ready to begin answering questions.

UNCG is in Greensboro, North Carolina.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Humans need oxygen to live.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Ice is hot.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

The earth revolves around the sun.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Appendix B cont.

Canada is north of the United States.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

California is on the east coast of the United States.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Kernersville is the capitol of North Carolina.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Water freezes at 47 degrees fahrenheit.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

The sun rises in the west.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Bill Clinton is President of the United States.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Appendix B cont.

Attitudinal Items

A series of statements that people feel differently about follow. Please carefully read each statement, and answer it as quickly and as accurately as possible according to the way that you feel. There are no right or wrong answers. All responses should be given on a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 = "strongly agree" to 5 = "strongly disagree". Press the return key when you are ready to begin answering questions.

A spouse owes the other partner sex no matter what the circumstances.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Most women secretly desire to be raped.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

A woman can enjoy sex even when it is forced upon her.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

A raped woman is usually an innocent victim.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Each community should be responsible for providing supportive services to the rape victim.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Appendix B cont.

I think it would be possible for a wife to be raped by her husband.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

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

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Increased awareness of rape is a good thing.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Some women at least secretly want to be raped.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

A healthy woman can successfully resist a rapist if she really tries.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Women often claim rape to protect their reputations.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Appendix B cont.

Women who say no to sexual advances often mean yes.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Women don't want men to convince them to have sex.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Sexually experienced women are not really damaged by rape.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

In most cases when a woman was raped, she deserved it.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Intoxicated women are usually willing to have sexual relations.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Women who have had prior sexual relationships should not complain about rape.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Appendix B cont.

A woman who goes out alone at night puts herself in a position to be raped.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Rape accusations by bar girls and prostitutes should be viewed with suspicion.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

It would do some women good to be raped.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Raping a virgin is worse than raping a nonvirgin.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Many women who report rape are lying because they are angry or want revenge on the accused.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Rape is generally a misinterpretation of sexual cues.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Appendix B cont.

Women do not provoke rape by their appearance or behavior.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

A raped woman is a less desirable woman.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Even women who feel guilty about engaging in premarital sex are not likely to falsely claim rape.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Many women invent rape stories if they learn they are pregnant.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Being sexually assaulted would change my life.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Young girls (under 12) cannot act seductively.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Appendix B cont.

Rape is not just another feminist issue.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

A rapist's sexual history should come out at the trial.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Only women who are physically beaten should feel justified in reporting rape.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

After a man forces himself on a woman, she may start enjoying it.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Prostitutes should only report a rape when they have been beaten.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Normal men can rape.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Appendix B cont.

I would be willing to comfort a friend who has been raped.

1	2	3	4	5
----- ----- ----- -----				
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

A woman should not blame herself for rape.

1	2	3	4	5
----- ----- ----- -----				
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Men, not women, are responsible for rape.

1	2	3	4	5
----- ----- ----- -----				
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Women put themselves in situations where they're likely to be assaulted because they have an unconscious wish to be raped.

1	2	3	4	5
----- ----- ----- -----				
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

"Good" girls are as likely to be raped as "bad" girls.

1	2	3	4	5
----- ----- ----- -----				
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Most rapes happen because women lead men on.

1	2	3	4	5
----- ----- ----- -----				
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Appendix B cont.

Many women claim rape if they've consented to sexual relations but have changed their minds afterwards.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Women who wear short skirts or tight blouses are not inviting rape.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Any female may be raped.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

If a woman really didn't want to be raped she could fight off the attacker.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Women who are raped while accepting rides from strangers get what they deserve.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
strongly agree	moderately agree	neither agree nor disagree	moderately disagree	strongly disagree

Appendix B cont.

