

**MULTI-COMPARISONS OF RAPE AND
RAPE MYTH ENDORSEMENT
THROUGH ANALYSIS OF EXISTING AND
MODIFIED RAPE MYTH ITEMS**

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
of Doctor of Psychology

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March 2008

DECLARATION

I certify that except where due acknowledgment has been made, the work is that of the author alone; the work has not been submitted previously, in whole or in part, to qualify for any other academic award; the content of the thesis is the result of work which has been carried out since the official commencement date of the approved research program; and, any editorial work, paid or unpaid, carried out by a third party is acknowledged

Kara A. Granger

27th March 2008

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I would like to thank my supervisors, Dr. David Smith and Dr. Lisa Negri, for their ongoing support, encouragement and feedback throughout the completion of, not only this research, but also the entire Doctorate degree. In particular, Dr. Smith has dedicated an enormous amount of time and effort over the past several years, which I am extremely appreciative of and respect. I would also like to thank Dr. John Reece for his suggestions regarding the statistical analysis, and Andrea Stewart for her input in developing the Rape Attitudinal Questionnaire.

I am also tremendously grateful for the endless encouragement, support and assistance received from Dr. Bridget McPherson. There were times when I needed extra guidance and motivation to remain determined and emotionally strong to complete this research and Bridget often did this and more. I thank her for going beyond the role of a colleague and becoming a valued friend. I am very proud of her accomplishments and I hope she now can be of mine.

Words can not express how grateful I am for the support from my Mum and Dad, friends and extended family. Despite the hard times, they always believed in me and encouraged me to continue to achieve my goals. Their presence in my life allows me to shine and survive every difficulty I have ever faced. Several friends deserve to be individually thanked, Brooke, Lisa, Mel, Alli and, especially, Bree. These girls are a constant source of personal strength and helped me maintain my sanity. Completing this thesis would not have been possible without each of them or my parents. I thank them all for never giving up on me.

Many thanks to my friends and colleagues at University and especially at work. They all were constant sources of encouragement and remained confident in my abilities to succeed. I thank you all for tolerating my frustration and for accommodating my many needs.

I would like to thank each of the organisations, support services, educational institutions, media outlets, professionals, family, friends and acquaintances that assisted in promoting this study. I am also grateful to those who participated in this research. I truly hope your valuable contributions can help to expand our knowledge of rape issues and reduce the occurrence of rape within our society.

Despite all of these wonderful and supporting people that have provided endless encouragement and assistance, I still wish that there was one more person here that could see the final product...I miss you!

DEDICATED TO JODIE LOUISE ZEUSCHNER

25.05.76 – 07.06.07

Never far from my thoughts and forever in my heart.

RIP

DISSEMINATION INFORMATION

Sections of this thesis have been disseminated as refereed articles and a conference presentation. The candidate has taken primary authorship on these papers.

Granger, K., & Smith, D. (2006, September). *Multi-comparisons of rape myth endorsement through analysis of existing and modified rape myth items*. Poster session presented at the 2006 Joint Conference of the APS and NZPsS, Auckland, New Zealand.

Granger, K., & Smith, D. (2006). Multi-comparisons of rape myth endorsement through analysis of existing and modified rape myth items. *Australian Journal of Psychology, 58*, 139.

Granger, K., & Smith, D. (2006). Multi-comparisons of rape myth endorsement through analysis of existing and modified rape myth items [CD-ROM]. *Proceedings of the 2006 Joint Conference of the APS and NZPsS*.

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ABSTRACT

Across cultures rape is a serious problem and is generally regarded as the forced sexual penetration of another person. Traditionally, rape has been viewed as a crime perpetrated by men against women. However, it is now legally recognised that males can also be victims of rape. Consequently, research into rape has begun including male as well as female victims. The current research had several interrelated aims. First, the research aimed to provide a profile of both male and female rape victims in terms of their demographic backgrounds. Second, the research aimed to compare the characteristics of rape perpetrated against male and female victims in order to ascertain whether there was any systematic gender difference. Given that rape continues to be one of the most under-reported crimes, a third aim of the research was to obtain an estimate of the incidence of male and female rape within the general community and describe the reporting practices of rape victims. In regards to the aftermath of rape, the current research aimed to determine the impact of rape upon victims, in particular, to determine the relationship between rape and depression, suicide ideation, and suicide attempts. The community's level of rape myth endorsement was also explored. Rape myths were defined as attitudes and beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists that are generally false but are widely and persistently held, and serve to deny and justify sexual aggression against women and men. The majority of previous research has focused upon rape myth endorsement levels in regard to female victims. One outcome of the neglect of research that examines male victims, is the inability to make direct comparisons between male and female rape myth endorsement levels. To overcome this omission, the present study compared rape myth endorsement levels in regard to both male and female victims. In order to achieve this aim, it was first necessary to construct a rape myth questionnaire that minimised the methodological limitations of previous scales. This thesis reports on the development of the scale, the Rape

Attitudinal Questionnaire (RAQ), as well as the relationship or differences between rape myth endorsement levels and a variety of demographic variables (e.g., education level, age, ethnicity, gender, socio-economic status, religion, area of residence, previous experience of rape, & sexual orientation). The current research utilised online methodology and, in total, 560 individuals participated in the research. It was found that almost two out of every five participants stated that they had been a victim of rape during their lifetime. In total, males accounted for 8.60% of the raped sample. Further, rape victims were found to emanate from a variety of demographic backgrounds indicating that individuals from all backgrounds could be a victim of rape. In comparison to male rape victims, female rape victims reported higher frequencies of rape, and greater incidence of re-victimisation by the same perpetrator. In contrast, male rape victims characterised their rape as more often involving a specified rapist as well as multiple individuals who were complicit in its occurrence. Furthermore, females were more likely to be raped within relationships or by a relative, whereas males were more likely to be raped by strangers or by people in positions of authority. Approximately one in seven rape victims within the current sample stated that they had reported the rape to police. Half of those rape victims that reported their rape to police regretted informing the police of their experience. Almost twice as many female rape victims than male rape victims failed to report their rape to anyone and males were at least 1.5 times more likely than females to report their rape to police. It was also found that victims of rape are more likely to report rape to authorities when the rape fits the “real rape” stereotype. Furthermore, rape victims were significantly less likely than non-victims to believe that they would report their own hypothetical rape or encourage other individual’s to report a hypothetical rape. It was also evident that the trauma of rape is not limited to the experience at the time of the rape, but its negative sequelae can persist long after the rape has occurred. Based upon the classification system utilised, it was found that rape victims were significantly more likely than non-victims to be classified as depressed, experience suicidal thoughts and had attempted suicide. Such rape victims were also more likely to have been raped on more than one occasion and to have more than one perpetrator. Moreover, rape victims who had attempted suicide were significantly younger at the time of the rape or when they were first raped in comparison to the raped sample who had not attempted suicide. Furthermore, rape victims who experienced depression, suicidal thoughts or had attempted suicide were more likely to have been raped by a stranger, a trusted figure, or a relative than by a first date,

romantic acquaintance, or partner. It was also found that the RAQ was a reliable and valid measure of individual's rape myth endorsement levels. The underlying nature of rape myths did not differ between male and female victims of rape, although certain rape myths seem to be more applicable to each gender. The majority of the current sample did not endorse rape myths, however participants from particular demographic backgrounds were more likely than others to endorse rape myths. In particular, females and participants who knew someone, other than themselves, who had been a victim of rape were significantly less likely to endorse rape myths. A small, yet alarming, proportion of the current sample reported that they would be likely to rape someone if they could get away with it. Differences between other demographic variables and rape myth endorsement levels were also noted and discussed. Implications of the current findings are discussed in terms of future rape education campaigns that could increase public awareness, encourage victims to report their crime, provide details of support agencies, and hopefully reduce the incidence of rape within our society.

CHAPTER 1. RAPE

Across cultures, rape is considered to be a serious problem. The following chapter introduces the topic of rape and provides rape prevalence statistics. Research profiling rape, rape victims and perpetrators are reviewed and the impact of rape upon victims is discussed. In particular, the chapter highlights the occurrence of depression and suicidal tendencies amongst rape victims. The chapter concludes by focusing upon the issue of under reporting of rape, and proposes possible reasons as to why this occurs. Although international research is currently reviewed, an emphasis is placed upon Australian research and statistics.

Definition of rape

Rape is generally regarded as the forced sexual penetration of another person. Initially, rape was widely accepted as a crime against women, which was perpetrated by a man. However, throughout many countries the current legal definition of rape is the product of several law reforms (Crome, McCabe, & Ford, 1999). Most law reforms have involved altering the definition of rape to become gender-neutral, including male rape victims, acknowledging that rape does occur within marriages and recognising rape as all forms of penetration not just penetration by a penis (Regan & Kelly, 2003). Prior to these law reforms, males could not be victims of rape and females could not commit rape. Although Australia has also undergone several law reforms, there continues to be discrepancies between legal definitions of rape across Australian jurisdictions. In particular, Queensland and Tasmania continue to enforce traditional

views of rape ("Criminal Code 1899 (Qld)," 1899; "Criminal Code (Sexual Offences) Act 1987 (Tas)," 1987). Queensland considers rape offences against men as lesser crimes and Tasmania confines rape to forced penetration of a penis, therefore penetration by an object or other parts of the body do not constitute rape. Excluding Queensland and Tasmania, all other Australian jurisdictions do acknowledge males as possible rape victims, however, rape legislation in South Australia and the Northern Territory falls largely under the common law ("Criminal Code Act 1991 (NT)," 1991; "Criminal Law Consolidation Act 1935 (SA)," 1935). Victoria, New South Wales, Western Australia and the Australian Capital Territory are considered to have comparable rape legislation ("Crimes Act 1900 (NSW)," 1900; "Crimes Act 1958 (Vic)," 1958; "Crimes Act 1990 (ACT)," 1990; "Criminal Code 1992 (WA)," 1992). However, Victoria is perceived as being more liberated containing flexible rape definitions that encompass a range of sexual acts (Crome et al., 1999).

In 1980, the Victorian legal definition of rape was expanded to include anal, oral, or object penetration and became gender neutral. In 1991, the definition of rape was further expanded to include penetration by any part of the body (Department of Justice, 1997). In summary, rape is defined as the penetration of the vagina, anus, or mouth by an object or any part of the attacker's body, without the consent of the victim. The definition further stipulates that rape involves the attacker not withdrawing their body part or object on becoming aware that the victim is not consenting or freely agreeing. Consent can not take place when the victim is in a state of sleep, unconsciousness, alcohol or drug intoxication, incapable of understanding the nature of the act, or mistakes the identity of the offender or the sexual act, or believes that the act is for medical or hygiene purposes. The definition further states that the victim is not consenting if the offender uses force, threat of force, harm to others, or unlawful detention. In addition, the definition dictates that in legal proceedings a jury needs to be instructed on two points. Firstly, the fact that the victim did not say or do anything to indicate consent is usually sufficient to indicate that the victim did not consent to the sexual act. Secondly, the absence of a victim's verbal protest, physical resistance, physical injuries, or prior consent to another sexual act with the person or another person on an earlier occasion are not to be used as evidence that consent has been given ("Crimes Act 1958 (Vic)," 1958).

Several studies have used the term sexual assault and rape interchangeably (Kassing, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998). However, this approach is potentially misleading, as rape constitutes a specific type of sexual assault. Indeed, the term 'sexual assault' can encompass a variety of acts, ranging from inappropriate comments and touching to unwanted penetration (Koss, 1993). In this thesis, the term 'rape' is used to describe the unwanted sexual penetration as described above whereas the term "sexual assault" is used to refer to the broad range of unwanted sexual acts.

Prevalence of rape

There is large debate regarding the precise incidence rate of rape. The variation in official rape statistics may, in part, reflect the differences in the definition of rape across jurisdictions or research methodologies (K. B. Anderson, Cooper, & Okamura, 1997; Department of Justice, 1997; Koss, 1993; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987; Lievore, 2003; Scott & Aneshensel, 1997). Furthermore, official rape statistics only indicate the rate of rape offences reported to authorities; thus they only give an estimation of the incidence rate of rape. It is widely accepted that rape is one of, if not the most under reported crime (Australian Institute of Criminology, 2007; Bunting & Reeves, 1983; Coxell & King, 1996; Crome et al., 1999; Doherty & Anderson, 2004; P. J. Harrison, Downes, & Williams, 1991; Kelly, Lovett, & Regan, 2005; Kilpatrick, Resick, & Veronen, 1981; Koss, 1993; Koss, Dinero, Seibel, & Cox, 1988; Koss et al., 1987; Lees, 1997; Lievore, 2003; Patitu, 1998; Peretti & Cozzens, 1983; Pino & Meier, 1999; Regan & Kelly, 2003; Starzynski, Ullman, Filipas, & Townsend, 2005; Ullman, 1996, 2007c; Varelas & Foley, 1998; Walby & Allen, 2004). Research suggests that over two thirds of sexual assaults go unreported (Buddie & Miller, 2001; Easteal, 1992). More recently, it was estimated that within Australia approximately 15% to 30% of sexual assaults are reported to the police (Australian Institute of Criminology, 2007; Lievore, 2003; Wilkinson, 2007). In regards to rape specifically the research is limited, however it has been estimated that from one to four in ten rapes are reported to police (Easteal, 1992). Researchers have suggested that between 2 and 3.5 times as many rapes occur than that are reported (Kilpatrick et al., 1981) or that 80% of rapes go unreported (Peretti & Cozzens, 1983; Wilkinson, 2007).

Rape estimates within the United States of America are alarming. The United States National Victim Centre estimated that every hour approximately 78 women are forcibly raped (National Victim Centre & Crime Victims Research and Treatment Centre, 1992). Buddie and Miller (2001) stated that every two minutes a woman is raped in America. The Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) claimed that approximately every six minutes a woman is raped and during their lifetime one in four women may become a victim of rape (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 1991). In particular, FBI data revealed that during 2006, 31 women per every 100,000, reported that they were victims of rape and that since 2000 this rate has remained relatively stable between 30 to 32 reported rapes per every 100,000 women (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 2006). Researchers examined the occurrence of marital rape within the United Kingdom and estimated that one in four women had either experienced rape or attempted rape during their lifetime (Painter, 1991). However, analysis of the British Crime Survey data revealed that during 2001, one in 20 (4.9%) women had reported being raped since they were 16 (Myhill & Allen, 2002). Data from the 2002 British Crime Survey indicated a slight reduction in the occurrence of rape, in that, one in 27 (3.7%) women had reported being raped since they were 16 (Walby & Allen, 2004). In a review of European literature, Regan and Kelly (2003) estimated that one in ten to one in four people would be raped within their lifetime.

There is limited Australian data reporting the estimated incidence rate of rape, as figures often represent the broader category of sexual assault, which does include rape, but also includes a variety of other offences, therefore no firm conclusions can be made (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2003, 2004, 2005a, 2005b). Further, several substantial changes have been made in police recording methods and legal definitions across time within Australia, changes that both impact the official crime rates and make comparisons across Australian states and territories difficult (Department of Justice, 1997). It has been estimated within Australia that as many as one in ten men and one in four women would be raped during their lifetime (Australian National University, 2005).

In particular, Victorian police statistics show an increase in the number of rapes recorded over the past three decades, although, during the 1990's within Victoria the offence rate for rape was relatively stable at approximately 26 rapes per 100,000 people (Department of Justice, 2001). During the 2004 and 2005 period there were

1,123 rapes reported to the Victorian Police, a slight increase from previous years (Victoria Police, 2006). This figure has continued to rise with 1,411 rape victims reporting the incident to the Victorian Police during the 2005 and 2006 period and 1,631 rapes reported to the Victorian Police during the 2006 and 2007 period. This figure appears to continue to slowly increase and currently sits at the approximate rate of 32 rapes per every 100,000 people (Victoria Police, 2007). This rate appears to be consistent with the previously discussed rates of rape found within America. South Australian police statistics indicate that during the 2004 and 2005 period there were 711 rapes reported to the South Australian Police. However, this figure declined during the 2005 and 2006 period, in that 590 rapes were reported to the South Australian Police. South Australian Police statistics show that the rate of rape and attempted rape have fluctuated between 40 and 49 per every 100,000 people and currently sits at approximately 40 (South Australia Police, 2006). However it is difficult to compare this rate to Victorian statistics as it includes attempted rape and not just reported rape. Other police jurisdictions within Australia report sexual assault statistics rather than specifically documenting the number of reported rapes therefore comparisons with these other jurisdictions can not be made.

Characteristics of rape

The characteristics of rape is considered to be congruent across the Western world (Lievore, 2003). Rape has increasingly been recognised as a crime of power and control. Nevertheless, debate continues as to whether the primary motivation of rape is of a sexual nature or a violent nature. Early feminist theorists argued that rape is a man's political act of social control over women and a conscious process of violence and intimidation which keeps all women in a state of fear (Brownmiller, 1975). That is, rape is a major form of patriarchy motivated by power. In response to feminists' theories, Felson (2002) suggests that rape should be seen as being motivated by sexual urges and needs. That is, men have stronger sexual drives and urges than women, therefore they are more likely to use coercive means to force women to have sex (Felson, 2002). Similarly, it has also been argued that sexual impulses drive individuals to rape and that rape is a means to obtain sexual gratification (Bunting & Reeves, 1983; Hickson et al., 1994). However, Rada (1978) highlighted that rape cannot be solely motivated by sexual desire, as many rapists are married or sexually active at the time of the rape. Further, he argued that rape is not solely motivated by aggression because such desires would be satisfied by physically assaulting the

victim and would not involve the sexual act of rape. Overall, many researchers have argued that it was too simplistic to consider rape as a sexual crime, rather rape is predominantly an act of domination, power and control that is expressed through a sexual act (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Briere & Malamuth, 1983; Burt, 1980; Eastal, 1992; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Hamilton & Yee, 1990; Hodge & Canter, 1998; Kassing, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Lottes, 1988; G. Mezey & King, 1989; Rada, 1985; Ratner et al., 2003; Robertson, 2003; Sable, Danis, Mauzy, & Gallagher, 2006). These researchers acknowledge that rape does involve a sexual component, however believe that power and control are the primary motivators of rape. Thus, rape is not generally an act that is motivated by sexual gratification or sexual frustration (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Briere & Malamuth, 1983; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Kassing, 2003). This notion that rape is an act of power, control and domination can apply not only to female rape victims but also to male victims of rape (Groth & Burgess, 1980; Hodge & Canter, 1998). Hodge and Canter (1998) concluded that males are more often raped by heterosexual men which implies that the act is motivated by an element of power and control rather than sexual urges. Although, Hickson et al. (1994) argued that the majority of male rape cases examined in their study appeared to be sexually motivated and that viewing male rape as a crime of violence, power, and control may trivialise the emotional trauma they have suffered. However, viewing the rape of either males or females as a crime of power does not trivialise the trauma victims have suffered, rather it highlights that the trauma experienced by victims reaches far beyond the sexual component of the act. Research investigating the effects of rape, emphasised this point, in that, 72% of rape victims reported that the feeling of helplessness and loss of control during the rape was worse than the sexual aspects of the experience (J. Walker, Archer, & Davies, 2005b).

The majority of rapes involve a female victim and a male perpetrator (Bohner, Danner, Siebler, & Samson, 2002; Davis & Lee, 1996; Eastal, 1992; Lievore, 2003; Poropat & Rosevear, 1992; Scott & Aneshensel, 1997). In most cases of rape the victim knows the perpetrator and the crime occurred in the victim's or the perpetrator's home (I. Anderson, 2007; Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991; Brecklin & Ullman, 2001a, 2001b; Burt, 1991; Davis & Lee, 1996; Eastal, 1992; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Kimerling, Rellini, Kelly, Judson, & Learman, 2002; Koss & Burkhardt, 1989; Koss et al., 1988; Lievore, 2003; G. Mezey & King, 1989; Starzynski et al., 2005; Stermac,

Del Bove, & Addison, 2004; Stermac, Du Mont, & Dunn, 1998; Stermac, Sheridan, Davidson, & Dunn, 1996; Ullman, 2007a; Ullman, Filipas, Townsend, & Starzynski, 2006; Victoria Police, 2003, 2006; J. Walker et al., 2005b). The majority of victims are within the same age range as their perpetrator or are slightly younger (Del Bove, Stermac, & Bainbridge, 2005). Further, the majority of rapes do not involve a weapon or any further physical assault, with 50 to 65% of victims avoiding physical trauma (Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991; Davis & Lee, 1996; Easteal, 1992; Lievore, 2003; Stermac et al., 1996; Ullman, 2007a; Watkins Jr., 1990). Although most rapes involve a single perpetrator (Kimerling et al., 2002; Ullman, 2007b), it is common for victims to be raped on several occasions, especially in the case of rapes perpetrated by partners (Koss et al., 1988; Stermac et al., 1996). Younger women are more likely to be raped by strangers, whereas married women are more likely to be raped by their partners and often repeatedly (Lievore, 2003). Although it has been found more recently that there was no significant age differences for the victim and perpetrator relationship, younger women were found to be more likely to be raped by more than one perpetrator or a weapon to be used during the rape (Del Bove et al., 2005). Alcohol and drug use, by the perpetrator or victim, are consistently, and strongly, associated with rape (Abbey, McAuslan, Zawacki, Clinton, & Buck, 2001; Brecklin & Ullman, 2001a, 2001b; Koss et al., 1988; Parrot, 1991; Rada, 1985; Starzynski et al., 2005; Stermac et al., 1998; Stermac et al., 1996; Ullman, 2007a; Waldner-Haugrud & Vaden Gratch, 1997). Researchers have found that drug use is less common in rapes than alcohol use, however, it has been estimated that approximately one to two thirds of rape incidents involved the use of alcohol. In particular, offender alcohol use is strongly associated with offender aggression and more victim injury. Whereas, victim alcohol use is believed to not play as substantial a role as offender alcohol use (Brecklin & Ullman, 2001a, 2001b). Although there is some debate regarding the association between offender alcohol use and completed rapes, it seems that offenders using alcohol are more likely to commit completed rapes. It has been proposed that offenders who are drinking alcohol at the time of the rape may become more aggressive or more able to use their alcohol consumption as a justification for rape or victims may resist less when the perpetrator is alcohol affected due to fear of the consequences (Brecklin & Ullman, 2001b). Such findings do not indicate a causal relationship, that is, it can not be concluded that alcohol or drug use causes an individual to be raped and it is important to note that many rapes do not involve drug

or alcohol use. It may also be that the association between alcohol use and rape is confounded by a third variable, such as risky social situations (Ullman, 2007a).

In comparisons of victim and perpetrator relationships, rapes that were committed by acquaintances were more likely to involve a single offender and multiple rapes (Koss et al., 1988). Stermac et al. (1996) found similar patterns, in that, stranger rapes involved a higher number of assailants than rapes by acquaintances or intimate partners, however, those raped by strangers were more strongly represented in the rape statistics followed closely by those raped by intimate partners. Overall, acquaintance rape tended to involve less violence and/or weapons, was less likely to be perceived as rape or reported to anyone, and was similar to stranger rapes in terms of victim resistance or avoidance (Koss et al., 1988; Stermac, Del Bove, Brazeau, & Bainbridge, 2006; Stermac et al., 1998). When a weapon is present, it is usually during stranger rape (Stermac et al., 2006; Stermac et al., 1998). In contrast, rapes committed by intimate partners or other close family members, have been shown to be as equally or more violent to stranger rapes however less likely to involve drinking or drug use (Brecklin & Ullman, 2001a, 2001b; Koss et al., 1988; Stermac et al., 2006; Stermac et al., 1998). Interestingly, rape victims have been shown to resist much less when attacked by a known perpetrator as resistance is considered more difficult (Ullman, 2007a). The use of alcohol by perpetrators or victims became less likely as the relationship between perpetrator and victim became closer (Koss et al., 1988). Although such differences were found between acquaintance and stranger rape, there were no difference identified between the level of psychological symptoms experienced between the different victim groups (Koss et al., 1988; Ullman et al., 2006). However, researchers found that victims of stranger rape were not only subjected to more violence but also perceived greater life threat (Ullman et al., 2006).

Victims of rape.

There is an overwhelming consensus that anyone can be a victim of rape, regardless of their age, gender, background, or where they may happen to be located (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991; Davis & Lee, 1996; Del Bove et al., 2005; Gilmartin-Zena, 1987; Kassing, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Koss & Dinero, 1989; G. Mezey & King, 1989; Scarce, 1997). Koss et al. (1987) concluded that the prevalence rate of rape within a student population did not vary according to income or religion.

Koss and Dinero (1989) concluded that they could not differentiate between victimised and non-victimised college women. However, some researchers have noted that rape victimisation does differ by cultural background, in that, ethnic minorities reported higher rates of victimisation (Classen, Palesh, & Aggarwal, 2005; Del Bove et al., 2005; Kimerling et al., 2002; Koss et al., 1987). Researchers have shown that individuals from a variety of backgrounds are aware that they are at risk of being raped, with proportions of samples stating that they fear being raped (Davis & Lee, 1996; Otis, 2007) or that they expect to be raped in certain situations (Morry & Winkler, 2001). However, women report greater fears of being raped than men (Davis & Lee, 1996; Otis, 2007), although this gender difference was not found for gay and lesbian individuals (Otis, 2007).

Not only are women at risk of being raped, so are men. A major consequence of definitional law reforms is that both male and females can now be legally considered both rape victims and rape perpetrators (Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991; Crome et al., 1999; Koss, 1993; Krahe, Scheinberger-Olwig, & Bieneck, 2003; Poropat & Rosevear, 1992; Rogers, 1997). Although the majority of rape victims are women (Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991; Bohner et al., 2002; Bourque, 1989; Department of Justice, 2001; Ellis, 1989; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Smith, Pine, & Hawley, 1988; Watkins Jr., 1990), a substantial number of rape victims are male (Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991; Coxell & King, 1996; Crome et al., 1999; Department of Justice, 1997; Graham, 2006; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Hickson et al., 1994; Hodge & Canter, 1998; Kalichman et al., 2005; Kassing & Prieto, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; G. C. Mezey & King, 1992; Rada, 1985; J. Walker, Archer, & Davies, 2005a; J. Walker et al., 2005b; Watkins Jr., 1990). Whilst the literature examining male rape victims is still limited, the topic is starting to receive increased attention and will be examined further within the current thesis.

In a review of the literature, Koss (1993) reported that the prevalence rate for completed rapes against adult women is estimated at approximately 20% of the population. In regards to adult men, Koss concluded that rates are significantly lower than adult women, varying from 0.6% to 7% of the population. However this figure increases when considering sexual orientation, in that, gay men report higher levels of rape in comparison to the general population (Kassing, 2003; Kimerling et al., 2002). In a review of the male rape literature, Kassing (2003) reported that male rape

prevalence estimations ranged between 3% and 16% for the general population, however this estimation increased to 10% to 28% for the gay and lesbian population. In another review of the literature, Kerr Melanson (1998) reported that male rape prevalence estimations ranged between 1% to 20% of all reported rape cases. It should be noted that the range in rape prevalence estimates reported may be due to discrepancies in the definition of rape implemented, the under reporting of rape, and differences in recording practices by authorities. Research has estimated that men comprise 5 to 10 percent of all rape victims (Groth & Burgess, 1980; Hodge & Canter, 1998; Pino & Meier, 1999; Scarce, 1997) and during their lifetime one in ten men may become a victim of rape (Australian National University, 2005; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Scarce, 1997). Although the figure may be an underestimate, an United Kingdom (UK) epidemiological study reported that 3% of the general male UK population had been victims of rape (Coxell, King, Mezey, & Gordon, 1999). In regards to male rape victims within Victoria, there was an 18.2% increase of police reports of rape of males during the 1999 and 2000 period, resulting in 104 male rape victims in total (Department of Justice, 2001). During the 2004 and 2005 period there were 131 male rape victims, which was a gradual increase from previous years (Victoria Police, 2003, 2006). It is not clear whether this increase reflects an increase in the occurrence of male rape or simply reflects increased reporting rates. However, within Victoria the volume of male rape victims reported to police has remained stable with 101 male rape victims during the 2005 and 2006 period to 107 male rape victims during the 2006 and 2007 period (Victoria Police, 2006, 2007). Overall, approximately 10% of all rape cases reported to the Victorian Police involve a male victim (Victoria Police, 2003, 2006, 2007).

Previously a widespread community view existed that male rape occurred only within institutional settings, such as prisons (Donnelly & Kenyon, 1996; Graham, 2006; Hodge & Canter, 1998; Rada, 1985; Scacco, 1982). Even within prison settings, the occurrence of rape was also often denied or minimised (Heilpern, 1998), however rape within prisons probably occurs more often than expected. An examination of sexual assault within Australian prisons, found that one in four respondents reported having experienced sexual assault and almost half reported having been threatened with sexual assault (Heilpern, 1998). Approximately 7% to 12% of male inmates have been raped within United States of America prisons and those who had reported being raped were raped, on average, nine times (Robertson, 2003). Although, very

few incidences of prison rapes are reported to authorities, due to similar reasons for community rapes, but also due to the adherence to a criminal 'code of silence' within prisons (Heilpern, 1998; Robertson, 2003). Researchers examining the differences between male rape victims from prisons and male rape victims from the community revealed that there were relatively few differences between the two groups. Two exceptions were present, in that, male rape victims in the community tended to be older and a weapon was more often used in comparison to male rape victims from prison (Lipscomb, Muram, Speck, & Mercer, 1992). This difference is to be expected due to restrictions on weapons in prison and the general younger age of prisoners. Clearly, male rape does not only occur within prisons, but also occurs within the community and at a rate greater than commonly believed (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Coxell & King, 1996; Crome et al., 1999; Davies, Pollard, & Archer, 2006; Donnelly & Kenyon, 1996; Hodge & Canter, 1998; Kassing & Prieto, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Lees, 1997; Lipscomb et al., 1992; G. Mezey & King, 1989; Perrott & Webber, 1996; J. Walker et al., 2005b).

As previously outlined, males can be victims of rape. Hodge and Canter (1998) concluded that males of any age and sexual orientation are potential victims of rape. Consistent with female victims, male rape victims are usually raped by other males (Coxell & King, 1996; Davies, 2002; Poropat & Rosevear, 1992; J. Walker et al., 2005b). Research has compared the differences between male and female rape. There is some evidence to suggest that males are more likely to be raped by a group of perpetrators, whereas women are more likely to be raped a single perpetrator (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Hodge & Canter, 1998; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Rada, 1985; Stermac et al., 2004). Furthermore, when a man is raped, a weapon is more likely to be involved and the perpetrator is usually a stranger inflicting more serious injuries (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Graham, 2006; Hodge & Canter, 1998; Rada, 1985). Later researchers continued to support this notion and also concluded that male victims of stranger rape usually experience assaults involving weapons and physical violence (Stermac et al., 2004). One study reported that both male and female college students had experienced unwanted sexual contact, however women were more likely to have been victims of physical force during the unwanted contact (Larimer, Lydum, Anderson, & Turner, 1999). Further, researchers comparing male and female rape victims concluded that males were more likely to be raped during the day, by multiple assailants, involving a weapon, in a public place, by a stranger (Pino &

Meier, 1999). However, men were less likely to be raped at home and less likely to protect themselves during the attack. Men might be less likely to protect themselves during rape because they are more likely to be restrained during the rape and therefore, unable to defend themselves (Kimerling et al., 2002). Researchers have also suggested that victims of rape, both male or female, are likely to report higher rates of vulnerable backgrounds, such as homelessness, psychiatric illness, or physical disabilities (Stermac et al., 2004; Stermac et al., 1996). Although, researchers concluded that male victims of rape were more likely to have experienced a psychiatric disorder or hospitalisation in comparison to female victims of rape (Kimerling et al., 2002).

Researchers have concluded that gay and lesbians are more likely to be victims of rape than heterosexual equivalents (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Balsam, Rothblum, & Beauchaine, 2005; Duncan, 1990; Kassing, 2003; Koss, 1993; Krahe, Schutze, Fritsche, & Waizenhofer, 2000; Scheer et al., 2003; Waldner-Haugrud & Vaden Gratch, 1997). Furthermore, bisexuals have reported higher rates of rape than gay and lesbian individuals (Balsam et al., 2005; Scheer et al., 2003). In comparison to female heterosexual rape victims, lesbians are more likely to be raped by a family member or relative (Long, Ullman, Long, Mason, & Starzynski, 2007). Whereas, researchers have suggested that homosexual and bisexual men are more likely to be raped than heterosexual men, not only in relationships, but also by strangers (Coxell & King, 1996; Davies, 2002; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Kimerling et al., 2002; Krahe et al., 2000; G. Mezey & King, 1989). This is not to suggest that heterosexual men are not victims of rape, as they too, can be victims of rape (Davies, 2002; Graham, 2006; Krahe et al., 2003). Rates of rape among lesbian samples have varied between 15% to 55%, depending upon the characteristics of the sample (Balsam et al., 2005; Scheer et al., 2003). Whereas, recent researchers have suggested that 1 in 10 gay and bisexual men were raped during their adulthood and concluded that sexual minority orientation is associated with higher rates of rape for men than it is for women (Balsam et al., 2005). Researchers investigating homosexual men revealed that 14.2% of the sample reported being forced to have sexual activity against their will when they were 14 years of age or older (Ratner et al., 2003). Approximately 60% of those sexually assaulted reported forced anal intercourse and approximately 62% reported forced oral intercourse. In one-third of the cases, the attacker was a male stranger. In two thirds of the cases physical force was used. Almost two thirds

of the entire sample raped reported being sexually coerced or forced on more than one occasion. Although it is believed that males are likely to experience more violent rapes than women, research with a gay and lesbian sample concluded that gay and lesbian participants were similar in terms of the type of coercion experienced while raped by a partner (Waldner-Haugrud & Vaden Gratch, 1997).

In a review of same-sex relationship violence literature, researchers estimated that sexual violence in lesbian relationships ranged from 5% to 50% of the sample, and ranged from 12% to 55% for gay male relationships (Turell, 2000). Turell (2000) found 13% of gay males and 14% of lesbians had experienced sexual violence. Specifically, 1% of the sample reported current sexual violence in their same sex relationship and 9% of the sample reported sexual violence in a past same sex relationship. Similar findings have also been found for lesbians who report higher levels of sexual victimisation in past relationships in comparison with current relationships (Lie, Schilit, Bush, Montagne, & Reyes, 1991). Given the potential for under reporting within current relationships, past relationship figures were probably a more accurate reflection of the prevalence of sexual violence within same-sex relationships. Earlier research found that 12% of gay men and 31% of lesbians reported being victims of rape by their current or most recent same-sex partner (Waterman, Dawson, & Bologna, 1989). As can be seen, lesbians reported higher levels of rape in comparison to gay men. Researchers concluded that the higher rates of reported rape by lesbians might be due to females being more aware of rape issues and what constitutes rape and subsequently more likely to acknowledge the crime and report it (Waterman et al., 1989). However, Waldner-Haugrud (1997) examined the differences in sexual coercion within gay and lesbian relationships and found that there was no significant association between gender and victimisation rates. Although it was found that gay men had experienced more incidences of coercive acts, gay men were just as likely as lesbians were to be victims of rape. Researchers comparing sexual aggression amongst a lesbian sample concluded that lesbians reported higher levels of victimisation by past female partners than past male partners, however it is unclear if this was a significant difference (Lie et al., 1991). However at closer inspection of sexual aggressive acts, lesbians reported lower levels of victimisation by past female partners than past male partners for forced sex and hurtful sex.

Research has also shown evidence to indicate that some victims of rape can go on to become perpetrators of rape (Krahe et al., 2000; Lie & Gentlewarrier, 1991; Lie et al., 1991). Although male rape victims appear to be more likely to later commit sexual offences, the majority of rape victims do not go on to become perpetrators (Poropat & Rosevear, 1992). Waterman et al. (1989) found that gay men that were victims of forced sex were more likely to also be perpetrators of violence within their same-sex relationship, in comparison to those gay men who were not victims of forced sex. This finding was not found for lesbian women, however a proportion of the lesbian sample did report being victims of forced sex and also perpetrators of violence within their same-sex relationship, a finding also found in later research (Lie & Gentlewarrier, 1991; Lie et al., 1991).

In sum, it appears that females are more likely to be raped than males, and that gay and lesbians are more likely to be raped than heterosexual individuals. However, such conclusions have not always been supported within the literature. There is some evidence to suggest that when males and gay and lesbians are raped, the crime is more violent than heterosexual rape.

Perpetrators of rape.

A thorough description of rape perpetrators is beyond the focus of this thesis, however a brief overview is included to provide a further understanding of the characteristics of rape. Perpetrators of rape often use brute strength and force, verbal pressure, exploitation of incapacitation, entrapment or intimidation to gain control over their victims (Abbey et al., 2001; Del Bove et al., 2005; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Kassing, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Krahe et al., 2003; Krahe et al., 2000; G. Mezey & King, 1989; Stermac et al., 2006; Stermac et al., 1998; Waldner-Haugrud & Vaden Gratch, 1997). Such power and control techniques are used for both male and female victims of rape. It is also not uncommon for rapists to aim to have their victims, either male or female, to ejaculate or orgasm. Two explanations for this endeavour have been postulated. First, it has been suggested that the rapist may attempt to confuse the victim, in that the victim becomes confused about possible enjoyment during the rape and therefore feels discouraged from reporting the rape. Second, if the rapist can cause such a physical reaction in the victim, it may give the rapist a sense of complete power and confirm the rapist's false belief that the victim actually wanted and enjoyed the rape (Groth & Burgess, 1980; Kassing, 2003;

Kendall, 2004; Kerr Melanson, 1998). The belief that women enjoy sexual violence has been shown to be a predictor of self-reported likelihood of raping or using force to obtain sex (Briere & Malamuth, 1983).

It is often erroneously assumed that the perpetrators of rape upon male victims are always male homosexuals (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Scarce, 1997). Heterosexual males can, and do, rape other males (Coxell & King, 1996; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Hickson et al., 1994; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Krahe et al., 2003; Poropat & Rosevear, 1992; Scarce, 1997; J. Walker et al., 2005b). Groth and Burgess (1980) noted that for half of the rapists within their study of male rape, the gender of the victim did not appear to be of importance to the rapist.

Although the majority of rapes are committed by men, some females are able to, and do, rape males. However, female rapists are more likely to rape someone younger than they know rather than to attack a stranger (Davies, 2002; Hickson et al., 1994; Kassing, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Krahe et al., 2003; Lie et al., 1991; Poropat & Rosevear, 1992; Stermac et al., 1996). Research investigating rape perpetrated against males by females, noted that 12.6% of the German male sample reported experiencing non-consensual intercourse with a female perpetrator (Krahe et al., 2003). As previously outlined, there are also examples of female to female rape, especially within lesbian relationships (Crome et al., 1999; Heilpern, 1998; Lie & Gentlewarrier, 1991; Lie et al., 1991; Turell, 2000; Waterman et al., 1989). Research has found that lesbian participants reported being victims of sexual aggression by other women, however a proportion of the sample also reported perpetrating sexual aggression upon other women, including forced and hurtful sex, currently and in the past (Lie & Gentlewarrier, 1991; Lie et al., 1991). Lesbian participants were also found to be more aggressive towards past female partners than past male partners. However, the majority of lesbians are raped by men than by women (Balsam et al., 2005).

Impact of rape

Victims of rape have been shown to report greater levels of negative consequences and poor functioning in comparison to their peers who are non-victims (Kilpatrick et al., 1981; Larimer et al., 1999). There is a misconception that victims should be able to fight off their attackers, however rape victims, male and female, often report a

feeling of frozen fear, helplessness, and submission during the attack (J. Walker et al., 2005b). The aftermath of rape is considered to be similar for both female and male victims of rape (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Kassing, 2003). There have been many studies investigating the sequelae of rape, victims can often experience a range of reactions. Victims of rape have reported feelings of powerlessness, shock, fear, trauma, violation, shame, vulnerability, denial, guilt, self-blame, anger, suspicion, low self-esteem, anxiety, depression, body image and sexuality issues, physical injuries, sexual problems, sexually transmitted infections, somatic symptoms, and subsequent personal problems including substance abuse or relationship difficulties (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Bohn, 2003; Bohner, Weisbrod, Raymond, Barzvi, & Schwarz, 1993; Classen et al., 2005; Coxell & King, 1996; Doherty & Anderson, 2004; Dye & Roth, 1990; Easteal, 1992; Frazier, 2000; Frazier & Burnett, 1994; Gold, Lucenko, Elahi, Swingle, & Sellers, 1999; Golding & Friedman, 1997; Golge, Yavuz, Muderrisoglu, & Yavuz, 2003; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Kassing, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Kilpatrick et al., 1981; Koss & Burkhart, 1989; Koss et al., 1988; Larimer et al., 1999; Long et al., 2007; G. Mezey & King, 1989; Molnar, Buka, & Kessler, 2000; Paolucci, Genuis, & Violato, 2001; Poropat & Rosevear, 1992; Ratner et al., 2003; P A Resick, 1993; Robertson, 2003; Rogers, 1997; Starzynski et al., 2005; Ullman, 2007c; Ullman et al., 2006; Valente, 2005; J. Walker et al., 2005a, 2005b; Watkins Jr., 1990). The adverse impact of rape is not restricted to a particular time frame and may continue for some victims for years if not their lifetime (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991; Frazier & Burnett, 1994; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Kassing, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; P A Resick, 1993; Ullman, 2007c). There is an initial improvement in functioning for victims after being raped, however these improvements tend to level off and victims continue to suffer the effects of rape. Several studies have found that at one-year after the rape occurred victims were still suffering adverse effects (Kilpatrick et al., 1981; P A Resick, 1993; Ullman, 2007c). Moreover, the reaction to rape is not the same for all rape victims (Bohner et al., 1993; Kilpatrick et al., 1981; Larimer et al., 1999; Paolucci et al., 2001; Williams, Forster, & Petrak, 1999). Kilpatrick et al. (1981) warned against generalising the effects of rape, stating that some rape victims do not report any rape-related problems and some rape victims reported functioning better after the rape than what they were prior to the rape occurring.

It has been noted that some individuals consider acquaintance rape as less serious than stranger rape (Check & Malamuth, 1983; Golge et al., 2003; Koss et al., 1988; P A Resick, 1993; Szymanski, Devlin, Chrisler, & Vyse, 1993). However, rapes of varying victim-perpetrator closeness have not been found to produce different psychological outcomes or reactions (P A Resick, 1993). Conversely, other researchers have found that women raped by known men saw themselves in less positive light and had higher levels of psychological distress in comparison to women raped by strangers (Katz, 1991). Bechhofer and Parrot (1991) noted that it is important to distinguish between stranger and acquaintance rape because the antecedents, assault dynamics and psychological consequences for the victim could differ. Researchers have concluded that the perception that acquaintance rape is not “real” rape does not appear to differ across genders, although Golge et al. (2003) concluded that women view “date rape” as more of a crime than men. Furthermore, research has consistently shown that rape victims who engage in self-blame of one’s character or behaviour leads to poorer recovery following the rape (Frazier, 2000; P A Resick, 1993). There is a vast amount of literature examining attitudes towards rape, however such research will be discussed in detail in the following chapter.

Individual’s who have experienced sexual penetration against their will may not perceive the experience as rape (Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991; Breitenbecher & Scarce, 1999; Heppner, Humphrey, Hillenbrand-Gunn, & DeBord, 1995; Kahn, Jackson, Kully, Badger, & Halvorsen, 2003; Koss et al., 1988; Layman, Gidycz, & Lynn, 1996; Lievore, 2003; Parrot, 1991; Ullman, 2007c). Research has shown that individuals are more likely to perceive the experience as rape when the perpetrator was a stranger, the act involved force and anal or vaginal penetration, the victim was not under the influence of alcohol or drugs and experienced a strong negative emotional reaction (Kahn et al., 2003; Lievore, 2003). Similarly, self-acknowledged rape victims report more forceful rapes and more resistance or refusal in comparison to self-unacknowledged victims. Self-acknowledged victims have also been shown to exhibit more post-trauma symptoms than self-unacknowledged victims, who reported more symptoms in comparison to non-victims (Layman et al., 1996).

Rape and depression and suicide.

As previously mentioned, victims of rape often report depressive symptoms. Such depressive symptoms can be linked to unresolved anger about the rape, and if this

anger is channelled inwards, it can result in low self-esteem or depression (C. L. Anderson, 1982). In a review of the literature, Resick (1993) found that rape victims were often more likely to be depressed than non-victims. Victims of rape have been shown to score one standard deviation higher on the Beck Depression Inventory in comparison to non-victims (Koss et al., 1988). Interestingly, one study examining Greek college students noted that men who had experienced unwanted sexual contact reported higher levels of depressive symptoms in comparison to men who had not had such an experience; interestingly, this finding was not replicated for female students (Larimer et al., 1999). Kilpatrick et al. (1981) found that rape victims reported higher levels of depressive symptoms on several measures in comparison to non-victims of rape and these differences were present at three-months, six-months, and one-year following the rape. There were no significant differences in depressive symptomatology between the three time intervals. However, examination of the means suggest that, for many rape victims, depressive symptoms peak in severity by one-month post-rape, and then reduce. Importantly, the data suggest that this reduction in symptoms is maintained at six-months and one-year after the rape.

Furthermore, a history of rape has not only been associated with depressive symptoms but has also been associated with higher levels of suicidal ideation and suicide attempts (Classen et al., 2005; P A Resick, 1993; Starzynski et al., 2005; Ullman & Brecklin, 2002). Suicide has also been shown to occur at a high rate amongst individuals who have experienced rape (Coxell & King, 1996). Rape victims that report depression are more likely to also report suicide ideation or suicidal attempts (Ullman & Brecklin, 2002). In an examination of lifetime physical and sexual abuse among Native American women, it was found that half of the sample had a history of depression and almost one third had attempted suicide (Bohn, 2003). A review of the effects of child sexual abuse found a large effect size for child sexual abuse upon depression and suicide scores (Paolucci et al., 2001). Furthermore, research revealed that current suicidality was better predicted by experiences of childhood sexual abuse than by a current diagnosis of depression (Read, Agar, Barker-Collo, Davies, & Moskowitz, 2001). Resick (1993) summarised that researchers examining suicide and rape found higher rates of suicidal ideation among rape victims, even after an extended period of time, than non-victims. Female victims of gang rape have reported more lifetime suicide attempts than those victims of single-perpetrator rape (Ullman, 2007b). Researchers have also suggested that

rape victims who keep the experience to themselves and not report the crime may, as a result of the non-disclosure, become depressed and even suicidal (Patitu, 1998). More recently, it was concluded that lack of treatment after rape was predictive of suicide attempts (J. Walker et al., 2005a). In regards to male rape victims, Walker et al. (2005b) found that 97.5% of the sample reported feelings of depression, 55% reported suicidal ideation, and 47.5% reported suicide attempts. With a homosexual male sample, researchers concluded that suicidal ideation was associated with exposure to non-consensual sex, in that those who had experienced such acts were 2.7 times more likely to have seriously considered suicide (Ratner et al., 2003). Amongst general male incarcerated samples, it has been noted that over half of victims reported depression, 36% experienced suicidal thoughts, and victims were 17 times more likely to attempt suicide in comparison to non-victims (Robertson, 2003).

Reporting of rape

Although there is little doubt that some reports of rape are fallacious, false reports of rape are relatively rare (Starzynski et al., 2005). Moreover, false reports are not a major reason for distorted prevalence rates; rather under-reporting of rape has a major influence upon prevalence rates (Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991; Koss, 1993). Over time and across Western countries it appears that the reporting rate of rape is increasing (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2005b; L. R. Taylor, 2004). However, the prevalence of rape within society remains profoundly underestimated (Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991; Buddie & Miller, 2001; Bunting & Reeves, 1983; Coxell & King, 1996; Crome et al., 1999; Doherty & Anderson, 2004; P. J. Harrison et al., 1991; Kilpatrick et al., 1981; Koss, 1993; Koss et al., 1988; Lees, 1997; Lievore, 2003; Patitu, 1998; Peretti & Cozzens, 1983; Pino & Meier, 1999; Ullman, 2007b; Varelas & Foley, 1998). Researchers have noted estimates ranging from one to four in ten rapes being reported (Easteal, 1992). Whereas earlier researchers suggested that between 2 and 3.5 times as many rapes occur than are actually reported (Kilpatrick et al., 1981) or that 80% of rapes go unreported (Peretti & Cozzens, 1983). The Australian National Crime Victim Survey reported that only 32 percent of rape victims, or victims of attempted rape, reported the crime (J. Walker, 1993). More recently, researchers have estimated that 18.9% of rapes are reported to police (Wilkinson, 2007).

Researchers have shown that individuals who do not report their rape experience more emotional trauma, life disruption, difficulty accepting that the rape occurred due

to chance factors, and a greater tendency to blame themselves than their reporting counterparts (Peretti & Cozzens, 1983; P A Resick, 1993). Furthermore, researchers have suggested that the quality of support a victim receives after being raped impacts upon the recovery process (Barnett, Quackenbush, Sinisi, Wegman, & Otney, 1992; Koss & Burkhardt, 1989; P A Resick, 1993; Starzynski et al., 2005; Ullman, 1996, 2007c; Ullman et al., 2006). In particular, researchers have found that negative social reactions to rape victims were significant predictors of post-traumatic stress disorder for all rape victims (Ullman et al., 2006). Conversely, a review of the literature found that appropriate social support of rape victims can moderate the adverse effects of rape (Ullman, 2007c). However, researchers have indicated that only 31% to 48% of rape victims seek professional psychotherapy (Koss & Burkhardt, 1989). In a review of the literature, Ullman (2007c) stated that despite the long-term negative sequelae of rape, less than 35% of rape victims seek mental health support with most seeking help from friends and family (Lievore, 2003; Ullman, 2007c). Often treatment is sought years after the rape occurred (Koss & Burkhardt, 1989; Ullman, 2007c; Ullman & Brecklin, 2002). Although, Kilpatrick et al. (1981) noted that 20% to 25% of rape victims that did not receive treatment were relatively symptom-free. Although sexual assault services have improved over the years, victims of rape are likely to receive better support from legal, medical and mental health systems if the crime is considered a “real” rape. In that, the rapist is a stranger, the rapist had a weapon, the victim was not intoxicated and experienced physical injuries (I. Anderson, 2007; Burt, 1991; Campbell, 1998; Lievore, 2003; Starzynski et al., 2005; Ullman, 1996, 2007c). However, researchers have suggested that, compared to male rape victims, female rape victims report experiencing more negative reactions from supports (Starzynski et al., 2005; Ullman & Filipas, 2001).

Several reasons have been postulated to explain why victims of rape do not report the crime. Victims may fear that they will not be believed by authorities, are too embarrassed or ashamed, or may believe that they contributed to the attack in some way (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Barnett et al., 1992; Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991; Crome et al., 1999; Eastal, 1992; Ellis, 1989; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Koss, 1993; Lees, 1997; Lievore, 2003; Sable et al., 2006; Starzynski et al., 2005; Ullman, 2007c). Furthermore, individual's who do not perceive their experience to be rape, for whatever reason, would not report the crime (Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991; Pino & Meier, 1999). Researchers have concluded that, overall, rapes are more likely to be

reported if injuries were sustained or medical attention is required (Pino & Meier, 1999; Ullman, 2007c). Stranger rape victims are more likely to report the crime to police or seek professional support in comparison to those raped by an acquaintance (Koss et al., 1988; Lievore, 2003; Starzynski et al., 2005; Ullman, 1996, 2007c; Ullman & Filipas, 2001). Thus, the closeness of the victim and offender relationship may be a barrier to disclosing rape (Lievore, 2003). Rape victims are also more likely to disclose the crime to formal supports when the victim received a physical injury or the offender had consumed alcohol and the victim had not consumed alcohol (Starzynski et al., 2005; Ullman, 2007c; Ullman & Filipas, 2001). However, researchers examining gang rape found that victims of gang rape were no more likely to report the incident than those raped by a single perpetrator (Ullman, 2007b). Furthermore, rapes are twice as likely to be reported when the perpetrator is a stranger, and five times as likely to be reported if something was stolen during the attack. Supporting the notion that victims of 'real rapes' receive more support are the findings that rape cases are more likely to proceed within the legal system when the victim actively expressed their non-consent, received injuries, when force or a weapon was involved, when there was additional evidence and the perpetrator was a stranger (Lievore, 2005; N. Taylor, 2007).

Most recently, it has been estimated that 18.9% of rapes are reported to police, 12.6% are then recorded by the police, 1.3% of defendants face court, 0.9% of defendants are proven guilty, and the only 0.7% a rapes result in the perpetrator being sent to prison (Wilkinson, 2007). Considering the number of rapes that occur within society, only a very small percentage progress to court and an even smaller proportion result in the perpetrator being incarcerated (Australian Institute of Criminology, 2007; Department of Justice, 1997; Lievore, 2003; N. Taylor, 2007; Wilkinson, 2007). Rape is considered to have the lowest conviction rate for all offences (Lievore, 2003; N. Taylor, 2007). Moreover, the amount of time the perpetrator is sentenced to prison varies substantially from 1 to over 20 years (Department of Justice, 1997). Thus, it is not surprising that victims of rape are reluctant to report the crime. Police have often been reported to be the least helpful of supports to rape victims (Ullman, 1996, 2007c). It has been suggested that during rape trials, jurors be informed of the myths surrounding rape, rape victims, and rapists to ensure a fair trial (Tetreault, 1989; Varelas & Foley, 1998).

It is now known that both genders experience rape and that under reporting of rape occurs across gender (I. Anderson, 2007; Crome et al., 1999; Davies, 2002; Davies et al., 2006; Graham, 2006; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Heilpern, 1998; Hodge & Canter, 1998; Kassing, 2003; Kassing & Prieto, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Kimerling et al., 2002; Lees, 1997; Lipscomb et al., 1992; Pino & Meier, 1999; Poropat & Rosevear, 1992; Turell, 2000). However, it has been suggested that male victims of rape are less likely to report the crime than female victims of rape (Coxell & King, 1996; Kimerling et al., 2002; G. Mezey & King, 1989; Pino & Meier, 1999; Stermac et al., 1996; Turell, 2000). Pino and Meier (1999) found that 54% of females and 42% of males reported being raped to police. There is some research to suggest that reasons for under reporting differ across gender (Graham, 2006; Pino & Meier, 1999), in that, males failed to report rape due to the fear that their masculine self-identity would be jeopardised, whereas females failed to report rape when the act did not fit into the classical stereotypical “real rape” profile. Other researchers have found differences in the reporting of rape between gender (Sable et al., 2006). Females were less likely to report rape due to fear of retaliation by the perpetrator, dependence upon the perpetrator, not wanting the perpetrator prosecuted, lack of resources to obtain help, and cultural barriers. In contrast, males were less likely to report rape due to shame, guilt, or embarrassment, concerns about confidentiality, fear of not being believed, and fear of being perceived as gay. Nevertheless, it is salient to note that both males and females rated shame, guilt, or embarrassment as the highest barrier to reporting rapes. The majority of male victims are raped by other men (Crome et al., 1999; Heilpern, 1998; Lees, 1997; Poropat & Rosevear, 1992; Scacco, 1982). Accordingly, male rape victims may experience confusion over their masculinity or sexual orientation and may not report the crime due to a fear of being perceived as homosexual or weak (Coxell & King, 1996; Crome et al., 1999; Davies, 2002; Heilpern, 1998; Kassing & Prieto, 2003; Lees, 1997; Poropat & Rosevear, 1992; Ratner et al., 2003; Sable et al., 2006; Scacco, 1982; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992; J. Walker et al., 2005b).

It has been found that gay and bisexual men are more likely to report rape than heterosexual male victims (G. Mezey & King, 1989; J. Walker et al., 2005b). Furthermore, bisexual female rape victims are more likely than lesbian or heterosexual victims to disclose their rape to formal support services, receive the fewest positive reactions and experience more traumatic outcomes following the rape

(Long et al., 2007). It is possible that females and gay men are more aware of rape issues, and what constitutes rape, and are therefore more inclined to acknowledge an experience as rape and act to report it. Hodge and Canter (1998) found that the majority of male rape cases reported to police were stranger rapes upon heterosexual victims. It is possible that these men and bisexual women felt more able to report the rape to police as it fits the traditional conception of a “real rape” by maintaining the stereotype of the predatory, possibly homosexual, rapist and is least likely to blame the victim’s sexual orientation.

It has also been found that males are less likely than females to believe that victims of rape should report the crime to police (Golge et al., 2003). Furthermore, females believe that rapists should receive more stringent sentences than males and that male perpetrators should receive lengthy sentences than female perpetrators (Smith et al., 1988). Researchers have noted that rape victims who have reported the crime to police viewed police support as unhelpful (Ullman & Filipas, 2001). It was also reported that victims who sought formal support received more negative social reactions when disclosing the rape than when disclosing to an informal support, such as a friend or family member. Although, rape victims may report the rape to either an informal support or seek professional help and not report the crime to the police, there is also a proportion of victims who do not report the crime to anyone. In one study, it was discovered that 12.5% of the sample had not reported being raped to anyone until they participated in the study (J. Walker et al., 2005b). In an examination of male rape victims, it was noted that although the majority of victims had informed somebody about the rape, only 12.5% of victims reported the crime to police (J. Walker et al., 2005b). Almost all of those that reported the rape to police stated that the police were unsympathetic, disinterested, and homophobic and subsequently the victims regretted informing the police.

Thus, it appears that one key reason why victims of rape do not report the crime to others, especially authorities, is due to their fear of encountering the negative societal stereotypes and attitudes that surround rape (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Buddie & Miller, 2001; Burt, 1991; Davies, 2002; Davies et al., 2006; Doherty & Anderson, 2004; Dye & Roth, 1990; Eastal, 1992; Hickson et al., 1994; Kassing, 2003; Kassing & Prieto, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Lievore, 2003; Patitu, 1998; Pino & Meier, 1999; Poropat & Rosevear, 1992; Smith et al., 1988; Starzynski et al., 2005; Ullman & Filipas, 2001;

Varelas & Foley, 1998). If rape victims are faced with such negative attitudes and judgements their likelihood to report the crime is decreased and they are more likely to doubt their own innocence and feel more shameful (C. L. Anderson, 1982). Therefore, in order to reduce the incidence of rape by increasing the identification and reporting of the crime to authorities, professionals or supports, it seems important to dispel these stereotypes and negative attitudes that surround the crime (Bunting & Reeves, 1983; Eastal, 1992; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Kershner, 1996; Layman et al., 1996; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Starzynski et al., 2005).

CAPTER 2. RAPE MYTHS

The following chapter outlines the relationship between rape supportive attitudes and behaviour, highlighting the importance of altering such attitudes. The concept of 'rape myths' are introduced and are defined as *attitudes and beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists that are generally false but are widely and persistently held, and serve to deny and justify sexual aggression against women and men*. Research within the area of rape myths and attitudes are reviewed, emphasising the relationship between rape myth endorsement levels and a variety of demographic variables.

Attitudes toward rape

Research continues to reveal a strong relationship between attitudes and behaviour, that is, individuals' attitudes influence the way they behave (K. B. Anderson et al., 1997; Bunting & Reeves, 1983). It could be assumed that an individual who endorses negative attitudes towards rape and rape victims, may act on such attitudes (Bohner, Jarvis, Eyssel, & Siebler, 2005). That is, rape supportive attitudes could predispose the perpetration of rape as well as allow the rapist to minimise the severity of or justify the rape once they have committed the act (Burt, 1991). Furthermore, rape supportive beliefs, such as certain individuals provoke rape or deserve to be raped, can encourage individuals to label rape victims in a false stereotypical manner (e.g. only young women engaging in risky behaviour are raped). This attitude not only

shifts the responsibility away from the perpetrator and onto the victim but also encourages the believers to conclude that they themselves are different from the stereotypical rape victim. This line of thinking may create a false sense of safety within individuals, as they are not aware of the reality that rape victims are from a variety of backgrounds and can occur in a variety of settings. (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Barnett, Quackenbush, Sinisi, Wegman, & Otney, 1992; Bohner, Danner, Siebler, & Samson, 2002; Bohner, Weisbrod, Raymond, Barzvi, & Schwarz, 1993; Burt, 1980). Burt (1991) has also argued that such attitudes make clear that avoiding rape is the victim's responsibility and that if they happen to be raped they will be blamed for being so careless. It is believed that this type of notion is what keeps victims from reporting their crime. Based upon the above premises, changing such negative attitudes toward rape could increase an individual's awareness about rape issues, influence individuals to behave more empathically toward rape victims and, most importantly, decrease individuals likelihood of committing rape (Easteal, 1992; Parrot, 1991). As previously noted, changing such negative rape attitudes may also result in victims feeling supported and believed and consequently enhance their preparedness to report their rape, which may also result in an overall reduction in the perpetration of rape (Bunting & Reeves, 1983; Easteal, 1992).

Given the potential value in eliminating such negative rape attitudes, it is not surprising that an extensive amount of research has examined individuals' beliefs and attitudes toward rape. Such research findings can direct education campaigns that aim to contest negative rape attitudes that perpetuate rape and adversely influence victims reporting levels (K. B. Anderson et al., 1997; Easteal, 1992; Gilmartin-Zena, 1987; Hamilton & Yee, 1990; P. J. Harrison, Downes, & Williams, 1991; Hinck & Thomas, 1999; Holcomb, Holcomb, Sondag, & Williams, 1991; Jones, Russell, & Bryant, 1998). Education campaigns should also aim to inform individuals how to detect potential rape threat and how to respond appropriately (Messman-Moore & Brown, 2006; Ullman, 2007a). Furthermore, research examining such attitudes can identify populations that strongly support such attitudes and subsequently target the appropriate campaign audience (K. B. Anderson et al., 1997).

There have been several interventions designed to alter individual's attitudes toward rape. Indeed, numerous studies have shown that such interventions are able to

positively alter rape attitudes, at least in the short-term (Foubert, 2000; P. J. Harrison et al., 1991; Heppner, Good et al., 1995; Heppner, Humphrey, Hillenbrand-Gunn, & DeBord, 1995; Holcomb, Savage, Seehafer, & Waalkes, 2002; Lanier, Elliott, Martin, & Kapadia, 1998; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Prince, 1999; Rosenthal, Heesacker, & Neimeyer, 1995; Schewe & O'Donohue, 1996; Szymanski, Devlin, Chrisler, & Vyse, 1993). Of concern are the findings of a minority of studies (Heppner, Good et al., 1995; Heppner, Humphrey et al., 1995) that provide evidence for a rebound effect, that is, initial post-program reductions in rape myth endorsement levels are not maintained over time. Heppner and colleagues concluded that rape awareness campaigns might not be effective at altering negative rape attitudes in the long term and that social influences may be longitudinally more potent than any brief rape awareness intervention. Although, other researchers have been able to demonstrate similar levels of significant positive attitudinal change following a rape awareness intervention at an initial and at a seven-month follow-up (Breitenbecher & Scarce, 1999; Foubert, 2000). One possibility for the success of this intervention is that, although brief, it appeared to be more intensive and related to altering rape attitudes than that used in Heppner's longitudinal studies. However, there has been limited longitudinal research examining rape awareness interventions, thus it is difficult to draw any firm conclusions about the long-term effects of interventions that have been shown to be an effective method of altering negative attitudes toward rape in the shorter term. Although, future research should focus upon exploring why some interventions are successful in the longer term and others are not, there appears to be preliminary support for the implementation of rape awareness interventions and attitudinal programs. Education campaigns should also aim to inform individuals how to detect potential rape threat and how to respond appropriately (Messman-Moore & Brown, 2006). Breitenbecher and Scarce (1999) found that although their intervention program increased individuals rape knowledge it was not effective at reducing their risk of sexual victimisation during the follow-up period.

