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A Study Of The Relationship Between Male Sexual Victimization And Sexual Aggression Against Females

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> A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MALE SEXUAL VICTIMIZATION AND SEXUAL AGGRESSION AGAINST FEMALES

> > HENDRICKS

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A Study of the Relationship Between Male Sexual

Victimization and Sexual Aggression Against Females (TITLE)

BY

Mary E. Hendricks

THESIS

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

Masters of Arts in Psychology

IN THE GRADUATE SCHOOL, EASTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY CHARLESTON, ILLINOIS

1993 YEAR

I HEREBY RECOMMEND THIS THESIS BE ACCEPTED AS FULFILLING THIS PART OF THE GRADUATE DEGREE CITED ABOVE

DEPARTMENT HE

A Study of the Relationship Between Male Sexual Victimization and Sexual Aggression Against Females

Mary E. Hendricks

THESIS

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

Masters of Arts in Psychology

IN THE GRADUATE SCHOOL, EASTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY

CHARLESTON, ILLINOIS

December, 1993

running head: Male Sexual Assault

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The number of reported rape cases has increased dramatically in recent years, even though researchers recognize that the majority of actual sexual assaults are never reported (Koss, Gidycz, Wisniewski, 1987). The problem of unreported sexual assault on college campuses has been well documented (Koss, Gidycz, and Wisniewski, 1987; Malamuth, Sockloskie, Koss, and Tanaka, 1991; Peterson, and Franzese, 1987; Sanday, 1990). The standard formula for much of this research defines victims as female and perpetrators as male. Because females appear to be at a higher risk, they are subject to more attention, study, and analysis. This is unfortunate, because it reinforces a mistaken public impression that males are rarely abused. Males are also victims of sexual assault both as children (before age 14) and as adolescents and adults (post age 14) (Finkelhor, 1985, cited in Burgess, 1985; Lew, 1990; Lipscomb, Muram, Speck, and Mercer, 1992; Reinhardt, 1987). There is a paucity of research on the effects of sexual assault on male victims. The research that does exist tends to focus on the immediate and long range emotional impact of child sexual abuse (occurring before 14 years of age), and more specifically how females of that age are affected. There are only a few reported studies that specifically investigate the long-term effects of male sexual victimization. Furthermore, the relationship between the experience of being sexually abused as an adolescent and the

accompanying potential for sexual aggression as an adult is rarely studied. The information that mental health professionals have regarding this phenomenon comes largely from surveys conducted in prisons using incarcerated male offenders as subjects (Finkelhor 1986; Groth, 1979); data on nonincarcerated males are lacking (Lipscomb, Muram, Speck, and Mercer, 1992). The information obtained using surveys assessing sexual abuse usually registers the subjects' victimization. Typical surveys rarely ask males about both victimization and aggression despite the fact that many perpetrators of sexual assault have been sexually abused themselves (Bolton, Morris, MacEachron, 1989; Groth, 1979; Hunter, 1990). One important point is that not all victims become perpetrators; indeed, most men abused as boys do not (Bolton, Morris, MacEachron, 1989; Groth, 1979). The frequency of previous victimization associated with a shift to sexual aggression remains unmeasured and largely disregarded in the literature. It further has not been studied in college populations.

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Research Review

Within the past decade, research assessing the extent of sexual assault has been conducted on college and university campuses. College students are a high risk group for sexual assault (Koss, Gidycz, and Wisniewski, 1987). National statistics from the FBI report that 45% of all alleged rapists who are arrested are under age 25 (cited in Koss, Gidycz, and Wisniewski, 1987). Fifteen percent of college age men were found to have obtained sex without consent from their dates in a study conducted by Rapaport and Burkhart (1984). Koss and her colleagues found that approximately 25% of male college students had sexually aggressed against a female at some level and 54% of the females had been victimized at some level (1987). The FBI indicates that victimization rates for females are highest between the ages of 16 and 19 and the second highest between the ages of 20 and 24 (cited in Koss, Gidycz, and Wisniewski, 1987).