Reasons for Sexual Behavior Survey

People have sexual relations (kissing, petting, oral sex, intercourse, etc.) with others for many reasons. The following includes some of the reasons others have given for their sexual behavior. Some of you will find that many of these reasons are important in your own sexual behavior, and some of you will find only a few important. We would like to know all the reasons that are involved in your own sexual behavior, and how important each of these reasons is to you. After considering each of the reasons listed below carefully, give a rating that best tells how important that reason is in your own sexual behavior: let 1 = extremely important, 2 = very important, 3 = moderately important, 4 = mildly important, or 5 = not important at all. Press the return key when you are ready to begin answering questions.

[individual items are copywrited by Nelson, 1979]

Appendix C: Scenarios and Perceptual Rating Scales

Please read the following story carefully. This scenario is provided to further familiarize you with the computer and to obtain a rough measure of your reading speed. Read the story at your normal rate. Press the return key when you are ready to begin reading. When you are done reading, press the return key immediately.

Practice Scenario

Tom went to the gym to exercise and lift weights. As he entered the gym, he saw that some new weight machines had been added. Tom looked at the new weight machines. They looked fun. He really did not like free weights. He decided to try the new machines. Tom changed his clothes in the locker room and walked back upstairs. He went in the weight room and looked at the machines. There were very few people in the room and many machines were open. He decided to try arm curls first. He read about the machine and set the weight to 10 pounds. He was surprised how easily he could lift the weight and increased the weight until he could lift no more. Satisfied, Tom went to the next machine. At the end of his workout, Tom was pleased with how much weight he could lift. He decided to exercise every Tuesday and Thursday after class. Tom was looking forward to his next workout.

Press the return key when you reach this point.

Appendix C cont.

Please read the following story carefully. After reading the story, you will be asked to answer some questions about your perceptions of the woman in the story. Read the story at your normal rate. Press the return key when you are ready to begin reading. When you are done reading, press the return key immediately.

Intimate Scenario

You go to pick up your date for the evening, Diane. As you walk to the car, Diane says she has wanted to see "Jurassic Park" for a long time. As you drive to the Janus theater, you talk about your mutual friends and the party last weekend. You met Diane two months ago and have seen each other a couple of times at first, and then every weekend for the past month. You both continue to date others on occasion. After parking the car, you wait in line, making small talk until the ticket window opens. You buy the tickets and go inside. Since you are spellbound by the movie, you do not talk until the film is over. After the movie, you suggest that you go back to your place so you can listen to music, drink some wine, and talk. Diane says "okay." As you and Diane walk slowly to your place, you enjoy the night air, and glance toward each other from time to time. When inside, you put on some music and pour some wine for both of you. You sit for a while, listening to music and talking. As you talk, your eyes meet and then you both quickly look away. The fourth time your eyes make contact, you and Diane hold your gaze and smile. You move closer to Diane and put your arm around her and gently stroke her shoulder. You kiss her softly. You put both arms around Diane and hold her close to you. You kiss her again, longer this time, and then open your mouth slightly so that your tongue touches hers. You continue to kiss her like this for a while. You slip your hand inside Diane's dress and began to fondle her breast; with the other hand you start unbuttoning her dress. Soon, you finish unbuttoning Diane's dress and you slip it off her shoulders. Kissing her so that your mouths are in continuous contact, you stroke her breasts rhythmically and then rub the inside of her thighs. You kiss Diane's breasts and stomach and touch her genital area. Then you slide her dress off completely and remove her underwear, and then quickly unzip your pants and pull them down. Diane says, "No, don't. I don't want to."

Press the return key when you reach this point.

Appendix C cont.

Which of the following statements accurately represent what happened in the scenario (i.e., is the statement listed true or false)? Press the return key when you are ready to begin answering questions.

