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Power and consent: Relation to self-reported sexual assault and acquaintance rape

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POWER AND CONSENT: RELATION TO SELF-REPORTED SEXUAL ASSAULT
AND ACQUAINTANCE RAPE

BY

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DISSERTATION

Submitted to the University of New Hampshire

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the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

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To my family, the close ones, the far ones, and the newly returned ones. And especially to my Poppop, Jack Pessin, who I know helped guide me through the past few years.

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ABSTRACT

POWER AND CONSENT: RELATION TO SELF-REPORTED SEXUAL ASSAULT AND ACQUAINTANCE RAPE

by

Tracey A. Martin

University of New Hampshire, May, 2003

College students think about and act differently with regards to power and consent in their relationships. The purpose of this study was to investigate how those attitudes and behaviors may relate to sexual assault and acquaintance rape. Power was examined at the intrapersonal, interpersonal, and socio-cultural levels. In addition, two perspectives on power were studied: power as dominating others and power as a sense of personal empowerment or control. A scale to measure this distinction was created.

Three theories on the relation among power, consent, and sexual assault/rape were examined: 1) consent may moderate a relation between power and sexual assault/rape, 2) power and consent may exert individual effects on sexual assault/rape, and 3) power alone may have the most significant effects on sexual assault/rape. Generally, it was expected that participants who thought of power mainly as dominating others would be less concerned about consent in their relationships and more likely to report that they had or would sexually assault or rape. Two hundred seventy-six students (101 males, 175 females) provided information about their attitudes and behaviors

involving power and consent, as well as information about sexual assault and rape proclivities and frequencies of self-reported sexual assault and rape perpetration and victimization.

Results suggested that individual perspectives on power (the intrapersonal level) may have the most relevance to sexual assault/rape behaviors. Participants whose thoughts and feelings about power were strongly oriented toward dominance but not toward personal empowerment were more likely to report having engaged in sexual assault/rape perpetration. Contrary to what was expected, consent did not appear to be related to either power or sexual assault/rape. Several theories for the lack of significance relating to consent and other forms of power are discussed. Findings suggest that more research should be done on the distinction between power as dominance and power as personal empowerment, particularly as this distinction pertains to sexual assault, acquaintance rape, and other forms of interpersonal violence.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The prevalence and seriousness of acquaintance rape has become well-known and acknowledged in the United States over the past couple of decades (Russell & Bolen, 2000; Warshaw, 1988). Consent has recently been identified as a variable of potentially great importance in understanding acquaintance rape (e.g. Abbey, 1991; Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999), but consent alone may not be enough to understand the problem. The purpose of this study is to uncover a possible reason for acquaintance rape by examining consent from the perspective of interpersonal power.

Acquaintance rape, sometimes referred to as date rape, is a serious concern in our culture. Statistics suggest that 18% of women in the United States have been or will be raped at some point (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). Contrary to popular beliefs about rape, 75 to 84 percent of rapes are not committed by strangers but by someone whom the victim knew. (Greenfield, 1997; Koss, 1988).

According to the Bureau of Justice Statistics, women between the ages of 16-24 are more likely to be raped than any other age group (Greenfield, 1997). College students are one of the most at-risk populations (Reilly, Lott, Caldwell, & DeLuca, 1992). Studies have found that about 15-34 percent of college women have reported being raped (e.g. Finely & Corty, 1993; Koss, 1988; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987; Muehlenhard & Linton, 1987).

In the past, research on rapists focused on uncovering psychopathology. It was assumed that men who rape must be psychologically abnormal. There is good reason, however, to believe that this is not the case (Marolla & Scully, 1986). Sanday (1981b) was able to classify 95 tribal cultures as either rape-free or rape-prone, suggesting that while in some cultures rape is unusual, in other cultures it is quite common. Sanday's study also casts doubt on the idea that rape is universal, and that rape is the product of a psychological abnormality that could exist anywhere. Further evidence for the "normality" of rape comes from college men in the United States. Several studies at a variety of universities, from public institutions to private religious schools, have consistently discovered that one-third of college men indicate that they would consider having sex with a woman against her will if they knew they would not be punished (e.g. Malamuth, 1981; Osland, Fitch, & Willis, 1996; Reilly, et al., 1992). Approximately 56 percent of college men self-report using coercive strategies to obtain sex or initiating unwanted sexual activity (Muehlenhard & Linton, 1987; Poppen & Segal, 1988).

Given such high percentages, it must be assumed that there is something "normal" about rape and sexually coercive behavior in this culture, and that there is some mechanism in place that allows for men to think that such behavior is acceptable. Some have suggested that rape and the acceptability of rape is simply one of the many behaviors that is learned through interactions with others (see Lottes, 1988 for review). Compatible with such a suggestion is a line of research which poses the theory that men are often unaware that their behavior is unwanted by women (e.g. Abbey, 1991). Consequently, rape and sexual assault may arise because men and women misjudge each other's

intentions and behaviors.

Communicating Intent and Consent

Abbey (1982) reported that men view their interactions with women much more sexually than women view those same interactions. During a friendly conversation, men viewed females as more promiscuous and more seductive than women did. Men also reported being more sexually attracted to their opposite sex conversation partners and more interested in dating them than women did. Similar results have been found by Abbey and Melby (1986), Muehlenhard (1988), and more recently by Kowalski (1992, 1993) and Shotland and Goodstein (1992).

It would appear that men have a lower threshold for perceiving sexual interest (Kowalski, 1992). In scenarios in which a female target's nonverbal behavior indicated little or no interest in sex, men, relative to women, still perceived that the female target expressed a greater interest in sex, was more flirtatious, and more promiscuous. However, when the female target's behavior clearly indicated sexual interest, men and women agreed in their judgments.

Gender differences in judgments about sexual interest apply directly to dating situations (Kowalski, 1993). Again, men and women tend to agree in their perceptions of sexual interest when they are judging romantic and sexual behaviors. Discrepancies arise when the behaviors are more mundane (e.g. having dinner together, smiling, dancing, or giving compliments). Men, especially men with more traditional sexual attitudes, are more likely to infer sexual interest from mundane dating behaviors than are women.

In a study of actual occurrences of sexual assault in dating situations,

Muehlenhard and Linton (1987) found that on dates where sexual assault occurred, women and men both said the man had felt led on during the date. Men in the study reported that they were not sure whether this was intentional. In contrast, women almost always said that it was unintentional, implying that their dates had misinterpreted their behavior.

Abbey (1987) also surveyed college students about their experiences with misperceived sexual interest. She found that women were more likely to say that their friendliness was misperceived than men were. But perhaps most importantly, men and women differed in their feelings about the misperception. Men were more likely to suggest that being misperceived was flattering, whereas women tended to find the experience offensive. One potential implication of such a finding is that men might therefore believe a woman would be flattered when they misjudge her behavior. This belief could possibly increase the likelihood that men will risk acting on their perceptions to the point where sexual assault occurs.

Given the ways in which men and women differ in their judgments about sexual intent and behavior, some researchers have suggested that rape intervention programs should focus on teaching men and women about their different perceptions and expectations about sex (Proite, Dannells, & Benton, 1993). Indeed, Abbey (1991) suggested that gender differences in judgments of sexual willingness may be, at least in part, responsible for acquaintance rape.

Only recently have researchers begun to test Abbey's (1991) assertion that gender differences in judgments of social situations extend to judgments of consent. Consent

refers to the verbal or non-verbal (physical or mental) agreement to have intercourse (Muehlenhard, Powch, Phelps, & Giusti, 1992).

Muehlenhard and McCoy (1991) touched on the issue of consent in a study of sexual scripts. They found that many women, in varying situations, believe it is advantageous to refuse sexual intercourse even when they actually desire it. Women and men in these situations often end up engaging in intercourse when consent was never actually given. As long as the women truly desired intercourse, the situation was not rape. But if men are encouraged to believe this script (women refuse even when they want intercourse), they may end up in a situation in which their partner actually does not want intercourse, possibly leading to rape. Muehlenhard and McCoy point out that this script is encouraged in our culture because of the sexual double standard which teaches that sex is desirable for men but not for women, and that nice women refuse intercourse. This mandatory sexual script for women is so strong that after a woman has engaged in intercourse several times, the legitimacy of her subsequent refusals is reduced. Despite her refusals, both men and women perceive a sexually experienced woman as more willing to have sex again compared to a woman who has not had intercourse (Shotland & Goodstein, 1992).

Related to the social pressures imposed on men and women to follow sexual scripts is the pressure for couples to follow an appropriate intimacy script, which determines when in a relationship sexual intercourse is expected (Duck, 1988).

Christopher and Cate (1985) reported that men more often claim to have intercourse for the first time in a relationship because of peer pressure, while women claim it is because

they want to personally or because the level of communication in the relationship is good. According to Duck (1988), men and women, instead of just following their feelings, compare their behavior to what they perceive as the social norms. But because social norms relating to sexuality are different for men and women, the pressure to follow the norms could potentially lead to an increased risk of acquaintance rape. These norms are very similar to the ones detailed by the previously identified sexual scripts. Specifically, men are expected to push for intercourse early in a relationship, and women are expected to want intercourse only when the relationship has reached a point of sufficient intimacy. Thus, the pressure to follow relationship norms may lead to an increased risk of rape in similar ways as does following the traditional sexual scripts.

Very few studies have specifically addressed gender differences in judgments of consent, and unfortunately, among those that have, results have been inconclusive. Sawyer, Pinciaro, and Jessell (1998) gave college students vignettes describing situations with clear verbal consent or nonconsent, no conversations at all, or ambiguous communication. When consent/nonconsent was clearly verbalized, men and women agreed whether a rape occurred. Women, however, were much more likely to say that a rape occurred when the situation was ambiguous. Other studies have found no gender differences in regards to judgments of consent or rape (Lim & Roloff, 1999). Lim and Roloff (1999) did find though that women, more than men, perceived greater coercion in the scenarios in which consent was nonverbal. Finally, Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999) asked participants to rate how indicative of sexual consent were a variety of direct and indirect signals that they or their dating partner might use. Men and women reported

interpreting signals in similar ways, but men reported that they implied a greater amount of consent when they used a given signal than women did. Further, men tended to believe that women were indicating more consent with various signals than women actually intended to give. Although gender differences were discovered, they were small enough that the authors concluded that miscommunication about consent is probably not a contributing factor to acquaintance rape.

One consistent finding in the literature is that only verbal statements of consent and nonconsent are unambiguous. Men and women clearly acknowledge that no means 'no' and yes means 'yes,' but it is not quite so clear what other cues are believed to mean 'yes.' Most men and women report giving consent nonverbally (Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999), which means that ambiguous communication about consent is the norm. Based on how important judgments of consent in ambiguous situations are, along with the evidence that men and women do misperceive each other's sexual intentions (e.g. Kowalski, 1992), it seems hasty to simply dismiss consent as an unimportant variable in acquaintance rape.

In trying to understand the potential causes of acquaintance rape, however, it is problematic to accept consent as it has been previously discussed. Though it may be a useful variable to understand, there are several relevant concerns about consent that also need to be addressed.

Donat and White (2000) raise several of these concerns. They point out there are many factors that may influence whether consent is given. For instance, a woman may not know that expressing nonconsent is an option, or shock and fear may so disable a

person that refusal is impossible. In such instances, consent or nonconsent is out of a person's control. Miscommunicating about consent therefore presumes equality in the relationship, for without equality, there may be factors that impede one's ability to give or refuse consent (Donat & White, 2000). Others (e.g. MacKinnon, 1983) have suggested that consent is a communication that always exists under conditions of inequality. The result of such communication is ambiguous at best: it is something between what one partner truly wants and what the other partner interprets those wants to be.

Consent also carries the connotation of being passive (Donat & White, 2000). It implies an expression of agreement or disagreement with another's action, where the other is active and an initiator and the partner or potential victim merely follows the other's lead. Such an implication reframes the concept of consent in terms of a power relationship. One person has the power to initiate activity. The other has (or does not have) the power to consent or not consent, but clearly the other does not have the power to initiate (Browning, Kessler, Hatfield, & Choo, 1999 provide some empirical support for this assumption).

Finally, the question needs to be raised why certain men may misunderstand or ignore refusals. Warshaw (1994) reported that even when victims fight back, their actions may be interpreted as showing consent. These circumstances seemingly could not be defined as ambiguous. How and why such direct refusals could be interpreted as consent is an issue that demands an explanation.

There is some reason to believe that male sexual socialization could account for a lack of understanding about consent (Lottes, 1988). In her review, Lottes cites a wealth

of examples of how men are taught to be sexual initiators, capable of overcoming a woman's resistance and are given permission to enjoy their sexuality. Women, in contrast, are socialized to an opposite ideal, which may potentially lead to tension or conflict in relationships.

Related to but not explicitly discussed in Lottes (1988), is how the socialization of males and females leads to different sexual scripts that men and women are supposed to follow. Specifically, men are supposed to initiate sex, and women are supposed to refuse even if they would like sex (Muehlenhard & McCoy, 1991). The sanctions against men and women who fail to follow these scripts, though lessening, may still be severe. The potential damage done by following or believing in the sexual scripts may be worse.

In cases where women reported that they wanted sex but had followed their allotted script and had actually refused at the time, 36 percent also reported that intercourse eventually took place. In half of those cases, consent was never given (Muehlenhard & McCoy, 1991). Although those cases were not rape because the woman desired intercourse (even though she did not show it), such situations might lead men to assume that all such refusals are not genuine. The next time a refusal may be in earnest, and if the man ignores the refusal, rape would be the result. Thus, not only are men socialized to push for sex, but the same culture that pressures women to refuse further harms women by teaching men that a woman's refusal should not be believed. A man that accepts this view of male-female relationships may simply assume that any expression of nonconsent is not genuine, even if the refusal is forcefully given. Sexual scripts additionally dilute a woman's control in the relationship by removing from her

power the ability to consent or not consent.

Another such variable that might influence the impact of consent or nonconsent is the acceptance of rape myths. Rape myths were first discussed by Burt (1980) as “prejudicial, stereotyped, or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists” (p. 217). More recently they have been redefined as “attitudes and beliefs that are generally false but are widely and persistently held, and that serve to deny and justify male sexual aggression against women” (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994, p. 134). For example, two common rape myths are that many women falsely accuse men of rape and that only women in minority groups or with “bad” reputations get raped. Neither of these myths are supported by empirical studies, but they probably serve to protect society and individuals from the seriousness and pervasiveness of rape (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994).

Other rape myths are more explicit in their denial of potential male culpability. Men (and women) may be led to believe that a situation is not rape if there was no weapon used or if a woman went to a man’s apartment on a first date (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). In fact, the combination of believing many mundane behaviors to be indicative of giving consent (such as going to a man’s apartment), and the belief that such a situation cannot lead to rape, clearly sets up a potential rape situation.

There is strong support for a relation between rape myth acceptance and rape. Among men, a stronger belief in rape myths has been found to be related to self-reported propensity to rape (Koss, Leonard, Beezly, & Oros, 1985; Osland, et al., 1996), the likelihood of using sexual force (Briere & Malamuth, 1983), and stronger feelings of

justification for using violence against women (Osland, et al., 1996). Additionally, Muehlenhard and Linton (1987), in a study of actual dating situations, found that men who had sexually assaulted a dating partner were more accepting of rape myths. Rape myth acceptance is not necessarily a stable variable. Acceptance can be lowered by attending rape workshops, but even despite such interventions men still tend more strongly to believe in rape myths than women (Hinck & Thomas, 1999).

Sexual scripts and rape myths are separate but related concepts, and as such it is possible that they could be explained by another, broader concept: namely, power. Muehlenhard and Linton (1987) suggested a power differential as one possible influence on dates where sexual assault occurred. Power is also a recurring theme in the critiques of consent previously mentioned (e.g. Donat & White, 2000). There is a wide and varying literature on the role of power in relationships, yet little, if anything, empirical on whether a relation between power and consent exists. Power, particularly interpersonal power because rape by its nature is a crime which directly involves two or more people, is therefore a variable whose connection to consent and acquaintance rape requires further consideration.

Power

“If I were actually desperate enough to rape somebody, it would be from wanting the person, but it would also be a very spiteful thing just being able to say, ‘I have power over you and I can do anything I want with you’...” (Beneke, 1982, p.21).

Though on the surface a seemingly obvious concept, power presents many challenges to those wishing to study it. As Griscom (1992) points out, there is no

consistent tradition in studies of power, and in fact little consensus on definition. Two of the best known theories of power, French and Raven's (1959) bases for social power and power motivation (e.g. Winter, 1973), consider power quite differently. The former is an examination of power as an interpersonal process; the latter defines power as an intrapersonal force. Perhaps the most common assumption about power, regardless of how it has been defined, is that power allows one individual to influence another individual in some way (e.g. French & Raven, 1959; Winter, 1973).

Recently, several critiques of traditional power studies have been raised by feminist psychologists. Two of these critiques are worth mentioning. The first concerns a dualistic distinction between individuals and society, and the second concerns a focus on the domination/control aspect of power versus a focus on empowerment.

Griscom (1992) argues that there is a tendency in psychological studies of power to separate the individual from society. While many studies of power acknowledge that power comes in different forms, there has been little research that specifically addresses the interaction between individual and societal power. With regards to power research, a person-society split is particularly disturbing because it is quite likely that societal power has great influence on individual and interpersonal power. This point underscores the need to examine multiple levels of power in trying to understand consent and acquaintance rape. Interpersonal power is only one of many pieces of the issue, and in examining interpersonal power it is necessary to keep in mind the ways in which individual and societal power may contribute.

The second critique is the distinction made between "power over" (domination,

control) and “power to” (personal empowerment) (Yoder & Kahn, 1992). Most research on power has traditionally focused on dominance, but empowerment, which has to do with controlling one’s self, might add an additional perspective to the literature on consent. For example, do feelings of empowerment about one’s ability to give or refuse consent prevent an individual from feeling the loss of power associated with traditional sexual scripts? Could feelings of empowerment help prevent someone from being victimized?

Power can be roughly organized into three components: its bases, the process by which power is wielded, and its outcomes (Olson & Cromwell, 1975). The following section attempts to summarize the effects of power in these different forms, especially as it pertains to information that may have a bearing on consent and acquaintance rape. It should be noted that within this organization, power can be further classified as intrapersonal (empowerment or power motivation), interpersonal (how power is expressed between two or more people), and social (distribution of power within a society, culture, or subculture).

The Bases of Power

A study by Miller and Cummins (1992) found that women were more likely to define power as personal authority, but thought society defined power as control over others. Women also reported feeling powerful when experiencing self-control or self-enhancement (akin to empowerment) and powerless when feeling a loss of personal control. Unfortunately, there is no way of knowing if women’s personal conceptions of power actually match their actions. It is possible that feelings, or a lack of feelings, of

empowerment may influence if and how consent or nonconsent is given.

More research has been done on power motivation, but while there is no specific research tying empowerment to consent, there is a more obvious connection between power motivation and consent. According to Kipnis (1976), “power motivations arise when people have needs that can be satisfied only by inducing appropriate behavior in others” (p. 20). It seems reasonable to suppose that people with stronger power motivations may be more likely to assume or be uninterested in consent. Allowing the other person in the relationship to voice consent or nonconsent is handing some power to that person. Additionally, Winter (1973) reported that men who are high in power motivation prefer dependent and submissive wives, tend to be interested in pornography, and tend to have more sexual partners. Although some of these findings do not bear directly on consent, they do seem to form a pattern of behavior that might influence it.

Interpersonal power might be the most relevant to consent and acquaintance rape. Sexual relations, consensual or not, necessarily involve at least two people, making them interpersonal in nature. The best known theory on the basis of interpersonal power is that of French and Raven (1959).

French and Raven (1959) identified six sources of interpersonal power: reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, expert, and informational. Coercive power (the power to punish) and referent power (power because of respect or love) are probably the most relevant to understanding consent. Still, French and Raven’s typology considers only power as “power over” or the ability to control another. While this is undoubtedly an important component of interpersonal relations, it ignores power as self-control. It also

does not address the issue of equal power sharing between people.