Most studies focus on females as the victims and males as perpetrators because females constitute virtually all reported sexual assault victims (Koss, Gidycz, Wisniewski, 1987); males are responsible for most of the perpetration as well (Bear and Dimock, 1988). DeFrancis (1969) found that males made up 97% of all perpetrators. In the survey conducted by Finkelhor, et al (1990), both men and women reported that most of their abuse was perpetrated

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by men.

The National Incidence Study (Finkelhor and Hotaling, 1984) found that 81% of child sexual abuse cases involved a male perpetrator only, 11% involved only a female perpetrator (95% of which were mothers or step-mothers). Nine percent involved both male and female perpetrators; however, Finkelhor and Hotaling (1984) argue that this is controversial because, in many cases, the female is identified as a perpetrator for knowing about the abuse and letting it occur, rather than being the primary abuser. For this reason, it can be estimated that males make up 81% to 90% of perpetrators of sexual assault.

It has been suggested by some researchers that some men who have committed sexually aggressive acts have been victims of sexual abuse or assault (Bolton, Morris, and MacEachron, 1989; Bruckner and Johnson, 1987; Engel, 1989; cited in Muster, 1992; Finkelhor, 1990; Groth, 1979; Muster, 1992; Straus, 1988; cited in Muster, 1992; Vander Mey, 1988). Previous sexual victimization in the lives of offenders is seldom studied. Most of the information regarding sexual victimization in the lives of offenders is gathered from incarcerated males. Lipscomb and colleagues (1992) assessed the rate and characteristics of sexual assault of males during incarceration at a county penal institution and compared them to a community sample of male victims from Memphis, Tennessee. They reviewed the records

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at the Memphis Sexual Assault Resource Center and found that 99 men (15 years or older) had been sexually victimized within the previous three year period. Eighty men were incarcerated at the time of their victimization and 19 of the men were victimized in the community. In the community sample, 16% of the men were younger than 18, 26% between the ages of 18 and 20, and the remaining men were older than 21. All of the assaults against the men were committed by a male except one man in the community assaulted by two women. Forty-seven percent reported having one assailant while 26% reported having three or more assailants. In only 31% of the cases was no weapon used. Eleven percent of the men reported they had been sexually victimized as an adult prior to the incidence reported here.

The men in this study were not asked if they had ever assaulted a female consequent to their victimization and it was not indicated if any of the men were incarcerated for sexual offenses. Prentky suggests that incarcerated male sex offenders have victimization histories far more than is realized by the public (cited in Bolton, Morris, MacEachron, 1989). In his study of over 500 known sex offenders Groth (1979), found that one-third of them had a history of sexual victimization prior to their incarceration. Forty-seven percent of those men indicated his assailant was a member of his family; closely related through friendship, neighborship, or teacher (33%); and a

stranger (12%). In 31% of the cases, the men were between the ages of 13 and 15 at the time of their victimization. Groth further found that in 23% of the cases, the victim and the offender were essentially the same age. The perpetrator was five to ten years older than the victim in 18% of the cases, 15 to 20 years older in 37% of the cases, and 30 years or older in 13% of the cases.

Studies assessing the incidence of sexual abuse indicate that the rate of reported victimization of males is increasing every year (Finkelhor, 1979; Finkelhor, Hotaling, Lewis, and Smith, 1990). In a study of college undergraduates in New England Finkelhor (1979), found that some type of childhood sexual abuse was reported by a great percentage of females but found 9% of males also reported having been victimized. Seventeen percent of those males were victimized by a family member, 53% by an acquaintance, and 30% by a stranger. The mean age of the males at the occurrence was 11.2 years; however, 32% of male victims were between 13 and 16 years of age.