You went to Terrace Theatre.	True/False
You went to Janus Theatre.	True/False
You went to see "Jurassic Park."	True/False
You went to see "Cliffhanger."	True/False
You suggested going to your place after the movie.	True/False
Diane suggested going to your place after the movie.	True/False
Diane poured some wine.	True/False
You poured some wine.	True/False
You initiated kissing.	True/False
Diane initiated kissing.	True/False
Diane's dress was unbuttoned.	True/False
Diane unbuttoned her dress.	True/False
You unbuttoned Diane's dress.	True/False
Diane's underwear was removed.	True/False
You removed Diane's underwear.	True/False
Diane removed her underwear.	True/False
Your pants were unzipped.	True/False
Diane unzipped your pants.	True/False
You unzipped your pants.	True/False
Diane said "wait, I'm not ready."	True/False
Diane said "no, don't, I don't want to."	True/False
Diane said "I'm not sure, maybe later."	True/False

Appendix C cont.

Choose the number which best represents how likely each of the following items describes possible reasons for Diane saying refusing further sexual activity. Press the return key when you are ready to begin answering questions.

Diane was concerned with only her feelings and didn't care about yours.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
very	moderately	neither likely	moderately	very
likely	likely	nor unlikely	unlikely	unlikely

Diane realized she didn't want to go any further and was unaware of your desire.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
very	moderately	neither likely	moderately	very
likely	likely	nor unlikely	unlikely	unlikely

Diane wanted to deliberately frustrate you to make her feel in control.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
very	moderately	neither likely	moderately	very
likely	likely	nor unlikely	unlikely	unlikely

Diane was just hesitant and wanted you to convince her.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
very	moderately	neither likely	moderately	very
likely	likely	nor unlikely	unlikely	unlikely

Diane was concerned for your relationship and didn't want it to develop too fast.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
very	moderately	neither likely	moderately	very
likely	likely	nor unlikely	unlikely	unlikely

Appendix C cont.

Diane wanted to irritate you.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
very	moderately	neither likely	moderately	very
likely	likely	nor unlikely	unlikely	unlikely

Diane was not on birth control and didn't want an unplanned pregnancy.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
very	moderately	neither likely	moderately	very
likely	likely	nor unlikely	unlikely	unlikely

Diane wanted to tease you.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
very	moderately	neither likely	moderately	very
likely	likely	nor unlikely	unlikely	unlikely

Diane knew she would upset you, but said "no" because she didn't want to go further.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
very	moderately	neither likely	moderately	very
likely	likely	nor unlikely	unlikely	unlikely

Diane intentionally said "no" when she meant "yes."

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
very	moderately	neither likely	moderately	very
likely	likely	nor unlikely	unlikely	unlikely

Diane was serious about you and didn't want casual sex to mess up the relationship.

1	2	3	4	5
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
very	moderately	neither likely	moderately	very
likely	likely	nor unlikely	unlikely	unlikely

Appendix C cont.

Although you have limited information about Diane, use the information that you have to rate your perception of Diane on a scale of 1 to 7. If neither adjective describes Diane better than the other or if both are irrelevant, indicate the middle category. Indicate ratings farther along the scale to the extent that Diane is described by either of the two adjectives. Press the return key when you are ready to begin the ratings.

aggressive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	submissive
sociable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	withdrawn
strong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	weak
incompetent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	capable
sensitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	indifferent
experienced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	naive
unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	likeable
rational	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	emotional
flirtatious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	frigid
sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	insincere
shy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	bold
teasing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	sexually direct
warm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	cold
subtle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	obvious
popular	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpopular
independent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	dependent
submissive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	dominant
passive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	active
stubborn	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	meek
persistent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	fickle
self-confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	insecure

Appendix C cont.

gullible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	skeptical
prudish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	promiscuous
aroused	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	turned-off
responsible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	irresponsible
adventuresome	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	cautious
attractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	plain
distant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	alluring
sexual	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	celibate

Appendix D: Consent Form

In this study, we are examining a new method of attitude measurement. Rather than completing a paper and pencil survey, you will be responding to statements displayed on a computer. Since we are very concerned about the ability of this method to accurately assess attitudes and behavior, we have chosen a topic with which we believe most persons have strong opinions...male-female roles, relationships, and sexuality. You will be asked to answer questions about your attitudes, sexual behavior, and perception of woman on a date. All answers that you give will be confidential. The experimenter will not be in the room while you answer the questions. 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 attached consent form.