Finally, the social or cultural basis for power requires consideration. Yoder and Kahn (1992) point out the impact of one level of power on another, and this seems especially true when examining the link between societal/cultural power and interpersonal power. The way power is structured in society must have an impact on the way power is structured in relationships. Although the relation between societal and interpersonal power may not be exact, there is certainly evidence of its existence (Ferguson, 1980; Sanday 1981a). Different societies, cultures, and sub-cultures structure power in different ways (e.g. Sanday, 1981a); and different social constructions may influence the importance given to or assumptions made about consent.

The Process of Power

If the individual, interpersonal relationships, and society all provide the bases for where power comes from, then the next step is identifying how that power is expressed. This roughly corresponds to what Olson & Cromwell (1975) called the process of power. Most research on the expression of power concerns interpersonal processes, such as communication and influence. These are processes with an obvious connection to consent.

O'Barr and Atkins (1980) reported that communication style depends on whether the communicators have equivalent power. Subsequently, a tentative verbal style, which used to be considered a characteristic of women, may actually be a result of a power differential (Johnson, 1994). The effects of power on communication style are evident even in intimate relationships; the partner with greater power tends to make more

interruptions than the less powerful partner (Kollock, Blumstein, & Schwartz, 1985). Perhaps most strikingly, Fiske (1993) found that in asymmetrical power situations, the person with greater power often pays less attention to the person with less power. This makes apparent sense: it may be beneficial for a person with less power to pay close attention to those with more power, but there is little impetus for the person with greater power to be aware of those with less power. Such a lack of attention could be quite relevant to consent. If a power relationship is unbalanced, the partner with greater power might pay less attention to the signs of nonconsent made by the partner with less power.

Finally, power has an influence on nonverbal communication. This was made especially clear by Henley (1977) who argued that power plays a large role in nonverbal communication, particularly by the subtle ways in which nonverbal communication asserts who has social control and dominance. For example, people with greater power are more likely to initiate touch or invade another's space than people with less power (see Henley, 1992 for review). There is often a confusion of whether differences in nonverbal communication are a result of power or gender, but studies have uncovered consistent nonverbal communication differences among those of differing power strengths when gender was not an issue (Henley, 1992). This suggests that power is a probable source of nonverbal styles, and not surprisingly, in many situations men still have, or are assumed by their partner to have, more power. Because consent is something that typically gets negotiated nonverbally (Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999), nonverbal dominance is just as important in negotiating consent as dominance in verbal communication.

Related to communication style is the way in which power affects an individual's ability to exert influence. Like communication style, influence strategy, once thought to be determined by gender, has more recently been found to be related to power (Driskell, Olmstead, & Salas 1993; Eagly & Wood, 1982; Sagrestano, 1992). However, gender is often used as a status cue to determine who has power in a relationship, with men more often assumed to have higher status (Eagly & Wood, 1982). The relation between gender and status and the subsequent effect on influence strategy is apparent even in intimate relationships (Bisanz & Rule, 1989).

Falbo and Peplau (1980) identified influence strategies as either direct or indirect and bilateral or unilateral. Direct strategies (e.g. asking, telling) and bilateral strategies (e.g. bargaining, reasoning) were rated as more effective influence tactics than indirect and unilateral strategies. When asked to describe the type of strategies they engaged in, men were more likely to report using direct and bilateral strategies. In addition, using direct and bilateral strategies was found to be related to relationship satisfaction. Falbo and Peplau theorized that men may be more likely to use direct strategies because they learn to expect compliance, whereas women expect less compliance which leads them to use more unilateral tactics (e.g. withdrawal). Men may also perceive themselves as having more power in the relationship than women. Indeed, Howard, Blumstein, and Schwartz (1986) discovered that regardless of gender, the person with less power in an intimate relationship tends to use more indirect influence strategies. At least one study has found this to be true regarding condom use. Young adults reported that men more often initiate condom use and that women use more convoluted and less secure strategies

to manage contraception (Levy, Samson, Pilote, & Fugere, 1997).

Specifically with regard to sexual behavior, Christopher and Frandsen (1990) identified four types of influence strategies used by men and women: Emotional and Physical Closeness, Logic and Reason, Pressure and Manipulation, and Antisocial Acts. Of the four, Emotional and Physical Closeness was related to increased sexual behavior. Not surprisingly, Pressure and Manipulation (including calculation to the point of deception) and Antisocial Acts (evoking high levels of negative emotions in attempt to control one's partner) were related to each other. These two types of strategies were discovered to be used by people who wanted more sexual activity, men, and those with high sexual motivation.

The tendency for those who have more power in the relationship to use more direct and more effective influence strategies suggests that the higher power partner has better means available to negotiate consent. It should also be noted that men reported using more pressure and manipulation to obtain sexual activity than women, and it is quite likely that it is still men who use more direct and bilateral influence strategies in general. The lack of effective influence strategies for the person with lesser power (male or female) to combat such tactics could leave him or her in a disadvantaged position when trying to express nonconsent.

The Outcome of Power

The final component of power, its outcome, still needs to be examined. Research suggests that egalitarian relationships differ from nonegalitarian or power imbalanced relationships in several ways. Before discussing the outcomes of power on intimate

relationships, however, the effect of power on an important part of relationships, role-taking, should be examined.

Role-taking, or empathizing, or perspective-taking has a predictable interaction with power (Forte, 1998). It is an ability that involves accurately decoding another's signals, understanding a diversity of other perspectives, and inferring the cognitive and emotional pattern of another (Schwalbe, 1988).

Research on role-taking and power has consistently found that the powerful feel little pressure to role-take (Schwalbe, 1991), and even when they do feel such pressure, powerful people tend to avoid deep, affective role-taking with those who are less powerful (Schwalbe, 1988). Circumstances are reversed for those with less power. People with less power in a situation tend to be better role-takers than the situationally powerful (Snodgrass, 1985). This makes sense because people with less power are motivated to understand and predict the behavior of those more powerful (Forte, 1998).

It has been suggested that the lack of motivation for powerful people to role-take has allowed them to remain insensitive to the concerns and attitudes of the powerless (Rose, 1969). In fact, Franks (1985) argued that the lack of role-taking motivation and ability by powerful people may explain why men could be unaware of women's feelings about rape.

More generally, having power or simply feeling powerful can have a profound effect on the powerholder (Kipnis, 1976). People in positions of power tend to devalue those with less power (Kipnis, 1976), even in intimate relationships (Kipnis, Castell, Gergen, & Mauch, 1976).

Kipnis et al. (1976) reported that people who believe they control decision-making power in their relationships often devalue their spouses. These people also report less happiness in their marriages and less sexual satisfaction. When asked to rate themselves and their spouse, powerful people rate themselves more favorably. Similar results have been uncovered when power motivation is measured. Men who are high in power motivation report greater dissatisfaction in their intimate relationships (Stewart & Rubin, 1974). Their relationships tend to be unstable, and perhaps consequently men with high power motivation tend to have more relationships than those without high power motivation. At the other end of the spectrum, people in power balanced or egalitarian relationships are more satisfied in their relationships and use fewer power strategies than those in imbalanced relationships (Aida & Falbo, 1991).

Besides relationship dissatisfaction, power imbalances in intimate relationships are associated with more dramatic findings such as spousal abuse (Dutton, 1994; Frieze & McHugh, 1992). At the societal level, there too is evidence that power imbalances between men and women are related to abuse and rape (Otterbein, 1979; Rozee, 2000; Sanday, 1981a; Sanday, 1981b).

Implications for Power and Consent

As Shotland (1989) pointed out, if misunderstandings about consent were all that was involved in acquaintance rape, then a clear refusal should be all that is necessary to prevent a rape. However, this is clearly not the case as even physical resistance is sometimes interpreted as consent (Warshaw, 1994). Interpersonal power dynamics, existing within the individual's conception of power, within the relationship, and as

dictated by society, all contribute to potential rape situations.

Two variables that have well-demonstrated effects on rape propensity are adherence to rape myths and attitudes toward women. Rape myths deny and justify male sexual aggression (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). They shift the responsibility for rape away from men and place it on women. In this way rape myths are a reflection of a social power structure. It is the privilege of the more powerful to perpetuate cultural myths; in this case, myths that remove the culpability for an injustice away from the powerful and place the burden on those with less power.

Costin-(1985) reported that among college students, those with higher rape myth acceptance also believed that women's social roles should be more restricted than men's roles. College men who hold traditional attitudes about women, and who are accepting of male sexual dominance have been found more likely to have engaged in sexual coercion and forcible rape than men with more liberal attitudes toward women (Muehlenhard & Falcon, 1990).

Individuals with negative or more traditional attitudes about women's social roles are less likely to describe a rape scenario as being rape, and are more willing to place blame for a rape on the victim (Proite, Dannells, & Benton, 1993). They are also more likely to think that a rape was justifiable, especially if they believe (even mistakenly) that the rape victim expected sex (Muehlenhard, Friedman, & Thomas, 1985). Indeed, men with negative attitudes toward women have generally less negative attitudes toward rape (Fischer, 1986). It possible to view negative attitudes about women in terms of social power or dominance. Many of the variables that are measured by attitudes toward women

have to do with a social structure that assumes male dominance and female inferiority and powerlessness.

A third variable, more general than rape myth acceptance or attitudes toward women, that also deserves consideration is belief in a just world. Belief in a just world is a need to believe that things do not just randomly happen, but that people get what they deserve (Lerner, 1980). People who believe in a just world will go to great effort to maintain their belief, even in the face of evidence to the contrary (Rubin & Peplau, 1973). Just world believers report fewer experiences of being discriminated against, do not see discrimination as prevalent (Lipkus & Siegler, 1993), do not see social inequalities as extensive, and do not see social inequalities as unfair or unjust (Smith & Green, 1984). Additionally, when all other methods for maintaining their beliefs fail, believers will denigrate and blame the victim (Lerner, 1980).

Among men, belief in a just world may affect perceptions of rape victims. For example, men with strong beliefs in a just world tend to evaluate rape victims more negatively (Kleinke & Meyer, 1990), place more blame on the victim (Ford, Liwag-McLamb, & Foley, 1998), and when given the opportunity they award less damages to rape victims (Foley & Pigott, 2000).

Taken together, rape myths and negative attitudes about women are concerned with issues of power, and people who believe in a just world may more easily accept the social inequalities perpetuated by them. In cultures and subcultures where there are power imbalances between men and women, rape is especially a problem.

Sanday (1981b) was able to classify 156 tribal societies as either “rape prone” or

“rape free.” The important distinctions between the rape prone and rape free societies were that in rape prone societies rape was either overlooked or allowed and there were high levels of interpersonal violence. In contrast, the rape free societies were marked by low levels of interpersonal violence and rape was considered a terrible offense. Perhaps the most striking distinction between the rape prone and the rape free societies, however, was that the rape free societies tended to value sexual equality and respect female productivity and reproduction, suggesting that equal power relationships are related to low incidences of rape.

Further anthropological support for the relation between power and rape comes from Otterbein (1979) who found that societies with power groups of related males are predictive of the occurrence of rape. There is evidence of this in our own culture as well. Powerful and privileged groups of males on college campuses are often the perpetrators of rape: fraternities and athletes are responsible for a disproportionate amount of the sexual violence on campuses (Gmelch, 1998; Sanday, 1990).

Finally, it is possible that interpersonal power may be directly linked to consent. For instance, the sexual double standard in our society teaches that men are supposed to initiate sex and women are supposed to refuse. In light of the sanctions placed on women for failing to refuse, many women may refuse at first when in fact they fully intend to give in later (Muehlenhard & McCoy, 1991). Though this is not always the case, it sets up an expectation that refusals are not genuine, thereby taking away a woman’s power of nonconsent.

This situation may be further exacerbated by other factors that could dilute the

legitimacy of a refusal. Research on power has found that it affects communication, influence strategies, and role-taking ability. In each case, the less powerful person in the relationship is at a disadvantage when attempting to make his or her feelings understood. Less effective communication strategies, the prevalence of rape myths, and social power structures are all strong foes that either contribute to or result from an imbalance of interpersonal power. For those reasons, an imbalance of interpersonal power may be one of the key influences in creating a potential acquaintance rape.

The relation among power, consent, and acquaintance rape may be described by two possible theories. The first theory proposes that consent and power influence acquaintance rape independently (see Figure 1). The second theory suggests that power influences consent, which in turn influences acquaintance rape (see Figure 2). Both theories propose an inter-relation among power orientation (belief in dominance versus empowerment), interpersonal power, and acceptance of social power inequality.

Purpose of the Present Studies

The purpose of the current studies were to uncover the relation between consent and power, particularly the way in which power affects how consent is given (or not given) and interpreted. In keeping with the understanding that power is based on its intrapersonal, interpersonal, and societal aspects, all three must be considered. This includes power orientation (dominance versus empowerment), the way in which power is expressed in relationships, and the acceptance of social power inequalities.

Essentially, three questions are being asked: 1) do people make distinctions between dominance and empowerment, and are there differences between people of

Figure 1
Theory 1 of the Relation Among Power, Consent, and Sexual Assault/Acquaintance Rape

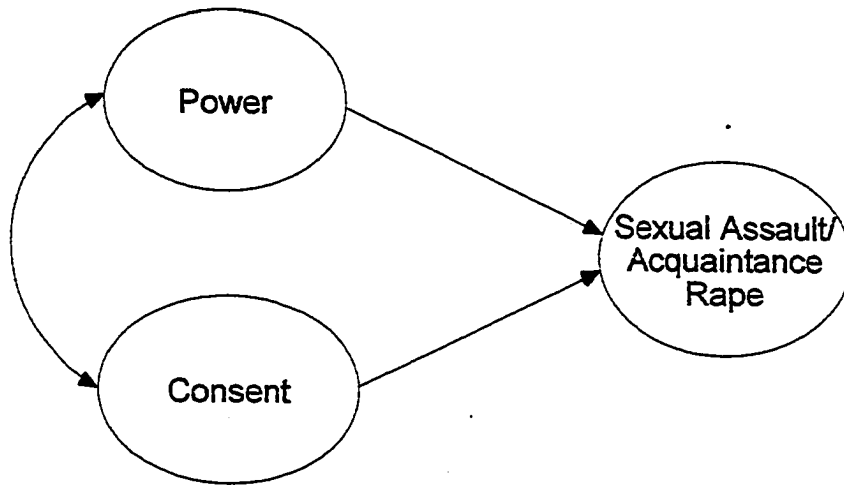
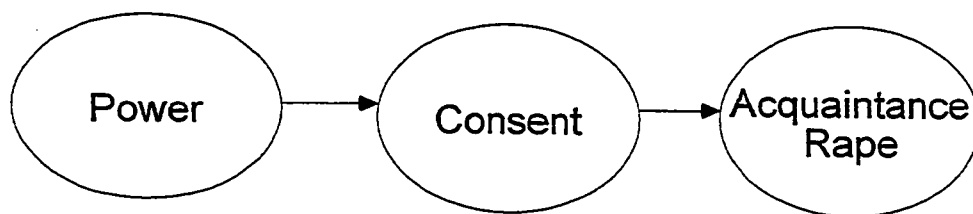


Figure 2
Theory 2 of the Relation Among Power, Consent, and Sexual Assault/Acquaintance Rape



different power orientations; 2) are power orientation, interpersonal power, and acceptance of social power inequality inter-related; 3) does power relate to or influence consent and does consent relate to or predict sexual assault and acquaintance rape?

CHAPTER II

PILOT STUDY

Purpose

The pilot study was intended to be exploratory and therefore had no explicit hypotheses, but it served two main goals. The first goal was to uncover evidence for a dominance and empowerment orientation, develop a way to measure power orientation, and determine if power orientation is related to consent and self-reported proclivity to rape. A second goal of the pilot study was to gather empirical evidence for a correlation between interpersonal power and consent, and consent and sexual assault/rape.

Method

Participants

Participants were 136 students from introductory psychology classes, who were given course credit in return for participation. Seventy-one participants (52.2 percent) were female and 65 participants (47.8 percent) were male. Participants' ages ranged from 17 to 48 with a mean of 18.92 years and standard deviation of 2.84. The majority described themselves as Caucasian (89.7 percent); the remaining 10.3 percent described themselves as either African-American, Hispanic, Asian or Asian-American, Native-American, or multi-racial. Forty-six percent indicated they were Catholic. Protestants were the second largest represented religion with 28.7 percent, followed by unspecified Jewish or Agnostic with 5.9 percent each. One hundred percent of the sample described

themselves as heterosexual, and 134 participants (98.5 percent) were neither married nor divorced.

Materials

After completing demographic information, participants were given a survey that consisted of story completions, personal opinions about consent and power, experiences with consent and power, definitions, and the Dominance Scale. Survey items that are relevant to the pilot study are located in Appendix A. The Dominance scale is located in Appendix B.

Power orientation was measured by rating definitions of power. Participants were asked to rate how important they believed a variety of eight definitions of power were to their personal definition of power. Definitions chosen for this section were designed to elicit conceptions of power as dominance (e.g. control over others) or empowerment (e.g. control over self).

Consent and power were measured by items about attitudes and experiences. Participants were also asked several questions about how important they considered consent as well as their experiences with power and consent. Questions focused on their most recent relationships. Participants were asked how consent and decision-making were negotiated, and which person (their self or their partner) controlled consent and decision-making.

The Dominance Scale was developed by Hamby (1996) to measure three forms of dominance (authority, restrictiveness, and disparagement). It contains 32 items that participants respond to on a four-point Likert scale from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly

disagree.’ Items measure how far a relationship varies from an egalitarian ideal with higher scores indicate more dominating behavior. Only participants who were currently involved in a relationship were instructed to complete the Dominance Scale.

Procedure

Participants were given the survey in groups of approximately 40. The experimenter explained to participants that the point of the survey was to learn about college students’ relationships. The experimenter briefly described what was in the survey and explained that if certain questions made the participants uncomfortable, they did not have to answer them. Most people took between 30 and 45 minutes to complete the survey. All participants filled out an informed consent form before beginning the survey and were fully debriefed when they finished.

Results

Power Orientation

A factor analysis of responses to the eight possible definitions of power scale (see Appendix A items II.11-II.18) was performed using principal components extraction with varimax rotation. Two factors emerged that matched the theoretical distinction of dominance and empowerment (see Table 1). Dominance, control over others, power as possession, and power as authority loaded on the first factor. The second factor consisted of the items power as responsibility, control of self, ability, and empowerment.

Reliability of each factor was assessed using Cronbach’s alpha. The dominance factor was found to have a reliability of .72, while the empowerment factor had a reliability of .61. While neither alpha was very high, this might in part result from there

Table 1

Factor Loadings, Communalities, and Percent of Variance Explained for Power Definitions Using Principal Components Extraction with Varimax Rotation

Item	Factor 1 (Dominance)	Factor 2 (Empowerment)	Communality
Control over others	.82	-.26	.75
Authority	.78	.004	.61
Dominance	.74	-.24	.61
Possession	.56	.19	.35
Responsibility	-.19	.70	.53
Ability	.19	.68	.50
Control over self	-.21	.68	.50
<u>Empowerment</u>	<u>.002</u>	<u>.60</u>	<u>.36</u>
Percent of variance	28.3	24.1	
Reliability	.72	.61	

only being four items per factor. The reliability of the entire scale, recoded so that higher scores indicated a higher dominance perspective, was .67.

Independent samples *t* tests were performed on the dominance and empowerment factors to assess gender differences in responses. Neither *t* test found statistically significant differences.

Finally, scores on the dominance and empowerment factors were correlated with total scores on the Dominance Scale to assess validity. As would be expected, the dominance factor was significantly positively correlated with the Dominance scale, $r(65) = .35, p = .004$. The empowerment factor was not significantly correlated with the Dominance Scale, however, the correlation was in the expected negative direction, $r(65) = -.14, p = .26$. The direction of the Pearson correlation coefficients appeared important because it suggested that the more people defined power as dominance, the more likely they were to try to dominate their partners. Additionally, there was a significant negative correlation between the dominance factor and the empowerment factor, $r(133) = -.18, p = .04$.