Finkelhor, Hotaling, Lewis and Smith (1990) conducted a national study ten years later assessing the incidence of sexual victimization. Residents from the 50 states were asked four specific questions about their childhood relating to unwanted sexual contact, exhibition or pornography, oral sex or sodomy, and attempted or successful intercourse that appeared to them now as child sexual abuse. Results of the

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1,145 men sampled in the survey indicate that 16% of them were sexually victimized as a child. They were more likely abused by a stranger (40%) than a family member (11%); 13% were abused by a friend and 31% knew their assailant though he not related. The other five percent did not indicate their relationship to the perpetrator. Sixty-two percent of the men experienced actual or attempted intercourse, 83% indicated their assailant was a male, 15% reported some force was used. Other findings indicate that 73% of the men admitting to some form of victimization reported it occurred only once, while 8% reported it occurred over a period of one year or more. Seventy-three percent reported telling someone within a year while 26% reported never telling anyone. Finkelhor, et al. (1990) conducted analyses of the background variables of the victims and found an unhappy home life (35%) and living without one of their natural parents (21%) as specific risk factors that leave males at risk for sexual abuse. One report on child sexual abuse suggests that boys are more likely than girls to be abused by strangers, by more than one person, and possibly included in child sex rings (Grinspoon, July 1993).

The effects of child sexual abuse and/or assault can last a lifetime. Many researchers believe that the effects of child sexual abuse are related to the age of the victim, severity of any physical violence, chronic nature of the abuse, closeness of the relationship between perpetrator and

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victim, sex of the child, and whether the perpetrator was the same sex as the victim (Lew 1990). Finkelhor (1990) notes few differences in the manner in which boys differ compared with girls when dealing with their victimization. While females and males experience similar feelings in response to their victimization, they are likely to express those feelings in different ways. Initially, males tend to externalize or act out aggressively, engage in noncompliant or delinquent behavior, and have problems with peer relations while females internalize or hide their feelings inside, cry, or become depressed (Urquiza and Capra, 1990). Vander Mey (1988) indicates that the effects of sexual abuse can also leave males feeling ashamed and fearful their parents won't believe their story.

Long-term effects of sexual abuse are often studied retrospectively, examining how adults who were abused as children differ from those who were not abused (Briere and Runtz, 1988; cited in Wyatt and Powell, 1988). DePanfilis (cited in Vaupel, 1991) cites several long-term effects of sexual abuse common for both males and females including low self-esteem, isolation, phobias, substance abuse, depression, sexual difficulties and dysfunctions, suicide, and interpersonal disturbances. While males and females also have similar long-term effects, there are also differences. Females tend to set themselves up for revictimization, suffer through long periods of depression,

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and continue to be passive (Westerlund, 1983) while males suffer silently, often blaming themselves (Bruckner and Johnson, 1987; Vander Mey, 1988). Lew (1990) attributes differences in the effects suffered by males compared to those of females to gender differences in child rearing in our culture.

Our culture provides no viable place for men as victims. Men are expected to be able to protect themselves in any situation and recover from any crisis. Men often continue through adulthood minimizing their experience, exaggerating their efforts to reassert masculinity, externalizing their feelings through aggression, acting out compulsively through substance abuse, and suffering continued confusion about sexuality (Bradway, 1992; Finkelhor, 1990).

Sociocultural presses may help to explain why men do not seek help for their victimization. The male sex role includes avoiding feminine behavior; striving for power, status, and control; acting tough and unemotional; and being aggressive and taking risks (Davis and Brannon, 1976). Finkelhor (1985) suggests that males grow up with an ethic of self-reliance. Men are to be strong and masculine and when they are hurt, it is often difficult for them to seek help. Grinspoon describes how males can be affected by their victimization (1993):

"Boys are even less likely to admit their feelings

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about having been sexually or physically abused, and families are more likely to blame them or deny any serious effects. They may prefer to see themselves as bad rather than accept the status of victim. By turning their rage outward and attacking others, they make themselves feel powerful instead of helpless. Sexually abused boys may also be confused about sexual identity, especially if they have had the common physiological response of erection or ejaculation. Sometimes they show signs of fear and hatred of all homosexual men." p. 4

Our culture tends to place a stigma upon male victims as homosexual or unmasculine (Finkelhor, 1985; cited in Burgess, 1985). Hence, men feel unable to discuss their victimization with anyone and often receive inadequate attention when victimization occurs, possibly leading to their aggression against females.