Appendix D cont.

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 334-5878, the Office of Sponsored Programs.

Name

Date

Appendix E: Debriefing Statement

The task you just completed was developed by Russell Fazio as a means of assessing attitude strength. Fazio and his colleagues have found that attitudes that are held more strongly by an individual are responded to more quickly than attitudes that have not been previously considered or are weakly held. Therefore, the more quickly a person responds to an inquiry about an attitude, the greater strength the attitude has for that person. Fazio has found that persons are more likely to behave similar to their attitudes if they are strongly held than if they are weakly held. Additionally, persons with strongly held attitudes also are more likely to make judgments compatible with the attitudes they hold. Hopefully this new method of attitude assessment will assist in the ability to predict behavior from self-reported attitudes.

Appendix F: Tables

Table 1

Type of Sexual Behavior and Nature of Interaction Reported^a by Men in
Sampling Pool (n=339)

Nature of interaction	Type of sexual behavior			
	Sex play	Attempted sexual intercourse	Sexual intercourse	Other sex acts
Consensual	316 (93.2%)	231 (68.1%)	263 (77.6%)	248 (73.2%)
By flattery	150 (44.2%)	107 (31.6%)	114 (33.46)	96 (28.3%)
By verbal pressure	70 (20.6%)	48 (14.2%)	55 (16.2%)	56 (16.5%)
By position of authority	14 (4.1%)	13 (3.8%)	13 (3.8%)	9 (2.7%)
By threat of physical force	12 (3.5%)	14 (4.1%)	12 (3.5%)	10 (2.9%)
By physical force	22 (6.5%)	12 (3.5%)	14 (4.1%)	15 (4.4%)
While she was intoxicated	72 (21.2%)	48 (14.2%)	45 (13.3%)	47 (13.9%)
By deliberately giving alcohol/drugs	20 (5.9%)	14 (4.1%)	18 (5.3%)	15 (4.4%)

^aMen self-reported engaging in the above sexual behaviors during the type of interaction described on at least one occasion. Most men reported engaging in more than one behavior, therefore, percents do not add to 100%.

Appendix F cont.

Table 2

Type of Sexual Behavior and Nature of Interaction Reported^a by Men in Sample (n=169)

Nature of interaction	Type of sexual behavior			
	Sex play	Attempted sexual intercourse	Sexual intercourse	Other sex acts
Consensual	168 (99.4%)	133 (78.7%)	152 (89.9%) ^b	147 (87.0%)
By flattery	79 (46.8%)	66 (39.0%)	68 (40.2%)	54 (32.0%)
By verbal pressure	43 (25.4%)	26 (15.4%)	31 (18.3%)	32 (18.9%)
By position of authority	9 (5.3%)	8 (4.7%)	9 (5.3%)	5 (3.0%)
By threat of physical force	7 (4.1%)	10 (5.9%)	10 (5.9%)	6 (3.6%)
By physical force	12 (7.1%)	6 (3.6%)	6 (3.6%)	8 (4.7%)
While she was intoxicated	47 (27.8%)	32 (18.9%)	29 (17.2%)	30 (17.8%)
By deliberately giving alcohol/drugs	12 (7.1%)	7 (4.1%)	10 (5.9%)	8 (4.7%)

^aMen self-reported engaging in the above sexual behaviors during the type of interaction described on at least one occasion. Most men reported engaging in more than one behavior, therefore, percents do not add to 100%. ^bMen who did not self-report engaging in sexual intercourse (n = 17) did not differ significantly from the rest of the men in the study. Nevertheless, these men were excluded from the categorized sample.

Appendix F cont.