As previously stated, rape is predominantly an act of power and not solely motivated by sexual drives and gratification. Rape is a violent crime that uses sex as a weapon. Research examining gender differences regarding the causes of rape has produced mixed results. One study noted that women attributed the occurrence of rape to sexual inequity whereas males attributed the occurrence of rape to chance and the victim's behaviour and character (Barnett et al., 1992). It has been concluded that

male participants viewed sex as the motivator of rape more so than female participants (Szymanski et al., 1993). Later research found that there were no gender differences regarding the causes of rape with both genders indifferent to the view that rape is an act of power (Caron & Carter, 1997). Most recently, Victorian data concluded that two in every five Victorians believed that rape was the result of men not being able to control their sexual urges (VicHealth, 2006). There appears to be several misconceptions surrounding the issue of why rape occurs and the motivations behind rape. Thus, it is essential to provide accurate information to individuals in the community areas about rape, and sexual assault in general; emphasising the violent nature of rape and that rape causes harm to victims. Research has shown that educating individuals about the traumatic effects of rape leads to a reduction in their tolerance of rape and self-reported likelihood to commit rape (Hamilton & Yee, 1990). Such education programs should also positively influence rape victim's tendency to report the crime and subsequently reduce the occurrence of rape within society.

Rape myths

Burt (1980) originally defined rape myths as “prejudicial, stereotyped, or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists” (p. 217). Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994) later redefined rape myths 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” (p. 134). The later definition adds to Burt's (1980) definition, however it limits the applicability of rape myths to female rape victims. In reality, myths surrounding rape are relevant for male and female victims. A satisfactory definition should be equally applicable to both male and female rape victims. More appropriately, rape myths could be defined as *attitudes and beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists that are generally false but are widely and persistently held, and serve to deny and justify sexual aggression against women and men*. It is argued that the endorsement of rape myths perpetuates the incidence of rape within our society (Bohner et al., 2005; Bourque, 1989; Briere & Malamuth, 1983; Costin & Kaptanoglu, 1993; Eastal, 1992; Ellis, 1989; Jones, Russell, & Bryant, 1998; Lottes, 1988; Monto & Hotaling, 2001). Known rape myths include the notions that victims provoke rape, victims secretly desire or enjoy rape, rapists are strangers with a weapon, victims fabricate the crime, rape can not occur within a relationship, and rapists have unfulfilled sexual desires. It is clear that such beliefs only continue to perpetuate the

occurrence of rape within society and deter victims from reporting the rape to others, especially police.

Rape myth acceptance levels.

There have been several studies examining individual's rape myth endorsement levels. In a review of the literature, Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994) concluded that previous research clearly demonstrated that rape myths are widely held by a significant proportion of the general population despite their inaccuracy. Research has demonstrated that rape myths are not only held by perpetrators of rape, but also by the general public (Aosved & Long, 2006). In regards to Australian research, studies have shown that rape myths are widely endorsed by adolescents (Davis & Lee, 1996; Xenos & Smith, 2001), young adults (Xenos & Smith, 2001), and the general population (Easteal, 1992). Interestingly, it has been found that individuals can be aware of the negative impact of rape and feel empathy toward victims of rape, but simultaneously endorse rape myths (Buddie & Miller, 2001). Furthermore, it is known that people can demonstrate a "sympathy effect" towards victims of rape, yet ascribe rape victims with an internal locus of responsibility (Burczyk & Standing, 1989). Thus, individuals may initially perceive victims responsible or deserving of the rape, however have empathy for the rape victim after the rape has occurred.

Over time, it has been noted that the level of rape myths endorsed by participants appears to have decreased (I. Anderson, 2007; Gilmartin-Zena, 1987; Holcomb, Holcomb, Sondag, & Williams, 1991; Kennedy & Gorzalka, 2002; Monto & Hotaling, 2001; Morry & Winkler, 2001; Perrott & Webber, 1996; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992; Williams et al., 1999). This may be due to participants responding in a socially desirable manner. Conversely, and more likely, that since initial rape myth research, society may have become more understanding of the nature of rape (I. Anderson, 2007; Davis & Lee, 1996; Holcomb et al., 1991; Monto & Hotaling, 2001; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992). However, there remains a proportion of the population that holds pro-rape attitudes, especially for those less obvious rape myths (Gilmartin-Zena, 1987, 1988; Holcomb et al., 1991). I. Anderson (2007) also warned that attitudes toward rape might not have progressed as much as previously assumed. Therefore research still remains warranted within the area of rape myths as they continue to be held by particular individuals, which subsequently may perpetuate the occurrence of rape within society. (Prince, 1999;

VicHealth, 2006). Research has demonstrated differing endorsement levels of rape myths between demographic variables, such as gender, age, education, occupation, income, ethnicity, religion, marital status, sexual orientation, prior exposure to rape, rape victim status and an individual's likelihood to commit rape. As certain individuals from particular demographic backgrounds are likely to endorse rape myths more so than their counterparts, it is important to investigate these demographic variables to understand why this occurs and to determine which audience rape awareness campaigns should be tailored towards.

Rape myth acceptance and gender.

The most extensively examined demographic variable in relation to rape myth acceptance is the gender of the respondent. Although both males and females have been shown to endorse rape myths, many studies have found that there is a significant difference between males and females in their endorsement of rape myths. Such research found that males are more accepting of rape myths and less empathic towards rape victims than females (I. Anderson, 2007; K. B. Anderson et al., 1997; Aosved & Long, 2006; Barnett et al., 1992; Blumberg & Lester, 1991; Boxely, Lawrance, & Gruchow, 1995; Caron & Carter, 1997; Ching & Burke, 1999; Davis & Lee, 1996; Dye & Roth, 1990; Easteal, 1992; Feild, 1978; Gilmartin-Zena, 1987, 1988; Golge et al., 2003; Hamilton & Yee, 1990; P. J. Harrison et al., 1991; Heppner, Humphrey et al., 1995; Hinck & Thomas, 1999; Holcomb et al., 1991; Holcomb, Savage, Seehafer, & Waalkes, 2002; Jimenez & Abreu, 2003; Johnson, Kuck, & Schander, 1997; Jones et al., 1998; Kalichman et al., 2005; Kassing, 2003; Kassing, Beesley, & Frey, 2005; Kassing & Prieto, 2003; Kennedy & Gorzalka, 2002; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Lanier & Green, 2006; Larsen & Long, 1988; Lee & Cheung, 1991; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Mitchell, Hirschman, & Hall, 1999; Mori, Bernat, Glenn, Selle, & Zarate, 1995; Morry & Winkler, 2001; Muir, Lonsway, & Payne, 1995; Oh & Neville, 2004; Patitu, 1998; Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999; P.A Resick & Jackson, 1981; Sapp, Farrell Jr, Johnson Jr, & Hitchcock, 1999; Sawyer, Thompson, & Chicorelli, 2002; Smith et al., 1988; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992; Szymanski et al., 1993; Varelas & Foley, 1998; Wakelin & Long, 2003; Ward, 1988; Whatley & Riggio, 1993; B. H. White & Kurpius, 1999; Williams et al., 1999; Xenos & Smith, 2001; Young & Thiessen, 1992). This finding is often explained in terms of obvious gender differences, that is, females generally tend to be more empathic than males. However, it could also be related to the fact that females are

more likely to be rape victims than males. Thus, females are more likely to be exposed to rape issues and subsequently relate more to rape victims and hold more empathic and appropriate rape attitudes (I. Anderson, 2007; Bohner et al., 1993; Mitchell et al., 1999; Oh & Neville, 2004; Smith et al., 1988; Wakelin & Long, 2003; B. H. White & Kurpius, 1999). Conversely, as males are more likely to be perpetrators of rape, they may be more likely to identify with the rapist and subsequently are more likely to hold attitudes that tolerate, justify, or minimise rape (Bohner et al., 1993; Szymanski et al., 1993). Although, this logic appears consistent towards female rape victims, it does not seem to apply for male rape victims. That is, following this line of thought, it would be expected that male participants would be more empathic towards male rape victims than female victims, however this has not been found (Mitchell et al., 1999). However, it is possible that males are less empathic towards male rape victims because males are generally less exposed to rape issues and may believe that males can not be raped, thus are unable to relate to and empathise with male victims of rape (Mitchell et al., 1999; Wakelin & Long, 2003). Interestingly, Young and Thiessen (1991) pointed out that although the rape myth literature indicates significant differences between gender, in most cases the directions of the rape myth endorsements are the same across gender and the differences are a matter of degree rather than a matter of opposites.

Rape myth acceptance and age.

Age has also been examined in relation to rape myth acceptance levels, with mixed results emerging. Initially, Burt (1980) reported that younger participant's reported lower levels of rape myth acceptance. Similarly, while examining male rape myths, Kassing (2003) found that younger participants were also less likely to endorse rape myths. In a review of the rape myth literature, K. B. Anderson et al. (1997) also concluded that younger participants endorse fewer rape myths in comparison to older participants. However this finding should be interpreted with caution as the majority of the studies included in the review were based upon college students and subsequently the age range was limited and the sample may have been too homogenous.

Interestingly, no age differences were found in rape myth acceptance levels or victim empathy for several studies (Boxely et al., 1995; Ching & Burke, 1999; Monto & Hotaling, 2001; P.A Resick & Jackson, 1981; A. M. White, Strube, & Fisher, 1998),

however the age range implemented in two of these studies were also limited to a restricted student sample (Boxely et al., 1995; Ching & Burke, 1999).

Conversely, research found that older females endorsed fewer rape myths than younger females, although no relationship between rape myths and age was found for male participants (Hamilton & Yee, 1990). However, within a Finnish sample that only contained males, older males also reported lower levels of rape myth acceptance in comparison to younger males (Aromaki, Haebich, & Lindman, 2002).

Johnson et al. (1997) examined specific rape myth areas and found mixed results. In particular, younger participants were more likely to endorse beliefs that excused the rapist, however it was also found that older participants were more likely to endorse beliefs that justify acquaintance rape. Therefore, it is possible that the gender differences noted between rape myth endorsement levels could be dependent upon the type of assault committed. Furthermore, when considering the relationship between rape myth acceptance levels and demographic variables it is necessary to contemplate that the observed relationship between the two variables may be influenced by a third co-varying factor, such as education.

Rape myth acceptance and education, employment, and income.

The question of whether the endorsement of rape myths varies as a function of the respondent's education and occupation has also been explored. Early researchers suggested that mental health workers who specialised in sexual assault were less accepting of rape myths when compared to the general community. In contrast, police officers endorsed rape myths to a greater extent than members of the general community (Burt, 1980; Feild, 1978). Moreover, Feild found that the views of police officers about rape were closer to those of rapists than those of counsellors. The relationship between occupation and rape myth acceptance has also been found at the trainee level. Thus, Payne et al. (1999) reported that rape educator trainees endorsed fewer rape myths than police trainees did. Ward (1988) found that police endorsed more rape myths than doctors and lawyers, who endorsed more rape myths than social workers and psychologists. A more recent study focusing upon counsellors in training and their rape myth acceptance levels toward male victims of rape indicated that male counsellors and those with limited counselling experience exhibited greater levels of rape myth endorsement. Counsellors of both genders

believed that “a male rape victim who showed no resistance to his attacker should have done so” (Kassing & Prieto, 2003). White and Kurpius (1999) found that undergraduate counselling students held more rape myths than graduate students, who held more rape myths than mental health professionals. One study found that psychiatrists endorsed more rape myths compared to psychologists, social workers, or other mental health professionals (Dye & Roth, 1990). Overall, it appears that those from occupations that involve limited exposure to rape issues and victims report higher levels of rape myth acceptance levels, except for police. Although police are regularly exposed to rape victims, they have repeatedly shown higher levels of rape myth acceptance.

The differences observed between occupational membership may be mediated by a third variable, such as education (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Research examining different educational groups, concluded that freshman, sophomores, junior and senior students did not differ upon their level of rape myth endorsement (Patitu, 1998). However, this sample may have involved a homogenous group of students that did not allow any differences to be detected as later research found that male freshman and sophomores endorsed more rape myths than junior and senior students (Sawyer et al., 2002). Two Australian studies found significant differences between 9th and 10th graders (Davis & Lee, 1996) and secondary and tertiary students (Xenos & Smith, 2001). Specifically, it was found that younger students reported a higher endorsement of rape myths in comparison to older students. Similarly, Blumberg and Lester (1991) found that secondary school males reported higher levels of rape myth acceptance than college males. However, this finding was not replicated for females. Burt (1980) and more recent researchers (Kassing, 2003; Kassing et al., 2005) have reported that as a respondent’s education or occupation status decreased, their endorsement levels of rape myths increased. Thus, less educated individuals tended to endorse greater numbers of rape myths. Interestingly, research has failed to detect a significant relationship between rape myth acceptance and years of education (Feild, 1978; A. M. White et al., 1998).

Only limited research has investigated the impact of income upon rape myth acceptance levels. One study concluded that family income was not related to rape myth endorsement (A. M. White et al., 1998). However, on examination of research investigating rape myth endorsement levels and education and occupation, it

appears overall that those from lower levels of socio-economic status generally report higher levels of rape myth acceptance.

Rape myth acceptance and ethnicity and culture.

Another variable commonly studied in relation to rape myth endorsement is the respondent's ethnicity and culture. Field (1978) examined the relationship between several demographic variables and attitudes toward rape and found that race was one of the most important characteristics for predicting rape attitudes. It has been suggested that Black women are more accustomed to violence than White women (L. A. Harrison & Esqueda, 1999). Research has also noted that Black women are less likely to be believed and more likely to be blamed when they report rape in comparison to White women (Varelas & Foley, 1998). However, the impact of this upon rape myth acceptance appears complex as the findings in the rape myth literature in regards to ethnicity are varied. Research has shown differences in rape myth acceptance levels amongst cultural groups (Ching & Burke, 1999). Hispanic respondents (Fischer, 1987), African American respondents (Feild, 1978; Giacomassi & Dull, 1986; Johnson et al., 1997; Varelas & Foley, 1998), Latin respondents (Jimenez & Abreu, 2003), and Asian respondents (Kennedy & Gorzalka, 2002; Mori et al., 1995) have been shown to endorse rape myths to a greater extent than Caucasians. Interestingly, it has been found that highly acculturated Asian respondents reported similar levels of rape myth endorsement to Caucasian respondents (Kennedy & Gorzalka, 2002; Mori et al., 1995). Researchers have also noted differences between rape myth endorsement levels for American and Scottish students, with American students endorsing more rape myths than Scottish students (Muir et al., 1995). In a meta-analytical review, K. B. Anderson et al. (1997) found that there was a small effect between rape myth acceptance for ethnicity, however, when controlling for gender a significant result was discovered. Coloured males were more likely to endorse rape myths than Caucasian males.

Conversely, other research has found no significant differences in rape myth acceptance levels amongst different ethnic groups (Boxely et al., 1995; Gilmartin-Zena, 1988; Patitu, 1998). It is salient to note that differences across ethnicity are difficult to examine accurately due to the possible existence of rape myths that are unique to specific cultural groups (Bourque, 1989; Feild, 1978; Gilmartin-Zena, 1987; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Furthermore, participants assimilation levels need to be

taken into consideration when examining cultural differences, as they have been shown to vary across participants and impact upon rape myth endorsement levels (Mori et al., 1995). Overall, however, the weight of research evidence suggests that there are differences amongst cultural groups in regards to their rape myth acceptance levels.

Rape myth acceptance and religion.

There is limited research investigating the relationship between rape myth acceptance levels and religious beliefs. Research has concluded that there is a “spillover” of religious beliefs to beliefs systems, including beliefs about rape (Bunting & Reeves, 1983). Aosved and Long (2006) examined the relationship between religious intolerance and rape myth acceptance levels and found that greater levels of religious intolerance were associated with higher levels of rape myth acceptance. These findings were consistent across gender. However, before any firm conclusions can be drawn, further research needs to be conducted in the area of religion and the impact it has upon rape myth endorsement levels.

Rape myth acceptance and marital status and dependents.

In Field’s (1978) examination between several demographic variables and attitudes toward rape, it was found that marital status was one of the most important characteristics, alongside sex and race, for predicting rape attitudes. The pattern of the relationship appeared to vary for each rape myth factor and occupational group examined, thus no clear conclusion could be drawn from the study regarding the impact of marital status. Later research revealed that married men and men with children were more likely to endorse rape myths (Kassing, 2003). It was argued that this finding could be due to married men with children being less likely to have knowledge of, and experience with, rape that could disprove their rape supportive attitudes. Further research needs to be conducted in order to gain a clear understanding of the role of marital status and dependent children has upon rape myth endorsement levels.

Rape myth acceptance and sexual orientation.

Research has demonstrated a clear relationship between gender-role stereotypes and rape myth acceptance, however, there is limited research investigating sexual orientation and rape myth acceptance levels. Researchers have concluded that

positive attitudes about sexual orientation were predictive of an intolerance of rape and the belief that women are innocent victims of rape (Caron & Carter, 1997). Furthermore, negative attitudes towards gay men have been found to be predictive of, or associated with, higher levels of rape myth endorsement (I. Anderson, 2007; Aosved & Long, 2006; Kassing, 2003; Kassing et al., 2005; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Locke & Mahalik, 2005; Truman, 1996; Wakelin & Long, 2003). Aosved and Long (2006) examined the relationship between homophobia and rape myth acceptance levels and found that greater levels of intolerance for gay men and lesbians were associated with higher levels of rape myth acceptance. These findings were consistent across gender. Kerr Melanson (1998) concluded that male rape myth endorsement was best predicted by negative attitudes toward homosexuality.

Research examining the differences between sexual orientation and the level of rape myth endorsement found that heterosexual men endorsed more rape myths and displayed less empathy for male rape victims in comparison to heterosexual women and gay men (Davies & McCartney, 2003). Furthermore, gay men reported the lowest level of rape myth acceptance levels and male victim blame. It was concluded that heterosexual men were less likely to identify with the victim, thus endorsing more rape myths. Furthermore, it was concluded that the victim's sexual orientation and the perpetrator's gender influenced male participant's level of empathy (Davies et al., 2006). Specifically, male participants reported more blame for the victim if someone of the gender that they are normally attracted to raped them, with the heterosexual victim of the female perpetrator receiving the most blame. Similarly, in regards to male to male rape, participants attributed more responsibility, less trauma, and more pleasure to homosexual victims than to heterosexual victims (Mitchell et al., 1999).

In sum, there seems to be a relationship between rape myth acceptance levels and sexual orientation. Negative attitudes towards homosexual men and women have been found to be associated with higher levels of rape myth endorsement. Furthermore, homosexual men and women appear to endorse fewer rape myths in comparison to heterosexuals.

Rape myth acceptance and prior exposure to rape.

The possibility that an individual's prior experience of rape or rape knowledge influences their level of rape myth acceptance has also been considered within the

literature. While it could be assumed that a victim of rape should endorse few rape myths, theorists (e.g., Burt (1980) have speculated that being a survivor of sexual assault could lead to an increase in rape myth acceptance, since prior exposure to rape could 'normalise' the experience for the victim. The empirical evidence, however, does not support such a contention. Indeed, studies have shown that victimisation or personal association with a rape victim has either no relationship with rape myth endorsement levels or leads to a lowering of such endorsements. For example, Burt (1980) found no relationship between rape myth endorsement levels and prior victimisation or knowledge of a rape victim. Similarly, Field (1978) concluded that contact with a rapist or rape victim and personal knowledge of a raped woman were not correlated with attitudes toward rape. Later research has also concluded that rape myth acceptance levels were not altered by, or associated with, prior experiences of sexual coercion (Kalof, 2000; Koss & Dinero, 1989; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992).

Equally, there is evidence to show that having personally experienced rape, or knowing someone who had been a victim of rape, is significantly related to lower levels of rape myth acceptance and to more empathic attitudes towards rape victims (Ching & Burke, 1999; Truman, 1996). Similarly, research has suggested that respondents who personally know a survivor of rape are more likely to report lower levels of rape myth acceptance (Gilmartin-Zena, 1987). K. B. Anderson et al. (1997) in a meta-analytical review found that women who were rape victims or had exposure to other rape victims endorsed only slightly lower levels of rape myths in comparison to those who had no previous exposure. However, it is unclear whether these pro-rape beliefs are causes or consequences of prior rape victimisation (Kalof, 2000).

In regards to individual's knowledge of rape, research has found that individuals who participate in rape awareness classes report lower levels of rape myth acceptance than those who have not participated in such programs (Hinck & Thomas, 1999). Furthermore, knowledge about rape trauma and the adverse nature of rape have been found to be associated with lower levels of rape myth acceptance and self-reported likelihood of committing rape (Hamilton & Yee, 1990).

Therefore, the findings of the respondent's exposure to rape, and its subsequent influence upon rape myth acceptance, are inconsistent. Such inconsistencies may be due to the varying techniques used to assess an individual's prior exposure to rape,

such as personal experience as a rape victim, knowing a rape victim, or participation in a rape awareness workshop or program. Although the strength of the relationship between exposure to rape and rape myth acceptance levels has varied across studies, there appears to be a trend that suggests that rape victims hold lower levels of rape myth acceptance. However before this conclusion can be confidently made, further research in this area needs to be conducted (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994).

Rape myth acceptance and rape propensity.

Research has repetitively found that significant numbers of people in the general community, up to 60 percent of some research samples, would consider raping someone if they were certain they could get away with the act or would not be punished (Briere & Malamuth, 1983; Check & Malamuth, 1983; Demare, Briere, & Lips, 1988; Greendlinger & Byrne, 1987; N M Malamuth, 1981, 1988; N M Malamuth & Check, 1985; Osland, Fitch, & Willis, 1996; W. D. Walker, Rowe, & Quinsey, 1993; Young & Thiessen, 1992). This finding is alarming, considering the tendency to under report sexual aggressive tendencies (Krahe et al., 2000; Lanier & Green, 2006; W. D. Walker et al., 1993). Even adolescents and young men have indicated that there were some situations where forced sex was acceptable (Davis & Lee, 1996; Golding & Friedman, 1997). Although, essentially the two acts are considered to be acts of rape, research participants have reported a greater likelihood to force someone to have sex rather than raping them (Briere & Malamuth, 1983; Demare et al., 1988; N M Malamuth, 1988; W. D. Walker et al., 1993). Individuals have also reported a greater likelihood of committing acquaintance rape rather than stranger rape, however the likelihood difference was not significant (Check & Malamuth, 1983). The inclination to rape has been shown to be linked to higher endorsement levels of rape myths (Bourque, 1989; Greendlinger & Byrne, 1987; Hamilton & Yee, 1990; N M Malamuth, 1981, 1988; N M Malamuth & Check, 1985; Osland et al., 1996; Truman, 1996; W. D. Walker et al., 1993). Although research has shown a relationship between an individual's reported propensity to rape and rape myth acceptance, the causal link is unclear. It has been suggested that the endorsement of rape myths acts as a way to remove the guilt associated with previously sexual coercive or aggressive behaviour (W. D. Walker et al., 1993). Other research has suggested that the endorsement of rape myths has a causal influence upon an individual's intention to commit rape or engage in sexually coercive behaviour (Bohner et al., 1998; Briere & Malamuth, 1983; Demare et al., 1988). Although individuals could endorse rape

myths to justify their previous sexual coercive behaviour, there appears to be more empirical support for the alternative. That is, the endorsement of rape myths neutralises in advance beliefs that oppose rape which may then lead the individual to behave in a sexually coercive manner (Bohner et al., 1998).

It is believed that individuals who engage in sexually aggressive behaviour endorse attitudes that are different to those that refrain from such behaviour (Hinck & Thomas, 1999). Research has demonstrated that sexually aggressive or coercive participants, including convicted rapists, tend to report higher levels of rape myth acceptance (K. B. Anderson et al., 1997; Aromaki et al., 2002; Bohner et al., 2005; Feild, 1978; N M Malamuth, 1981, 1988; Monto & Hotaling, 2001). Following on from the previous findings, Bohner et al. (2005) concluded that males with lower levels of rape myth acceptance are less likely to display sexual coercive behaviour. However, research that compared adolescents convicted of sexual assault and those convicted of non-sexual violent crimes found no difference between the two groups in regards to their level of rape myth acceptance (Epps & Haworth, 1993). This finding may provide further support for the notion that rape is not a sexual crime rather it is a violent crime that is expressed through a sexual act.

Overall, it appears clear that individuals with a history of sexual coercive behaviour or a self-reported likelihood to commit rape are more likely to endorse higher levels of rape myth acceptance. Moreover, the positive relationship between coercive sexual behaviour and rape myth acceptance levels provides further support for the need to alter individual's endorsement levels of rape myths in an attempt to reduce the occurrence of rape within society.

Male victims of rape and rape myths.

As previously mentioned, females are raped more frequently than males, however both are serious problems within society. The majority of the research previously mentioned examined rape myths regarding female rape victims, unless otherwise specified. There is relatively limited research that has examined male victims of rape, although interest in the field is growing. As for females, rape myths pertaining to males include the notion that victims are to blame for the crime. Other myths, with a unique male focus, include the notion that men 'can fight-off a rapist', that 'only gay men are raped', that 'only gay men rape other men', and that 'men are less affected

when raped'. The majority of research examining male rape myths indicates that many individuals endorse male rape myths (I. Anderson, 2007; Coxell & King, 1996; Davies, 2002; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Hickson et al., 1994; Kassing, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Scarce, 1997; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992; Wakelin & Long, 2003). Similarly to female rape myths, research has investigated male rape myth endorsement levels and different demographic variables, but has also investigated the differences between male and female rape myths.

It has been suggested that male rape myths are endorsed to a greater extent than female rape myths (I. Anderson, 2007). Research has compared the differences between two character profiles, which involved either a male or a female victim of rape, and found that there was a double standard present (Burczyk & Standing, 1989). That is, female rape victims were given more sympathy than male rape victims were, because the rape of a male was considered less serious. Research has also revealed that, although participants displayed equal levels of empathy towards male and female rape victims, male rape victims were blamed more for not physically resisting the attacker whereas females were blamed for not having foreseen the attack (Perrott & Webber, 1996). Furthermore, participants believed victims of rape to have encouraged the rape more when the perpetrator was female and the victim was male and that male victims derived more pleasure from the rape than female victims (Smith et al., 1988). Wakelin and Long (2003) concluded that the character of a homosexual male rape victim was blamed more than that of a heterosexual or lesbian rape victim. In sum, there appears to be differences in attitudes towards rape victims, in that, male victims of rape are considered less favourably than female victims of rape. I. Anderson (2007) concluded that male rape and female rape seem to be conceptualised along different dimensions. Female rape myths were associated more with beliefs regarding the relationship between the victim and perpetrator. Whereas male rape myths were associated more with other erroneous perceptions regarding victim characteristics.

Research has investigated rape myth endorsement levels in regards to male rape myths. Struckman-Johnson and Struckman-Johnson (1992) examined male rape myth acceptance levels amongst students and found that males held stronger levels of male rape myths than females, although the majority of participants disagreed with the six male rape myth items. However, participants in the study were provided with a

definition of male rape, which may have influenced their responses to be less accepting of male rape myths. Kassing (2003) examined male rape myth acceptance levels and concluded that older participants were more likely to endorse male rape myths, whereas more educated participants were less likely to endorse male rape myths. Kassing also explored the relationship between male rape myths and predictive variables. Kassing found that greater acceptance of male rape myths were related to more negative attitudes towards homosexual men. Overall, there is limited research investigating the relationship between demographic variables and male rape myth endorsement levels, and thus, further research is required before firm conclusions can be made.

Female perpetrators and rape myths.

There is some research investigating female perpetrators of rape, in particular females committing rape against males. Well-known rape myths regarding the rape of men by women include notions that women can not rape males, men would enjoy being raped by women, and that the rape of a man by a woman is considered to be less stressful than the rape by a man (Kerr Melanson, 1998). Research has revealed that rapes by female perpetrators are considered more pleasurable, less stressful or traumatic, less likely to be defined as rape, and female perpetrators are less guilty than male perpetrators (Davies, 2002; Davies et al., 2006; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992). As previously described, Struckman-Johnson and Struckman-Johnson (1992) manipulated the gender of the perpetrator and found that the majority of participants rejected rape myths when the perpetrator was male. However when the perpetrator was female, participants believed that the victim would not be upset about the rape and tended to be more accepting of rape myths. Furthermore, participants believed that female perpetrators derive more pleasure from rape than male perpetrators (Smith et al., 1988). Although research in this area is limited, it seems that rapes involving female perpetrators are considered less serious and less traumatic.

Same-sex rape and rape myths.

Research has further examined the relationship between male rape myths and homosexuality by exploring same-sex rape. Hickson, et al. (1994) surveyed 930 homosexual men, of which, one third reported being forced into sexual activity by

men with whom they had previously had, or were having, consensual intercourse. Hickson, et al. concluded that society needed to recognise that although there are accounts of heterosexual men raping other men, gay men also rape other gay men. That is, same-sex rape can also occur within relationships as well as between acquaintances or strangers, regardless of the sexual orientation of the victim. Wakelin and Long (2003) explored the effects of rape victim gender and sexual orientation on attribution of blame using rape vignettes. The study found that when raped by a man, male homosexual rape victims received more blame in comparison to heterosexual male victims. It was concluded that more blame was attributed to victims when the victim's sexual orientation indicated that they could be sexually attracted to the rapist.

Research examining same-sex rape tends to focus upon male to male rape. In regards to female same-sex rape myths, the research is limited. However, rape statistics indicate that although the occurrence of females raping females is small, the crime still occurs within the community, especially within lesbian relationships (Crome et al., 1999; Turell, 2000; Waterman et al., 1989). Reports also indicate that female to female rape also occurs within Australia's prison system (Heilpern, 1998). Currently, there does not appear to be research investigating female same-sex rape attitudes or rape myth endorsement levels.

CHAPTER 3. RAPE MYTH MEASURES

As there has been extensive research examining rape myth endorsement levels, it is not surprising that several scales exist to measure rape myth acceptance levels. The following chapter outlines rape myth acceptance measures, in chronological order. Only those measures that were considered to be relevant to the current study and that added to the pre-existing measures were included in the examination. Once the measures are summarised the criticisms of rape myth acceptance measures are then highlighted and the factor structure of the rape myth measures are discussed in relation to the underlying domains of rape myths.

Rape myth acceptance measures

There are many scales that have been designed to measure individual's rape myth endorsement levels. The majority of scales focus primarily upon general attitudes toward female victims of rape, although some scales have focused specifically upon attitudes toward acquaintance rape. More recently there has been an increase in the amount of scales that have been designed to measure individual's attitudes toward male victims of rape.

Measures examining female victims of rape.

The earliest, and frequently used, female rape myth measure is the 32-item "Attitudes Towards Rape Scale" (ATR) developed by Feild (1978). The ATR requires participants to indicate their level of agreement with each item on a 6-point Likert

scale, with end points labelled “strongly agree” and “strongly disagree”. Items were selected to represent the literature in a succinct, unambiguous, and non-redundant manner. Half the items are phrased in the positive direction and half in the negative direction. This methodology increases the likelihood of detecting response sets - the tendency to respond to items in a manner that is independent of the content of the item (Frary, 1996). Although only limited psychometric data is provided for the ATR, Field (1978) reported that the ATR has a lower bound reliability value of .62 and adequate discriminant validity. Field explained this low reliability value as a result of several issues: the number of factors identified (i.e., eight factors, that are discussed in greater detail below); the number of items that had a factor loading greater than .30; and the homogeneity of the ATR items. Overall, the ATR has become the second most commonly used instrument within the rape myth literature (K. B. Anderson et al., 1997; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994).

The “Rape Myth Acceptance Scale” (RMA; Burt, 1980) has become the most widely implemented scale used to assess rape myth acceptance (K. B. Anderson et al., 1997; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). The RMA contains 19 items, measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree.” Participants are required to indicate their level of agreement with eleven rape myth statements. On two additional items, respondents are asked to indicate the percentage they believe women would falsely report rape, and on six further items to indicate how likely they would be to believe the claim of having been raped, when several different individuals make the report. Several items within the RMA are reverse scored. Psychometric information provided for the RMA revealed a Cronbach’s alpha of .875 and item to total correlations ranging from .27 to .62. The scale has also been shown to discriminate between samples of rapists and non-rapists. Later research using the RMA revealed Cronbach’s alpha of .85 (Gray, 2006), of .88 (Jimenez & Abreu, 2003), of .83 (Morry & Winkler, 2001), of .56 (Rosenthal, Heesacker, & Neimeyer, 1995), of .81 (N. M. Malamuth, Sockloskie, Koss, & Tanaka, 1991), of .82 to .84 for two samples (Schewe & O’Donohue, 1998), ranging between .75 and .91 (Buhi, 2005), and values of .87, .85 and .82 for pre, post and follow-up stages, respectively (Foubert, 2000). Research also revealed 2-week test-retest reliability scores of between .79 and .88 (Schewe & O’Donohue, 1998). Many studies have also been able to demonstrate the validity of the RMA (Buhi, 2005; Burt, 1980; Foubert, 2000; Gray, 2006; Heppner, Good et al., 1995; Heppner, Humphrey et al., 1995; Jimenez &

Abreu, 2003; Morry & Winkler, 2001; Rosenthal et al., 1995; Schewe & O'Donohue, 1998). However, despite its common use within the rape myth research, it is surprising that there is a limited amount of research investigating, and appropriately reporting, the RMA psychometric properties (Buhi, 2005; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Payne et al., 1999).

Several less known and less psychometrically sound rape myth acceptance measures were developed following the construction of the RMA. The "Attribution of Rape Blame Scale" (ARBS; Resick & Jackson Jr, 1981) was designed to examine the different ways individuals attribute blame in rape. The ARBS contains 20 items measured on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." Participants are required to indicate their level of agreement with each rape myth statement. Some items within the ARBS are reverse scored to eliminate response sets. Other than factor analysis details, which will be discussed below, no other psychometric data for the RMA is provided by the authors. Furthermore, as the name suggests, the ARBS focuses upon the attribution of blame in rape or essentially, the causes of rape, and not other aspects of rape myths. Another less known scale, titled the "Rape Belief Scale" (Bunting & Reeves, 1983), was designed to measure rape myths and was based upon pertinent literature of the time. The scale contains 15 items measured on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Participants are required to indicate their level of agreement with each rape myth statement. The authors concluded that the measure was considered to be statistically consistent, that is, each item correlated with other items in the scale, however no other psychometric data has been provided. Furthermore, the scale titled "Rape Attitude Scale" was based upon pre-existing measures and relevant rape myth domains (Hall, Howard, & Boezio, 1986). The scale was used to measure rape tolerance levels and was initially devised using a prison sample of rapists or violent offenders and a community control group. The final version of the measure consisted of 14 items that required respondents to indicate their level of agreement with each rape statement, however the actual response scale was not described in the study. Psychometric information provided by the authors revealed a Cronbach's alpha of .66 for a adolescent sample and .78 for a university sample, and item to total correlations ranging from .17 to .49 for the adolescent sample and .21 to .64 for the university sample. One item was removed from the initial 15-item version of the measure as the item to total correlation was

considered to be too low. It was argued that the measure displayed acceptable face validity. However, the psychometric properties of the measure are questionable as the administration process and the measure's content differed between each sample. For example, the adolescent sample's measure contained filler items whereas the university sample's measure contained extra undocumented rape myth items and changed the wording slightly of each item (e.g., "girl" to "woman" and "boy" to "man").

Gilmartin-Zena (1987) initially constructed a 29 item questionnaire based upon the rape myth literature at the time and subsequently revised it into the 24-item "Acceptance of Rape Myth Scale" (ARMS; Gilmartin-Zena, 1988). Several of the ARMS items are reverse scored with all items measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" requiring participants to indicate their level of agreement with each statement. In contrast to most rape myth acceptance measures that focus only on myths relating to female victims, the ARMS was designed to measure a range of rape myth areas, including a single item relating to the notion that men can be the victims of rape. Psychometric information for the ARMS provided by the author revealed a Cronbach's alpha value of .70 and a split-half reliability value of .76. It was concluded that the ARMS held concurrent validity and was a reliable and valid scale. Later research examining attitudes towards male rape victims also reported adequate psychometrics, but changed the wording of the ARMS by replacing the word 'woman' in several items with the gender neutral term 'person' (Kassing & Prieto, 2003). However, this methodological strategy is open to strong criticism, since respondents may not have focused upon 'male' victims of rape when they read the word person, but may have continued to respond as though the victim was 'female'. To avoid this potential flaw, it is necessary that each rape myth item clearly state the victim's gender in order for respondents to consistently interpret the item, subsequently increasing the scale's validity and reliability.

Another commonly used measure is the "Attitudes Towards Rape Victim Scale" (ARVS; Ward, 1988) which contains 25 items, each measured on a 5-point Likert scale. The ARVS was designed to assess favourable and unfavourable attitudes toward rape. When completing the ARVS participants are required to indicate how they feel about each rape myth item from "I strongly agree" to "I strongly disagree." Some items within the ARVS were reverse scored to eliminate response set bias. There is a range of psychometric information provided for the ARVS. Analysis of two

samples conducted by the author revealed Cronbach's alpha's of .83 and .86. Further analysis revealed a test-retest reliability score of .80 after a six-week interval, and item to total correlations ranging from .20 to .59. The ARVS was designed to be applicable across different cultures, as previous scales were believed to be culturally specific (Ward, 1988). However, as the name suggests, the ARVS focuses only upon attitudes towards the rape victim and does not measure attitudes towards rape perpetrators or the act of rape itself. Subsequent research utilising the ARVS also found the scale to be psychometrically robust in terms of its Cronbach's alpha coefficients (Jimenez & Abreu, 2003) and (Lee & Cheung, 1991) and validity (Jimenez & Abreu, 2003; Lee & Cheung, 1991; Ward, 1988; Xenos & Smith, 2001).

The "General Attitudes Toward Rape" (GATR; Larsen & Long, 1988) scale was developed to build upon Field's (1978) and Burt's (1980) possibly outdated measures and to examine attitudes toward rape more generally. The GATR contains 22 items measured on a 5-point Likert scale. Participants were required to indicate their level of agreement with each statement. Half the items within the GATR were keyed in the positive direction and half in the negative direction. Larsen & Long (1988) argued that the GATR has adequate concurrent, construct, and predictive validity. Psychometric information provided by the authors revealed a Cronbach's alpha of .92, a Spearman-Brown split half estimate of .81, and item to total correlations ranging from .31 to .91.

During 1992, a national Australian survey was conducted involving 6,588 participants (Easteal, 1992). The survey was developed to assess respondents' attitudes toward rape. The survey contained several demographic questions and 15 items related to rape myths. Respondents indicated on 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" their level of agreement. Some of the items within the survey were reverse scored. The survey examined several aspects of rape myths, such as, the rapist, the act of rape, the role of survivors and rape law. However, no psychometric analysis was conducted, therefore the usefulness of the survey items is unknown.

Although based somewhat upon previous measures, the "Texas Rape Scale" (TRS; Young & Thiessen, 1992) also contains items that were constructed that reflected rape myths that are generally ascribed to both males and females, although more

items relate to female rape myths. The TRS contains 96 items that are intended to measure attitudes toward the rape victim, the rapist, punishment of rapists, rape resistance, sexual aggression, and homosexual rape. Items are measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” Participants are required to indicate their level of agreement with each statement, with some items within the TRS reversed scored. The TRS included the 10-item Texas Rape Intensity Scale (TRIS), the 15-item Rape Resistance Scale, the 11-item Sexual Aggression Scale, and the 5-item Rape Propensity Scale. The other 55 items of the TRS contained a variety of items that related to rape. The items of each sub-scale were randomly placed amongst the TRS. Although a full-scale reliability co-efficient was not reported for the TRS, reliability data was calculated for some subscales. Thus, the TRIS was reported to have an ‘overall’ reliability co-efficient of .64 and a split-half reliability score of .76. The reliability co-efficients for the Rape Resistant Scale and the Sexual Aggression Scale were .42 and .56, respectively. A factor analysis, which is discussed in greater detail below, was also conducted upon the TRS.

A rape myth acceptance measure was developed to assess rape attitudes within a adolescent sample (Kershner, 1996). The items were based upon the background literature and several panels screened the original 65- item pool before the final 25- item measure was constructed. Participants are required to indicate their level of agreement with each item on 5-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree.” Several items within the measure were reverse scored and one item related to male victims of rape. An examination of item-to-total correlations resulted in the removal of one item and the remaining items revealed a reliability alpha of .80 and a split-half correlation of .77. No further psychometric properties are reported for this scale.

Another less known rape myth acceptance measure was developed to assess three main rape myth areas: blaming the women, excusing the man, and justification for acquaintance rape (Johnson et al., 1997). The measure consists of 15 items responded to on a 6-point Likert scale, where participants are required to indicate their level of agreement ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree.” Only one item on the measure is reverse scored. Respondents are required to indicate their level of agreement with each statement. No formal psychometric data is

reported for the scale. Although the authors argue that the scale assesses three rape myth dimensions, no analysis was conducted to confirm such a structure.

The "Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale" (IRMA; Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999) was constructed in response to several criticisms of pre-existing rape myth acceptance measures. The IRMA was derived from an item pool of 120 items, which were based upon a review of the literature and discussions with experts in the field. The item pool was then screened and reduced to a pool of 95 rape myth items. After further scrutiny and analysis, the final version of the IRMA contained a total of 45 items; each measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from "not at all agree" to "very much agree". The items within the IRMA are worded as rape myths, however in an attempt to prevent response biases the IRMA also contains 'filler' items that are oppositely worded. Although the five 'filler' items are related to rape, they are not themselves considered to be rape myths (e.g., "All women should have access to self-defence classes"). Psychometric information provided by the authors revealed a Cronbach's alpha of .93, and item to total correlations ranging from .31 to .68. Analysis of the measure revealed seven specific rape myth subscales, which are discussed in further detail below. There is considerable research demonstrating that IRMA is psychometrically sound. For example, Payne et al. (1999) demonstrated the scale's construct validity. Similarly, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients are generally high across diverse samples. Thus, Muir, Lonsway, and Payne (1995) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .93 in a study of Scottish and American students, and Bohner, Danner, Siebler, and Samson (2002) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .84 in a sample of English, Dutch, and German respondents. Research examining American student samples both reported strong alpha coefficients of .95 for the IRMA (Aosved & Long, 2006; Locke & Mahalik, 2005).

Payne et al. (1999) noted that although the IRMA is psychometrically sound, it could be limited due to the length of the tool, thus they created a shortened version of the IRMA, titled "Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale, Short Form" (IRMA-SF; Payne, et al., 1999). The IRMA-SF contains a total of 20 items measured on a 7-point Likert scale, including three filler items. Similar to the IRMA, participants are required to indicate their level of agreement with each statement. Items for the shortened version were selected to optimise statistical and content-related properties. Psychometric information provided by the authors for the IRMA-SF revealed a Cronbach's alpha of

.87 and item to total correlations ranging from .34 to .65. As there was a strong positive correlation between the IRMA and the IRMA-SF, the authors concluded that the IRMA-SF is more than a sufficient proxy for the IRMA. However, it was suggested that the IRMA-SF should only be used to assess general rape myth acceptance levels and not any of the specific rape myth components they described.

Following the IRMA, the “Korean Rape Myth Acceptance Scale” (KRMAS; Oh & Neville, 2004) was developed based upon a culturally specific sample of Koreans. Although the preliminary KRMAS was based upon the IRMA, half the items were created to capture rape myths based upon a Korean population. After reviewing the items within the preliminary KRMAS and translating the items from English to Korean, the final version was constructed. However, it is unclear what effect the translation process had upon the quality of each rape myth item. The KRMAS contains a total of 28 items measured on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” The KRMAS also contains a validity item, “do not answer this item,” in an attempt to detect random responding. Over three studies involving student and community samples, the authors were able to demonstrate the validity and reliability of the KRMAS, and believed that it consisted of four subscales that are discussed in greater detail below. Specifically, the psychometric information for the KRMAS provided by the authors revealed a Cronbach’s alpha value of .88 then of .85, a two-week test-retest reliability value of .87, and expected gender differences and convergent validity were also demonstrated.

Measures examining date or acquaintance rape.

Researchers have continued to investigate rape, in particular date rape, and have highlighted the need for scales to be developed to measure specific attitudes toward date or acquaintance rape. Holcomb and colleagues initially developed the “Date Rape Attitudes Survey” (DRAS; 1986, cited in (Holcomb et al., 2002) in order to investigate rape myths surrounding date rape. The DRAS is reported to have a Cronbach’s alpha of .86 and is considered to display face and content validity. Holcomb and colleagues subsequently developed the “Rape Attitudes and Perception Questionnaire (RAP; (Holcomb et al., 1991). The RAP is based upon a small student sample, and consists of 20 forced choice items. Nineteen of the items relate to attitudes and one question relates to behaviour (i.e., “I usually think twice before putting on revealing clothes”). Psychometric information provided by the

authors revealed a Cronbach's alpha co-efficient of .74 and a Guttman split half reliability value of .75. Later research implementing the RAP, reported a Cronbach's alpha co-efficient of .73 (Hinck & Thomas, 1999). Although Hinck and Thomas removed the behavioural items from their study, their finding appears consistent with the original examination.

Several other measures of attitudes towards date rape have also been developed. The measure developed by Harrison et al. (1991) titled the "Revised Attitudes Toward Rape" is based upon the ATR (Feild, 1978) and the date and acquaintance rape literature of the time. The measure consists of 25-items measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Similarly to the ATR, the measure was designed to assess seven broad areas of date rape myths; seriousness of date and acquaintance rape, stranger myth, victim blaming, false reports, sexual motivation, false facts, some women desire to be raped, and you cannot be raped against your will. Although these areas were highlighted, a factor analysis revealed four factors that are discussed below. Reliability co-efficients for each factor ranged from .39 to .77 at the pre-test phase, and ranged from .05 to .65 at the post-test phase. Pearson correlations were calculated to determine the test-retest reliability between the pre- and post-test phases, scores ranged between .41 to .73 for each factor. Later research implementing Harrison et al.'s measure with a college sample (Hinck & Thomas, 1999), found an overall Cronbach's alpha of .70. In contrast, to Harrison et al., Hinck and Thomas were unable to replicate the scale's original factor structure.

Lanier and Elliott (1997) developed the "College Date Rape Attitude and Behaviour Survey" (CDRABS). The CDRABS was designed to measure attitudes toward date rape (20-items) and also behaviours that affect the risk of date rape (7-items), such as "I have sex when my partner is intoxicated." The CDRABS consists of 27 attitude items measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" and 7 behaviour items measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "always" to "never." Some items within the measure are reverse scored so that a high score indicates an anti-rape response. Psychometric information provided for the CDRABS revealed a Cronbach's alpha of .86 for rape attitudes and .67 for rape behaviours. Further analysis revealed a test-retest reliability score of .94 for rape attitudes and .89 rape behaviours, however the re-assessment was conducted after a

brief 90-minute interval. The authors noted that the validity of the CDRABS is yet to be clearly demonstrated. It is also salient to emphasise that the CDRABS focuses upon heterosexual date rape and does not consider attitudes toward rape in general. Later research (Lanier, Elliott, Martin, & Kapadia, 1998), focusing solely upon the 20-rape attitude items (CDRAS), reported a Cronbach's alpha of .86 and an one-hour test retest reliability score of .94. Further research found that once three items with low item to total correlations (less than .3) were removed, the measure displayed a Cronbach's alpha of .83 (Lanier & Green, 2006). The remaining 17-items were factor analysed and are discussed below in greater detail with other rape myth factors and domains.

Measures examining male victims of rape.

As previously mentioned, several scales exist to measure female rape myth acceptance levels, however there are few scales that measure male rape myth acceptance levels. Although the ARMS (Gilmartin-Zena, 1987), the TRS (Young & Thiessen, 1992), and the adolescent rape myth acceptance measure (Kershner, 1996) include items that assess male rape myths, the majority of the items within these measures relate to female victims. Consequently, the number of items indexing male rape myth acceptance within each of these scales is insufficient to form a general measure of the construct. In response to this limitation, Struckman-Johnson and Struckman-Johnson (1992) developed a measure of male rape myths, which did not appear to have a formal name, using items taken from the ATR. The measure presented each of the six male rape myth items with both male and female perpetrators, which allowed for comparisons between the gender of the perpetrator. Therefore, there were a total of 12 items. The order of the alternate perpetrator versions was not counterbalanced; rather the male perpetrator items appeared first followed by the female perpetrator items. To minimise response biases, some items were worded to reflect a rejection of the male rape myth. Participant's were required to indicate their level of agreement with each of the male rape myth items on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." The authors provided no psychometric data for the measure.

Most recently, Melanson (1999) developed a more extensive measure of male rape myth acceptance titled "Male Rape Myth Scale" (MRMS). The MRMS was derived from an item pool of 80 items, which approximately half were based upon previously

mentioned male rape myth items and the other half were created based upon the literature at the time. The final version of the MRMS contained 22 items measured on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” and required respondents to indicate their level of agreement with each male rape myth item. Unlike early versions of male rape myth measures, the MRMS has been psychometrically evaluated. Psychometric information provided by the author revealed a Cronbach’s alpha of .90, strong convergent validity based upon male rape vignettes, and expected gender differences were found. Analysis also revealed a test-retest reliability score of .89 after a four-week interval. Later research revealed a Cronbach’s alpha of .91 for the MRMS and similarly concluded that the measure demonstrated convergent validity and also predictive validity as the expected gender differences in endorsement levels were found (Kassing et al., 2005).

In summary, several measures have been devised to examine rape myth acceptance levels. These measures vary in their levels of psychometric quality, with some authors failing to report any psychometric values for their measure. A variety of other scales have been devised to measure rape myth acceptance levels, however these measures were not currently discussed as they were based primarily upon pre-existing measures described above and therefore have not added anything further to the literature previously outlined.

Criticisms of rape myth acceptance measures

Clearly, there are serious limitations with the psychometric properties and the general designs of many rape myth acceptance measures. Researchers have concluded that there are several faults within the scales that measure rape myth acceptance levels (Hinck & Thomas, 1999; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). In particular, it is argued that the wording of some of the items within rape myth scales is problematic, such that many items are poorly worded (i.e., too long, too complex, and their meaning is unclear). Conversely, it has also been argued that some rape myth items are too obvious (Epps & Haworth, 1993; Heppner, Humphrey et al., 1995) and as such may produce a ‘floor effect’ in response patterns. Examples of such poor items are as follows; “If a women gets drunk at a party and has intercourse with a man she’s just met there, she should be considered ‘fair game’ to other males at the party who want to have sex with her too, whether she wants to or not” (Burt, 1980), “University professors who give A’s to young women in their classes in exchange for sex are

essentially raping the women and should suffer the consequences just like any other rapist” (Young & Thiessen, 1992), “Men who rape are sick, emotionally disturbed” (Johnson et al., 1997), “There is a strong connection between the current morality and the crime of rape” (P.A Resick & Jackson, 1981) and “Becoming a rapist is limited to a small number of the whole male population” (Oh & Neville, 2004).

For items that are unclear and complex, the respondent may become confused or uncertain of the item meaning. Furthermore, it is necessary to be specific with clearly defined terms for each item. Often the terms “sexual assault” and “rape” are inappropriately used interchangeably; clearly, they are not the same, since rape is a specific example within the broader ‘sexual assault’ category. Thus such, an item as “Being sexually assaulted would change my life” (Larsen & Long, 1988) is not measuring attitudes toward rape per se, but rather attitudes toward the broader category of sexual assault. Similarly, when the non-specific term “person” is used in the rape myth item to describe a victim, it cannot be determined whether the respondent is considering a male or a female victim (Kassing & Prieto, 2003). Clearly, for measures to be valid, it is necessary that the items be worded clearly and specifically, enabling uniform interpretation.

Similarly, items that are considered to be double-barrelled, that is contain two joined ideas or statements, can cause confusion amongst respondents, lead to mixed interpretations, and subsequently to inconsistent responding across respondents. Examples of such items are; “Many women have an unconscious wish to be raped, and may then unconsciously set up a situation in which they are likely to be attacked” (Burt, 1980), “Often girls falsely report rape in order to get attention” (Hall et al., 1986), “Rape may be a reproductive strategy of some men who are rejected as sexual partners by women,” (Young & Thiessen, 1992), “Many women who report rape are lying because they are angry or want revenge on the accused” (Ward, 1988), “Most men who are raped by a man are somewhat to blame for not escaping or fighting off the man” (Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992), “All kinds of men, many of them normal and respectable in other ways, are rapists” (Easteal, 1992), “Only young, attractive women wearing seductive clothing are raped” (P. J. Harrison et al., 1991), and “Most men who are raped by a woman are somewhat to blame for not being more careful” (Kerr Melanson, 1998). Double-barrelled items can cause confusion and inconsistent responding, as some respondents may agree with

the first part of the item and not the second, or vice versa, and are then uncertain about which response they should select.

Further, several items within scales that measure rape myth acceptance utilise colloquial terms that become outdated and may be culturally specific. The following items illustrate this point; “If a girl engages in “necking or petting” and she lets things get out of hand, it is her own fault if her partner forces sex on her” (Burt, 1980), “Nice’ women don’t get raped” (Easteal, 1992; Feild, 1978; P. J. Harrison et al., 1991) and “Rape is more likely to occur in slum or ‘bad’ areas” (P.A Resick & Jackson, 1981). Similar items that use colloquial terms are; “If men thought they could get away “scotfree” with committing rape, they would do so” (Gilmartin-Zena, 1988), “Most girls who have sex physically forced on them are ‘easy’ and ‘loose’” (Hall et al., 1986), “I would force a person of the opposite sex to have sex if he or she was obviously a ‘loose’ person who had sex with many different people” (Young & Thiessen, 1992), “Many women pretend they don’t want to have sex because they don’t want to appear ‘easy’” (Lanier & Elliott, 1997), and “If a woman allows a man to make a “pass” at her, then it’s no big deal if he goes a little further and has sex” (Oh & Neville, 2004). The more recent male rape myth acceptance measure also contains items that implement colloquial terms, for example, “If a man engages in “necking and petting” and he lets things get out of hand, it is his own fault if his partner forces sex on him” (Kerr Melanson, 1998). Such terms can have different meanings to different respondents, and clearly, the use of colloquialisms across time and cultural groups is problematic. It has been concluded that items on rape myth scales, in particular the RMA (Burt, 1980), are outdated (Epps & Haworth, 1993; Heppner, Humphrey et al., 1995). Furthermore, Ward (1988) criticised several scales measuring rape myth acceptance claiming that they contain colloquial phrases that limit their cross-culture applicability. Therefore, Ward (1988) constructed the ARVS in response to the criticisms she raised. Other researchers (Lee & Cheung, 1991; Ward, 1988) concluded that the ARVS holds promise for cross-cultural research and application, although it too contains colloquial phrases, such as, “good girls” and “bad girls.”

Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994) also argued that some items within rape myth acceptance measures appear to be irrelevant, in that they do not measure rape myths per se. Rather these irrelevant items appear to be a measure of related, yet

clearly different, constructs, such as gender, sexual intercourse, or relationships. Examples of items that appear to be assessing attitudes towards gender rather than rape myths are as follows; "In a woman, submissiveness equals femininity" and "In a man, aggressiveness equals masculinity" (Holcomb et al., 1991), "Young girls (under 12) cannot act seductively" (Larsen & Long, 1988), "Generally, women should not be out alone at night" and "Strong men do not cry" (Kershner, 1996), "When women go around braless or wearing short skirts and tight tops, they are just asking for trouble" (Burt, 1980), "When women go around wearing low cut tops or short skirts, they're just asking for trouble" (Payne et al., 1999) and "When women go around wearing showily clothing, they're just asking for trouble" (Oh & Neville, 2004). Examples of items that appear to be assessing attitudes towards sexual intercourse rather than rape myths are as follows; "Women enjoy violence in sex" (Bunting & Reeves, 1983), "Women don't want men to convince them to have sex" (Larsen & Long, 1988), "Many people have sex to feel close to somebody, not just because they're aroused" (Holcomb et al., 1991). There are also examples of irrelevant items that appear to be assessing attitudes towards relationships rather than rape myths, such as, "If a guy has spent a lot of money on a date, he has the right to expect that the girl will have sex with him" (Hall et al., 1986), "Women would be better off becoming lesbians than deal with the threat of rape from dates or spouses" (Young & Thiessen, 1992), "Males and females should share the expenses of a date" (Lanier & Elliott, 1997), "When a woman says love she means love, when a man says love he means sex" and "It is best that men initiate/pay for dates" (Holcomb et al., 1991) and "The main role of a wife is to take care of her husband", and "The best relationships are those in which the man is in control" (Kershner, 1996). Although these items are assessing a range of important constructs or attitudes, it is not appropriate to include them within a rape myth acceptance measure.

Not only have criticisms been raised regarding the quality of rape myth items, the cross-cultural applicability of certain items and the actual construct being measured by some items, concerns have also been raised about the fact that some rape myth items actually contain an element of truth. It has been argued that such items are not necessarily rape myths, rather they have some statistical basis (Ellis, 1989; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994, 1995). For example, a common rape myth item included in rape myth acceptance measures is that only "certain kinds of women are raped" (P.A Resick & Jackson, 1981). Research has found that victims of rape are significantly

more likely to be young woman (Bohner et al., 2002; Burt, 1991; Davis & Lee, 1996; Eastal, 1992; Poropat & Rosevear, 1992), thus, such an item could be considered a statistical truth. However, as Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994) point out, by definition the essential characteristics of a myth is not necessarily to the degree to which it represents a statistical fact rather it is the particular function the belief serves. That is, the degree to which the belief justifies blame and deservedness, and in so doing, perpetuates rape within the society, which this particular item appears to do.

Although Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994) argue that there is still an important role for scales measuring rape myth acceptance levels they conclude, “many scales appear to be thrown together for immediate use” (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994, pp. 158). Furthermore, Heppner et al. (1995) concluded that based upon the current limitations of rape myth acceptance measures, there is a need to develop more recent and sensitive measures. Thus, when developing rape myth acceptance measures, it is essential that adherence to the basic standards of item writing and scale construction is maintained (Breakwell, Hammond, & Fife-Schaw, 2002; Frary, 1996; Hinck & Thomas, 1999; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994).

In response to the criticisms advanced by Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994), the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMA) was constructed (Payne et al., 1999). Although it has been argued that the IRMA is the most conceptually and psychometrically sound scale within the rape myth literature (Oh & Neville, 2004), it too has limitations. The IRMA contains some culturally limited, outdated, and unclear phrases, such as, “make out,” “bad side of town,” and “teases.” The IRMA also contains items that appear irrelevant to rape myth acceptance levels, such as “All women should have access to self-defence classes.” As noted previously, such “filler” items were included in the IRMA in an attempt to eliminate response rather than the more widely used ‘reverse-scoring’ method. Although Payne et al., (1999) have argued that reverse scoring creates items that are technically not rape myths, there is no doubt that some rape myth items need to be reverse scored, otherwise they become ‘unclear’ items. For example, the item “A raped women is usually an innocent victim” is a reverse scored rape myth item (Ward, 1988). Clearly, this item is tapping into the myth that the victim is to blame for the rape. If this item was rephrased to “A raped women is usually guilty” the item becomes unclear and ambiguous. Furthermore, the use of filler items instead of reverse scoring serves to make the instrument lengthy. Oh and

Neville (2004) examined rape myth acceptance levels amongst a Korean sample and although they based their “Korean Rape Myth Acceptance Scale” (KRMAS) on the IRMA, they too noted that several items on the IRMA required refining in order for the measure to be applicable across cultural groups. Furthermore, Oh and Neville decided that it was appropriate to include reverse scored items, rather than filler items, to detect response sets within their measure.

Not only are there concerns regarding the items within rape myth acceptance measures, consideration also needs to be given to the response scale implemented in rape myth acceptance measures and also to the number of items within the measure. The response scale implemented in rape myth acceptance measures is usually a Likert scale. This approach is widespread, effective, and efficient. However, it is necessary to include sufficient responses that allow the respondent to differentiate their level of agreement with each item. Conversely, it is important to not overwhelm the respondent with too many response options (Breakwell et al., 2002; Frary, 1996). As described above, several of the pre-existing rape myth acceptance measures implement a 5-point Likert scale, however this does not appear to provide respondents with sufficient options to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement. Moreover, odd-numbered Likert scales allow respondents to select a neutral option, which does not force them to make a decision in either direction (Breakwell et al., 2002; Frary, 1996).

Arguably, the use of a 6-point Likert scale should accommodate these issues without placing undue demands upon respondents. Also, it is helpful at times to collapse responses into broader categories, such as “agree” or “disagree,” however when doing so, it is necessary to not collapse each category into too few categories so that the original meaning of the response is lost. For example, Johnson et al. (1997) combined the categories “strongly agree,” “agree” and “slightly agree” and subsequently may have distorted results by not considering the range of the degree of agreement. Therefore, researchers need to give thought to the scale they utilise, be cautious when combining response categories and do so sparingly to prevent distorting results. If response categories are continuously required to be combined, a smaller Likert scale could be deemed more useful.

The RAP (Holcomb et al., 1991) was the only measure that implemented a forced choice response scale. The authors argue this was done to increase the ease of scoring, however it does not allow respondents to express their level of agreement with each item, a limitation that may cause them to respond in an overly conservative manner. Another rape myth acceptance measure that utilised response scales other than a Likert scale is Burt's (1980) RMA. The RMA required respondents to answer items regarding reporting of rape using percentages. It has been argued that this approach is overly difficult and unreliable, and a more viable option is to utilise a Likert scale (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). The RMA also requires participants to respond to further items using another different response scale. Changing the response scale within a measure can be confusing for respondents, and may reduce the reliability of responses. The use of a consistent response scale that provides respondents with several options is clearly ideal.

Furthermore, in order for measures to be enticing for participants to complete, it is essential that they are not considered too lengthy or unnecessarily time consuming (Breakwell et al., 2002; Frary, 1996). However, the number of items required for rape myth acceptance measures would be considered to be high due to complexity of the rape myth construct, as discussed further below. As evident from the commentary above, pre-existing measures that contain a limited number of rape myth items (Burt, 1980; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992), fail to capture the full rape myth construct, and instead, are limited to only specific aspects of rape myths.