Some writers in theorizing about male's sexual aggression against females propose an interactive theory. Some of them emphasize a developmental sequence with early experiences and personality characteristics serving as preconditions of sexual violence (Berkowitz 1992). The Quadripartite Model (Hall and Hirschman, 1991) proposes that sexual aggression is determined by a physiological sexual arousal, the cognitive appraisal of such arousal, affective states, and early experiences including physical and sexual

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abuse, parental divorce and/or neglect, and criminal history. Hall and Hirschman (1991) base this model on their theory that a man's sexual arousal only becomes inappropriate when it is expressed inappropriately such as through aggression. They argue that cognitions and affective states are situationally dependent and all men can be deterred from sexual aggression even if these factors are present, if they learn how to do so. Further, if men are taught that sexual aggression is acceptable they will not learn to control their behavior. Hence, positive early socialization experiences can inhibit sexual aggression (Marshall and Barbaree, 1984).

Ellis's Biosocial Theory of Rape (1991) incorporates four propositions. Ellis first hypothesizes that male's sexual aggression is determined by two drives; sex drive and a drive to possess and control any thing or person in his environment. Secondly, he argues that men are more likely to obtain sex by using different tactics, and through multiple sex partners while women refrain from sex until they know their partner will care for children in the event of pregnancy. Thirdly, he postulates that primary reinforcers (i.e. intercourse) motivate men to become sexually aggressive and they become persistent sexual aggressors through their initial experience especially when aggression is reinforced. Lastly, men with strong sex drives and low sensitivity toward punishment or another's

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suffering will be more prone to sexually aggress against women.

Malamuth, Sockloskie, Koss, and Tanaka (1991) propose a model that suggests individual childhood developmental factors, peer relationships, and cultural values and beliefs interact with a man's immediate environment and other situational/behavioral aspects to result in sexually aggressive behavior. They argue that hostile home environments lead a young man to become involved in delinquent peer systems, thus leading to coercion toward females to obtain sexual satisfaction.

These models all include early experiences and negative home environments as factors that lead a man to sexually aggress against a woman; however, there are few studies that closely investigate this particular phenomenon. None have focused on a more immediate connection of adolescent/adult victimization preconditioning sexual aggression. Men often feel their manhood is threatened and actively engage in behavior to reassert their masculinity by intimidating or controlling others through sexual means they have come to equate with power. By taking the role of the aggressor, they may feel they have overcome their own victimization at least temporarily. It is a more overt way of rejecting stigmatized victim roles. While realizing that not all perpetrators have been sexually victimized, it is conjectured here that previous victimization specifically

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contributes to the role of sexual aggressor for many male

The rates of male victimization are increasing every year. With this increase, comes more research on the effects of sexual victimization. Studies tend to focus on two things; early childhood victimization of boys and girls and adult female victims of sexual assault. Although men and women suffer similar effects of sexual assault, one effect of male victimization infrequently studied is how his own victimization can lead him to sexually aggress against females. Males continue to be identified as the most likely perpetrators of such acts while little research has been conducted with perpetrators to understand if and how previous victimization plays a role in his aggression. This study detected those males who were sexually victimized and then sexually aggressed against a female.

victims.

This investigation used data gathered in a previous survey (Lenihan, Rawlins, Eberly, and Masters, 1990) to test three hypotheses.

 Males who have been victimized as an adolescent/adult are more likely to assault females.

2. Males who are victimized as adolescents/adults have different family backgrounds than males who are not victimized.

3. Among males who assault females, there are differences in the characteristics of assault between offenders who were

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and offenders who were not previously victimized themselves.

Method

Survey

In November 1989, a sexual experiences survey was administered to the students on the campus of Eastern Illinois University. The survey was adapted from an established instrument that had been validated and utilized in a national survey conducted by Mary P. Koss (Koss, Gidycz, and Wisniewski, 1987). The survey registered responses to a range of behaviors from sexual contact and sexual coercion, to attempted rape and rape with items established by Koss and colleagues (1987). Women were asked about their victimization, if any, and the men were asked about their perpetration, if any, of these aggressive acts. Results of analyses of these two sections indicate specific relationships between the different acts of sexual aggression, the characteristics of each situation, and demographic variables of the victim and perpetrator (Lenihan, et al, 1990). Included in the male form of the survey was a section assessing the victimization of males at each of these levels. This particular data was specifically analyzed in this study.