Table 3

Demographic Characteristics of the Sampling Pool (n = 339), Sample (n = 169), and Categorized Sample (n = 93)

	Sampling pool n (%)	Sample n (%)	Categorized sample n (%)
Ethnicity			
White	285 (84.1%)	102 (60.4%)	57 (61.3%)
African American	32 (9.4%)	17 (10.1%)	8 (8.6%)
Other	22 (6.5%)	50 (29.6%)	28 (30.1%)
Age			
17-18 years	161 (47.5%)	83 (49.1%)	47 (50.5%)
19-20 years	100 (29.5%)	46 (27.2%)	23 (24.7%)
21-22 years	28 (8.3%)	14 (8.3%)	4 (4.3%)
23-24 years	14 (4.1%)	7 (4.1%)	7 (7.5%)
25 + years	36 (10.6%)	19 (11.2%)	12 (12.9%)
College year			
Freshman	211 (62.2%)	113 (66.9%)	60 (64.5%)
Sophomore	66 (19.5%)	32 (18.9%)	16 (17.2%)
Junior	42 (12.4%)	19 (11.2%)	14 (15.1%)
Senior	7 (2.1%)	2 (1.2%)	1 (1.1%)
Special/graduate	13 (3.8%)	3 (1.8%)	2 (2.2%)

Appendix F cont.

Table 4

Mean Attitudinal Endorsement by Sexually Aggressive (n = 44) and Sexually Nonaggressive (n = 49) Men

Attitudinal factor	Sexually aggressive	Sexually nonaggressive
	Mean (<u>SD</u>)	Mean (<u>SD</u>)
Attitudes Toward Rape Victims scale ^a	2.47 (0.48)	2.01 (0.37)
General Attitudes Toward Rape scale ^a	2.17 (0.42)	1.85 (0.29)
Affective attitude scale ^a	2.04 (0.49)	1.62 (0.36)
Cognitive attitude scale ^a	2.56 (0.43)	2.17 (0.36)
Hedonistic sexual motivation ^b	3.47 (0.76)	2.67 (0.94)
Loving sexual motivation ^b	3.76 (0.74)	4.03 (0.60)
Conforming sexual motivation ^b	2.01 (0.81)	1.50 (0.58)

^aRatings were coded on a scale from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree." ^bRatings were recoded on a scale from 1 = "not important at all" to 5 "extremely important."

Appendix F cont.

Table 5

Percentage of Correct Responses for Sexually Aggressive (n = 44) and Sexually Nonaggressive Men (n = 49)

Statement	Sexually aggressive n (%)	Sexually nonaggressive n (%)
You went to Terrace Theatre.	35 (79.6%)	43 (87.8%)
You went to Janus Theatre.	33 (75.0%)	44 (89.8%)
You went to see "Jurassic Park."	43 (97.7%)	47 (95.9%)
You went to see "Cliffhanger."	43 (97.7%)	49 (100.0%)
You suggested going to your place after the movie.	42 (95.4%)	48 (98.0%)
Diane suggested going to your place after the movie.	39 (88.6%) _a	49 (100.0%) _b
Diane poured some wine.	42 (95.4%)	49 (100.0%)
You poured some wine.	40 (90.9%) _a	49 (100.0%) _b
You initiated kissing.	38 (86.4%)	42 (85.7%)
Diane initiated kissing.	40 (90.9%)	46 (93.9%)
Diane's dress was unbuttoned.	14 (31.8%)	16 (32.6%)
Diane unbuttoned her dress.	41 (93.2%)	48 (98.0%)
You unbuttoned Diane's dress.	41 (93.2%)	49 (100.0%)
Diane's underwear was removed.	32 (72.7%)	35 (71.4%)
You removed Diane's underwear.	34 (77.3%)	43 (87.8%)
Diane removed her underwear.	40 (90.9%)	48 (98.0%)
Your pants were unzipped.	27 (61.4%)	28 (57.1%)
Diane unzipped your pants.	41 (93.2%)	46 (93.9%)
You unzipped your pants.	38 (86.4%)	45 (91.8%)