The way in which the definitions of power scale factor analyzed and the significance and direction of the correlation between the dominance factor and the Dominance Scale, suggested that there was empirical support for a distinction between dominance and empowerment. More evidence for the importance and usefulness of a construct of power orientation could be found when examining the relation between dominance, empowerment, and consent.

Consent

Likelihood of Engaging in Sexual Behaviors Against Your Partner's Will. Before analyzing data on consent, a preliminary analysis of the percentage of men and women who suggested that they would engage in sexual behaviors or sexual intercourse with their partners against their partners' will was conducted. Previous studies (e.g. Osland, et al., 1996) have found that approximately 30 percent of college males report that they would have sex with someone against their will if they knew they would not be caught. The questions in the current study were worded slightly differently (see Appendix A, items II.2, II.3) which may account for why a different pattern of results was uncovered. Among males, 34.4 percent indicated some likelihood of doing something sexual with their partners against their will but only 9.4 percent reported that they would have sex with their partner. For females, 37.1 percent reported any likelihood of engaging in sexual behavior when their partner did not want it, and 17.1 percent indicated that they would have sex with their partner. Although men answered the above two questions as "not at all likely" more frequently than did women, independent samples *t* tests revealed no gender differences in mean responses for men and women on either item.

Because no gender differences were found, correlations between the likelihood items and the Dominance Scale, dominance factor, and empowerment factor were performed for the entire sample. Not surprisingly, the two likelihood items were significantly positively correlated with each other, $r(134) = .54, p < .001$. Likelihood of doing something sexual was significantly correlated with the Dominance Scale ($r(65) = .30, p = .02$) and with the dominance factor ($r(133) = .17, p = .05$). Likelihood of having sexual intercourse was significantly correlated with the Dominance Scale as well ($r(65) =$

.29, $p = .02$) but not with the dominance factor. Neither item was significantly correlated with the empowerment factor. This suggested that people with higher (more dominating) scores and a stronger tendency to view power as dominance were also more likely to engage in sexual behaviors and intercourse with their partners against their partner's will.

Importance of Consent. Participants were asked to rate how important they thought consent was for kissing and for having sexual intercourse (personal opinions, questions II.7, II.9). Higher scores indicated more importance given to consent. It should be noted that the mean score on the importance for intercourse question was fairly high with a small standard deviation ($M = 4.96, sd = .21$), suggesting that most people reported that consent was very important. The mean and standard deviation on the importance of consent for kissing question reflected more variation in responses ($M = 3.69, sd = 1.08$). Independent samples t test revealed no significant differences in ratings between men and women.

Responses on the importance of consent questions were correlated with the two likelihood of doing something sexual items, the Dominance Scale, the dominance and empowerment factors. Importance of consent for kissing was negatively correlated with the Dominance Scale ($r(65) = -.33, p = .008$) and the dominance factor ($r(133) = -.21, p = .02$); and it was positively correlated with the empowerment factor ($r(134) = .24, p = .006$). Importance of kissing consent was not significantly related to a likelihood of engaging in sexual behavior or having intercourse with a partner against their will. Importance of consent for sexual intercourse was negatively correlated with likelihood of engaging in sexual behavior against a partner's will ($r(134) = -.30, p < .001$), but was not

significantly correlated with any other variables.

Results suggested that the more importance people place on consent to kissing, the lower they scored on measures of dominance, the less they viewed power as dominance, and the more they viewed power as empowerment. There was also some evidence which suggests that the more importance people gave to consent, the less likely they would be to force their partners to do something against their will, which makes sense intuitively. It is possible that the reason only one of the correlations between importance of consent and likelihood of sexual behaviors was significant was because there was little variance in answers on both the importance of consent for sexual intercourse item and likelihood of engaging in intercourse against a partner's will item.

Consent and Power Within Relationships. Participants were also asked three items about who gives/receives consent in their relationship and who has more power in their relationship (items III.2, III.3, III.5). Higher scores reflected the respondent as being the one who usually requests or assumes consent to kiss or consent for other sexual behaviors, and the respondent as being the one with more power within the relationship. Requesting consent to kiss, consent for sexual behaviors, and power were correlated with each other as well as with the likelihood of behaviors against a partner's will, the Dominance Scale, the dominance factor, and the empowerment factor.

Requesting consent to kiss was positively correlated with requesting consent for other sexual behaviors, $r(131) = .51, p < .001$. Requesting consent for other sexual behaviors was positively correlated with having power in the relationship, $r(128) = .27, p = .002$. Having power in the relationship was positively correlated with a likelihood of

engaging in sexual behaviors against a partner's will ($r(130) = .27, p = .002$) and likelihood of having sexual intercourse against a partner's will ($r(130) = .35, p < .001$). None of the requesting consent items nor the power item were correlated with the Dominance Scale, or the dominance and empowerment factors.

Results suggested that for more serious sexual behaviors (beyond kissing) there is a connection between self-reported power in the relationship and requesting or assuming consent. In addition, people who felt as though they are the more powerful person in a relationship were more likely to force their partners to engage in sexual behaviors against their partners' wills.

Finally, independent samples t tests were performed for the two consent items and the power item to uncover whether there were gender differences in responses. Men reported being the one who requested or assumed consent to kiss ($t(130) = 2.61, p = .01; M$ males = 0.52, M females = -0.39) and to engage in sexual behaviors ($t(130) = 3.63, p < .001; M$ males = 1.29, M females = -0.21) significantly more often than women, reflecting gender role norms. There was no significant difference, however, between men and women when reporting if they or their partners had more power in their relationships. Both men and women in the study rated themselves as having more power than their partners.

CHAPTER III

STUDY 1

Purpose

Study 1 was conducted to create an expanded version of the eight-item power definition scale used in the pilot study. Henceforth, this scale will now be called the Power Orientation scale.

Method

Participants

Participants were one hundred students in several psychology classes who completed the Power Orientation scale as either part of their class participation or for extra-credit (at the instructor's discretion). Seventy-six percent of participants were female, 18 percent were male, and six percent did not specify.

Materials

Participants completed a 21-item version of the Power Orientation scale (see Appendix C). Participants were instructed to rate how important each of 21 possible definitions of power was to their personal definition of power. Definitions were designed to elicit conceptualizations of power as dominance or empowerment. Eight of the items were in the original scale described in the pilot study. All definitions were rated on a 5-point Likert scale from "Not at all important to my definition" to "Very important to my definition."

Procedure

Participants were given the Power Orientation scale and an informed consent form to fill out during class time. Most participants took less than five minutes to complete the scale.

Results

A factor analysis of the Power Orientation scale was performed using principal components extraction with varimax rotation. Five factors emerged in the initial analysis. Only two factors were easily interpretable; one that matched the theoretical distinction of dominance and one that matched empowerment. All items with a loading of less than .500 on those two factors were discarded. This left five items on the dominance factor and six items on the empowerment factor.

Reliability of each factor was then assessed using Cronbach's alpha. The dominance factor had a reliability of .83. The empowerment factor had a reliability of .83 as well, but it was discovered that the reliability could be increased by dropping one item ('changing yourself'). This led to a five-item empowerment factor with a reliability of .84.

Another factor analysis was performed using the same method (principal components extraction with varimax rotation) to confirm the factor structure of this 10-item version of the scale. Two factors emerged: a dominance factor and an empowerment factor. The final factor structure for this 10-item Power Orientation scale is located in Table 2.

Table 2
Factor Loadings, Communalities, and Percent of Variance Explained for the Power Orientation Scale Using Principal Components Extraction with Varimax Rotation

Item	Factor 1 (Dominance)	Factor 2 (Empowerment)	Communality
Control over others	.87	-.20	.80
Dominance	.77	-.23	.64
Changing others	.76	-.10	.58
Influencing others	.72	.01	.52
Authority	.69	-.13	.50
Empowerment	-.14	.82	.69
Inner strength	-.17	.79	.66
Independence	-.03	.79	.62
Ability	-.07	.77	.59
Self-sufficiency	-.20	.70	.53
Percent of variance	30.4	31.2	
Reliability	.83	.84	

CHAPTER IV

STUDY 2

Purpose and Hypotheses

The purpose of study 2 was to bring together the information gathered in the pilot study and study 1 into a theory that relates power, consent, and sexual assault and acquaintance rape. There were two theories under investigation that could explain that relation. The first theory was that consent and power influence sexual assault and acquaintance rape independently (see Figure 1). The second theory was that power influences consent, which in turn influences sexual assault and acquaintance rape (see Figure 2). Both theories proposed an inter-relation among power orientation (belief in dominance versus empowerment), interpersonal power, and acceptance of social power inequality.

It was hypothesized that:

1) Power orientation would be related to interpersonal power. Specifically, people with a strong dominance orientation would be more likely to dominate their partners, would be more concerned about having power in the relationship than people with a strong empowerment orientation, and would report having more power in the relationship than their partners. People with a strong empowerment orientation would be less likely to dominate their partners, would be less concerned with having power in their relationships, and would report more equitable power sharing in their relationships.

2) Power orientation would be related to acceptance of social power inequality. Specifically, people with a strong dominance orientation would have higher rape myth acceptance and more negative attitudes toward women. People with a strong empowerment orientation would have lower rape myth acceptance and more positive attitudes toward women.

3) Interpersonal power would be related to acceptance of social power inequality. Specifically, people who dominate their partners, who are concerned with power in their relationships, and who report having more power in the relationship than their partners, would have higher rape myth acceptance and more negative attitudes toward women. People who do not dominate their partners, who are not as concerned with power in their relationships, and who report more equitable power sharing would have lower rape myth acceptance and more positive attitudes toward women.

4) Power orientation, interpersonal power, and acceptance of social power inequality would be related to consent. Specifically, the stronger a person's dominance orientation, the more dominating and concerned with relationship power a person is, and the more accepting he/she is of social power inequality, the more likely he/she will be to report being the one who asks for or assumes consent. The stronger a person's dominance orientation, the less importance he/she would place on consent. The stronger a person's empowerment orientation, the less dominating and concerned with relationship power a person is, and the less accepting he/she is of social power inequality, the more importance he/she would place on consent and the more likely he/she would be to report that consent mutually agreed upon.

5) Consent would be related to sexual assault and acquaintance rape. Specifically, the less importance people place on consent and the less likely they are to ask or assume consent, the higher would be their rape proclivity and the more perpetrator experiences they would have. The more likely people are to ask for consent, the fewer victimization experiences they would have.

6) Power orientation, interpersonal power, and acceptance of social power inequality would be related to sexual assault and acquaintance rape. Specifically, the stronger a person's dominance orientation, the more dominating and concerned with relationship power a person is, and the more accepting he/she is of social power norms, the higher would be his/her rape proclivity and the more perpetrator experiences he/she would have. The stronger a person's empowerment orientation, the less dominating and concerned with relationship power a person is, and the less accepting he/she is of social power norms, the lower would be his/her rape proclivity and the fewer perpetrator experiences he/she would have. Also, people with higher empowerment scores would report fewer instances of sexual victimization.

Method

Participants

Participants included 276 students from the psychology department subject pool who received course credit in return for participation. One hundred one participants (36.6 percent) were male and 175 (63.4 percent) were female. The mean age was 18.40 years ($sd = 1.66$). Most participants identified themselves as White/Caucasian (92.4 percent); the other 7.6 percent was fairly evenly divided among African-American (2.2 percent),

Asian/Asian-American (1.4 percent), Hispanic (2.2 percent), and Multi-racial (1.4 percent). Catholicism was the predominant religion (48.9 percent), followed by Protestantism (24.3 percent). Agnostic (6.9 percent), None (5.1 percent) and Atheist (4.0 percent) were the next most frequently chosen options, with a few students choosing Jewish (2.9 percent), Pagan/Earth-based (1.4 percent), Jehovah's Witness (0.4 percent), Russian Orthodox (0.4 percent), or Greek Orthodox (0.7 percent). The majority of participants were first year students (79.7 percent); 13.8 percent were sophomores, 5.1 percent were juniors, 0.7 percent were seniors, and 0.7 did not belong in any of those categories.

Two hundred sixty-seven participants (96.7 percent) indicated they were heterosexual, 2.9 percent chose bisexual, and one participant did not indicate. All participants, except for one who did not respond, indicated they were not married. Approximately half the participants (43.1 percent) were currently involved in a romantic relationship.

Materials

Participants received a survey consisting of measures of power orientation, interpersonal power, social power beliefs, consent, and rape proclivity. Participants were instructed to respond to questions of consent in terms of a short-term relationship. That is, if participants were not currently involved in a relationship of less than three months, they were instructed to think of their last sexual encounter that took place in a relationship of under three months (see Appendix D). In addition, participants were given explicit definitions of various terms being used in the study (e.g. sexual intercourse)

where appropriate.

Power Orientation. Power orientation was measured using three versions of the Power Orientation scale developed in the two previous studies (see Appendix E). The experimenter explained to participants that people define power in many ways. They were then asked to rate how important they believe a variety of 10 definitions of power are to their personal definition of power. Definitions chosen for this section were designed to elicit conceptions of power as dominance (e.g. control over others) or empowerment (e.g. self-sufficiency). Definitions were rated on a 5-point Likert scale from “Not at all important to my definition” to “Very important to my definition.” In Study 1, the dominance factor had an alpha reliability of .83 and the empowerment factor had a reliability of .84. Additionally, participants were asked how powerful they feel in each of 10 situations, and how often they got to experience each of the situations (e.g. being an authority figure). Each additional scale was also rated on a 5-point Likert scale.

Interpersonal Power. Interpersonal power was measured in several ways, including the Dominance Scale (Hamby, 1996) (see Appendix B), self-reported power sharing and self-reported concern with relationship power (see Appendix F).

Participants read that power needs to be negotiated in all relationships. Self-reported power sharing was measured by ratings of whether participants think that they or their partners have more power in their current or most recent relationships. The scale ranged from -5 (“I always have less power than my partner”) to 0 (“My partner and I share power equally”) to +5 (“I always have more power than my partner”).

To measure concern with power, participants were asked “How important to you

is having power in your relationships.” Responses were measured on a 5-point Likert scale from “not at all important” to “very important.”

The Dominance Scale (DS) was developed by Hamby (1996) to measure three forms of dominance (authority, restrictiveness, and disparagement). It contains 32 items that participants respond to on a four-point Likert scale from ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree.’ Items measure how far a relationship varies from an egalitarian ideal with higher scores indicating more dominating behavior.

Acceptance of Social Power Inequality. Social power beliefs were measured using the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (see Appendix G) and the Modern Sexism Scale (see Appendix H).

Rape myth acceptance was measured using the short form of the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMA) developed by Payne, Lonsway, and Fitzgerald (1995). The full version of the IRMA contains 45 items, rated on a 7-point Likert scale from “not at all agree” to “very much agree,” with an internal reliability of .89. The short form contains 17 items plus 3 filler items and has a reliability of .87. The correlation between the short form of the IRMA and the full IRMA is $r(602) = .97, p < .001$. Higher scores indicate greater rape myth acceptance.

The Modern Sexism Scale (MS) was developed by Swim, Aikin, Hall, and Hunter (1995) as a way to identify people who hold less blatant sexist beliefs than those measured by traditional sexism scales. It consists of eight items rated on a 5-point Likert scale from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree.” Internal reliability is about .75. Higher scores indicate more sexist attitudes.

Consent. Attitudes about consent were measured by self-report consent behaviors for kissing, other sexual behaviors, and sexual intercourse; attitudinal reports of the importance of consent for kissing, other sexual behaviors, and sexual intercourse; and which and how many behaviors are believed to be indicative of consent (see Appendix I).

Participants were also asked who controls consent in their current or most recent relationships. They read that: "Consent is something that has to be requested by one person and given by another, or it may be something that is assumed by one or both people. Consent can be given and/or requested verbally or non-verbally." Participants were then asked to rate their consent behaviors for kissing, other non-intercourse sexual activity, and for intercourse. Participants filled out four scales for each type of behavior. Two scales asked about verbal consent and two asked about non-verbal consent. They were asked about their behaviors and their partner's behaviors. Scales ranged from 1 ("I (My partner) never requests (assumes) verbally (non-verbally)") to 5 ("I (My partner) always requests (assumes) verbally (non-verbally)").

For the attitudinal measures, participants were asked whether they think consent matters for kissing, other sexual behaviors, and for sexual intercourse. All items were rated on 5-point Likert scales from "Consent is unimportant" to "Consent is very important." Scores on the attitudinal measures were added to form a single consent importance item.

In addition, participants were asked how much consent for sexual intercourse do they think is implied by nine different behaviors. Consent implied was rated on a Likert scale from 1 ("No consent at all") to 5 ("A lot of consent"). Responses to the nine items

were summed to form an Implied Consent score.

Rape and Sexual Assault. Rape proclivity was measured by self-reported likelihood to rape, likelihood of kissing against a partner's will, and likelihood of performing other sexual behaviors against a partner's will. Perpetrator and victimization experiences were measured by frequency of kissing without consent, other sexual behaviors without consent, and intercourse without consent (see Appendix J). Tendencies for sexually coercive behavior was also measured using the Sexual Coercion subscale of the Revised Conflict Tactics Scales (Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy, & Sugarman, 1996).

Participants were asked how likely they would be to 1) kiss, 2) do something sexual and 3) have sex with their partner if their partner did not want to engage in that behavior. Each item was rated on a 5-point Likert scale from "Not at all likely" to "Very likely."

Participants were also asked how many times they have kissed, engaged in other sexual behavior, or had sexual intercourse with someone when they knew that person did not want to engage in the behavior. Additionally, they were asked how many times each of the previous experiences happened to them against their will. For each item participants indicated a frequency from "0 times" to "10+ times."

The Revised Conflict Tactics Scales (Straus, et al., 1996) were designed to measure psychological and physical attacks made by partners in a variety of close interpersonal relationships. The Sexual Coercion Subscale (SCS) contains seven items that measure the frequency with which partners engaged in behavior that was intended to

compel each other into unwanted sexual activity (see Appendix K). Each item on the scale appears twice to measure both one's own coercive behaviors and one's partner's behaviors. Thus two SCS scores are calculated, a self and a partner score. The SCS has an internal reliability alpha of .87 (Straus, et al., 1996).

Social Desirability. Because the nature of many of the questions and scales in the survey are sensitive and certain answers may be considered socially inappropriate, participants may be tempted to respond socially desirable ways which do not reflect their true attitudes or behaviors. In order to check for this potential bias in responding and possibly statistically control for it if necessary, the survey also included the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MCSD) (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960). The MCSD contains 33 items that participants rate as either true or false of themselves (see Appendix L). Approximately half of the items measure desirable but uncommon behaviors and half measure undesirable but common behaviors. Internal reliability ranges from .73 to .88. Higher scores indicate a bias toward responding in a socially desirable way (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960).

Procedure

Participants were tested in mixed-sex groups of about 20. Each session was run by a male and a female experimenter to minimize social desirability or feelings of defensiveness. Participants were told that they were participating in a study of how college students make decisions in their relationships and attitudes about relationships. Participants received an informed consent form with the survey and were fully debriefed following the survey.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Sexual Assault and Rape Experiences. Separate frequencies were calculated for males and females in their responses to proclivity, perpetrator, and victimization items.

Proclivity items asked participants how likely they would be to engage in three behaviors against a partner's will: kissing, non-intercourse sexual activities, and intercourse.

Proclivity was scored as any answer other than "not at all likely." Perpetrator items asked participants how many times they actually had done a particular behavior when they either knew or suspected that the behavior was unwanted. The same behaviors were used for the perpetrator items as for the proclivity items. Any answer other than "0 times" was scored as a perpetrator experience. Victimization items were essentially the same as perpetrator items, except the participant was on the receiving end of the behavior, and they were scored the same as the perpetrator items.

Percentages can be found in Table 3. Not surprisingly, larger percentages of males than females reported proclivities for kissing, non-intercourse behaviors, and rape, as well as actual experiences of engaging in unwanted sexual behaviors. Larger percentages of females than males reported being the victim of unwanted sexual behaviors. It is worth noting, however, that larger numbers of males reported victimization experiences than reported perpetrator behaviors. In general, results were in agreement with statistics reported in the rape and sexual assault literature (Finely & Corty, 1993; Koss, 1988; Koss, et al., 1987; Muehlenhard & Linton, 1987; Poppen & Segal, 1988; Reilly, et al., 1992).