Subjects

A sample of 1693 (664 men and 1029 women) undergraduate students responded to the survey. Respondents ranged in age from 17 to 25 and were from each of the four classes

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(Freshmen, Sophomores, Juniors, and Seniors). Subjects for this particular study included 595 men who admitted to or denied having attempted to rape or raped a woman (see Appendix A) and men who admitted to or denied having been sexually victimized in the above ways since the age of 14 (see Appendix B).

Procedure

In this study data was analyzed to illuminate the relationship between prior sexual victimization at the two highest levels of sexual aggression after the age of 14 and the perpetration of sexually aggressive acts against females after the age of 14. The survey does not assess psychological motivators for sexual assault; however, analysis of the sections in the men's survey assessing victimization revealed that some of the men who admitted to sexual aggression against women had their own history of sexual victimization as adolescents/adults. Results

Results of the analyses indicate that men who have been sexually victimized as an adult are more likely to assault females than men who have not been victimized. Several significant differences were seen in the personal characteristics of the victims-aggressors compared to nonvictims-aggressors. Further, the characteristics of assault reported by the perpetrators were not significantly different between the victims and nonvictims who admitted sexual aggression against females.

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Hypotheses 1 was tested using a 2 X 2 chi-square with victim and perpetrator as the categorical variables. Although 7% (N=34) of the men who were not victimized perpetrated against a woman, 59% (N=16) of the men who were victimized also assaulted a woman ($X^2(1) = 78.09$, p < .0001).

Insert Table 1 about here

The second hypotheses was tested using chi-square's to determine personal differences between the victims and nonvictims regardless of perpetrator status. In this sample of men, 5% (N=33) indicated they had been sexually victimized as an adult; there were few significant differences between victims and nonvictims. The vast majority, 89% (N=489), of the men who were not victimized were religious; however, 24% (N=8) of the men who were victims were not religious ($X^2(1) = 4.81$,

p <.05). Religiousness was defined as the identification with a particular religious preference. Victims were also less likely to be heterosexual than nonvictims ($X^2(1) =$ 11.28, p <.001). Ninety-two percent of the men (N=508) who were not victimized had never observed violence between their family members at home, while 24% (N=8) of the victims had observed violence at home ($x^2(1) = 9.14$,

p < .005). There is a nonsignificant trend (p < .09) for

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more victims to have personally experienced violence at home as well. No other differences between the victims and nonvictims were significant.

Insert Table 2 about here

Several nonsignificant differences are observed between victims and nonvictims. Victims tended to come from families earning an estimated annual income of \$60,000 or more a year and live in small towns. Victims experienced parental separation or divorce more often than nonvictims and were more likely to have a step-father or step-mother than did the men who weren't victims. Twenty-one percent (N=61) the men who denied any victimization as an adult acknowledged victimization as a child; whereas 35% (N=7) of the men who were victimized as an adult had also been victimized as a child.

Chi-square's were used to test differences between the reports of victims and nonvictims who assaulted a female. Hypotheses three which anticipated such differences was not supported. There were no significant differences on these variables. Perpetrators who were victims tended to equally assault a stranger or a romantic acquaintance while nonvictims were more likely to assault a stranger. Fourteen percent (N=2) of the nonvictims assaulted at the age of 14 or 15, while 26% (N=6) of the nonvictims assaulted at that

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age. Nonvictims were also more likely to have consumed alcohol (65%) than the victims (43%). Perpetrators who were victims threatened the use of force more than the nonvictims, but used a weapon less often than the nonvictims. In this sample of perpetrators, there were fewer victims who indicated feeling aggressive and scared, but more who felt proud than the men who were not victims. victims.

Discussion

Finkelhor (1986) suggests that between 3% and 9% of all adult American males have been victimized during their lives. In this sample of college students, five percent of males acknowledged sexual victimization as an adult. Three percent of those men who admitted their victimization had consequently sexually assaulted a woman. This finding that some men also assault women after their own victimization was expected. It is difficult to compare this finding with other statistics because there are so few studies that investigate this particular phenomenon. There are no prior studies that assess sexual victimization in the lives of noninstitutionalized or incarcerated males who admit to having sexually assaulted a female.