Structure of rape myths and rape myth acceptance measures

Not only are there clear limitations and criticisms of some pre-existing rape myth acceptance measures, there is little agreement about the underlying structure of the rape myth construct. Research has explored these well-known rape myth acceptance measures in order to determine the underlying factor structure of rape myths. This allows for a better understanding of the different aspects of rape myths and how they relate to one another. It has also been concluded that the overall score on rape myth acceptance measures may not be as informative as factor sub-scores (Johnson et al., 1997; Prince, 1999; Young & Thiessen, 1992). Factor sub-scores can provide greater insight into demographic differences currently observed in overall scores. That is, examination of factor sub-scores can help determine if particular demographic groups display consistent differences across all rape myth factors or if

demographic differences are specific to a particular rape myth factor. Given the vast amount of research exploring rape myth acceptance, it is surprising the limited amount of research devoted to exploring the underlying factor constructs of rape myths. Of the limited research, the overwhelming trend indicates that rape myths are complex and multi-dimensional in nature (K. B. Anderson et al., 1997; Briere, Malamuth, & Check, 1985; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Payne et al., 1999). However, there is debate regarding the exact number of underlying rape myth factors or domains and regarding the content of the underlying components. Although it remains clear that rape myths are not an uni-dimensional construct.

Feild (1978) argued that it is necessary to assess myths and attitudes toward three broad areas of rape: the act of rape, the rape victim and the rapist. However, exploration of the factor structure of his ATR shows that the items load on eight independent factors, that collectively account for 50% of the total variance. Feild labelled these factors: woman's responsibility in rape prevention, sex as motivation for rape, severe punishment for rape, victim precipitation, normality of rapists, power as motivation for rape, favourable perception of women after rape, and resistance as woman's role during rape. Feild reported that two factors, sex as motivation for rape and power as motivation for rape, were not considered as either pro- or anti-rape factors, rather they were general perceptions of rape. As some items loaded onto up to three different factors, Feild concluded that the factor structure complexity might be due to the non-independence of the theoretical constructs underlying the items. Later research examined the ATR and revealed an initial five-factor solution explaining 52% of the total variance, however the fifth factor was considered to be uninterpretable and a four-factor solution was decided upon accounting for 48% of the total variance (Caron & Carter, 1997). These four factors were labelled: rape as a sexual act, rape as masculinity, negative views of the rapist and blaming the victim, with the last factor accounting for the majority of the total variance, 24%. The items that loaded onto each of the four factors were not published, thus it is difficult to compare the factor structure solutions with Field's earlier work, however there does appear to be factor similarities based upon the labels provided. Although researchers have found different factor structures of the ATR, there appears to be support for the notion that rape myths are a multi-dimensional construct that are related to one another.

With respect to the RMA, Burt (1980) claimed that the scale is an uni-dimensional measure. However, since the factor structure of the RMA was not formally assessed (only item-to-total correlations were performed), it could not be determined whether the RMA items loaded onto an uni-dimensional or multi-dimensional construct (Jones et al., 1998). Since its construction the RMA has undergone several examinations that focus upon its structure. Factor analysis of the RMA revealed a four-factor solution (Briere et al., 1985). Items were considered to load onto a factor if they had a loading greater than .35. These independent factors were labelled: Disbelief of rape claims (accounting for 25.3% of the total variance), Victim responsible for rape (accounting for 19.2% of the total variance), Rape reports as manipulation (accounting for 7.3% of the total variance) and Rape only happens to certain kinds of women (accounting for 5.6% of the total variance). This finding provided evidence that rape myths were a multi-dimensional construct and that the RMA was not measuring an uni-dimensional construct as initially suggested by Burt. Later research examining the structure of the RMA also rejected Burt's hypothesis of a one-factor rape myth model. Jones et al. (1998) concluded that a three-factor model better explained the RMA structure and was able to replicate his factor solution across three different samples. The three factors were similar to those found by Briere et al. and were labelled: disbelieve claims, blame the victim, and reports as manipulation. However, in order to achieve a three-factor solution it was necessary to remove several RMA items and reduce the measure to 12 items instead of 19. Thus, it is not possible to make comparisons between the original RMA and Jones' et al. (1998) findings.

Initial factor analysis on the ARBS revealed a four-factor solution accounting for 55% of the variance (cited in Resick & Jackson, 1981). These factors were labelled victim blame, offender characteristics, situational characteristics, and societal blame. Further analysis of the ARBS found a similar four-factor solution, which accounted for 85% of the variance (P.A Resick & Jackson, 1981). The factors were labelled victim blame, societal values blame, assailant blame, and sociological status blame. Items were assigned to a factor if they had a loading of .45 or greater. Although there was some overlap in the items that loaded onto each factor for the two solutions there did appear to be some discrepancies. It is important to note that the initial study implemented a female university sample whereas the later study implemented a sample of mental health workers. However, based upon such research, it is clear that

rape attitudes measured by the ARBS are considered to be multi-dimensional in nature.

Ward (1988) claimed that rape myths were uni-dimensional in nature and that the ARVS contained one general rape myth factor. However, subsequent exploration of the factor structure with an Australian sample (Xenos & Smith, 2001) revealed that the ARVS contained four factors related to the victim that accounted for 40.4% of the total variance. Items that had a factor loading equal to or greater than .44 were considered significant and only two items loaded onto two factors. These four factors were labelled victim deservingness, victim credibility, victim responsibility, and victim blame. Statistical analysis revealed that the reliability co-efficient for each factor was .77, .75, .59, and .48, respectively. Almost identical factor solutions were obtained after a split-sample reliability test. Xenos and Smith (2001) concluded that each factor demonstrated internal consistency and that the ARVS was not a uni-dimensional measure rather each factor represented a separate dimension of attitudes toward rape.

A factor analysis of the GATR concluded that the GATR could be broken down into three factors, with each factor accounting for 82.9%, 11.5% and 5.9%, respectively (Larsen & Long, 1988). However, the authors noted that the third factor had an eigenvalue of .55, which was too low to allow for meaningful interpretation. Furthermore, these factors were not labelled or explained in detail. Although there was a multi-factorial solution found in two separate research phases, it was concluded that as the reliability co-efficient was high at .92; it was likely that the GATR was uni-dimensional in nature.

Although Harrison et al. (1991) claimed that their rape myth acceptance measure assessed seven domains of rape myths, a factor analysis revealed four factors that accounted for 33.4% of the total variance. Items were considered to load on a factor if it had a value greater than .35. Reliability co-efficients for each factor ranged from .39 to .77 at the pre phase and from .05 to .65 at the post phase. As factor one and two displayed the most internal consistency they were considered to be homogeneous, stable and the only interpretable factors. These factors were labelled Victim blaming or denial and Perceptions of factual information. The remaining two factors were eliminated from the research and not examined further. Later research

by Hinck and Thomas (1999) implementing Harrison et al.'s measure with a college sample reported that they were unable to replicate the original factor structure of the measure.

Although the TRS (Young & Thiessen, 1992) was designed to contain four subscales, a factor analysis revealed a three-factor solution. Limited detail was provided about the analysis, however the factors were loosely labelled Sexual Aggression, Rape Rationalisation and Punishment. A factor related to rape resistance was not found and the authors argued that this finding was due to rape resistance attitudes are not independent of the three factors identified. It was also noted that these factors did not hold any interpretive importance.

In a more detailed account, Lanier and Green (2006) reviewed their measure and conducted a principal component analysis on 17-items of the CDRAS. A four-factor solution accounted for 51.5% of the total variance. These factors were labelled Entitlement (Cronbach's alpha of .78 accounting for 30.7% of the variance), Blame Shifting (Cronbach's alpha of .74 accounting for 8.1% of the variance), Traditional Gender Roles (Cronbach's alpha of .47 accounting for 6.3% of the variance) and Overwhelming Sexual Arousal (Cronbach's alpha of .45 accounting for 6% of the variance). Items were considered to load onto a factor if they had a loading value greater than .4 and subsequently, only one item loaded onto two factors. As the correlations between each factor ranged from .36 to .56, the authors concluded that the four factors constituted a higher-order rape construct.

Hinck and Thomas (1999) combined the RAP (Holcomb et al., 1991) and a measure assessing date rape myths (P. J. Harrison et al., 1991) for their study. They found 19 items that differentiated respondents in terms of their level of rape myth acceptance. The authors believed that examination of the 19-items implied a five-factor structure of rape myths that were labelled, Victim blame or denial, Adherence to sex-role stereotypes, Rape justification, Misinformation about rape, and Communication or relationship factors. However, a factor analysis revealed a seven-factor solution accounting for 59.4% of the total variance. Items loading upon these factors, sometimes as few as two, were described, however each factor was not interpreted any further. Thus, the factor solution does not seem to be of a high standard and

although the factor solution suggests that rape myths are multi-dimensional the lack of factor interpretation does not explain how rape myths are related to one another.

In a detailed analysis of the IRMA, Payne et al. (1999) explored the possibility of an uni- or multi-dimensional structure of rape myths. They concluded that rape myth acceptance can be conceptualised as hierarchical model consisting of a general component and seven distinct rape myth sub-components. Those seven rape myth components were labelled She asked for it, It wasn't really rape, He didn't mean to, She really wanted it, She lied, Rape is a trivial event, and Rape is a deviant act. A follow-up study was conducted to explore this structure. Results duplicated the rape myth structure and indicated that there were no structure differences amongst gender. No item loaded onto a sub-component more than once. The follow-up study also concluded that rape myth acceptance can be characterised by two dimensions, denial versus justification of rape and victim versus perpetrator focus, and nine clusters of rape. These nine clusters were believed to be similar to the seven components, in that, six clusters were related to six of the components and the last three similar clusters related to the seventh component. Given the similarities between the two outcomes utilising factor analysis and individual differences scaling, the authors concluded that the results suggest a stable structure of the rape myth construct.

Following on from the construction of the IRMA (Payne et al., 1999), Oh and Neville (2004) explored the dimensionality of the KRMAS. It was concluded that a four-factor solution best described the rape myth construct. Items were considered to load onto a factor if they had a loading of .4 or higher and no item loaded onto more than one factor. The four-factor solution accounted for 39% of the total variance. The factors were labelled Rape survivor myths (Cronbach's alpha of .85), Rape perpetrator myths (Cronbach's alpha of .73), Myths about the impact of rape (Cronbach's alpha of .71) and Rape spontaneity myths (Cronbach's alpha of .63). Correlations among the factors ranged between .19 and .52. A subsequent confirmatory study supported the four-factor solution and found similar values for each factor. The authors argued the need and value in investigating rape myths as sub-scales rather than as a whole.

The factor analyses of rape myth acceptance measures discussed above, highlights that rape myths are a multi-dimensional construct, which are considered to also be

related to one another. Several other rape myth acceptance measures have not undergone factor analysis, although they were developed to assess a range of rape myth domains based upon a rational analysis of the literature. Although no formal factor analyses have been conducted on such measures, it was clear that there was, once again, an underlying assumption that rape myths are multi-dimensional in nature. For example, Bunting and Reeves (1983) examined seven rape myth domains, Hall et al. (1986) included three rape myth domains, Gilmartin-Zena (1987) measured six rape myth domains, Struckman-Johnson and Struckman-Johnson (1992) assessed three rape myth domains and Johnson et al. (1997) proposed three rape myth domains. Although there are differences between these studies and the number of rape myth domains or factors, the rape myth acceptance measures all seem to be assessing several broad rape myth themes. These themes could be categorised as victim blame, excusing the rapist, minimising the seriousness of rape, denying that rape occurs and characteristics or causes of rape. The differences in the number of factors or domains extracted in each rape myth acceptance measure is a reflection of how broadly or specifically researchers have captured these rape myth themes. These broad themes have been reported across a range of samples and appear to be related to not only female victims of heterosexual rape but also same-sex rape and male victims of rape (Kerr Melanson, 1998; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992). However, research has not compared rape myth domains between different victims of rape determining which rape myth domains are most dominant for male rape myths and female rape myths.

Furthermore, in a meta-analytic review, Anderson et al. (1997) concluded that the magnitude of individual differences found amongst rape myth endorsement levels was significantly associated with the rape myth acceptance measure implemented, however researchers could assume that most credible measures are of equal sensitivity. This notion has further been supported by similar conclusions of researchers utilising more than one rape myth acceptance measure. For example, research implementing both the ARVS and the RMA have found that the two measures produce consistent outcomes although imply that the two scales are measuring different constructs, thus the two scales need to be included as dependent variables (Jimenez & Abreu, 2003; Mori et al., 1995). Furthermore, research implementing both the ATR and the RMA found that on one occasion the two measures produced consistent outcomes (Szymanski et al., 1993), however on

another occasion only the RMAS was able to detect significant changes between pre and post treatment (Prince, 1999). Once again, researchers concluded that it is likely that the RMA and the ATR measure different constructs.

It is clear that some pre-existing rape myth acceptance measures have focused upon certain aspects of rape myths and subsequently, neglected other important aspects (Buddie & Miller, 2001; Payne et al., 1999). For example, the ARVS (Ward, 1988) focused upon one aspect of rape, the rape victim, whereas several other measure have focused solely upon rape in a date setting (P. J. Harrison et al., 1991; Hinck & Thomas, 1999; Holcomb et al., 1991; Lanier & Elliott, 1997; Lanier & Green, 2006). Such measures have subsequently neglected considering aspects of the act itself, the rapist or the impact of rape across a variety of settings (Buddie & Miller, 2001). As can be seen by the above factor descriptions, rape myth acceptance measures should contain items that assess the broad aspects of the construct relating to the broad areas of the victim, the perpetrator and the act itself. Thus, it is important for researchers to carefully consider the purpose of their research and to select the measure that appears to be the most appropriate and relevant for the sample and study aims (K. B. Anderson et al., 1997). It is necessary to consider the construct structure of rape myths and to not automatically assume that a measure is psychometrically sound or suitable for implementation in rape myth research. Although it is evident that there is no clear consensus as to the structure of rape myths, there appears to be an overlap amongst the emerging factors from different studies. However, one consensus that continues to emerge from the research examining rape myths is that rape myths reflect a complex and multi-dimensional structure.

CHAPTER 4. SUMMARY AND CURRENT RESEARCH

The following chapter provides a summary of the research previously described and outlines the limitations of the existing research. The chapter concludes by highlighting the current aims and hypotheses of the current research.

Research summary and existing research limitations

The precise prevalence rate of rape within society remains unclear due to the variations in rape definitions implemented within prevalence studies and because rape is one of the most under reported crimes (K. B. Anderson et al., 1997; Buddie & Miller, 2001; Easta, 1992; Koss, 1993). The proportion of rapes that are not reported to authorities also remains unclear. Although there is a vast amount of literature examining the profile of rape and rape victims, research has tended to focus upon female victims of rape. More recently there has been an increase in rape research that has focused upon male victims of rape and same-sex rape (Coxell & King, 1996; Crome et al., 1999; Department of Justice, 1997; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Kalichman et al., 2005; Kassing & Prieto, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; J. Walker et al., 2005a, 2005b; Watkins Jr., 1990). It is widely recognised that rape victims may experience a range of adverse effects after a rape has occurred, including heightened suicidality (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Bohn, 2003; Coxell & King, 1996; Koss et al., 1988). However, the impact rape has upon each victim may vary in presentation and in the duration that each victim remains distressed or affected.

During the past three decades many researchers have investigated attitudes surrounding rape, since it is evident that the reduction in the prevalence of rape and

its sequelae is unlikely to reduce in the context of community attitudes that place blame and responsibility on victims. Indeed, it has been argued that such attitudes have served to perpetuate the occurrence of rape and the under reporting of the crime (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Bohner et al., 2002; Bourque, 1989; Buddie & Miller, 2001; Costin & Kaptanoglu, 1993; Davies, 2002; Davies et al., 2006; Doherty & Anderson, 2004; Dye & Roth, 1990; Easteal, 1992; Hickson et al., 1994; Jones et al., 1998; Kassing, 2003; Kassing & Prieto, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Lottes, 1988; Monto & Hotaling, 2001; Patitu, 1998; Pino & Meier, 1999; Poropat & Rosevear, 1992; Smith et al., 1988; Ullman & Filipas, 2001; Varelas & Foley, 1998). These attitudes are now widely referred to as 'rape myths'. Rape myths are defined as attitudes and beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists that are generally false, but are widely and persistently held, and serve to deny and justify sexual aggression against women and men. Research has demonstrated that rape myths exist for male and female victims of rape. Such rape myths are considered to be widely and persistently held by the general public (Aosved & Long, 2006; Easteal, 1992). However, as with most rape research, rape myth investigations tend to focus upon female victims of rape. Over time it appears that the rape myth acceptance level has decreased, possibly due to society becoming more aware of the issues that surround rape (Gilmartin-Zena, 1987; Holcomb et al., 1991; Kennedy & Gorzalka, 2002; Monto & Hotaling, 2001; Morry & Winkler, 2001; Perrott & Webber, 1996; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992; Williams et al., 1999). A large amount of research has been dedicated to examining the relationship between a range of demographic variables and rape myth acceptance levels. The most commonly investigated demographic variable is gender (K. B. Anderson et al., 1997; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Results have revealed that males endorse rape myth to a greater level in comparison to females. Findings for other demographic variables are not as straightforward and further research needs to be conducted before any firm conclusions could be made.

There are a variety of rape myth acceptance measures that have been devised (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Majority of the rape myth acceptance measures focus upon female victims of rape and neglect male victims of rape. There is no clear consensus regarding the factor structure of rape myth measures. However, there is overwhelming amount of evidence to suggest that rape myths are multi-dimensional in nature (K. B. Anderson et al., 1997; Briere & Malamuth, 1983; Lonsway &

Fitzgerald, 1994; Payne et al., 1999). Several criticisms regarding rape myth acceptance measures have been put forward. Such criticisms include the use of poorly worded items, the inclusion of irrelevant items, poor cross-cultural applicability, the use of inappropriate response scales, and limited psychometric properties reported. It has been suggested that many rape myth acceptance measures have been thrown together for immediate use and do not adhere to basic measure construction guidelines (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994).

In addition to the critiques of rape myth acceptance measures, there are other, more general, criticisms of the past rape myth research literature. For example, while there has been an extensive amount of research conducted examining rape myths, the majority of studies have utilised student samples rather than broader, community samples (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). It is important for research to examine community samples that are representative of the general population, which allows for research results to be generalised to the wider community and not just student populations.

Similarly, sexual orientation has been relatively neglected as a variable of interest in the rape myth literature. Thus, rather than gay and lesbian individuals being actively excluded from participation in previous studies, the relevant demographic information has generally not been collected (ie, participants have often not been asked to specify their sexual orientation). Consequently, research should obtain such demographic data that permits the examination of such samples. Moreover, rape myth scales are predominantly worded to only include heterosexual female rape victims, and exclude male rape victims and same-sex rape. It has been documented that males can also be victims of rape and that same-sex rape does occur, so for a thorough examination of attitudes and myths that surround rape, it is necessary to include items within rape myth scales that address all rape victims and types of rape.

There is also a limited amount of recent Australian rape myth research. A large amount of the rape myth research previously discussed is based upon an American sample. Thus, rape myth research completed overseas can not be confidently applied to Australian societies until replication studies have been conducted with large Australian samples. Although one study (Easteal, 1992) surveyed a large number of Australians ($n=6,588$), the author concluded that the data was not

representative of the Australian community due to several significant methodological biases. In addition to the limited Australian rape myth data there is also no published rape myth measure that has been devised within an Australian context. Therefore, several of the well-known published rape myth acceptance measures may be inappropriate for Australian research, as pre-existing rape myth acceptance measures are usually culturally specific or become outdated quickly.

Future research, current aims and hypotheses

Due to the under reporting of rape, future research needs to examine the incidence of rape within a general sample and determine the reporting rate of rape to police. By determining such rates, researchers would be better able to estimate the actual prevalence of rape within the general community and obtain further insight into issues surrounding the reporting of rape to authorities. An emphasis should be placed upon investigating the characteristics of rape victims and the profile of rape in an attempt to gain a better understanding of the differences between male and female victims of rape and to continue to help identify the needs of rape victims in general. Once such data is collated, rape awareness campaigners could provide society with further rape education that identified the current needs of rape victims, encouraged the reporting of rape to authorities and facilitate more targeted education for specific Australian communities that were highlighted as being in need of such information. Although it is acknowledged that the term “survivor” can be empowering to those who have been raped, the term “victim” is used throughout the thesis for the ease of reading and to avoid confusion, especially when comparing victims and non-victims. By no means does the author intend to offend or disempower anyone by using the term “victim.”

It has been noted that rape myth endorsement levels have appeared to decrease over time in some overseas samples (Gilmartin-Zena, 1987; Holcomb et al., 1991; Kennedy & Gorzalka, 2002; Monto & Hotaling, 2001; Morry & Winkler, 2001; Perrott & Webber, 1996; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992; Williams et al., 1999). This reduction in endorsement levels may be due to participants responding in a socially desirable manner or, and more likely, that since initial rape myth research, society may have become more understanding of the nature of rape (Davis & Lee, 1996; Holcomb et al., 1991; Monto & Hotaling, 2001; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992). However, there still remains a proportion of the

population that holds pro-rape attitudes, especially for those less obvious rape myths (Gilmartin-Zena, 1987, 1988; Holcomb et al., 1991). It would be beneficial to obtain an understanding of the current endorsement levels within Australia and determine if any rape myths are culturally specific. Moreover, it remains important to determine which rape myths appear to remain widely held and which subgroups within the general community endorse higher levels of rape supportive attitudes. Similarly, it would be valuable to gain an understanding of individual's likelihood to rape somebody if they were assured that they would not be caught within today's current society. Research should also aim to collect detailed demographic data to allow for the examination of the influence of such demographic variables upon rape myth acceptance levels. Establishing such relationships between demographic variables and rape myth acceptance levels would provide a deeper understanding into the types of individuals that are more likely to endorse particular rape myths and also highlight the possible rape myths that may discourage victims from reporting their experiences of rape to authorities. Such research would enable rape reduction programs or campaigns to be implemented in an attempt to eliminate the rape myths that continue to justify and perpetuate rape within our society. Detailed demographic data would also enable rape campaigners to identify the high-risk target audience of such interventions.

In regards to future research within the area of rape myth measures, it is important that a measure be devised within an Australian context that takes into consideration the critique of previous measures and includes rape myth items concerning male and female rape victims. Once that has been established, research can then examine the prevalence of rape myth endorsement levels amongst the Australian, or at least the Victorian, community. It is also essential to include rape myths that allow for the comparison between female and male rape victims and not only focus upon male offenders but also female offenders and same-sex rape. The reliability and validity of a proposed rape myth acceptance measure should also be examined and reported. Furthermore, the factor structure of the rape myth acceptance measure should be examined to determine the underlying multi-dimensional nature of rape myths for both male and female victims of rape.

Therefore the aims of the current study are to address the limitations described above. More specifically, the current study aimed to obtain an estimate of the

incidence of male and female rape within the general community in an Australian sample. Moreover, the research undertaken in this thesis aimed to provide a profile of both male and female rape victims, the rape itself and estimate the proportion of rapes that are reported to police. Although it is recognised that gender can be conceptualised in more ways than just male and female, for simplicity and the ease of reading, the current thesis operationalised gender as either male or female. However, within the demographics section of the current questionnaire, participants were able to specify their sexual orientation, which included many options such as “transgendered.” In regards to the aftermath of rape, the current research aimed to determine the impact of rape upon victims, in particular, to determine the relationship between rape and depression or suicidality. A major aim of the current research was to devise a rape myth acceptance measure that examined male and female rape myths and that allowed for direct comparison between male and female rape myth endorsement levels. In so doing, the factor structures of both the male and female rape myth measures are examined for commonalities and possible differences. The current research also aimed to obtain a range of demographic data from the sample to explore the relationship between demographic variables and rape myth acceptance levels.

Although the current research is largely exploratory in nature, several hypotheses are examined. It was hypothesised that a proportion of the sample, including men, would report being a victim of rape, although all would not have reported the crime to police. It was further hypothesised that rape victims would report higher levels of depression, suicidal ideation, and suicide attempts in comparison with non-victims. Further, it was hypothesised that a proportion of the sample would endorse both male and female rape myths, and that there would be systematic differences amongst demographic variables and rape myth endorsement levels. Specifically, it was expected that younger male participants with lower levels of education and income who were not married with no children and participants who had not been a victim of rape would report higher levels of rape myth acceptance in comparison to their counterparts. The rape myth acceptance measure developed was expected to be a reliable and valid measure of rape myth acceptance and would provide further support for the multi-dimensional nature of rape myths. However, it was hypothesised that the endorsement levels of male and female rape myths would differ and subsequently the factor structure of the female rape myths would differ when compared to the male

rape myths. In particular, it was hypothesised that male rape myths would be endorsed to a greater level in comparison to female rape myths.

CHAPTER 5. METHOD

Participants

The sample consisted of 560 participants. No participants were excluded from the sample. In terms of gender, 78.57% ($n = 440$) of the sample was female and 20.54% ($n = 115$) was male. Participants were aged between 18 to 69 years ($M = 32.44$, $SD = 10.33$), which appears to be a slightly younger sample in comparison to the general population (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2006). The majority of the sample was living in Australia, with a small proportion, 5.36% ($n = 30$) of the sample, reporting that they were resident overseas. Of those participants living in Australia, 16.61% ($n = 93$) reported being born overseas. The majority of the participants (53.16%, $n = 277$) reported being resident in the Australian state of Victoria. With respect to the other Australian states, 20.35% ($n = 106$) of respondents were from Queensland, 11.52% ($n = 60$) were from New South Wales, 9.02% ($n = 47$) were from South Australia, 2.88% ($n = 15$) were from Western Australia, 1.73% ($n = 9$) were from Tasmania, 0.96% ($n = 5$) were from Australian Capital Territory, and 0.38% ($n = 2$) were from Northern Territory. This uneven distribution of participants from different Australian states is likely to be due to the current research receiving more publicity within Victoria.

Although the majority of the sample were born in Australia (76.61%, $n = 429$), a variety of cultural backgrounds were represented. However, only one third of the sample ($n = 184$) specified the cultural background with which they identified, therefore data specifying participant's cultural background is limited. Of these respondents, the majority specified that they derived from an Australasian

background, in that 59.24% ($n = 109$) indicated that they were Australian and 16.30% ($n = 30$) stated that they were partly Australian. In sum, 23.37% ($n = 43$) of these respondents specified that they derived from an European background, 3.80% ($n = 7$) of the sample that responded stated that they derived from an Asian background, 1.63% ($n = 3$) of the sample that responded stated that they derived from a Middle Eastern background, 1.63% ($n = 3$) of the sample that responded stated that they derived from an American background, and 1.09% ($n = 2$) of the sample that responded stated that they derived from an African background. The diversity in participant's cultural background within the current sample approximates the diversity within today's multicultural society (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2006).

In terms of educational achievement, the sample was relatively diverse although compared to the general population the current sample appeared to have completed more higher education (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2006). Over half the respondents 52.86% ($n = 296$) indicated that they had completed secondary school or the equivalent, 20.89% ($n = 117$) had completed either a diploma certificate or a trade certificate (or equivalent), 55.00% ($n = 308$) had completed an undergraduate university degree, and 26.79% ($n = 150$) had completed a postgraduate university degree. Participants were able to select multiple qualifications; therefore the percentages outlined exceed one hundred.

The employment status of the sample was also examined. As can be seen in Figure 1, half ($n = 280$) of the sample were currently employed full time and only 1.25% ($n = 7$) of the sample were currently unemployed. The current unemployment rate appears to be representative of the general population (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2006). Once again, participants were able to select multiple employment situations; therefore the percentages outlined exceed one hundred. Unfortunately, due to the coding of the data, the current research is unable to specify participant's occupation.

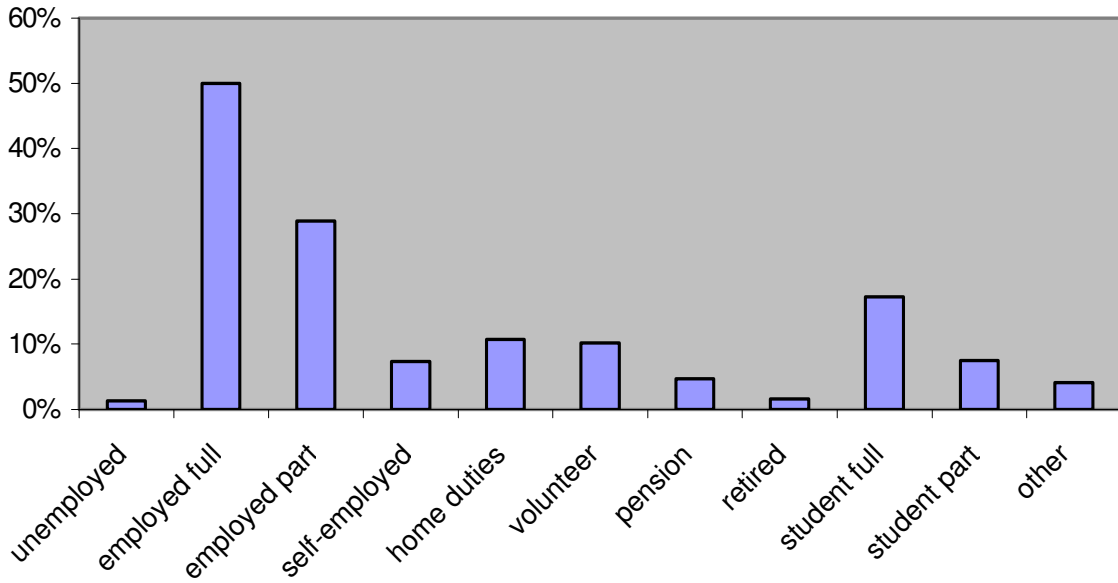


Figure 1. Participant's employment status.

The distribution of participants' personal gross income appeared to be almost normally distributed which can be seen in Figure 2.

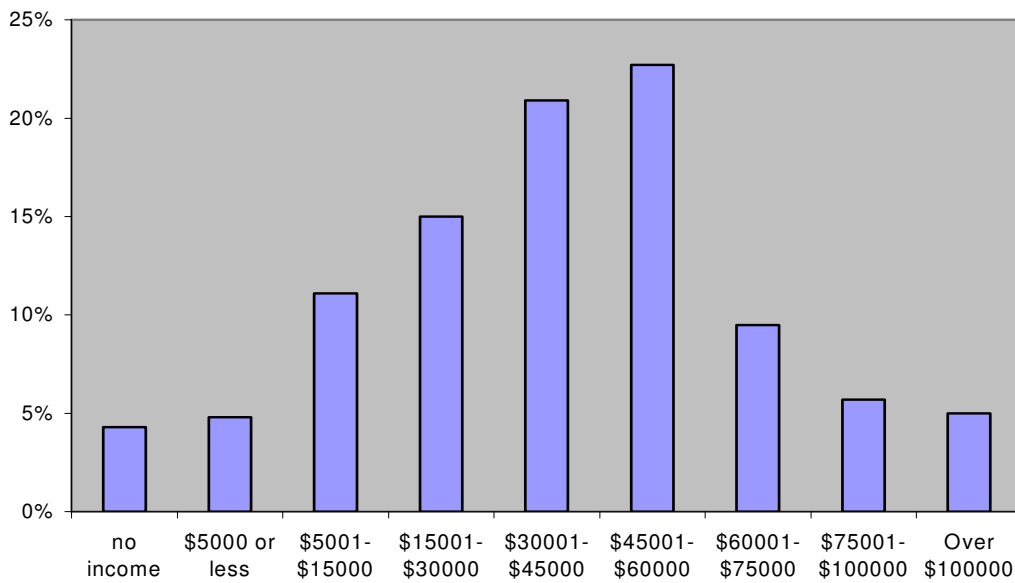


Figure 2. Participants' gross incomes.

Figure 2 reveals that the sample appeared to be diverse in their gross income with almost half of the sample ($n = 244$) reported earning between \$30,001 and \$60,000. In line with educational achievement, the current sample appears to have a higher gross income in comparison to the general population (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2006).

In regards to participants' marital status, one quarter ($n = 140$) of the sample were currently married, 2.68% ($n = 15$) were engaged, 20.54% ($n = 115$) were in a defacto relationship, 7.68% ($n = 43$) were divorced, 3.39% ($n = 19$) were separated and 0.89% ($n = 5$) were widowed. However, 38.57% ($n = 216$) of the sample stated that they had never been married. The marital status of the sample appeared to be similar to the general population, in that a similar percentage reported being divorced, separated and that they had never been married. However, in comparison to the general population, fewer participants in the current sample reported being married or a widow and more reported being in a defacto relationship (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2006). This discrepancy is consistent with the finding that the current sample appeared to be younger than the general population. In total, two thirds of the sample stated that they had a child or children.

A variety of sexual orientations were represented within the sample. The majority of the sample (76.25%) stated that they were heterosexual ($n = 427$). A minority of the sample (4.11%, $n = 23$) reported a homosexual (gay) orientation, 5.71% ($n = 32$) indicated that they were lesbian, 7.32% ($n = 41$) were bisexual, and 0.40% ($n = 2$) were transgendered. It is difficult to compare the sexual orientation of the sample to the general population, as the data currently available examines same-sex relationship status and not sexual orientation in general (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2006). Participants were required to state how many people in their lives were aware of their sexual orientation. Responses varied, with 64.11% ($n = 359$) of the sample stating that their sexual orientation was widely known, 20.54% ($n = 115$) stated that most people knew, 3.75% ($n = 21$) stated that quite a few people knew, and 7.5% ($n = 42$) stated that only a few knew about their sexual orientation. However, 2.5% ($n = 14$) of the sample stated that no one knew about their sexual orientation. Participants were also asked to state how often they had contact with either a gay or lesbian person. It appeared that the majority of the sample had regular contact with either a gay and lesbian person, with almost one third ($n = 175$) of the sample having daily contact with a gay or lesbian person, 23.75% ($n = 133$)

having weekly contact with a gay or lesbian person, 5.71% ($n = 32$) having fortnightly contact with a gay or lesbian person, and 8.57% ($n = 48$) having monthly contact with a gay or lesbian person. However, 12.68% ($n = 71$) stated that they have contact with a gay or lesbian person a few times a year, 9.11% ($n = 51$) rarely have contact with a gay or lesbian person, and 3.75% ($n = 21$) never have had contact with either a gay or lesbian person.

Participants reported having affiliations with a variety of religions with 6.61% ($n = 37$) of the sample stating that religion is extremely important to them. One quarter ($n = 143$) of the sample stated that religion is slightly important, 13.04% ($n = 73$) stated that religion is important, and 5.36% ($n = 30$) stated that religion is very important to them. However, almost half ($n = 272$) of the sample stated that religion is not at all important to them. Furthermore, approximately three in five participants ($n = 313$) stated that they currently had “no religion.” Although this rate appears to be increasing within our current society, it appears to be that a higher proportion of the sample reported no religious affiliations in comparison to the general population (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2006).

Materials

A questionnaire was developed to address the research questions. The questionnaire, titled “Rape Attitudinal Questionnaire” (RAQ; see Appendix A) was generated by the researchers, as it was necessary to construct a rape myth questionnaire that minimised the methodological limitations of previous scales. The following section initially describes the RAQ then proceeds to outline the questionnaire’s construction process.

The RAQ comprised a total of five sections. Section One contained items that examined generic rape myths, factual rape items, and participant’s beliefs about the likelihood of rape related issues. The factual rape items within Section One of the RAQ examined participant’s factual knowledge about rape and included items such as “People are usually raped by someone they don’t know,” “Females cannot rape other women”, and “Females can not be guilty of rape.” These items were considered ‘factual’ as they were based upon current rape legislation and statistical findings. Section One also contained items that examined participant’s perceived likelihood that they would rape somebody or that they themselves or someone else they knew

would become a victim of rape. Such items included “As long as I don’t hurt the person, it would be ok for me to have sex with them against their will,” “Rape is unlikely to happen to any female I know” and “I am unlikely to be raped in my lifetime.” Section One also contained items that examined participants’ level of endorsement of generic rape myths and not myths that could be applied to a specific gender. Such items included “Most rapes would occur when the victim has engaged in risky behaviours,” “If a person appeared controlled and calm the day after their alleged rape, it probably isn’t true” and “In a committed relationship, if a partner requests sex, you have an obligation to agree.” Each item within Section One was responded to on a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from one to six, with one indicating “strongly agree” and six indicating “strongly disagree.” A 6-point Likert scale was implemented as it allowed participants to acknowledge the level of their agreement however forced them to decide either towards agree or disagree rather than remaining neutral. In total, Section One contained twenty-six items, however the final question in the section asked participants to rate how likely it was that they would rape somebody if they thought they could get away with it. This item was responded to on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from one to five, where one indicated “not at all likely” and five indicated “very likely”. Throughout Section One several questions asked participant’s to rate their likelihood of forcing sex upon someone, however this last questions is a more direct question regarding rape rather than forced sex. Previous research has noted the importance in examining between the two questioning techniques (N M Malamuth, 1988). Although two items within Section One were reverse scored, in general, a low score on an item indicated that the participant had agreed with the item and therefore were endorsing rape myths or held attitudes that were likely to perpetuate rape within our society.

Sections Two and Three of the RAQ contained items examining a variety of rape myth domains that included either a male or female subject. That is, all the items in each separate section referred to one particular gender then the other section contained items referring to the opposite gender. The items in both sections were identical, however the gender of the person in question differed. Creating items that were comparable allowed for researchers to examine the direct differences between male and female rape myth endorsement levels. Items covered in the female section included “Women who wear revealing or provocative clothing are inviting rape,” “A healthy woman can successfully resist a single rapist if she really tries” and “Some

women enjoy being raped.” Whereas the male section equivalent items were phrased exactly the same, however the female gender was replaced with a male gender. For example, “Men who wear revealing or provocative clothing are inviting rape,” “A healthy man can successfully resist a single rapist if he really tries” and “Some men enjoy being raped.” As mentioned the ordering of these sections was counterbalanced to eliminate any possible ordering effects. All items in both sections were measured on a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from one to six, with one indicating “strongly agree” and six indicating “strongly disagree.” Section Two contained forty items and similarly Section Three also contained forty items. The order of these two sections were counterbalanced to avoid possible ordering effects that may have occurred if participants were to first complete the section related to a particular gender (Breakwell et al., 2002). In total, 51.8% of the sample completed the RAQ version that had the female section presented first and the remainder of the sample completed the RAQ version that had the male section presented first. Several items within Sections Two and Three were reverse scored. This was necessary as some items would not have made sense and been unclear if they were not reverse scored. For example, the item “a raped women is usually an innocent victim” is a reversed scored rape myth item. Clearly, this item is tapping into the myth that the victim is to blame for the rape. If this item was rephrased to something along the lines of “a raped women is usually guilty” the item becomes unclear and ambiguous. Furthermore, several items included in the RAQ were reverse scored to prevent response biases. Instead of implementing filler items, which cause the questionnaire to become unnecessarily lengthy, or implementing validity items, which tend to be obvious and transparent, reversed items were considered to be the most appropriate way to detect response sets. Although some items were reverse scored, in general, a low score on an item indicated that the participant had agreed with the item and therefore were endorsing rape myths or held attitudes that were likely to perpetuate rape within our society. At the end of both sections there was a final item included that asked each participant to rate how much the gender of the victim influenced their responses. This final item was measured on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from one to five, with one indicating “not important at all” and five indicating “extremely important”.

Section Four of the RAQ contained demographic questions and items exploring the participants’ experiences of rape. A review of the rape myth literature revealed that

there were several differences between levels of rape myth endorsement on a variety of demographic variables and previous experiences. Therefore, in light of previous research, Section Four of the RAQ contained items that assessed such variables or participants' prior experiences. In total, twenty-nine demographic items commonly used within prior research or based upon the most recent Australian Census questionnaire (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2006) were included to measure such variables. Participants were asked to indicate their gender, age, place of residence, cultural background, income bracket, education level, employment status, religion, marital status, number of dependents, sexual orientation, and exposure to sexual orientations. Furthermore, the level of depression symptomatology, suicidal thoughts and attempts, empathy towards rape victims, those accused of rape and convicted rapists, knowledge of rape victims and rapists, likelihood to report own rape, likelihood to encourage others to report rape and participant's personal experience of rape were also examined. Such variables were examined within Section Four of the RAQ in order to determine the relationship between these variables and rape myth acceptance levels and also with participant's personal experiences of rape. Questions that assessed the level of depression symptomatology and suicidal history were included because previous research examining the impact of rape has indicated that depression and suicide are highly related to sexual abuse (Bohn, 2003; Read et al., 2001; Watkins Jr., 1990). In an attempt to ensure the RAQ remained as brief as possible, a brief four-item depression screener, "The Brief Case-Find for Depression" (Monash University, 1993) was included that asked participants: "Over the past couple of weeks have you... a) been having restless or disturbed nights? b) been feeling unhappy or depressed? c) felt unable to overcome your difficulties? d) been dissatisfied with the way you've been doing things?" If participants answered "yes" to either 'a' or 'b' and "yes" to either 'c' or 'd' then they are considered to likely be experiencing depression. Although this brief tool is recommended to be used only as a screening guide, it allowed for an effective and efficient way to screen participants within the current sample for "probable depression."

In order to determine if participants had been a victim of rape, the RAQ provided a definition of rape, based upon the current legal definition of rape, and asked participants had this ever happened to them. It was necessary to provide participants with a definition of rape rather than asking participants directly if they had been raped because some people are unsure of what constitutes rape and the researchers

wanted to ensure that all participants were working from the same understanding of what rape involved (Koss, 1993; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Furthermore, some individuals tend to not see themselves as rape victims even if they are based upon the legal definition. For example, Koss (1985) found that 6% of the sample reported experiencing forced sexual acts when directly asked although when indirectly asked 37% of the sample reported experiencing forced sexual acts (cited in (Gilmartin-Zena, 1987). Furthermore, it has been found that some victims, at times over half of all women who had experienced rape within the sample, did not label themselves as rape victims (Breitenbecher & Scarce, 1999; Heppner, Humphrey et al., 1995; Kahn et al., 2003; Koss et al., 1988; Koss et al., 1987; Layman et al., 1996). Thus, the word “rape” was not included in the current definition, as it was believed that this may bias participants responding or lead to them to ignore the definition as they may make the assumption that they know the definition of rape or that it does not apply to them. Rather, the phrase “unwanted sexual activity” replaced the term rape for this segment of Section Four. The definition provided for “unwanted sexual activity” was as follows...

“Some people experience unwanted sexual activity. For the current research, unwanted sexual activity is defined as the penetration of the vagina, anus, or mouth by an object or any part of the attacker’s body, without the consent of the victim. Unwanted sexual activity involves the attacker not withdrawing their body part or object on becoming aware that the victim is not consenting or freely agreeing. Free agreement can not take place when the victim is under the age of 10, the victim is under the age of 16 AND the attacker is more than 2 years older, the victim is asleep, unconscious, alcohol or drug intoxicated, incapable of understanding the nature of the act, mistakes the identity of the attacker or the sexual act, or believes that the act is for medical or hygiene purposes. Although the victim did not verbally protest, physically resist, obtain physical injury, or on an earlier occasion freely agreed to another sexual act with the attacker or another person they are still not seen to be consenting.”

Those participants that stated “no” or “unsure” to having been a victim of “unwanted sexual activity” (rape) based upon the definition provided were directed to go to Section Five. For those participants that stated “yes” to having been a victim of

“unwanted sexual activity” (rape), they were then required to continue to complete Section Four. The following items in the remainder of the section allowed participants to provide details about their experience of “unwanted sexual activity” (rape) and the impact that it had upon them.

Lastly, Section Five was an educative section that informed the reader of the facts surrounding rape and details of support services that were available. Section Five was developed so that it outlined 15 of some of the most common rape myths then disputed those myths by providing the related rape fact. An example of such is as follows, “Myth: Women/Men often falsely report rape. Fact: The percentage of false allegations is extremely low and the percentage of false allegations is similar to those of other crimes. Individuals are more likely to not report the rape than to make false allegations of rape.” This factual information was based upon previous research and pre-existing educational campaigns and was included to ensure that participants did not believe that the researchers endorsed the items within the RAQ. A general definition of rape, based upon the current legal definition, was also provided for participants in Section Five. As the questionnaire was completed anonymously it was also essential to include a list of support agencies that participants could contact, if desired, to acquire professional and confidential assistance, support or advice. Participants were encouraged to keep or print a copy of Section Five for their own records.

The initial phase of the current research was the construction of the RAQ. When developing the RAQ, the basic standards of item writing and questionnaire construction were adhered to (Breakwell et al., 2002; Frary, 1996). A review of the rape myth literature revealed several pre-existing rape myth questionnaires. The items contained in the RAQ were selected from a large item pool based upon pre-existing and, subsequently, modified and newly created rape myth items. Several pre-established rape myth questionnaires were examined, however as there is a vast amount of overlap in the rape myth acceptance literature only those measures that appeared to contain original items and that were reasonably psychometrically sound and credible were included in the item pool. Such questionnaires included; “Attitudes Toward Rape Scale” (Feild, 1978), “Rape Myth Acceptance Scale” (Burt, 1980), “Attribution of Rape Blame Scale” (P.A Resick & Jackson, 1981), “Rape Belief Scale”(Bunting & Reeves, 1983), “Acceptance of Rape Myth Scale” (Gilmartin-Zena,

1987, 1988), "Attitudes Toward Rape Victims Scale" (Ward, 1988), "General Attitudes Toward Rape" (Larsen & Long, 1988), "Rape Attitude and Perception Questionnaire" (Holcomb et al., 1991), a date rape measure (P. J. Harrison et al., 1991), a measure assessing myths regarding male victims (Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992), "Texas Rape Scale" (Young & Thiessen, 1992), a rape myth national survey (Easteal, 1992), an adolescent rape myth acceptance measure (Kershner, 1996), "College Date Rape Attitude and Behaviour Survey" (Lanier & Elliott, 1997), an untitled rape myth acceptance measure (Johnson et al., 1997), "Male Rape Myth Scale" (Kerr Melanson, 1998), "Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale" (Payne et al., 1999) and "Korean Rape Myth Acceptance Scale" (Oh & Neville, 2004). These questionnaires are reviewed in greater detail in the chapter titled "Rape Myth Acceptance Measures."

Initially, all items of the pre-existing rape myth questionnaires were pooled together and screened by the research team. Items were eliminated if they were considered to be repetitive, outdated or measuring another construct, such as attitudes towards women or relationships. The questionnaire items were then separated into two categories, generic rape myths and gender specific rape myths. Items were categorised as generic rape myths if it was not possible or comprehensible to create a male and female version of the item. These items, if considered important to examine were included in Section One of the RAQ. However, if both item versions were feasible then the item was categorised as a gender specific item. The reduced item pool was then again screened by the research team in order to determine if there were items that were required to be discarded or altered. Items were altered in order to become clearer, more relevant, generic and not culturally specific, address same-sex rape myths, allow gender specific versions and not contain outdated or colloquial terms. New items were created to assess rape myths that appeared to be neglected or poorly addressed by previous questionnaires. Such item creations were conducted and based upon the rape myth literature, previous findings, previous research limitations and the current research questions.

The pre-existing, modified and additional rape myth items were then re-checked to ensure they had been correctly sorted into the two categories, either generic or gender specific. In total there were twenty-six items that were classified into the generic rape myth category (Section One) and forty items that were classified into the

gender specific rape myth category. Each gender specific item was written as a male version and a female version (either Section Two or Three), thus creating a total of eighty gender specific rape myth items. Once the rape myth items were established and finalised the demographic questions were added to the RAQ in order to assess the current research questions. The final section of the RAQ was included to educate participants of the facts surrounding rape and to provide the contact details of support services that were available. Once the construction of the RAQ was finalised, two versions of the questionnaire were created, an online version and a paper version. The online and paper versions were identical, however the RAQ instructions varied slightly so that they applied to the medium used to complete the questionnaire. For example, the paper version instructed participants to circle the response that applied to them whereas the online version instructed participants to select the response that applied to them.

Procedure

An attempt was made to recruit participants from a variety of demographic backgrounds to ensure that the sample was representative of the general population. This was accomplished by advertising across a variety of mediums for several months. In particular, participants were actively recruited via radio advertisements and interviews, newspaper articles, interviews and advertisements, Internet and website advertisements, newsletters, flyers, bookmarks and advertisements within organisations and public areas across Australia (see Appendix B). Due to the nature of the research topic, several organisations interested in the area of sexual assault and related research also assisted with the recruitment of participants by advertising flyers or informing consumers of the research.

Participants were invited to read the plain language statement (see Appendix C) and then if they agreed to a set of conditions they could then complete the RAQ either online or request a paper version of the RAQ be sent to them for completion. Participants were required to agree to a set of conditions as a way of indicating that they consented to participate in the research. As the research was of a sensitive nature, it was necessary to also ensure that participants were able to acknowledge that they were aware of their rights and the potential risks involved in participating in the research. Furthermore, due to the sensitive nature of the research topic participants were required to be aged over 18 years in order to be able to consent to

participate in the study. A formal consent form could not be implemented in the current research as it was essential that participants remain anonymous in an attempt to increase their honesty and tendency to participate in the research (Koss, 1993). In summary, once participants consented to participating in the research and had completed the RAQ they then anonymously submitted the questionnaire either online (95.5% of the sample) or via postage paid post (4.5% of the sample). Results were then entered into a database and statistically analysed.

CHAPTER 6. RESULTS

Data was analysed using SPSS 13.00 for Microsoft Windows. Statistical analyses were only conducted once the assumptions of each analysis were satisfied. The Results chapter consists of three main sections. The first section documents the current findings regarding the incidence of rape, the profile of rape and the adverse affects of rape. The second section describes the statistical properties of the "Rape Attitudinal Questionnaire" (RAQ). The final section outlines and compares the rape myth endorsement levels as measured by the RAQ.

Section 1. Rape

The following section examines the reported incidence of rape within the current sample, provides details of the rape and compares the raped and non-raped sample across a range of demographic variables. In addition, the differences between male and female rape victims are statistically analysed. This section concludes by reporting the level of trauma the rape had upon the victim and also focuses on symptoms of depression, suicidal ideation and suicide attempts. Comparisons are

then made between rape victims who reported experiencing symptoms of depression, suicidal ideation and suicide attempts and those victims who did not.

The incidence and characteristics of rape.

Of the 560 participants in the current sample, 221 (39.46%) reported that, based upon the definition of rape provided, they had been a victim of rape. Thus, almost two out of every five participants reported that they had been raped during their lifetime. A minority of respondents (6.25%, $n = 35$) reported that, based upon the definition of rape provided, they were unsure if they had been a victim of rape. Approximately half of the current sample (53.57%, $n = 300$) reported that, based upon the definition of rape provided, they had not been a victim of rape. In terms of knowledge about the rape behaviours or experiences of others, some 25% ($n = 138$) of the sample reported personally knowing someone who had raped someone other than themselves, and almost 75% ($n = 419$) of the sample reported personally knowing someone who had been a victim of rape.

Participants who stated that they were unsure about being a victim of rape were excluded from further analysis relating to rape victimisation. All 221 participants who reported being a victim of rape provided details about their rape experience. In terms of occurrence, only a minority of respondents (34.84%, $n = 77$) reported that they had been raped once. In contrast, the majority of respondents (64.71%, $n = 143$), reported having been raped on more than one occasion, and for a relative high percentage of these victims (25%, $n=56$), had been raped on more than 10 occasions. With respect to the multiple rape victims, 44.44% ($n = 64$) reported that the same perpetrator had raped them more than once. Approximately half ($n = 116$) of the raped sample reported that they were raped by one person; some 42.53% ($n = 94$) of the raped sample reported being raped by more than one person during their lifetime. In terms of context, 21.27% ($n = 47$) of the raped sample reported that there were other people involved with the rape who intentionally coerced, set them up, lied to them, tricked them, abandoned them, or allowed the rape to occur.

Participants who reported being a victim of rape estimated the age of the perpetrator to be between 8 and 81 years ($M = 28.79$, $SD = 13.28$) at the time of the rape, or when they were first raped. In terms of their age when first raped, participants reported a mean age of 14.49 years ($SD = 8.95$) with a range of 41 years (i.e., 3

months and 41). A paired samples t-test revealed that rape victims were significantly younger than their perpetrators, $t(210) = 12.98, p < .01, d = 4.30$. Participants who had been raped more than once reported that they were aged between 5 and 69 years ($M = 19.99, SD = 10.14$) when they were last raped. A paired samples t-test revealed that there was a significant difference between victims' age when they were first raped and victims' age when they were last raped, $t(136) = 10.36, p < .01, d = 3.86$. Given the magnitude of the effect sizes, both of these significant differences are considered to be large (Cohen, 1988).

Participants who had been a victim of rape were also asked to describe their relationship with the perpetrator. As can be seen in Figure 3, although a variety of relationships between the victim and perpetrator were reported, the majority of raped participants reported being raped by somebody known to them (e.g., a relative or trusted figure). Indeed, only 20% ($n = 45$) of the raped sample reported being raped by a stranger. As participants may have been raped on more than one occasion or by more than one person, participants were able to report more than one relationship.

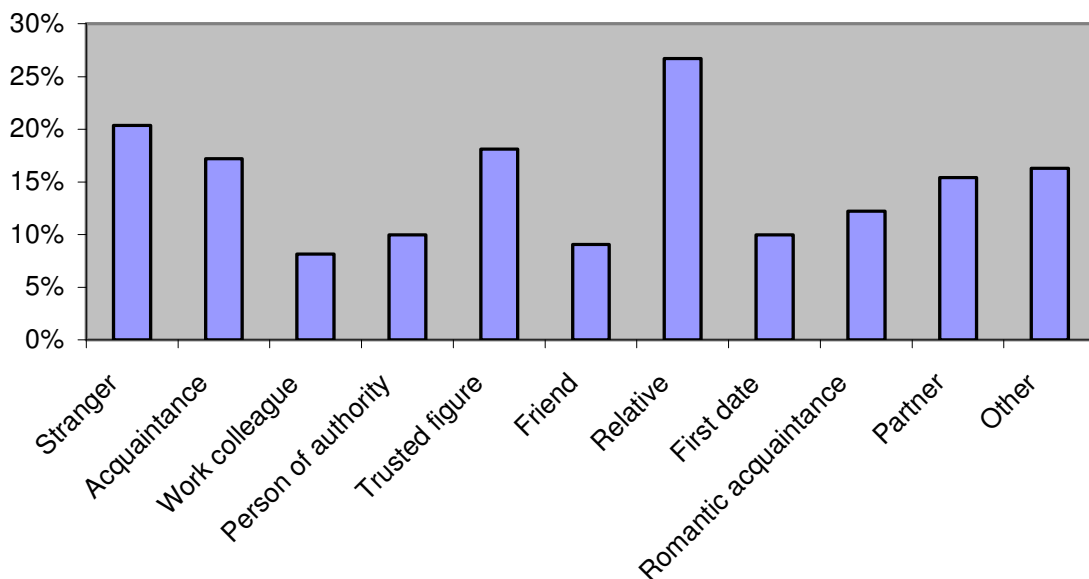


Figure 3. Relationship between rape victim and perpetrator.

Raped participants also outlined some of the reasons why they believed the rape occurred. These reasons are summarised in Figure 4. Participants were able to select more than one reason as to why they believed the rape occurred.

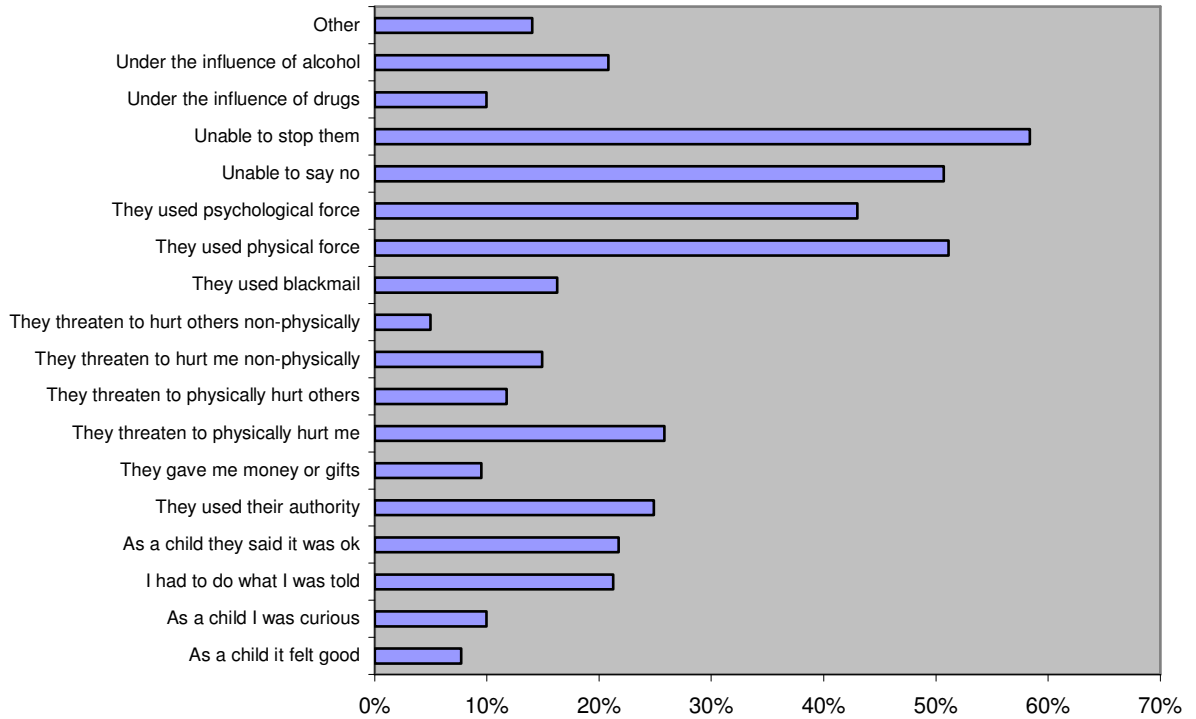


Figure 4. Proposed reasons why the rape occurred.

As can be seen in Figure 4, those participants who reported being a victim of rape identified a variety of reasons as to why the rape occurred. The reasons most frequently cited by victims were: the inability to stop the perpetrator; the use of physical force by the perpetrator; the victim was unable to say no, possibly because they were embarrassed, scared, numb, or frozen; and the use of psychological force by the perpetrator.

Participants who had been a victim of rape were asked to describe their alcohol and drug use at the time of the rape and to estimate the perpetrator's alcohol and drug use at the time of the rape. In terms of alcohol or drug induced vulnerability, alcohol was cited by 9.96% ($n = 22$) of the raped sample as one possible reason why the rape occurred and the influence of illicit substances was cited by 20.82% ($n = 46$) of the sample.

Table 1 shows the 'estimated' alcohol and drug intoxication levels of the rape victim, and the rape perpetrator, at the time of the rape. It is important to note that the figures presented in Table 1 are estimates made by respondents who identified themselves as being a victim of rape. Furthermore, based upon the current questionnaire, it is not possible to determine how the participant became drunk or under the influence of drugs.

Table 1
Alcohol and drug intoxication for rape victim and perpetrator

	Extremely intoxicated		Somewhat intoxicated		Slightly intoxicated		Unsure		No	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Alcohol										
Victim	26	11.77	16	7.24	19	8.60	0	0	154	69.68
Perpetrator	7	3.17	30	13.58	24	10.86	25	11.31	136	61.54
Drugs										
Victim	9	4.07	7	3.17	3	1.36	10	4.53	188	85.08
Perpetrator	3	1.36	11	4.98	6	2.72	51	23.08	149	67.42

Examination of the percentages in Table 1 suggests that the rape victim or perpetrator consume alcohol more often at the time of the rape in comparison to

other drugs. Further, rape victims appear to be less often under the influence of alcohol or drugs in comparison to rape perpetrators. A chi-square statistic could not be calculated for these comparisons due to more than 20% of the cells containing an expected count less than five, even when categories were combined. It is important to note that the majority of raped participants reported that they were not under the influence of alcohol or drugs when the rape occurred and also believed that the perpetrator was not under the influence of alcohol or drugs when the rape occurred. However, when drugs or alcohol were involved at the time of the rape, more victims than perpetrators were found to be “extremely intoxicated.”

In summary, almost 40% of participants reported that, based upon the definition provided, they had been a victim of rape. The majority (67%) of the raped participants reported that they had been raped on more than one occasion or by more than one person. Rape victims were found to be significantly younger than their perpetrators with the majority of raped participants reported being raped by somebody known to them. Victim’s perceptions about why the rape occurred appeared to be predominantly related to the victims’ inability to stop the perpetrator or the use of some type of force by the perpetrator. Furthermore, drugs or alcohol were reported to be involved in less than half of the rapes described by the current raped sample.

Profile of the rape victim.

Those participants who reported being a victim of rape derived from a variety of demographic backgrounds. A range of ages, places of residence, cultural backgrounds, educational achievements, employment status, gross incomes, marital status, sexual orientations, acceptance of sexual orientation and religious beliefs were represented. The demographic profile of the raped sample and a comparison with the non-raped sample is provided below.

An independent samples t-test revealed that raped participants were significantly older than non-raped participants, $t(449) = 3.38, p < .01, d = 1.05$. That is raped participants were aged between 18 to 69 years ($M = 34.44, SD = 10.06$) and non-raped participants were aged between 18 to 64 years ($M = 31.10, SD = 10.31$). Based upon the effect size, these significant differences were considered to be large (Cohen, 1988).

Similar residential distributions were found for the raped and non-raped samples, with all states and territories with Australia represented. Participants within the raped and non-raped samples were predominantly living and born within Australia. Only 17.20% ($n = 38$) of the raped sample and 16.12% ($n = 54$) of the non-raped sample stated that they were born outside Australia. A total of 4.53% ($n = 10$) of the raped sample stated that they were currently living outside Australia in comparison to 5.97% ($n = 20$) of the non-raped sample.

A variety of cultural backgrounds were represented amongst both the raped and non-raped sample. However, only approximately one third of the raped sample ($n = 142$) and the non-raped sample ($n = 232$) specified the cultural background with which they identified. Of these respondents, the majority specified that they derived from an Australasian background, in that 67.09% ($n = 46$) of the raped sample and 59.22% ($n = 61$) of the non-raped sample indicated that they were Australian. Furthermore, 13.92% ($n = 11$) of the raped sample and 17.48% ($n = 18$) of the non-raped sample stated that they were partly Australian. In sum, 27.85% ($n = 22$) of the raped sample and 20.39% ($n = 21$) of the non-raped sample derived from an European background, 2.53% ($n = 2$) of the raped sample and 4.85% ($n = 5$) of the non-raped sample derived from an Asian background, no-one from the raped sample and 2.91% ($n = 3$) of the non-raped sample derived from a Middle Eastern background, 1.27% ($n = 1$) of the raped sample and 1.94% ($n = 2$) of the non-raped sample derived from an American background, and no-one from the raped sample and 1.94% ($n = 2$) of the non-raped sample derived from an African background.

Educational, occupational, and income distributions were compared between the raped and non-raped samples and are described below. Due to the many demographic categories containing limited numbers, chi-square statistics were unable to be calculated to statistically compare the raped and non-raped samples. In regards to education, a similar distribution was found between the raped and non-raped sample with a variety of educational achievements represented amongst both samples. Figure 5 displays the educational achievements for the raped and non-raped sample.