Table 3
Percentages of Males and Females who Reported Assault and Rape Proclivities, Engaging in Perpetrator Experiences, and Being a Victim of Unwanted Sexual Behaviors

Item	Gender			
	Males		Females	
	Percent	n	Percent	n
Kiss proclivity	42.6	43	30.3	53
Non-intercourse proclivity	29.7	30	13.1	23
Rape proclivity	14.9	15	5.7	10
Kiss perpetrator	42.6	43	19.4	34
Non-intercourse perpetrator	18.8	19	4.6	8
Intercourse perpetrator	6.9	7	0.0	0
Kiss victim	61.4	62	77.1	135
Non-intercourse victim	30.7	31	50.9	89
Intercourse victim	7.9	8	17.7	31

Power Orientation Scales. A principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation was performed on each of the Power Orientation (PO) scales (Definition, Feeling, Opportunity). For the PO - Definition (PO-D) scale, two factors emerged that matched the theoretical distinction of dominance and empowerment (see Table 4). Authority, changing others, control over others, dominance, and influencing others loaded as a dominance factor. The empowerment factor consisted of the items power as ability, empowerment, independence, inner strength, and self-sufficiency. Reliability of each factor was assessed using Cronbach's alpha. The dominance factor was found to have a reliability of .84, while the empowerment factor had a reliability of .80.

The PO - Feeling (PO-F) scale also factor analyzed into two factors, identical to those of the PO-D (see Table 5). The dominance factor consisted of authority, changing others, control over others, dominance, and influencing others. The empowerment factor consisted of ability, empowerment, independence, inner strength, and self-sufficiency. Cronbach's alpha was again used to assess reliability of each factor. The dominance factor had a reliability of .85, while the empowerment factor had a reliability of .87.

The PO - Opportunity (PO-O) scale initially loaded on three factors. One factor appeared to be a empowerment factor, containing ability, empowerment, independence, inner strength, and self-sufficiency. The second factor consisted of changing others and influencing others. Control over others and dominance loaded on both the second and third factors. Authority loaded solely on the third factor. The PO-O was factor analyzed (principle components, varimax rotation) a second time and forced into two factors to see if it could be made comparable with the PO-D and PO-F. When forced, the PO-O loaded

Table 4
Factor Loadings, Communalities, and Percent of Variance Explained for the Power Orientation - Definition Scale Using Principal Components Extraction with Varimax Rotation

Item	Factor 1 (Dominance)	Factor 2 (Empowerment)	Communality
Control over others	.87	-.20	.77
Dominance	.82	-.11	.69
Authority	.81	-.01	.66
Changing others	.72	-.15	.54
Influencing others	.65	.05	.42
Empowerment	-.05	.85	.72
Independence	-.25	.80	.70
Inner strength	-.03	.80	.64
Self-sufficiency	-.24	.79	.68
Ability	.25	.54	.35
Percent of variance	32.1	29.5	
Reliability	.84	.80	

Table 5
Factor Loadings, Communalities, and Percent of Variance Explained for the Power Orientation - Feeling Scale Using Principal Components Extraction with Varimax Rotation

Item	Factor 1 (Dominance)	Factor 2 (Empowerment)	Communality
Control over others	.89	-.12	.81
Dominance	.86	-.13	.76
Changing others	.76	-.05	.60
Influencing others	.72	.08	.53
Authority	.67	.15	.47
Empowerment	-.14	.88	.79
Independence	-.11	.88	.78
Self-sufficiency	-.05	.84	.71
Inner strength	.03	.84	.70
Ability	.25	.60	.42
Percent of variance	32.1	33.6	
Reliability	.85	.87	

on a dominance factor containing authority, changing others, control over others, dominance, and influencing others and an empowerment factor containing ability, empowerment, independence, inner strength, and self-sufficiency (see Table 6).

Reliability of each factor was assessed using Cronbach's alpha. The dominance factor was found to have a reliability of .76, while the empowerment factor had a reliability of .82. Because the forced factors were acceptable, it was decided to treat the PO-O the same as the other PO scales.

Intercorrelations among the six PO scales can be found in Table 7. In general, correlations were as expected. Dominance scales tended to correlate positively with each other and empowerment scales correlated positively with each other. Dominance scales either correlated negatively or not at all with empowerment scales.

The method chosen for scoring involved classifying individuals as either 1) high in both dominance and empowerment (powerful), 2) high in dominance and low in empowerment (dominant), 3) low in dominance and high in empowerment (empowered), or 4) low in both dominance and empowerment (powerless).¹ Participants were classified in this way for each of the three PO scales. This was accomplished by calculating the mean score for dominance and empowerment on each of the scales, and assigning participants as high on that measure if they fell above the mean and low if they fell below.² The end result was three separate classifications for each participant, one for the PO-D, one for the PO-F, and one for the PO-O. Henceforth, these scores will be referred to as power orientation category.

Consent Behaviors. In order to make the behavioral consent items more

Table 6
Factor Loadings, Communalities, and Percent of Variance Explained for the Power Orientation - Opportunity Scale Using Principal Components Extraction with Varimax Rotation

Item	Factor 1 (Dominance)	Factor 2 (Empowerment)	Communality
Control over others	.84	-.02	.70
Dominance	.83	-.03	.70
Changing others	.69	.16	.50
Influencing others	.65	.15	.45
Authority	.52	.16	.29
Empowerment	.03	.86	.75
Independence	-.03	.81	.66
Self-sufficiency	.06	.76	.59
Inner strength	.31	.69	.56
Ability	.18	.66	.47
Percent of variance	27.0	29.7	
Reliability	.76	.82	

Table 7
Intercorrelations Among the Power Orientation Scales

Scale	PO-D (dom)	PO-D (emp)	PO-F (dom)	PO-F (emp)	PO-O (dom)	PO-O (emp)
PO-D (dom)	–	-.16***	.55***	-.17***	.32***	-.13**
PO-D (emp)	–	–	-.04	.66***	.08	.36***
PO-F (dom)	–	–	–	-.03	.34***	-.03
PO-F (emp)	–	–	–	–	.08	.32***
PO-O (dom)	–	–	–	–	–	.26***
PO-O (emp)	–	–	–	–	–	–

** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Note. PO-D (dom) = Power Orientation - Definition (dominance); PO-D (emp) = Power Orientation - Definition (empowerment); PO-F (dom) = Power Orientation - Feeling (dominance); PO-F (emp) = Power Orientation - Feeling (empowerment); PO-O (dom) = Power Orientation - Opportunity (dominance); PO-O (emp) = Power Orientation - Opportunity (empowerment).

interpretable (see Appendix I), a principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation was performed for both the self behaviors and partner behaviors items. For the self consent items two factors emerged, one containing verbal consent items and the other containing non-verbal consent items (see Table 8). Reliability of each factor was assessed using Cronbach's alpha. The self verbal consent scale had a reliability of .64 and the self non-verbal consent scale had a reliability of .49. Similar results were found for the partner consent items. Factor analysis yielded a partner verbal consent factor and a partner non-verbal consent factor (see Table 9). Although the partner non-verbal intercourse item appeared to be factorially complex, it was decided that it should be left with the other non-verbal items for consistency and because there was no theoretical reason to treat it differently. Reliability for the partner verbal scale was .65; reliability for the partner non-verbal scale was .42. Although reliabilities for the non-verbal scales were rather low, each scale had only three items in it, so lower reliabilities were expected.

Gender Differences. Because gender differences were likely on several of the measures, independent samples *t*-tests were performed to determine whether any or all analyses should take gender into consideration. No gender differences were found on most items relating to consent or the Sexual Coercion Subscale - Other scale. Gender differences were found for non-intercourse and rape proclivity, non-intercourse and rape victimization, and all the perpetrator items. Differences were also found for several scales, including the Dominance Scale, the Modern Sexism Scale, the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale, the Sexual Coercion Subscale - Self scale, and partner verbal consent. Means and *t* values can be found in Table 10.

Table 8
*Factor Loadings, Communalities, and Percent of Variance Explained for the Self
 Consent Items Using Principal Components Extraction with Varimax Rotation*

Item	Factor 1 (Verbal)	Factor 2 (Non-verbal)	Communality
Verbal non-intercourse	.85	.02	.73
Verbal intercourse	.74	.07	.55
Verbal kissing	.67	-.04	.45
Non-verbal non-intercourse	.03	.87	.75
Non-verbal kissing	-.23	.69	.53
Non-verbal intercourse	.29	.59	.43
Percent of variance	30.9	26.3	
Reliability	.64	.49	

Table 9

Factor Loadings, Communalities, and Percent of Variance Explained for the Partner Consent Items Using Principal Components Extraction with Varimax Rotation

Item	Factor 1 (Verbal)	Factor 2 (Non-verbal)	Communality
Verbal non-intercourse	.83	-.09	.70
Verbal intercourse	.76	-.09	.59
Verbal kissing	.62	.18	.42
Non-verbal non-intercourse	.13	.87	.77
Non-verbal kissing	-.33	.69	.59
Non-verbal intercourse	.42	.48	.40
Percent of variance	32.8	25.0	
Reliability	.65	.42	

Table 10

t Values, Degrees of Freedom, Means, and Standard Deviations for Gender Differences on Measures of Interpersonal Power, Social Power Acceptance, Consent, Proclivity, Perpetration, and Victimization

Scale	<i>t</i>	df	M_{males}	M_{females}
<i>Interpersonal Power</i>				
Self-reported power	1.73	274	0.58 (1.56)	0.24 (1.61)
Concern with power	-0.41	274	2.76 (0.97)	2.81 (0.95)
DS	2.22*	270	75.76 (7.37)	73.82(6.72)
<i>Social Power Acceptance</i>				
MS	2.85**	273	23.19 (4.20)	21.55 (4.77)
IRMA	5.01***	164.55	38.78 (12.57)	31.46 (9.67)
<i>Consent</i>				
Total consent implied	1.45	251.12	31.70 (5.95)	30.46 (8.06)
Total consent importance	0.00	274	12.70 (2.06)	12.70 (1.84)
Self verbal consent	-.047	267	7.75 (2.72)	7.93 (3.31)
Self non-verbal consent	-1.87	267	10.69 (2.73)	11.34 (2.76)
Partner verbal consent	-1.94*	268	7.64 (2.78)	8.39 (3.21)
Partner non-verbal consent	-0.17	267	11.24 (2.39)	11.30 (2.70)
<i>Proclivity</i>				
Kiss proclivity	1.04	274	1.68 (0.94)	1.55 (1.03)
Non-intercourse proclivity	2.09*	189.64	1.41 (0.75)	1.22 (0.67)
Rape proclivity	2.09 *	144.87	1.29 (0.84)	1.11 (0.52)
<i>Perpetration</i>				
Kiss perpetrator	4.01***	123.92	0.97 (1.58)	0.30 (0.71)
Non-intercourse perpetrator	3.12**	104.36	0.51 (1.43)	0.06 (0.28)
Intercourse perpetrator	2.05*	100.00	0.25 (1.21)	0.00 (0.00)
SCS - Self	2.43*	139.56	4.17 (8.97)	3.91 (8.72)
<i>Victimization</i>				
Kiss victim	-1.94	273	1.64 (2.02)	2.17 (2.24)
Non-intercourse victim	-2.81**	272.04	0.65 (1.18)	1.17 (1.88)
Intercourse victim	-2.99**	228.03	0.11 (0.42)	0.43 (1.33)
SCS - Other	0.24	272	4.17 (8.97)	3.91 (8.72)

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Note. Some *t*-test results are reported with fractional degrees of freedom because the statistics are calculated based on unequal variances between groups. In other words, the test for homogeneity of variance revealed a statistically significant difference between group variances, which was taken into account in the *t*-test calculations. DS = the Dominance Scale; MS = the Modern Sexism Scale; IRMA = the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale; SCS - Self = the Sexual Coercion Subscale - Self Scale; SCS - Other = the Sexual Coercion Subscale - Other Scale.

Gender differences in power orientation classification were tested by Chi square analyses. Each PO scale (definition, feeling, and opportunity) was tested in a 4 X 2 (power orientation category by gender) analysis. No significant differences were found. However, because gender differences in general were so prevalent, gender was taken in account in all analyses.

Hypothesis 1: Power Orientation Will be Related to Interpersonal Power

This hypothesis was tested by three 4 X 2 multivariate analysis of variances (MANOVAs) with PO classifications (powerful, dominant, empowered, powerless) and gender as independent variables, and the Dominance Scale, concern about relationship power, and self-reported relationship power as dependent variables.³ In each of the three MANOVAs, the pattern of means supported the hypothesis that being high in dominance would be related to dominance and concern with relationship power.

For the PO-D MANOVA there was a significant multivariate effect for power orientation category only ($F(9,628.06) = 3.04, p = .001, \text{Wilks' } \lambda = .90$). Univariate effects were found for dominance ($F(3, 260) = 5.72, p = .001$) and concern with relationship power ($F(3,260) = 3.19, p = .02$).

Student-Newman-Keuls (SNK) post hoc tests revealed that participants classified as powerful and dominant scored higher on dominance than participants classified as empowered and powerless. This suggests that regardless of score on empowerment, people who score high on dominance tend to be more dominating in their relationships. Post hoc tests (SNK) for concern with relationship power revealed that participants who were classified as powerful showed more concern with having power in their

relationships than those classified as dominant, empowered, or powerless. Means and standard deviations can be found in Table 11.

For the PO-F MANOVA there were significant multivariate effects for power orientation category ($F(9, 637.79) = 3.04, p = .001, \text{Wilks}' \lambda = .90$) and gender ($F(3, 262) = 3.12, p = .03, \text{Wilks}' \lambda = .97$)⁴. There were two univariate effects for power orientation category: dominance ($F(3, 264) = 5.86, p = .001$) and concern with relationship power ($F(3, 264) = 3.07, p = .02$).

SNK post hoc tests revealed that participants classified as dominant scored higher on dominance than participants classified as empowered and powerless. SNK post hoc tests for concern with relationship power revealed a difference only between participants who were classified as powerful and those classified as empowered. Results suggest that increased feelings of dominance are associated with being more dominating and more concerned with having power in a relationship. See Table 12 for means and standard deviations.

Similar results were found for the PO-O scale as were for the PO-F scale. For the PO-O MANOVA there were significant multivariate effects for power orientation category ($F(9, 637.79) = 2.24, p = .02, \text{Wilks}' \lambda = .93$) and gender ($F(3, 262) = 2.65, p = .05, \text{Wilks}' \lambda = .97$)⁴. There were two univariate main effects for power orientation category: dominance ($F(3, 264) = 3.03, p = .03$) and concern with relationship power ($F(3, 264) = 3.23, p = .01$).

SNK post hoc tests revealed that participants classified as dominant scored higher on dominance than participants classified as powerful, empowered, or powerless. SNK

Table 11

Means and Standard Deviations for Males and Females by PO - Definition Category on Dominance, Self-Reported Relationship Power, and Concern with Relationship Power

Scale/Item	Gender	Category			
		Powerful Mean (sd)	Dominant Mean (sd)	Empowered Mean (sd)	Powerless Mean (sd)
Dominance	M	76.73 (5.28)	80.00 (8.60)	73.00 (6.83)	72.78 (6.40)
	F	75.57 (6.82)	73.97 (5.56)	73.59 (6.32)	72.55 (7.91)
	T	76.02 _b (6.25)	76.72 _b (7.67)	73.43 _a (6.43)	72.63 _a (7.34)
S-RRP	M	1.09 (1.69)	0.69 (1.85)	0.52 (1.19)	0.13 (1.52)
	F	0.34 (1.94)	0.06 (1.29)	0.27 (1.50)	0.38 (1.58)
	T	0.63 _a (1.87)	0.35 _a (1.59)	0.34 _a (1.42)	0.29 _a (1.55)
CRP	M	3.00 (0.98)	2.81 (1.23)	2.72 (0.79)	2.65 (0.83)
	F	3.31 (0.93)	2.61 (0.88)	2.71 (0.94)	2.73 (0.93)
	T	3.19 _b (0.95)	2.70 _a (1.05)	2.71 _a (0.90)	2.70 _a (0.89)

Note. Means in the same row that do not share subscripts differ at $p < .05$ in the Student-Newman-Keuls post hoc test. S-RRP = self-reported relationship power; CRP = concern with relationship power.

Table 12

Means and Standard Deviations for Males, Females, and Total by PO - Feeling Category on Dominance, Self-Reported Relationship Power, and Concern with Relationship Power

Scale/Item	Gender	Category			
		Powerful Mean (sd)	Dominant Mean (sd)	Empowered Mean (sd)	Powerless Mean (sd)
Dominance	M	76.12 (9.07)	79.00 (4.47)	72.14 (5.69)	76.86 (7.49)
	F	74.96 (6.69)	75.83 (5.29)	73.12 (6.48)	71.35 (8.01)
	T	75.43 (7.72)	77.26 _b (5.14)	72.83 _a (6.25)	73.28 _a (8.18)
S-RRP	M	0.94 (1.46)	0.67 (1.61)	0.14 (1.66)	0.57 (1.45)
	F	0.44 (1.79)	-0.03 (1.66)	0.36 (1.58)	0.08 (0.93)
	T	0.64 _a (1.67)	0.28 _a (1.66)	0.30 _a (1.60)	0.25 _a (1.15)
CRP	M	2.94 (0.95)	2.79 (1.25)	2.59 (0.91)	2.79 (0.89)
	F	3.17 (0.95)	2.90 (0.82)	2.57 (0.96)	2.77 (0.91)
	T	3.07 _b (0.89)	2.85 (1.03)	2.57 _a (0.94)	2.78 (0.89)

Note. Means in the same row that do not share subscripts differ at $p < .05$ in the Student-Newman-Keuls post hoc test. S-RRP = self-reported relationship power; CRP = concern with relationship power.

post hoc tests for concern with relationship power revealed a difference only between participants who were classified as dominant and those classified as empowered and powerless. Results again suggest that increased feelings of dominance are associated with being more dominating and more concerned with having power in a relationship, but high empowerment may have a mellowing effect. Means and standard deviations can be found in Table 13.

Hypothesis 2: Power Orientation will be Related to Acceptance of Social Power

Inequality

In order to test this hypothesis, three 4 X 2 MANOVAs were computed with PO classifications and gender as independent variables, and the Modern Sexism Scale and Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale as dependent variables.

For the PO-D MANOVA there was a significant multivariate effect only for gender ($F(2, 260) = 13.64, p = .001, \text{Wilks' } \lambda = .91$).⁴ Means and standard deviations can be found in Table 14.

For the PO-F MANOVA, there was a marginal multivariate effect for power orientation category ($F(6, 528) = 2.02, p = .06, \text{Wilks' } \lambda = .96$). There was also a significant multivariate effect for gender ($F(2, 264) = 11.62, p < .001, \text{Wilks' } \lambda = .92$).⁴ There was one main effect of power orientation category, for rape myth acceptance ($F(3, 265) = 3.06, p = .03$).

Means were in the expected direction. SNK post hoc tests revealed that participants classified as dominant scored higher on rape myth acceptance than participants classified as powerful, empowered, and powerless. This suggests that

Table 13
Means and Standard Deviations for Males, Females, and Total by PO - Opportunity Category on Dominance, Self-Reported Relationship Power, and Concern with Relationship Power

Scale/Item	Gender	Category			
		Powerful Mean (sd)	Dominant Mean (sd)	Empowered Mean (sd)	Powerless Mean (sd)
Dominance	M	74.14 (7.06)	78.79 (4.97)	76.56 (5.69)	75.31 (9.49)
	F	74.89 (6.46)	77.00 (5.46)	72.16 (7.33)	72.96 (6.35)
	T	74.58 _a (6.68)	77.85 _b (5.35)	73.34 _a (7.21)	73.77 _a (7.61)
S-RRP	M	0.59 (1.55)	0.53 (1.35)	0.56 (1.72)	0.65 (1.70)
	F	0.57 (1.69)	-0.00 (1.82)	0.14 (1.35)	0.20 (1.54)
	T	0.58 _a (1.63)	0.25 _a (1.61)	0.25 _a (1.46)	0.36 _a (1.60)
CRP	M	2.81 (0.88)	3.05 (0.78)	2.56 (1.25)	2.69 (0.97)
	F	3.06 (0.89)	3.19 (1.03)	2.57 (0.91)	2.65 (0.95)
	T	2.96 (0.89)	3.12 _b (0.91)	2.57 _a (1.00)	2.67 _a (0.95)

Note. Means in the same row that do not share subscripts differ at $p < .05$ in the Student-Newman-Keuls post hoc test. S-RRP = self-reported relationship power; CRP = concern with relationship power.