Most of the information gathered assessing the incidence of sexual victimization in the lives of men who sexually aggress against women come from incarcerated males or institutional settings such as treatment centers. It is

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unlikely that incarcerated males are representative of the general population of sexual aggressors because the majority of sexual offenses are never reported. Further, many men do not go to jail when the offense is reported to the authorities for a variety of reasons (Marshall and Barbaree, 1990). Recent research suggests that many men are engaging in sexually aggressive behaviors and are also being seen as normal (Marshall and Barbaree, 1990). It is important to understand why many men are behaving this way. Although it is important to understand the more internal or emotional effects of male victimization, the effect of becoming a sexual aggressor in an essentially "normal" population such as males in higher education is rarely investigated. Surveys, such as the one used in this study, can track more males who are victims of sexual assault as well as perpetrators of sexual assault.

This study found that sexual victimization was related to the likelihood of college men inflicting sexual aggression upon women. Findings further indicated that observing violence in the home contributed to the propensity to engage in sexually aggressive behaviors significantly more than personally experienced physical abuse. Other studies have found that perpetrators often have histories of physically abusive family members (Finkelhor, 1990; Grinspoon, 1993; Groth, 1979; Hunter, 1990; Marshall and Barbaree, 1990). Marshall and Barbaree (1990) argue that

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poor socialization occurs when boys grow up in this type of home developing men who are merely concerned with their own wants and needs and will use aggression to meet those needs.

Victims were not significantly different from nonvictims on family income, type of community they lived in, whether they experienced their parents separation or divorce, and whether they lived without one of their natural parents. Males are more at risk for victimization when they came from a broken home and lived without one of their natural parents (Finkelhor, 1990).

Victims were also less religious than the men who were not victims. It can not be determined from the nature of the question if these men were religious before their victimization or if they dropped their religious affiliation after they were victimized. Hunter (1990) describes victims as feeling burdened by their anger and believing that God somehow let this happen to them. They tend to invoke a belief that they have no use for God or spirituality. If the victims who are not religious also comprise the perpetrators in this study, then religious practice is not a powerful inhibitor to sexual aggression. Malamuth (1986) suggests that if religion is a powerful factor that could prevent a man from engaging in sexual activities, he might not be sexually aggressive even if his proclivity to sexually assault is high.

Two victims who did not perpetrate against a female

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reported a homosexual or bisexual lifestyle. Hunter (1990) argues that boys often become confused about their sexual orientation after their victimization. After treating many male victims of sexual assault, he concluded that when homosexual boys are victimized by adult males they may view their victimization as an experience that only brought out their homosexuality rather than seeing it as an aversive experience. Without personal accounts of their experience, explaining why these men did not perpetrate against women can only be conjectured here. All victims who became perpetrators reported a heterosexual lifestyle. Because of the nature of the survey, it also can not be determined if any of these men sexually aggressed against a male since their victimization.

It is already established that women are victims more often than men while men are more often the perpetrators of sexual assault. It is not valid to say that girls may react to their victimization in more appropriate ways than boys or that they have fewer problems than boys as a result of their assault or abuse. The manner in which girls express their feelings may be more effective in eliciting a response from others and support may be more easily obtained. This explains why there are fewer women who become abusers than men. Further women tend to engage in relationships that are abusive either sexually or physically and they also tend to receive the help needed to deal effectively with their

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victimization. When programs addressing issues of sexual assault on college campuses consistently focus on the female role as the victim and the male role of perpetrator in sexual aggression, rape myths and societal beliefs about male victimization are reinforced. Society has learned to sympathize with female victims but to shun male victims. Males are taught that it must have been their fault to some degree; this is the ultimate fear of males in disclosing their victimization. When men do not receive the attention they need and help with their victimization, it is possible they externalize their anger and act out against others.

One interesting finding is that 23% (N=6) of the men who admitted their own victimization, indicated his assailant was a woman. Comparisons of men who were victimized by men with men who were victimized by women were not made in this study; however, future research to determine if men who were victimized by men become perpetrators more often than men who were victimized by women is clearly recommended.