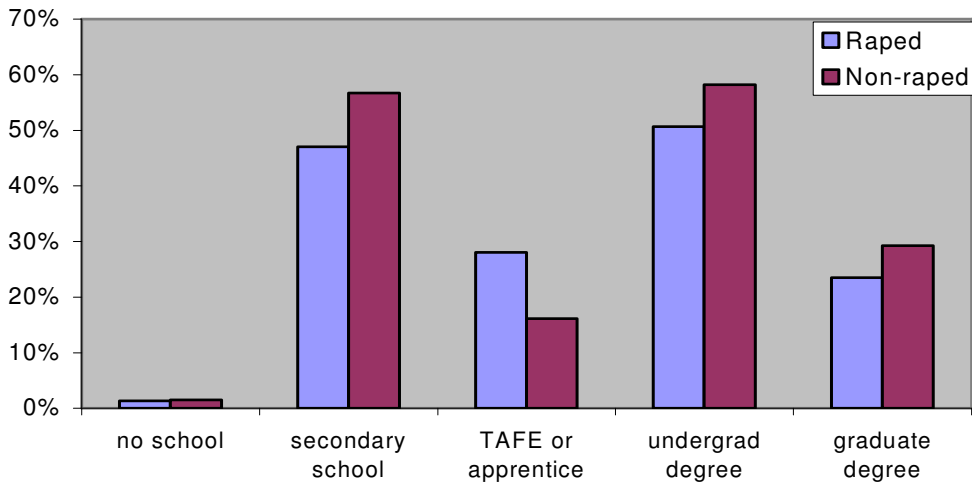


Figure 5. Education qualifications of the raped and non-raped sample.

As can be seen in Figure 5, the non-raped sample appears to have attained higher educational achievements in comparison to the raped sample, however more participants within the raped sample have completed a TAFE course, trade certificate, apprenticeship, or equivalent. Several minor differences between the raped and non-raped samples were found for employment status. These differences are shown in Figure 6.

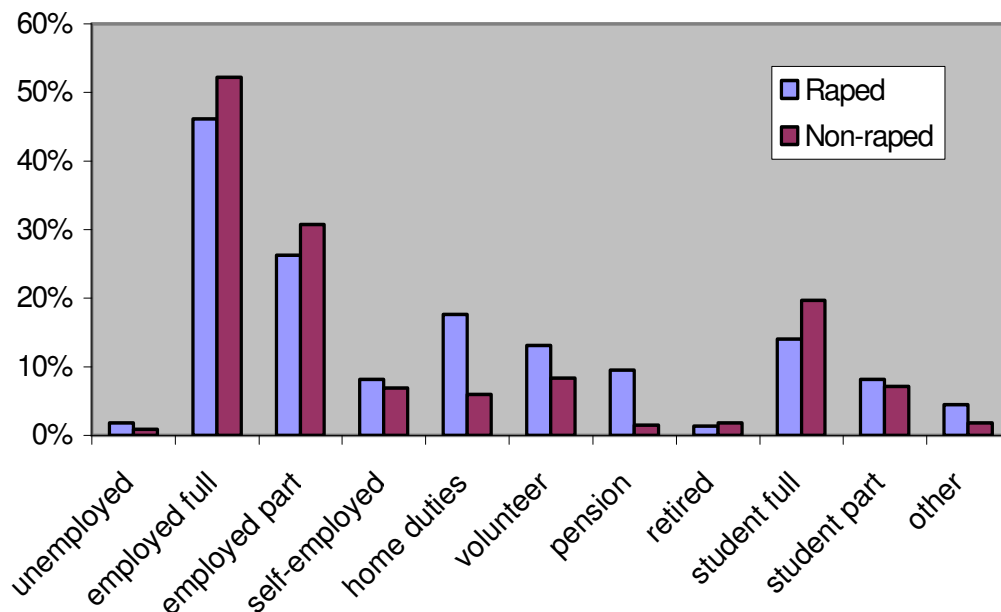


Figure 6. Employment status of the raped and non-raped sample.

As can be seen in Figure 6, a higher proportion of the non-raped sample reported being involved in paid work in comparison to the raped sample. Furthermore, the proportion of participants that reported receiving a pension, including a disability or sickness pension and that reported “home duties” as their occupation was higher for the raped sample than for the non-raped sample.

In regards to personal gross income, a similar ‘normal’ distribution was found for the raped and non-raped samples. Figure 7 displays the personal gross income levels for the raped and non-raped samples.

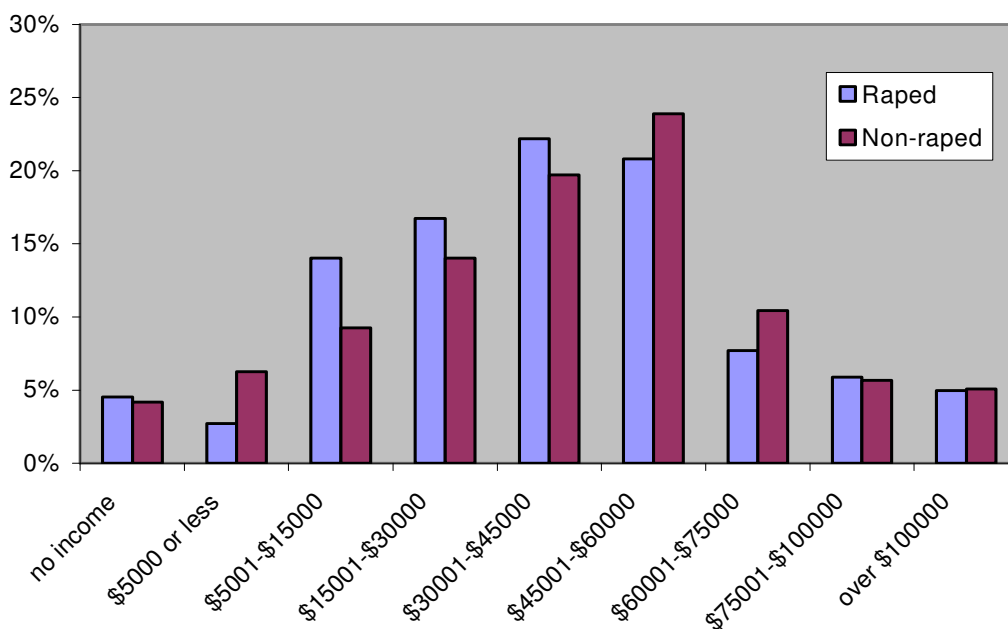


Figure 7. Gross income of the raped and non-raped sample.

As can be seen in Figure 7, although the distribution of personal gross income appears to follow a ‘normal’ distribution for both the raped and non-raped samples, the non-raped sample appears to earn slightly more money than the raped sample. In particular, 54.93% ($n = 184$) of the non-raped sample earned up to \$45,000 in comparison to 60.63% ($n = 134$) of the raped sample. That is, more participants from the raped sample belonged to a low socioeconomic background in comparison to participants from the non-raped sample.

Marital status, parental status, and sexual orientation distributions were also compared between the raped and non-raped sample. The raped sample displayed a marital status distribution that was markedly different to the non-raped sample. Figure 8 displays the raped sample and the non-raped sample marital status distribution.

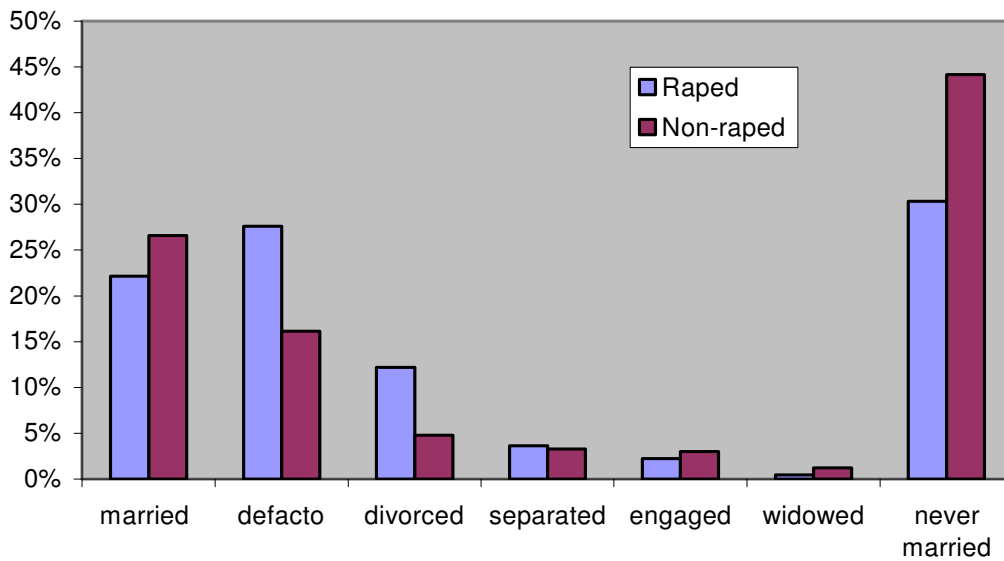


Figure 8. Marital status of the raped and non-raped sample.

As can be seen in Figure 8, a significantly smaller proportion of the raped sample in comparison to the non-raped sample reported that they had never been married. In contrast, a significantly higher proportion of the raped sample in comparison to the non-raped sample stated that they were in a defacto relationship or had been divorced. A chi-square analysis revealed that this was a significant difference, $\chi^2 (6, N = 550) = 26.81, p < .01, V = 0.22$. Furthermore, a larger proportion of the raped sample in comparison to the non-raped sample reported having children, 38.91% ($n = 86$) and 24.78% ($n = 83$), respectively. A 2x2 chi-square analysis revealed that this was a significant difference, $\chi^2 (1, N = 543) = 13.54, p < .01, Phi = 0.16$. As this chi-square analysis involved a 2x2 model, Phi was used as the effect size rather than Cramer's V (Field, 2002).

The sexual orientation of the general sample and the raped sample was also examined (see Figure 9).

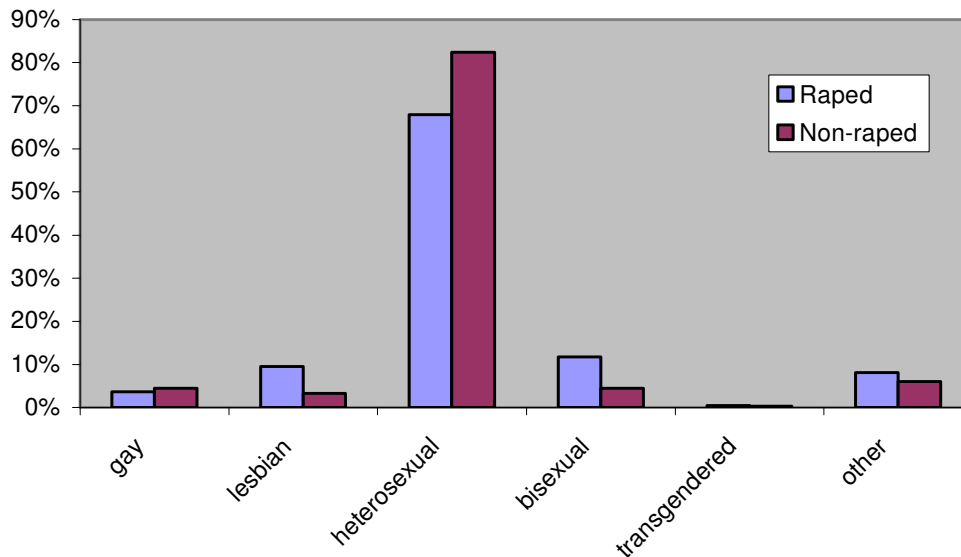


Figure 9. Sexual orientation of the raped and non-raped sample.

As shown in Figure 9, the raped sample, in comparison to the non-raped sample, included a higher percentage of participants who self-identified as lesbian or bisexual and a lower percentage of participants who self-identified as heterosexual. However, due to the number of sexual orientation categories containing limited numbers, a chi-square analysis could not be calculated to meaningfully compare the raped and non-raped samples in regards to their sexual orientation.

Participants also reported how many people were aware of their sexual orientation. Although there were sexual orientation differences noted between the raped sample and the non-raped sample, a fairly similar distribution was found for both samples in regards to the number of people that were aware of participants' sexual orientation, $\chi^2(4, N = 550) = 5.11, p = .23, V = 0.10$. In particular, 60.18% ($n = 133$) of the raped sample, in comparison to 67.46% ($n = 226$) of the non-raped sample, stated that their sexual orientation was widely known by others. In addition, the amount of contact participants had with a gay or lesbian person did not appear to differ between the raped and non-raped samples, $\chi^2(7, N = 549) = 9.12, p = .24, V = 0.13$. That is, 36.65% ($n = 81$) of the raped sample and 28.06% ($n = 94$) of the non-raped sample,

stated that they have daily contact with a gay or lesbian person. Furthermore, the raped sample appeared to be more accepting of gay and lesbian people in comparison to the non-raped sample, with 76.02% ($n = 168$) of the raped sample and 64.18% ($n = 215$) reporting that they were “totally accepting” of gay and lesbian people. Due to the limited number of responses within some sexual orientation categories, it was not appropriate to calculate a chi-square statistic

A variety of religious backgrounds were identified by the raped sample and a similar distribution was observed between the raped sample and the non-raped sample in terms of religion importance, $\chi^2 (4, N = 552) = 1.86, p = .76, V = 0.06$. In particular, 47.96% ($n = 106$) of the raped sample and 48.96% ($n = 164$) of the non-raped sample stated that religion was “not at all important” to them. Similarly, 58.82% ($n = 130$) of the raped sample and 54.63% ($n = 183$) of the non-raped sample indicated that they had “no religion.” A 2x2 chi-square analysis revealed that this was not a significant difference, $\chi^2 (1, N = 556) = 9.53, p = .33, Phi = 0.04$.

In comparison to 57.91% ($n = 194$) of the non-raped sample, 95.02% ($n = 210$) of the raped sample reported knowing someone who had been a victim of rape, which was a significant difference, $\chi^2 (1, N = 556) = 92.33, p < .01, V = 0.41$. Further, in comparison to 17.02% ($n = 57$) of the non-raped sample, 36.65% ($n = 81$) of the raped sample reported knowing someone who had raped someone other than themselves, which was a significant difference $\chi^2 (1, N = 555) = 27.88, p < .01, V = 0.22$. In particular, 95% ($n = 190$) of the female raped sample and 94.74% ($n = 18$) of the male raped sample reported personally knowing someone who had been a victim of rape. Furthermore, 35.5% ($n = 71$) of the female raped sample and 42.11% ($n = 8$) of the male raped sample reported personally knowing someone who had raped someone other than themselves.

In sum, there appeared to be several differences between the raped and the non-raped sample. In particular, non-raped participants, in comparison to raped participants, were significantly younger, had a higher education, were more likely to be formally employed, had a higher gross income, had never been married, were not in a defacto relationship, had no children, self-identified as heterosexual and were less likely to know people who had been raped. However, demographic variables

such as place of residence, religion, and religious importance did not appear to differ between the raped and non-raped sample.

Comparison between male and female victims of rape.

Of the 221 participants who reported that at some stage during their lifetime they had been a victim of rape, 90.50% ($n = 200$) were female and 8.60% ($n = 19$) were male. In 'overall' sample terms, 16.52% of male respondents and 45.46% of female respondents reported having been raped. Accordingly, the scope of statistical comparisons between male and female rape victims is restricted by the relative lack of power.

Rape characteristics of male and female victims of rape.

Approximately half (52.63%, $n = 10$) of the male raped sample reported that they had been raped on one occasion, and 26.31% ($n = 5$) reported that they had experienced multiple rape victimisation in the order of ten or more occasions. In comparison, one third (33.50%, $n = 67$) of the female raped sample stated that they had been raped on one occasion. Identical to male, multiple rape victims, 26% ($n=51$) of female rape victims reported repeated victimisation in the order of 10 or more occasions. In terms of the sample of multiple rape victims, 43.85% ($n = 57$) of female respondents and 50.00% ($n = 5$) of male respondents stated that they had been revictimised by the same perpetrator. A similar proportion of both samples, 57.50% ($n = 115$) of the female raped sample and 57.90% ($n = 11$) of the male raped sample, stated that they were raped by one person. Although, respondents in the female raped sample reported being raped by more perpetrators ($M = 2.19$, $SD = 2.41$) than respondents in the male raped sample ($M = 1.74$, $SD = 1.10$), an independent samples t-test revealed that this was not a significant difference, $t(203) = 0.816$, $p = .42$, $d = 0.30$. Furthermore, 19.50% ($n = 39$) of the female raped sample and 31.58% ($n = 6$) of the male raped sample stated that there were other people involved with the rape that intentionally coerced, set them up, lied to them, tricked them, abandoned them, or allowed the rape to occur.

In regards to the estimated age of the perpetrator at the time of the rape, or when participants were first raped, male raped participants reported a smaller age range of the perpetrator, 14 to 40 years ($M = 28.79$, $SD = 13.28$), in comparison to female raped participants, 8 to 81 years ($M = 28.79$, $SD = 13.28$). However, an independent

samples t-test revealed that this was not a significant age difference, $t(205) = 0.48$, $p = .63$, $d = 0.43$. Furthermore, there was no significant difference between participants' age at the time of the rape, or when they were first raped for the female raped sample ($M = 14.06$, $SD = 8.88$) and for the male raped sample ($M = 16.79$, $SD = 8.65$), $t(212) = 1.28$, $p = .20$, $d = 0.92$. For those participants who had been raped more than once, there was no significant difference between participants' mean age at the last rape they experienced for the female raped sample ($M = 19.59$, $SD = 9.36$) and the male raped sample ($M = 21.40$, $SD = 17.35$), $t(132) = 0.55$, $p = .59$, $d = 0.58$.

A comparison of the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator between the male and the female raped sample is shown in Figure 10. As participants may have been raped on more than one occasion or by more than one person, participants were able to report more than one relationship.

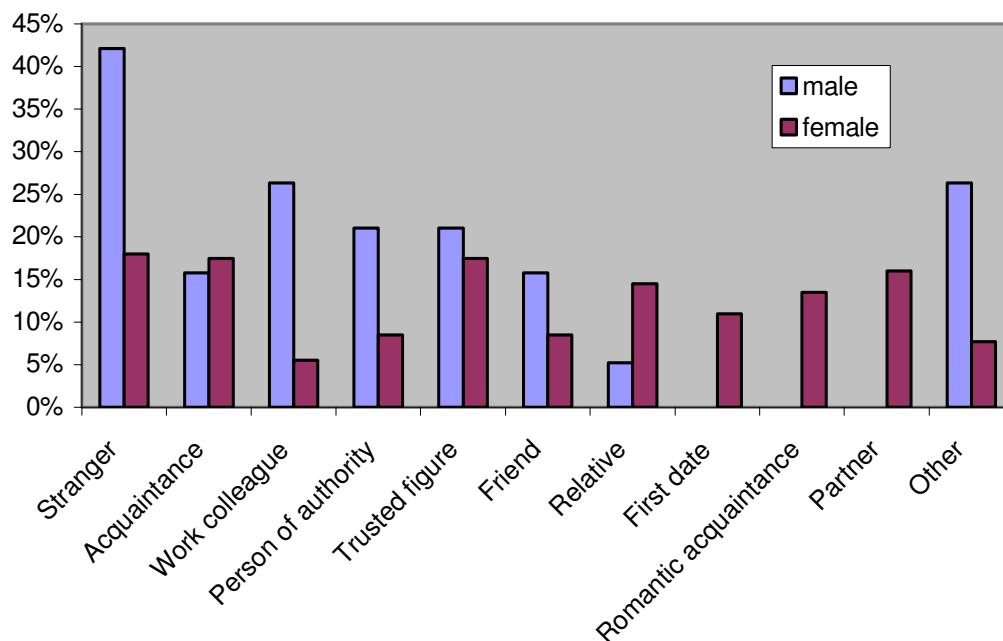


Figure 10. Gender comparison of the relationship between rape victim and perpetrator.

As is evident from inspection of Figure 10, male and female rape victims within the current sample reported different types of relationships with their perpetrator/s. In comparison to female rape victims, male rape victims were 2.3 times more likely to be raped by a stranger or a person of authority, 4.3 times more likely to be raped by a work colleague and 1.7 times more likely to be raped by a friend. Furthermore, in

comparison to male rape victims, female rape victims were 3 times more likely to be raped by a relative. Only female rape victims reported being raped by a romantic acquaintance, first date or partner.

A comparison of the possible reasons why participants believed the rape occurred between the male and female raped samples are summarised in Figure 11. Participants were able to select more than one reason as to why they believe the rape occurred.

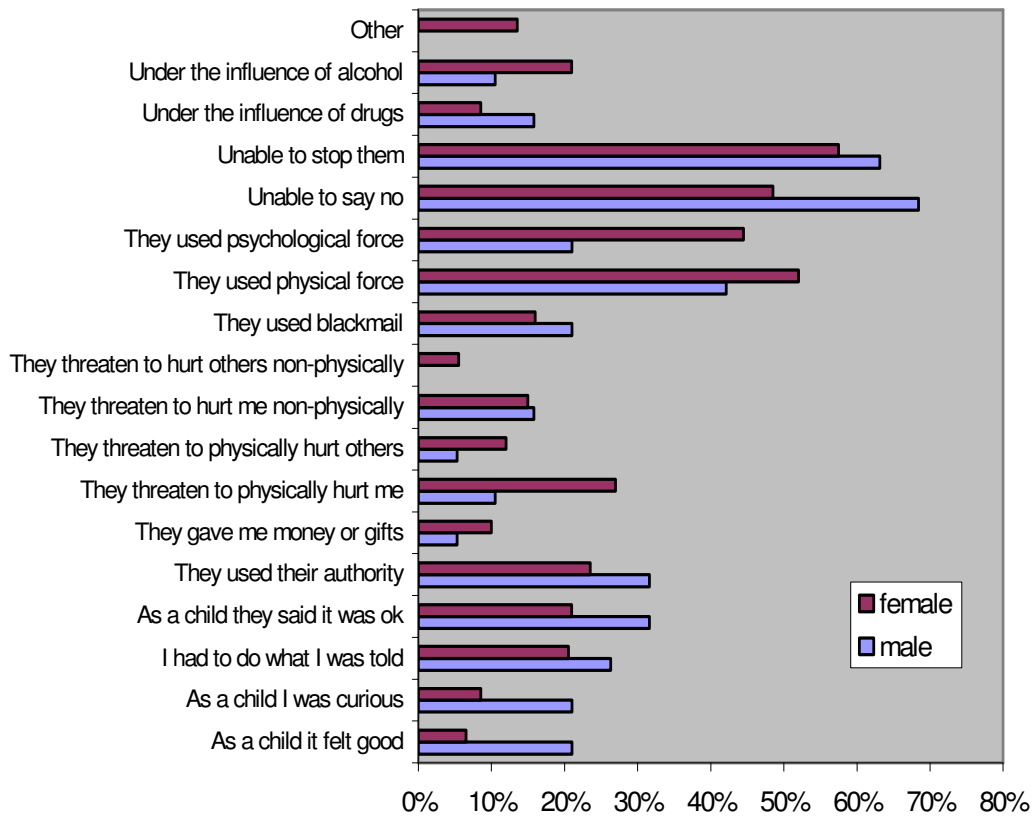


Figure 11. Gender comparison of the proposed reasons why the rape occurred.

As can be seen in Figure 11, the most frequently cited reason as to why the rape occurred according to male victims were that they were unable to say no or unable to stop the perpetrator. Whereas the most frequently cited reason as to why the rape occurred according to female victims were the inability to stop the perpetrator or that the perpetrator used physical force. Furthermore, in comparison to male victims of rape, female victims of rape were approximately twice as likely to report that the rape occurred because they were under the influence of alcohol, the perpetrator used

psychological force and that the perpetrator gave them money or gifts and approximately 2.5 times more likely to report that the rape occurred because the perpetrator threatened to physically hurt the victim and the perpetrator threatened physically hurt others. However, male victims of rape were 1.5 to 3 times more likely than female victims to cite reasons that the rape occurred due to them being a child and were approximately twice as likely to report that the rape occurred because they were under the influence of drugs.

Several differences emerged between male and female victims of rape in regards to their alcohol and drug use at the time of the rape. Male victims were more likely to believe that the rape occurred because they were under the influence of drugs in comparison to female victims of rape. In contrast to male victims, female rape victims were more likely to believe the rape occurred because they were under the influence of alcohol at the time of the rape. Table 2 compares the alcohol and drug intoxication levels of the rape victims and the perpetrator at the time of the rape according to both male and female rape victims. It is important to note that these figures are estimates according to participant's who reported being a victim of rape.

Table 2

Gender comparison of alcohol and drug intoxication for victims and perpetrators

	Extremely intoxicated	Somewhat intoxicated	Slightly intoxicated	Unsure	No
Alcohol					
Victim	12.00% (10.53%)	6.00% (21.05%)	9.00% (0.00%)	0.00% (0.00%)	69.50% (57.90%)
Perpetrator	3.00% (0.00%)	15.00% (0.00%)	10.00% (15.79%)	11.50% (10.53%)	59.50% (68.42%)
Drugs					
Victim	3.00% (15.79%)	3.50% (0.00%)	1.50% (0.00%)	4.50% (0.00%)	85.00% (78.95%)
Perpetrator	1.50% (0.00%)	5.50% (0.00%)	2.50% (5.26%)	24.00% (15.79%)	65.00% (73.68%)

Note: Female victims' estimations are reported first followed by male victims' in brackets. Several cells contained a count less than five, even when merged, so a chi-square analysis was not conducted.

As shown in Table 2, the perpetrator was more often believed to be under the influence of alcohol rather than drugs. This was also evident for male and female rape victims. According to both male and female rape victims, the perpetrator was more often under the influence of drugs at the time of the rape in comparison to the victim. Male victims of rape reported that at the time of the rape the perpetrator was more often under the influence of alcohol than were they. However, female victims of rape reported that at the time of the rape they were more often under the influence of alcohol than the perpetrator. In comparison to female rape victims, male victims of rape reported more often being under the influence of alcohol and drugs at the time of the rape. Unlike male rape victims, a proportion of the raped female sample reported that they were unsure if they were under the influence of drugs at the time of rape. Male victims of rape reported that their perpetrators were not “extremely” or “somewhat” intoxicated on either drugs or alcohol at the time of the rape. In contrast, a small proportion of the female raped sample believed that their perpetrators were “extremely” or “somewhat” intoxicated. It also appeared that perpetrators of rape against female victims were more likely to be under the influence of drugs or alcohol in comparison to perpetrators of rape against male victims.

In sum, results suggest that in comparison to males, females were more likely to be raped on more than one occasion. However, in comparison to the rape of females, the rape of males appeared to be more likely to have involved other people that were indirectly involved in the rape. There did not appear to be a significant gender difference between the number of perpetrators involved. On average, both male and female rape victims within the current sample tended to be younger than their perpetrators. There were also differences noted between male and female victims of rape in regards to the relationship between the victim and perpetrator and also for the proposed reasons as to why the rape occurred.

Impact of rape.

The following section examines the impact of rape upon rape victims within the current sample. Given the known negative sequelae of sexual assault, specific focus is directed towards the occurrence of symptoms of depression, suicidal ideation, and suicide attempts amongst rape victims.

Participants who had been a victim of rape indicated how traumatic they found the rape. Of the raped sample, only 5.88% ($n = 13$) reported that the rape was “not traumatic,” with the remainder of the raped sample indicating that they experienced some level of trauma at the time of the rape. Participants who had been a victim of rape also indicated the level of trauma they have experienced since the rape. Of the raped sample, 11.31% ($n = 25$) stated that they have experienced “no trauma,” with the remainder of the raped sample indicating that they have experienced some level of trauma since the time of the rape. Findings for the level of trauma experienced by rape victims are summarised in Figure 12.

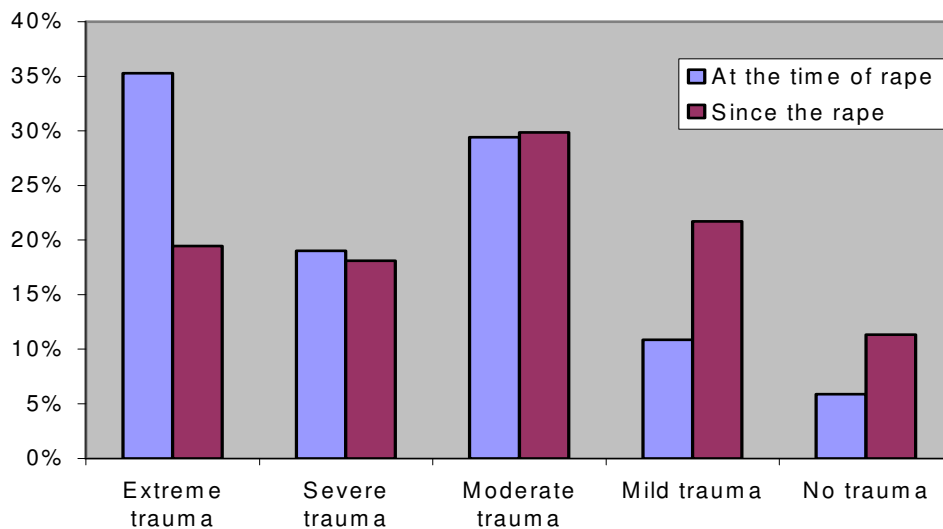


Figure 12. Level of trauma experienced for entire raped sample.

As can be seen in Figure 12, the majority of raped participants perceived the rape experience to be traumatic. The distribution of trauma at the time of the rape appears to be positively skewed whereas the distribution of the trauma since the rape appears to be more normally skewed. Thus, as might be expected, rape victims overall experienced relatively higher levels of traumatic symptoms at the time of the rape than in the period following their rape. A correlation between participants level of trauma at the time of rape and since the rape occurred indicated that there was a strong significant relationship between the two variables, $\rho = 0.73$, $n = 218$, $p < .01$. That is, the more trauma rape victims reported experiencing at the time of the rape, the more trauma they reported experiencing since the rape occurred. As the

distribution of the variables examined were not normal and the variables were measured on an ordinal scale, a Spearman's Rank correlation coefficient was calculated instead of a Pearson's correlation coefficient (Field, 2002; Francis, 2001).

Although there were limited number of male rape victims, a similar percentage of male and female rape victims experienced traumatic symptoms since the rape. In total, 21.05% ($n = 4$) of the male rape victim sample and 19.00% ($n = 38$) of female rape victim sample reported experiencing "extreme trauma" since the rape. A Mann-Whitney test showed no significant differences in the distribution of the level of trauma experienced since the rape and gender, $U = 1829.5$, $p = .87$. More male rape victims appeared to perceive the rape more traumatic than female rape victims, with 47.37% ($n = 9$) of the male rape victim sample stating that they believed the rape to be "extremely traumatic" in comparison to 34.00% ($n = 68$) of the female rape victim sample. However, a Mann-Whitney test showed no significant differences in the distribution of the level of trauma experienced at the time of the rape and gender, $U = 1518$, $p = .16$. As the distribution of these variables examined were not normal and the variables were measured on an ordinal scale, a Mann-Whitney test was calculated instead of an independent samples t-test (Field, 2002; Francis, 2001).

Symptoms of depression.

A total of 84.62% ($n = 187$) of the raped sample stated that they experienced at least one of the four symptoms that may be indicative of depression over the past couple of weeks. Of the raped sample who reported experiencing such symptoms, 45.46% ($n = 85$) believed that such symptoms were not related to their experience of rape. However, 20.32% ($n = 38$) of the raped sample believed that the symptoms were "somewhat related" to their experience of rape, 9.63% ($n = 18$) believed that the symptoms were "related" to their experience of rape, 9.09% ($n = 17$) believed that the symptoms were "very much related" to their experience of rape and 15.51% ($n = 29$) believed that the symptoms were "extremely related" to their experience of rape.

Participants were classified as likely to be "depressed" if they were displaying the required symptoms of depression as determined by the "Brief Case Find for Depression" (Monash University, 1993). In total, 53.85% ($n = 119$) of the raped sample were classified as depressed and 63.58% ($n = 213$) of the non-raped sample were classified as not being depressed. Although, 46.15% ($n = 102$) of the raped sample were classified as not being depressed. A 2x2 chi-square analysis revealed

that participants who reported being a victim of rape were significantly more likely than non-rape participants to be classified as depressed, $\chi^2 (1, N = 556) = 16.47, p < .01, Phi = 0.17$. At closer inspection, this finding appeared to be applicable only to the female raped sample. That is, female raped victims were significantly more likely to be classified as depressed (54.00%) in comparison to female non-victims (36.29%), $\chi^2 (1, N = 437) = 13.77, p < .01, Phi = 0.18$. However, there were no significant differences between depressed male rape victims (52.63%) and depressed male non-victims (35.79%), $\chi^2 (1, N = 114) = 1.90, p = .17, Phi = 0.13$. Although the limited number of male participants who reported being a victim of rape may have adversely impacted the power of this analysis to detect a significant result.

Comparisons of the depressed and non-depressed raped samples revealed several differences in rape characteristics. In terms of rape episodes, 69.75% ($n = 83$) of the depressed raped sample and 55.88% ($n = 57$) of the non-depressed raped sample reported multiple rape experiences. Although these data suggest that multiple rape victims may be more vulnerable to depression, the differences between the depressed and non-depressed raped samples were not significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 220) = 3.56, p = .06, V = 0.13$.

Of those participants from the raped sample who reported being raped more than once, 38.27% ($n = 31$) of the depressed raped sample stated that it was the same perpetrator in comparison to 52.54% ($n = 31$) of the non-depressed raped sample. However, this was not a significant difference $\chi^2 (1, N = 144) = 2.75, p = .10, V = 0.14$. Further analysis using an independent samples t-test, revealed that the depressed raped sample reported being raped by significantly more perpetrators ($M = 2.59, SD = 2.81$) than the non-depressed raped sample ($M = 1.63, SD = 1.38$), $t (167.48) = 3.182, p < .01, d = 0.65$. Based upon the effect size this significant difference was considered to be moderate to large. Furthermore, significantly more of the depressed raped sample, (26.89%, $n = 32$) reported that there were other people involved with the rape that intentionally coerced, set them up, lied to them, tricked them, abandoned them, or allowed the rape to occur in comparison to the non-depressed (13.73% , $n = 14$) raped sample, $\chi^2 (1, N = 222) = 5.93, p < .05, V = 0.16$.

In regards to the estimated age of the perpetrator at the time of the rape, or when participants were first raped, there was no significant difference between the depressed ($M = 27.58$, $SD = 11.73$) and non-depressed ($M = 30.03$, $SD = 14.87$) raped samples, as shown by an independent samples t-test, $t(207) = 1.33$, $p = .19$, $d = 0.67$. Furthermore, an independent samples t-test revealed that there was no significant difference between participants' age at the time of the rape, or when they were first raped for the depressed ($M = 14.46$, $SD = 8.59$) and the non-depressed ($M = 14.29$, $SD = 9.26$) raped samples, $t(214) = 0.14$, $p = .89$, $d = 0.06$. Also, for those participants that had been raped more than once, there was no significant difference between participants' age at the last rape they experienced for the depressed ($M = 20.29$, $SD = 8.82$) and the non-depressed ($M = 19.23$, $SD = 11.76$) raped samples, according to an independent samples t-test, $t(133) = 0.37$, $p = .55$, $d = 0.34$.

A comparison of the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator between the depressed and the non-depressed raped samples is shown in Figure 13. As participants may have been raped on more than one occasion or by more than one person, participants were able to report more than one relationship.

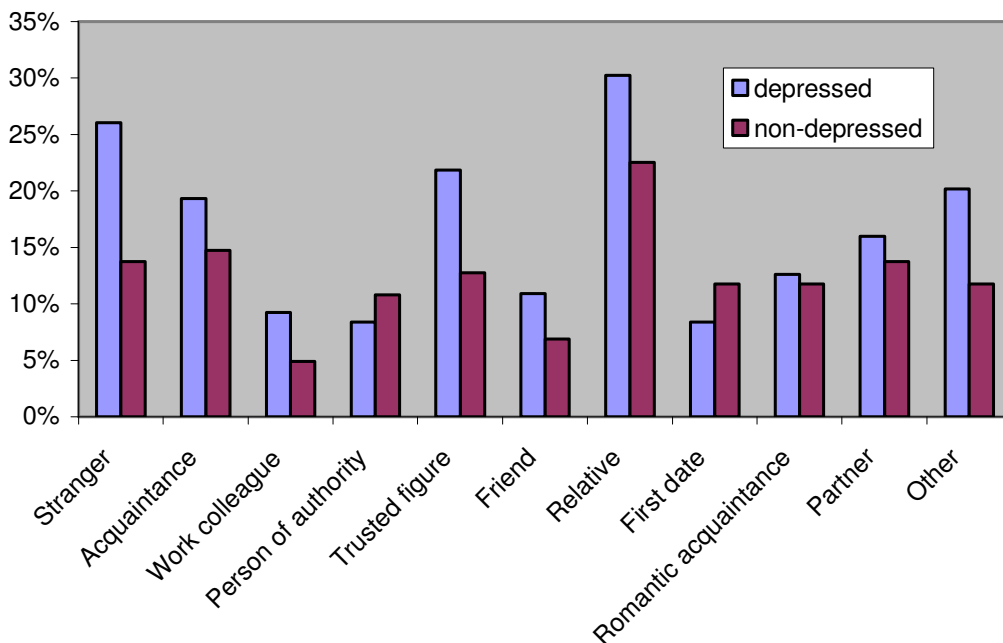


Figure 13. Depressed and non-depressed rape victim comparison of the relationship between rape victim and perpetrator.

Figure 13 displays that, in comparison to non-depressed rape victims, depressed rape victims were: 1.9 times more likely to report being raped by a stranger, 1.7 times more likely to report being raped by a trusted figure, 1.3 times more likely to report being raped by a relative, 1.6 times more likely to report being raped by a friend and 1.8 times more likely to report being raped by a work colleague. Furthermore, there did not appear to be any substantial difference between the number of depressed and non-depressed rape victims that were raped by a partner or a romantic acquaintance.

A comparison of the possible reasons why participants believed the rape occurred between the depressed and non-depressed raped samples are summarised in Figure 14. Participants were able to select more than one reason as to why they believed the rape occurred.

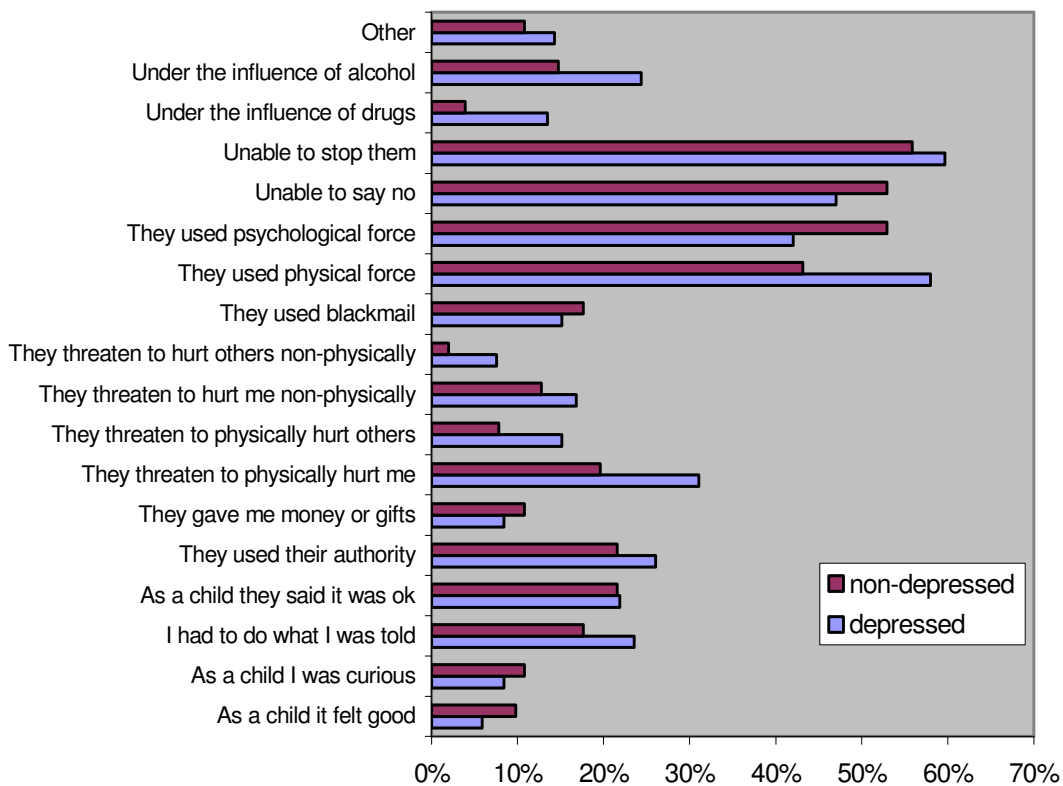


Figure 14. Depressed and non-depressed rape victim comparison of the proposed reasons why the rape occurred.

As can be seen in Figure 14, the most frequently cited reasons as to why the rape occurred according to depressed rape victims were that the victim was unable to stop the perpetrator or the perpetrator used physical force. With respect to the non-depressed victims, the most frequently cited reasons as to why the rape occurred were the inability to stop the perpetrator, unable to say no, or that the perpetrator used psychological force. In comparison to non-depressed rape victims, depressed rape victims were more likely to report that the rape occurred because: they were under the influence of alcohol (1.6 times more likely) or drugs (3.3 times more likely), the perpetrator used (1.4 times more likely) or threatened (1.6 times more likely) physical force and the perpetrator threatened to physically (1.9 times more likely) or non-physically (4 times more likely) hurt others. Furthermore, non-depressed rape victims relative to depressed rape victims were 1.7 times more likely to indicate that the rape occurred due to them being a child and it felt good and 1.3 times more likely to report that the rape occurred because the perpetrator used psychological force.

A comparison between depressed and non-depressed rape victims in regards to the level of trauma they experienced at the time of the rape and since the rape occurred are summarised in Figure 15.

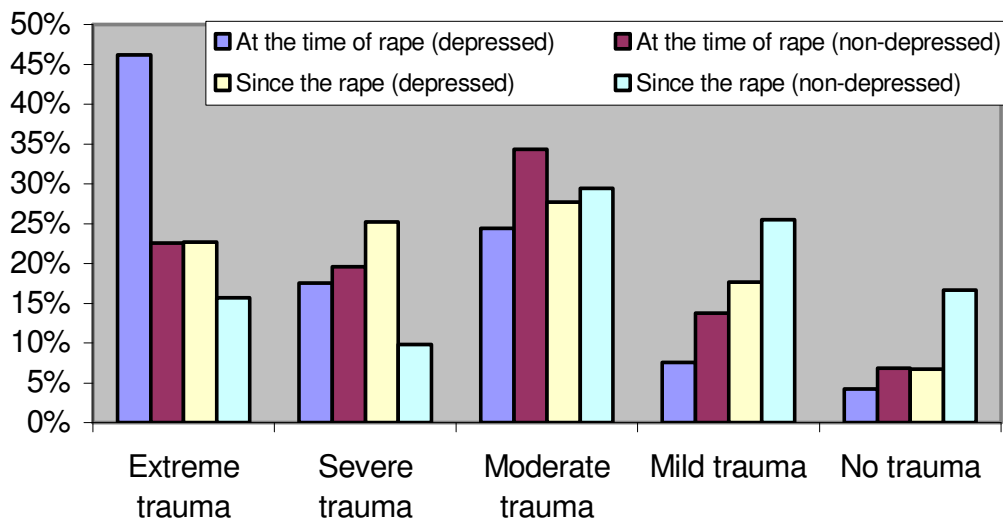


Figure 15. Depressed and non-depressed rape victim comparison of the level of trauma experienced.

As can be seen in Figure 15, the depressed rape victims perceived the experience to be significantly more traumatic than non-depressed rape victims, $\chi^2(4, N = 222) =$

13.65, $p < .01$, $V = 0.25$. Also, depressed rape victims experienced significantly more traumatic symptoms since the rape occurred in comparison to non-depressed rape victims, $\chi^2 (4, N = 222) = 14.59$, $p < .01$, $V = 0.26$. Non-depressed rape victims reported experiencing the least amount of traumatic symptoms since the rape occurred and perceived the rape to be less traumatic than depressed rape victims.

Suicide ideation and suicide attempts.

Approximately three quarters ($n = 143$) of the raped sample stated that they had experienced suicidal thoughts. Of participants in the raped sample who were classified as depressed, 76.47% ($n = 91$) stated that they had also experienced serious suicidal thoughts. Of the raped sample participants who reported experiencing such suicidal thoughts, 37.95% ($n = 63$) believed that such thoughts were not related to their experience of rape. However, 14.46% ($n = 24$) of the raped sample participants who reported suicidal thoughts believed that the symptoms were “slightly related” to their experience of rape, 12.05% ($n = 20$) believed that the thoughts were “related” to their experience of rape, 10.24% ($n = 17$) believed that the thoughts were “very much related” to their experience of rape, and 25.30% ($n = 42$) believed that the thoughts were “extremely related” to their experience of rape.

A total of 31.22% ($n = 69$) of the raped sample reported that they have had previously attempted suicide. Of the raped sample that reported previous suicide attempts, 69.57% ($n = 48$) believed that at least one suicidal attempt was related to their experience of rape. Of the raped sample that reported experiencing serious suicidal thoughts, 46.85% ($n = 67$) stated that they had also attempted suicide at least once. This overlap accounted for 97.10% of the raped sample that reported previously attempting suicide. Of the raped sample that were classified as depressed and reported experiencing serious suicidal thoughts, 50.55% ($n = 46$) had also attempted suicide at least once. Therefore, a high proportion of victims that were classified as depressed had also experienced serious suicidal thoughts and who in turn had also attempted suicide at least once.

Participants were classified as “suicidal” if they reported that they had ever seriously considered taking their own life. A 2x2 chi-square comparison between rape victims and non-victims revealed that participants who reported being a victim of rape were significantly more likely to be considered to be suicidal, $\chi^2 (1, N = 550) = 37.07$, $p <$

.01, $\Phi = 0.26$. At closer inspection, this finding appeared to be applicable to both female participants, with 64.50% ($n = 129$) of the female raped sample considered suicidal, and male participants, with 68.42% ($n = 13$) of the male raped sample considered suicidal. Although a significant finding for both male ($\chi^2 (1, N = 114) = 4.05, p < .05, \Phi = 0.19$) and female participants ($\chi^2 (1, N = 432) = 32.68, p < .01, \Phi = 0.28$), based upon effect sizes, the relationship appeared to be stronger for female participants. Another comparison between rape victims and non-victims revealed that participants who reported being a victim of rape were significantly more likely to have attempted suicide, $\chi^2 (1, N = 548) = 66.75, p < .01, V = 0.35$. At closer inspection, this finding appeared to be applicable to both female participants, with 32.00% ($n = 64$) of the female raped sample had attempted suicide, and male participants, with 21.05% ($n = 4$) of the male raped sample had attempted suicide. Although, the relationship also appeared to be stronger for female participants, it was a significant finding for both male ($\chi^2 (1, N = 112) = 9.34, p < .05, \Phi = 0.29$) and female participants ($\chi^2 (1, N = 432) = 46.83, p < .01, \Phi = 0.33$). It should be noted that as 25.00% of cells in the 2x2 chi-square test for male participants contained an expected count of less than five, a Fisher's exact test was implemented (Field, 2002; Francis, 2001).

A comparison between suicidal and non-suicidal rape victims revealed several notable differences in regards to the rape profile, similar to those differences found between depressed and non-depressed rape victims. Differences between raped participants who had attempted suicide and those who had not also revealed similar patterns. In total, 27.97% ($n = 40$) of the suicidal and 23.19% ($n = 16$) of the attempted suicide raped sample stated that they had been raped on one occasion, whereas 48.65% ($n = 36$) of the non-suicidal and 40.82% ($n = 60$) of the non-attempted suicide raped sample stated that they had been raped on one occasion. Therefore, 71.33% ($n = 102$) of the suicidal and 75.36% ($n = 52$) of the attempted suicide raped sample stated that they had been raped on more than one occasion in comparison to 47.30% ($n = 35$) of the non-suicidal and 57.14% ($n = 84$) of the non-attempted suicide raped sample. Two 2x2 chi-square analyses revealed that these differences were significant for suicidal and non-suicidal victims, $\chi^2 (1, N = 216) = 11.17, p < .01, \Phi = 0.23$ and for attempted suicide and non-attempted suicide rape victims, $\chi^2 (1, N = 215) = 6.58, p < .01, \Phi = 0.18$.

Of those participants from the raped sample who reported being raped more than once, 41.41% ($n = 41$) of the suicidal and 43.40% ($n = 23$) of the attempted suicide raped sample stated that they had been raped by the same person in comparison to 53.85% ($n = 21$) of the non-suicidal and 44.71% ($n = 38$) of the non-attempted suicide raped sample. These differences were not significant for suicidal and non-suicidal victims, $\chi^2(1, N = 142) = 1.24, p = .27, Phi = 0.09$ and for attempted suicide and non-attempted suicide rape victims, $\chi^2(1, N = 140) = 0.21, p = .65, Phi = 0.04$. There was no significant difference between the number of perpetrators for the suicidal raped sample ($M = 2.22, SD = 1.80$) and the non-suicidal raped sample ($M = 1.96, SD = 3.07$), according to an independent samples t-test, $t(202) = 0.77, p = .44, d = 0.18$. Also, there was no significant difference between the number of perpetrators for the attempted suicide raped sample ($M = 2.45, SD = 1.98$) and the non-attempted suicide raped sample ($M = 1.99, SD = 2.43$), as shown by an independent samples t-test, $t(200) = 1.35, p = .18, d = 0.31$. However, 24.48% ($n = 35$) of the suicidal and 27.54% ($n = 19$) of the attempted suicide raped sample stated that there were other people involved with the rape in comparison to 12.16% ($n = 9$) of the non-suicidal and 17.01% ($n = 25$) of the non-attempted suicide raped sample. That is, other people were involved that intentionally coerced, set them up, lied to them, tricked them, abandoned them, or allowed the rape to occur. This difference between suicidal and non-suicidal rape victims was considered significant, yet small, $\chi^2(1, N = 218) = 4.08, p < .05, Phi = 0.14$, however it was not significant between attempted suicide and non-attempted suicide rape victims, $\chi^2(1, N = 217) = 2.58, p = .11, Phi = 0.11$.

In regards to the estimated age of the perpetrator at the time of the rape, or when participants were first raped, there were no significant differences between the suicidal ($M = 29.30, SD = 14.16$) and non-suicidal ($M = 27.87, SD = 11.68$) raped samples, $t(204) = 0.73, p = .47, d = 0.39$. This finding was also found between the attempted suicide ($M = 29.32, SD = 15.64$) and non-attempted suicide ($M = 28.26, SD = 11.69$) raped samples, $t(91.79) = 0.48, p = .63, d = 0.30$. There was no significant difference for the participants age at the time of the rape, or when they were first raped between the suicidal ($M = 13.93, SD = 8.91$) and the non-suicidal raped sample ($M = 15.40, SD = 8.82$), according to an independent samples t-test, $t(210) = 1.13, p = .26, d = 0.49$. However, there was a significant difference for participants age at the time of the rape, or when they were first raped between the

attempted suicide ($M = 12.12$, $SD = 8.11$) and the non-attempted suicide raped sample ($M = 15.54$, $SD = 9.12$). That is, attempted suicide rape victims were significantly younger at the time of the rape or the first rape in comparison to non-attempted suicide rape victims, $t(209) = 2.65$, $p < .01$, $d = 1.15$. The effect size for the independent samples t-test indicates that this was a large significant difference. For those participants that had been raped more than once, there were no significant differences between participants' age at the last rape they experienced between the suicidal ($M = 19.36$, $SD = 9.21$) and the non-suicidal raped sample ($M = 20.24$, $SD = 11.85$), $t(130) = 0.44$, $p = .66$, $d = 0.28$ or between the attempted suicide ($M = 19.59$, $SD = 9.48$) and the non-attempted suicide raped sample ($M = 20.05$, $SD = 10.53$), $t(129) = 0.25$, $p = .80$, $d = 0.15$.

A comparison of the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator between the suicidal and the non-suicidal raped sample, and between the attempted suicide and non-attempted suicide raped sample, is shown in Figure 16. As participants may have been raped on more than one occasion or by more than one person, participants were able to report more than one relationship.

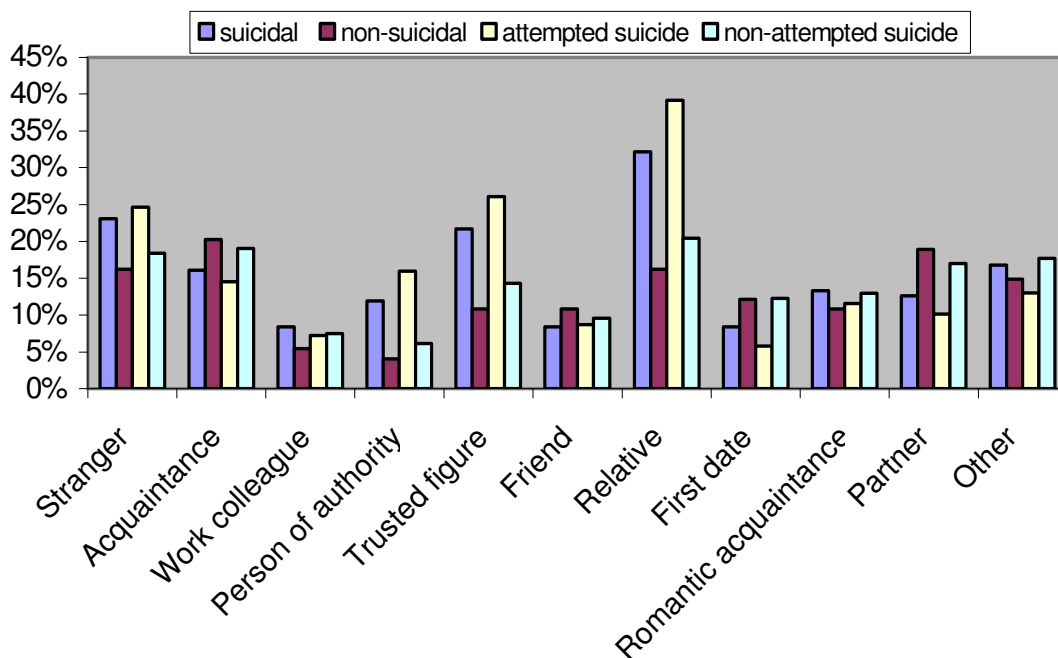


Figure 16. Suicidal and attempted suicide rape victim comparison of the relationship between rape victim and perpetrator.

As evident from inspection of Figure 16, there is a similar relationship pattern for suicidal and attempted suicide rape victims. That is, in comparison to non-suicidal and non-attempted suicide rape victims, suicidal and attempted suicide rape victims were: 1.4 times more likely to report being raped by a stranger, approximately 2 times more likely to report being raped by a trusted figure, 2 times more likely to report being raped by a relative and approximately 3 times more likely to report being raped by a person of authority. Furthermore, in comparison to suicidal and attempted suicide rape victims, non-suicidal and non-attempted suicide rape victims were: approximately 1.5 times more likely to report being raped by a partner or by an acquaintance and 1.5 to 2 times more likely to report being raped by a first date. These differences were similar to those found between depressed and non-depressed rape victims.

A comparison of the possible reasons why participants believed the rape occurred for the suicidal and non-suicidal raped samples, and for the attempted suicide and non-attempted suicide rape victims, are summarised in Figure 17. Participants were able to select more than one reason as to why they believe the rape occurred.

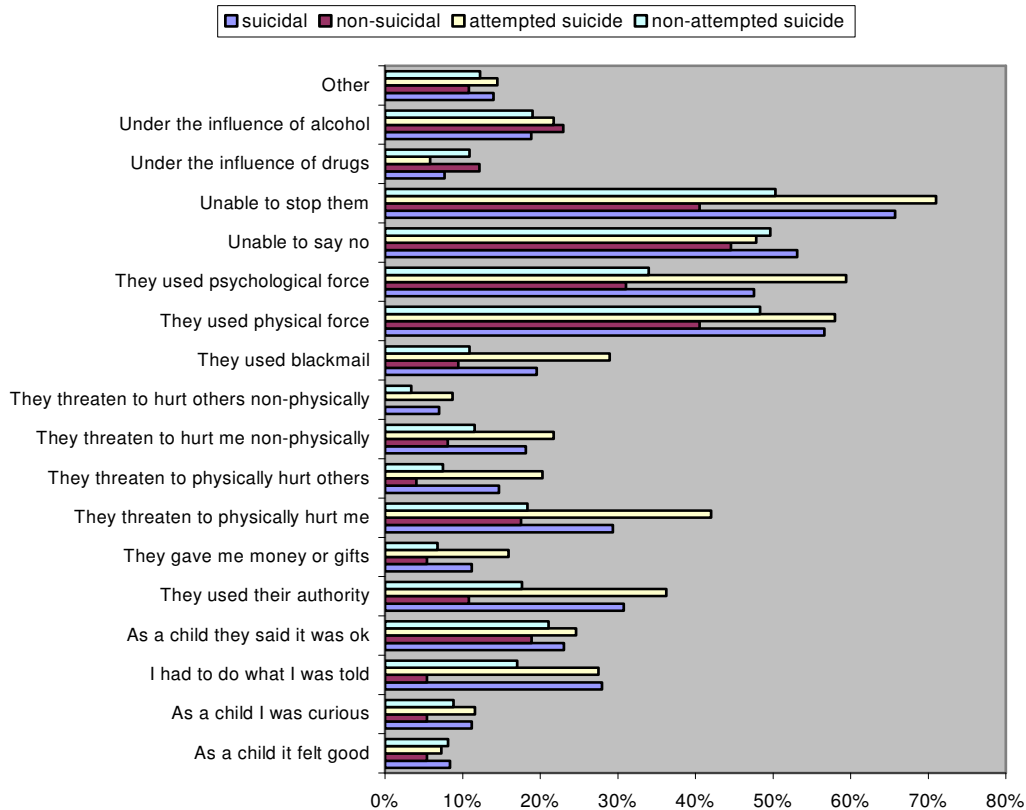


Figure 17. Suicidal and attempted suicide rape victim comparison of the proposed reasons why the rape occurred.

As can be seen in Figure 17, most suicidal and attempted suicide rape victims believed that the rape occurred because they were unable to stop the perpetrator or the perpetrator used physical or psychological force. In contrast, the most frequently cited reason as to why the rape occurred according to non-suicidal and non-attempted suicide victims were the inability to stop the perpetrator, unable to say no, or that the perpetrator used physical force. In comparison to non-suicidal and non-attempted suicide rape victims, suicidal and attempted suicide rape victims were more likely to report that the rape occurred because: they were unable to stop the perpetrator (1.6 and 1.4 times more likely, respectively), they had to do what they were told (5.6 and 1.8 times more likely, respectively), the perpetrator used (1.4 and 1.2 times more likely, respectively) or threatened (3.6 and 2.3 times more likely, respectively) physical force, used psychological force (1.6 and 1.7 times more likely, respectively), used blackmail (2.2 and 2.6 times more likely, respectively), threatened to non-physically hurt the victim (2.3 and 1.8 times more likely, respectively) and threatened to physically (3.8 and 2.9 times more likely, respectively) or non-physically (7 and 3 times more likely, respectively). Furthermore, non-suicidal and non-

attempted suicide rape victims were 1.5 and 1.8 times, respectively, more likely than suicidal and attempted suicide rape victims to report that the rape occurred due to them being under the influence of drugs.

A comparison between suicidal and non-suicidal rape victims and the attempted suicide and non-attempted suicide rape victims in regards to the level of trauma they experienced at the time of the rape and since the rape occurred are summarised in the figures below.

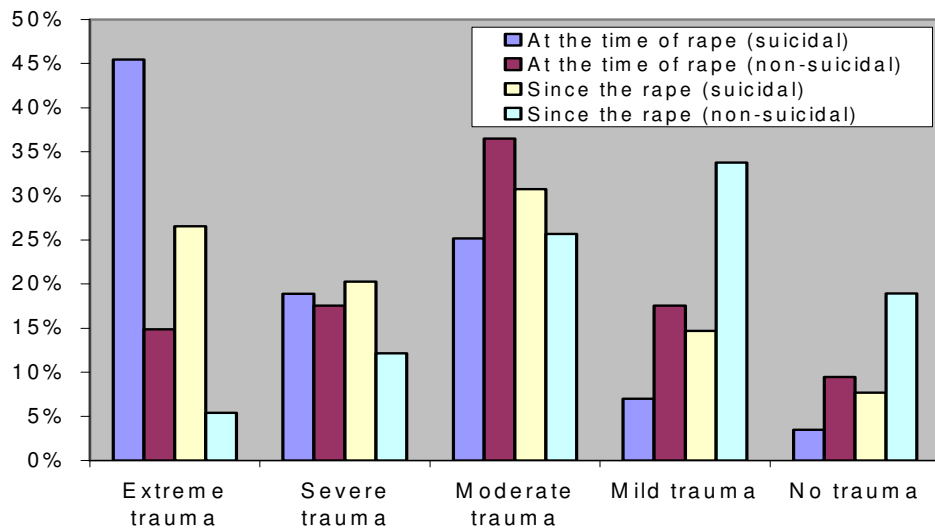


Figure 18. Suicidal rape victim comparison of the level of trauma experienced.

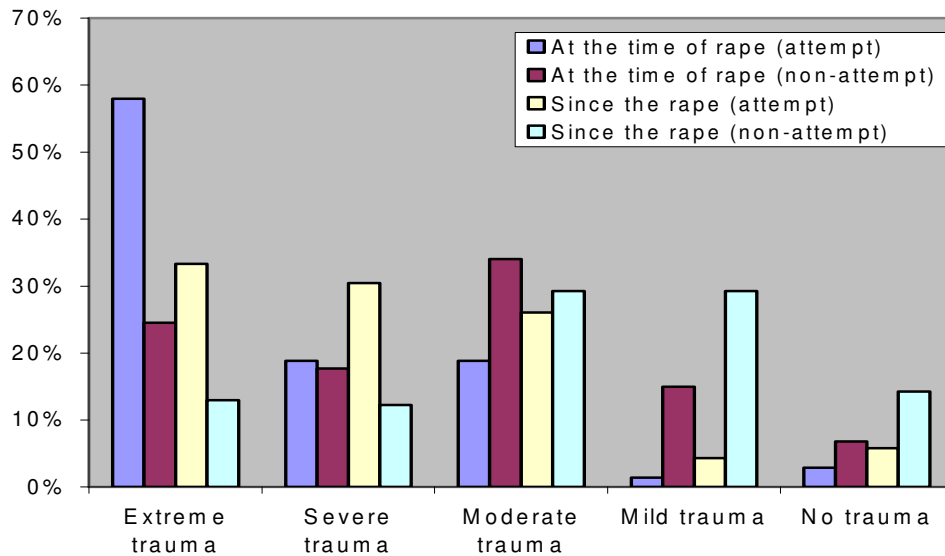


Figure 19. Attempted suicide rape victim comparison of the level of trauma experienced.