--- Table 5 continued on next page ---

Statement	Sexually aggressive	Sexually nonaggressive
	<u>n</u> (%)	<u>n</u> (%)
Diane said "wait, I'm not ready."	32 (72.7%)	40 (81.6%)
Diane said "no, don't, I don't want to."	41 (93.2%)	48 (98.0%)
Diane said "I'm not sure, maybe later."	41 (93.2%)	49 (100.0%)

Note. Correct responses include true items that participants correctly identified as true and false items that participants correctly identified as false. Individual items with different subscripts differ significantly at $p < .05$.

Appendix F cont.

Table 6

Mean Likelihood Ratings^a for Diane's Reasons for Refusing Further Sexual Activity for Sexually Aggressive (n = 44) and Sexually Nonaggressive (n = 49) Men

Reason for refusal	Sexually aggressive Mean (SD) _a	Sexually nonaggressive Mean (SD) _b
Diane was concerned only with her feelings and didn't care about yours.	2.70 (1.15) _a	2.06 (1.21) _b
Diane realized she didn't want to go any further and was unaware of your desire for sexual contact.	3.14 (1.39)	3.16 (1.43)
Diane wanted to deliberately frustrate you to make her feel in control.	2.07 (1.23) _a	1.61 (0.79) _b
Diane was just hesitant and wanted you to convince her.	2.43 (1.09) _a	1.84 (0.87) _b
Diane was concerned for your relationship and didn't want it to develop too fast.	4.00 (0.99)	4.04 (1.00)
Diane wanted to irritate you.	1.75 (0.84) _a	1.39 (0.49) _b
Diane was not on birth control and didn't want an unplanned pregnancy.	3.09 (1.01)	3.43 (1.21)
Diane wanted to tease you.	2.55 (1.11) _a	1.73 (0.86) _b
Diane knew she would upset you, but she had to say "no" when she realized she didn't want to go any further.	3.93 (1.02)	4.27 (1.15)
Diane intentionally said "no" when she meant "yes."	1.93 (0.93) _a	1.41 (0.64) _b
Diane was serious about you and didn't want casual sex to mess up the relationship.	4.02 (0.88)	4.14 (0.98)

Note. Individual items with different subscripts differ significantly at $p < .05$.

^aRatings were recoded on a scale from 1 = "very unlikely" to 5 = "very likely."

Appendix F cont.

Table 7

Factor Structure of Adjectives Describing Diane

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
	Competence	Meekness	Sexual interest
Aggressive/submissive	0.22	-0.48	0.16
Sociable/withdrawn	0.42	0.11	0.16
Strong/weak	0.58	-0.07	-0.16
Incompetent/capable	-0.44	-0.25	0.26
Sensitive/indifferent	0.40	0.39	-0.14
Experienced/naive	0.52	-0.20	-0.02
Unpleasant/likeable	-0.38	-0.17	-0.12
Rational/emotional	0.40	0.21	-0.14
Flirtatious/frigid	0.00	-0.46	0.60
Sincere/insincere	0.48	0.36	0.13
Shy/bold	-0.33	0.38	0.26
Teasing/sexually direct	-0.58	-0.14	0.26
Warm/cold	0.50	0.28	0.41
Subtle/obvious	-0.10	0.34	0.40
Popular/unpopular	0.37	-0.14	0.49
Independent/dependent	0.40	-0.13	0.03
Submissive/dominant	-0.28	0.33	0.57
Passive/active	-0.55	0.39	0.33
Stubborn/meek	0.09	-0.50	0.04
Persistent/fickle	0.41	-0.09	-0.02
Self-confident/insecure	0.67	0.06	-0.11

--- Table 7 continued on next page ---

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Item	Competence	Meekness	Sexual interest
Gullible/skeptical	-0.39	-0.08	0.24
Prudish/promiscuous	-0.04	0.48	0.30
Aroused/turned-off	0.37	-0.17	0.62
Responsible/ irresponsible	0.55	0.40	0.00
Adventuresome/cautious	0.00	-0.46	0.08
Attractive/plain	0.31	0.10	0.46
Distant/alluring	-0.36	0.09	-0.02
Sexual/celibate	0.35	-0.43	0.37

Appendix F cont.