As a result of the difficulty males have in expressing their victimization and the anger that male victims feel, it would be expected that there would be differences between the victims' and nonvictims' reports of their assault against a female. It was expected that men who had been victimized would be motivated by their desire for power and control over women, hence, feel less regretful and

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remorseful for their assault than the nonvictims. This expectation was not supported. Men who were victims tended to view their assault against a woman in much the same way as the men who weren't victims. There were more men in each group who indicated they were not aggressive, scared, and proud. Groth (1979) found while interviewing some perpetrators who were vicitms that some victims were remorseful for their acts while others spoke of their assaults against women in a rather unaffected manner.

Many of the perpetrators were likely under the influence of alcohol, drugs, or both at the time of their assault against a woman; however, alcohol was used more frequently by the nonvictims-aggressors. Since alcohol decreases a person's inhibitions and increases aggression (Rada, 1975), it was expected that many of these men would be under the influence of alcohol, hence the finding that more nonvictims used alcohol than victims is an unexpected one. Substance abuse or dependence is a common means of dealing with sexual victimization and would be expected to occur in more victims-aggressors (Depanfilis, 1991; Hunter, 1990).

Victims-aggressors threatened the female more often than did the nonvictims-aggressors, but did not use a weapon any more frequently than nonvictims. Perpetrators who had been victimized were somewhat different from perpetrators who had not been victimized in that they hit, choked or beat

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the woman more often. This difference was not significant here, but physical aggression during sexual assault is cited in a study by Koss and Oros (1980). They found that 3% of males reported using physical force in order to obtain sex from a female. This doesn't agree with another study that found men do not use force. Rapaport and Burkhart (1984) found that men were more likely to ignore the victims protests rather than using physical force to get compliance. Because few differences were found between the reports of victims-aggressors and nonvictims-aggressors assaults of females, it can be construed that both groups of men behave similarly during their assault of women.

Recommendations

Many males who have been victimized believe they do not have anywhere to turn for help; Society has allowed men to feel this way. More treatment programs for men who are victims are needed in the community and on college campuses. Further information regarding male sexual victimization in the community and especially in college populations is needed. Prevention programs for men need to be more accessible on all college campuses. Despite the fact that men have a difficult time disclosing their victimization, men can be shown where to receive help. Many college campuses have counseling services available to all students and men can use these services usually for free. As part of prevention programs aimed at steering men away from

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sexual assault, issues of previous victimization should be addressed. It needs to be addressed if men are to understand the implications of their own victimization. Although there are many causes of sexual assault and the causes incorporate a wide range of experiences, attitudes, and beliefs among men, societal attitudes need to change so that men can feel more comfortable disclosing their victimization.

College students are convenient subjects because they are easily accessible. More surveys need to address the issue of sexual victimization in the lives of college men who admit to having perpetrated against a woman. Male rape of other males is also not addressed as often as it should be and this is another topic that should be addressed on college campuses and assessed as thoroughly as male rape of females.

Surveys such as this one should encorporate more subjects from many univeristies and colleges. With more subjects, it is likely that more information can be gathered and validity given to the results. With few subjects and few responses to questions, definitive statements can not be made. Unfortunately, studies that assess male victimization in the community suffer from small samples which would not be the case if more men felt they could seek help without being ridiculed.

Appendix A

Questions pertaining to attempted rape.

1. Have you attempted sexual intercourse (got on top of her, attempted to insert penis) with a woman when she didn't want it by threatening or using some degree of physical force (twisting her arm, holding her down, etc.) but intercourse did not occur? (From age 14 on?)

2. Have you attempted sexual intercourse (got on top of her, attempted to insert penis) with a woman when she didn't want it by giving her alcohol or drugs, but intercourse did not occur? (From age 14 on?)

Questions pertaining to rape.

 Have you engaged in sexual intercourse with a woman when she didn't want to by giving her alcohol or drugs? (From age 14 on)

2. Have you engaged in sexual intercourse with a woman when she didn't want to by using some degree of physical force (twisting her arm, holding her down, etc.)? (From age 14 on).
3. Have you engaged in sexual acts (anal or oral intercourse or penetration by objects other than the penis) with a woman when she didn't want to by using some degree of physical force (twisting her arm, holding her down, etc.)? (From age 14 on).

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Appendix B

Questions pertaining to attempted rape.