Table 14

Means and Standard Deviations for Males, Females, and Total by PO - Definition Category on Sexism and Rape Myth Acceptance

Scale/Item	Gender	Category			
		Powerful Mean (sd)	Dominant Mean (sd)	Empowered Mean (sd)	Powerless Mean (sd)
MS	M	23.18 (3.32)	23.00 (4.32)	24.48 (4.37)	21.64 (4.32)
	F	20.37 (5.12)	20.85 (4.36)	22.36 (4.33)	22.12 (5.02)
	T	21.46 (4.69)	21.80 (4.44)	22.95 (4.42)	21.95 (4.75)
IRMA	M	36.73 (12.11)	40.50 (13.20)	40.56 (12.53)	37.05 (13.36)
	F	32.34 (7.65)	34.64 (12.17)	29.88 (8.32)	30.67 (10.63)
	T	34.04 (9.76)	37.22 (12.86)	32.81 (10.72)	32.94 (11.97)

Note. MS = the Modern Sexism Scale; IRMA = the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale.

increased feelings of dominance and low feelings of empowerment are associated with more acceptance of rape myths. Means and standard deviations can be found in Table 15.

The PO-O scale had significant multivariate effects for power orientation category ($F(6, 264) = 2.71, p = .01, \text{Wilks' } \lambda = .94$) and gender ($F(2, 264) = 16.21, p < .001, \text{Wilks' } \lambda = .89$).⁴ For power orientation category, there was a univariate effect only for rape myth acceptance ($F(3, 265) = 2.72, p = .05$).

Means were in the predicted direction. SNK post hoc tests revealed that participants classified as dominant scored higher on rape myth acceptance than participants classified as empowered or powerless. Results again suggest that increased feelings of dominance and low empowerment are associated with greater acceptance of rape myths. Means and standard deviations can be found in Table 16.

Hypothesis 3: Interpersonal Power will be Related to Acceptance of Social Power Inequality

Pearson correlations were used to test whether dominance, self-reported relationship power, and concern with relationship power were related to sexism and rape myth acceptance. Correlations were calculated separately for males and females. Because of the large number of correlations being performed, a Bonferroni correction was used to protect against an inflated risk of type 1 error. There were no significant correlations among any of the scales for either males or females (see Table 17).

Hypothesis 4: Power Orientation, Interpersonal Power, and Acceptance of Social Power Inequality will be Related to Consent

Power Orientation. Three 4 X 2 MANOVAs, one for each power orientation

Table 15
Means and Standard Deviations for Males, Females, and Totals by PO - Feeling Category on Sexism and Rape Myth Acceptance

Scale/Item	Gender	Category			
		Powerful Mean (sd)	Dominant Mean (sd)	Empowered Mean (sd)	Powerless Mean (sd)
MS	M	23.28 (4.03)	23.58 (4.25)	23.34 (4.58)	21.79 (3.91)
	F	20.35 (4.20)	22.97 (3.26)	21.87 (5.10)	21.73 (5.50)
	T	21.53 _a (4.36)	23.24 _a (3.71)	22.30 _a (4.98)	21.75 _a (4.94)
IRMA	M	38.22 (12.03)	42.12 (11.48)	38.07 (13.16)	35.79 (14.44)
	F	32.00 (10.03)	35.70 (9.66)	29.79 (9.40)	30.08 (8.61)
	T	34.49 _a (11.23)	38.56 _b (10.89)	32.21 _a (11.23)	32.07 _a (11.35)

Note. Means in the same row that do not share subscripts differ at $p < .05$ in the Student-Newman-Keuls post hoc test. MS = the Modern Sexism Scale; IRMA = the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale.

Table 16
Means and Standard Deviations for Males, Females, and Total by PO - Opportunity Category on Sexism and Rape Myth Acceptance

Scale/Item	Gender	Category			
		Powerful Mean (sd)	Dominant Mean (sd)	Empowered Mean (sd)	Powerless Mean (sd)
MS	M	22.81 (4.59)	22.83 (4.51)	24.50 (3.78)	22.96 (3.75)
	F	22.66 (4.62)	18.80 (4.01)	21.04 (4.57)	22.22 (4.77)
	T	22.72 _a (4.58)	20.71 _a (4.67)	21.96 _a (4.61)	22.47 _a (4.44)
IRMA	M	38.95 (11.88)	43.22 (12.41)	39.56 (11.06)	34.92 (14.09)
	F	32.85 (10.01)	34.45 (12.96)	29.38 (8.04)	30.88 (9.06)
	T	35.36 (11.17)	38.61 _p (13.29)	32.07 _a (9.94)	32.25 _a (11.09)

Note. Means in the same row that do not share subscripts differ at $p < .05$ in the Student-Newman-Keuls post hoc test. MS = the Modern Sexism Scale; IRMA = the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale.

Table 17

Pearson Correlations Coefficients for Dominance, Self-Reported Relationship Power, Concern with Relationship Power, Sexism, and Rape Myth Acceptance for Males, Females, and Total

Scale	Gender	MS	IRMA
DS	M	.15	-.004
	F	-.14	.07
	T	-.02	.08
S-RRP	M	.02	-.18
	F	-.01	-.01
	T	.02	-.05
CRP	M	.15	.05
	F	-.13	.08
	T	-.04	.05

Note. Using a Bonferroni procedure to protect against type 1 error would require a $p = .008$ in order for a test to be considered significant. DS = the Dominance Scale; S-RRP = self-reported relationship power; CRP = concern with relationship power; MS = the Modern Sexism Scale; IRMA = the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale.

scale, were used to test this hypothesis. Power orientation category and gender were the independent variables and total implied consent, total consent importance, and the self verbal consent, self non-verbal consent, partner verbal consent, and partner non-verbal consent scales were the dependent variables (see Appendix I for all consent measures). None of the MANOVAs had a significant multivariate effect for power orientation category. See Tables 18 - 20 for means and standard deviations.

Interpersonal Power. To test the relation between interpersonal power and consent, Pearson correlations were calculated separately for males and females among dominance, self-reported relationship power, concern with relationship power, and total implied consent, total consent importance, and the self verbal consent, self non-verbal consent, partner verbal consent, and partner non-verbal consent scales. Because of the large number of correlations being performed, a Bonferroni correction was used to protect against an inflated risk of type 1 error. Pearson correlation coefficients can be found in Table 21. No significant correlations were found for either males or females.

Acceptance of Social Power Inequality. Finally, Pearson correlations were used to test whether acceptance of social power inequality was related to consent. Separate correlations for males and females were calculated between sexism and rape myth acceptance and total implied consent, total consent importance, and the self verbal consent, self non-verbal consent, partner verbal consent, and partner non-verbal consent scales. A Bonferroni correction was used to protect against an inflated risk of type 1 error. There were no significant correlations for males or females. See Table 22 for Pearson correlation coefficients.

Table 18
Means and Standard Deviations for Males, Females, and Total by PO - Definition Category on Total Implied Consent, Consent Importance, and Self-Reported Consent Behaviors

Scale/Item	Gender	Category			
		Powerful	Dominant	Empowered	Powerless
		Mean (sd)	Mean (sd)	Mean (sd)	Mean (sd)
Implied Consent	M	31.86 (5.30)	31.60 (5.72)	29.33 (6.18)	33.71 (6.22)
	F	31.71 (9.44)	29.20 (7.31)	30.65 (8.13)	29.70 (7.62)
	T	31.76 (8.06)	30.29 (6.69)	30.30 (7.65)	31.28 (7.32)
Consent Importance	M	13.29 (1.76)	12.32 (2.01)	12.92 (2.08)	12.63 (2.16)
	F	12.59 (1.62)	12.30 (1.74)	13.11 (1.90)	12.49 (2.01)
	T	12.85 (1.69)	12.31 (1.85)	13.06 (1.94)	12.54 (2.05)
Self verbal consent	M	8.20 (3.18)	7.60 (2.25)	7.67 (2.53)	7.29 (2.88)
	F	8.06 (2.77)	7.83 (3.57)	7.98 (3.45)	7.89 (3.50)
	T	8.13 (2.91)	7.73 (3.02)	7.90 (3.22)	7.66 (2.26)
Self non-verbal consent	M	9.90 (3.53)	10.88 (2.82)	11.42 (2.55)	10.29 (1.99)
	F	10.85 (2.42)	11.50 (3.20)	11.26 (2.93)	11.73 (2.43)
	T	10.49 (2.91)	11.23 (3.02)	11.30 (2.82)	11.16 (2.36)
Partner verbal consent	M	8.10 (2.95)	7.08 (2.69)	7.83 (2.43)	7.46 (2.73)
	F	8.59 (2.58)	8.23 (3.76)	8.20 (3.35)	8.62 (3.07)
	T	8.40 (2.71)	7.71 (3.34)	8.10 (3.12)	8.16 (2.97)
Partner non-verbal consent	M	11.19 (2.27)	11.68 (2.54)	11.71 (2.48)	10.29 (2.24)
	F	10.82 (2.25)	11.53 (3.04)	11.14 (2.84)	11.76 (2.59)
	T	10.96 (2.24)	11.60 (2.80)	11.29 (2.75)	11.18 (2.54)

Table 19

Means and Standard Deviations for Males, Females, and Total by PO - Feeling Category on Total Implied Consent, Consent Importance, and Self-Reported Consent Behaviors

Scale/Item	Gender	Category			
		Powerful Mean (sd)	Dominant Mean (sd)	Empowered Mean (sd)	Powerless Mean (sd)
Implied Consent	M	31.48 (5.42)	31.91 (5.67)	32.07 (6.03)	30.57 (7.56)
	F	31.08 (8.41)	29.81 (7.14)	30.00 (8.62)	30.76 (7.58)
	T	31.24 (7.35)	30.80 (6.52)	30.62 (7.96)	30.69 (7.47)
Consent Importance	M	12.68 (2.14)	12.91 (2.07)	13.10 (1.72)	12.14 (2.18)
	F	12.94 (1.69)	12.04 (1.61)	12.88 (2.06)	12.56 (1.71)
	T	12.84 (1.87)	12.45 (1.87)	12.95 (1.96)	12.41 (1.87)
Self verbal consent	M	7.84 (3.11)	7.57 (2.50)	7.69 (2.47)	7.93 (2.89)
	F	8.08 (3.54)	7.04 (2.44)	8.06 (3.39)	8.36 (3.56)
	T	7.99 (3.36)	7.29 (2.46)	7.95 (3.13)	8.21 (3.30)
Self non-verbal consent	M	10.48 (3.07)	10.70 (3.25)	10.72 (2.49)	11.29 (1.59)
	F	11.73 (2.71)	10.38 (3.15)	11.16 (2.84)	11.96 (2.05)
	T	11.24 (2.91)	10.53 (3.17)	11.03 (2.73)	11.72 (1.91)
Partner verbal consent	M	7.48 (2.87)	7.00 (2.63)	8.17 (2.54)	7.86 (3.11)
	F	8.54 (3.33)	7.46 (2.56)	8.41 (3.22)	8.92 (3.49)
	T	8.13 (3.18)	7.24 (3.58)	8.34 (3.02)	8.54 (3.35)
Partner non-verbal consent	M	11.35 (2.29)	11.35 (3.02)	11.21 (2.37)	11.14 (1.79)
	F	11.63 (2.65)	10.65 (3.07)	11.12 (2.78)	11.72 (2.17)
	T	11.52 (2.51)	10.98 (3.04)	11.14 (2.65)	11.51 (2.04)

Table 20

Means and Standard Deviations for Males, Females, and Total by PO - Opportunity Category on Total Implied Consent, Consent Importance, and Self-Reported Consent Behaviors

Scale/Item	Gender	Category			
		Powerful Mean (sd)	Dominant Mean (sd)	Empowered Mean (sd)	Powerless Mean (sd)
Implied Consent	M	31.16 (5.34)	30.44 (6.13)	30.88 (6.66)	33.68 (5.96)
	F	31.24 (8.80)	30.55 (8.55)	29.57 (8.17)	30.28 (7.31)
	T	31.20 (7.51)	30.50 (7.40)	29.91 (7.78)	31.46 (7.02)
Consent Importance	M	12.95 (2.13)	12.06 (2.18)	12.65 (1.80)	13.16 (1.75)
	F	12.86 (1.71)	12.70 (2.00)	12.84 (2.11)	12.45 (1.69)
	T	12.90 (1.89)	12.39 (2.09)	12.79 (2.02)	12.69 (1.73)
Self verbal consent	M	7.51 (2.71)	7.44 (2.52)	7.41 (2.87)	8.52 (2.76)
	F	8.39 (3.57)	7.30 (2.99)	7.65 (3.35)	8.06 (3.20)
	T	8.02 (3.25)	7.37 (2.75)	7.59 (3.21)	8.22 (3.04)
Self non-verbal consent	M	10.65 (3.17)	10.44 (2.33)	11.53 (2.53)	10.48 (2.57)
	F	10.96 (3.03)	10.35 (2.41)	11.88 (2.42)	11.55 (2.88)
	T	10.83 (3.08)	10.39 (2.34)	11.79 (2.43)	11.18 (2.81)
Partner verbal consent	M	7.32 (2.53)	6.83 (2.31)	7.76 (2.70)	8.56 (3.22)
	F	8.90 (2.28)	8.00 (3.21)	7.88 (3.13)	8.49 (3.20)
	T	8.24 (3.07)	7.45 (2.84)	7.85 (3.00)	8.51 (3.19)
Partner non-verbal consent	M	11.73 (2.16)	10.50 (2.57)	11.59 (2.55)	10.96 (2.51)
	F	10.84 (2.85)	10.30 (2.25)	11.71 (2.52)	11.72 (2.81)
	T	11.22 (2.61)	10.39 (2.34)	11.68 (2.51)	11.45 (2.71)

Table 21

Pearson Correlations Coefficients for Dominance, Self-Reported Relationship Power, Concern with Relationship Power, Total Consent Implied, Total Consent Importance, and Self-Reported Consent Behaviors for Males, Females, and Total

Scale	Gender	DS	S-RRP	CRP
Implied Consent	M	.05	.10	.01
	F	.03	.04	-.12
	T	.04	.06	-.08
Consent Importance	M	-.02	-.11	.27
	F	.001	-.03	.06
	T	-.01	-.06	.14
Self verbal consent	M	.17	.004	-.05
	F	-.07	-.12	.06
	T	.02	-.08	.03
Self non-verbal consent	M	-.06	.00	-.009
	F	-.16	-.14	-.05
	T	-.13	-.10	-.03
Partner verbal consent	M	.03	.04	.009
	F	-.05	.06	.06
	T	.03	-.04	.05
Partner non-verbal consent	M	-.08	-.12	-.01
	F	-.16	-.11	-.05
	T	-.13	-.12	-.04

Note. Using a Bonferroni procedure to protect against type 1 error would require a $p = .003$ in order for a test to be considered significant. DS = the Dominance Scale; S-RRP = self-reported relationship power; CRP = concern with relationship power.

Table 22

Pearson Correlations Coefficients for Sexism, Rape Myth Acceptance, Total Consent Implied, Total Consent Importance, and Self-Reported Consent Behaviors for Males, Females, and Total

Scale	Gender	MS	IRMA
Implied Consent	M	-.13	.13
	F	.05	.22
	T	.02	.20
Consent Importance	M	-.07	-.08
	F	-.10	-.05
	T	-.09	-.06
Self verbal consent	M	-.03	-.04
	F	.05	.02
	T	.02	-.02
Self non-verbal consent	M	-.08	-.01
	F	.10	.02
	T	.02	-.02
Partner verbal consent	M	-.10	-.13
	F	.02	.01
	T	-.04	-.08
Partner non-verbal consent	M	-.05	.11
	F	.13	.02
	T	.07	.05

Note. Using a Bonferroni procedure to protect against type I error would require a $p = .004$ in order for a test to be considered significant. MS = the Modern Sexism Scale; IRMA = the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale.

Hypothesis 5: Consent will be Related to Sexual Assault and Acquaintance Rape

To test whether consent would be related to sexual assault and acquaintance rape, Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated among scores on the implied consent item, consent importance item, self verbal consent scale, self non-verbal consent scale, the proclivity items, perpetrator items, and the Sexual Coercion Subscale-self (see Table 23).

To test whether consent behaviors were related to victimization, Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated among the self verbal consent, self non-verbal consent, partner verbal consent, and partner non-verbal consent scales and the victimization items and the Sexual Coercion Subscale-other scale. Because of the large number of correlations being performed, a Bonferroni correction was used to protect against an inflated risk of type 1 error. Although there was a tendency for less consent to be related to greater rates of victimization for females, no significant correlations were found for males or females (see Table 24).

Hypothesis 6: Power Orientation, Interpersonal Power, and Acceptance of Social Power Inequality will be Related to Sexual Assault and Acquaintance Rape

Power Orientation. Three MANOVAs (one for each PO scale) were calculated with gender and power orientation category as independent variables and the proclivity items, perpetrator items, victimization items, and the Sexual Coercion Subscale-self and Sexual Coercion Subscale-other as dependent variables. Support for this hypothesis was found for the perpetrator items; however, means for the victimization items were not in the expected direction.

Table 23

Pearson Correlations Coefficients for Total Consent Implied, Total Consent Importance, Self Verbal Consent, Self Non-Verbal Consent, Proclivity, and Perpetrator Items for Males, Females, and Total

Scale		Implied Consent	Consent Importance	Self Verbal Consent	Self Non- verbal Consent
	Gender				
Kiss	M	.009	-.11	.09	.06
Proclivity	F	.05	-.11	.05	-.09
	T	.04	-.11	.06	-.04
Non-intercourse	M	-.17	-.24	-.02	-.006
Proclivity	F	.09	-.09	.03	-.19
	T	.02	-.15	.008	-.13
Rape	M	-.18	-.19	-.06	-.08
Proclivity	F	.10	-.03	.004	-.05
	T	-.004	-.11	-.02	-.08
Kiss	M	-.10	-.02	.08	-.08
Perpetrator	F	.05	-.12	.08	-.14
	T	.007	-.05	.06	-.12
Non-intercourse	M	-.04	-.03	.05	.03
Perpetrator	F	.06	-.08	.04	-.04
	T	.01	-.03	.03	-.02
Intercourse	M	-.19	-.02	-.01	-.04
Perpetrator	F	—	—	—	—
	T	-.08	-.01	-.01	-.04
SCS-Self	M	-.03	-.14	-.07	-.07
	F	.15	.09	-.15	-.16
	T	.08	-.03	-.11	-.13

Note. Using a Bonferroni procedure to protect against type I error would require a $p = .002$ in order for a test to be considered significant.

Table 24

Pearson Correlations Coefficients for Self-Reported Consent Behaviors, Victimization Items, and the Sexual Coercion Subscale-Other for Males, Females, and Total

Scale		Self Verbal Consent	Self Non-verbal Consent	Partner Verbal Consent	Partner Non-verbal Consent
	Gender				
Kiss	M	.05	-.13	.05	-.11
Victimization	F	-.17	-.27	-.15	-.22
	T	-.10	-.20	-.07	-.18
Non-intercourse	M	.09	-.06	.06	-.09
Victimization	F	-.11	-.21	-.09	-.18
	T	-.06	-.15	-.03	-.16
Intercourse	M	.04	-.12	-.06	-.04
Victimization	F	-.14	-.10	-.12	-.05
	T	-.10	-.08	-.09	-.05
SCS-other	M	.03	-.09	.01	.009
	F	-.15	-.24	-.15	-.16
	T	-.09	-.18	-.09	-.10

Note. Using a Bonferroni procedure to protect against type 1 error would require a $p = .003$ in order for a test to be considered significant.