Table 8

Mean Perceptual Ratings of Diane by Sexually Aggressive (n = 44) and Sexually Nonaggressive (n = 49) Men

Item	Sexually aggressive Mean (<u>SD</u>)	Sexually nonaggressive Mean (<u>SD</u>)
Aggressive/submissive	4.20 (1.00) _a	4.76 (1.11) _b
Sociable/withdrawn	2.82 (1.08)	2.61 (1.15)
Strong/weak	3.05 (1.28)	2.84 (1.34)
Incompetent/capable	5.41 (1.04) _a	5.92 (1.08) _b
Sensitive/indifferent	2.82 (1.13) _a	2.37 (0.95) _b
Experienced/naive	3.82 (1.39)	3.61 (1.19)
Unpleasant/likeable	5.64 (1.12)	5.57 (1.14)
Rational/emotional	3.55 (1.68)	3.27 (1.66)
Flirtatious/frigid	3.16 (1.33)	3.53 (1.14)
Sincere/insincere	2.70 (1.27)	2.27 (1.00)
Shy/bold	4.00 (1.41)	4.43 (1.44)
Teasing/sexually direct	3.98 (1.70) _a	4.88 (1.36) _b
Warm/cold	2.66 (0.96)	2.71 (0.98)
Subtle/obvious	3.98 (1.50)	3.98 (1.35)
Popular/unpopular	3.16 (1.12)	3.22 (1.18)
Independent/dependent	3.48 (1.56) _a	2.86 (1.32) _b
Submissive/dominant	3.80 (1.41)	3.78 (1.19)
Passive/active	4.45 (1.58)	4.47 (1.43)
Stubborn/meek	4.09 (1.38)	4.10 (1.03)
Persistent/fickle	4.02 (1.27)	3.86 (1.34)
Self-confident/insecure	3.25 (1.48)	2.86 (1.41)

--- Table 8 continues on next page ---

Item	Sexually aggressive Mean (<u>SD</u>)	Sexually nonaggressive Mean (<u>SD</u>)
Gullible/skeptical	4.73 (1.21)	4.63 (0.97)
Prudish/promiscuous	4.07 (1.23)	4.06 (1.03)
Aroused/turned-off	2.77 (1.36)	3.20 (1.15)
Responsible/irresponsible	2.41 (1.19) _a	1.88 (0.83) _b
Adventuresome/cautious	4.84 (1.63)	4.94 (1.39)
Attractive/plain	2.89 (1.30)	2.90 (1.07)
Distant/alluring	4.57 (1.34)	4.82 (0.91)
Sexual/celibate	3.50 (1.55)	3.41 (1.38)

Note. Individual items with different subscripts differ significantly at $p < .05$.

Appendix F cont.

Table 9

Individual Contribution of Variables Considered in Logistic Regression
Model

Variable	χ^2	p
Ethnicity	0.01	0.9299
Age	2.94	0.0865
College year	2.43	0.1192
Ward attitude scale	21.09	0.0001
Larsen & Long attitude scale	15.59	0.0001
Affect attitude scale	18.31	0.0001
Cognitive attitude scale	18.34	0.0001
Hedonistic sexual motivation	16.76	0.0001
Loving sexual motivation	3.84	0.0501
Conforming sexual motivation	11.08	0.0009
Manipulative intent	12.82	0.0003
Competent perceptual judgment	4.81	0.0283
Meek perceptual judgment	0.03	0.8719
Sexual interest perceptual judgment	0.81	0.3667
Interaction terms		
Ward attitude scale * accessibility	10.89	0.0010
Larsen & Long attitude scale * accessibility	9.04	0.0026
Affect attitude scale * accessibility	12.15	0.0005
Cognitive attitude scale * accessibility	8.94	0.0028
Hedonistic sexual motivation * accessibility	12.29	0.0005
Loving sexual motivation * accessibility	0.15	0.7007
Conforming sexual motivation * accessibility	10.47	0.0012