As can be seen in Figures 18 and 19, the suicidal and attempted suicide rape victims perceived the experience to be more traumatic and have experienced more traumatic symptoms since the rape occurred than non-suicidal and non-attempted rape victims. Non-suicidal and non-attempted suicide rape victims reported experiencing the least amount of traumatic symptoms since the rape occurred. Several Bonferonni alpha adjusted chi-square analyses were conducted to determine the significance of these differences. The differences between the reporting groups were significant at the time of the rape between suicidal and non-suicidal rape victims, $\chi^2 (4, N = 218) = 23.91, p < .01, V = 0.33$, and attempted suicide and non-attempted suicide rape victims, $\chi^2 (4, N = 217) = 27.96, p < .01, V = 0.36$. These differences between the reporting groups were also significant for time since the rape occurred between the suicidal and non-suicidal rape victims, $\chi^2 (4, N = 218) = 26.82, p < .01, V = 0.35$, and attempted suicide and non-attempted suicide rape victims, $\chi^2 (4, N = 217) = 35.67, p < .01, V = 0.41$.

In summary, results suggest that those participants who reported being raped, based upon the definition provided, perceived the event to be traumatic. Furthermore, participants who reported being raped were significantly more likely to be classified as depressed, had experienced suicidal thoughts, and had attempted suicide. In comparison to non-depressed rape victims, depressed victims were more likely to have been raped on more occasions, by more perpetrators, and other people were more likely to be indirectly involved in the rape. Results also revealed that in comparison to non-suicidal and non-attempted suicide rape victims, suicidal and attempted suicide rape victims were more likely to have been raped on more occasions and other people were more likely to be indirectly involved in the rape of suicidal rape victims. Unlike differences observed between the depressed and non-depressed raped samples, the findings did not indicate that the suicidal and attempted suicide raped sample had been raped by more perpetrators in comparison to the non-suicidal and non-attempted suicide raped sample.

Reporting of rape.

The following section examines the reporting attitudes and behaviours of the current sample. In particular, the reporting behaviours of the rape victims within the current sample were examined.

Participants were required to indicate the likelihood of reporting rape, if they themselves were a victim of rape and to indicate the likelihood of encouraging someone they cared about to report a rape, if they were raped. The findings for the raped and non-raped samples are displayed in Figure 20.

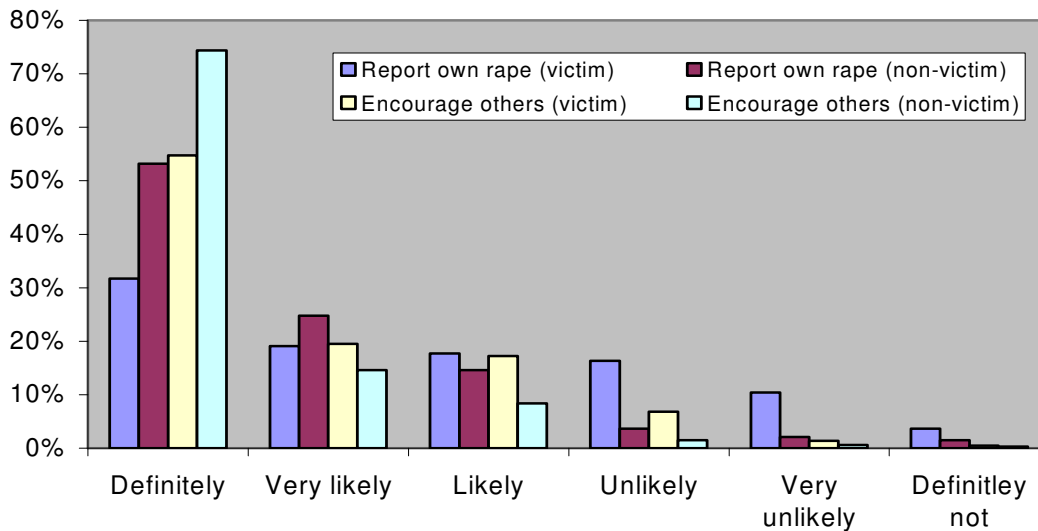


Figure 20. Comparison between victim status and their likelihood to report rape.

As can be seen from Figure 20, when judged from the perspective of a ‘victim’, the majority of participants indicated at least some likelihood of reporting their own rape (69%) or encouraging other rape victims to report rape (91%). Indeed only a small number of participants from the raped sample stated that they would “definitely not” report their own rape (4%) and no-one stated that they would “definitely not” encourage other rape victims to report rape. Also, when judged from the perspective of a ‘non-victim’, the majority of participants indicated at least some likelihood of reporting their own rape (93%) or encouraging other rape victims to report rape (97%). Indeed only a small number of participants from the non-raped sample stated that they would “definitely not” report their own rape (1%) and no-one stated that they would “definitely not” encourage other rape victims to report rape. Participants, especially participants who reported being a victim of rape, appear more likely to encourage other rape victims to report rape in comparison to participants reporting their own rape. A correlation between participants likelihood to report their own rape and to encourage other rape victims to report rape indicated that there was a strong significant relationship between the two variables, $\rho = 0.57$, $n = 553$, $p < .01$. As the distribution of the variables examined were not normal and ordinal variables, a

Spearman's Rank correlation coefficient was calculated instead of a Pearson's correlation coefficient (Field, 2002; Francis, 2001). A chi-square analysis revealed that non-rape victims were significantly more likely to report their own hypothetical rape in comparison to rape victims, $\chi^2(5, N = 552) = 61.17, p < .01, V = 0.33$. There appeared to be no significant difference between rape victims and non-rape victims in regards to participants encouraging other rape victims to report rape, a chi-square statistic could not be calculated as too many cells, even when combined, contained an expected count of less than five.

Participants who had been a victim of rape indicated who they had informed that the rape had occurred. Figure 21 outlines the frequencies of those people that the raped participants informed about their experience of rape. Participants were able to select more than one person they informed about the rape.

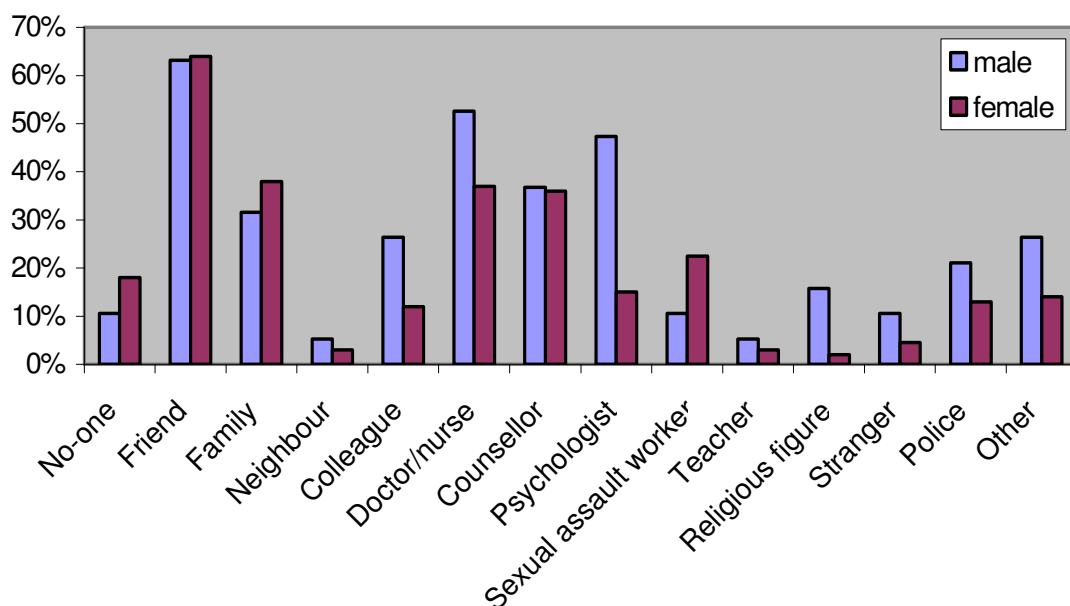


Figure 21. Gender comparison of the people rape victims informed about the rape.

Figure 21 indicates that rape victims informed a range of people that they were raped. In particular, the most common person informed about a rape appears to be a friend. A gender comparison revealed that male rape victims were more likely to report the rape to a colleague or stranger (both 2.2 times more likely), doctor/ nurse (1.4 times more likely), psychologist (3.1 times more likely), religious figure (8 times more likely) and the police (1.6 times more likely). In comparison, female rape victims were more likely to report the rape to a sexual assault worker (2.1 times more likely)

or to no-one (1.6 times more likely). In total, 17.19% ($n = 38$) of the raped sample stated that they had informed no-one that the rape had occurred, with almost twice as many female rape victims, 18.00% ($n = 36$) of the female raped sample informing no-one in comparison to 10.52% ($n = 2$) of the male raped sample. Interestingly, only 14.93% ($n = 33$) of the raped sample stated that they reported the rape to police, with 13.00% ($n = 26$) of the female rape victim sample informing the police in comparison to 21.05% ($n = 4$) of the male rape victim sample. Even after combining several reporting categories, there were several cells with a count less than five in the statistical analysis, therefore chi-square could not be calculated validly to determine the significance of these differences.

Participants who had been a victim of rape indicated that it was difficult confiding in other people about the rape. Only 5.91% ($n = 13$) of the raped sample stated that they experienced no difficulty reporting the rape to others. Over half (54.55%, $n = 120$) of the raped sample stated that it was “very difficult” to confide in others about their experience. Participants who had been a victim of rape further described how they felt about their disclosure. Participants were able to select more than one feeling they had towards their disclosure. Almost half (42.42%, $n = 14$) of the raped sample who told police about the rape stated that they regretted going to the police. One third (33.64%, $n = 74$) of the raped sample stated that, whether they reported the rape or not, they had no regrets about their disclosure. Furthermore, 28.05% of the raped sample regretted telling someone ($n = 50$) or everyone ($n = 12$) that they told about the rape, whereas 40.72% of the raped sample would have liked to sooner ($n = 85$) or wish to tell someone about the rape ($n = 5$). However, 11.31% ($n = 25$) of the raped sample have no intentions of telling anyone about the rape and 7.24% ($n = 16$) of the raped sample stated that they would like to tell someone about the rape but find it to difficult to discuss.

In total, 7.69% ($n = 17$) of the raped sample stated that they were pressing, or had pressed, charges against the perpetrator. A further 3.17% ($n = 7$) of the raped sample stated that they were undecided about pressing charges against the perpetrator. Therefore, the overwhelming majority, 88.24% ($n = 195$), of the raped sample had not pressed charges, or had no intention of pressing charges, against the perpetrator. Of those participants who were raped and who were pressing, or had pressed, charges, approximately half (45.16%, $n = 14$) reported that the perpetrator

or perpetrators had not been caught by the police. With respect to respondents who had reported their rape, 16.13% ($n = 5$) stated that while the perpetrator/s had been caught by the police, no charges were laid. For only three respondents in this later category (9.68%), the police had investigated the case and a prosecution had been conducted; however, the perpetrator was found not guilty. Only 29.03% ($n = 9$) of the sample stated that perpetrator or perpetrators had been caught and charged and found guilty. Sanctions delivered to those found guilty of rape varied between suspended jail terms and community service to 11 years imprisonment.

Comparison of police, other and non-reporters of rape.

Raped participants were classified into three categories: those who informed no-one about the rape ('no-one'), those who reported the rape to the police ('police'), and those who confided in 'other' people (as outlined in Figure 21) about the rape. Participants were placed exclusively in a category.

A comparison between the three reporting groups of rape victims revealed several notable differences in regards to the characteristics of the rape. A total of 44.74% ($n = 17$) of the raped sample who informed 'no-one' about the rape stated that they had been raped on one occasion, whereas 34.69% ($n = 51$) of the 'other' reporting sample and 24.24% ($n = 8$) of the 'police' reporting sample stated that they had been raped on one occasion. Thus, 52.63% ($n = 20$) of the raped sample who informed no-one about the rape stated that they had been raped on more than one occasion, whereas 63.95% ($n = 94$) of the other reporting sample and 72.73% ($n = 24$) of the police reporting sample stated that they had been raped on more than one occasion. Consequently, victims who had been raped more than once appeared to be more likely to report the rape to police, whereas those victims raped once were more likely to inform 'no-one' of the rape. However, a chi-square analysis comparing reporting groups and rape victims who have been raped once or more than one time revealed no significant differences between each reporting group, $\chi^2(2, N = 216) = 2.98, p = .23, V = 0.12$.

With respect to multiple rape victimisation participants, the majority (52.38%, $n = 11$) of those who had not reported their rape (i.e., participants in the 'no-one' report category) and 45.83% ($n = 44$) of participants who had reported their rape to 'other'

people had indicated that they had been raped by the same perpetrator more than once. In contrast, only 28.57% ($n = 6$) of participants who reported their rape to the 'police' indicated that they had been raped multiply by the same perpetrator. Although those rape victims raped by different perpetrators appeared more likely to report the rape to police, a chi-square analysis revealed that there were no significant differences between the groups, $\chi^2(2, N = 138) = 2.75, p = .25, V = 0.14$. There was a clear trend between the reporting groups in regards to the number of perpetrators. That is, victims who reported their rape to police reported more perpetrators ($M = 2.90, SD = 3.17$) than those victims who reported the rape to other people ($M = 2.09, SD = 2.22$) and to those victims who reported the rape to no-one ($M = 1.77, SD = 1.70$). However, a one-way ANOVA revealed that these differences were not significant, $F(2, 202) = 2.16, p = .12, \eta^2 = 0.02$. Furthermore, 7.90% ($n = 3$) of the raped sample who informed no-one about the rape stated that there were other people involved with the rape in comparison to 20.41% ($n = 30$) of the other reporting sample and 39.39% ($n = 13$) of the police reporting sample. A chi-square analysis revealed that those rape victims that reported the rape to police were significantly more likely to state that there were other people involved with the rape that intentionally coerced, set them up, lied to them, tricked them, abandoned them, or allowed the rape to occur. In comparison, rape victims who told no-one about the rape were significantly less likely to report that other people were involved with the rape, $\chi^2(2, N = 216) = 11.04, p < .01, V = 0.23$.

In regards to the estimated age of the perpetrator at the time of the rape or first rape, a one-way ANOVA revealed that there were no significant differences between those victims who reported the rape to the police ($M = 25.44, SD = 9.63$), to others ($M = 28.89, SD = 13.62$), or to no-one ($M = 30.72, SD = 14.55$), $F(2, 204) = 1.40, p = .25, \eta^2 = 0.01$. Another one-way ANOVA revealed that there were no significant differences between participants' age at the time of the rape or first rape between those victims that reported the rape to the police ($M = 14.72, SD = 11.13$), to others ($M = 13.81, SD = 8.27$), or to no-one ($M = 16.30, SD = 9.25$), $F(2, 211) = 1.18, p = .31, \eta^2 = 0.01$. For those participants who had been raped more than once, there were no significant differences between participants' age at the time of the last rape for those victims that reported the rape to the police ($M = 21.59, SD = 10.70$), others ($M = 18.94, SD = 10.33$), or no-one ($M = 22.50, SD = 8.33$), as shown by a one-way ANOVA, $F(2, 131) = 1.32, p = .27, \eta^2 = 0.02$.

A comparison of the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator between the three reporting groups is shown in Figure 22. As participants may have been raped on more than one occasion or by more than one person, participants were able to report more than one relationship.

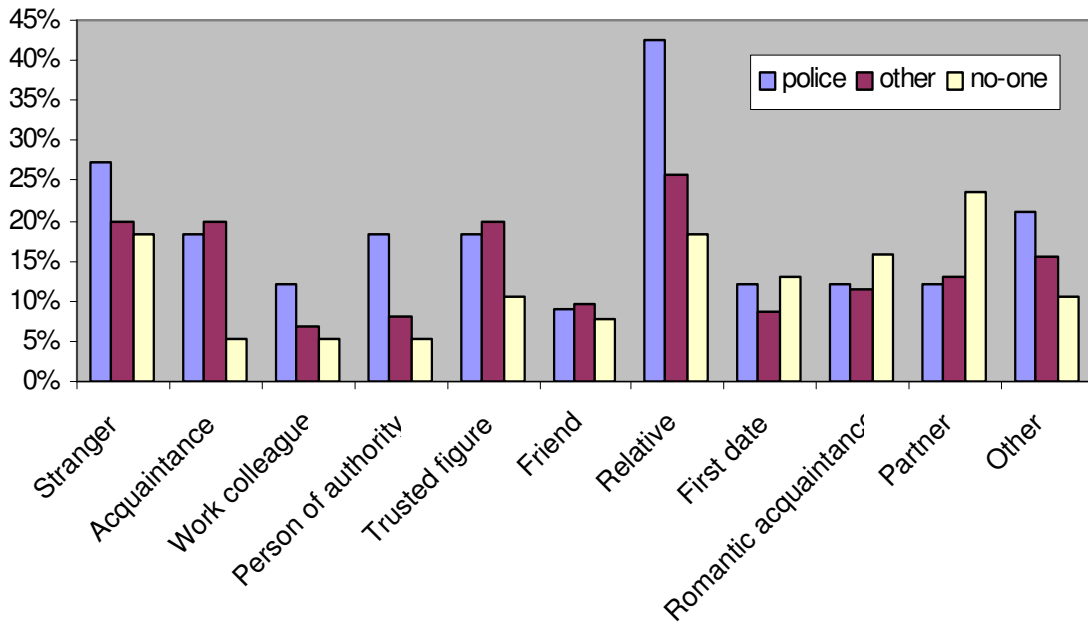


Figure 22. Reporting comparison of the relationship between victim and perpetrator.

Figure 22 displays that within the current sample, rape victims that reported the rape to the police were more often raped by a relative, stranger, work colleague, or person of authority. In comparison, those rape victims that informed no-one about the rape were more often raped by a partner.

A comparison of the possible reasons why participants believed the rape occurred between the three reporting groups (i.e., police, other or no-one) are summarised in Figure 23. Participants were able to select more than one reason as to why they believe the rape occurred.

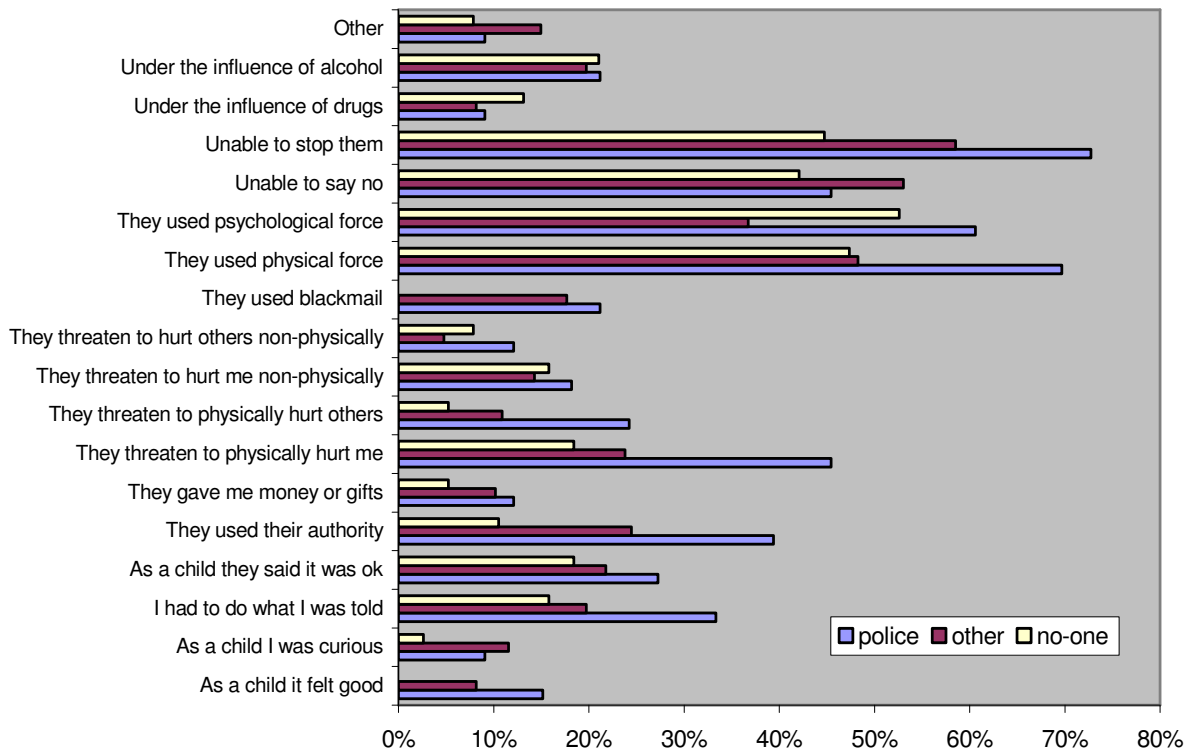


Figure 23. Reporting group comparison of the proposed reasons why the rape occurred.

As can be seen in Figure 23, the most frequently cited reason as to why the rape occurred according to those rape victims that reported the rape to police were that the victim was unable to stop the perpetrator or the perpetrator used physical or psychological force. In comparison to the other reporting groups, those rape victims that reported the rape to police more often reported that the rape occurred because they were unable to stop the perpetrator or the perpetrator used physical or psychological force, the perpetrator threatened to physically hurt others or the victim, the perpetrator used their authority or reasons due to the victim being a child. Furthermore, those rape victims that informed no-one about the rape more often reported that they believed the rape occurred because they were under the influence of drugs.

A comparison between the reporting groups (i.e., police, other or no-one) in regards to the level of trauma they experienced at the time of the rape and since the rape occurred are summarised in Figures 24.

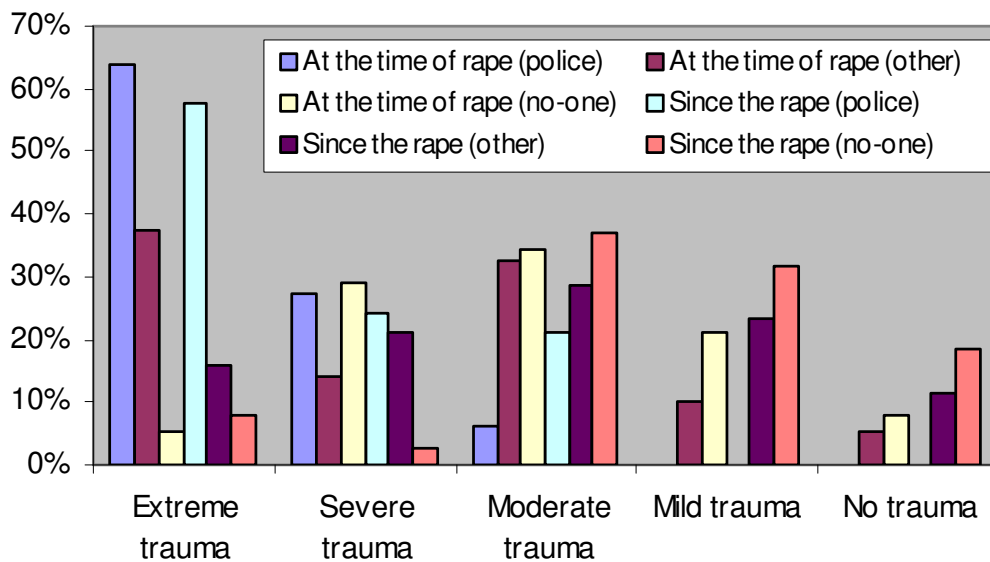


Figure 24. Reporting group comparison of the level of trauma experienced.

As can be seen in Figure 24, rape victims who reported the rape to police perceived the experience to be more traumatic and have experienced more traumatic symptoms since the rape occurred than the other reporting groups. Those rape victims the told no-one about the rape reported experiencing the least amount of trauma at the time of the rape and the least amount of traumatic symptoms since the rape occurred. A chi-square revealed that these differences for time since the rape occurred between the reporting groups (i.e., police, other or no-one) were significant, $\chi^2(8, N = 216) = 44.28, p < .01, V = 0.45$. Although appearing significant, there were too many cells with a count less than five for the chi-square analysis to be calculated for the level of trauma experienced at the time of the rape.

A series of 2x3 chi-square analyses compared the differences between the three reporting groups (i.e., police, other or no-one) and depressed and non-depressed rape victims, suicidal and non-suicidal rape victims, and attempted suicide and non-attempted suicide rape victims. A total of 68.75% ($n = 22$) of the police reporting sample were considered to be depressed, whereas 54.42% ($n = 80$) of the other reporting sample were considered to be depressed. However, 59.46% ($n = 22$) of the sample that reported the rape to no-one were considered not to be depressed. Although approaching significance, there were no significant differences found for reporting of rape between depressed and non-depressed rape victims, $\chi^2(2, N =$

216) = 5.51, $p = .06$, $V = 0.16$. A total of 86.66% ($n = 26$) of the police reporting sample were considered to be suicidal, whereas 64.14% ($n = 93$) of the other reporting sample were considered to be suicidal and 62.22% ($n = 23$) of the sample that reported the rape to no-one were considered suicidal. These differences found between suicidal and non-suicidal rape victims were found to be significant, $\chi^2 (2, N = 212) = 6.18$, $p < .05$, $V = 0.17$. That is, in comparison to non-suicidal rape victims, significantly more suicidal rape victims reported the rape to police, to other people, or to no-one. Exactly half ($n = 15$) of the police reporting sample had attempted suicide, whereas 31.25% ($n = 45$) of the other reporting sample had attempted suicide and 24.32% ($n = 9$) of the sample that reported the rape to no-one had attempted suicide. Although approaching significance, there were no significant differences found for reporting of rape between attempted suicide and non-attempted suicide rape victims and the three reporting groups, $\chi^2 (2, N = 211) = 5.40$, $p = .07$, $V = 0.16$.

In summary, a small proportion of the current raped sample reported that they did not inform anyone that they had been raped and a similarly small proportion of the current raped sample stated that they had reported the rape to police. Furthermore, only a small proportion of those rapes reported to police resulted in the perpetrator being charged. There were several differences noted between the characteristics of the rape for those raped participants that reported the rape to no-one, the police or to others. In that, rape victims that reported the rape to the police were more often: raped by a relative, stranger, work colleague, or person of authority. In comparison, those raped participants that informed no-one about the rape were more often raped by a partner. Also, rape victims that reported the rape to the police also indicated that other people were involved in the rape and believed that the rape occurred because they were unable to stop the perpetrator, the perpetrator used or threatened physical or psychological force, the perpetrator used their authority or reasons due to the victim being a child. Also, there were several differences noted between the impact rape had upon the victim for those raped participants that reported the rape to no-one, the police or to others. In that, rape victims that reported the rape to the police indicated that they had experienced extreme trauma at the time of the rape and since the rape occurred and were significantly more likely to have experienced suicidal thoughts.

Section Summary.

Overall, 39.46% ($n = 221$) of the current sample stated that, based upon the definition provided, they had been a victim of rape. The majority of those raped reported that they were raped on more than one occasion and were more likely to be raped by someone that was known to them. There were some differences found between the raped and non-raped sample. In comparison to males, females were more likely to be raped on more than one occasion. However, in comparison to the rape of females, the rape of males appeared to be more likely to have involved other people that were indirectly involved in the rape. Differences were also noted between male and female victims of rape in regards to the relationship between the victim and perpetrator and for the proposed reasons as to why the rape occurred. Although the majority of those raped participants within the current sample were women, there did also appear to be notable differences between male and female victims of rape. The experience of rape has had a traumatic impact upon most participants, with a large proportion of the raped sample reporting symptoms of depression, previous suicidal ideation and suicide attempts. Rape was an under-reported crime with 17.19% ($n = 38$) of the raped sample stating that they did not inform anyone about the rape and only 14.93% ($n = 33$) of the raped sample stated that they reported the rape to police.

Section 2. Rape Attitudinal Questionnaire

One of the current aims was to develop a measure that efficiently and effectively measured rape myth endorsement levels in regards to general rape myths and rape myths that related specifically to males and females. This section of the results examines the properties of such a measure, the "Rape Attitudinal Questionnaire" (RAQ). In particular, the underlying factor structure of the scale and its reliability and validity were examined, in an attempt to determine the usefulness of the RAQ in assessing individual's attitudes toward rape and level of rape myth endorsement.

RAQ factor structure.

In order to establish whether the RAQ is a useful rape myth acceptance measure, it was necessary to establish the underlying dimensions of the scale. Therefore, the following section examines the factor structure of the RAQ and compares the factor

structure between the comparable male and female rape myth items, that is, compare those items that depict a male subject and those items that depict a female subject.

Initially, it was essential to screen the items within each section of the RAQ to determine which items were to be included in each principal component factor analysis (Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2003; Field, 2002). Several indicators were considered when screening the items. Given that the validity of a factor analysis is dependent, in part, upon there being variability within items, the variance and skewness of items were examined. If RAQ items had a low variance ($SD \leq 0.5$) or a high skewness ($M \geq 5.9$) they were eliminated from the factor analysis. Further, the interrelations amongst RAQ items were examined, and items were excluded from the factor analysis if they appeared to correlate highly ($r > 0.9$) with the majority of variables or did not correlate ($r < 0.1$) with the majority of variables. The Bartlett test and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (MSA) were also examined to gauge the correlations amongst the RAQ items. Lastly, the communalities for each item were examined and items that were considered to have a low communality (i.e., of < 0.25) were removed from the factor analysis. Once all the RAQ items were screened against these exclusion criteria, the remaining items were subjected to a principal component factor analysis. Although rape myths are believed to be complex in nature, the underlying structure of rape myth acceptance measures are considered to be relatively independent from one another. Therefore an orthogonal rotation was considered appropriate for the current factor analyses, in particular a Varimax rotation, rather than an oblique rotation. For the purpose of factor interpretation, factor loadings of .40 or greater were accepted as significant.

Section One factor structure.

Section One of the RAQ contained items that examined generic rape myths, factual rape items, and participants' beliefs about the likelihood of rape related issues. Section One originally contained 25 items measured on a 6-point Likert scale and one item measured on a 5-point Likert scale. As the final item of Section One was measured on a different point scale from the remaining items it was excluded from the factor analysis, although the item still remains a valuable item of the RAQ which would be included in the future use of the questionnaire.

The initial item screen of Section One of the RAQ revealed that several items should be eliminated from the factor analysis based upon the exclusion criteria specified above. Items 4, 8, 12, 13, and 23 were eliminated due to having weak correlations with the majority of the other items within Section One. Item 17 was eliminated from the factor analysis as it had low variance with high skewness. Thus, six items within Section One of the RAQ were initially eliminated from the principal component factor analysis. A principal component factor analysis was then conducted on the remaining Section One items of the RAQ for a total of 541 participants.

Initial analysis produced five principal components with eigenvalues greater than one. Since rape myths are considered to be relatively independent of one another, the factor matrix was rotated using the Varimax procedure. Rotated solutions of a number of factors were compared. Alternative solutions were rejected based upon the grounds of statistical soundness, scree plot examination, and factor interpretability. Subsequent analysis revealed that a single factor solution resulted in marked under-factoring with diverse items loading on the same factor and that a three, four or five factor solution resulted in the splitting of one or more factors that held together conceptually in a two factor solution. The suitability of Section One items were further scrutinised on the basis of the Bartlett test, the MSA, and communalities. Based upon a three factor solution of the remaining 19 items, items 1 and 6 were judged to be unacceptable due to communality scores of less than 0.25. As the two-factor Varimax rotated solution was considered statistically suitable and theoretically interpretable, it was accepted and accounted for 40.68% of the total variance. The Bartlett test was significant ($p < .01$) and the overall MSA was .88, which is regarded as 'great' (Field, 2002). In total, all of the 17 remaining items within Section One of the RAQ loaded significantly onto the two factors. Only one item loaded onto both factors, however the item was grouped with the factor that displayed the highest factor loading. These items and their factor loadings are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Factor loadings of RAQ Section One

RAQ Item	Rape Dynamics & Perceptions	Rape Likelihood
18. If a person is in a current relationship with the accused, you wouldn't really call it rape	.74	
24. Marital rape is not possible because a man has rights to sex in marriage	.72	
7. In a committed relationship, if a partner requests sex, you have an obligation to agree	.62	
21. Females cannot be guilty of rape	.60	
19. A report of rape several days after the act is probably a false report	.57	
15. Only a homosexual man would rape another man	.51	.45
22. Males rape other males only in all-male institutionalised settings	.50	
9. If a person appeared controlled and calm the day after the rape, it probably isn't true	.49	
2. Females cannot rape other women	.49	
25. A rapist must perpetrate or threaten physical violence towards the victim in order for the act to be considered rape	.45	
10. Outside all male settings, the rape of men is too rare to be worth worrying about	.43	
3. I am unlikely to be raped in my lifetime		.80
14. Rape is unlikely to happen to any female I know		.74
20. Rape is unlikely to happen to any male I know		.73
16. I am less likely to be raped in comparison to others of my age and gender		.70
5. Most rapes would occur when the victim has engaged in risky behaviours		.54
11. People are usually raped by someone they don't know		.43

As shown in Table 3, factor 1 of Section One contained items that related to the dynamics between the victim and perpetrator, the presentation of the victim after the rape, and general perceptions of rape. Hence this factor was labelled "Rape Dynamics and Perceptions". Factor 2 of Section One contained items that related to the likelihood of rape occurring to particular individuals or the participant. Hence this factor was labelled "Rape Likelihood".

Female rape myth factor structure.

The remaining sections of the RAQ contained two separate sections addressing rape myths regarding males and rape myths regarding females. The ordering of these two sections were counterbalanced, thus some RAQ's contained female rape myth items

within Section Two whereas other RAQ's contained male rape myth items within Section Two. For current purposes, Section Two will refer to the RAQ section which contained rape myth items referring to women and Section Three will refer to the RAQ section which contained rape myth items referring to men.

Section Two of the RAQ originally contained 40 items relating to rape myths regarding females, with all items measured on a 6-point Likert scale. The initial item screen of Section Two of the RAQ revealed that several items should be eliminated from the factor analysis based upon the exclusion criteria noted above. Items 12, 24, and 38 were eliminated due to having weak correlations with the majority of the other items within Section Two. Items 16 and 25 were eliminated from the factor analysis as they had low variance with high skewness. Thus, five items within Section Two of the RAQ were initially eliminated from the principal component factor analysis. A principal component factor analysis was then conducted on the remaining Section Two items of the RAQ for a total of 518 participants.

Initial analysis of Section One of the RAQ produced five principal components with eigenvalues greater than one. Since rape myths are considered to be relatively independent of one another, the factor matrix was rotated using the Varimax procedure. Rotated solutions of a number of factors were compared. Alternative solutions were rejected based upon the grounds of statistical soundness, scree plot examination, and factor interpretability. Subsequent analysis revealed that a three factor solution resulted in marked underfactoring with diverse items loading on the same factor and that a five factor solution resulted in the splitting of one or more factors that held together conceptually in a four factor solution. The suitability of Section Two items were further scrutinised on the basis of the Bartlett test, the MSA, and communalities. Based upon a four factor solution of the remaining 35 items, item 3 was judged to be unacceptable due to communality scores of .142. Therefore, item 3 was removed from the analysis and the principal component factor analysis was re-conducted.

As the four-factor Varimax rotated solution was considered statistically suitable and theoretically interpretable, it was temporarily accepted. A comparison was made to the factor solution of Section Three of the RAQ, and in order to keep the two sections comparable, it was essential to remove one extra item from Section Two that was

required to be removed from Section Three. Item 9 was removed from Section Three due to poor communality scores and at closer inspection the item was approaching an unacceptable level within Section Two due to high skewness. Removing item 9 from the analysis had no impact upon the previous factor structure only the factor loadings. The final 33 items within Section Two of the RAQ produced a four-factor solution that accounted for 53.27% of the total variance. The Bartlett test was significant ($p < .01$) and the overall MSA was .95, which is regarded as 'superb' (Field, 2002). All of the 33 remaining items within Section Two loaded significantly onto the four factors. Five items loaded onto more than one of the four factors, however such items were grouped with the factor that displayed the highest factor loading. These items and their factor loadings are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Factor loadings of RAQ Section Two

RAQ Item	Significance of Rape	Rape Claims	Victim Deservedness	Victim Resistance & Character
36. If a woman only says "no" but does not physically resist, it is still ok to have sex with her as long as you don't hurt her	.69			
34. If she can't remember the rape (e.g., because she was asleep, unconscious, or intoxicated by alcohol or drugs), then no real harm is done	.63			
39. If a woman says no but her body language is telling you something different it is ok to have sex with her	.62			
27. Women are to blame for rape if the accused becomes so aroused that it leads to a loss of control	.61			
33. A rape probably didn't occur if the female victim has no visible physical injury	.61			
19. A female victim should blame herself for rape	.60			
31. If a woman is heavily intoxicated by alcohol or drugs and does not resist it is ok to have sex with them	.57			
37. Female rape only really occurs when a rapist has a weapon, or if there is a number of attackers	.54			

Table 4 continued

Factor loadings of RAQ Section Two

RAQ Item	Significance of Rape	Rape Claims	Victim Deservedness	Victim Resistance & Character
40. When a woman is very sexually aroused, she could be excused for not noticing that the other person is resisting sex	.51			
28. Female victims tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them	.46			
10. Women who feel guilty or regret having had sex are likely to falsely claim rape		.73		
4. Women often claim rape to protect their reputations		.72		
17. Many women claim rape if they have consented to sex but have changed their mind afterwards		.69	.40	
21. Many women who report rape are lying because they are angry or want revenge on the accused		.62		
35. Some women enjoy being raped	.46	.58		
11. Most women secretly or unconsciously desire to be raped		.51		
26. If a woman is intoxicated by alcohol or drugs during the alleged rape, there is a good chance that she consented at the time		.45		
32. When females rape it is due to their overwhelming, unfulfilled sexual desire		.40		
22. Women who wear revealing or provocative clothing are inviting rape			.69	
16. A woman who goes out alone at night puts herself in a position to be raped			.68	
23. Women often put themselves into situations in which they are likely to be raped			.63	
14. If a woman is raped while drunk she is somewhat responsible	.44		.59	
7. Female victims who provoke rape by their appearance or behaviour are responsible for the act			.56	
29. A woman who goes to the home of a partner on their first date implies that she is willing to have sex			.56	
8. Intoxicated women are usually willing to have sexual relations		.44	.51	

Table 4 continued

Factor loadings of RAQ Section Two

RAQ Item	Significance of Rape	Rape Claims	Victim Deservedness	Victim Resistance & Character
13. Women who are raped while accepting rides from strangers get what they deserve	.50		.50	
18. Accusations of rape by female escorts, female exotic dancers and female prostitutes should be viewed with suspicion			.47	
2. The extent of a female victim's resistance should determine if a rape has occurred				.72
1. A raped woman is a less desirable woman				.62
15. If a female doesn't physically resist sex, even when protesting verbally, it really can't be considered rape				.61
5. In the majority of rape cases, the female victim is promiscuous or has a poor moral character				.48
30. If the female 'victim' doesn't perceive it as rape herself, then surely it can't be rape				.45
20. A healthy woman can successfully resist a single rapist if she really tries				.40

As shown in Table 4, factor 1 of Section Two contained items that related to minimising the seriousness of female rape and minimising the responsibility of the perpetrator. Hence this factor was labelled "Significance of Rape". Factor 2 of Section Two contained items that related to females falsely claiming rape and female victims wanting to be raped. Hence, this factor was labelled "Rape Claims". Factor 3 of Section Two contained items that related to female victims provoking rape or deserving to be raped. Hence, this factor was labelled "Victim Deservedness". Factor 4 of Section Two contained items that related to female victim's resistance during rape and perceptions of the female victim's character. Hence, this factor was labelled "Victim Resistance and Character".

Male rape myth factor structure.

Section Three of the RAQ originally contained 40 items relating to rape myths regarding males, with all items measured on a 6-point Likert scale. The initial item screen of Section Three of the RAQ revealed that several items should be eliminated from the factor analysis based upon the previously outlined exclusion criteria. Items 12 and 24 were eliminated from the analysis due to having weak correlations with the majority of the other items within the section. These items were also removed from the Section Two principal component factor analyses for this reason. Item 25 was eliminated from the factor analysis as it had low variance. This item was also removed from the Section Two principal component factor analyses for this reason. Thus, three items within Section Three of the RAQ were initially eliminated from the principal component factor analysis. A principal component factor analysis was then conducted on the remaining RAQ Section Three items for a total of 509 participants.

Initial analysis produced seven principal components with eigenvalues greater than one. Since rape myths are considered to be relatively independent of one another, the factor matrix was rotated using the Varimax procedure. However, in order to keep the two sections comparable, it was essential to remove items from Section Three that had been removed from Section Two. Item 38 was removed from the analysis of Section Two as it was considered to correlate poorly with other items within the section. Accordingly, it was also removed from the Section Three analysis. In addition, item 6 was removed from the analysis of Section Two as it was considered to have low variance and high skewness. Therefore, it was also removed from the Section Three analysis. Finally, item 3 was removed from Section Three analysis as it had also been removed from the Section Two analysis due to poor communality.

Once all required items had been removed another principal component factor analysis revealed six components with eigenvalues greater than one. Rotated solutions of a number of factors were compared. Alternative solutions were rejected based upon the grounds of statistical soundness, scree plot examination and factor interpretability. Subsequent analysis revealed that a three factor solution resulted in marked underfactoring with diverse items loading on the same factor and that five or six factor solutions resulted in the splitting of one or more factors that held together conceptually in a four factor solution. The suitability of Section Three items were further scrutinised on the basis of the Bartlett test, the MSA, and communalities.

Based upon a four factor solution of the remaining 34 items, item 9 was judged to be unacceptable due to a communality score of .24. Therefore, item 9 was removed from the analysis and the principal component factor analysis was re-conducted. The final 33 items within Section Two of the RAQ produced a four-factor Varimax rotated solution that was considered statistically suitable and theoretically interpretable. The four-factor solution accounted for 51.21% of the total variance. The Bartlett test was significant ($p < .01$) and the overall MSA was .95, which is regarded as 'superb' (Field, 2002). In total, 32 of the 33 remaining items within Section Two of the RAQ loaded significantly onto the four factors. Item 32 was found not to load significantly onto any of the four factors within Section Three of the RAQ. Seven items loaded onto more than one of the four factors, however such items were grouped with the factor that displayed the highest factor loading. These items and their factor loadings are presented in Table 5.

Table 5
Factor loadings of RAQ Section Three

RAQ Item	Significance of Rape	Victim Resistance & Character	Rape Claims	Victim Deservedness
34. If he can't remember the rape (e.g., because he was asleep, unconscious, or intoxicated by alcohol or drugs), then no real harm is done	.76			
36. If a man only says "no" but does not physically resist, it is still ok to have sex with him as long as you don't hurt him	.76			
31. If a man is heavily intoxicated by alcohol or drugs and does not resist it is ok to have sex with them	.70			
39. If a man says no but his body language is telling you something different it is ok to have sex with him	.70			
11. Most men secretly or unconsciously desire to be raped	.54		.41	
35. Some men enjoy being raped	.52		.44	
28. Male victims tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them	.49			
27. Men are to blame for rape if the accused becomes so aroused that it leads to a loss of control	.49			
33. A rape probably didn't occur if the male victim has no visible physical injury	.42	.40		

Table 5 continued

Factor loadings of RAQ Section Three

RAQ Item	Significance of Rape	Victim Resistance & Character	Rape Claims	Victim Deservedness
26. If a woman is intoxicated by alcohol or drugs during the alleged rape, there is a good chance that she consented at the time	.41	.41	.41	
1. A raped man is a less desirable man	.	.66		
2. The extent of a male victim's resistance should determine if a rape has occurred		.64		
20. A healthy man can successfully resist a single rapist if he really tries		.57		
15. If a male doesn't physically resist sex, even when protesting verbally, it really can't be considered rape	.48	.53		
37. Male rape only really occurs when a rapist has a weapon, or if there is a number of attackers	.	.52		
30. If the male 'victim' doesn't perceive it as rape himself, then surely it can't be rape		.50		
7. Male victims who provoke rape by their appearance or behaviour are responsible for the act		.49		.41
8. Intoxicated men are usually willing to have sexual relations		.47		
5. In the majority of rape cases, the male victim is promiscuous or has a poor moral character		.46		
29. A man who goes to the home of a partner on their first date implies that he is willing to have sex		.41		
32. When males rape it is due to their overwhelming, unfulfilled sexual desire				
10. Men who feel guilty or regret having had sex are likely to falsely claim rape			.77	
17. Many men claim rape if they have consented to sex but have changed their mind afterwards			.76	
4. Men often claim rape to protect their reputations			.71	
21. Many men who report rape are lying because they are angry or want revenge on the accused			.49	.43
22. Men who wear revealing or provocative clothing are inviting rape				.72

Table 5 continued

Factor loadings of RAQ Section Three

RAQ Item	Significance of Rape	Victim Resistance & Character	Rape Claims	Victim Deservedness
23. Men often put themselves into situations in which they are likely to be raped				.57
19. A male victim should blame himself for rape				.55
40. When a man is very sexually aroused, he could be excused for not noticing that the other person is resisting sex				.52
14. If a man is raped while drunk he is somewhat responsible				.50
16. A man who goes out alone at night puts himself in a position to be raped				.50
18. Accusations of rape by male escorts, male exotic dancers and male prostitutes should be viewed with suspicion				.46
13. Men who are raped while accepting rides from strangers get what they deserve				.46

As shown in Table 5, factor 1 of Section Three contained items that related to minimising the seriousness of male rape and minimising the responsibility of the perpetrator. Hence, this factor was labelled "Significance of Rape". Factor 2 of Section Three contained items that related to the male victim's resistance during rape and perceptions of the male victim's character. Hence, this factor was labelled "Victim Resistance and Character". Factor 3 of Section Three contained items that related to males falsely claiming rape. Hence, this factor was labelled "Rape Claims". Factor 4 of Section Three contained items that related to male victims provoking rape, male victims are to be blamed for the rape occurring and male victims deserving to be raped. Hence, this factor was labelled "Victim Deservedness".

In total, the final version of the RAQ contained a total of 87 items. Section One of the final version of the RAQ contained 19 gender neutral rape myth items. Sections Two and Three of the final version of the RAQ each contained 33 rape myth items related specifically to female rape myths and 33 rape myth items related specifically to female rape myths. Each rape myth item was measured on a six-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." The RAQ also contained an item

based upon Malamuth's (1988) item. The item measured the respondent's tendency to "rape someone if they thought they could get away with it." Responses were recorded on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "not at all likely" to "very likely." Lastly, the RAQ contained a final item that required respondent's to specify "how much the victim's gender influenced their responses" while completed the RAQ. Responses were recorded on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "not important at all" to "extremely important."

Comparison of male and female rape myth factor structures.

The following section compares the factor structures for Section Two and Section Three of the RAQ. This is possible, as each item within Section Three is the male equivalent to the female item in Section Two. Further, the items included in the principal component factor analysis were matched for the Section Two and Section Three analysis.

A review of Section Two and Section Three of the RAQ produced similar results in terms of item quality and factor solutions as can be seen in the tables above. Several items that were considered to be poor items in Section Two were also considered to be poor items in Section Three. A four-factor solution was found to be the most suitable structure for both Section Two and Section Three. As the items within each factor were similar for Section Two and Section Three of the RAQ, the factors were labelled the same in each section. However, the amount of variance accounted for by each of the four factors differed between Sections Two and Three.

Table 6

Variance accounted for by each factor (%)

	Significance of Rape	Rape Claims	Victim Deservedness	Victim Resistance & Character
Section Two (female subject)	39.74	5.63	4.32	3.58
Section Three (male subject)	36.78	4.73	4.14	5.56

As can be seen in Table 6, the “Significance of Rape” factor and the “Victim Resistance and Character” factor accounted for most and least, respectively, of the total variance in Section Two. In contrast, although “Significance of Rape” was also the strongest factor in Section Three, “Victim Deservedness” accounted for the least amount of total variance. Although there was a large amount of similarity between the grouping of RAQ items, a closer inspection of the items revealed minor differences between the factor structure of Section Two and Section Three of the RAQ. The only item not to load significantly onto any factor was item 32 from Section Three. No item within Section Two failed to load significantly onto any factor, however item 32 was the item with the lowest significant factor loading for Section Two of the RAQ.

Ten items were contained within the “Significance of Rape” factor for both Section Two and Section Three of the RAQ. Of those ten items, seven items were common to both Sections Two and Three of the RAQ. Items that loaded significantly onto the “Significance of Rape” factor for Section Three, but not for Section Two (i.e., items 11, 35 and 26) could be related theoretically to the “Significance of Rape” factor or to the “Rape Claims” factor. Interestingly, such items within Section Three also loaded significantly onto the “Rape Claims” factor, however not as significantly as they did for the “Significance of Rape” factor. Items that loaded significantly onto the “Significance of Rape” factor for Section Two but not for Section Three (i.e., items 37 and 40) could be related theoretically to the “Significance of Rape” factor or to the “Victim Resistance and Character” factor. However, item 19 loaded significantly onto the “Significance of Rape” factor for Section Two of the RAQ. This item appeared to be more theoretically related to the “Victim Deservedness” factor, as seen in Section Three of the RAQ.

Eight items were contained within the “Rape Claims” factor of Section Two in comparison to a total of four items within Section Three. All four items within Section Three of the RAQ were found to match the items within the “Rape Claims” factor of Section Two. Items that loaded significantly onto the “Rape Claims” factor for Section Two but not for Section Three (i.e., items 11, 26, 32 and 35) could be related theoretically to the “Significance of Rape” factor or to the “Rape Claims” factor. Interestingly, these items within Section Three loaded significantly onto the “Significance of Rape” factor rather than the “Rape Claims” factor, however the loadings were highest for the “Significance of Rape” factor. Similarly, item 35 within

Section Two of the RAQ also loaded significantly onto both the “Significance of Rape” and the “Rape Claims” factors. Thus, there appears to be theoretical overlap between the “Rape Claims” factor and the “Significance of Rape” factor.

Nine items were contained within the “Victim Deservedness” factor for Section Two of the RAQ in comparison to eight items within Section Three. Of these eight items within Section Three of the RAQ, six also loaded on the “Victim Deservedness” factor for Section Two (i.e., items 13, 14, 16, 18, 22 and 23). Items, that loaded significantly onto the “Victim Deservedness” factor for Section Two of the RAQ, but not for Section Three (i.e., items 7, 8 and 29), could be related theoretically to the “Victim Deservedness” factor or to the “Victim Resistance or Character” factor. One item (item 40) that loaded significantly onto the “Victim Deservedness” factor for Section Three, but not for Section Two, appeared to be flexible, in that, it could have been theoretically related to the “Victim Deservedness” factor or to the “Victim Resistance or Character” factor. The other item that loaded significantly onto the “Victim Deservedness” factor for Section Three but not for Section Two (item 19) appeared to be theoretically related to the “Victim Deservedness” factor, however this was not seen in Section Three of the RAQ.

In terms of item matching, the “Victim Resistance and Character” factor displayed the largest amount of variability between Section Two and Section Three of the RAQ. Ten items were contained within the “Victim Resistance and Character” factor for Section Three of the RAQ in comparison to a total of six items within Section Two. All of the six items within Section Two of the RAQ were found to match the items within the “Victim Resistance and Character” factor for Section Three. Items that loaded significantly onto the “Victim Resistance and Character” factor for Section Three of the RAQ (i.e., items 7, 8 and 29), but not for Section Two appeared to be flexible, in that, they could have been theoretically related to the “Victim Deservedness” factor or to the “Victim Resistance or Character” factor. Interestingly, item 7 of Section Three also loaded significantly onto the “Victim Deservedness” factor as it did in Section Two, however it loaded highest onto the “Victim Resistance and Character” factor for Section Three. However, one item, item 37, that loaded significantly onto the “Victim Resistance and Character” factor for Section Three but not for Section Two could have been theoretically related to the “Significance of Rape” factor, as seen in Section Two, or to the “Victim Resistance or Character” factor.

Although slight differences were noted between the factor structure of Section Two and Section Three of the RAQ, overall, the structures are similar in terms of item quality, the number of items accepted in both factor solutions, and the nature of the factors.

Reliability and validity of the RAQ

In order to gain further evidence for the usefulness of the RAQ in assessing individual's attitudes toward rape, the psychometric properties of the RAQ were explored and are presented in the following sections.

Reliability.

Several statistical analyses were conducted to gain an estimate of the reliability of the RAQ. In particular, split-sample reliability of the RAQ factor structure was explored and the internal reliability coefficient for the RAQ and its factors were calculated.

Split-sample reliability was established using a randomly selected 50% of the sample. Split-sample reliability was examined in order to confirm the stability of the factor structure of the RAQ within the current sample. Almost identical factor structures were obtained for all sections of the RAQ.

Split-sample reliability.

In regards to Section One of the RAQ, the split-sample ($n = 260$) produced an identical factor structure to the full sample solution, with all items loading significantly onto the same factors although in a different order. Table 7 compares the factor structure of both samples for Section One of the RAQ.

Table 7

Split-sample factor loadings of RAQ Section One

RAQ Item	Rape Dynamics & Perceptions	Rape Likelihood
24. Marital rape is not possible because a man has rights to sex in marriage	.85	
18. If a person is in a current relationship with the accused, you wouldn't really call it rape	.79	
7. In a committed relationship, if a partner requests sex, you have an obligation to agree	.67	
21. Females cannot be guilty of rape	.63	
25. A rapist must perpetrate or threaten physical violence towards the victim in order for the act to be considered rape	.61	
15. Only a homosexual man would rape another man	.57	.44
22. Males rape other males only in all-male institutionalised settings	.57	
2. Females cannot rape other women	.56	
19. A report of rape several days after the act is probably a false report	.53	
9. If a person appeared controlled and calm the day after the rape, it probably isn't true	.49	
10. Outside all male settings, the rape of men is too rare to be worth worrying about	.41	
20. Rape is unlikely to happen to any male I know		.75
3. I am unlikely to be raped in my lifetime		.75
14. Rape is unlikely to happen to any female I know		.74
16. I am less likely to be raped in comparison to others of my age and gender		.67
5. Most rapes would occur when the victim has engaged in risky behaviours		.50
11. People are usually raped by someone they don't know		.45

As can be seen in Table 7, the split-sample principal component factor analysis produced similar factor loadings for the full sample two-factor solution. This finding suggests that the factor structure of Section One of the RAQ is consistent within the current sample.

In regards to Section Two of the RAQ, items 5, 26, and 35 in the half-sample ($n = 269$) loaded significantly onto a different factor when compared to the full sample. However, two of those three items within the half-sample also loaded significantly onto the factor that they did for the full sample, although not as significantly. Table 8 compares the factor structure of both samples for Section Two of the RAQ.

Table 8

Split-sample factor loadings of RAQ Section Two

RAQ Item	Victim Deservedness	Significance of Rape	Rape Claims	Victim Resistance & Character
22. Women who wear revealing or provocative clothing are inviting rape	.77			
23. Women often put themselves into situations in which they are likely to be raped	.69			
16. A woman who goes out alone at night puts herself in a position to be raped	.64			
29. A woman who goes to the home of a partner on their first date implies that she is willing to have sex	.59			
7. Female victims who provoke rape by their appearance or behaviour are responsible for the act	.55			
8. Intoxicated women are usually willing to have sexual relations	.53		.41	
14. If a woman is raped while drunk she is somewhat responsible	.52			
26. If a woman is intoxicated by alcohol or drugs during the alleged rape, there is a good chance that she consented at the time*	.50		.41	
13. Women who are raped while accepting rides from strangers get what they deserve	.50			
18. Accusations of rape by female escorts, female exotic dancers and female prostitutes should be viewed with suspicion	.44			
27. Women are to blame for rape if the accused becomes so aroused that it leads to a loss of control		.65		
34. If she can't remember the rape (e.g., because she was asleep, unconscious, or intoxicated by alcohol or drugs), then no real harm is done		.63		
31. If a woman is heavily intoxicated by alcohol or drugs and does not resist it is ok to have sex with them		.63		
33. A rape probably didn't occur if the female victim has no visible physical injury		.60		
36. If a woman only says "no" but does not physically resist, it is still ok to have sex with her as long as you don't hurt her		.59		

Table 8 continued

Split-sample factor loadings of RAQ Section Two

RAQ Item	Victim Deservedness	Significance of Rape	Rape Claims	Victim Resistance & Character
40. When a woman is very sexually aroused, she could be excused for not noticing that the other person is resisting sex		.55		
39. If a woman says no but her body language is telling you something different it is ok to have sex with her		.50		
35. Some women enjoy being raped*		.46	.43	
19. A female victim should blame herself for rape		.41		
28. Female victims tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them		.40		
37. Female rape only really occurs when a rapist has a weapon, or if there is a number of attackers				
10. Women who feel guilty or regret having had sex are likely to falsely claim rape			.75	
4. Women often claim rape to protect their reputations			.72	
17. Many women claim rape if they have consented to sex but have changed their mind afterwards	.41		.67	
21. Many women who report rape are lying because they are angry or want revenge on the accused			.61	
5. In the majority of rape cases, the female victim is promiscuous or has a poor moral character*			.48	
32. When females rape it is due to their overwhelming, unfulfilled sexual desire			.46	
11. Most women secretly or unconsciously desire to be raped			.45	
2. The extent of a female victim's resistance should determine if a rape has occurred				.67
20. A healthy woman can successfully resist a single rapist if she really tries				.62
15. If a female doesn't physically resist sex, even when protesting verbally, it really can't be considered rape				.62
1. A raped woman is a less desirable woman				.62
30. If the female 'victim' doesn't perceive it as rape herself, then surely it can't be rape				.36

As can be seen in Table 8, the split half-sample principal component factor analysis produced similar factor loadings for the full sample four-factor solution. Although the ordering of the factors were different between the samples, with “Victim Deservedness” accounting for the most variance in the half-sample factor structure in comparison to “Significance of Rape” in the full sample factor structure. However, it appears that, overall, the factor structure of Section Two of the RAQ is relatively consistent within the current sample.

In regards to Section Three of the RAQ, items 21, 26, and 29 in the half-sample ($n = 253$) loaded significantly onto a different factor when compared to the full sample. However, two of those three items within the half-sample also loaded significantly onto the factor that they did for the full sample, although not as significantly. Table 9 compares the factor structure of both samples for Section Three of the RAQ.

Table 9

Split-sample factor loadings of RAQ Section Three

RAQ Item	Significance of Rape	Victim Resistance & Character	Victim Deservedness	Rape Claims
34. If he can't remember the rape (e.g., because he was asleep, unconscious, or intoxicated by alcohol or drugs), then no real harm is done	.80			
36. If a man only says “no” but does not physically resist, it is still ok to have sex with him as long as you don't hurt him	.76			
31. If a man is heavily intoxicated by alcohol or drugs and does not resist it is ok to have sex with them	.74	.40		
39. If a man says no but his body language is telling you something different it is ok to have sex with him	.72	.41		
28. Male victims tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them	.64			
35. Some men enjoy being raped	.53	.44		
11. Most men secretly or unconsciously desire to be raped	.52			.43
27. Men are to blame for rape if the accused becomes so aroused that it leads to a loss of control	.52			
33. A rape probably didn't occur if the male victim has no visible physical injury				

Table 9 continued

Split-sample factor loadings of RAQ Section Three

RAQ Item	Significance of Rape	Victim Resistance & Character	Victim Deservedness	Rape Claims
2. The extent of a male victim's resistance should determine if a rape has occurred		.64		
15. If a male doesn't physically resist sex, even when protesting verbally, it really can't be considered rape	.50	.63		
37. Male rape only really occurs when a rapist has a weapon, or if there is a number of attackers		.61		
20. A healthy man can successfully resist a single rapist if he really tries		.60		
5. In the majority of rape cases, the male victim is promiscuous or has a poor moral character		.58		
7. Male victims who provoke rape by their appearance or behaviour are responsible for the act		.58		
1. A raped man is a less desirable man		.56		
26. If a woman is intoxicated by alcohol or drugs during the alleged rape, there is a good chance that she consented at the time*	.47	.52		
30. If the male 'victim' doesn't perceive it as rape himself, then surely it can't be rape	.41	.47		
8. Intoxicated men are usually willing to have sexual relations		.45		
32. When males rape it is due to their overwhelming, unfulfilled sexual desire	.42	.43		
22. Men who wear revealing or provocative clothing are inviting rape			.76	
16. A man who goes out alone at night puts himself in a position to be raped			.64	
23. Men often put themselves into situations in which they are likely to be raped			.58	
19. A male victim should blame himself for rape			.54	
13. Men who are raped while accepting rides from strangers get what they deserve			.53	
14. If a man is raped while drunk he is somewhat responsible		.45	.53	
21. Many men who report rape are lying because they are angry or want revenge on the accused*			.48	.44
40. When a man is very sexually aroused, he could be excused for not noticing that the other person is resisting sex	.42		.43	

Table 9 continued

Split-sample factor loadings of RAQ Section Three

RAQ Item	Significance of Rape	Victim Resistance & Character	Victim Deservedness	Rape Claims
18. Accusations of rape by male escorts, male exotic dancers and male prostitutes should be viewed with suspicion			.41	
29. A man who goes to the home of a partner on their first date implies that he is willing to have sex*				
17. Many men claim rape if they have consented to sex but have changed their mind afterwards				.79
10. Men who feel guilty or regret having had sex are likely to falsely claim rape				.75
4. Men often claim rape to protect their reputations				.71

As can be seen in Table 9, the half-sample principal component factor analysis produced similar factor loadings for the full sample four-factor solution. Although the ordering of the factors were different between the samples, with the order of the last two factors “Rape Claims” and “Victim Deservedness” reversed for the half-sample when compared to the full sample factor structure. However, it appears that, overall, the factor structure of Section Three of the RAQ is relatively consistent within the current sample.

Internal reliability.

Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was calculated in order to estimate the internal consistency or scale reliability for each section and factor of the RAQ. These calculations were performed using the raw item scores of each section and factor, each of which fell into the range of 1 to 6. Examination of the item to total correlation statistic for all items within each section supported the removal of those items prior to the principal component analysis that were considered to be poor due to having weak correlations with the majority of the other items.

The standardised alpha coefficient for the remaining 17 items of Section One of the RAQ was .84 with corrected item to total correlations ranging from .31 to .60. Furthermore, the standardised alpha coefficient for the Section One “Rape Dynamics and Perceptions” factor was .80 and the “Rape Likelihood” factor was .78. These

findings suggest that Section One of the RAQ and its factors are internally consistent, especially the “Rape Dynamics and Perceptions” and “Rape Likelihood” factors.

The standardised alpha coefficient for the remaining 33 items of Section Two of the RAQ was .95 with corrected item to total correlations ranging from .35 to .71. Furthermore, the standardised alpha coefficient for the “Significance of Rape,” “Rape Claims,” “Victim Deservedness”, and “Victim Resistance and Character” factors of Section Two were .88, .88, .86, and .76, respectively. These findings suggest that Section Two of the RAQ, and its factors, display a high level of internal consistency.