For PO-D, there were significant multivariate effects for power orientation category ($F(33, 740.20) = 1.54, p = .03, \text{Wilks' } \lambda = .82$) and gender ($F(11, 251) = 4.28, p < .001, \text{Wilks' } \lambda = .84$).⁴ There was no significant effect for an interaction.

There were three univariate effects for power orientation category: engaging in unwanted non-intercourse behaviors ($F(3, 261) = 4.72, p = .003$), engaging in unwanted intercourse ($F(3, 264) = 4.13, p = .007$), and being the victim of unwanted kissing ($F(3, 261) = 3.23, p = .02$). Means and standard deviations can be found in Table 25.

SNK post hoc tests revealed that participants classified as dominant scored higher on non-intercourse behaviors than participants classified as powerful, empowered, and powerless. Post hoc tests for intercourse perpetrator behaviors were similar. Participants classified as dominant scored higher on intercourse behaviors than participants classified as powerful, empowered, and powerless. This suggests that thinking of power as dominance without empowerment is associated with more sexually assaultive behaviors. Contrary to what was expected, participants who classified as dominant had fewer victimization experiences for unwanted kissing than participants classified as empowered and powerful.

For PO-F, there was a significant multivariate effect for gender ($F(11, 255) = 3.54, p < .001, \text{Wilks' } \lambda = .87$)⁴ and a questionable effect for power orientation category. Although Wilks' λ was not significant, the test using Roy's Greatest Root was ($F(11, 257) = 1.95, p = .03$). There was no significant effect for an interaction.

There were two significant univariate effects for power orientation category: for engaging in unwanted non-intercourse behaviors ($F(3, 265) = 3.14, p = .03$) and for

Table 25

Means and Standard Deviations for Males and Females by PO - Definition Category on Proclivity Items, Perpetrator Items, Victimization Items, and the Sexual Coercion Subscale-Self and Sexual Coercion Subscale-Other

Scale/Item	Gender	Category			
		Powerful Mean (sd)	Dominant Mean (sd)	Empowered Mean (sd)	Powerless Mean (sd)
Kiss proclivity	M	1.36 (0.66)	1.85 (0.97)	1.76 (0.97)	1.74 (1.10)
	F	1.40 (0.98)	1.52 (1.03)	1.58 (1.01)	1.70 (1.11)
	T	1.39 _a (0.86)	1.66 _a (1.01)	1.63 _a (1.00)	1.71 _a (1.10)
Non-intercourse proclivity	M	1.14 (0.35)	1.54 (0.81)	1.64 (1.04)	1.26 (0.54)
	F	1.23 (0.84)	1.30 (0.81)	1.18 (0.53)	1.20 (0.61)
	T	1.19 _a (0.69)	1.41 _a (0.81)	1.31 _a (0.73)	1.22 _a (0.58)
Rape proclivity	M	1.14 (0.35)	1.31 (0.97)	1.60 (1.22)	1.09 (0.42)
	F	1.14 (0.69)	1.09 (0.38)	1.11 (0.53)	1.10 (0.43)
	T	1.14 _a (0.58)	1.19 _a (0.71)	1.24 _a (0.81)	1.10 _a (0.43)
Kiss perpetrator	M	1.09 (2.16)	1.19 (1.55)	0.76 (1.36)	1.00 (1.38)
	F	0.23 (0.55)	0.36 (0.82)	0.34 (0.82)	0.28 (0.60)
	T	0.56 _a (1.45)	0.73 _a (1.26)	0.46 _a (1.01)	0.54 _a (1.01)
Non-intercourse perpetrator	M	0.41 (1.22)	1.23 (2.34)	0.28 (0.74)	0.13 (0.46)
	F	0.09 (0.28)	0.06 (0.24)	0.03 (0.25)	0.08 (0.35)
	T	0.21 _a (0.80)	0.58 _b (1.65)	0.10 _a (0.45)	0.10 _a (0.39)
Intercourse perpetrator	M	0.00 (0.00)	0.81 (2.26)	0.16 (0.55)	0.00 (0.00)
	F	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)
	T	0.00 _a (0.00)	0.36 _b (1.54)	0.04 _a (0.30)	0.00 _a (0.00)
Kiss victim	M	2.36 (2.98)	1.31 (1.26)	2.00 (2.20)	1.13 (1.22)
	F	2.49 (2.68)	1.52 (1.00)	2.49 (2.44)	1.95 (2.12)
	T	2.44 _b (2.78)	1.42 _a (1.12)	2.36 _b (2.38)	1.65 (1.88)
Non-intercourse victim	M	0.59 (1.14)	1.04 (1.59)	0.52 (0.96)	0.39 (0.78)
	F	1.49 (2.42)	0.82 (1.16)	1.28 (2.02)	1.05 (1.60)
	T	1.14 _a (2.06)	0.92 _a (1.36)	1.07 _a (1.82)	0.81 _a (1.39)
Intercourse victim	M	0.18 (0.50)	0.15 (0.61)	0.12 (0.33)	0.00 (0.00)
	F	0.54 (1.07)	0.30 (1.13)	0.46 (1.61)	0.35 (1.17)
	T	0.40 _a (0.90)	0.24 _a (0.93)	0.37 _a (1.39)	0.22 _a (0.94)
SCS-Self	M	5.73 (10.75)	8.88 (16.71)	3.72 (7.20)	3.70 (7.39)
	F	3.49 (8.20)	1.76 (5.04)	2.82 (7.31)	0.97 (3.21)
	T	4.35 _a (9.24)	4.90 _a (12.13)	3.07 _a (7.25)	1.97 _a (5.25)
SCS-Other	M	4.09 (8.49)	6.81 (12.75)	2.96 (6.19)	2.96 (7.26)
	F	6.71 (13.27)	2.58 (5.36)	3.75 (7.39)	2.88 (7.77)
	T	5.70 _a (11.65)	4.44 _a (9.51)	3.53 _a (7.05)	2.90 _a (7.53)

Note. Means in the same row that do not share subscripts differ at $p < .05$ in the Student-Newman-Keuls post hoc test.

kissing victimization ($F(3, 265) = 2.58, p = .05$). There was also a trend for engaging in unwanted intercourse ($F(3, 265) = 2.29, p = .08$). Because of the questionable nature of these effects, there is an increased risk of type 1 error; however, mean differences among groups do follow the expected pattern. Table 26 contains the means and standard deviations.

For engaging in unwanted non-intercourse behaviors, people in the dominant category were more likely to have engaged in perpetrator behavior than those in the empowered category. For kissing victimization, again contrary to what was expected, people classified as dominant and powerless had fewer victimization experiences than those classified as empowered. Finally, for engaging in unwanted intercourse, there was a trend for those classified as dominant score higher than those in other groups, particularly those classified as powerful and empowered.

Results for PO-O were very similar to those for PO-F such that there was a significant multivariate effect for gender ($F(11, 255) = 4.59, p < .001, \text{Wilks' } \lambda = .84$)⁴ and a questionable effect for power orientation category. Again Wilks' λ was not significant, but the multivariate test using Roy's Greatest Root was significant ($F(11, 257) = 1.83, p = .05$). There was no significant effect for an interaction.

There were two significant univariate effects for power orientation category: for engaging in unwanted intercourse ($F(3, 265) = 4.71, p = .003$) and for kissing victimization ($F(3, 265) = 2.67, p = .05$). There were also trends for the SCS-self ($F(3, 265) = 2.49, p = .06$) and the SCS-other ($F(3, 265) = 2.54, p = .06$). Again, the questionable nature of these effects means there is an increased risk of type 1 error

Table 26

Means and Standard Deviations for Males, Females, and Total by PO - Feeling Category on Proclivity Items, Perpetrator Items, Victimization Items, and the Sexual Coercion Subscale-Self and Sexual Coercion Subscale-Other

Scale/Item	Gender	Category			
		Powerful Mean (sd)	Dominant Mean (sd)	Empowered Mean (sd)	Powerless Mean (sd)
Kiss proclivity	M	1.72 (0.99)	1.79 (0.83)	1.80 (1.10)	1.21 (0.43)
	F	1.46 (1.01)	1.67 (1.09)	1.61 (1.05)	1.50 (0.99)
	T	1.56 _a (1.00)	1.72 _a (0.98)	1.67 _a (1.06)	1.40 _a (0.84)
Non-intercourse proclivity	M	1.41 (0.80)	1.54 (0.88)	1.37 (0.67)	1.29 (0.61)
	F	1.17 (0.63)	1.40 (0.86)	1.20 (0.68)	1.15 (0.46)
	T	1.26 _a (0.71)	1.46 _a (0.86)	1.25 _a (0.68)	1.20 _a (0.52)
Rape proclivity	M	1.28 (0.77)	1.42 (1.06)	1.20 (0.76)	1.29 (0.83)
	F	1.06 (0.32)	1.10 (0.40)	1.14 (0.69)	1.12 (0.43)
	T	1.15 _a (0.55)	1.24 _a (0.78)	1.16 _a (0.71)	1.17 _a (0.59)
Kiss perpetrator	M	1.34 (2.04)	1.00 (1.32)	0.73 (1.31)	0.64 (1.34)
	F	0.15 (0.46)	0.60 (0.97)	0.28 (0.68)	0.35 (0.80)
	T	0.63 _a (1.45)	0.78 _a (1.14)	0.41 _a (0.94)	0.45 _a (1.01)
Non-intercourse perpetrator	M	0.47 (1.16)	1.04 (2.26)	0.23 (0.68)	0.36 (1.34)
	F	0.08 (0.35)	0.13 (0.43)	0.00 (0.00)	0.08 (0.27)
	T	0.24 (0.80)	0.54 _b (1.59)	0.07 _a (0.38)	0.18 (0.81)
Intercourse perpetrator	M	0.00 (0.00)	0.63 (2.08)	0.13 (0.51)	0.43 (1.60)
	F	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)
	T	0.00 _a (0.00)	0.28 _a (1.41)	0.04 _a (0.28)	0.15 _a (0.95)
Kiss victim	M	2.31 (2.58)	0.92 (1.06)	1.73 (2.08)	1.21 (1.25)
	F	1.75 (1.94)	1.83 (1.58)	2.81 (2.60)	1.69 (2.07)
	T	1.97 (2.22)	1.43 _a (1.44)	2.48 _b (2.49)	1.53 _a (1.83)
Non-intercourse victim	M	0.78 (1.21)	0.71 (1.27)	0.50 (1.01)	0.64 (1.39)
	F	1.02 (1.51)	0.83 (1.02)	1.70 (2.48)	0.50 (0.95)
	T	0.93 _a (1.39)	0.78 _a (1.13)	1.33 _a (2.20)	0.55 _a (1.11)
Intercourse victim	M	0.13 (0.42)	0.04 (0.20)	0.10 (0.31)	0.21 (0.80)
	F	0.35 (0.81)	0.40 (1.16)	0.62 (1.81)	0.04 (0.20)
	T	0.26 _a (0.69)	0.24 _a (0.89)	0.46 _a (1.53)	0.10 _a (0.50)
SCS-Self	M	5.97 (10.86)	6.21 (16.44)	3.80 (6.75)	6.36 (9.18)
	F	2.73 (6.86)	2.03 (5.25)	2.36 (6.79)	1.81 (6.02)
	T	4.03 _a (8.77)	3.89 _a (11.69)	2.80 _a (6.77)	3.40 _a (7.49)
SCS-Other	M	5.19 (10.16)	4.13 (11.45)	3.37 (5.90)	3.64 (7.31)
	F	3.67 (9.54)	3.10 (5.97)	4.87 (9.53)	2.85 (7.84)
	T	4.28 _a (9.76)	3.56 _a (8.75)	4.41 _a (8.59)	3.12 _a (7.58)

Note. Means in the same row that do not share subscripts differ at $p < .05$ in the Student-Newman-Keuls post hoc test.

when interpreting them; however, the mean differences among groups follow the expected pattern for the non-victimization scales. See Table 27 for means and standard deviations.

For engaging in unwanted intercourse, SNK post hoc tests revealed that people in the dominant category were more likely to have engaged in perpetrator behavior than those classified as powerful, empowered category, or powerless. For the SCS-self, there was a trend for people classified as dominant be more likely to engage in sexually coercive behaviors than those classified as empowered.

Post hoc tests for the victimization scales uncovered a pattern of results dissimilar to those found for the PO-D and PO-F. For the SCS-other, those classified as empowered and powerless were less likely to experience coercion from their partners than those classified as dominant. For kissing victimization, those classified as empowered and powerless reported fewer victimization experiences than those classified as dominant or powerful. These results neither follow the previously established pattern found in the PO-D or PO-F scales, nor do they lend support to the hypothesis under investigation. It may be that opportunities for expressing power have somewhat different effects on victimization than definitions or feelings, but it is inappropriate to speculate given the inflated risk of type 1 error associated with these results. They may simply be spurious findings.

In general, a patterns was uncovered that suggests being high in dominance without being high in empowerment may make people more likely to engage in sexually assaultive behavior, although some of these results should be interpreted with caution.⁵

Table 27

Means and Standard Deviations for Males, Females, and Total by PO - Opportunity Category on Proclivity Items, Perpetrator Items, Victimization Items, and the Sexual Coercion Subscale-Self and Sexual Coercion Subscale-Other

Scale/Item	Gender	Category			
		Powerful Mean (sd)	Dominant Mean (sd)	Empowered Mean (sd)	Powerless Mean (sd)
Kiss proclivity	M	1.59 (0.86)	1.61 (0.85)	1.84 (1.17)	1.77 (0.95)
	F	1.60 (1.08)	1.52 (1.08)	1.60 (1.07)	1.49 (0.95)
	T	1.60 _a (0.99)	1.56 _a (0.97)	1.67 _a (1.09)	1.58 _a (0.95)
Non-intercourse proclivity	M	1.38 (0.72)	1.44 (0.78)	1.53 (0.96)	1.35 (0.63)
	F	1.30 (0.85)	1.19 (0.87)	1.17 (0.52)	1.20 (0.49)
	T	1.33 _a (0.79)	1.31 _a (0.83)	1.27 _a (0.69)	1.25 _a (0.54)
Rape proclivity	M	1.35 (0.95)	1.33 (0.97)	1.37 (0.96)	1.12 (0.43)
	F	1.17 (0.78)	1.00 (0.00)	1.10 (0.42)	1.10 (0.36)
	T	1.24 _a (0.85)	1.15 _a (0.67)	1.18 _a (0.63)	1.10 _a (0.38)
Kiss perpetrator	M	1.00 (1.94)	1.17 (1.65)	1.00 (1.41)	0.81 (1.10)
	F	0.40 (0.84)	0.29 (0.72)	0.37 (0.79)	0.16 (0.46)
	T	0.64 _a (1.42)	0.69 _a (1.30)	0.55 _a (1.03)	0.38 _a (0.80)
Non-intercourse perpetrator	M	0.35 (1.01)	1.11 (2.65)	0.47 (1.02)	0.38 (0.94)
	F	0.11 (0.38)	0.05 (0.22)	0.06 (0.32)	0.00 (0.00)
	T	0.21 _a (0.71)	0.54 _a (1.86)	0.18 _a (0.63)	0.13 _a (0.57)
Intercourse perpetrator	M	0.08 (0.36)	1.00 (2.68)	0.21 (0.63)	0.00 (0.00)
	F	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)
	T	0.03 _a (0.23)	0.46 _b (1.86)	0.06 _a (0.34)	0.00 _a (0.00)
Kiss victim	M	2.08 (2.48)	1.89 (2.27)	1.84 (1.46)	0.73 (1.12)
	F	2.53 (2.81)	2.48 (1.75)	1.85 (1.79)	2.00 (2.12)
	T	2.34 _b (2.67)	2.21 _b (2.00)	1.85 _a (1.69)	1.57 _a (1.93)
Non-intercourse victim	M	0.62 (1.11)	1.22 (1.66)	0.63 (1.01)	0.35 (0.89)
	F	1.42 (2.29)	0.76 (1.04)	0.94 (1.24)	1.33 (2.16)
	T	1.09 _a (1.93)	0.97 _a (1.37)	0.85 _a (1.18)	1.00 _a (1.88)
Intercourse victim	M	0.05 (0.23)	0.33 (0.84)	0.16 (0.37)	0.00 (0.00)
	F	0.40 (0.91)	0.24 (0.62)	0.29 (1.22)	0.65 (1.87)
	T	0.26 _a (0.73)	0.28 _a (0.72)	0.25 _a (1.05)	0.43 _a (1.55)
SCS-Self	M	4.76 (9.54)	10.22 (18.70)	4.26 (8.92)	3.92 (7.02)
	F	2.49 (6.73)	3.95 (8.24)	0.60 (1.63)	3.10 (7.74)
	T	3.42 (8.03)	6.85 _b (14.22)	1.64 _a (5.14)	3.38 (7.47)
SCS-Other	M	4.54 (8.77)	6.50 (13.86)	3.42 (6.80)	2.58 (6.09)
	F	4.23 (9.05)	8.19 (13.84)	2.15 (5.90)	3.53 (7.55)
	T	4.36 (8.90)	7.41 _b (13.69)	2.51 _a (6.14)	3.21 _a (7.06)

Note. Means in the same row that do not share subscripts differ at $p < .05$ in the Student-Newman-Keuls post hoc test.

Interpersonal Power. To test this part of the hypothesis, separate Pearson correlation coefficients were calculated among dominance, concern about relationship power, and self-reported relationship power, and proclivity items, perpetrator items, and the Sexual Coercion Subscale-self for males and females (see Table 28). A Bonferroni correction was used to protect against an inflated risk of type 1 error. There were no significant correlations for males or females.

Acceptance of Social Power Inequality. This part of the hypothesis was tested by separate Pearson correlation coefficients among sexism and rape myth acceptance and the proclivity items, perpetrator items, and the Sexual Coercion Subscale-self for males and females. No significant correlations were found for either males nor females (see Table 29).

Table 28
Pearson Correlations Coefficients for Dominance, Self-Reported Relationship Power, Concern with Relationship Power, Proclivity Items, Perpetrator Items, and the Sexual Coercion Subscale-Self for Males, Females, and Total

Scale	Gender	DS	S-RRP	CRP
Kiss proclivity	M	.16	-.13	-.02
	F	.07	.14	.09
	T	.11	.06	.05
Non-intercourse proclivity	M	.13	-.09	.01
	F	.09	.15	.07
	T	.13	.08	.05
Rape proclivity	M	.09	.03	.05
	F	.05	.14	-.01
	T	.08	.10	.02
Kiss perpetrator	M	.16	.02	.07
	F	.03	-.00	.07
	T	.13	.04	.06
Non-intercourse perpetrator	M	.19	-.07	.13
	F	.01	.06	.06
	T	.15	-.004	.08
Intercourse perpetrator	M	.23	.02	.15
	F	—	—	—
	T	.16	.03	.09
SCS-Self	M	.11	.07	.11
	F	.15	-.02	.12
	T	.15	.04	.11

Note. Using a Bonferroni procedure to protect against type I error would require a $p = .002$ in order for a test to be considered significant. DS = the Dominance Scale; S-RRP = self-reported relationship power; CRP = concern with relationship power; SCS - Self = the Sexual Coercion Subscale - Self Scale.