--- Table 9 continues on next page ---

Variable	χ^2	p
Manipulative intent * accessibility	10.56	0.0012
Competent perceptual judgment * accessibility	4.46	0.0344
Meek perceptual judgment * accessibility	1.99	0.1586
Sexual interest perceptual judgment * accessibility	1.07	0.3002

Appendix F cont.

Table 10

Odds Ratios and Confidence Intervals for Logistic Regression Model

Variable	Odds ratio	95% confidence limits	
		Lower	Upper
Affective*accessibility	1.004	1.002	1.006
Hedonism	1.173	1.068	1.228
Love*accessibility	0.995	0.992	0.998

Appendix F cont.

Table 11

Sensitivity and Specificity of Logistic Regression Model

Actual group membership	Predicted group membership		Percent correct
	Sexually nonaggressive	Sexually aggressive	
Sexually nonaggressive	32	12	72.7
Sexually aggressive	12	37	75.5

Appendix F cont.

Table 12

Correlations with Level of Sexual Aggression

Attitudinal/perceptual factors	Attitude accessibility		\bar{z}	p
	Low ($n = 84$)	High ($n = 85$)		
Attitudes Toward Rape Victims Scale	0.31	0.37	0.43	.334
General Attitudes Toward Rape Scale	0.25	0.36	0.78	.218
Affective attitude scale	0.29	0.34	0.35	.363
Cognitive attitude scale	0.29	0.35	0.42	.337
Hedonistic sexual motivation	0.31	0.21	-0.69	.245
Loving sexual motivation	-0.17	-0.15	-0.14	.444
Conforming sexual motivation	0.08	0.43	2.44	.007**
Perception of Diane's competency	-0.002	0.17	1.09	.138
Perception of Diane's meekness	0.07	-0.02	-0.32	.375
Perception of Diane's sexual interest	-0.07	-0.08	0.06	.476
Rating of Diane's level of manipulative intent	0.27	0.30	0.28	.390

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

Appendix F cont.

Table 13

Correlations with Level of Manipulative Intent

Attitudinal/perceptual factors	Attitude accessibility		Z	p
	Low ($n = 84$)	High ($n = 85$)		
Attitudes Toward Rape Victims Scale	0.43	0.60	1.50	.067*
General Attitudes Toward Rape Scale	0.42	0.64	1.99	.023**
Affective attitude scale	0.47	0.65	1.70	.045**
Cognitive attitude scale	0.39	0.58	1.61	.054*
Hedonistic sexual motivation	0.40	0.46	0.47	.319
Loving sexual motivation	0.0008	0.14	0.90	.184
Conforming sexual motivation	0.34	0.60	2.18	.015**
Perception of Diane's competency	0.30	0.42	0.89	.187
Perception of Diane's meekness	0.02	0.16	0.91	.181
Perception of Diane's sexual interest	0.11	-0.27	1.07	.142

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

Appendix F cont.

Table 14

Correlations with Accuracy of Dating Scenario Content

Attitudinal/perceptual factors	Attitude accessibility	
	Low (<u>n</u> = 84)	High (<u>n</u> = 85)
Attitudes Toward Rape Victims Scale	-0.05	-0.21
General Attitudes Toward Rape Scale	-0.05	-0.14
Affective attitude scale	-0.13	-0.13
Cognitive attitude scale	0.02	-0.20