The standardised alpha coefficient for the remaining 33 items of Section Three of the RAQ was .94 with corrected item to total correlations ranging from .27 to .71. Furthermore, the standardised alpha coefficient for the “Significance of Rape,” “Victim Resistance and Character,” “Rape Claims”, and “Victim Deservedness” factors of Section Three were .89, .82, .80, and .78, respectively. These findings suggest that Section Three of the RAQ, and its factors, also display a high level of internal consistency.

Based upon the reliability estimates produced and described above, the RAQ appears to be a reliable measure of assessing individual’s attitudes toward rape. All three sections of the RAQ, and their factors, produced similar sound levels of internal consistency.

Validity.

Further analyses were conducted to gain an estimate of the validity of the RAQ. In particular, face validity and convergent validity were examined and are described below.

Face validity.

Perusal of the RAQ items by the researching team concluded that the RAQ appeared to have high face validity. That is, in light of pre-existing rape myth measures, the RAQ appears to be a measure of individual’s attitudes toward rape and rape related issues.

Convergent validity.

Moreover, convergent validity or concurrent validity of the RAQ was assessed by examining the Pearson correlation coefficients between the factors of Section One of the RAQ and the factors of Section Two and Section Three of the RAQ. These calculations were performed using the mean scores of each factor, each of which fell into the range of 1 to 6. The correlation coefficients between the factors of the RAQ are displayed in Table 10. The factor titles that end in “2” are factors from Section Two of the RAQ and factor titles that end in “3” are factors from Section Three of the RAQ.

Table 10

Correlations between Section One, Two and Three factors

	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.
1. Rape Dynamics & Perceptions	.49*	.62*	.59*	.55*	.63*	.56*	.64*	.41*	.47*
2. Rape Likelihood		.27*	.40*	.37*	.43*	.34*	.52*	.32*	.29*
3. Significance of Rape 2			.73*	.68*	.71*	.73*	.62*	.39*	.64*
4. Rape Claims 2				.73*	.72*	.74*	.68*	.61*	.63*
5. Victim Deservedness 2					.66*	.65*	.71*	.47*	.71*
6. Victim Resistance & Character 2						.66*	.74*	.44*	.56*
7. Significance of Rape 3							.76*	.62*	.68*
8. Victim Resistance & Character 3								.55*	.63*
9. Rape Claims 3									.55*
10. Victim Deservedness 3									

* $p < .001$.

As can be seen in Table 9, the factors of Section One are significantly positively correlated to the factors of Section Two and Section Three of the RAQ. The strength of these correlations appears to range from moderate to high (Cohen, 1988), with correlations ranging from .27 to .76. These findings suggest that Section Two and Section Three of the RAQ are measuring a similar construct to Section One, that is, attitudes toward rape and rape related issues.

Section Summary

Overall, based upon the estimates described above, the RAQ appears to be a reliable and valid measure. There seems to be similarities between Section Two and Section Three of the RAQ, in terms of item quality and underlying factor structure. Section One of the RAQ contained two factors labelled “Rape Dynamics and Perceptions” and “Rape Likelihood.” Section Two of the RAQ contained four factors labelled “Significance of Rape,” “Rape Claims,” “Victim Deservedness” and “Victim Resistance and Character”. Similarly, Section Three of the RAQ contained four factors labelled “Significance of Rape,” “Victim Resistance and Character,” “Rape Claims”, and “Victim Deservedness”. In sum, there appears to be support for the use of the RAQ to assess individual’s attitudes toward rape and rape related issues.

Section 3. Rape Attitudinal Questionnaire outcomes

This section of the results examines the outcomes of the “Rape Attitudinal Questionnaire” (RAQ). In particular, the following section reports the rape myth endorsement levels of the current sample, as measured by the RAQ, compares Section Two and Section Three outcomes, and also examines the rape myth endorsement level differences between demographic groups.

Rape myth endorsement levels.

The following section outlines participants’ rape myth endorsement levels as measured by the RAQ. A comparison is also made between Section Two and Section Three of the RAQ, that is, a comparison between rape myths that relate to female rape (Section Two) and rape myths that relate to male rape (Section Three).

Firstly, participants reported how much empathy they felt for male and female rape victims, male and females accused of rape, and male and female convicted rapists. Results ranged from “no empathy” to “extreme empathy” with high scores indicating “extreme empathy.” Participants felt more empathy for rape victims ($M = 4.73$, $SD = .56$) than they did for people accused of rape ($M = 2.45$, $SD = .84$), with convicted rapists receiving the least empathy ($M = 1.76$, $SD = .87$). A within-subjects ANOVA revealed that these differences in the mean level of empathy for each category were

significant, $F(1.76, 973.92) = 2777.23, p < .01, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.83$. A Greenhouse-Geisser ϵ adjustment was implemented, as recommended when Mauchly's test of sphericity is significant, (Francis, 2001) and the effect size suggests that the significant difference is large (Brace et al., 2003; Cohen, 1988). It is clear that participants felt significantly more empathy for rape victims than they did for those accused of rape or convicted rapists, however participants also felt more empathy for those accused of rape than they did for convicted rapists, $F(1, 552) = 419.96, p < .01, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.43$. Interestingly, a series of Bonferroni alpha adjusted paired samples t-tests revealed that there were significant differences between the levels of empathy participants felt when each category was split by gender. Based upon Cohen's (1988) classification, these differences yielded small to medium effect sizes. That is, participants felt less empathy for male victims of rape ($M = 4.70, SD = .64$) in comparison to female victims of rape ($M = 4.76, SD = .56$), $t(555) = 3.75, p < .01, d = 0.18$. Further, participants felt less empathy for males accused of rape ($M = 2.40, SD = .89$) in comparison to females accused of rape ($M = 2.49, SD = .84$), $t(552) = 5.28, p < .01, d = 0.30$. Participants also felt less empathy for male rapists ($M = 1.69, SD = .89$) in comparison to female rapists ($M = 1.83, SD = .93$), $t(553) = 6.34, p < .01, d = 0.37$.

Section One.

Section One of the RAQ contained items that related to general rape myths and victims perceived likelihood of rape occurring. Item raw scores within Section One of the RAQ ranged from one to six, with scores closest to one indicating the endorsement of rape myths or rape supportive attitudes. The mean scores and standard deviations of each item within Section One of the RAQ are summarised in Table 11.

As can be seen in Table 11, the majority of participants within the current sample did not endorse rape myths or rape supportive attitudes. As discussed earlier, a principal component factor analysis revealed that a two-factor solution best described Section One items of the RAQ. These factors were labelled "Rape Dynamics and Perceptions" ($M = 5.59, SD = 0.50$) and "Rape Likelihood" ($M = 4.80, SD = 0.90$). These mean factor scores suggest that participants tended not to endorse rape myth items within the "Rape Dynamics and Perceptions" factor. However, participants did not as strongly reject items within the "Rape Likelihood" factor. A repeated measure

t-test revealed that there was a large significant difference in the level of endorsement between the two Section One RAQ factors, $t(540) = 23.21, p < .01, d = 1.31$.

Table 11

Mean scores and standard deviations of Section One items

	Mean Score	Standard Deviation
1. It is not considered rape if two people have previously had consensual sex in the past	5.76	.75
2. Females cannot rape other women ¹	5.67	.81
3. I am unlikely to be raped in my lifetime ²	4.31	1.61
4. Rapists are treated too harshly	5.50	1.05
5. Most rapes would occur when the victim has engaged in risky behaviours ²	5.02	1.15
6. If I really wanted to, I would have sex with someone against their will if I knew I wasn't going to get caught	5.83	.72
7. In a committed relationship, if a partner requests sex, you have an obligation to agree ¹	5.49	.96
8. Perpetrators, not victims are responsible for rape ^R	5.26	1.53
9. If a person appeared controlled and calm the day after the rape, it probably isn't true ¹	5.58	1.53
10. Outside all male settings, the rape of men is too rare to be worth worrying about ¹	5.45	.99
11. People are usually raped by someone they don't know ²	5.09	1.00
12. Rapists should receive opportunities for rehabilitation	2.60	1.43
13. Victims of rape rarely report the crime ^R	4.58	1.16
14. Rape is unlikely to happen to any female I know ²	5.21	1.08
15. Only a homosexual man would rape another man ¹	5.36	1.03
16. I am less likely to be raped in comparison to others of my age and gender ²	4.59	1.39
17. As long as I didn't hurt the person, it would be ok for me to have sex with them against their will	5.92	.41
18. If a person is in a current relationship with the accused, you wouldn't really call it rape ¹	5.66	.74
19. A report of rape several days after the act is probably a false report ¹	5.79	.60
20. Rape is unlikely to happen to any male I know ²	4.55	1.49
21. Females cannot be guilty of rape ¹	5.57	.86
22. Males rape other males only in all-male institutionalised settings ¹	5.44	.91
23. A prostitute can be raped ^R	5.26	1.57
24. Marital rape is not possible because a man has rights to sex in marriage ¹	5.82	.62
25. A rapist must perpetrate or threaten physical violence towards the victim in order for the act to be considered rape ¹	5.47	1.09

1 = items that loaded onto Factor 1: "Rape Dynamics and Perceptions"

2 = items that loaded onto Factor 2: "Rape Likelihood"

R = reversed item

A closer inspection of each item within Section One of the RAQ revealed that some rape myth items were endorsed by a higher percentage of the sample. That is, 8.39% ($n = 47$) of the sample reported that they “strongly disagree” and 3.04% ($n = 17$) of the sample reported that they “disagree” that “*perpetrators, not victims are responsible for rape.*” Also, 2.14% ($n = 12$) of the sample reported that they “strongly disagree” and 4.11% ($n = 23$) of the sample reported that they “disagree” that “*victims of rape rarely report the crime.*” Finally, 10.36% ($n = 58$) of the sample reported that they “strongly disagree” and 1.07% ($n = 6$) of the sample reported that they “disagree” that “*a prostitute can be raped.*” However it is necessary to note that most of these items were the reversed items, items 8, 13 and 23. The only item in which more than 5% of the sample reported that they “strongly agree” or “agree” with that was not reversed was item 12. That is, 23.93% ($n = 134$) of the sample reported that they “strongly agree” and 31.61% ($n = 177$) of the sample reported that they “agree” that “*rapists should receive opportunities for rehabilitation.*”

It was also of interest to examine items that specifically referred to participants expected likelihood to be raped or likelihood of rape occurring to others. The means of these items indicated that participants believed that females they knew were significantly more likely to be raped in comparison to males they knew, $t(552) = 11.97$, $p < .01$, $d = 0.85$. Moreover, 0.54% ($n = 3$) of the sample reported that they “strongly agree” and 1.79% ($n = 10$) of the sample reported that they “agree” that “*rape is unlikely to happen to any female I know.*” Whereas, 3.21% ($n = 18$) of the sample reported that they “strongly agree” and 9.64% ($n = 54$) of the sample reported that they “agree” that “*rape is unlikely to happen to any male I know.*” In regards to participants themselves, 6.61% ($n = 37$) of the sample reported that they “strongly agree” and 10.18% ($n = 57$) of the sample reported that they “agree” that “*I am unlikely to be raped in my lifetime.*” Also, 2.68% ($n = 15$) of the sample reported that they “strongly agree” and 5.18% ($n = 29$) of the sample reported that they “agree” that “*I am less likely to be raped in comparison to others of my age and gender.*”

The final item within Section One of the RAQ asked participants “*how likely is it that you would rape someone if you thought you could get away with it?*” Low scores indicate a lower likelihood, with raw scores ranging from one to five. Results revealed that the majority of the sample were not likely to rape someone even if they thought they could get away with it ($M = 1.24$, $SD = 0.89$). However, 4.64% ($n = 26$) of the

sample reported that they were “very likely” and 0.71% ($n = 4$) of the sample reported that they were “likely” to rape someone if they thought they could get away with it. A similar item within Section One of the RAQ also assessed participants’ likelihood of raping someone, however instead of using the term rape, the phrase “*have sex with someone against their will*” was substituted. It was found that 1.43% ($n = 8$) of the sample reported that they “strongly agree” and 0.18% ($n = 1$) of the sample reported that they “agree” that “*if I really wanted to, I would have sex with someone against their will if I knew I wasn’t going to get caught.*” Furthermore, 0.36% ($n = 2$) of the sample reported that they “strongly agree” and 0.18% ($n = 1$) of the sample reported that they “agree” that “*as long as I didn’t hurt the person, it would be ok for me to have sex with them against their will.*” Therefore, there continues to be a small proportion of the population that when they perceive no risk of detection is prepared to rape somebody.

Section Two and Three.

For the current purposes, the section of the RAQ that contained rape myth items related to females is referred to as Section Two, whereas the section of the RAQ that contained rape myth items related to males is referred to as Section Three. The items within Section Two and Three were identical, however the gender of the person in question was changed. Raw item scores within each section ranged from one to six with scores closest to one indicating the endorsement of rape myths or rape supportive attitudes.

As seen in Table 10 in the previous section, factors within each section of the RAQ were significantly positively correlated with one another. That is, participants who scored highly on one factor were likely to also score highly on other factors within that section of the RAQ. Moreover, participants who scored highly on factors within one section of the RAQ were likely to score highly on the factors from the other section of the RAQ. That is, participants who endorsed rape myths related to females were also likely to endorse rape myths related to males. The mean scores and standard deviations of each item within Section One and Section Two of the RAQ are summarised in Table 12 below. As items within these sections were considered comparable, a paired samples Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was implemented to determine if there were any significant differences between each of the 40-paired items. A Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was deemed more suitable than a paired samples t-test, as it is considered to be a more conservative test and does not make

any assumptions regarding the underlying distributions (Field, 2002; Francis, 2001). Furthermore, as 40 paired items were analysed, the alpha level was adjusted to avoid incurring a high family-wise error rate. Therefore, the alpha level was altered from .05 to .001 using the Bonferonni adjustment.

Table 12

Mean scores, standard deviations and significant differences between Section One and Section Two RAQ items

	Section Two		Section Three		Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test
	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	
1. A raped woman/man is a less desirable woman/man VRC2 VRC3	5.42	1.06	5.37	1.10	$Z = 1.41, p = .158$
2. The extent of a female/male victim's resistance should determine if a rape has occurred VRC2 VRC3	5.65	.82	5.60	.90	$Z = 1.88, p = .061$
3. A raped woman/man is usually an innocent victim R	5.06	1.43	4.81	1.61	$Z = 3.17, p = .002$
4. Women/Men often claim rape to protect their reputations RC2 RC3	5.17	1.06	5.30	1.01	$Z = 2.42, p = .015$
5. In the majority of rape cases, the female/male victim is promiscuous or has a poor moral character VRC2 VRC3	5.59	.84	5.53	.85	$Z = 1.85, p = .001$
6. Women/Men who have had prior sexual relationships should not complain about rape	5.89	.43	5.81	.57	$Z = 3.90, p < .001^*$
7. Female/Male victims who provoke rape by their appearance or behaviour are responsible for the act VD2 VRC3	5.69	.74	5.73	.61	$Z = 1.21, p = .227$
8. Intoxicated women/ men are usually willing to have sexual relations VD2 VRC3	4.98	1.20	4.29	1.58	$Z = 10.82, p < .001^*$
9. It would do some women/ men good to be raped	5.88	.62	5.72	.86	$Z = 5.02, p < .001^*$
10. Women/Men who feel guilty or regret having had sex are likely to falsely claim rape RC2 RC3	5.09	1.15	5.31	.99	$Z = 4.71, p < .001^*$

Table 12 continued

Mean scores, standard deviations and significant differences between Section One and Section Two RAQ items

	Section Two		Section Three		Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test
	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	
11. Most women/men secretly or unconsciously desire to be raped ^{RC2 SoR3}	5.72	.74	5.62	.80	Z = 3.97, p < .001*
12. Any female/male may be raped ^R	5.18	1.62	4.88	1.67	Z = 5.00, p < .001*
13. Women/Men who are raped while accepting rides from strangers get what they deserve ^{VD2 VD3}	5.68	.76	5.75	.65	Z = 3.34, p = .001
14. If a woman/man is raped while drunk she/he is somewhat responsible ^{VD2 VD3}	5.61	.87	5.66	.75	Z = 1.71, p = .086
15. If a female/male doesn't physically resist sex, even when protesting verbally, it really can't be considered rape ^{VRC2 VRC3}	5.76	.66	5.73	.66	Z = 2.03, p = .042
16. A woman/man who goes out alone at night puts herself/himself in a position to be raped ^{VD2 VD3}	5.06	1.30	5.50	.95	Z = 8.64, p < .001*
17. Many women/men claim rape if they have consented to sex but have changed their mind afterwards ^{RC2 RC3}	5.07	1.10	5.38	.87	Z = 7.02, p < .001*
18. Accusations of rape by female/male escorts, female/male exotic dancers and female/male prostitutes should be viewed with suspicion ^{VD2 VD3}	5.54	.85	5.45	.95	Z = 3.16, p = .002
19. A female/male victim should blame herself/himself for rape ^{SoR2 VD3}	5.89	.54	5.80	.77	Z = 2.91, p = .004
20. A healthy woman/ man can successfully resist a single rapist if she/he really tries ^{VRC2 VRC3}	5.58	.82	5.22	1.12	Z = 8.96, p < .001*
21. Many women/men who report rape are lying because they are angry or want revenge on the accused ^{RC2 RC3}	5.49	.87	5.55	.75	Z = 1.62, p = .104

Table 12 continued

Mean scores, standard deviations and significant differences between Section One and Section Two RAQ items

	Section Two		Section Three		Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test
	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	
22. Women/Men who wear revealing or provocative clothing are inviting rape VD2 VD3	5.53	.86	5.65	.73	$Z = 4.21, p < .001^*$
23. Women/Men often put themselves into situations in which they are likely to be raped VD2 VD3	5.23	1.05	5.55	.78	$Z = 7.54, p < .001^*$
24. Even sexually experienced women/men are damaged by rape ^R	5.41	1.42	5.26	1.48	$Z = 2.57, p = .010$
25. In most cases, when a woman/man was raped she/he deserved it	5.91	.42	5.88	.45	$Z = 2.04, p = .041$
26. If a woman/man is intoxicated by alcohol or drugs during the alleged rape, there is a good chance that she/he consented at the time ^{RC2} SoR3	5.43	.91	5.35	.99	$Z = 2.78, p = .006$
27. Women/Men are to blame for rape if the accused becomes so aroused that it leads to a loss of control SoR2 SoR3	5.83	.51	5.65	.83	$Z = 5.45, p < .001^*$
28. Female/Male victims tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them ^{SoR2 SoR3}	5.74	.65	5.62	.80	$Z = 4.30, p < .001^*$
29. A woman/man who goes to the home of a partner on their first date implies that she/he is willing to have sex ^{VD2}	5.34	1.07	5.23	1.23	$Z = 3.47, p = .001$
30. If the female/male 'victim' doesn't perceive it as rape herself, then surely it can't be rape ^{VRC2 VRC3}	5.05	1.23	5.01	1.26	$Z = 1.87, p = .062$
31. If a woman/man is heavily intoxicated by alcohol or drugs and does not resist it is ok to have sex with them SoR2 SoR3	5.70	.71	5.64	.77	$Z = 2.37, p = .018$
32. When females/males rape it is due to their overwhelming, unfulfilled sexual desire ^{RC2 RC3}	5.36	1.05	5.19	1.24	$Z = 4.38, p < .001^*$

Table 12 continued

Mean scores, standard deviations and significant differences between Section One and Section Two RAQ items

	Section Two		Section Three		Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test
	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	
33. A rape probably didn't occur if the female/male victim has no visible physical injury ^{SoR2 SoR3}	5.81	.51	5.76	.52	$Z = 2.44, p = .015$
34. If she/he can't remember the rape (e.g., because she/he was asleep, unconscious, or intoxicated by alcohol or drugs), then no real harm is done ^{SoR2 SoR3}	5.80	.55	5.75	.61	$Z = 3.19, p = .001$
35. Some women/men enjoy being raped ^{RC2 SoR3}	5.60	.86	5.46	.99	$Z = 4.02, p < .001^*$
36. If a woman/man only says "no" but does not physically resist, it is still ok to have sex with her/him as long as you don't hurt her/him ^{SoR2 SoR3}	5.84	.53	5.80	.56	$Z = 2.26, p = .024$
37. Female/Male rape only really occurs when a rapist has a weapon, or if there is a number of attackers ^{SoR2 VRC3}	5.83	.56	5.69	.73	$Z = 4.49, p < .001^*$
38. A woman/man can control her behaviour no matter how aroused she/he is at the time ^R	4.34	1.84	4.46	1.82	$Z = 1.35, p = .177$
39. If a woman/man says no but her/his body language is telling you something different it is ok to have sex with her/him ^{SoR2 SoR3}	5.69	.71	5.64	.78	$Z = 1.97, p = .049$
40. When a woman/man is very sexually aroused, she/he could be excused for not noticing that the other person is resisting sex ^{SoR2 VD3}	5.59	.86	5.62	.90	$Z = 1.17, p = .243$

SoR2 = items that loaded onto Section Two Factor 1: "Significance of Rape"

RC2 = items that loaded onto Section Two Factor 2: "Rape Claims"

VD2 = items that loaded onto Section Two Factor 3: "Victim Deservedness"

VRC2 = items that loaded onto Section Two Factor 4: "Victim Resistance & Character"

SoR3 = items that loaded onto Section Three Factor 1: "Significance of Rape"

VRC3 = items that loaded onto Section Three Factor 2: "Victim Resistance & Character"

RC3 = items that loaded onto Section Three Factor 3: "Rape Claims"

VD3 = items that loaded onto Section Three Factor 4: "Victim Deservedness"

R = reversed item

* significant difference as $p < .001$ (Bonferonni adjusted alpha)

As can be seen in Table 12, the majority of participants within the current sample did not endorse rape myths or rape supportive attitudes. However, a comparison between rape myth items within Section Two and Section Three of the RAQ revealed that, on average, the majority of the differences between each item pair were in a negative direction. That is, most of the rape myths regarding males (Section Three of the RAQ) were endorsed to a greater extent than rape myths regarding females (Section Two of the RAQ), although, the differences between each item pair were not all significantly different at the Bonferonni adjusted alpha level. The majority of the significant item pair differences were also in a negative direction, indicating that rape myths regarding males were endorsed to a greater extent than rape myths regarding females.

An inspection of the significantly different item pairs that indicated greater endorsement of rape myths regarding females than those depicting males (see Table 12) revealed a clear pattern. It is apparent that rape myth items relating to 'victim vulnerability' were endorsed to a significantly greater extent when the rape myth involved a female victim. Furthermore, rape myth items that related to individuals 'falsely claiming that they had been raped' were also endorsed to a greater extent when the rape myth involved a female victim. Similarly, an inspection of item pairs that showed greater endorsement of rape myths regarding males than those depicting females also revealed a clear pattern. Rape myth items that related to victims desiring to be raped' and 'rape not being a serious act' were endorsed to a significantly greater extent when the rape myth involved a male victim.

As discussed earlier, a principal component factor analysis revealed that a four-factor solution best described Section Two items of the RAQ. Another principal component factor analysis similarly revealed that a four-factor solution best described Section Three items of the RAQ. A statistical comparison between the factors of Section Two and Section Three of the RAQ could not be conducted because, even though the factors within each section have similar names, the items that load onto each factor are not identical for the two sections. Therefore, a comparison between each factor within Section Two and Section Three of the RAQ is presented below.

The four factors within Section Two of the RAQ were labelled "Significance of Rape" ($M = 5.77$, $SD = 0.43$), "Rape Claims" ($M = 5.37$, $SD = 0.72$), "Victim Deservedness"

($M = 5.42$, $SD = 0.67$), and “Victim Resistance and Character” ($M = 5.51$, $SD = 0.62$). A within-subjects ANOVA, using the Greenhouse-Geisser ϵ adjustment, revealed that there was a significant difference in the level of endorsement between the four Section Two RAQ factors, $F(2.90, 1498.40) = 133.61$, $p < .01$, $partial \eta^2 = 0.21$. In particular, the within-subjects Simple contrast revealed that the “Significance of Rape” factor mean score was significantly higher than the “Victim Deservedness” factor mean score, $F(1, 517) = 272.41$, $p < .01$, $partial \eta^2 = 0.35$. Further, the “Victim Resistance and Character” factor mean score was significantly higher than the “Victim Deservedness” factor mean score, $F(1, 517) = 18.39$, $p < .01$, $partial \eta^2 = 0.03$. These findings show that the “Significance of Rape” factor mean score was significantly higher than the “Rape Claims” factor mean score and that the “Rape Claims” factor mean score was significantly lower than the “Victim Resistance and Character” factor mean score. However, the within-subjects Simple contrast revealed that the “Rape Claims” factor mean score was not significantly different to the “Victim Deservedness” factor mean score, $F(1, 517) = 2.93$, $p = .09$, $partial \eta^2 = 0.01$. Therefore, participants tended not to endorse rape myth items within the “Significance of Rape” factor although were more accepting of rape myth items within the “Rape Claims” and the “Victim Deservedness” factors.

The four factors within Section Three of the RAQ were labelled “Significance of Rape” ($M = 5.62$, $SD = 0.56$), “Victim Resistance and Character” ($M = 5.34$, $SD = 0.65$), “Rape Claims” ($M = 5.39$, $SD = 0.71$), and “Victim Deservedness” ($M = 5.63$, $SD = 0.51$). A within-subjects ANOVA, using the Greenhouse-Geisser ϵ adjustment, revealed that there was a significant difference in the level of endorsement between the four Section Three RAQ factors, $F(2.53, 1284.97) = 84.31$, $p < .01$, $partial \eta^2 = 0.14$. In particular, the within-subjects Simple contrast revealed that the “Significance of Rape” factor mean score was significantly higher than the “Rape Claims” factor mean score, $F(1, 508) = 89.20$, $p < .01$, $partial \eta^2 = 0.15$. Also, the “Victim Deservedness” factor mean score was significantly higher than the “Rape Claims” factor mean score, $F(1, 508) = 75.72$, $p < .01$, $partial \eta^2 = 0.13$. These results also imply that the “Victim Deservedness” factor mean score was significantly higher than the “Victim Resistance and Character” factor mean score. However the within-subjects Simple contrast revealed that when implementing a conservative alpha level of .01, the “Victim Resistance and Character” factor mean score was not significantly

different from the “Rape Claims” factor mean score, $F(1, 508) = 4.06, p = .04, \text{partial } \eta^2 = 0.01$. This finding also implies that the “Significance of Rape” factor mean score was not significantly different from the “Victim Deservedness” factor mean score. That is, participants tended not to endorse rape myth items within the “Significance of Rape” and the “Victim Deservedness” factors, however, participants were more accepting of rape myth items within the “Rape Claims” and the “Victim Resistance and Character” factors.

An inspection of each item within Section Two and Three of the RAQ revealed that some rape myth items were endorsed by a higher percentage of the sample. Consistent with the above findings, there was greater endorsement of rape myths that related to males than to females. Once again, all of the four reversed items within Section Two and Section Three of the RAQ were strongly endorsed, however there were also several non-reversed items that more than 5% of the sample reported that they endorsed.

In regards to these reverse scored items, 5.00% ($n = 28$) of the sample reported that they “strongly disagree” and 4.29% ($n = 24$) of the sample reported that they “disagree” that *“a raped woman is usually an innocent victim.”* Similarly, 8.04% ($n = 45$) of the sample reported that they “strongly disagree” and 6.61% ($n = 37$) of the sample reported that they “disagree” that *“a raped man is usually an innocent victim.”* In regards to the notion that *“any female may be raped,”* 10.71% ($n = 60$) of the sample reported that they “strongly disagree” and 1.79% ($n = 10$) of the sample reported that they “disagree.” Similarly, 11.07% ($n = 62$) of the sample reported that they “strongly disagree” and 2.86% ($n = 16$) of the sample reported that they “disagree” that *“any male may be raped.”* In terms of the notion that *“even sexually experienced women are damaged by rape,”* 7.68% ($n = 43$) of the sample reported that they “strongly disagree” and 1.43% ($n = 8$) of the sample reported that they “disagree.” Similarly, 8.04% ($n = 45$) of the sample reported that they “strongly disagree” and 2.50% ($n = 14$) of the sample reported that they “disagree” that *“even sexually experienced men are damaged by rape.”* Finally, 13.75% ($n = 77$) of the sample reported that they “strongly disagree” and 8.93% ($n = 50$) of the sample reported that they “disagree” that *“a woman can control her behaviour no matter how aroused she is at the time.”* Similarly, 12.50% ($n = 70$) of the sample reported that they “strongly disagree” and 8.04% ($n = 45$) of the sample reported that they

“disagree” that *“a man can control his behaviour no matter how aroused he is at the time.”*

In regards to Section Two of the RAQ, more than 5% of the sample also reported that they “strongly agree” or “agree” with items 16 and 30. That is, 1.61% ($n = 9$) of the sample reported that they “strongly agree” and 3.75% ($n = 21$) of the sample reported that they “agree” that *“a woman who goes out alone at night puts herself in a position to be raped.”* A further 1.79% ($n = 10$) of the sample reported that they “strongly agree” and 3.75% ($n = 21$) of the sample reported that they “agree” that *“if the female victim does not perceive it as rape herself, then surely it can't be rape.”* In regards to Section Three of the RAQ, more than 5% of the sample reported that they “strongly agree” or “agree” with item 30 and also items 8, 29, and 32. Consistent with responses in Section Two of the RAQ, 1.79% ($n = 10$) of the sample reported that they “strongly agree” and 4.11% ($n = 23$) of the sample reported that they “agree” that *“if the male victim does not perceive it as rape himself, then surely it can't be rape.”* In regards to the notion that *“intoxicated men are usually willing to have sexual relations,”* 5.71% ($n = 32$) of the sample reported that they “strongly agree” and 9.82% ($n = 55$) of the sample reported that they “agree.” A further 1.07% ($n = 6$) of the sample reported that they “strongly agree” and 4.11% ($n = 23$) of the sample reported that they “agree” that *“a man who goes to the home of a partner on their first date implies that he is willing to have sex.”* Finally, 1.25% ($n = 7$) of the sample reported that they “strongly agree” and 3.93% ($n = 22$) of the sample reported that they “agree” that *“when males rape it is due to their overwhelming, unfulfilled sexual desire.”*

The final item of the rape myth sections asked participants to report how much the victim's gender in Section Two or Section Three of the RAQ influenced their responses to the rape myth items. Low scores indicate that the victim's gender was not important. Participant's raw scores ranged from one to five. Results revealed that participants were not influenced by the person's gender within each rape myth item ($M = 1.76$, $SD = 0.98$). Approximately half of the sample ($n = 277$) stated that the victim's gender was “not important at all” when responding to the rape myth items. However, 31.79% ($n = 178$) of the sample reported that the victim's gender was “somewhat important,” 9.11% ($n = 51$) of the sample reported that the victim's gender was “important”, and 4.29% ($n = 24$) of the sample reported that the victim's gender

was “very important” when responding to the rape myth items. In total, 2.68% ($n = 15$) of the sample reported that the victim’s gender was “extremely important” when responding to the rape myth items. These findings are consistent with the differences noted between each paired rape myth item.

In summary, the majority of the current sample did not endorse rape myth items as measured by the RAQ. Furthermore, the majority of the current sample answered in a similar fashion to most rape myth item pairs. However, overall, rape myths regarding males were endorsed to a greater extent than rape myths regarding females. Although differences were noted between the endorsement levels of the Section Two and Section Three factors of the RAQ, participants generally tended not to endorse rape myth items within the “Significance of Rape” factor however, were more accepting of rape myth items within the “Rape Claims” factor.

Rape myth endorsement levels and demographic variables.

The following section further examines rape myth endorsement levels, as measured by the RAQ factors. In particular, the following section compares the RAQ rape myth endorsement levels between different demographic groups within the current sample.

Rape myth endorsement levels and gender.

A series of independent samples t-tests were used to examine whether the mean level of endorsement for the different RAQ rape myth factors differed as a function of gender. Given the number of comparisons to be conducted, a Bonferroni adjustment was applied to arrive at the more conservative alpha level of .005.

In regards to the Section One factors of the RAQ, an independent samples t-test revealed that there was a significant difference between gender for the “Rape Dynamics and Perceptions” factor, $t(159.95) = 3.26, p < .00, d = 0.26$. Although only a small effect size, it is evident that males ($M = 5.44, SD = 0.53$) are significantly more likely than females ($M = 5.62, SD = 0.49$) to endorse rape myths about the presentation of the victim after the rape, the relationship dynamics involved in rape, and general perceptions of rape. Further, there was a large significant difference between gender for the “Rape Likelihood” factor, $t(149.74) = 6.88, p < .00, d = 0.76$. That is, female participants ($M = 4.94, SD = 0.82$) are significantly more likely than

males ($M = 4.24$, $SD = 0.99$) to believe that they themselves or others are likely to experience rape.

In regards to the Section Two factors of the RAQ, there was a small to moderate significant difference between gender for the “Significance of Rape” factor, $t(130.61) = 4.07$, $p < .00$, $d = 0.37$. Thus, male participants ($M = 5.58$, $SD = 0.58$) were significantly more likely than females ($M = 5.82$, $SD = 0.37$) to endorse rape myths related to minimising the seriousness of female rape and minimising the responsibility of the perpetrator. There was a moderate significant difference between gender for the “Rape Claims” factor, $t(146.45) = 5.45$, $p < .00$, $d = 0.57$. That is, male participants ($M = 4.99$, $SD = 0.85$) were significantly more likely than female participants ($M = 5.47$, $SD = 0.65$) to endorse rape myths related to females falsely claiming rape and female victims wanting to be raped. Further, there was a small to moderate significant difference between gender for the “Victim Deservedness” factor, $t(147.50) = 3.96$, $p < .00$, $d = 0.40$. That is, males ($M = 5.16$, $SD = 0.81$) were significantly more likely than females ($M = 5.48$, $SD = 0.62$) to endorse rape myths related to female victims provoking rape and deserving to be raped. Finally, there was also a small to moderate significant difference between gender for the “Victim Resistance and Character” factor, $t(151.98) = 4.20$, $p < .00$, $d = 0.40$. That is, males ($M = 5.26$, $SD = 0.72$) were significantly more likely than females ($M = 5.57$, $SD = 0.58$) to endorse rape myths related to female victim’s resistance during rape and perceptions of the female victim’s character.

In regards to the Section Three factors of the RAQ, there was a moderate significant difference between gender for the “Significance of Rape” factor, $t(128.34) = 4.17$, $p < .00$, $d = 0.47$. Thus, male participants ($M = 5.36$, $SD = 0.82$) were significantly more likely than female participants ($M = 5.70$, $SD = 0.44$) to endorse rape myths related to minimising the seriousness of male rape and minimising the responsibility of the perpetrator. There was also a moderate significant difference between gender for the “Victim Resistance and Character” factor, $t(146.68) = 4.87$, $p < .00$, $d = 0.49$. That is, males ($M = 5.04$, $SD = 0.78$) were significantly more likely than females ($M = 5.42$, $SD = 0.58$) to endorse rape myths related to the male victim’s resistance during the rape and perceptions of the male victim’s character. There was a small to moderate significant difference between gender for the “Rape Claims” factor, $t(145.83) = 3.18$, $p < .00$, $d = 0.33$. That is, males ($M = 5.17$, $SD = 0.85$) were significantly more likely

than females ($M = 5.45$, $SD = 0.66$) to endorse rape myths related to males falsely claiming rape. Finally, there was a moderate significant difference between gender for the “Victim Deservedness” factor, $t(137.38) = 4.72$, $p < .00$, $d = 0.46$. That is, males ($M = 5.37$, $SD = 0.68$) were significantly more likely than females ($M = 5.69$, $SD = 0.44$) to endorse rape myths related to male victims provoking rape, male victims are to be blamed for the rape occurring and male victims deserving to be raped.

In summary, the present findings indicate that, in general, male participants were significantly more likely than females to endorse rape myths. This gender difference was found for rape myths relating to females, rape myths relating to males, and gender-neutral rape myths.

Rape myth endorsement levels and age.

For current purposes, age was arbitrarily classified into two groups: a ‘younger’ group of participants, aged between 18 and 35 years; and an ‘older’ group of participants, aged 36 years and older. A comparison between participant’s age and rape myth factor endorsement levels for the factors of the RAQ using a series of independent samples t-tests revealed that there were minimal significant differences between rape myth factor endorsement levels and age. Furthermore, as 10 factors were analysed, the alpha level was adjusted to avoid incurring a high family-wise error rate. Therefore, the alpha level was altered from .05 to .005 using the Bonferonni adjustment.

In regards to the Section One factors of the RAQ, there was a moderate significant difference between age for the “Rape Likelihood” factor, $t(344.09) = 6.06$, $p < .00$, $d = 0.54$. That is, younger participants ($M = 4.57$, $SD = 0.95$) were significantly more likely than older participants ($M = 5.09$, $SD = 0.77$) to believe that they themselves, or others, are likely to experience rape. Further, there was a significant difference between younger and older participants on the “Rape Dynamics and Perceptions” factor, $t(387.67) = 2.80$, $p < .01$, $d = 0.18$. Although a small significant difference, it seems that younger participants ($M = 5.52$, $SD = 0.58$) were significantly more likely than older participants ($M = 5.65$, $SD = 0.41$) to endorse rape myths regarding the presentation of the victim after the rape, the relationship dynamics involved in rape, and general perceptions of rape.

In regards to the Section Two factors of the RAQ, there was no significant difference between younger and older participants on the “Significance of Rape” factor, $t(438) = 1.15, p = .25, d = 0.07$. Examination of the means indicates that younger participants ($M = 5.75, SD = 0.50$) and older participants ($M = 5.80, SD = 0.34$) disagreed to a similar degree with rape myths related to minimising the seriousness of female rape and minimising the responsibility of the perpetrator. There was also no significant age effect on the “Rape Claims” factor, $t(345.36) = 2.37, p = .02, d = 0.19$. That is, younger participants ($M = 5.29, SD = 0.80$) and older participants ($M = 5.46, SD = 0.62$) disagreed to a similar degree with rape myths related to females falsely claiming rape and female victims wanting to be raped. Further, there was no significant difference between age groups for the “Victim Deservedness” factor, $t(439) = 2.37, p = .02, d = 0.20$. That is, younger participants ($M = 5.35, SD = 0.72$) and older participants ($M = 5.51, SD = 0.66$) disagreed to a similar degree with rape myths related to female victims provoking rape and deserving to be raped. However, there was a small significant difference between age groups for the “Victim Resistance and Character” factor, $t(364.84) = 3.63, p < .00, d = 0.27$. That is, younger participants ($M = 5.42, SD = 0.68$) were significantly more likely than older participants ($M = 5.63, SD = 0.51$) to endorse rape myths related to female victim’s resistance during rape and perceptions of the female victim’s character.

A similar pattern to the Section Two factors of the RAQ emerged for the RAQ Section Three factors. There was no significant difference between age groups for the “Significance of Rape” factor, $t(371.73) = 1.85, p = .07, d = 0.13$. That is, younger participants ($M = 5.58, SD = 0.64$) and older participants ($M = 5.67, SD = 0.44$) disagreed to a similar degree with rape myths related to minimising the seriousness of male rape and minimising the responsibility of the perpetrator. There was also no significant difference between age groups for the “Victim Deservedness” factor, $t(439) = 0.83, p = .41, d = 0.06$. That is, younger participants ($M = 5.61, SD = 0.52$) and older participants ($M = 5.66, SD = 0.51$) disagreed to a similar degree with rape myths related to male victims provoking rape, male victims are to be blamed for the rape occurring and male victims deserving to be raped. Further, there was no significant difference between age for the “Rape Claims” factor, $t(438) = 0.42, p = .68, d = 0.04$. That is, younger participants ($M = 5.38, SD = 0.73$) and older participants ($M = 5.41, SD = 0.70$) disagreed to a similar degree with rape myths related to males falsely claiming rape. However, there was a small to moderate

significant difference between age for the “Victim Resistance and Character” factor, $t(310.73) = 3.74, p < .00, d = 0.30$. That is, younger participants ($M = 5.24, SD = 0.68$) were significantly more likely than older participants ($M = 5.48, SD = 0.59$) to endorse rape myths related to the male victim’s resistance during the rape and perceptions of the male victim’s character.

Only those factors that were found to produce age differences also produced significant correlations with age. That is, rape myth endorsement levels significantly decreased as age increased for the Section One “Rape Likelihood” factor ($r = 0.25, n = 444, p < .00$) and “Rape Dynamics and Perceptions” factor ($r = 0.18, n = 444, p = .01$), the Section Two “Victim Resistance and Character” factor ($r = 0.18, n = 444, p < .00$) and the Section Three “Victim Resistance and Character” factor ($r = 0.19, n = 436, p < .00$).

In summary, based upon the arbitrary classification of age into younger participants and older participants, there appeared to be a trend for older participants being more likely to reject rape myths in comparison to younger participants. However, these differences were not of a significant nature except in the instances of the gender neutral rape myths and rape myths relating to both male and female rape victim’s resistance during the rape and their character. In such instances, younger participants were more likely to believe that they themselves, or other people, were likely to be raped. Younger participants also were more accepting of rape myths relating to the presentation of the victim after the rape, the relationship dynamics involved in rape, general perceptions of rape, the victim’s level of resistance during the rape and the victim’s character. These findings were further supported by the significant Pearson correlations between the RAQ factors and age.

Rape myth endorsement levels and religion.

The relationship between participants’ religious beliefs, perceived religion importance, and rape myth factor endorsement levels for the factors of the RAQ were examined. Participants were categorised as either reporting a “religious affiliation” or “no religious affiliation.” Participants also rated their perceived religion importance from “not at all important” to “extremely important.”

Although those participants who reported having “no religious affiliations” reported lower levels of rape myth endorsement, as measured by all factors of the RAQ, a series of Bonferonni adjusted independent samples t-tests revealed that these differences were not significant at a more conservative alpha level of .005. The RAQ factor that produced the largest mean discrepancy between religious and non-religious samples was the “Rape Likelihood” factor and the Section Three “Rape Claims” factor. That is, participants who reported a “religious affiliation” ($M = 4.68$, $SD = 0.95$) were less likely than participants with “no religious affiliations” ($M = 4.89$, $SD = 0.86$) to believe that they themselves or others are likely to experience rape. However, as previously stated, this mean discrepancy was not significant at the Bonferonni adjusted alpha level, $t(492.11) = 2.60$, $p = .01$, $d = 0.21$. Participants who reported a “religious affiliation” ($M = 5.30$, $SD = 0.72$) were more likely than participants with “no religious affiliations” ($M = 5.47$, $SD = 0.69$) to endorse rape myths related to males falsely claiming rape. Similarly, this mean discrepancy was also not significant at the Bonferonni adjusted alpha level, $t(542) = 2.70$, $p = .01$, $d = 0.20$.

A single factor MANOVA revealed that there were significant differences between participants’ rape myth endorsement levels, as measured by the RAQ factors, in regards to perceived religion importance, *Pillai’s Trace* = .13, $F(40, 1812) = 1.54$, $p < .05$, *partial* $\eta^2 = 0.03$. As the homogeneity of variance assumption for the MANOVA was violated, the less sensitive Pillai’s criterion was used rather than the Wilk’s lambda (Brace et al., 2003; Field, 2002; Francis, 2001). As can be seen by the small effect size, the differences between participants’ rape myth endorsement levels based upon perceived importance of religion were minimal. Furthermore, an examination of the between subjects effects revealed that there were no significant differences between perceived importance of religion for any of the RAQ factors.

Therefore, results suggest that there were minimal differences between religious and non-religious participants in regards to their rape myth endorsement levels. Although notable differences between religion for the “Rape Likelihood” and the Section Three “Rape Claims” factor were observed, such differences were not considered statistically significant.

Rape myth endorsement levels and marital status and dependents.

The relationship between participants' relationship status, parental status, and rape myth factor endorsement levels for the factors of the RAQ were examined. Participants were categorised as either "married," "in a serious relationship" (i.e., defacto or engaged), "serious relationship ended" (i.e., divorced, separated, or widowed), or "never married." Participants also reported on their parental status, that is, whether or not they had children.

Participants who were categorised as "serious relationship ended" were found to have the lowest mean rape myth endorsement levels and "never married" participants had the highest mean rape myth endorsement levels, especially for the "Rape Likelihood" factor. That is, participants categorised as "serious relationship ended" ($M = 5.33$, $SD = 0.50$) were more likely than "married" participants ($M = 4.81$, $SD = 0.89$), participants "in a serious relationship" ($M = 4.87$, $SD = 0.87$) and "never married" participants ($M = 4.67$, $SD = 0.95$) to believe that they themselves or others are likely to experience rape. However, a single factor MANOVA revealed that there were no significant differences between participants rape myth endorsement levels, as measured by the RAQ factors, in regards to relationship status, *Pillai's Trace* = .09, $F(30, 1356) = 1.37$, $p = .09$, *partial η^2* = 0.03. Since the homogeneity of variance assumption of the MANOVA was violated, the Pillai's criterion was used rather than the Wilk's lambda.

There were no mean differences in rape myth endorsement levels, as measured by the RAQ factors, between participants who reported having children and those who did not, except for the "Rape Likelihood" factor. That is, participants who reported having no children ($M = 4.72$, $SD = 0.92$) were less likely than participants who reported having children ($M = 4.95$, $SD = 0.84$) to believe that they themselves or others are likely to experience rape. However, this mean discrepancy was not significant at the Bonferonni adjusted alpha level, $t(532) = 2.69$, $p = .01$, $d = 0.24$. Furthermore, a series of Bonferonni adjusted independent samples t-tests revealed that the differences between participants' rape myth endorsement levels, as measured by the remaining RAQ factors, in regards to participants' parental status were not significant at a more conservative alpha level of .005.

Therefore, results suggest that there were no significant differences between relationship status or parental status in regards to participants' rape myth endorsement levels. Although a pattern within relationship status for the RAQ factors and a notable difference between parental status for the "Rape Likelihood" factor were observed, such differences were only approaching a small significant difference and therefore not considered statistically significant.

Rape myth endorsement levels and sexual orientation.

The relationship between participants' sexual orientation and rape myth factor endorsement levels for the factors of the RAQ was examined. Participants were categorised as either 'gay,' 'lesbian,' 'heterosexual,' 'bisexual,' or 'other.'

Participants who were categorised as 'lesbian' were found to have the lowest mean rape myth endorsement levels as measured by the RAQ factors. A single factor MANOVA revealed that there were significant differences between sexual orientation and participants' rape myth endorsement levels, as measured by the RAQ factors, *Pillai's Trace* = .15, $F(40, 1804) = 1.71$, $p < .01$, *partial η^2* = 0.04. Since the homogeneity of variance assumption for the MANOVA was violated, the Pillai's criterion was used rather than the Wilk's lambda. An examination of the between-subjects effects revealed that there were significant differences in mean rape myth endorsement levels for only the RAQ "Rape Likelihood" factor as a function of sexual orientation (based upon a conservative alpha level of .01), $F(4, 457) = 3.13$, $p < .01$, *partial η^2* = 0.03.

A series of planned contrasts with Bonferonni adjusted alpha levels revealed that there was no significant "Rape Likelihood" factor endorsement level differences between "gay" participants ($M = 4.74$, $SD = 0.86$) and "heterosexual" participants ($M = 4.74$, $SD = 0.93$), $t(21.92) = 1.16$, $p = .26$, $d = 0.00$. There were also no significant "Rape Likelihood" factor endorsement level differences between "bisexual" participants ($M = 5.05$, $SD = 0.87$) and "heterosexual" participants ($M = 4.74$, $SD = 0.93$), $t(43.49) = 1.90$, $p = .06$, $d = 0.32$. However, "lesbian" participants ($M = 5.34$, $SD = 0.55$) were significantly more likely than "heterosexual" participants ($M = 4.74$, $SD = 0.93$) to believe that they themselves, or others, are likely to experience rape, $t(42.54) = 5.40$, $p < .00$, $d = 0.63$. Further, "lesbian" participants ($M = 5.34$, $SD = 0.55$) were significantly more likely than "gay" participants ($M = 4.74$, $SD = 0.86$) to believe

that they themselves or others are likely to experience rape, $t(28.80) = 3.60, p < .00, d = 0.74$.

Although “lesbian” participants were found to have the lowest level of rape myth endorsement, the only RAQ factor that involved a statistically significant difference between sexual orientation was the “Rape Likelihood” factor. Thus, “gay” and “heterosexual” participants were the least likely to believe that they themselves or others are likely to experience rape, whereas, “lesbian” participants were the most likely to believe that they themselves or others are likely to experience rape.

Rape myth endorsement levels and education, employment and income.

Since participants were able to specify more than one educational achievement and employment status, analysis focused upon comparing participants’ income and rape myth factor endorsement levels for the factors of the RAQ. Participants were categorised as either “low income” (i.e., negative income to \$30,000 gross income), “moderate income” (ie. \$30,001 to \$60,000 gross income), or “high income” (i.e., \$60,001 to over \$100,000 gross income).

Participants classified as “low income” endorsed rape myths, as measured by the RAQ factors, to a greater extent than “moderate income” and “high income” participants. A single factor MANOVA revealed that there were significant differences between participants’ income and rape myth endorsement levels, as measured by the RAQ factors, *Pillai’s Trace* = .07, $F(20, 902) = 1.69, p < .05, partial \eta^2 = 0.04$. As the homogeneity of variance assumption for the MANOVA was violated, the less sensitive Pillai’s criterion was used rather than the Wilk’s lambda. An examination of the between-subjects effects revealed that, based upon a conservative alpha level of .01, there were significant differences between income for the Section Two “Rape Claims” factor ($F(2, 459) = 4.33, p < .01, partial \eta^2 = 0.04$) and “Victim Resistance and Character” factor ($F(2, 459) = 2.13, p < .01, partial \eta^2 = 0.03$). In regards to the Section Two “Rape Claims” factor of the RAQ, “low income” participants ($M = 5.22, SD = 0.89$) endorsed rape myths to a significantly greater extent than “moderate income” ($M = 5.52, SD = 0.52$) and “high income” participants ($M = 5.45, SD = 0.59$). Similarly, in regards to the Section Two “Victim Resistance and Character” factor of the RAQ, “low income” participants ($M = 5.41, SD = 0.74$) endorsed rape myths to a

significantly greater extent than “moderate income” ($M = 5.62$, $SD = 0.52$) and “high income” participants ($M = 5.59$, $SD = 0.44$).

In summary, statistical analyses revealed that there were small to moderate significant differences between participants’ income and rape myth endorsement levels as measured by the RAQ Section Two “Rape Claims” and “Victim Resistance and Character” factors. In particular, “low income” participants endorsed rape myths to a greater extent than “moderate income” and “high income” participants.

Rape myth endorsement levels and culture.

Due to the limited number of participants that specified their cultural background, analysis of rape myth endorsement levels and cultural background would have produced biased outcomes and therefore, was not conducted due to insufficient data. Further, only a small proportion of the sample were living or born overseas, thus a comparison between Australian living or born participants and participants born or living overseas could not be validly conducted. In addition, there was an uneven distribution of participants across Australian states and territories with limited numbers of participants within some categories. As such, a representative comparison between Australian states and territories in regards to rape myth endorsement levels was not feasible as the assumptions of the relevant statistical analyses were violated due to the insufficient data.

Rape myth endorsement levels and rape victim knowledge and victim status.

The relationships between participants’ exposure to rape and their rape myth factor endorsement levels for the factors of the RAQ were examined. That is, a comparison between rape myth endorsement levels for participants who reported either having or not having personally known a rape victim and for participants’ personal rape victim status was conducted. To examine such variables, a series of independent samples t-tests were utilised with a Bonferonni adjusted alpha level of .005. Results presented below indicate that those participants who reported personally knowing a rape victim displayed lower levels of rape myth endorsement levels for all of the RAQ factors in comparison to those participants who reported not personally knowing a rape victim. Similarly, those participants who reported being a victim of rape displayed lower levels of rape myth endorsement levels for all of the RAQ factors in comparison to

those participants who reported not being a victim of rape. However, these differences were not statistically significant for all of the RAQ factors.

In regards to the Section One factors of the RAQ, there was a moderate to large significant difference between the “Rape Likelihood” factor for knowledge of a rape victim, $t(251.86) = 6.57, p < .00, d = 0.61$ and a large significant difference between the “Rape Likelihood” factor for victim status, $t(533.77) = 11.46, p < .00, d = 0.86$. That is, participants who knew a rape victim ($M = 4.95, SD = 0.85$) or were a rape victim ($M = 5.26, SD = 0.67$) were significantly more likely than those participants who did not know a victim ($M = 4.39, SD = 0.92$) or were not a victim ($M = 4.49, SD = 0.90$) to believe that they themselves or others are likely to experience rape. However, there were no significant differences between the “Rape Dynamics and Perceptions” factor for knowledge of a rape victim, $t(547) = 1.81, p = .07, d = 0.19$ or for victim status, $t(543) = 2.82, p = .01, d = 0.17$. It seems that participants who knew a rape victim ($M = 5.62, SD = 0.51$) or were a rape victim ($M = 5.66, SD = 0.47$) and those who did not know a victim ($M = 5.49, SD = 0.48$) or were not a rape victim ($M = 5.54, SD = 0.52$) disagreed to a similar degree with rape myths about the presentation of the victim after the rape and relationship dynamics involved in rape.

In regards to the Section Two factors of the RAQ, there was a small significant difference between knowledge of a rape victim for the “Rape Claims” factor, $t(541) = 3.38, p < .00, d = 0.27$. That is, those participants who did not know a rape victim ($M = 5.20, SD = 0.69$) were significantly more likely than those participants who knew a rape victim ($M = 5.43, SD = 0.72$) to endorse rape myths related to females falsely claiming rape and female victims wanting to be raped. Further, there was a small significant difference between knowledge of a rape victim for the “Victim Deservedness” factor, $t(543) = 2.98, p < .00, d = 0.23$. That is, those participants who did not know a rape victim ($M = 5.28, SD = 0.65$) were significantly more likely than those participants who knew a rape victim ($M = 5.47, SD = 0.68$) to endorse rape myths related to female victims provoking rape and deserving to be raped. Finally, there was also a small significant difference between knowledge of a rape victim for the “Victim Resistance and Character” factor, $t(249.13) = 3.59, p < .00, d = 0.28$. That is, those participants who did not know a rape victim ($M = 5.35, SD = 0.67$) were significantly more likely than those participants who knew a rape victim ($M = 5.57, SD = 0.60$) to endorse rape myths related to female victim’s resistance during

rape and perceptions of the female victim's character. However, there was no significant difference between the "Significance of Rape" factor for knowledge of a rape victim, $t(285.28) = 2.56, p = .01, d = 0.16$. It seems that those participants who did not know a rape victim ($M = 5.70, SD = 0.42$) and those who did ($M = 5.81, SD = 0.43$) disagreed to a similar degree with rape myths related to minimising the seriousness of female rape and minimising the responsibility of the perpetrator. On the contrary, there were no significant differences between rape victim status for any of the Section Two RAQ factors, "Significance of Rape" $t(539) = 1.26, p = .21, d = 0.07$, "Rape Claims" $t(539) = 2.20, p = .03, d = 0.16$, "Victim Deservedness" $t(541) = 2.47, p = .01, d = 0.18$ or "Victim Resistance and Character" $t(544) = 2.45, p = .02, d = 0.17$.

In regards to the Section Three factors of the RAQ, there was a small significant difference between knowledge of a rape victim for the "Significance of Rape" factor, $t(531) = 3.02, p < .00, d = 0.22$. It is evident that those participants who did not know a rape victim ($M = 5.51, SD = 0.56$) were significantly more likely than those participants who knew a rape victim ($M = 5.67, SD = 0.55$) to endorse rape myths related to minimising the seriousness of male rape and minimising the responsibility of the perpetrator. There was also a small to moderate significant difference between knowledge of a rape victim for the "Victim Resistance and Character" factor, $t(537) = 4.17, p < .00, d = 0.32$. That is, those participants who did not know a rape victim ($M = 5.16, SD = 0.68$) were significantly more likely than those participants who knew a rape victim ($M = 5.42, SD = 0.62$) to endorse rape myths related to the male victim's resistance during the rape and perceptions of the male victim's character. Similarly, there was a small significant difference between victim status for the "Victim Resistance and Character" factor, $t(524.00) = 4.19, p < .00, d = 0.28$. That is, those participants who were not a rape victim ($M = 5.26, SD = 0.70$) were significantly more likely than those participants who were a rape victim ($M = 5.48, SD = 0.53$) to endorse rape myths related to the male victim's resistance during the rape and perceptions of the male victim's character. There was a small to moderate significant difference between knowledge of a rape victim for the "Rape Claims" factor, $t(236.47) = 3.58, p < .00, d = 0.31$. That is, those participants who did not know a rape victim ($M = 5.21, SD = 0.77$) were significantly more likely than those participants who knew a rape victim ($M = 5.46, SD = 0.68$) to endorse rape myths related to males falsely claiming rape. Finally, there was no significant difference between

knowledge of a rape victim for the “Victim Deservedness” factor, $t(540) = 2.54, p = .01, d = 0.17$. That is, those participants who did not know a rape victim ($M = 5.54, SD = 0.52$) and those who did ($M = 5.66, SD = 0.51$) disagreed to a similar degree with rape myths related to male victims provoking rape, male victims are to be blamed for the rape occurring and male victims deserving to be raped. Other than the significant difference found between victim status for the “Victim Resistance and Character” factor, no other significant differences were found between victim status for the remaining RAQ Section Three factors, “Significance of Rape” $t(499.27) = 2.13, p = .03, d = 0.14$, “Rape Claims” $t(538) = 2.66, p = .01, d = 0.20$ or “Victim Deservedness” $t(538) = 1.65, p = .10, d = 0.10$.

In summary, those participants who reported personally knowing a rape victim or were themselves a victim of rape displayed lower levels of rape myth endorsement levels for all of the RAQ factors. However, the endorsement level differences were found to be stronger between the ‘knowing a rape victim’ variable as several of the differences found between rape myth endorsement levels and victim status were deemed not to be statistically significant.

Rape myth endorsement levels and reporting of rape.

The relationship between participants’ intentions to report their own, or others’, hypothetical rape and participants’ rape myth factor endorsement levels, as measured by RAQ, were examined. Participants reported their likelihood of reporting their own rape or encouraging others to report a rape. High raw scores indicate that participants would “definitely not” report the rape. As the distribution of the variables examined were not normal, a Spearman’s Rank correlation coefficient was calculated instead of a Pearson’s correlation coefficient (Field, 2002; Francis, 2001). Furthermore, due to the number of correlations examined, a Bonferonni adjusted alpha level of .005 was set. Table 13 summarises the correlations between participants’ intentions to report rape and rape myth factor endorsement levels as measured by the RAQ.

Table 13

Correlations between rape myth endorsement and likelihood to report rape

		Encourage Others	Report Own Rape
"Rape Dynamics and Perceptions"	Correlation	.08	.00
	Sig.	.04	.97
	<i>n</i>	546	543
"Rape Likelihood"	Correlation	.21	.12
	Sig.	.00*	.01
	<i>n</i>	546	543
Section Two "Significance of Rape"	Correlation	.05	-.03
	Sig.	.23	.51
	<i>n</i>	542	539
Section Two "Rape Claims"	Correlation	.14	-.01
	Sig.	.00*	.91
	<i>n</i>	542	539
Section Two "Victim Deservedness"	Correlation	.15	-.01
	Sig.	.00*	.81
	<i>n</i>	544	541
Section Two "Victim Resistance and Character"	Correlation	.06	-.03
	Sig.	.15	.43
	<i>n</i>	547	544
Section Three "Significance of Rape"	Correlation	.12	-.04
	Sig.	.01	.36
	<i>n</i>	532	529
Section Three "Victim Resistance and Character"	Correlation	.15	-.03
	Sig.	.00*	.45
	<i>n</i>	538	535
Section Three "Rape Claims"	Correlation	.14	.05
	Sig.	.00*	.28
	<i>n</i>	541	538
Section Three "Victim Deservedness"	Correlation	.09	-.01
	Sig.	.03	.86
	<i>n</i>	542	538

* significant difference as $p < .005$ (Bonferonni adjusted alpha)

As can be seen in Table 13, there were no statistically significant correlations between any of the RAQ factors and participants' likelihood of reporting their own rape. In regards to participants encouraging others to report a rape, there was a significant, yet weak, positive correlation between the "Rape Likelihood" factor, both "Rape Claim" factors, Section Two "Victim Deservedness" factor, and the Section Three "Victim Resistance and Character" factor. Based upon Cohen's (1988) classification, those significant correlations are considered small. In this instance, the positive correlation indicates that as participants' likelihood to encourage others to report a rape increases so does participants' rape myth endorsement levels.

In summary, there was no statistically significant relationship between participants' likelihood of reporting their own rape and rape myth endorsement levels. However, results revealed a weak significant relationship between participants' likelihood to encourage others to report a rape and their rape myth endorsement levels. It is evident that as participants' rape myth endorsement levels increase they are more likely to encourage others to report a rape.

Rape myth endorsement levels and rape propensity.

The relationships between participants' reported rape propensity and participants' rape myth factor endorsement levels, as measured by the RAQ, were examined. In addition, several demographic variables were examined in regards to participants' rape propensity. Participants' rape propensity was measured by their self-reported likelihood of "raping someone if you thought you could get away with it." High raw scores indicate that participants would be "very likely" to rape someone. As the distribution of rape propensity was not normal, non-parametric analyses were implemented.

To examine the relationship between RAQ rape myth endorsement levels and participants' rape propensity a Spearman's Rank correlation coefficient was calculated instead of a Pearson's correlation coefficient. Furthermore, due to the number of correlations examined, a Bonferonni adjusted alpha level of .005 was implemented. There was a significant, yet weak, negative correlation between the Section Two "Rape Claim" factor ($\rho = -.12, n = 545, p < .01$) and "Victim Deservedness" factor ($\rho = -.16, n = 545, p < .01$). In this instance, the negative correlation indicates that as participants' rape propensity increases so their rape myth endorsement levels. There were no significant relationships between participants' rape propensity and the Section One factors of the RAQ, "Rape Dynamics and Perceptions" ($\rho = -.07, n = 547, p = .08$) and "Rape Likelihood" ($\rho = -.00, n = 547, p = .99$). In addition, there were no significant relationships between participants' rape propensity and the Section Three factors of the RAQ, "Significance of Rape" ($\rho = -.10, n = 534, p = .02$), "Rape Claims" ($\rho = -.02, n = 543, p = .60$), "Victim Deservedness" ($\rho = -.11, n = 543, p = .01$), or "Victim Resistance or Character" ($\rho = -.10, n = 540, p = .02$). The remaining Section Two factors of the RAQ, "Significance of Rape" ($\rho = -.07, n = 543, p = .12$) and "Victim

Resistance and Character" ($\rho = -.12$, $n = 549$, $p = .01$) also had no significant relationship with participants' rape propensity.