Table 29

Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Sexism, Rape Myth Acceptance, Concern with Relationship Power, Self-Reported Relationship Power, Proclivity Items, Perpetrator Items, and the Sexual Coercion Subscale-Self for Males, Females, and Total

Scale	Gender	MS	IRMA
Kiss proclivity	M	-.09	-.02
	F	.06	.02
	T	.02	.02
Non-intercourse proclivity	M	.00	.05
	F	.08	.08
	T	.07	.10
Rape proclivity	M	.02	.05
	F	.09	.04
	T	.08	.09
Kiss perpetrator	M	.02	-.10
	F	.00	.05
	T	.06	.05
Non-intercourse perpetrator	M	.17	.08
	F	.02	.03
	T	.13	.13
Intercourse perpetrator	M	.02	-.07
	F	—	—
	T	.04	.006
SCS-Self	M	-.09	-.01
	F	-.11	.11
	T	-.07	.09

Note. Using a Bonferroni procedure to protect against type 1 error would require a $p = .003$ in order for a test to be considered significant. MS = the Modern Sexism Scale; IRMA = the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale; SCS - Self = the Sexual Coercion Subscale - Self Scale.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Power: Orientation, Interpersonal, Social

Three hypotheses tested the relation among power orientation, interpersonal power, and acceptance of social power inequality. It should first be mentioned that strong support was found for the reliability of the Power Orientation scales across the three studies presented, particularly in study 2. Although, the validity of the Power Orientation scales was not tested directly, their relation to the Dominance Scale lends support to assumption that they measure an individual's distinction between dominance and empowerment. People classified as high in dominance were consistently more likely to score higher on the Dominance Scale than those classified as low in dominance (for all three of the PO scales). Thus, regardless of score on empowerment, people who score high on dominance tend to be more dominating in their relationships. In addition, there appears to be a link between power orientation and concern with having power in one's relationships. Again, dominance seems to be the more important predictor variable in this case.

The relation between power orientation and acceptance of social power inequality was not as consistent, and significance was only found with regards to rape myth acceptance. There were no significant relations between the PO-D scale and other measures. For the PO-F and PO-O scales, however, higher scores in dominance appeared

to be related to greater rape myth acceptance. Empowerment may exert something like a moderating effect on that relation, such that greater empowerment may decrease rape myth acceptance among those who are also high in dominance.

Finally, there was no support found for the hypothesis that interpersonal power would be related to acceptance of social power inequality. The assumption that all three types of power would be inter-related may not be accurate as assumed in the literature (Griscom, 1992). Instead of relations among each type, it may be that power orientation (power at the individual level) is related to interpersonal and social power and that any link between the interpersonal and the social is forged through the individual. Of course, it is possible to do no more than speculate about this relation with the available data. Several other explanations are possible, including that variables used to measure acceptance of social power inequality (rape myth acceptance and sexism) are not appropriate choices, nor do they reflect the actual social power of an individual (see the limitations section for further discussion).

Consent: Relation to Power and Sexual Assault/Acquaintance Rape

Two hypotheses tested the relation between consent and power, and consent and rape. Surprisingly, no support was found for either hypothesis although evidence for links between consent and power orientation, consent and dominance, and consent and sexual assault proclivity were found in the pilot study. There are a couple of possible explanations for this discrepancy. First, there were subtle differences in the ways consent was measured and the ways in which those measurements were scored for study 2. Measurements were adjusted, among other reasons, in an attempt to make them more

accurately reflect the nature of consent. However, by doing so they may have failed to capture information that was recorded in the pilot study. This leads to a second possibility, which is that the correlations obtained in the pilot study were either spurious or an artifact of the way consent was measured. Unfortunately, the lack of a published, validated measure of consent attitudes or behaviors make measurement uncertain.

There was a tendency among females for less verbal and non-verbal consent to be related to victimization experiences, although none of the correlations reached significance with the Bonferroni correction. It would make sense that having a partner who does not bother with consent would lead to more experiences of unwanted sexual behavior. Why one's own lack of consent behaviors would relate to victimization is less clear. It is possible that being with a partner who is less concerned about consent may make it more difficult to control anything about consent. If consent cannot be separated from power, as Donat and White (2000) suggested, it could be argued that a partner who is not concerned with consent takes away a person's ability to pay attention to consent. Unfortunately, more research is needed before this connection could really be explored.

Power and Sexual Assault/Acquaintance Rape

It was hypothesized that all types of power would be related to sexual assault and acquaintance rape, both proclivities and actual perpetrator behaviors. In addition, it was hypothesized that high empowerment would be related to fewer victimization experiences. Although some support was found for this hypothesis, it concerned only power orientation and only its effects on self-reported behaviors, not proclivities. Self-reported behaviors, however, are likely to be a better measure of actual behaviors than

proclivity; so of the two types of measures, this is the one that ought to be most deserving of attention. Neither interpersonal power nor acceptance of social power inequality were related to proclivities or perpetrator behavior.

Power orientation results, with the exception of the PO-D scale, should be interpreted with caution because multivariate effects were not significant and for some results there may be an increased risk of type 1 error. There was consistency across measures, however, which suggests that the effects found for the PO-D scale may be real for the PO-F and PO-O scales.

Both dominance and empowerment appear to have an effect on engaging in unwanted non-intercourse behaviors and unwanted intercourse. There is an increased likelihood of perpetrator behaviors for people classified as dominant (high dominance, low empowerment). Like with rape myth acceptance, it could be that empowerment has a moderating effect on the influence of dominance. In addition, this trend was found for sexually coercive behavior, although as this only appeared for the PO-O scale, it is of questionable interpretation.

On one hand, it would appear that a combination of being high in dominance and high in empowerment should make an individual more likely to become sexually aggressive. It could be interpreted that people high in both have tendencies to dominate and would feel empowered to do so. Yet, the mellowing or moderating effect empowerment seems to exert, decreasing self-reported perpetrator behaviors, is hard to explain. The dearth of empirical studies of a dominance/empowerment distinction makes it difficult to understand this effect. It may be that an empowerment perspective is related

to other qualities that do not specifically have much to do with power, such as a sense of responsibility to care for others, which could prevent aggressive behaviors.

Among the victimization items, only being a victim of unwanted kissing reached significance for the PO-D scale and possible significance for the PO-F and PO-O scales. Results did not support the hypothesis that higher empowerment would be associated with less victimization. In fact, lower empowerment was generally associated with fewer victimization experiences. As these findings are counter to theories of empowerment (e.g. Yoder & Kahn, 1992), which argue that a greater sense of empowerment should prevent victimization, and are of dubious significance, it is unclear how or whether to interpret them. They may be spurious or a result of inflated type 1 error.

The lack of a relation between measures of interpersonal power, particularly dominance, and consent or sexual assault and rape is curious. Part of the reason for this, of course, may lie with the consent measures, but the lack of a direct link between interpersonal power and sexual assault is perplexing, particularly as evidence for a connection was found in the pilot study. It is possible that ways in which interpersonal power was measured contributed to the lack of findings. Many studies on the effects of interpersonal power rely on either defining an individual in a relationship or dyad as the more powerful or less powerful of the pair or defining certain behaviors as more or less powerful (e.g. Howard, et al., 1986; Johnson, 1994; Kipnis, et al., 1976; Kollock, et al., 1985). This study relied on a few self-report measures that were not dichotomized and which may not accurately reflect relationship power.

Theories of Power, Consent, and Sexual Assault/Acquaintance Rape

One goal of the current research was to uncover a theory relating power, consent, and sexual assault and acquaintance rape. Of the two theories proposed, the first theory suggested that power and consent are independently related to sexual assault/acquaintance rape (see Figure 1). This would appear to be the most plausible of the two proposed theories given that there is evidence for a direct link between power orientation and engaging in sexually assaultive behaviors. It is possible, however, that neither of the originally proposed theories are adequate. Results from study 2 suggest a third theory (see Figure 3): power may be directly related to sexual assault/acquaintance rape and consent may be irrelevant.

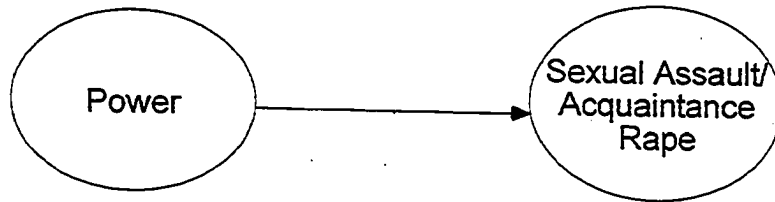
Limitations

There are several important limitations in this study, perhaps the most important among them being the lack of standardized measures for consent. It is not impossible that a lack of significant findings relating to consent result, in part at least, from poor measures. Studies that have examined consent have done so in different ways, and all of those ways are still different from the way in which consent was measured in the pilot study or study 2. Given the varying results obtained from the slightly different measures of consent used in these studies, it is perhaps understandable why there has been so little research on consent and why there has been little consistency in the findings from the studies that have been done.

Other measurement problems may have resulted from using rape myth acceptance and sexism as measures of acceptance of social power inequality. These variables only tap a limited way of thinking about social power, and although they appeared to be logical

Figure 3

Theory 3 of the Relation Between Power and Sexual Assault/Acquaintance Rape



choices to relate to sexual assault and acquaintance rape, they may not have been the most relevant or may simply have been too limited in their scope. In addition, they do not actually measure an individual's social power, only beliefs or attitudes; actual social power, or lack thereof, is likely to contribute differently to sexual assault and rape.

Social desirability may have been a limitation as well. Although the Marlowe-Crowne scale was originally intended to capture this problem, it did not contribute to the analyses in study 2, suggesting that perhaps it was not an adequate tool for the social desirability that arises from items pertaining to sexual assault and rape.

There is also evidence that a lack of statistical power may have made it difficult to detect certain effects. When data was analyzed for males and females together, there was an increase in the size of some correlations, among other results. There was good reason for analyzing data for males and females separately, but the lower statistical power that resulted may have been detrimental.

Finally, there was a limitation stemming from the lack of racial/ethnic and sexual orientation diversity on the campus where this study was done. Demographics reflect the diversity of the area, which unfortunately, is not ideal. Given the possibility that there was too little power for some analyses, however, it might have been just as well there was little diversity for certain characteristics. For example, sexual orientation may very well have an effect on the some of the behaviors or attitudes measured that needs to be considered.

Future Directions

More research needs to be done to further elucidate a connection between power,

especially power orientation, and sexual assault and acquaintance rape. Results from study 2 suggest that there is a link between power and sexual aggression, which although previously theorized (e.g. MacKinnon, 1983), has either been neglected empirically or failed to be uncovered by prior empirical research. (Research by Otterbein (1979) or Sanday (1981b, 1990) at the socio-cultural level may be an exception to this, but as these are anthropological studies, power is conceived of on a larger scale than in the psychological literature.) If indeed a lack of support for a power-sexual aggression link was the case, it may have been due in part to the way in which power was studied. Studying power as power orientation (as opposed to interpersonal power, for example) may be a better way of testing a connection between power and sexual assault.

Because some of the effects found in this study were marginal, and lack of statistical power may have been an issue, replication is essential. Power may be another risk factor associated with sexual assault and rape, and could have implications for rape prevention programs aimed at stopping perpetration (as opposed to those preventing victimization). For example, teaching people about the role of power in relationships or expanding the ways in which people think about power to include a “power to”/empowerment perspective (if such a thing is possible).

Related to replication is the need for more research with populations not well-represented in the samples studied here. If a connection between power and sexual assault and rape can be replicated, research should be done with racial/ethnic minorities and people of a non-heterosexual orientation. It would also be useful to study non-college student populations, particularly adolescents who, like college students, have an

increased risk for sexual assault and rape (Greenfield, 1997).

It would also be useful to work on a measure of consent attitudes and/or behaviors. Some of the problems or lack of results in the current studies may have been due in part to the measurement of consent. A reliable, validated measure of consent would be a very useful tool to have and could potentially clarify some of the confusion about the relation between consent and sexual assault and acquaintance rape.

Finally, more research on power orientation could be done. Though much has been theorized about dominance versus empowerment in the feminist psychology literature (e.g. Yoder & Kahn, 1992), it has had little influence outside of this sphere. The Power Orientation scales completed for study 2 appear to be reliable measures and there is evidence of their validity (though further evidence of such would be desirable). There is potential for power orientation to be related to many other areas, both within and beyond the general area of interpersonal violence, and it would be of interest to explore some of these connections as well.

Conclusion

A woman can say “No,” physically resist, scream, and cry, and yet some people will still believe that she consented to sexual intercourse (Warshaw, 1994). How something seemingly so obvious could be missed requires deep consideration. Researchers have only recently begun to examine consent as one possible influence on acquaintance rape (e.g. Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999) and have just as recently suggested the link between power and consent (Donat & White, 2000). The evidence for a relation between consent and sexual assault and rape in the studies presented here is

tentative, but there is some evidence linking power, specifically power orientation, to sexual assault and rape. Generally, people oriented toward power as dominance but not personal empowerment were more likely to report having engaged in sexually assaultive behaviors.

Further research on the connection among power, consent, and rape should be conducted, particularly with good measures of consent. The relation between power orientation and sexually assaultive behaviors also needs to be developed further as it may lead to more effective techniques for sexual assault and rape prevention.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Pilot Study Measures

II.1

People define power in a lot of different ways; below are some of those ways. Using the scale below, please rate how important you think each of these terms is to your personal definition of power.

Unimportant to my personal definition	1.....2.....3.....4.....5	Very important to my personal definition
---------------------------------------------	---------------------------	------------------------------------------------

___ Dominance (II.11)

___ Responsibility (II.12)

___ Control over others (II.13)

___ Control over self (II.14)

___ Possession (something you have) (II.15)

___ Ability (being able to do something) (II.16)

___ Authority (II.17)

___ Empowerment (being able to do something yourself) (II.18)

II.2 If your partner did not want to do something sexual that you did want to do, how likely would you be to go ahead and do it anyway?

Not at all
likely
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

Definitely
likely

II.3 If your partner did not want to have sex but you did, how likely would you be have sex anyway, against your partner's will?

Not at all
likely
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

Definitely
likely

Consent is something that has to be requested by one person and given by another, or it may be something that is assumed by one or both people. Consent can be given and/or requested verbally or non-verbally.

II.7 Does consent matter when you want to kiss someone or is it unimportant - it's just a kiss?

Is
Unimportant
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

Is Very
Important

II.9 Does consent matter when you want to have sex or is it unimportant?

Is
Unimportant
1.....2.....3.....4.....5

Is Very
Important

Consent is something that has to be requested by one person and given by another, or it may be something that is assumed by one or both people. Consent can be given and/or requested verbally or non-verbally.

III.2 In general in your relationships, when you want to kiss someone, circle the number that best describes where you fall along the following continuum. If the question is not applicable (you've never kissed anyone), circle that option below.

Not Applicable

My partner(s) always requests or assumes consent	My partner(s) and I always request and give consent equally	I always request or assume consent								
-5.....	-4.....	-3.....	-2.....	-1.....	0.....	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5

III.3 In general in your relationships, when you want to do something sexual (beyond kissing) with someone, circle the number that best describes where you fall along the following continuum. If the question is not applicable (you've never done more than kiss anyone), circle that option below.

Not Applicable

My partner(s) always requests or assumes consent	My partner(s) and I always request and give consent equally	I always request or assume consent								
-5.....	-4.....	-3.....	-2.....	-1.....	0.....	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5

III.5 Power is something that has to be negotiated in all relationships. In general in your relationships, circle the number that best describes where you fall along the following continuum.

I always
have less
power
than my
partner(s)

My partner(s)
and I share
power equally

I always
have more
power
than my
partner(s)

-5.....-4.....-3.....-2.....-1.....0.....1.....2.....3.....4.....5

Appendix B

The Dominance Scale

People have many different ways of relating to each other. The following statements are all different ways of relating to or thinking about your partner. Please read each statement and decide how much you agree with it.

- 4 = Strongly Agree
- 3 = Agree
- 2 = Disagree
- 1 = Strongly Disagree

- ___ 1) My partner often has good ideas.
- ___ 2) I try to keep my partner from spending time with opposite sex friends.
- ___ 3) If my partner and I can't agree, I usually have the final say.
- ___ 4) It bothers me when my partner makes plans without talking to me first.
- ___ 5) My partner doesn't have enough sense to make important decisions.
- ___ 6) I hate losing arguments with my partner.
- ___ 7) My partner should not keep any secrets from me.
- ___ 8) I insist on knowing where my partner is at all times.
- ___ 9) When my partner and I watch TV, I hold the remote control.
- ___ 10) My partner and I usually have equal say about decisions.
- ___ 11) It would bother me if my partner made more money than I did.
- ___ 12) I generally consider my partner's interests as much mine.
- ___ 13) I tend to be jealous.
- ___ 14) Things are easier in my relationship if I am in charge.

- ___ 15) Sometimes I have to remind my partner who's boss.
- ___ 16) I have a right to know everything my partner does.
- ___ 17) It would make me mad if my partner did something I said not to do.
- ___ 18) Both partners in a relationship should have equal say about decisions.
- ___ 19) If my partner and I can't agree, I should have the final say.
- ___ 20) I understand there are some things that my partner may not want to talk about
with me.
- ___ 21) My partner needs to remember that I am in charge.
- ___ 22) My partner is a talented person.
- ___ 23) It's hard for my partner to learn new things.
- ___ 24) People usually like my partner.
- ___ 25) My partner makes a lot of mistakes.
- ___ 26) My partner can handle most things that happen.
- ___ 27) I sometimes think my partner is unattractive.
- ___ 28) My partner is basically a good person.
- ___ 29) My partner doesn't know how to act in public.
- ___ 30) I often tell my partner how to do something.
- ___ 31) I dominate my partner.
- ___ 32) I have a right to be involved with anything my partner does.

- ___ Status
- ___ Independence (PT)
- ___ Influencing others (PO)
- ___ Changing yourself
- ___ Taking charge
- ___ Leadership
- ___ Self-sufficiency (PT)

Note. Items retained in the final version of the scale are marked PO if they loaded on the dominance factor or PT if they loaded on the empowerment factor.

Appendix D

Demographic Information

Sex: Male Female

Age:

Year: First Year Sophomore Junior Senior

Other (describe):

Racial/Ethnic Background: African-American Asian/Asian-American

Caucasian/White Hispanic

Native-American/American Indian Multi-racial

Other (describe):

Sexual Orientation: Heterosexual Gay/Lesbian Bisexual

Other (describe):

Marital Status: Single/Never Married Married Divorced/Separated

Widowed Other (describe):

Religion: Agnostic) Atheist Buddhist Catholic Hindu

Jewish Mormon Muslim Pagan/Earth-based

Protestant (Baptist, Methodist, etc.)

Other (describe):

For many of the questions in this survey you will need to think about your most recent sexual encounter(s). These encounter(s) could take place in a current relationship, past relationship, or could be a casual hook-up or fling. Please think now about your most recent sexual encounter.

If your most recent encounter took place in a relationship of 3 months or less, please start answering the questions below. If not, keep reading.

If your most recent encounter took place in a relationship of longer than 3 months, please think of another sexual encounter that took place in a relationship of under 3 months and refer to that encounter throughout the survey. If this is not possible either, keep reading.

If you have never had a sexual encounter in a relationship of under 3 months, please indicate that below and think back to your feelings and attitudes at the beginning of a longer relationship and refer to them throughout the survey.

Is this recent encounter part of a current relationship?

yes no

How long have you been in or were you in a relationship with the other person (specify months, days, or hours)?

Do/did you consider this relationship to be longterm, shortterm, or a casual hook-up or fling?

Appendix E

Power Orientation Scales

Scale 1

People define power in a lot of different ways; below are some of those ways. Using the scale below, please rate how important you think each of these terms is to your personal definition of power.

Unimportant to my personal definition	1.....2.....3.....4.....5	Very important to my personal definition
---------------------------------------------	---------------------------	------------------------------------------------

___ Dominance

___ Control over others

___ Ability

___ Changing others

___ Inner strength

___ Authority

___ Empowerment (being able to do something yourself)

___ Independence

___ Influencing others

___ Self-sufficiency

Scale 2

People feel powerful in many situations; below are some of the times when people indicate that they feel powerful. Using the scale below, please rate how powerful each of these situations would make you feel.

Not powerful
at all
1.....2.....3.....4.....5
Very
powerful

- ___ Dominating others
- ___ Having control over others
- ___ Being able to do things you want
- ___ Being able to change others
- ___ Feeling inner strength
- ___ Being an authority figure
- ___ Being able to do something for myself
- ___ Being independent
- ___ Influencing others
- ___ Being self-sufficient

Scale 3

Using the scale below, please rate how often you have the opportunity to do the following things.