1. Have you had anyone attempt sexual intercourse (attempt to insert a penis) when you didn't want to by threatening or using some degree of physical force (twisting your arm, holding you down, etc.) but intercourse did not occur? (From age 14 on)

2. Have you had anyone attempt sexual intercourse (attempt to insert a penis) with you by giving you alcohol or drugs, but intercourse did not occur? (from age 14 on)

Questions pertaining to rape.

 Have you had sexual intercourse when you didn't want to because someone gave you alcohol or drugs? (From age 14 on)
 Have you had sex when you didn't want to because the person threatened or used some degree of physical force (twisting your arm, holding you down, etc.)? (From age 14 on)

3. Have you had sexual acts (oral intercourse or penetration by objects other than the penis) when you didn't want to because the person threatened or used some degree of physical force (twisting your arm, holding you down, etc.)? (From age 14 on)

Table 1

Background Variables By Victimization Status

(a)

Religion**

	Yes	No
Victim	25 (76%)	8 (24%)
Nonvictim	489 (89%)	63 (11%)

(b)

Sexual Orientation**

	Heterosexual	Homosexual/Bisexual
Victim	31 (94%)	2 (6%)
Nonvictim	553 (99.5%)	3 (0.5%)

(c)

Violence of Others Witnessed**

	Never	Some
Victim	25 (76%)	8 (24%)
Nonvictim	508 (92%)	47 (8%)

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(đ)

Violence Against Him*

	Never	Some	Much
Victim	18 (56%)	11 (34%)	3 (9%)
Nonvictim	394 (70%)	149 (27%)	18 (3%)

(e)

Family Income

	Up to 41,999	42,000 to 59,999	60,000 & Over
Victim	9 (27%)	5 (15%)	19 (58%)
Nonvictim	180 (35%)	117 (23%)	218 (42%)

(f)

Community Type

	Rural, Farm	Small Town	Suburban	Central City
Victim	3 (9.7%)	12 (38.7%)	8 (25.8%)	8 (25.8)
Nonvictim	70 (12.8%)	174 (31.9%)	221 (40.6%)	80 (14.7%)

(g)

Parental Separation/Divorce

	Yes	No
Victim	27 (82%)	6 (18%)
Nonvictim	427 (76%)	135 (24%)

(h)

Step-Parent

	No	Step-Father	Step-Mother
Victim	22 (67%)	9 (27%)	2 (6%)
Nonvictim	432 (80%)	81 (15%)	28 (5%)

(i)

Child Sexual Victimization

	Yes	No
Victim	13 (65%)	7 (35%)
Nonvictim	229 (79%)	61 (21%)

* p < .10

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Table 2

Characteristics of Assault Between

Victims and Nonvictims

(a)

Relationship to the Woman

	Stranger	Casual	Rom. Acq.
Victim	4 (31%)	6 (46%)	3 (23%)
Nonvictim	13 (52%)	4 (16%)	8 (32%)

(b)

Age first Perpetrated

	14-15	16-17	18-19	20+
Victim	2 (14%)	6 (43%)	2 (14%)	4 (29%)
Nonvictim	6 (26%)	9 (39%)	5 (22%)	3 (13%)

(c)

Use of Intoxicants

	Alcohol	Drugs	Both	None
Victim	6 (43%)	4 (29%)	3 (21%)	1 (7%)
Nonvictim	15 (65%)	2 (9%)	3 (13%)	3 (13%)

(d)

Use of Force

	Twist Arm/Hold	Hit	Choke/Beat	Weapon
Victim	1 (8%)	2 (17%)	3 (23%)	2 (18%)
Nonvictim	4 (18%)	2 (11%)	4 (18%)	4 (19%)

(e)

How Aggressive

	Not at a	11 A	little
Victim	6 (67%	3) 3	(33%)
Nonvictim	9 (53%) 8	(47%)

(f)

	How Scared		
	Not at all	A little	
Victim	8 (89%)	1 (11%)	
Nonvictim	14 (88%)	2 (12%)	

(g)

	How Proud		
	Not at all	A little	
Victim	6 (54.5%)	5 (45.5)	
Nonvictim	11 (69%)	5 (31%)	

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