In regards to demographic variables, several significant differences were noted in regards to participants' rape propensity. A Mann-Whitney test showed a significant difference between gender in regards to participants' rape propensity. That is, males were significantly more likely than females to report a likelihood to rape someone if they thought they would get away with it, $U = 23649.5$, $p < .05$. Further, a Kruskal-Wallis K Samples test revealed a significant difference between participants' rape propensity in regards to sexual orientation ($\chi^2 (4) = 14.22$, $p < .01$). That is, gay participants in comparison to lesbian, bisexual, and heterosexual participants reported a greater likelihood of raping someone if they thought they could get away with it. However, a Spearman's Rank correlation revealed that there was not a significant relationship between age and participants' rape propensity, $\rho = .05$, $n = 451$, $p = .33$. Furthermore, there were no significant differences in participants' rape propensity between religious beliefs ($U = 37065.5$, $p = .13$), marital status ($\chi^2 (3) = 6.66$, $p = .08$), parental status ($U = 31593.5$, $p = .99$), participants' gross income ($\chi^2 (2) = 2.41$, $p = .30$), or rape victim status ($U = 35898.5$, $p = .33$).

In summary, there was only a weak significant relationship between participants' rape propensity and rape myth endorsement levels as measured by the Section Two "Rape Claims" factor and Section Two "Victim Deservedness" factor of the RAQ. It is evident that as participants' rape myth endorsement levels increased they became more likely to rape someone if they believed that they would not get caught. Furthermore, gay participants reported a significantly higher likelihood to rape someone if they thought they could get away with it. Also, male participants reported a significantly higher likelihood than female participants to rape someone if they thought they could get away with it. However there were no other significant differences noted between the other demographic variables.

Section Summary

Overall, participants from certain demographic backgrounds endorsed rape myths to a greater extent. In particular, males, younger participants, low income earners, religious participants, non-lesbian participants, never married participants, participants who did not personally know a rape victim, and participants who were not raped endorsed rape myths to a greater extent than their counterparts. However, only gender and knowledge of a rape victim produced varying rape myth endorsement levels for most of the factors of the RAQ. That is, males had higher rape myth acceptance levels than females and participants who did not personally know a rape victim had higher rape myth acceptance levels than those participants who did personally know a rape victim. Furthermore, there appeared to be no significant differences between parental status and participants' myth endorsement levels. The "Rape Likelihood" factor produced results approaching significance for most of the demographic variables. That is, females, younger participants, non-religious participants, participants no longer in a serious relationship, parents, lesbians, participants who personally knew a rape victim, and those participants who had already been raped were slightly more likely than their counterparts to believe that they themselves, or others, are likely to experience rape. Moreover, as participants' rape myth endorsement levels increased so did their likelihood to rape someone if they believed that they would get away with it. Furthermore, male and gay participants reported a significantly higher likelihood to rape someone if they thought they would not get caught.

CHAPTER 7. DISCUSSION

The current research had several broad aims. Firstly, the research aimed to gain an estimate of the incidence of rape involving male and female victims within the general Australian community. Further, the research aimed to provide a profile of both male and female rape victims, to profile the rape itself, and to examine the proportion of rapes that are reported to police. In regards to the aftermath of rape, the current research aimed to determine the impact of rape upon victims, in particular, to examine raped participants' levels of depression, suicidal ideation, and suicide attempts. Another major aim of the current research was to devise a rape myth acceptance measure that examined male and female rape myths and that allowed for direct comparison between male rape myth and female rape myth endorsement levels. The psychometric properties and factor structure of the measure were established and compared. The final broad aim of the current research was to obtain a range of demographic data from the sample to explore the relationships between demographic variables and rape myth acceptance levels.

Current research hypotheses and findings

Although the majority of the current research was exploratory in nature, several hypotheses were examined. The hypothesis that a proportion of the sample, including men, would report being a victim of rape was supported. The hypothesis that some rape victims would not have reported the crime to police was also supported. Furthermore, the hypothesis that rape victims would report higher levels of depressive symptoms, suicidal ideation and suicide attempts in comparison to non-victims was also supported. However, only female victims of rape were found to report higher levels of depressive symptoms than non-rape victims. This finding was not replicated for male victims of rape.

The hypothesis that the rape myth acceptance measure developed would be a reliable and valid measure of rape myth acceptance levels was also supported. Based upon the factorial analysis, there was also support for the multi-dimensional nature of rape myths. However, the hypothesis that the factor structure of the female rape myths would differ when compared to the factor structure of male rape myths was not supported. Indeed,

although there were some minor differences between the male and female rape myth factor structures, there was greater overlap and similarity than difference.

Although the majority of participants did not endorse rape myths, the hypothesis that a proportion of the sample would endorse both male rape myths and female rape myths was supported. It was found that participants generally tended not to endorse rape myth items within the “Significance of Rape” factor however, were more accepting of rape myth items within the “Rape Claims” factor. Furthermore, the hypothesis that there would be differences amongst demographic variables and rape myth endorsement levels was supported for only some of the demographic variables examined. Specifically, males, younger participants, low income earners, religious participants, non-lesbian participants, never married participants, participants who did not personally know a rape victim, and participants who were not raped endorsed rape myths to a greater extent than their counterparts. However, only gender and knowledge of a rape victim produced significantly varying rape myth endorsement levels for most of the factors of the RAQ. There appeared to be no significant differences between parental status and participants’ myth endorsement levels. The “Rape Likelihood” factor produced results approaching significance, if not significant, for most of the demographic variables. That is, females, younger participants, non-religious participants, participants no longer in a serious relationship, parents, lesbians, participants who personally knew a rape victim, and those participants who had already been raped were more likely than their counterparts to believe that they themselves, or others, are likely to experience rape. Moreover, as participants’ rape myth endorsement levels increased so did their likelihood to rape someone if they believed that they would get away with it. Furthermore, male and gay participants reported a significantly higher likelihood to rape someone if they thought they would not get caught. The hypothesis that the endorsement levels of male rape myths and female rape myths would differ was not supported for all rape myth gender pairs. In particular, it was hypothesised that male rape myths would be endorsed to a greater level in comparison to female rape myths. However, this hypothesis was not always supported. Although there were many rape myth gender pairs where the male rape myth was endorsed to a significantly greater level than the female rape myth, some significant differences were found to be in the

opposite direction. That is, for some rape myth gender pairs, the female rape myth was endorsed to a greater level than the male rape myth.

The relevant hypotheses of each broad area of the current research are discussed separately in greater detail below. The current findings are also discussed below in relation to previous research in the area of rape, rape myth measures, and rape myth endorsement levels.

Prevalence of rape and the rape victim.

The current research findings supported the notion that rape is widespread within society. Almost two out of every five participants stated that, based upon the definition of rape provided, they had been a victim of rape during their lifetime. It was necessary to include a definition of rape and ask participants if this had happened to them, instead of asking if participants had ever been raped, to ensure that all participants had a thorough and consistent understanding of what constituted rape. A small proportion of the current sample stated that, based upon the definition of rape provided, they were “unsure” if they had ever been a victim of rape. It is possible that such uncertainty in some participants was due to the definition of rape provided being unclear, however, based upon, previous research, pilot testing and face validity the definition provided was deemed to be suitable. A more conceivable explanation as to why participants were “unsure” that they had been raped might be because they may not have remembered the event or may not want to perceive themselves as victims.

Examination of gender and the prevalence of rape within the current sample indicated that more females are raped than males. In total, males accounted for 8.60% of the raped sample. This overall gender difference is consistent with previous research findings and general perceptions (Bohner et al., 2002; Bourque, 1989; Department of Justice, 2001; Ellis, 1989; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Smith et al., 1988; Watkins Jr., 1990). In particular, 16.52% of the male sample and 45.46% of the female sample reported being victims of rape. The current incidence of male rape rates appears to be consistent with previous male rape prevalence data, although at the higher end of previously reported rates (Groth & Burgess, 1980; Kassing & Prieto, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Pino & Meier, 1999; Scarce, 1997). The incidence of female rape

appears to be an overestimate in comparison to previous female rape prevalence data (Australian National University, 2005; Koss, 1993). Many researchers have argued that the prevalence of rape within society remains profoundly underestimated (Buddie & Miller, 2001; Bunting & Reeves, 1983; Coxell & King, 1996; Crome et al., 1999; Doherty & Anderson, 2004; P. J. Harrison et al., 1991; Kilpatrick et al., 1981; Koss, 1993; Koss et al., 1988; Lees, 1997; Lievore, 2003; Patitu, 1998; Peretti & Cozzens, 1983; Pino & Meier, 1999; Ullman, 2007b; Varelas & Foley, 1998). It has been suggested that victims of rape do not disclose that they have been raped because they fear that they will not be believed, are too embarrassed or scared, or may believe that they contributed to the attack in some way (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Barnett et al., 1992; Crome et al., 1999; Easteal, 1992; Ellis, 1989; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Koss, 1993; Lees, 1997; Lievore, 2003; Sable et al., 2006; Starzynski et al., 2005; Ullman, 2007c). It is possible that the current methodology, which included anonymous online participation, may have limited the possibility of such reporting limitations and led to a more accurate reporting of the incidence of rape. It is also possible that the current sample is biased, in that, those participating were more likely to be rape victims wanting to be involved in such research, although the study attempted to minimise this bias by recruiting participants from a variety of sources across a variety of mediums. Therefore, it seems that the prevalence of rape may be underestimated, not only within police records, as suggested by several researchers (Buddie & Miller, 2001; Easteal, 1992), but also within previous research findings, especially in regards to the rape of females. Based upon the current findings, it seems that more than two in five females and more than three in twenty males are likely to be victims of rape within their lifetime.

Consistent with previous findings, the current research revealed that rape victims came from a variety of demographic backgrounds (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Davis & Lee, 1996; Del Bove et al., 2005; Gilmartin-Zena, 1987; Kassing, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Koss & Dinero, 1989; G. Mezey & King, 1989; Scarce, 1997). Nevertheless, several demographic differences were found between the raped and the non-raped samples. In particular, non-raped participants in comparison to raped participants were significantly younger, had a higher education, were more likely to be formally employed, had a higher gross income, had never been married, were not in a defacto relationship, had no

children, and were heterosexual. Demographic variables such as place of residence, religion, and religious importance did not distinguish the raped and non-raped samples. In regards to education, employment and gross income demographic variables, the differences noted are likely to be confounded by gender, as the raped sample contained significantly more female participants. That is, the differences noted between the raped and non-raped samples are more likely to be a reflection of gender differences rather than a reflection of participants' rape status. It is of course also possible that participants who have been a victim of rape may find it harder to obtain or maintain employment or educational studies, which subsequently effect their gross income. This conclusion is further supported by the finding that more raped participants than non-raped participants reported receiving a pension or participating in home duties.

The differences noted between the raped and non-raped samples in regards to sexual orientation indicate that heterosexual participants were less likely to have been raped, whereas lesbian or bisexual participants were more likely to have been a victim of rape. It is feasible that either there is a higher rate of rape within lesbian relationships, lesbians are more vulnerable to victimisation in general or those women who have been previously raped may have later turned to a lesbian identity or relationship. Furthermore, bisexual participants may be at greater risk of being raped due to them being intimately exposed to both genders (Balsam et al., 2005). These current findings are consistent with previous research findings that lesbians are more likely to be victims of rape than their heterosexual equivalents (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Balsam et al., 2005; Duncan, 1990; Kassing, 2003; Koss, 1993; Krahe et al., 2000; Scheer et al., 2003; Waldner-Haugrud & Vaden Gratch, 1997) and that bisexuals report higher rates of rape than gay and lesbian individuals (Balsam et al., 2005; Scheer et al., 2003). Further research needs to be conducted examining the possible explanations of this increased incidence of rape amongst sexual minorities. The current study was unable to replicate this pattern for gay participants. Previous research has suggested that gay participants are more likely than their heterosexual equivalents to be a victim of rape (Coxell & King, 1996; Davies, 2002; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Krahe et al., 2000; G. Mezey & King, 1989), although the current research revealed that there were a similar number of gay participants within the raped and non-raped samples. It is salient to note that a small proportion of the sample who identified as bisexual were males, however, the bisexual

difference noted between the raped and non-raped samples appeared to apply only to females and not to bisexual males. It is possible that the current research was unable to conclude that gay men are more likely to be raped than their heterosexual equivalents due to the limited number of gay and bisexual males that participated within the research.

Furthermore, participants who had never been married were less likely to have been raped. In contrast, participants who were in a defacto relationship or had been divorced were more likely to report being a victim of rape. Since participants were not asked to explain the reasons for either their divorce or their defacto marriage status, explanations of the relationship between rape victimisation and relationship status must be seen as speculative. It may be, for example, that participants have experienced a failed relationship ending in divorce due to possible marital rape and participants who had never been married were protected from marital rape. In line with this conclusion, those participants within a defacto relationship may continue to be exposed to the potential of being raped by their partner, whereas those participants who are still married may remain married because they have a more positive relationship. Interestingly, significantly more participants within the raped sample, in comparison to participants within the non-raped sample, reported having children. This finding could be related to the previous conclusion regarding marital status. That is, participants who have children may be more likely to have been in a defacto relationship or married, thus are also more likely to have been exposed to the potential of being raped by their partner.

Although the raped sample appeared to be significantly older than the non-raped sample, it is not clear as to the nature of this difference. This was an unexpected finding that could be due to one's risk of being raped increasing the older one becomes. That is, the older you are the more experiences you have, therefore your probability of being raped increases as you age. This finding could also be a reflection of a biased sample rather than a true age difference between the raped and non-raped samples. That is, participants who had been raped may have been more likely to participate in the current research regardless of their age, therefore reflecting an older mean age within the raped sample. Similarly, participants who had not been raped may have participated in the

research because of the convenient participation design via the Internet, therefore presumably could be a younger sample than the raped sample. Furthermore, almost 20% of the sample failed to report their age, which may have also impacted upon these findings.

In summary, the current research concluded that rape is a widespread concern within society, with approximately two in five females and three in twenty males likely to be victims of rape during their lifetime. Furthermore, lesbians in the current sample report higher levels of rape victimisation than individuals of other sexual orientations. Rape victims came from a variety of demographic backgrounds, however there were higher rates of rape victimisation within the divorced or defacto relationship sample. This may be due to such individuals being more likely to have been exposed to the potential of being raped by their partner. Also, being a victim of rape may adversely interfere with the ability to obtain or maintain paid employment or higher educational studies subsequently effecting one's gross income. The adverse consequences of rape experienced by many victims are discussed further below.

The characteristics of rape.

The current research found that approximately two thirds of the raped sample reported that they had been raped on more than one occasion, with one quarter of the raped sample indicating that they had been raped on more than ten occasions. Furthermore, half of the raped sample stated that one person had raped them during their lifetime, with most rape victims stating that they had been raped more than once. The current findings revealed that of those participants who were raped more than once, several reported that the same perpetrator had raped them on multiple occasions. These findings are consistent with previous research, which indicates that it is not uncommon for rape to occur across multiple episodes, especially when the perpetrator is known to the victim (Koss et al., 1988; Lievore, 2003; Stermac et al., 1996). However, approximately two fifths of the raped sample did report that multiple perpetrators raped them. Although difficult to determine based upon the current data, it is also possible that some participants were raped on one occasion by multiple assailants (i.e., gang or packed raped) whereas other participants may have been raped by different perpetrators on different occasions. In regards to rape victim gender differences,

although female rape victims had been raped on more occasions than male rape victims, male or female victims did not differ in terms of the number of perpetrators they had experienced. Therefore, the current research did not replicate the previous findings that male rape victims, in comparison to female rape victims, tend to be raped by more perpetrators (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Hodge & Canter, 1998; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Rada, 1985; Stermac et al., 2004). However, in the current sample male rape victims, in comparison to female rape victims, reported a significantly higher number of 'other' individuals being intentionally involved in their rape. These findings suggest that, generally, more individuals are involved when a man is raped than when a woman is raped; however, such co-offenders may not necessarily engage directly in the rape, but rather act as accessories to the rape.

The most commonly reported relationship between the rape victim and the perpetrator was a relation, followed closely by a stranger, trusted figure, or acquaintance. It is widely believed, and supported in the current research, that the majority of individuals are raped by someone known to them (I. Anderson, 2007; Brecklin & Ullman, 2001a, 2001b; Davis & Lee, 1996; Easteal, 1992; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Kimerling et al., 2002; Koss & Burkhardt, 1989; Koss et al., 1988; Lievore, 2003; G. Mezey & King, 1989; Starzynski et al., 2005; Stermac et al., 2004; Stermac et al., 1998; Stermac et al., 1996; Ullman, 2007a; Ullman et al., 2006; Victoria Police, 2003, 2006; J. Walker et al., 2005b). In regards to rape victim gender differences within the current research, male rape victims were overwhelmingly more likely than female rape victims to have been raped by a stranger, followed by a work colleague, or person of authority. In contrast, female rape victims were overwhelmingly more likely than male rape victims to have been raped by a partner, romantic acquaintance, first date, or a relative. These findings provide further support for the conclusion that males, in comparison to females, are more likely to be raped by a stranger (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Graham, 2006; Hodge & Canter, 1998; Pino & Meier, 1999; Rada, 1985; Stermac et al., 2004). This conclusion is also consistent with the notion that individuals within the divorced or defacto relationship sample reported higher levels of rape victimisation as a consequence of being raped by their partner.

Furthermore, it was concluded that rape victims were significantly younger than the perpetrators. This finding is inconsistent with previous researchers that concluded that

the majority of victims are within the same age range as their perpetrator or are younger (Del Bove et al., 2005). For those participants who had been raped more than once, there was a significant difference between their age when they were first raped and their age when they were last raped. These findings were consistent across both male and female victims of rape. Thus, there appears to be further support for the conclusion that some individuals are raped on several occasions over a period of time, possibly by the same perpetrator. However, as previously stated, it is also possible that some rape victims are raped on more than one occasion, but by different perpetrators.

Previous researchers have found that perpetrators of rape often use brute strength and force, verbal pressure, exploitation of incapacitation, entrapment or intimidation to gain control over their victims (Abbey et al., 2001; Del Bove et al., 2005; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Kassing, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Krahe et al., 2003; Krahe et al., 2000; G. Mezey & King, 1989; Stermac et al., 2006; Stermac et al., 1998; Waldner-Haugrud & Vaden Gratch, 1997). There were three main reasons why rape victims believed the rape had occurred: (i) the rape victim was unable to stop the perpetrator, (ii) the perpetrator used physical force, and (iii) the rape victim was unable to say no. The priority given to these beliefs was found to vary between genders. Thus, while the inability to say no to the perpetrator was the principal reason listed by male rape victims, it was the third ranked reason of female rape victims. It is common for rape victims to feel helpless during the ordeal, with the majority of rape victims reporting that the feeling of helplessness and loss of control is worse than the sexual aspects of the experience (J. Walker et al., 2005b). There is inconsistency in the literature regarding the extent to which physical violence (additional to the sexual act) is perpetrated during a rape. Some research has suggested that male rape victims are more likely to experience violence during the rape than female rape victims (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Graham, 2006; Hodge & Canter, 1998; Pino & Meier, 1999; Rada, 1985; Stermac et al., 2004) whereas other researchers have concluded that female rape victims are more likely to endure physical force than male rape victims (Larimer et al., 1999). The current research found that approximately half of both the female and male sample reported that the rape occurred due to physical force. Moreover, more female rape victims than male rape victims believed that the rape occurred because the perpetrator threatened physical violence or used psychological violence. It is pertinent to note that since the current research limited

its inquiry to why the victim believed their rape had occurred, it is not possible to comment on the number of cases of physical violence within male and female rape. However, the present findings are consistent with previous research (Davis & Lee, 1996; Eastal, 1992; Stermac et al., 1996; Watkins Jr., 1990) showing that rape can occur in the absence of any physical violence beyond the sexual act itself. As more male rape victims than female rape victims reported being raped by a person in authority, it is not surprising that more male rape victims believed the rape occurred because the perpetrator used their authority or that the victim was a child.

Alcohol and drug use, by the perpetrator or victim, are consistently associated with rape (Abbey et al., 2001; Brecklin & Ullman, 2001a, 2001b; Koss et al., 1988; Rada, 1985; Starzynski et al., 2005; Stermac et al., 1998; Stermac et al., 1996; Ullman, 2007a; Waldner-Haugrud & Vaden Gratch, 1997). Within the current study, the majority of the raped sample reported that they had not consumed alcohol or drugs at the time of the rape. Although, as found in previous research, 30% of the raped sample reported that they had and the perpetrator had consumed alcohol at the time of the rape (Brecklin & Ullman, 2001a, 2001b). Under 10% of the raped sample reported that the victim or the perpetrator used drugs at the time of the rape. More male rape victims reported using alcohol or drugs at the time of the rape and to a greater extreme than female rape victims did. In accordance with previous research, alcohol is more likely to be associated with rape than drugs (Brecklin & Ullman, 2001a, 2001b). The current researchers found that according to the rape victim, the perpetrator is more likely to be under the influence of drugs or alcohol at the time of the rape however not as extremely intoxicated as when the victim is using alcohol or drugs. This finding was consistent for both male and female rape victims with one exception. Male rape victims reported that they had consumed more alcohol than the perpetrator at the time of the rape. Thus, there seems to be some support for the notion that victim alcohol use does not play as substantial a role as offender alcohol use in cases of rape (Brecklin & Ullman, 2001a, 2001b).

However, there may be some instances when individuals are raped because they are so extremely intoxicated, therefore they are unable to consent to the act. Approximately 30% of the raped sample believed that the rape occurred because they were under the influence of drugs or alcohol. More male victims stated that they believed the rape

occurred because they were under the influence of drugs and more female victims stated that they believed the rape occurred because they were under the influence of alcohol. This finding was consistent with the higher amount of females that reported being extremely intoxicated with alcohol at the time of the rape and the higher frequency of males that reported being extremely intoxicated on drugs at the time of the rape. It seems that although male victims may have consumed more alcohol than the perpetrator, the male rape victim may have believed that that was not the predominate reason why the rape occurred. Although some female rape victims believed that the perpetrator was extremely or somewhat intoxicated on alcohol or drugs, not one male rape victim specified substance use as an explanation for their victimisation, suggesting that the perpetrator was more in control than was the male victim. Interestingly, 4.5% of the raped female sample was unsure if they were under the influence of drugs at the time of the rape. This finding may suggest that somebody intentionally drugged these participants then raped them. Additionally, it is not possible to determine whether participants were forced or consented to consuming alcohol or drugs at the time of the rape, yet afterwards were aware of their intoxication levels thus were able to report them.

In sum, the current research concluded that the majority of raped participants were raped more than once across a period of time. It is possible that participants were raped on one occasion yet by multiple assailants or that different perpetrators raped some participants on different occasions. In comparison to male rape victims, female rape victims reported higher frequencies of rape, and a greater incidence of re-victimisation by the same perpetrator. In contrast, male rape victims characterised their rape as more often involving a specified rapist as well as multiple individuals who were complicit in its occurrence. Such results provide further support for the conclusion that females are more likely to be raped within relationships or by a relative, and that males are more likely to be raped by strangers or people in positions of authority. Both male and female rape victims were reported as significantly younger than their perpetrators, and male rape victims believed that the rape predominantly occurred because they were unable to say no. In contrast, female rape victims generally perceived their rape to have occurred because they were unable to stop the perpetrator. Moreover, it is evident that not all instances of rape involved further physical violence. Similarly, not all incidents of rape

involved alcohol or drug use; however, it is likely that some of the rapes reported involved the victim not consenting to consume drugs, and possibly alcohol, which increased the victims vulnerability and thus facilitated the perpetration of rape.

Impact of rape and the reporting of rape.

In regards to the impact of rape, the current research findings are fully consistent with previous research demonstrating that rape is a traumatic experience for its victims (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Bohn, 2003; Bohner et al., 1993; Classen et al., 2005; Coxell & King, 1996; Doherty & Anderson, 2004; Dye & Roth, 1990; Easteal, 1992; Frazier, 2000; Frazier & Burnett, 1994; Gold et al., 1999; Golding & Friedman, 1997; Golge et al., 2003; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Kassing, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Kilpatrick et al., 1981; Koss & Burkhardt, 1989; Koss et al., 1988; Larimer et al., 1999; Long et al., 2007; G. Mezey & King, 1989; Molnar et al., 2000; Paolucci et al., 2001; Poropat & Rosevear, 1992; Ratner et al., 2003; P A Resick, 1993; Robertson, 2003; Rogers, 1997; Starzynski et al., 2005; Ullman, 2007c; Ullman et al., 2006; Valente, 2005; J. Walker et al., 2005a, 2005b; Watkins Jr., 1990). It is also evident that the trauma of rape is not limited to the experience at the time of the rape, but its negative sequelae can persist long after the rape has occurred. Indeed, the present findings are consistent with previous research demonstrating that the adverse effects of rape can continue for several years, and for some rape victims, for their lifetime (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Frazier & Burnett, 1994; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Kassing, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; P A Resick, 1993; Ullman, 2007c). Nevertheless, consistent with Kilpatrick et al.'s. (1981) conclusions, present findings suggest that, in time, many rape victims experience an improvement in their post-rape coping. In particular, the level of traumatic sequelae victims experienced had decreased since the rape had occurred. Individuals' traumatic experiences of rape and the adverse impact it may have had are discussed in greater detail below.

There is clear evidence to suggest that rape victims report greater levels of negative sequelae than their non-victim equivalents (Kilpatrick et al., 1981; Larimer et al., 1999). Based upon the classification system utilised, the current research found further support that rape victims are significantly more likely than non-victims to be classified as depressed, experience suicidal thoughts and attempt suicide (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Bohn, 2003; Coxell & King, 1996; Koss et al., 1988; Ratner et al., 2003; Read et al.,

2001; P A Resick, 1993; Robertson, 2003; J. Walker et al., 2005a). While male and female participants reported high levels of post-rape distress, the pattern of depression varied by gender. Female rape victims were significantly more likely than female non-victims to be classified as depressed, suicidal or attempted suicide, however this difference was not found for male participants in regards to depression. Indeed, in contrast with previous research (Ratner et al., 2003; Robertson, 2003; J. Walker et al., 2005a), male rape victims and non-victims were found to report similar levels of depression. The inability to replicate this finding is likely to be due to the limited number of male rape victims within the current research. Interestingly, at the time of the rape, male rape victims perceived the rape to be overall more traumatic than female rape victims; however, given sample size constraints, the significance of this difference was not able to be determined.

There were also differences in the characteristics of the rape between those rape victims that were considered depressed, suicidal or had attempted suicide and those who were not. Rape victims that were considered depressed, suicidal or had attempted suicide had been raped on more occasions and more people were intentionally involved in the rape. In comparison to the non-depressed raped sample, the depressed raped sample had also been raped by more perpetrators. Those raped participants who had attempted suicide were significantly younger at the time of the rape or when they were first raped in comparison to the raped sample who had not attempted suicide. In a review of the variables that may effect recovery from rape, Resick (1993) concluded that further research examining the impact of victim age on recovery was needed before any firm conclusions could be drawn. However, it seems that age is linked to victim's recovery from rape. It is feasible that younger victims are less emotionally equip to cope with trauma, less able to access support services or are more traumatically abused by the event. This finding provides further support for the notion that there is a very strong relationship between suicidality and childhood sexual abuse (Paolucci et al., 2001; Read et al., 2001). Furthermore, depressed, suicidal, and suicide attempted rape victims were more likely to have been raped by a stranger, a trusted figure, or a relative and not by a first date, romantic acquaintance, or partner. It is possible that rape victims may be more accepting of the rape when someone rapes them from the latter category (Morry & Winkler, 2001), however when they are less accepting to be raped they may perceive

the event to be more traumatic and have a poorer coping response. Depressed, suicidal, and suicide attempted rape victims also reported more contextual reasons as to why they believe the rape occurred, such as physical force, threats of harm or inability to stop the perpetrator. This may indicate that rape victims may have experienced more trauma during the rape or, and more conceivably, may indicate that rape victims may partially blame themselves for the rape. Previous researchers have consistently shown that rape victims who engage in self-blame of one's character or behaviour leads to poorer recovery following the rape (Frazier, 2000; P A Resick, 1993). Overall, the raped depressed, suicidal, and suicide attempted sample experienced the rape as more traumatic at the time of the rape and have experienced more traumatic symptoms since the rape occurred. In conclusion, the current findings support previous research, in that, the more the rape appeared to fit the description of a "real" rape, the more serious and traumatic the rape is perceived to be (Campbell, 1998; Check & Malamuth, 1983; Golge et al., 2003; Koss et al., 1988; Szymanski et al., 1993).

In regards to the reporting of rape, the current research provided more evidence for the widespread view that rape is an under reported crime (Buddie & Miller, 2001; Bunting & Reeves, 1983; Coxell & King, 1996; Crome et al., 1999; Doherty & Anderson, 2004; P. J. Harrison et al., 1991; Kilpatrick et al., 1981; Koss, 1993; Koss et al., 1988; Lees, 1997; Patitu, 1998; Peretti & Cozzens, 1983; Pino & Meier, 1999; Varelas & Foley, 1998). Approximately one in seven rape victims within the current sample stated that they had reported the rape to police. However, almost twice as many female rape victims than male rape victims failed to report their rape to anyone and males were at least 1.5 times more likely than females to report their rape to police. Although different reasons for not reporting rape have been documented across gender (Pino & Meier, 1999; Sable et al., 2006), the current research failed to replicate the finding that male victims of rape are less likely to report the crime than female victims (Coxell & King, 1996; G. Mezey & King, 1989; Pino & Meier, 1999; Stermac et al., 1996; Turell, 2000). The inability of the current research to produce consistent results to previous research is likely to be due to the limited number of male rape victims within the current sample. It is also possible that since males, as a gender, are more reluctant to participate in research, in general, than females, (Breakwell et al., 2002), the male rape victims who

participated in the current research are more open to research, and to disclosing their experience.

Within the current study, all participants were asked to indicate how likely they would be to report rape. Alarming, a proportion of the sample stated that they would definitely not report their own hypothetical rape or encourage other individuals to report a rape. Furthermore, rape victims were significantly less likely than non-victims to believe that they would report their own hypothetical rape or to encourage other individuals to report a rape. This could be due to the limited number of rapes that are reported to the police resulting in a conviction (Australian Institute of Criminology, 2007; Department of Justice, 1997; Lievore, 2003; N. Taylor, 2007; Wilkinson, 2007) or to the fear that the victim will not be believed when reporting the rape (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Barnett et al., 1992; Crome et al., 1999; Easteal, 1992; Ellis, 1989; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Koss, 1993; Lees, 1997; Lievore, 2003; Sable et al., 2006; Starzynski et al., 2005; Ullman, 2007c). The current research found that over half of the raped sample stated that they found reporting the rape to someone as “very difficult.” Further, those rape victims who reported the rape to police, only a small proportion of reports led to charges being pressed against the perpetrator, and an even smaller proportion of cases where the perpetrator was subsequently found guilty. This pattern is consistent with previous research (Department of Justice, 1997; Wilkinson, 2007). Overall, half of those rape victims that reported their rape to police stated that they regret informing the police of their experience.

In particular, rape victims were more likely to report their rape to police if there were other people intentionally involved in the rape or if a relative, stranger, or person of authority raped them. Conversely, rape victims were less likely to report their rape to anyone if their partner raped them. It was also evident that rape victims who reported the rape to police specified a larger number of reasons as to why they believed the rape had occurred. Therefore, the perpetrator was more likely to have used or threatened force. Rape victims who reported their rape to police reporting experiencing the rape as more traumatic at the time of the rape and reported having experienced more traumatic symptoms since the rape occurred. These findings are consistent with previous research, in that, victims of rape are more likely to report rape to authorities when the

rape fits the “real rape” stereotype (I. Anderson, 2007; Campbell, 1998; Lievore, 2003; Pino & Meier, 1999; Starzynski et al., 2005; Ullman, 1996, 2007c).

Furthermore, those rape victims who had reported their rape to the police reported more depressive symptoms, were more likely to have experienced suicidal ideation and reported more attempted suicide than those who reported their rape to “others” or no-one. Researchers have concluded that the quality of support a victim receives after being raped impacts upon the recovery process (Barnett et al., 1992; Koss & Burkhardt, 1989; P A Resick, 1993; Starzynski et al., 2005; Ullman, 1996, 2007c; Ullman et al., 2006). Furthermore, police have often been reported to be the least helpful of supports to rape victims (Ullman, 1996, 2007c). It is feasible that victims reported their rape to police because it was more traumatic and would have experienced negative rape sequelae despite their reporting practices. However, it seems that, based upon previous findings, it is possible that victim’s experiences of reporting their rape to police was a negative experience which added to their adverse rape sequelae and subsequently increased their depressive symptoms, suicidal ideation and suicide attempts. Supporting this conclusion is the current finding that almost half of the raped sample that reported the rape to police stated that they regretted doing so.

In sum, the current research concluded that the majority of rape victims perceive the experience to be traumatic and experience adverse effects following rape. It was found that when the degree of ‘trauma’ is considered in terms of ‘immediately’ post rape experience, male rape victims rate the level of trauma higher than do female rape victims. In contrast, when trauma is considered from a longer-term perspective, female rape victims seem to experience higher levels of depression, suicidal ideation, and suicide attempts than male rape victims. Despite the negative sequela of rape, the current research confirmed that rape continues to be an under reported crime across both genders. However, the more that the rape appeared to fit the description of the “real rape” stereotype, the more likely it was that the rape was reported to police. Although many rape victims who reported the rape to police stated that they regretted telling them, possibly due to the lower number of reported guilty convictions or because of the poor response and support the victim received.

Construction of the Rape Attitudinal Questionnaire.

The current research devised an instrument that measures rape myth endorsement levels in regards to general rape myths, rape myths related specifically to male victims of rape, and rape myths related to female victims of rape. The instrument was titled the "Rape Attitudinal Questionnaire" (RAQ) and consists of three sections. Section One of the final version of the RAQ contained 17 gender neutral rape myth items. Sections Two and Three of the final version of the RAQ each contained 33 rape myth items related specifically to female rape myths and 33 rape myth items related specifically to male rape myths. The order of the male rape myth and the female rape myth sections were counterbalanced. Each rape myth item within the RAQ was measured on a six-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." The RAQ also contained an item based upon Malamuth's (1988) item. The item measured the respondent's tendency to *"rape someone if they thought they could get away with it."* Responses were recorded on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "not at all likely" to "very likely." Lastly, the RAQ contained a final item that required respondents to specify *"how much the victim's gender influenced their responses"* while completed the RAQ. Responses were recorded on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "not important at all" to "extremely important." In total, the RAQ contained 85 items and required approximately 20 minutes to complete.

Several items were removed from the initial version of the RAQ. Items were removed if they were unclear or showed low inter-correlational values. Interestingly, all of these deleted items were items that related to the perpetrator or reverse-scored items. Exploration of the content of the deleted 'perpetrator-related' items suggests that these items loaded on a construct beyond rape myths, and most probably a construct related to attitudes towards perpetrator rehabilitation. In terms of the other deleted reverse-scored items, it seems that a response bias operated to produce low correlations with other gender neutral rape myth (Section One) items. Therefore, it is necessary to consider the possibility that some respondents may not have read each question carefully before they responded. However, this does seem to be a small effect as some reversed items within the male rape myths section of the RAQ were only removed because they were removed from the female rape myths section of the RAQ to ensure that the two sections remained identical. Other items within the RAQ that were removed

appeared to be obvious rape myth items with participants responding appropriately and consistently. Therefore, removing these items reduced possible ceiling effects.

The principal component factor analysis of the RAQ provided further support for the belief that rape myths are multi-dimensional in nature. This conclusion is consistent with previous researchers who have argued that rape myths are not uni-dimensional in nature rather rape myths appear to be multi-dimensional (K. B. Anderson et al., 1997; Briere et al., 1985; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Payne et al., 1999). The final factor analysis of the gender neutral rape myth section (Section One) of the RAQ produced a two-factor Varimax rotated solution that was considered statistically suitable and theoretically interpretable and accounted for 40.68% of the total variance. The two factors within the gender neutral rape myth section (Section One) of the RAQ were labelled "Rape Dynamics and Perceptions" and "Rape Likelihood." The final factor analysis of the female rape myths section of the RAQ produced a four-factor Varimax rotated solution that was considered statistically suitable and theoretically interpretable and accounted for 53.27% of the total variance. The four factors within the female rape myths section of the RAQ were labelled "Significance of Rape," "Rape Claims," "Victim Deservedness" and "Victim Resistance and Character." The final factor analysis of the male rape myths section of the RAQ produced a four-factor Varimax rotated solution that was considered statistically suitable and theoretically interpretable and accounted for 51.21% of the total variance. The four factors within the female rape myths section of the RAQ were labelled "Significance of Rape," "Victim Resistance and Character," "Rape Claims", and "Victim Deservedness."

In comparison to the factor solutions of pre-existing rape myth measures, these factor solutions appear to be psychometrically sound and stable and measure the underlying rape myth themes discussed within the Introduction. The current three and four-factor solutions accounted for a similar, if not larger, amount of total variance as pre-existing rape myth measures described (Briere et al., 1985; Caron & Carter, 1997; Feild, 1978; P. J. Harrison et al., 1991; Hinck & Thomas, 1999; Jones et al., 1998; Lanier & Green, 2006; Payne et al., 1999; P.A Resick & Jackson, 1981; Xenos & Smith, 2001). Furthermore, each section of the RAQ was considered to contain an optimal number of factors and items and not an excessive amount as seen in some pre-existing rape myth

measures (Feild, 1978; Hinck & Thomas, 1999; Payne et al., 1999). In regards to the theoretical interpretation of the current factor solutions, there appears to be significant overlap between the RAQ factors and the underlying domains of pre-existing rape myth measures (Briere et al., 1985; Feild, 1978; P. J. Harrison et al., 1991; Jones et al., 1998; Lanier & Elliott, 1997; Oh & Neville, 2004; Payne et al., 1999; P.A Resick & Jackson, 1981; Xenos & Smith, 2001). In particular, the factor structures of several pre-existing rape myth measures include factors that assess rape myths regarding (i) victims being responsible for the rape, (ii) victims being blamed for the rape occurring, and (iii) victims deserving to be raped (Briere et al., 1985; Feild, 1978; P. J. Harrison et al., 1991; Jones et al., 1998; Lanier & Green, 2006; Oh & Neville, 2004; Payne et al., 1999; P.A Resick & Jackson, 1981; Xenos & Smith, 2001). Clearly, such domains overlap with the RAQ female rape myths section and the male rape myths section factors of “Victim Resistance and Character,” and “Victim Deservedness” factors. Additional rape myth factors have also been identified through factor analyses by other researchers. Such factors include ‘false reporting’ (Briere et al., 1985; Jones et al., 1998; Payne et al., 1999), ‘rape as a trivial event’, ‘rape impact’, and ‘entitlement to have sex with others’ (Feild, 1978; Lanier & Green, 2006; Oh & Neville, 2004; Payne et al., 1999). Such factors have strong commonalities with the RAQ factors identified in the current study: “Rape Claims” “Significance of Rape”, and “Rape Dynamics and Perceptions”. Although there is no factor within the RAQ that relates specifically to the perpetrator, there are some items within the final RAQ item set that relate to the perpetrator. However, these items loaded onto other RAQ factors rather than coming together to form a separate factor, as seen in some pre-existing rape myth measures (Feild, 1978; Lanier & Green, 2006; Oh & Neville, 2004; Payne et al., 1999; P.A Resick & Jackson, 1981). It seems that there are many issues that relate to rape perpetrators and some that are beyond the scope of rape myths, such as the treatment or punishment of perpetrators. Therefore, an entirely separate measure could be constructed to focus upon individuals’ attitudes toward rape perpetrator issues, which would overlap somewhat with the RAQ assessing rape myths regarding rape perpetrators. In sum, the factor structure of the final RAQ item set is similar to that of several pre-existing rape myth measures and assesses the broad scope of domains that have been highlighted as relevant to rape myths (Buddie & Miller, 2001; Payne et al., 1999).

It terms of its psychometric properties, current findings indicate that the RAQ is a reliable and valid measure of an individual's rape myth endorsement levels. The RAQ items were shown to have both high internal reliability and strong face validity as well as moderate to high convergent validity. In comparison to pre-existing rape myth measures (Burt, 1980; Feild, 1978; Gilmartin-Zena, 1987; Hall et al., 1986; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Kershner, 1996; Lanier & Elliott, 1997; Larsen & Long, 1988; Oh & Neville, 2004; Payne et al., 1999; Ward, 1988; Young & Thiessen, 1992), the RAQ appears to offer an advantage over pre-existing rape myth acceptance measures in terms of reliability and validity. Nonetheless, it must be noted that further use of this scale and replication of findings with larger and diverse samples is needed before definitive statements can be made in regard to the utility of the measure.

There was considerable overlap noted between the female rape myths section and the male rape myths section of the final version of the RAQ. There were similarities observed in item quality and the factor structure of both sections. This suggests that the rape myth structure is similar for male rape myths and for female rape myths. That is, the underlying nature of rape myths did not differ with respect to male and female victims of rape. However, the order of the factors differed between the female and male rape myths sections of the RAQ, suggesting that the endorsement levels for male rape myths and female rape myths are not similar. The findings suggest that rape myths related to "Victim Resistance and Character" are more strongly endorsed for male rape myths than female rape myths. In contrast, rape myths related to "Rape Claims" are more strongly endorsed for female rape myths than male rape myths. The difference in the order of the factors of the female and male rape myths sections of the RAQ suggests that the certain rape myths may be more applicable or important to each gender. These findings underpin the importance of using gender specific rape myth measures.

In summary, the RAQ appears to be a reliable and valid measure of individual's rape myth endorsement levels. The underlying nature of rape myths did not differ between male victims of rape and female victims of rape. Although, certain rape myths seem to be more applicable to each gender. The gender neutral rape myth section (Section One) of the final version of the RAQ contained two factors labelled "Rape Dynamics and Perceptions" and "Rape Likelihood." The female rape myths section of the final version

of the RAQ contained four factors labelled “Significance of Rape,” “Rape Claims,” “Victim Deservedness” and “Victim Resistance and Character.” Similarly, the male rape myths section of the final version of the RAQ contained four factors labelled “Significance of Rape,” “Victim Resistance and Character,” “Rape Claims” and “Victim Deservedness.” These factors appear to be similar to the factor structures of several pre-existing rape myth measures and are measuring the broad scope of rape myths described earlier; victim blame, excusing the rapist, minimising the seriousness of rape, denying that rape occurs and characteristics or causes of rape. Overall, there appears to be support for the use of the RAQ to assess individual’s attitudes toward rape and rape related issues.

Rape Attitudinal Questionnaire outcomes.

In regards to the RAQ outcomes and participants’ rape myth endorsement levels, the current research provided further evidence that a small proportion of the population continues to hold rape supportive attitudes (Gilmartin-Zena, 1987; Holcomb et al., 1991; Kennedy & Gorzalka, 2002; Monto & Hotaling, 2001; Morry & Winkler, 2001; Perrott & Webber, 1996; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992; Williams et al., 1999). Rape myths that were endorsed to a greater degree were related to rape victims, both male and female, falsely claiming rape and victims wanting to be raped. Conversely, rape myths that were endorsed to a lesser degree were related to the beliefs that both male and female rape victims exaggerate the impact of rape, that rape is a trivial event and minimise the responsibility of the rape perpetrator. The following section discusses the varying endorsement levels of both female and male rape myths and the relationship between rape myth endorsement levels and a variety of demographic variables.

Comparison between female and male rape myths.

Based upon the current findings, the hypothesis that there are gender specific rape myths was supported. Although there was an overlap between the underlying themes and factor structure of the male and female rape myths, a comparison of the RAQ gender paired items revealed that some rape myths related to a specific gender are endorsed to a greater degree than the opposite equivalent gender myth. However, the observed differences between each gender item pair were not always found to be significantly different. The majority of the significant differences observed, revealed that

rape myths regarding males were endorsed to a greater extent than rape myths regarding females. In particular, the rape myths that were endorsed more strongly for male rape than for female rape were: males always want to have sex, males enjoy being raped, males should be strong enough to resist a rapist, males are less affected when raped and males are only raped when a weapon is involved. These rape myths suggest that males are masculine, dominant and sexually motivated. Further, the male rape myth item *"it would do some men good to be raped"* was endorsed to a greater extent relative to the female version. This rape myth may have been more strongly endorsed for males because participants may believe that as women are more likely to be raped by men, maybe some men should be raped so they can learn and empathise with what it is like to be a victim of rape. Further, the rape myth item *"any male may be raped"* was endorsed to a greater extent than the female version. This may suggest that participants might believe the stereotype that only a particular kind of female can be raped. Further, participants may believe that when a male is raped, it is by a perpetrator in a position of authority or using a weapon. Following this logic, when such dominance is used over the victim any man would be 'overpowered' and consequently any man can be raped. Such male specific rape myths have also been identified in previous male rape research (Coxell & King, 1996; Davies, 2002; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Hickson et al., 1994; Kassing, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Scarce, 1997; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992; Wakelin & Long, 2003). Conversely, those significant differences that revealed that female rape myths were endorsed to a greater extent than male rape myths were related to the rape myths that women falsely claim rape, women are vulnerable to be raped and that women provoke or invite rape. These rape myths suggest that women are weak, vulnerable and sexually provocative.

Clearly, the present findings show that rape myths affect both male and female rape, although some rape myths are more applicable and relevant to a particular gender. Such findings also evidence the need for a gender specific rape myth acceptance measure. It is pertinent to note, however, that it is not valid to conclude that male rape myths are endorsed to a greater level than female rape myths as previously suggested and currently hypothesised (Burczyk & Standing, 1989). Rather, rape myths regarding both female and male rape should be considered equally significant and the emerging gender specific themes should be highlighted (I. Anderson, 2007; Graham, 2006).

Rape Attitudinal Questionnaire and demographic variables.

In line with previous research, the current findings revealed that the majority of the sample did not endorse rape myths, however participants from particular demographic backgrounds were more likely than others to endorse rape myths. In particular, males were more likely than females to hold rape supportive attitudes. This finding has been consistently found within the rape myth literature (K. B. Anderson et al., 1997; Aosved & Long, 2006; Barnett et al., 1992; Blumberg & Lester, 1991; Boxely et al., 1995; Caron & Carter, 1997; Ching & Burke, 1999; Davis & Lee, 1996; Dye & Roth, 1990; Eastal, 1992; Feild, 1978; Gilmartin-Zena, 1987, 1988; Golge et al., 2003; Hamilton & Yee, 1990; P. J. Harrison et al., 1991; Heppner, Humphrey et al., 1995; Hinck & Thomas, 1999; Holcomb et al., 1991; Holcomb et al., 2002; Jimenez & Abreu, 2003; Johnson et al., 1997; Jones et al., 1998; Kalichman et al., 2005; Kassing, 2003; Kassing et al., 2005; Kassing & Prieto, 2003; Kennedy & Gorzalka, 2002; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Lanier & Green, 2006; Larsen & Long, 1988; Lee & Cheung, 1991; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Mitchell et al., 1999; Mori et al., 1995; Morry & Winkler, 2001; Muir et al., 1995; Oh & Neville, 2004; Patitu, 1998; Payne et al., 1999; P.A Resick & Jackson, 1981; Sapp et al., 1999; Sawyer et al., 2002; Smith et al., 1988; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992; Szymanski et al., 1993; Varelas & Foley, 1998; Wakelin & Long, 2003; Ward, 1988; Whatley & Riggio, 1993; B. H. White & Kurpius, 1999; Williams et al., 1999; Xenos & Smith, 2001; Young & Thiessen, 1992). In the present study, gender differences were found for rape myths relating to females, rape myths relating to males, and gender-neutral rape myths. That is, in comparison to females, males tend to more strongly endorse rape supportive attitudes. It is important to note that the significant gender differences found between rape myth endorsement levels within the current and previous studies are a matter of the degree of endorsement and not a matter of opposites (Young & Thiessen, 1992). Consistent with the views of previous commentators, it is argued that such gender differences are due to the general empathy differences noted between gender (I. Anderson, 2007; Bohner et al., 1993; Mitchell et al., 1999; Oh & Neville, 2004; Smith et al., 1988; Wakelin & Long, 2003; B. H. White & Kurpius, 1999). In particular, females are more likely to be raped and subsequently exposed more to rape issues, therefore women identify more with rape victims and subsequently hold more empathic views towards rape victims and reject rape myths. Conversely, as males are more likely to be perpetrators of rape, they may be more likely

to identify with the rapist and subsequently hold attitudes that tolerate, justify or minimise rape (Bohner et al., 1993; Szymanski et al., 1993). The current research also found that the gender difference between rape myth endorsement levels appears to be higher for rape myths related to males than rape myths related to females. This finding indicates that male respondents endorsed male rape myths to a greater extent than female respondents. Therefore, it seems that, overall, males do not empathise or identify with male victims of rape more so than female victims of rape. Rather, as found in previous research, females in comparison to males empathise more with rape victims in general (Mitchell et al., 1999; Wakelin & Long, 2003). It is also feasible that males do not want to acknowledge that they could potentially be a victim of rape, therefore distance themselves from the possibility by endorsing rape myths (I. Anderson, 2007). Unfortunately, due to the limited number of male rape victims participating in the current research, it could not be determined if victim status influenced the observed gender differences of rape myth endorsement levels.

The personal knowledge of a rape victim was the only other demographic variable that produced varying rape myth endorsement levels, as measured by most of the factors of the RAQ. Those participants who knew someone, other than themselves, who had been a victim of rape were significantly less likely to endorse rape myths that related to males or females. Although no causal relationship can be confirmed, it seems that personally knowing a rape victim may positively impact an individual's level of empathy towards rape victims, and subsequently, such individuals are more likely to reject rape myths. Previous research has also concluded that having personal involvement with someone who has been a victim of rape is significantly associated with lower rates of rape myth acceptance and with more empathic attitudes towards rape victims (K. B. Anderson et al., 1997; Ching & Burke, 1999; Gilmartin-Zena, 1987; Truman, 1996). Consistent with previous researchers, the current study found no differences between prior rape victimisation and attitudes toward rape (Burt, 1980; Feild, 1978; Kalof, 2000; Koss & Dinero, 1989; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992). Therefore, knowing someone who has been raped may increase your level of empathy towards rape victims more so than actually being raped yourself. However, there was a small significant difference noted between rape victim status for the male rape myths section "Victim Resistance and Character" factor. That is, participants who had endured rape were

significantly more likely than those participants who had not to reject rape myths related to the male victim's resistance during the rape and negative perceptions of the male victim's character. There was also a similar trend approaching significance that was found for the gender neutral rape myths (Section One) "Rape Dynamics and Perceptions" factor. Although, the inability to detect any substantial significant differences between victim status for the other rape myths could indicate that victims and non-victims of rape endorse rape myths to a similar extent.

Differences between participants other demographic variables and rape myth endorsement levels, as measured by the RAQ factors, were also noted. The gender neutral rape myths (Section One) "Rape Likelihood" factor will be discussed separately below. However, in regards to the other RAQ factors, younger participants and "low income" earners endorsed rape myths to a greater extent than their counterparts. However, not all of these observed demographic differences were statistically significant for all of the factors of the RAQ. In particular, younger participants were significantly more likely than older participants to endorse rape myths as measured by the "Rape Dynamics and Perceptions" factor and both "Victim Resistance and Character" factors of the RAQ. Although previous research examining age and rape myth endorsement levels has produced mixed results (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994), several studies that have utilised participants beyond a college or student sample, have concluded that younger participants are more likely to endorse rape myths than older participants (Aromaki et al., 2002; Hamilton & Yee, 1990). Further, "low income" earners were significantly more likely than "moderate income" and "high income" earners to endorse rape myths as measured by the RAQ female rape myths section "Rape Claims" and "Victim Resistance and Character" factors. Although the research examining the area is limited, some researchers have concluded that income was not related to rape myth endorsement levels (A. M. White et al., 1998). However, consistent with the current findings, there appears to be an emerging view that individuals from lower socio-economic backgrounds report higher levels of rape myth endorsement (Burt, 1980; Kassing, 2003; Kassing et al., 2005). When considered together, such findings suggest that some demographic groups are more likely to endorse rape myths than others, especially in regards to particular types of rape myths.

Although some trends were noted, no significant differences between rape myth endorsement levels, as measured by the remaining RAQ factors, were found for the parental status, marital status, sexual orientation, or religion variables. However, the current examination of religion and such demographic variables as culture, employment status, and education were limited due to the open and non-exclusive item coding used in the study. Previous research examining religion and rape myth acceptance levels (Aosved & Long, 2006) concluded that greater levels of religious intolerance were associated with higher levels of rape myth acceptance, a finding that is inconsistent with the trends noted within the current research. However research in this area is in its initial stages, thus more detailed research is required before definitive conclusions can be validly made. Previous research examining marital status or parental status and rape myth acceptance levels have produced mixed findings (Feild, 1978; Kassing, 2003; Monto & Hotaling, 2001). The current research did not show rape myth endorsement level differences between such demographic groups, a finding consistent with past research (Monto & Hotaling, 2001). However, research in this area is similarly sparse, and more detailed research is required before firm conclusions can be drawn. Research examining sexual orientation and rape myth acceptance levels has typically concluded that gay men are the least likely to endorse rape myths (Davies & McCartney, 2003). However, support for this finding was not found within the current research, possibly due to the limited numbers of gay men who completed the survey. Moreover, there appeared to be a trend within the current research suggesting that lesbians were least likely to endorse rape myths as measured by the RAQ factors. This finding may be due to lesbians being more likely to identify with the rape victim, and thus endorsed fewer rape myths or endorsed such myths to a lesser extent. However, before any definitive conclusions can be validly drawn, further detailed research needs to be conducted in the area of sexual orientation and rape myth endorsement.

There was no significant relationship between rape myth endorsement levels and the likelihood of reporting one's own rape. In contrast, significant relationships were found between rape myth endorsement levels and the likelihood of encouraging another person to report their rape, as measured by several RAQ factors. Specifically, as participants' likelihood to encourage others to report a rape increased, their rape myth endorsement levels also increased. It does not seem that those who do not encourage

others to report rape are doing so because they believe that the victim deserved to be raped, provoked the rape or falsely claimed rape and therefore the perpetrator should not be charged. Rather, a conceivable explanation for this relationship involves the respondent's knowledge of the potential 'risks' associated with reporting. Thus, individuals who reject rape supportive attitudes might not encourage others to report a rape since they are aware of rape related issues, and particularly the adverse attitudes and experiences rape victims can face when reporting the crime. Hence, such individuals would not wish for rape victims to undergo that negative experience of reporting the crime to police. The corollary is that those individuals who do endorse rape supportive attitudes may encourage rape victims to report the crime as they are unaware of the potential adverse attitudes and experiences rape victims can face. Further, participants who endorse rape myths conceptualise rape as fitting the "real rape" stereotype and may also encourage others to report a rape as it was considered a serious, traumatic and violent crime. The failure to find a significant relationship between rape myth endorsement levels and the likelihood of reporting one's *own* rape could be related to the fact that individuals are more supportive and encouraging of other people than themselves. In particular, individuals are less likely to report their own rape than encourage others to report a rape. It provides further support for the notion that rape is an under reported crime (Buddie & Miller, 2001; Bunting & Reeves, 1983; Coxell & King, 1996; Crome et al., 1999; Doherty & Anderson, 2004; P. J. Harrison et al., 1991; Kilpatrick et al., 1981; Koss, 1993; Koss et al., 1988; Lees, 1997; Patitu, 1998; Peretti & Cozzens, 1983; Pino & Meier, 1999; Varelas & Foley, 1998). That is, regardless of individual's attitudes toward rape, they are not likely to report any crime to police, especially rape.

"Rape Likelihood" factor.

The RAQ gender neutral rape myths (Section One) "Rape Likelihood" factor was the most endorsed factor of the RAQ. Items within the "Rape Likelihood" factor related to the perceived likelihood of rape occurring to particular individuals or to the participant themselves. The "Rape Likelihood" factor was unique within the RAQ because the items it contained index issues beyond formal rape myths. Low "Rape Likelihood" scores indicated that participants believed that they were more likely than others to be raped and that other people were likely to be raped. Conversely, high "Rape Likelihood" scores

indicated that participants believed that they were less likely than others to be raped and that other people were not likely to be raped. Therefore, low “Rape Likelihood” scores not only indicated that the participant held rape supportive attitudes, but also revealed that the participant did not consider themselves, or others they know, to be at risk of being raped.

Inspection of the endorsement levels of the items within the “Rape Likelihood” factor revealed that participants believed that people they know are more likely than unlikely to be raped. In particular, individuals believe that women they know are more likely to be raped than men they know are. This suggests that individuals are aware of the fact that females are more likely to be raped than males. Results also revealed that participants rated themselves to be at a greater likelihood of being raped when they were asked to compare their likelihood of being raped to others of their age and gender than when giving a general rating of risk. That is, participants acknowledged that they themselves also could potentially be a victim of rape especially when they compared themselves to others of their gender and age. This finding suggests that when participants considered their own age and gender they were more likely to imagine themselves as a potential rape victim. These conclusions are consistent with previous research showing that a proportion of the sample, predominantly women, stated that they feared being raped (Davis & Lee, 1996; Otis, 2007) or they expected to be raped in certain situations (Morry & Winkler, 2001). However, it seems that there are influences beyond gender and age that influence the rape risk perceptions. The following discussion regarding the demographic differences noted between the RAQ gender neutral rape myths (Section One) “Rape Likelihood” factor endorsement levels provides some insight into why it is that some participants perceived themselves to be of greater likelihood of being raped than others of the same age and gender.

The “Rape Likelihood” factor produced results approaching significance, if not significant, between most of the demographic variables. That is, females, younger participants, non-religious participants, participants no longer in a serious relationship, parents, lesbians, participants who personally knew a rape victim, and those participants who had already been raped were more likely than their counterparts to believe that they themselves or others they knew were likely to be raped. Research has repeatedly

concluded that rape occurs across demographic backgrounds (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Davis & Lee, 1996; Del Bove et al., 2005; Gilmartin-Zena, 1987; Kassing, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Koss & Dinero, 1989; G. Mezey & King, 1989; Scarce, 1997). Therefore, some individuals might be putting themselves at risk by not realising their potential to be raped. It seems that certain individuals may believe that they are protected from being raped due to belonging to particular demographic backgrounds, such as being a man, having a religious affiliation, or being older. Although research clearly indicates that women are raped more often than men (Bohner et al., 2002; Bourque, 1989; Department of Justice, 2001; Ellis, 1989; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Smith et al., 1988; Watkins Jr., 1990), males can also be victims of rape (Coxell & King, 1996; Crome et al., 1999; Department of Justice, 1997; Graham, 2006; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Hickson et al., 1994; Hodge & Canter, 1998; Kalichman et al., 2005; Kassing & Prieto, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; G. C. Mezey & King, 1992; Rada, 1985; J. Walker et al., 2005a, 2005b; Watkins Jr., 1990). This may not have been realistically recognised by participants within the current research. Furthermore, participants who had previously been raped, or personally knew a rape victim, were significantly more likely to consider themselves potentially at risk of being raped. This is possibly due to such participants having a heightened awareness of rape related issues, subsequently realising that rape victims come from a variety of demographic backgrounds and that many people are potentially at risk of being raped. It is also suggested that rape victims may have believed that they are likely to be raped again, especially if they know the perpetrator and are likely to have further contact with them. Within the current sample, lesbian participants also perceived themselves to have a significantly greater likelihood of being raped than both gay and heterosexual participants. Although, this significant difference could have been influenced by other variables such as gender or victim status. Researchers have concluded that gay and lesbians are more likely to be victims of rape than heterosexual equivalents (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Balsam et al., 2005; Duncan, 1990; Kassing, 2003; Koss, 1993; Krahe et al., 2000; Scheer et al., 2003; Waldner-Haugrud & Vaden Gratch, 1997) and there was a high proportion of the current lesbian sample that also reported being a victim of rape. However, due to the limited number of males, and in particular gay males and male rape victims, participating in the current research, it is difficult to draw any reliable conclusions that compare sexual orientation groups. Furthermore, no conclusions can be drawn regarding the causal link

between sexual orientation and victim status. That is, due to the research design, it is not possible to determine if women became lesbians as a result of being raped or if they were raped because they were lesbians. Future research should attempt to replicate this finding and examine this relationship further.

Propensity to rape.

Over 5% of the current sample reported that they would be “likely” or “very likely” to rape someone if they could get away with it. This finding, and the proportion of respondents who endorsed the item, is consistent with previous research in showing that rape would be an option for some if the risk of detection or punishment was absent (Briere & Malamuth, 1983; Check & Malamuth, 1983; Demare et al., 1988; Greendlinger & Byrne, 1987; N M Malamuth, 1981, 1988; N M Malamuth & Check, 1985; Osland et al., 1996; W. D. Walker et al., 1993; Young & Thiessen, 1992). However, when the word rape was removed from similar rape propensity items of the RAQ, participants reported a lower likelihood of “having sex with someone against their will.” This finding is inconsistent with previous studies that have utilised both styles of wording. Previously, respondents have reported a greater likelihood of “forcing someone to have sex” rather than “raping” them (Briere & Malamuth, 1983; Demare et al., 1988; N M Malamuth, 1988; W. D. Walker et al., 1993). This discrepant finding may be due to a response bias as the re-phrased items were embedded in the gender neutral rape myths (Section One) of the RAQ, whereas the direct rape propensity item was included separately and also had a unique response scale. It is feasible that if the re-phrased rape propensity items were included separately to the other items, and consistent with previous research, more participants would have reported that they would force someone to have sex. Regardless, there remains a small proportion of the population that reported that they would “rape” someone or “have sex with someone against their will.”

An examination of demographic background variables and rape propensity revealed that male participants reported a significantly higher likelihood to rape someone if they thought they would get away with it. The gender difference in reported rape propensity is in line with the prevalence data that indicates that men are more likely to commit rape than women (Davies, 2002; Hickson et al., 1994; Kassing, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Krahe et al., 2003; Lie et al., 1991; Poropat & Rosevear, 1992; Stermac et al., 1996).

Within the current research gay participants also reported a significantly higher likelihood to rape someone if they thought they would get away with it. Findings suggest that gay men are more likely to report a propensity to rape someone if they thought they could get away with it in comparison to heterosexuals. One possible explanation could be related to gay men feeling a sense of repression within society and raping someone could be an attempt to gain power and control. This conclusion does not imply that gay men are more likely than heterosexuals to actually rape someone, rather they are more likely to report a propensity to rape. Although, previous research has indicated that a reported propensity to commit rape is related to actually committing rape (Hinck & Thomas, 1999). As research in this area is relatively new, this finding needs to be replicated before any firm reliable conclusions can be drawn. Moreover, the limited number of males and gay men participating within the current research also limits the generalisability of the current findings. There were no other significant demographic differences noted in regards to participants' likelihood to rape somebody if they thought they could get away with it. In particular, there was no significant difference between victim status and rape propensity despite previous researchers finding that some rape victims go on to become perpetrators of rape (Krahe et al., 2000; Lie & Gentlewarrier, 1991; Lie et al., 1991).