Never or almost never
1.....2.....3.....4.....5
Very often

- ___ Dominate others
- ___ Have control over others
- ___ Be able to do things that you want
- ___ Be able to change others
- ___ Feeling a sense of inner strength
- ___ Be an authority figure
- ___ Be able to do something for myself
- ___ Be independent
- ___ Influence others
- ___ Be self-sufficient

Appendix F

Measures of Interpersonal Power

Power is something that has to be negotiated in all relationships. In general in your relationships, circle the number that best describes where you fall along the following continuum.

I always have less power than my partner(s)		My partner(s) and I share power equally		I always have more power than my partner(s)						
-5.....	-4.....	-3.....	-2.....	-1.....	0.....	1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5

How important to you is having power in your relationships?

Not at all important		Very Important		
1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5

Appendix G

The Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale

For each item, please indicate how much you agree or disagree.

Not at all
Agree
1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7
Very Much
Agree

- ___ 1. If a woman is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of control.
- ___ 2. Although most women wouldn't admit it, they generally find being physically forced into sex a "turn-on."
- ___ 3. If a woman is willing to "make out" with a guy, then it's no big deal if he goes a little further and has sex.
- ___ 4. Many women secretly desire to be raped.
- ___ 5. Most rapists are not caught by the police.
- ___ 6. If a woman doesn't physically fight back, you can't really say that it was rape.
- ___ 7. Men from nice middle-class homes almost never rape.
- ___ 8. Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at men.
- ___ 9. All women should have access to self-defense classes.
- ___ 10. It is usually only women who dress suggestively that get raped.
- ___ 11. If the rapist doesn't have a weapon, you really can't call it rape.
- ___ 12. Rape is unlikely to happen in the woman's own familiar neighborhood.
- ___ 13. Women tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them.

- ___14. A lot of women lead a man on and then they cry rape.
- ___15. It is preferable that a female police officer conduct the questioning when a woman reports a rape.
- ___16. A woman who “teases” men deserves anything that might happen.
- ___17. When women are raped, it’s often because the way they said “no” was ambiguous.
- ___18. Men don’t usually intend to force sex on a woman, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.
- ___19. A woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force sex on her.
- ___20. Rape happens when a man’s sex drive gets out of control.

Appendix I

Measures of Consent

Everybody thinks about consent in different ways. Some people think it is very important in their relationships, other people don't consider it so important.

How important do you think consent is when you want to kiss someone - is it just a kiss?

Is					Is Very
Unimportant					Important
1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5	

How important do you think consent is when you want to do other sexual behaviors (beyond kissing, but not intercourse)?

Is					Is Very
Unimportant					Important
1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5	

How important do you think consent is when you want to have sex?

Is					Is Very
Unimportant					Important
1.....	2.....	3.....	4.....	5	

Consent for sexual intercourse can be given in many different ways. Below are some of the ways people may give it. Please rate how much consent for sexual intercourse you think is implied by the following behaviors.

No consent at all	Some consent	A lot of consent
1.....	2.....	3.....
	4.....	5

When someone...

Kisses me

Invites me to his/her room

Accepts an invitation to my room

Removes his/her clothing

Lets me remove his/her clothing

Touches me in a sexually intimate way

Lets me touch him/her in a sexually intimate way

Performs oral sex

Receives oral sex

Consent is something that has to be requested by one person and given by another, or it may be something that is assumed by one or both people. Consent can be given and/or requested verbally or non-verbally.

The following three questions all concern VERBAL consent. The first question is about kissing, the second is about other sexual (non-kissing) behaviors, and the third is about sexual intercourse. If any of the questions are not applicable (e.g. you've never had intercourse), circle that option.

VERBAL CONSENT FOR KISSING

Not Applicable: I've never kissed anyone

My partner
never
requests
verbally

My partner
always
requests
verbally

1..... 2..... 3..... 4.....5

I never
request
verbally

I always
request
verbally

1..... 2..... 3..... 4.....5

VERBAL CONSENT FOR OTHER (NON-KISSING) SEXUAL BEHAVIORS

Not Applicable: I've never done more than kiss someone

My partner
never
requests
verbally

My partner
always
requests
verbally

1..... 2..... 3..... 4.....5

I never
request
verbally

I always
request
verbally

1..... 2..... 3..... 4.....5

VERBAL CONSENT FOR SEXUAL INTERCOURSE

Not Applicable: I've never had sexual intercourse

My partner
never
requests
verbally

My partner
always
requests
verbally

1..... 2..... 3..... 4.....5

I never
request
verbally

I always
request
verbally

1..... 2..... 3..... 4.....5

The following three questions all concern NON-VERBAL (i.e. physical or unspoken) consent. The first question is about kissing, the second is about other sexual (non-kissing) behaviors, and the third is about sexual intercourse. If any of the questions are not applicable (e.g. you've never had intercourse), you can circle that option.

NON-VERBAL CONSENT FOR KISSING

Not Applicable: I've never kissed anyone

My partner
never
assumes
non-verbally

My partner
always
assumes
non-verbally

1..... 2..... 3..... 4.....5

I never
assume
non-verbally

I always
assume
non-verbally

1..... 2..... 3..... 4.....5

NON-VERBAL CONSENT FOR OTHER (NON-KISSING) SEXUAL BEHAVIORS

Not Applicable: I've never done more than kiss someone

My partner
never
assumes
non-verbally

My partner
always
assumes
non-verbally

1..... 2..... 3..... 4.....5

I never
assume
non-verbally

I always
always
non-verbally

1..... 2..... 3..... 4.....5

NON-VERBAL CONSENT FOR SEXUAL INTERCOURSE

Not Applicable: I've never had sexual intercourse

My partner
never
assumes
non-verbally

My partner
always
assumes
non-verbally

1..... 2..... 3..... 4.....5

I never
assume
non-verbally

I always
always
non-verbally

1..... 2..... 3..... 4.....5

The following questions refer to actual experiences you've had. Please circle your answers.

1) How many times have you kissed someone when you suspected or knew they did not want to kiss you?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10+

2) How many times have you gotten sexually intimate with someone when you suspected or knew they did not want you to?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10+

3) How many times have you had sex with someone when you suspected or knew they did not want to have sex with you?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10+

4) How many times has someone kissed you when did not want them to?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10+

5) How many times has someone gotten sexually intimate with you when you did not want them to?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10+

6) How many times has someone had sex with you when you did not want them to?

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10+

Appendix K

Sexual Coercion Subscale of The Revised Conflict Tactics Scales

How often did this happen?

- | | |
|---------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|
| 1 = Once in the past year | 5 = 11-20 times in the past year |
| 2 = Twice in the past year | 6 = more than 20 times in the past year |
| 3 = 3-5 times in the past year | 7 = Not in the past year, but it did happen before |
| 4 = 6-10 times in the past year | 0 = This has never happened |

___ Made my partner have sex without a condom

___ Insisted on sex when my partner did not want to (but did not use physical force)

___ Insisted my partner have oral or anal sex (but did not use physical force)

___ Used force (like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon) to make my partner have oral or anal sex.

___ Used force (like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon) to make my partner have sex.

___ Used threats to make my partner have oral or anal sex.

___ Used threats to make my partner have sex.

Appendix L

Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale

Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and decide whether the statement is true or false as it pertains to you.

- T F 1. Before voting I thoroughly investigate the qualifications of all the candidates.
- T F 2. I never hesitate to go out of my way to help someone in trouble.
- T F 3. It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged.
- T F 4. I have never intensely disliked anyone.
- T F 5. On occasion I have had doubts about my ability to succeed in life.
- T F 6. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way.
- T F 7. I am always careful about my manner of dress.
- T F 8. My table manners at home are as good as when I eat out in a restaurant.
- T F 9. If I could get into a movie without paying and be sure I was not seen, I would probably do it.
- T F 10. On a few occasions I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability.
- T F 11. I like to gossip at times.
- T F 12. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right.
- T F 13. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.
- T F 14. I can remember "playing sick" to get out of something.

- T F 15. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.
- T F 16. I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.
- T F 17. I always try to practice what I preach.
- T F 18. I don't find it particularly difficult to get along with loudmouthed, obnoxious people.
- T F 19. I sometimes try to get even, rather than forgive and forget.
- T F 20. When I don't know something I don't mind at all admitting it.
- T F 21. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.
- T F 22. At times I have really insisted on having things my own way.
- T F 23. There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things.
- T F 24. I would never think of letting someone else be punished for my wrongdoings.
- T F 25. I never resent being asked to return a favor.
- T F 26. I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.
- T F 27. I never make a long trip without checking the safety of my car.
- T F 28. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others.
- T F 29. I have almost never felt the urge to tell someone off.
- T F 30. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me.
- T F 31. I have never felt that I was punished without cause.
- T F 32. I sometimes think when people have a misfortune they only got what they deserved.
- T F 33. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.

Appendix M

Institutional Review Board Approval for Pilot Study

University of New Hampshire
Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research
Departmental Review Committee Exemption Classification Sheet

Project Director Tracy Martin IRB # 11
Department Psychology Reviewer _____
Project Title Consent & Power

Reviewer: Please write comments or contingencies of approval, if any, on a separate sheet of paper, and attach to this form. Place the completed form on file with the application for review, in the Departmental Review Committee files. Protocol applications and review forms will be forwarded to the Office of Sponsored Research each semester for reporting purposes.

Protocol qualifies as EXEMPT under the following subsection (check one) - see reverse for detailed category description:

- 46.101(b)(1) Research conducted in established educational setting using normal educational procedures
- 46.101(b)(2) Educational tests, surveys, interviews, observation of public behavior/no risk
- 46.101(b)(3) Educational tests, surveys, interviews, observation of public behavior not exempt under Subsection 2, above, if public official or if confidentiality mandated by federal statutes
- 46.101(b)(4) Study of existing data
- 46.101(b)(5) Study of public benefits or service programs
- 46.101(b)(6) Taste and food studies

Refer protocol to the regular IRB for EXPEDITED review under the following subsection (check one):

- 46.110(b)(1) Clinical studies of drugs/medical devices not requiring investigational new drug/device applications.
- 46.110(b)(2) Collection of blood samples by finger, heel or ear stick, or venipuncture in healthy adults >110 lbs., or others and children, considering age, weight, health, collection procedure, frequency and amount of collection.
- 46.110(b)(3) Prospective collection of biological specimens for research purposes by noninvasive means, and in a non-disfiguring manner: hair and nail clippings, teeth, sweat, saliva, placenta (after delivery), amniotic fluid (at membrane rupture/labor), dental plaque/calculus, mucosal/skin cells, sputum (after saline nebulization)
- 46.110(b)(4) Collection of data through noninvasive means routinely employed in clinical practice (excluding x-rays and microwaves, and devices not approved for marketing): physical sensors applied to the skin, weighing, tests of visual acuity, MRI, EKG, EEG, ultrasound, etc., and moderate exercise by healthy volunteers.
- 46.110(b)(5) Non-exempt research involving data, documents, records or specimens that have been/will be collected solely for nonresearch purposes (e.g., medical treatment or diagnosis).
- 46.110(b)(6) Collection of data from voice, video, digital, or image recordings made for research purposes.
- 46.110(b)(7) Non-exempt research on individual or group behavior or characteristics of individuals, such as studies of perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior, or research employing surveys, interviews, oral histories, focus groups, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.
- 46.110(b)(8) Continuing review of research such as studies permanently closed to enrollment of new subjects, or for which research-related interventions are completed, or for which only long-term follow-up of subjects remains, or for which no subjects have been enrolled and no additional risks have been identified, or for which data analysis is the only remaining research activity.
- 46.110(b)(9) Continuing review of research (not conducted under investigational drug/device applications or exemption) where categories 2 through 8, above, do not apply, and for which the IRB has determined that the research involves no greater than minimal risk, and no additional risks have been identified.

Refer protocol to the regular IRB for FULL BOARD action (cite reason on separate sheet)

Protocol cannot be approved as presented (cite reason on separate sheet)

IRB Reviewer: [Signature]

Date: 9/21/9

Appendix N

Institutional Review Board Approval for Study 1

University of New Hampshire
Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research
Departmental Review Committee Exemption Classification Sheet

Project Director Tracey Vachon IRB # 19
Department Psychology Reviewer _____
Project Title Dancer Orientation

Reviewer: Please write comments or contingencies of approval. If any, on a separate sheet of paper, and attach to this form. Place this completed form on file with the application for review, in the Departmental Review Committee files. Protocol applications and review forms will be forwarded to the Office of Sponsored Research each semester for reporting purposes.

Protocol qualifies as EXEMPT under the following subsection (check one) - see reverse for detailed category description:

- 46.101(b)(1) Research conducted in established educational setting using normal educational procedures
- 46.101(b)(2) Educational tests, surveys, interviews, observation of public behavior/no risk
- 46.101(b)(3) Educational tests, surveys, interviews, observation of public behavior not exempt under Subsection 2. above, if public official or if confidentiality mandated by federal statutes
- 46.101(b)(4) Study of existing data
- 46.101(b)(5) Study of public benefits or service programs
- 46.101(b)(6) Taste and food studies

Refer protocol to the regular IRB for EXPEDITED review under the following subsection (check one):

- 46.110(b)(1) Clinical studies of drugs/medical devices not requiring investigational new drug/device applications.
- 46.110(b)(2) Collection of blood samples by finger, heel or ear stick, or venipuncture in healthy adults >110 lbs., or others and children, considering age, weight, health, collection procedure, frequency and amount of collection.
- 46.110(b)(3) Prospective collection of biological specimens for research purposes by noninvasive means, and in a non-disfiguring manner: hair and nail clippings, teeth, sweat, saliva, placenta (after delivery), amniotic fluid (at membrane rupture/labor), dental plaque/calculus, mucosal/skin cells, sputum (after saline nebulization)
- 46.110(b)(4) Collection of data through noninvasive means routinely employed in clinical practice (excluding x-rays and microwaves, and devices not approved for marketing); physical sensors applied to the skin, weighing, tests of visual acuity, MRI, EKG, EEG, ultrasound, etc., and moderate exercise by healthy volunteers.
- 46.110(b)(5) Non-exempt research involving data, documents, records or specimens that have been/will be collected solely for nonresearch purposes (e.g., medical treatment or diagnosis).
- 46.110(b)(6) Collection of data from voice, video, digital, or image recordings made for research purposes.
- 46.110(b)(7) Non-exempt research on individual or group behavior or characteristics of individuals, such as studies of perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior, or research employing surveys, interviews, oral histories, focus groups, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.
- 46.110(b)(8) Continuing review of research such as studies permanently closed to enrollment of new subjects, or for which research-related interventions are completed, or for which only long-term follow-up of subjects remains, or for which no subjects have been enrolled and no additional risks have been identified, or for which data analysis is the only remaining research activity.
- 46.110(b)(9) Continuing review of research (not conducted under investigational drug/device applications or exemption) where categories 2 through 8, above, do not apply, and for which the IRB has determined that the research involves no greater than minimal risk, and no additional risks have been identified.

Refer protocol to the regular IRB for FULL BOARD action (cite reason on separate sheet)

Protocol cannot be approved as presented (cite reason on separate sheet)

IRB Reviewer: Patricia Tucker

Date: 3/04/02

Appendix O

Institutional Review Board Approval for Study 2

University of New Hampshire
Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research
Departmental Review Committee Exemption Classification Sheet

Project Director Troyen Markin IRB # 4
Department Psychology Reviewer _____
Project Title Power, Consent, and Acquaintance Rape

Reviewer: Please write comments or concurringencies of approval, if any, on a separate sheet of paper, and attach to this form. Place the completed form on file with the application for review, in the Departmental Review Committee files. Protocol applications and review forms will be forwarded to the Office of Sponsored Research each semester for reporting purposes.

Protocol qualifies as EXEMPT under the following subsection (check one) - see reverse for detailed category description:

- 46.101(b)(1) Research conducted in established educational setting using normal educational procedures
- 46.101(b)(2) Educational tests, surveys, interviews, observation of public behavior/no risk
- 46.101(b)(3) Educational tests, surveys, interviews, observation of public behavior not exempt under Subsection 2, above, if public official or if confidentially mandated by federal statutes
- 46.101(b)(4) Study of existing data
- 46.101(b)(5) Study of public benefits or service programs
- 46.101(b)(6) Taste and food studies

Refer protocol to the regular IRB for EXPEDITED review under the following subsection (check one):

- 46.110(b)(1) Clinical studies of drugs/medical devices not requiring investigational new drug/device applications.
- 46.110(b)(2) Collection of blood samples by finger, heel or ear stick, or venipuncture in healthy adults >110 lbs., or others and children, considering age, weight, health, collection procedure, frequency and amount of collection.
- 46.110(b)(3) Prospective collection of biological specimens for research purposes by noninvasive means, and in a non-disfiguring manner: hair and nail clippings, teeth, sweat, saliva, placenta (after delivery), amniotic fluid (at membrane rupture/labor), dental plaque/calculus, mucosal/skin cells, sputum (after saline nebulization)
- 46.110(b)(4) Collection of data through noninvasive means routinely employed in clinical practice (excluding x-rays and microwaves, and devices not approved for marketing); physical sensors applied to the skin, weighing, tests of visual acuity, MRI, EKG, EEG, ultrasound, etc., and moderate exercise by healthy volunteers.
- 46.110(b)(5) Non-exempt research involving data, documents, records or specimens that have been/will be collected solely for nonresearch purposes (e.g.; medical treatment or diagnosis).
- 46.110(b)(6) Collection of data from voice, video, digital, or image recordings made for research purposes.
- 46.110(b)(7) Non-exempt research on individual or group behavior or characteristics of individuals, such as studies of perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior, or research employing surveys, interviews, oral histories, focus groups, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.
- 46.110(b)(8) Continuing review of research such as studies permanently closed to enrollment of new subjects, or for which research-related interventions are completed, or for which only long-term follow-up of subjects remains, or for which no subjects have been enrolled and no additional risks have been identified, or for which data analysis is the only remaining research activity.
- 46.110(b)(9) Continuing review of research (not conducted under investigational drug/device applications or exemption) where categories 2 through 8, above, do not apply, and for which the IRB has determined that the research involves no greater than minimal risk, and no additional risks have been identified.

Refer protocol to the regular IRB for FULL BOARD action (cite reason on separate sheet)

Protocol cannot be approved as presented (cite reason on separate sheet)

IRB Reviewer: [Signature] Date: [Signature]

REFERENCE NOTES

¹ The idea behind this was to classify participants in a way similar to how Bem scored the Bem Sex Role Inventory, classifying people based on high and low scores in masculine and feminine scales (Bem, 1974). All analyses with power orientation were initially computed both with the category scoring technique and with individual scale scores. The scale scores involved simply adding up each participants responses on each scale, for a total of six scores per participant (e.g. a score for the Power Orientation - Definition dominance subscale or a score for the Power Orientation - Feeling empowerment scale). Analyses did not change as a result of the different scoring methods so the category method was chosen for reporting because it was easier to understand and report.

² Both a mean split and a median split technique were used. Means and medians for each group were very similar, in some cases they did not differ at all. As the mean split technique resulted in a more equal distribution across groups, the mean was used to calculate category membership.

³ All analyses were initially conducted using the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale to account for social desirability in responding. However, as analyses did not change when social desirability was included, it was decided that it should be left out of the reporting for simplicity and to conform with the body of research in the consent and rape literature. It may be that the Marlowe-Crowne scale measures too broad a concept of social desirability to be useful in measures of consent and rape. Or it may be that the socially desirable responses to sexual assault and rape items are so pervasive that the scale is unable to account for biases in responding.

⁴ Gender differences on many of the measures were already reported in the preliminary analyses. As these differences were the reason why gender was included in the MANOVA, the effects uncovered here do not warrant further attention.

⁵ Another series of MANOVAs were performed post hoc in an attempt to further clarify the influence of power orientation category. Instead of defining power orientation category as a single measure, 2 X 2 X 2 (gender X dominance (high/low) X empowerment (high/low)) MANOVAs were tested for the PO-F and PO-O scales. Although several more univariate effects were significant when tested this way, the significance of the multivariate effects for power orientation category did not change.