In line with previous research findings (Bourque, 1989; Greendlinger & Byrne, 1987; Hamilton & Yee, 1990; N M Malamuth, 1981, 1988; N M Malamuth & Check, 1985; Osland et al., 1996; Truman, 1996; W. D. Walker et al., 1993), the current research also found that as participants' rape myth endorsement levels increased so did their likelihood to rape someone if they believed that they would get away with it. However, this finding was not evident for all of the female rape myth factors and for neither of the male rape myth factors. The lack of relationship between rape propensity and the male rape myth factors indicates that individuals propensity to rape does not differ regardless of what attitudes they hold towards male victims of rape. Not surprisingly, the female rape myth factors that did produce a significant relationship with reported rape propensity were "Victim Deservedness" and "Rape Claims." Thus, individuals who believe that females falsely claim that they were raped, actually consented at the time of the rape, or deserve to be raped also report a greater propensity to rape. This finding provides support for the notion that there is a relationship between rape myth

endorsement levels and reported propensity to rape, however, no causal explanation can be provided. That is, the endorsement of rape myths may act as a way to remove the guilt associated with previously sexual coercive behaviour (W. D. Walker et al., 1993) or the endorsement of rape myths may have a causal influence upon an individual's intention to commit rape in the future. Nevertheless, it seems intuitive that the pro-rape thoughts and attitudes would occur prior to the behaviour (Bohner et al., 1998).

Current research limitations and future research

There are several limitations of the current research, some of which have been outlined previously. In particular, there was a relatively small number of males and subsequently, gay males and male rape victims, who participated in the current research. This issue often limited the ability to validly compare gender or to examine gender as a co-variate and limited the ability to thoroughly examine the demographic variable of sexual orientation. Due to the limited number of male participants, it could be argued that the current sample is somewhat biased despite being relatively large overall. Further, as discussed previously, while the completion of the research survey over the Internet did allow for a large proportion of the population to participate in the research, this methodology may also have contributed to a biased sample. Attempts were made to allow individuals to participate in the current research even if they did not access the Internet, e.g. respondents could contact the researchers to obtain a paper version of the RAQ and return it by postage anonymously. It is also possible, as with most research, the area of investigation itself may have attracted a particular type of participant. In this instance, individuals who had been raped may have been more willing to participate, thus potentially biasing the sample and subsequent findings. Therefore, future research should aim to examine a more even sample that appears to be more representative of the general population. For example, future research that has a less restricted budget could implement a random proportion to population size sampling strategy or implement a less biased and more representative sample similar to those implemented by the Australian Bureau of Statistics crime surveys (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2005a). Such future research would enable the prevalence rate of male rape and female rape to be examined. This type of similar research would aid in confirming the occurrence rate of rape discovered in the current research and provide further insight into the issues

male rape victims experience. While the methodology may have created a bias, researchers have suggested that there are several advantages of conducting research via the Internet (Reimers, 2007). In particular, it creates an opportunity to access a large number of potential participants, a variety of demographic backgrounds are found in an Internet-based sample and complete anonymity is provided to respondents discussing sensitive topics. Although, the current topic may have attracted a certain 'type' of participants, every effort was made to market the research to the broad community, e.g. advertising the research throughout a variety of places across the country and via a range of mediums. Despite the Internet methodology and these marketing strategies, there were still a limited number of males participating in the current research, which unfortunately is consistent with the majority of previous studies (Breakwell et al., 2002).

The open coding of demographic variables, such as occupation, religion, and culture limited the usefulness of such variable data as the responses were too varied to allow for any meaningful analysis. Similarly, allowing participants to select several responses for some variables impeded data analysis. Although, this non-exclusive coding was found to be informative for variables regarding individual's experiences of rape, it only complicated or limited the interpretation of findings when it was utilised for demographic variables such as education and employment. Therefore, it is essential that future research remain mindful of such coding techniques and more research be conducted into these demographic variables and rape or rape myth endorsement levels.

Several areas regarding rape that were examined in the current research were examined at a preliminary level and future research should aim to replicate and expand on such findings. For example, the current study focused upon reporting rape to police or not informing anyone that the rape occurred. Future research could expand this focus to examine the victim decision-making in terms of reporting their rape to such professionals as counsellors, psychologists, or psychiatrists or to informal supports such as friends or family. Such research should also continue to examine the post rape sequelae for rape victims receiving such assistance from the variety of formal and informal supports. Further, the current research found that many rape victims experience depressive symptoms, suicidal thoughts, and have attempted suicide. Further exploration into this area is crucial. More specifically, research should review the

relationship between pre-rape factors, such as age and sexual orientation, and rape sequelae. The current research also examined the relationship between drugs or alcohol and rape with the current findings suggesting that some rape victims were unaware of their level of alcohol or drugs, which could indicate that they had been unknowingly drugged. Future research in this area would allow for prevalence data and outcomes of such behaviour to be reliably documented.

As highlighted, the examination of rape perpetrators was beyond the scope of the current research, with the current research focusing predominantly upon rape victims and their perceptions of the rape. This does not imply that research investigating rape perpetrators is not warranted or valuable. It is necessary to examine each side of rape, the victim's perspective and the perpetrator's perspective, which can only aid in further understanding the crime and hopefully assisting in the reduction of rape occurring.

Although, there appears to be initial support for the use of the RAQ to assess individuals' attitudes toward rape, further research needs to be conducted to allow for the replication and expansion of the current psychometric findings. Moreover, long-term extensive research could be conducted with the RAQ with the aim to create normative data for the measure. In regards to the construction of future measures, it is essential to include reversed items. Although, the RAQ does contain several reversed items, it seems there were too few, which could have possibly increased the likelihood of a response bias occurring. The applicability of the RAQ across different cultures is currently unknown and warrants further research. Overall, the endorsement levels of rape myths, for both male and female rape, should continue to be investigated and monitored across time.

Implications

Despite the stated limitations of the current research, there are several notable implications of the current findings. The results of the current research confirmed that rape continues to be prevalent within society and affects a range of individuals from a variety of demographic backgrounds (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Davis & Lee, 1996; Del Bove et al., 2005; Gilmartin-Zena, 1987; Kassing, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; Koss & Dinero, 1989; G. Mezey & King, 1989; Scarce, 1997). The current relationship between

experiences of rape and mental health issues also suggests that being raped can severely and adversely impact upon the victim's life (C. L. Anderson, 1982; Frazier & Burnett, 1994; Groth & Burgess, 1980; Kassing, 2003; Kerr Melanson, 1998; P A Resick, 1993; Ullman, 2007c). Yet, many rape victims do not seek professional assistance and do not report the rape to police or anyone else (Easteal, 1992). Therefore, it is necessary to continue and to advance the support services available to victims of rape. Increasing public awareness of the assistance that is available to rape victims might make these services more accessible to rape victims that may be isolating themselves experiencing psychological distress (Resick, 1993; Ullman, 1996). However, formal support services that rape victim's access should also receive further training regarding rape issues in general, but also gender and sexual orientation specific rape issues, and how to provide sensitive and appropriate support (Graham, 2006; Long et al., 2007; Ullman, 2007c). It is essential to provide ongoing training to support services as researchers have continually shown that the quality of support a victim receives after being raped impacts upon the recovery process (Barnett et al., 1992; Koss & Burkhardt, 1989; Parrot, 1991; P A Resick, 1993; Starzynski et al., 2005; Ullman, 1996, 2007c; Ullman et al., 2006).

The current results also indicate an ongoing need to continue to increase society's awareness of the issues that surround rape and rape victims, as it is clear that some individuals within the population continue to endorse rape supportive attitudes. The current findings could be used to inform rape awareness campaigns and help highlight the specific sub-populations that are more likely to endorse such attitudes that condone and perpetuate the occurrence of rape within our society (K. B. Anderson et al., 1997). Research has demonstrated that increasing individuals' awareness of issues related to rape has resulted in a decreased reported likelihood of committing rape (Easteal, 1992). Given that the current research found that a proportion of the sample stated that they would commit rape under certain situations, it is vital that efforts are made to alter these cognitions that condone such behaviour. Logically, reducing individuals' reported likelihood of committing rape would aid in the reduction of actually committing rape.

Recently, there have been awareness campaigns funded by the Australian Government that have attempted to alter individual's attitudes towards violence against women

(Abetz, 2004). Such campaigns are useful, however as the current results indicate that males, as well as females, are raped, awareness campaigns should move the focus beyond women and address rape in regards to both genders. Such campaigns should also include addressing issues regarding the use of drugs and alcohol during rape incidents as drugs and alcohol continue to be strongly associated with rape (Brecklin & Ullman, 2001; Parrot, 1991). Furthermore, by reducing the endorsement levels of rape supportive attitudes through educational campaigns within society, rape victims, from both genders, may feel more comfortable to report their rape, which would hopefully also assist in reducing the occurrence of rape within our society (K. B. Anderson et al., 1997; Easteal, 1992; Gilmartin-Zena, 1987; Hamilton & Yee, 1990; P. J. Harrison, Downes, & Williams, 1991; Hinck & Thomas, 1999; Holcomb, Holcomb, Sondag, & Williams, 1991; Jones, Resick, 1993; Russell, & Bryant, 1998). Rape education programs should not only target the general community but also target secondary school students. It is at this stage of life when such attitudes and behaviours are developing and are more influential (Abbey et al., 2001; Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991; Parrot, 1991). Further, ongoing rape education campaigns would be more effective at influencing attitudes than one-off interventions (Breitenbecher & Scarce, 1999; Parrot, 1991). In sum, effective rape educational campaigns would focus upon altering the cognitions and behaviours of potential perpetrators, increasing society's sensitivity to rape issues and victims and enhance potential victim's awareness of rape risk factors, prevention techniques and support services (Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991; Breitenbecher & Scarce, 1999; Parrot, 1991; Ullman, 2007a). Focusing upon education aimed at potential victims does not imply that they are responsible for rape prevention, rather intervention should intend to empower victims (Bechhofer & Parrot, 1991; Ullman, 2007a).

Within the current research, the RAQ was shown to be a valid and reliable tool to assess individuals' attitudes toward rape and allowed for a direct comparison of rape myths related to females and rape myths related to males. Therefore, the RAQ would be a useful assessment tool to be implemented in future research examining rape myth endorsement levels within certain sub-populations. The RAQ could also be used across time to determine if rape myth endorsement levels alter over a period of time or after an intervention, such as a rape awareness campaign. In time, once normative data is

established, the RAQ could also be used as guide to determine the “normality” of an individual’s rape myth endorsement level.

Conclusion

In sum, rape continues to be prevalent within today’s society. Both males and females were shown to be victims of rape. It is likely that rape supportive attitudes that are shown to be widely held by certain individuals continue to perpetuate rape, and the under reporting of rape, within society. Thus, altering such attitudes may assist in reducing the occurrence of rape within society and encourage rape victims to report the crime to police and seek professional counselling support if required. Overall, the current research highlights the need for research to continue to be conducted in the area of rape and attitudes toward rape. The RAQ has been shown to be a useful tool that could be implemented within such research. Therefore, the current study has not only added to the research area regarding rape and rape myths but has also created a tool that can be used to measure such myths.

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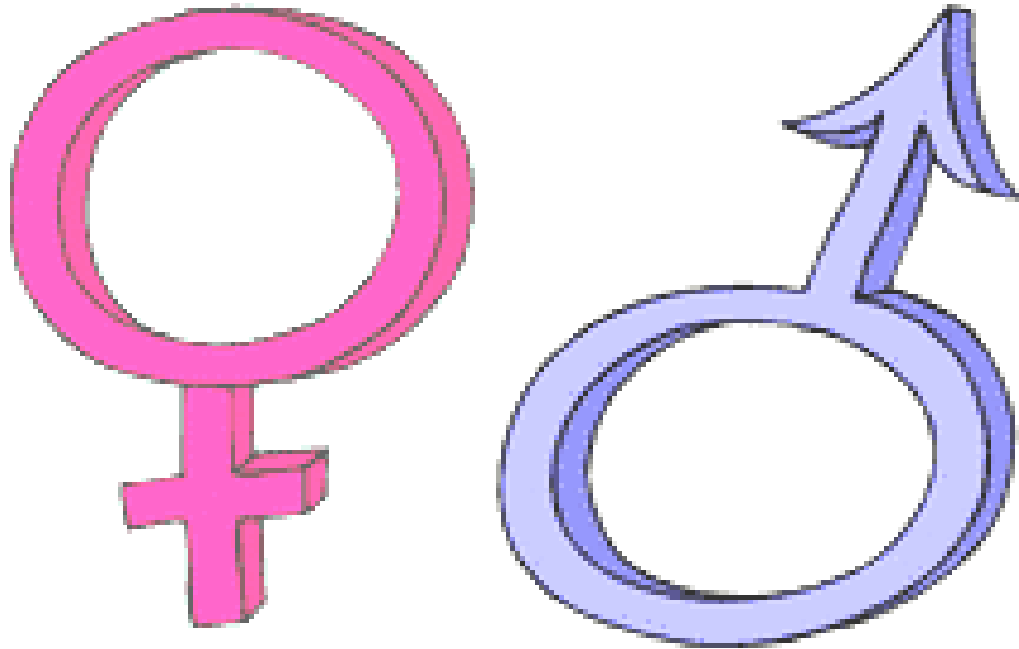
APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Rape Attitudinal Questionnaire – version 1 and version 2.

Primary Investigator: Ms. Kara Granger

Supervising Investigator: Dr. David Smith

Rape Attitudinal Questionnaire



By completing and returning this survey you agree to the following conditions:

1. *I have received a statement explaining the interview/questionnaire involved in this project.*
2. *I consent to participate in the above project, the particulars of which - including details of the questionnaires - have been explained to me.*
3. *I authorise the investigator to administer a questionnaire.*
4. *I acknowledge that:*
 - (a) *Having read Plain Language Statement, I agree to the general purpose, methods and demands of the study.*
 - (b) *I have been informed that I am free to withdraw from the project until the time of submitting the questionnaire.*
 - (c) *The project is for the purpose of research and/or teaching. It may not be of direct benefit to me.*
 - (d) *The privacy of the personal information I provide will be safeguarded and only disclosed where I have consented to the disclosure or as required by law.*
 - (e) *The security of the research data is assured during and after completion of the study. The data collected during the study may be published, and a report of the project outcomes will be provided to RMIT University and placed on the Internet. Any information which could identify me will not be used.*
5. *I am aware that if information is supplied relating to activities which are dangerous to the public or which the researcher believes on reasonable grounds to be dangerous to the public then the researcher may be obliged to notify appropriate authorities. I also understand that survey documents, materials or results may be required to be disclosed or produced by court order, subpoena or other legal or statutory power or otherwise as required by law.*

CODE NAME:

Note: Please create your own code name if you intend to participate in the related research. **Your real name should not be recorded. Make sure YOU WILL REMEMBER your code name and that it is between 2 and 10 items long,** (letters and numbers). You will be asked to use the same code name in the related research, so please use a code name that you will easily remember.

RAPE ATTITUDINAL QUESTIONNAIRE

Section 1

Please complete the questionnaire one section at a time. This section contains questions about your attitudes towards rape. **PLEASE** carefully read the following instructions.

INSTRUCTIONS: Please read the following statements carefully and then respond to every statement by circling the number which best describes your feelings about the statement. When completing the questionnaire do not dwell too long on any one question. Thank-you for participating in the current study.

Please answer the following statements using this rating scale by *circling* the corresponding number
1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Somewhat agree; 4 = Somewhat disagree; 5 = Disagree; 6 = Strongly disagree

1.	It is not considered rape if the two people have previously had consensual sex in the past	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Females cannot rape other women	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	I am unlikely to be raped in my life time	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	Rapists are treated too harshly	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	Most rapes would occur when the victim has engaged in risky behaviours	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	If I really wanted to, I would have sex with someone against their will if I knew I wasn't going to get caught	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	In a committed relationship, if a partner requests sex, you have an obligation to agree	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	Perpetrators, not victims are responsible for rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	If a person appeared controlled and calm the day after their alleged rape, it probably isn't true	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	Outside all-male settings, the rape of men is too rare to be worth worrying about	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	People are usually raped by someone they don't know	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Rapists should receive opportunities for rehabilitation	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	Victims of rape rarely report the crime	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	Rape is unlikely to happen to any female I know	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	Only a homosexual man would rape another man	1	2	3	4	5	6

- | | | | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 16. | I am less likely to be raped in comparison to others of my age and gender | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 17. | As long as I didn't hurt the person, it would be ok for me to have sex with them against their will | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE NEXT PAGE

Please answer the following questions using this rating scale by *circling* the corresponding number
1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Somewhat agree; 4 = Somewhat disagree; 5 = Disagree; 6 = Strongly disagree

- | | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18. | If a person is in a current sexual relationship with the accused, you wouldn't really call it rape | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 19. | A report of rape several days after the act is probably a false report | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 20. | Rape is unlikely to happen to any male I know | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 21. | Females cannot be guilty of rape | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 22. | Males rape other males only in all-male institutionalised settings | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 23. | A prostitute can be raped | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 24. | Marital rape is not possible because a man has rights to sex in marriage | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 25. | A rapist must perpetrate or threaten physical violence towards the victim in order for the act to be considered rape | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

26. How likely is it that you would rape someone if you thought you could get away with it? *Please circle*
- | | | | | |
|-------------------|---|---|---|-------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Not at all likely | | | | Very likely |

Section 2

This section contains brief questions about your attitudes towards women and rape. PLEASE carefully read the following instructions.

REMEMBER: THESE QUESTIONS RELATE TO WOMEN

INSTRUCTIONS: Please read the following statements carefully and then respond to every statement by circling the number which best describes your feelings about the statement. When completing the questionnaire do not dwell too long on any one question. Thank-you for participating in the current study.

Please answer the following statements using this rating scale by *circling* the corresponding number
1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Somewhat agree; 4 = Somewhat disagree; 5 = Disagree; 6 = Strongly disagree

- | | | | | | | | |
|----|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | A raped woman is a less desirable woman | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. | The extent of a female victim's resistance should determine if a rape has occurred | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. | A raped woman is usually an innocent victim | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

4.	Women often claim rape to protect their reputations	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	In the majority of rape cases, the female victim is promiscuous or has a poor moral character	1	2	3	4	5	6

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE BACK OF THIS PAGE

Please answer the following questions using this rating scale by *circling* the corresponding number
1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Somewhat agree; 4 = Somewhat disagree; 5 = Disagree; 6 = Strongly disagree

6.	Women who have had prior sexual relationships should not complain about rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	Female victims who provoke rape by their appearance or behaviour are responsible for the act	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	Intoxicated women are usually willing to have sexual relations	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	It would do some women good to be raped	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	Women who feel guilty or regret having had sex are likely to falsely claim rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Most women secretly or unconsciously desire to be raped	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Any female may be raped	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	Women who are raped while accepting rides from strangers get what they deserve	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	If a woman is raped while drunk she is somewhat responsible	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	If a female doesn't physically resist sex, even when protesting verbally, it really can't be considered rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	A woman who goes out alone at night puts herself in a position to be raped	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	Many women claim rape if they have consented to sex but have changed their minds afterwards	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	Accusations of rape by female escorts, female exotic dancers and female prostitutes should be viewed with suspicion	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	A female victim should blame herself for rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	A healthy woman can successfully resist a single rapist if she really tries	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	Many women who report rape are lying because they are angry or want revenge on the accused	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	Women who wear revealing or provocative clothing are inviting rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	Women often put themselves into situations in which they are likely to be raped	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	Even sexually experienced women are damaged by rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	In most cases, when a woman was raped she deserved it	1	2	3	4	5	6

- | | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 26. | If a woman is intoxicated by alcohol or drugs during the alleged rape, there is a good chance that she consented at the time | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 27. | Women are to blame for rape if the accused becomes so aroused that it leads to a loss of control | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 28. | Female victims tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE NEXT PAGE

Please answer the following questions using this rating scale by *circling* the corresponding number
1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Somewhat agree; 4 = Somewhat disagree; 5 = Disagree; 6 = Strongly disagree

- | | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 29. | A woman who goes to the home of a partner on their first date implies that she is willing to have sex | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 30. | If the female 'victim' doesn't perceive it as rape herself, then surely it can't be rape | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 31. | If a woman is heavily intoxicated by alcohol or drugs and does not resist it is ok to have sex with them | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 32. | When females rape it is due to their overwhelming, unfulfilled sexual desire | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 33. | A rape probably didn't occur if the female victim has no visible physical injury | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 34. | If she can't remember the rape (e.g., because she was asleep, unconscious or intoxicated by alcohol or drugs), then no real harm is done | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 35. | Some women enjoy being raped | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 36. | If a woman only says "no" but does not physically resist, it is still ok to have sex with her as long as you don't hurt her | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 37. | Female rape really only occurs when a rapist has a weapon, or if there is a number of attackers | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 38. | A woman can control her behaviour no matter how aroused she is at the time | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 39. | If a woman says no but her body language is telling you something different it is ok to have sex with her | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 40. | When a woman is very sexually aroused, she could be excused for not noticing that the other person is resisting sex | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

Section 3

This section contains brief questions about your attitudes towards men and rape. PLEASE carefully read the following instructions.

REMEMBER: THESE QUESTIONS RELATE TO MEN

INSTRUCTIONS: Please read the following statements carefully and then respond to every statement by circling the number which best describes your feelings about the statement. When completing the questionnaire do not dwell too long on any one question. Thank-you for participating in the current study.

Please answer the following statements using this rating scale by *circling* the corresponding number
1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Somewhat agree; 4 = Somewhat disagree; 5 = Disagree; 6 = Strongly disagree

- | | | | | | | | |
|----|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | A raped man is a less desirable man | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. | The extent of a male victim's resistance should determine if a rape has occurred | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

~~THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE BACK OF THIS PAGE~~

<p>Please answer the following questions using this rating scale by <i>circling</i> the corresponding number 1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Somewhat agree; 4 = Somewhat disagree; 5 = Disagree; 6 = Strongly disagree</p>

- | | | | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3. | A raped man is usually an innocent victim | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. | Men often claim rape to protect their reputations | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. | In the majority of rape cases, the male victim is promiscuous or has a poor moral character | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. | Men who have had prior sexual relationships should not complain about rape | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 7. | Male victims who provoke rape by their appearance or behaviour are responsible for the act | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 8. | Intoxicated men are usually willing to have sexual relations | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 9. | It would do some men good to be raped | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 10. | Men who feel guilty or regret having had sex are likely to falsely claim rape | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 11. | Most men secretly or unconsciously desire to be raped | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 12. | Any male may be raped | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 13. | Men who are raped while accepting rides from strangers get what they deserve | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 14. | If a man is raped while drunk he is somewhat responsible | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 15. | If a male doesn't physically resist sex, even when protesting verbally, it really can't be considered rape | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 16. | A man who goes out alone at night puts himself in a position to be raped | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 17. | Many men claim rape if they have consented to sex but have changed their minds afterwards | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 18. | Accusations of rape by male escorts, male exotic dancers and male prostitutes should be viewed with suspicion | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 19. | A male victim should blame himself for rape | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 20. | A healthy man can successfully resist a single rapist if he really tries | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 21. | Many men who report rape are lying because they are angry or want revenge on the accused | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 22. | Men who wear revealing or provocative clothing are inviting rape | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

23.	Men often put themselves into situations in which they are likely to be raped	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	Even sexually experienced men are damaged by rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	In most cases, when a man was raped he deserved it	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	If a man is intoxicated by alcohol or drugs during the alleged rape, there is a good chance that he consented at the time	1	2	3	4	5	6

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE NEXT PAGE

<p>Please answer the following questions using this rating scale by <i>circling</i> the corresponding number 1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Somewhat agree; 4 = Somewhat disagree; 5 = Disagree; 6 = Strongly disagree</p>

27.	Men are to blame for rape if the accused becomes so aroused that it leads to a loss of control	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	Male victims tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them	1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	A man who goes to the home of a partner on their first date implies that he is willing to have sex	1	2	3	4	5	6
30.	If the male 'victim' doesn't perceive it as rape himself, then surely it can't be rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
31.	If a man is heavily intoxicated by alcohol or drugs and does not resist it is ok to have sex with them	1	2	3	4	5	6
32.	When males rape it is due to their overwhelming, unfulfilled sexual desire	1	2	3	4	5	6
33.	A rape probably didn't occur if the male victim has no visible physical injury	1	2	3	4	5	6
34.	If he can't remember the rape (e.g., because he was asleep, unconscious or intoxicated by alcohol or drugs), then no real harm is done	1	2	3	4	5	6
35.	Some men enjoy being raped	1	2	3	4	5	6
36.	If a man only says "no" but does not physically resist, it is still ok to have sex with him as long as you don't hurt him	1	2	3	4	5	6
37.	Male rape really only occurs when a rapist has a weapon, or if there is a number of attackers	1	2	3	4	5	6
38.	A man can control his behaviour no matter how aroused he is at the time	1	2	3	4	5	6
39.	If a man says no but his body language is telling you something different it is ok to have sex with him	1	2	3	4	5	6
40.	When a man is very sexually aroused, he could be excused for not noticing that the other person is resisting sex	1	2	3	4	5	6

When you were completing the above questionnaire, how much did the victim's gender influence your responses? *Please tick*

Not Important at All Somewhat Important Important Very Important Extremely important

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE BACK OF THIS PAGE

Section 4

This section concerns demographic information. PLEASE complete each question.

1. What is your gender? Please tick

Female Male

2. How old are you?..... years

3. If you live in Australia, please proceed. If not, please go to 'Question 4' below.

- What is the postcode of your residential address?.....
- How many years have you lived at that postcode?.....years
- Were you born in Australia? Please tick Yes No
- If no, how long have you lived in Australia?.....years
- How old were you when you arrived?.....years old
- What is your country of origin?
- What is the cultural background of father [e.g., Vietnamese]
- What is the cultural background of mother [e.g., Lebanese].....
- Describe the cultural background to which you feel you most strongly belong [e.g., Aboriginal, Australian-Vietnamese, Chinese, Sudanese-Australian].....

Thank you; now please go to Question 5.

4. If you do not live in Australia, please answer these questions:

- In what country do you live?.....
- How long have you lived in that country?..... years.
- Describe the cultural background to which you feel you most strongly belong [e.g., African-American, English-Indian, Chinese, Greek].....

5. What is the gross income bracket of the highest earning member of your immediate family?

[This could include yourself, your partner or parent even if they don't live with you]

Negative income	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$15,001-\$30,000	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$75,001-\$100,000	<input type="checkbox"/>
No income	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$30,001-\$45,000	<input type="checkbox"/>	Over \$100,000	<input type="checkbox"/>
\$5,000 or less	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$45,001-\$60,000	<input type="checkbox"/>		
\$5,001- \$15,000	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$60,001-\$75,000	<input type="checkbox"/>		

6. What is your personal gross income bracket? Please tick

Negative income	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$15,001-\$30,000	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$75,001-\$100,000	<input type="checkbox"/>
No income	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$30,001-\$45,000	<input type="checkbox"/>	Over \$100,000	<input type="checkbox"/>
\$5,000 or less	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$45,001-\$60,000	<input type="checkbox"/>		
\$5,001- \$15,000	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$60,001-\$75,000	<input type="checkbox"/>		

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE NEXT PAGE

7. Please tick all educational achievements that you have attained:

- Did not go to school
- Primary School or equivalent
- Secondary School - Years 7, 8 or 9 or equivalent
- Secondary School - Years 10 or 11 or equivalent
- Secondary School - Year 12/HSC/VCE or equivalent
- TAFE, Trade Certificate, Apprenticeship or equivalent Please specify.....
- University - Undergraduate degree Please specify area of study.....
- University - Postgraduate degree Please specify area of study.....
- Other Please specify

8. What best describes your usual employment status? Please tick all that apply

- | | |
|--|---|
| Employed (Full Time) <input type="checkbox"/> | Workcover <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Self-employed <input type="checkbox"/> | Employed (Part-Time/casual) <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Home duties with children <input type="checkbox"/> | Home duties without children <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Volunteer (Full Time) <input type="checkbox"/> | Disability Pension <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Volunteer (Part Time) <input type="checkbox"/> | Sickness Benefits <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Retired – self-funded <input type="checkbox"/> | Age pensioner <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Retired <input type="checkbox"/> | Other pensioner <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Carer <input type="checkbox"/> | Sub-contractor <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Unemployed <input type="checkbox"/> | Other (Please specify) <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Student (Full time) <input type="checkbox"/> What year are you in?..... What field?..... | |
| Student (Part-time) <input type="checkbox"/> What year are you in?..... What field?..... | |
| Apprentice <input type="checkbox"/> What year are you in?..... What field?..... | |

What is your usual occupation?.....

9. In what religion were you raised?.....If none, please tick here

10. What religion are you now?If no religion, please tick here

11. How important is religion in your life? Please tick

- Extremely important Very important Important Slightly important Not at all important

12. What is your current marital status? Please tick

- | | | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|---------------|--------------------------|
| Married | <input type="checkbox"/> | Widowed | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| De facto | <input type="checkbox"/> | Engaged | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Divorced | <input type="checkbox"/> | Never married | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Separated but not divorced | <input type="checkbox"/> | | |

Please indicate whether your answer refers to a heterosexual or same sex relationship

- Heterosexual Same sex
-

13. Which of the following statements best describes you? Please tick

- | | | |
|---|--------------------------|--|
| I have casual relationship[s] | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| I am in a committed relationship | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| I am in a committed relationship, but I secretly see other people too | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| I am in a committed relationship, but I openly see other people too | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| I am typically in a committed relationship but not at the moment | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| I have never been in a committed relationship | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| I have not been in a committed relationship for an extended period | <input type="checkbox"/> | Please indicate in months or years
..... months years |

Please indicate whether your answer refers to a heterosexual, same sex relationship or both

- Heterosexual Same sex Both
-

14. Have you had any children, including any children that are now adults Yes No

If yes, please indicate the number of all children, as well as their ages and genders

Number of female children..... Their ages: [e.g., 4, 9, 17]

Number of male children..... Their ages:

15. Which of the following is the most representative of you? Please tick

- | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|---|--------------------------|
| I am sexually attracted to males | <input type="checkbox"/> | I am not sexually attracted to either males/females | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I am sexually attracted to females | <input type="checkbox"/> | Don't know/unsure/undecided | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I am sexually attracted to both males and females | <input type="checkbox"/> | Other: | <input type="checkbox"/> |
-

16. With whom do you have sex? Please tick all that apply

- | | | | |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------|---|--------------------------|
| Males | <input type="checkbox"/> | Currently no-one, because of my religion or beliefs | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Females | <input type="checkbox"/> | Currently no-one, because I am not interested | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Both males and females | <input type="checkbox"/> | Currently no-one, because of lack of opportunity | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Currently, no-one as I am a virgin | <input type="checkbox"/> | | |
-

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE NEXT PAGE

17. How do you describe your sexual orientation? Please tick

- | | | | |
|----------|--------------------------|-------------------------------|--|
| Gay | <input type="checkbox"/> | Both gay/lesbian and straight | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Lesbian | <input type="checkbox"/> | Transgendered | <input type="checkbox"/> Please specify birth sex..... |
| Straight | <input type="checkbox"/> | Other | <input type="checkbox"/> Please specify..... |
-

18. How many people known about your sexual orientation? Please tick

- No-one A few Quite a few Most people Widely known
-

19. I have contact with a gay or lesbian person....Please tick

- | | | | |
|-------------|--------------------------|--------------------|--------------------------|
| Daily | <input type="checkbox"/> | A few times a year | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Weekly | <input type="checkbox"/> | Rarely | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Fortnightly | <input type="checkbox"/> | Never | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Monthly | <input type="checkbox"/> | Unknown | <input type="checkbox"/> |
-

20. My attitudes towards gay and lesbian individuals are... Please tick

- | | | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|
| Totally accepting | <input type="checkbox"/> | Somewhat unaccepting | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Accepting | <input type="checkbox"/> | Unaccepting | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Somewhat accepting | <input type="checkbox"/> | Totally unaccepting | <input type="checkbox"/> |
-

21. Over the past couple of weeks, have you... Please tick

- | | | |
|--|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Been having restless or disturbed nights? | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Been feeling unhappy or depressed? | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Felt unable to overcome your difficulties? | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Been dissatisfied with the way you've been doing things? | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> |

22. Have you ever seriously thought of taking your own life? Please tick

- Never A couple of times A few times Several times Often

23. Have you ever made a suicide attempt? Please tick

- Yes No

- If yes, how many times have you made a suicide attempt?.....times
- How old were you at the time of your last or only suicide attempt?.....years old

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE BACK OF THIS PAGE

For the following question please use this rating scale:

1 = No Empathy; 2 = Very little empathy; 3 = Some empathy; 4 = Lot of empathy; 5 = Extreme empathy;

24. How much empathy do you feel for... Please circle the appropriate number

Female victims of rape	1	2	3	4	5
Male victims of rape	1	2	3	4	5
Female convicted rapists	1	2	3	4	5
Male convicted rapists	1	2	3	4	5
Females accused of rape	1	2	3	4	5
Males accused of rape	1	2	3	4	5

25. Do you personally know someone who has been a victim/survivor of rape? Please tick

Yes No

26. Do/Did you personally know someone who has raped someone other than yourself? Please tick

Yes No

27. If someone I cared about were raped, I would encourage that person to report it... Please tick

Definitely Very likely Likely Unlikely Very unlikely Definitely not

28. If I were raped, I would report it... Please tick

Definitely Very likely Likely Unlikely Very unlikely Definitely not

PLEASE read the following...

Some people experience unwanted sexual activity. For the current research, unwanted sexual activity is defined as the penetration of the vagina, anus or mouth by an object or any part of the attacker's body, without the consent of the victim. Unwanted sexual activity involves the attacker not withdrawing their body part or object on becoming aware that the victim is not consenting or freely agreeing. Free agreement can not take place when the victim is under the age of 10, the victim is under the age of 16 AND the attacker is more than 2 years older, the victim is asleep, unconscious, alcohol or drug intoxicated, incapable of understanding the nature of the act, mistakes the identity of the attacker or the sexual act, or believes that the act is for medical or hygiene purposes. Although the victim did not verbally protest, physically resist, obtain physical injury, or on an earlier occasion freely agreed to another sexual act with the attacker or another person they are still not seen to be consenting.

29. Has this ever happened to you? Please tick

Yes No Unsure, comments.....

If 'no' or 'unsure' go to "Section 5". If 'yes', PLEASE complete the following questions

30. How many times did this happen to you? *Please tick*

1 2 3 4 5 6-10 10+

31. How old were you when this first happened?.....years old

32. What was the *approximate age* of the other person when this first happened?.....years old

33. If this happened more than once how old were you when this last happened?years old
Tick here if not applicable

34. If this happened more than once, was it the same person who did it? *Please tick*
 Yes No N/A

35. Do you believe the other person was affected by alcohol when the unwanted sexual activity took place? *Please tick*

Yes, extremely intoxicated Yes, somewhat intoxicated Yes, slightly intoxicated Unsure No

36. Do you believe the other person was affected by drugs when the unwanted sexual activity took place? *Please tick*

Yes, extremely intoxicated Yes, somewhat intoxicated Yes, slightly intoxicated Unsure No

37. Were you affected by alcohol when the unwanted sexual activity took place? *Please tick*

Yes, extremely intoxicated Yes, somewhat intoxicated Yes, slightly intoxicated Unsure No

38. Were you affected by drugs when the unwanted sexual activity took place? *Please tick*

Yes, extremely intoxicated Yes, somewhat intoxicated Yes, slightly intoxicated Unsure No

39. What was your relationship at the time with the person[s] that did this? *Tick all that that apply to your situation*

Stranger	<input type="checkbox"/>	Casual or first date	<input type="checkbox"/>
Casual acquaintance [distant neighbour, shopkeeper, etc]	<input type="checkbox"/>	Romantic acquaintance [steady date, lover]	<input type="checkbox"/>
Work or study colleague	<input type="checkbox"/>	Partner [e.g., spouse, de facto]	<input type="checkbox"/>
Non-romantic friend	<input type="checkbox"/>	Relative (please specify:)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Trusted figure [close friend, family friend]	<input type="checkbox"/>	Other (please specify:.....)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Person in position of care, supervision or authority [e.g, teacher, doctor, carer, etc]	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	)	

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE BACK OF THIS PAGE

40. Here are a few of the reasons why unwanted sexual activity happens to people. These reasons may apply to unwanted sexual activity experienced during childhood and/or adulthood.

Tick all of those that apply to your situation.

- The other person used his/her authority [boss, teacher, Dr. etc.]
- As a child, it felt good
- As a child, I had to do what I was told
- As a child, I was curious
- As a child, the other person said it was "ok"
- The other person gave me gifts, money, or lollies
- The other person threatened to physically hurt or punish me
- The other person threatened to physically hurt or punish others
- The other person threatened to hurt or punish me [non-physically]
- The other person threatened to hurt or punish others [non-physically]
- The other person used blackmail
- The other person used physical force
- The other person used psychological force
- Unable to say no [embarrassed, scared, numb, frozen, etc.]
- Unable to stop him/her
- I was under the influence of drugs
- I was under the influence of alcohol
- Other (please specify).....
- Comments welcome.....
.....
-

41. How many persons had unwanted sexual activity with you?.....person/people

42. Were there other people involved with the unwanted sexual activity who intentionally coerced, set you up, lied to you, tricked you, abandoned you, or allowed the rape to occur? *Please tick*

No Yes (specify).....

43. Who of the following have you spoken to about the unwanted sexual activity?

Please tick all that apply

- | | | | |
|---|--|---------------------------------------|---|
| No-one <input type="checkbox"/> | Friend <input type="checkbox"/> | Family <input type="checkbox"/> | Neighbour <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Colleague <input type="checkbox"/> | Police <input type="checkbox"/> | Doctor/nurse <input type="checkbox"/> | Counsellor <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Psychologist <input type="checkbox"/> | Stranger <input type="checkbox"/> | Teacher <input type="checkbox"/> | Religious figure <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Sexual assault centre worker <input type="checkbox"/> | Other <input type="checkbox"/> (please specify)..... | | |
-

44. How difficult has it been confiding about the unwanted sexual activity? *Please tick*

Not difficult Slightly difficult Moderately difficult Very difficult N/A

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE NEXT PAGE

45. How do you feel about your disclosure? Please tick

- I regret going to the police
- I regret telling anyone
- I regret telling some people but not all that I told Specify who you regret telling [eg. family, counsellor, etc.].....
- I have no regrets
- I wish I had told someone sooner
- I would like to tell someone soon
- I would like to tell someone but it is too difficult
- I have no intentions of telling anyone
-

46. Did/are you pressing charges? Please tick Yes No Unsure

• **If yes, what description best applies to the situation (please tick) If no, go to 'Question 47.'**

- Person[s] not caught
- Person[s] caught but no charges laid
- Person[s] caught, charges laid but found not guilty
- Person[s] caught, found guilty Please indicate type/length of sentence.....

Feel free to provide further comments.....

47. How traumatic was the unwanted sexual activity? Please tick

Not traumatic Mildly traumatic Moderately traumatic Severely traumatic Extremely traumatic

48. Overall, how much trauma have you experienced since the unwanted sexual activity? Please tick

No trauma Mild trauma Moderate trauma Severe trauma Extreme trauma

If you did NOT answer yes to the four questions in the box below go to "Section 5".

If you answered "yes" to any of the four questions in the box below please continue.

Over the past couple of weeks, have you...

- Been having restless or disturbed nights?*

Been feeling unhappy or depressed?

Felt unable to overcome your difficulties?

Been dissatisfied with the way you've been doing things?

49. Do you believe that these experiences/feelings are related to your experience of unwanted sexual activity? Please tick

Not related Somewhat related Related Very much related Extremely relate

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE BACK OF THIS PAGE

If you have NEVER seriously thought of taking your own life, please go to "Section 5".

If you have you EVER seriously thought of taking your own life please continue.

50. Do you believe your past suicidal thoughts were related to your experience of unwanted sexual activity? Please tick

Not related Slightly related Related Very much related Extremely related

51. If you have ever made any suicide attempts, do you believe that any of these were related to your experience of unwanted sexual activity? Please tick

Never made an attempt Yes at least once Specify number of related attempts..... No

Section 5

This section does not contain any questions however it does contain very important information. Please read the following carefully. *For your convenience, separate this section and take it with you...* The researchers do not endorse the statements within this questionnaire, as rape is an unacceptable, serious crime. Despite the beliefs held by some people, studies of sexual aggression and rape in many different circumstances have established the following...

- Myth: Rape within in a marriage or relationship can not occur as it is the woman's/man's duty to provide sex
Fact # 1 **It is NOT acceptable for somebody to scare, threaten, or force you into doing things that make you feel unhappy or uncomfortable, whether you are in a relationship or not. You do not have to have sex with someone just because you are in a relationship or because you have had sex together in the past.**
- Myth: Rapists are usually strangers lurking in dark alleyways
Fact # 2 **Most victims know their rapists. The majority of rapes are perpetrated by acquaintances, dates or marital partners in places where the victim usually feels safe, such as in their own home or their dates home. Males and females are both capable of raping males and females.**
- Myth: Men can not be raped
Fact # 3 **Men are raped. Approximately 10% of rapes reported involve male victims and this number appears to be rising. A man can be raped regardless of size, strength, sexuality, or appearance.**
- Myth: Women/Men often falsely report rape
Fact # 4 **The percentage of false allegations is extremely low and the percentage of false allegations is similar to those of other crimes. Individuals are more likely to not report the rape than to make false allegations of rape.**
- Myth: Only certain types of men/women get raped
Fact # 5 **People of all classes, ages, genders, professions, sexual orientations, intelligence levels, and races can be and are raped.**
- Myth: Rape victims complain too much about rape and exaggerate how adversely it effects them
Fact # 6 **It is estimated that approximately 60% to 90% of rapes go unreported. Thus, rape victims do not say enough about their crime and need to be encouraged and supported to come forward.**
- Myth: Only homosexual men rape other men
Fact # 7 **Most men who rape other men identify themselves as heterosexual. The rape is about violence, anger and control, not about their sexual urges.**
- Myth: Any healthy man/woman should be able to fight off an attacker
Fact # 8 **Surprise, threats, a weapon, being out numbered, being intoxicated, or frozen by fear makes fighting back impossible for most victims of rape.**
- Myth: Rape requires physical and verbal resistance from the victim
Fact # 9 **Just because somebody does not physically resist does not mean they are consenting. If they say no, that is what they mean, No! If they do not say anything, a persons silence can be their NO.**
- Myth: Male rape is only a problem in all-male institutional settings
Fact # 10 **Male rape is not just a problem within prisons, it occurs within the community also. Rape can happen to any man or woman at anytime and at any place.**
- Myth: Rape is a spontaneous sexual act and people rape due to uncontrollable sexual urges
Fact # 11 **The majority of rapes are planned in advance. Rape is not a sexual act. It is a violent act that uses sex as a weapon. People can control their sexual urges if they really want to. No sexual urge gives somebody the right to rape.**
- Myth: Women/Men secretly desire or asked to be raped and some women/men deserve to be raped
Fact # 12 **Rape can have devastating effects upon the victim. NOBODY enjoys, desires, asks or deserves to be raped. Regardless of what people dress, look or live like, they do not invite rape.**

- Myth: Rape is usually committed by a maniac and rapists usually come from lower class backgrounds
Fact # 13 **Most rapists are ordinary people and very few are referred for psychiatric treatment. Most rapists are known to the victim, they are not some psychotic stranger.**
- Myth: It is OK to force somebody to have sex with you as long as you do not hurt them
Fact # 14 **Never force anybody to have sex with you. They must give consent! Having sex with someone when they do not want to is a serious criminal offence, even if you do not use physical force or a weapon, or have had sex together in the past, or you believe you have not hurt the other person. If you are guilty of raping somebody you could spend 25 long years in jail!**
- Myth: It is OK to have sex with someone when you are intoxicated or when they are intoxicated
Fact # 15 **If you are so intoxicated that you do not know if the other person is consenting - stop, this may be rape. If the other person is so intoxicated they may not be able to give informed consent - stop, this is rape!**

The definition of rape varies somewhat between states but generally rape can be defined as...

...The penetration of the vagina, anus or mouth by an object or any part of the attacker's body, without the consent of the victim. The definition states that rape involves the attacker not withdrawing their body part or object on becoming aware that the victim is not consenting or refusing to agree. Consent can not take place when the victim is: i) asleep, ii) unconscious, iii) alcohol or drug intoxicated, iv) incapable of understanding the nature of the act, v) under the age of 10, vi) under the age of 16 AND the attacker is more than 2 years older, vii) believes that the act is for medical or hygiene purposes, OR viii) mistakes the identity of the offender or the sexual act. Also, the victim is not consenting if the offender uses force, threat of force, harm of others, or unlawful detention. The fact that the victim did not say or do anything to indicate consent is usually enough to indicate that the victim did not consent, i.e., although the victim did not verbally protest, physically resist, or suffer physical injury, or on an earlier occasion consented to another sexual act with the person or another person they are still not seen as consenting to the act.

If you are worried that somebody close to you may have been sexually assaulted or you yourself have been sexually assaulted you may wish to discuss this with your doctor or the police. Should you prefer to retain your anonymity, you may choose to call the numbers below...

- **Centre Against Sexual Assault (CASA):** Local call - (03) 9344 2210 www.casa.org.au
Free call - 1800 806 292

CASA offers 24 hour crisis care service responding to the needs of both recent and past survivors of sexual assault. Their services are free and confidential and available to all victim/survivors of recent and past sexual assault regardless of gender, and non-offending family members, partners and friends.

- **Lifeline:** Local call - 13 11 14

Lifeline is a 24-hour telephone counseling service available to anyone, at anytime and from anywhere in Australia. Well-trained Lifeline volunteer telephone counsellors are always ready to listen to you. You can also be sure that you will receive friendly and kind advice and that your information is strictly confidential.

- **Confidential Helpline:** 1800 200 526

A confidential help line that has recently been established by the Australian Government as part of their "Violence against women: Australia says no" campaign. Provides information for young people, parents and the community on identifying and avoiding abusive and violent relationships and where to get help.

- **Gay and Lesbian Switchboard:** Metropolitan Area - (03) 9827 8544
Country Area - 1800 184 527

Gay and Lesbian Switchboard aims to actively strengthen Victoria's lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender communities, primarily by delivering a free, confidential, anonymous, quality telephone counselling, referral and information service provided by trained volunteers. Counsellors are available daily from 6pm until 10pm, and Wednesdays from 2pm until 10pm.

- **Men's Line:** **1300 78 99 78**

The mission of Men's Line Australia is to provide relevant and accessible telephone counselling, information and referral in order for men to enhance their relationship capacities and manage the challenges encountered when faced with disruptions to their family life or their primary relationships. It also provides support and information for women and family members who are concerned about the welfare of their partners, husbands or fathers.

- **Care Ring:** **13 61 69**

Care Ring is the oldest telephone counselling service in Australia offering telephone counselling and referral services 24 hours a day seven days per week 365 days per year. Care Ring has no religious or political affiliations. Care Ring provides compassionate and responsive telephone counselling to all people in personal crisis, with timely information and facilitated referral to relevant services

If you have any concerns during or after completion of the questionnaire you are encouraged to discuss these. You are welcome to discuss these concerns confidentially with the primary investigator, Ms. Kara Granger (via telephone: (03) 9925 7376 or via e-mail: s3041360@student.rmit.edu.au) or contact the supervising investigator Dr. David Smith (via telephone: (03) 9925 7523 or via e-mail: david.smith@rmit.edu.au)

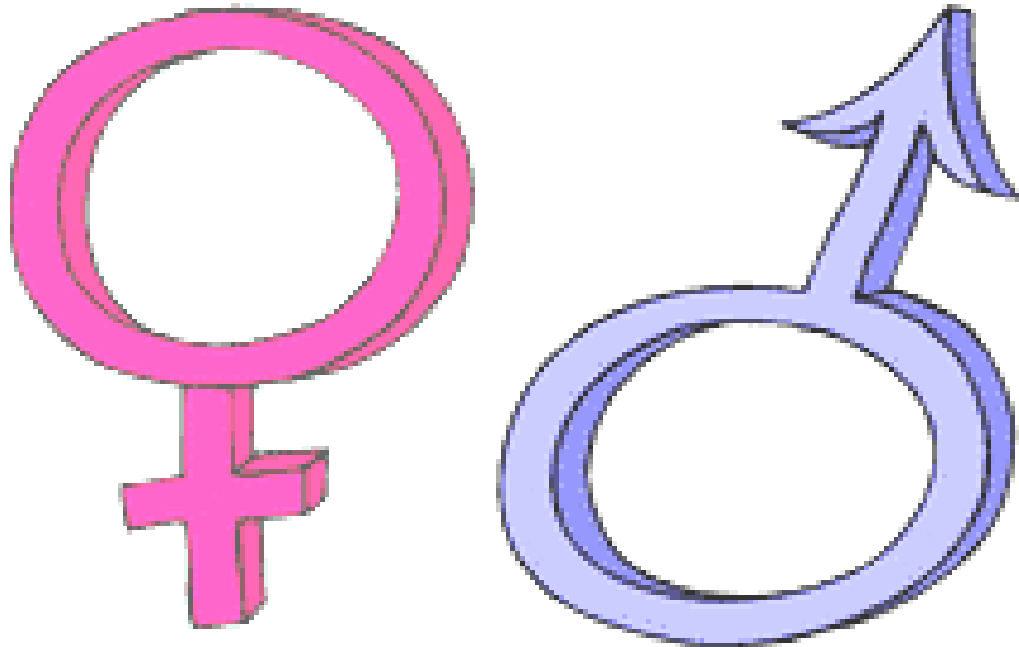
Thank-you for participating in this research

You have made a valuable contribution

Primary Investigator: Ms. Kara Granger

Supervising Investigator: Dr. David Smith

Rape Attitudinal Questionnaire



By completing and returning this survey you agree to the following conditions:

1. *I have received a statement explaining the interview/questionnaire involved in this project.*
2. *I consent to participate in the above project, the particulars of which - including details of the questionnaires - have been explained to me.*
3. *I authorise the investigator to administer a questionnaire.*
4. *I acknowledge that:*
 - (a) *Having read Plain Language Statement, I agree to the general purpose, methods and demands of the study.*
 - (b) *I have been informed that I am free to withdraw from the project until the time of submitting the questionnaire.*
 - (c) *The project is for the purpose of research and/or teaching. It may not be of direct benefit to me.*
 - (d) *The privacy of the personal information I provide will be safeguarded and only disclosed where I have consented to the disclosure or as required by law.*
 - (e) *The security of the research data is assured during and after completion of the study. The data collected during the study may be published, and a report of the project outcomes will be provided to RMIT University and placed on the Internet. Any information which could identify me will not be used.*
5. *I am aware that if information is supplied relating to activities which are dangerous to the public or which the researcher believes on reasonable grounds to be dangerous to the public then the researcher may be obliged to notify appropriate authorities. I also understand that survey documents, materials or results may be required to be disclosed or produced by court order, subpoena or other legal or statutory power or otherwise as required by law.*

CODE NAME:

Note: Please create your own code name if you intend to participate in the related research. **Your real name should not be recorded. Make sure YOU WILL REMEMBER your code name and that it is between 2 and 10 items long,** (letters and numbers). You will be asked to use the same code name in the related research, so please use a code name that you will easily remember.

Section 1 **RAPE ATTITUDINAL QUESTIONNAIRE**

Please complete the questionnaire one section at a time. This section contains questions about your attitudes towards rape. PLEASE carefully read the following instructions.

INSTRUCTIONS: Please read the following statements carefully and then respond to every statement by **circling the number which best describes your feelings about the statement. When completing the questionnaire do not dwell too long on any one question. Thank-you for participating in the current study.**

Please answer the following statements using this rating scale by *circling* the corresponding number
1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Somewhat agree; 4 = Somewhat disagree; 5 = Disagree; 6 = Strongly disagree

1.	It is not considered rape if the two people have previously had consensual sex in the past	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Females cannot rape other women	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	I am unlikely to be raped in my life time	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	Rapists are treated too harshly	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	Most rapes would occur when the victim has engaged in risky behaviours	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	If I really wanted to, I would have sex with someone against their will if I knew I wasn't going to get caught	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	In a committed relationship, if a partner requests sex, you have an obligation to agree	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	Perpetrators, not victims are responsible for rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	If a person appeared controlled and calm the day after their alleged rape, it probably isn't true	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	Outside all-male settings, the rape of men is too rare to be worth worrying about	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	People are usually raped by someone they don't know	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Rapists should receive opportunities for rehabilitation	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	Victims of rape rarely report the crime	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	Rape is unlikely to happen to any female I know	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	Only a homosexual man would rape another man	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	I am less likely to be raped in comparison to others of my age and gender	1	2	3	4	5	6

17. As long as I didn't hurt the person, it would be ok for me to have sex with them against their will

1	2	3	4	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---

~~THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE NEXT PAGE~~

Please answer the following questions using this rating scale by *circling* the corresponding number
 1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Somewhat agree; 4 = Somewhat disagree; 5 = Disagree; 6 = Strongly disagree

18.	If a person is in a current sexual relationship with the accused, you wouldn't really call it rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	A report of rape several days after the act is probably a false report	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	Rape is unlikely to happen to any male I know	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	Females cannot be guilty of rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	Males rape other males only in all-male institutionalised settings	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	A prostitute can be raped	1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	Marital rape is not possible because a man has rights to sex in marriage	1	2	3	4	5	6
30.	A rapist must perpetrate or threaten physical violence towards the victim in order for the act to be considered rape	1	2	3	4	5	6

26. How likely is it that you would rape someone if you thought you could get away with it? *Please circle*

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all likely				Very likely

Section 2

This section contains brief questions about your attitudes towards men and rape. PLEASE carefully read the following instructions.

REMEMBER: THESE QUESTIONS RELATE TO MEN

INSTRUCTIONS: Please read the following statements carefully and then respond to every statement by circling the number which best describes your feelings about the statement. When completing the questionnaire do not dwell too long on any one question. Thank-you for participating in the current study.

Please answer the following statements using this rating scale by *circling* the corresponding number
 1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Somewhat agree; 4 = Somewhat disagree; 5 = Disagree; 6 = Strongly disagree

1.	A raped man is a less desirable man	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	The extent of a male victim's resistance should determine if a rape has occurred	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	A raped man is usually an innocent victim	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	Men often claim rape to protect their reputations	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	In the majority of rape cases, the male victim is promiscuous or has a poor moral character	1	2	3	4	5	6

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

1 2 3 4 5 6

~~THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE BACK OF THIS PAGE~~

Please answer the following questions using this rating scale by *circling* the corresponding number
 1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Somewhat agree; 4 = Somewhat disagree; 5 = Disagree; 6 = Strongly disagree

7.	Male victims who provoke rape by their appearance or behaviour are responsible for the act	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	Intoxicated men are usually willing to have sexual relations	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	It would do some men good to be raped	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Men who feel guilty or regret having had sex are likely to falsely claim rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Most men secretly or unconsciously desire to be raped	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Any male may be raped	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	Men who are raped while accepting rides from strangers get what they deserve	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	If a man is raped while drunk he is somewhat responsible	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	If a male doesn't physically resist sex, even when protesting verbally, it really can't be considered rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	A man who goes out alone at night puts himself in a position to be raped	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	Many men claim rape if they have consented to sex but have changed their minds afterwards	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	Accusations of rape by male escorts, male exotic dancers and male prostitutes should be viewed with suspicion	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	A male victim should blame himself for rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	A healthy man can successfully resist a single rapist if he really tries	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	Many men who report rape are lying because they are angry or want revenge on the accused	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	Men who wear revealing or provocative clothing are inviting rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	Men often put themselves into situations in which they are likely to be raped	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	Even sexually experienced men are damaged by rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	In most cases, when a man was raped he deserved it	1	2	3	4	5	6
31.	If a man is intoxicated by alcohol or drugs during the alleged rape, there is a good chance that he consented at the time	1	2	3	4	5	6
32.	Men are to blame for rape if the accused becomes so						

	aroused that it leads to a loss of control	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	Male victims tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them	1	2	3	4	5	6
35.	A man who goes to the home of a partner on their first date implies that he is willing to have sex	1	2	3	4	5	6

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE NEXT PAGE

Please answer the following questions using this rating scale by *circling* the corresponding number
1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Somewhat agree; 4 = Somewhat disagree; 5 = Disagree; 6 = Strongly disagree

36.	If the male 'victim' doesn't perceive it as rape himself, then surely it can't be rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
37.	If a man is heavily intoxicated by alcohol or drugs and does not resist it is ok to have sex with them	1	2	3	4	5	6
38.	When males rape it is due to their overwhelming, unfulfilled sexual desire	1	2	3	4	5	6
39.	A rape probably didn't occur if the male victim has no visible physical injury	1	2	3	4	5	6
40.	If he can't remember the rape (e.g., because he was asleep, unconscious or intoxicated by alcohol or drugs), then no real harm is done	1	2	3	4	5	6
35.	Some men enjoy being raped	1	2	3	4	5	6
36.	If a man only says "no" but does not physically resist, it is still ok to have sex with him as long as you don't hurt him	1	2	3	4	5	6
41.	Male rape really only occurs when a rapist has a weapon, or if there is a number of attackers	1	2	3	4	5	6
42.	A man can control his behaviour no matter how aroused he is at the time	1	2	3	4	5	6
43.	If a man says no but his body language is telling you something different it is ok to have sex with him	1	2	3	4	5	6
44.	When a man is very sexually aroused, he could be excused for not noticing that the other person is resisting sex	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section 3

This section contains brief questions about your attitudes towards women and rape. PLEASE carefully read the following instructions.

REMEMBER: THESE QUESTIONS RELATE TO WOMEN

INSTRUCTIONS: Please read the following statements carefully and then respond to every statement by circling the number which best describes your feelings about the statement. When completing the questionnaire do not dwell too long on any one question. Thank-you for participating in the current study.

Please answer the following statements using this rating scale by *circling* the corresponding number
1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Somewhat agree; 4 = Somewhat disagree; 5 = Disagree; 6 = Strongly disagree

1.	A raped woman is a less desirable woman	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	The extent of a female victim's resistance should determine						

	if a rape has occurred	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	A raped woman is usually an innocent victim	1	2	3	4	5	6

~~THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE BACK OF THIS PAGE~~

Please answer the following questions using this rating scale by *circling* the corresponding number
1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Somewhat agree; 4 = Somewhat disagree; 5 = Disagree; 6 = Strongly disagree

4.	Women often claim rape to protect their reputations	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	In the majority of rape cases, the female victim is promiscuous or has a poor moral character	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	Women who have had prior sexual relationships should not complain about rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	Female victims who provoke rape by their appearance or behaviour are responsible for the act	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	Intoxicated women are usually willing to have sexual relations	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	It would do some women good to be raped	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Women who feel guilty or regret having had sex are likely to falsely claim rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Most women secretly or unconsciously desire to be raped	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Any female may be raped	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	Women who are raped while accepting rides from strangers get what they deserve	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	If a woman is raped while drunk she is somewhat responsible	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	If a female doesn't physically resist sex, even when protesting verbally, it really can't be considered rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	A woman who goes out alone at night puts herself in a position to be raped	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	Many women claim rape if they have consented to sex but have changed their minds afterwards	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	Accusations of rape by female escorts, female exotic dancers and female prostitutes should be viewed with suspicion	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	A female victim should blame herself for rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	A healthy woman can successfully resist a single rapist if she really tries	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	Many women who report rape are lying because they are angry or want revenge on the accused	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	Women who wear revealing or provocative clothing are inviting rape	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	Women often put themselves into situations in which they are likely to be raped	1	2	3	4	5	6

- | | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 24. | Even sexually experienced women are damaged by rape | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 25. | In most cases, when a woman was raped she deserved it | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 28. | If a woman is intoxicated by alcohol or drugs during the alleged rape, there is a good chance that she consented at the time | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE NEXT PAGE

Please answer the following questions using this rating scale by circling the corresponding number
1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Somewhat agree; 4 = Somewhat disagree; 5 = Disagree; 6 = Strongly disagree

- | | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 29. | Women are to blame for rape if the accused becomes so aroused that it leads to a loss of control | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 28. | Female victims tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 35. | A woman who goes to the home of a partner on their first date implies that she is willing to have sex | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 36. | If the female 'victim' doesn't perceive it as rape herself, then surely it can't be rape | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 37. | If a woman is heavily intoxicated by alcohol or drugs and does not resist it is ok to have sex with them | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 38. | When females rape it is due to their overwhelming, unfulfilled sexual desire | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 39. | A rape probably didn't occur if the female victim has no visible physical injury | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 40. | If she can't remember the rape (e.g., because she was asleep, unconscious or intoxicated by alcohol or drugs), then no real harm is done | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 35. | Some women enjoy being raped | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 36. | If a woman only says "no" but does not physically resist, it is still ok to have sex with her as long as you don't hurt her | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 41. | Female rape really only occurs when a rapist has a weapon, or if there is a number of attackers | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 42. | A woman can control her behaviour no matter how aroused she is at the time | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 43. | If a woman says no but her body language is telling you something different it is ok to have sex with her | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 44. | When a woman is very sexually aroused, she could be excused for not noticing that the other person is resisting sex | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |

When you were completing the above questionnaire, how much did the victim's gender influence your responses? Please tick

Not Important at All Somewhat Important Important Very Important Extremely important

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE BACK OF THIS PAGE

Section 4

This section concerns demographic information. PLEASE complete each question.

1. What is your gender? *Please tick*

Female Male

2. How old are you?..... years

3. If you live in Australia, *please proceed*. If not, please go to 'Question 4' below.

- What is the postcode of your residential address?.....
- How many years have you lived at that postcode?.....years
- Were you born in Australia? *Please tick* Yes No
- **If no**, how long have you lived in Australia?.....years
- How old were you when you arrived?.....years old
- What is your country of origin?
- What is the cultural background of father [e.g., Vietnamese]
- What is the cultural background of mother [e.g., Lebanese].....
- Describe the cultural background to which you feel you most strongly belong [e.g., Aboriginal, Australian-Vietnamese, Chinese, Sudanese-Australian].....

Thank you; now please go to Question 5.

4. If you do not live in Australia, please answer these questions:

- In what country do you live?.....
- How long have you lived in that country?..... years.
- Describe the cultural background to which you feel you most strongly belong [e.g., African-American, English-Indian, Chinese, Greek].....

6. What is the gross income bracket of the highest earning member of your immediate family?

[This could include yourself, your partner or parent even if they don't live with you]

Negative income	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$15,001-\$30,000	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$75,001-\$100,000	<input type="checkbox"/>
No income	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$30,001-\$45,000	<input type="checkbox"/>	Over \$100,000	<input type="checkbox"/>
\$5,000 or less	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$45,001-\$60,000	<input type="checkbox"/>		
\$5,001- \$15,000	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$60,001-\$75,000	<input type="checkbox"/>		

6. What is your personal gross income bracket? *Please tick*

Negative income	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$15,001-\$30,000	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$75,001-\$100,000	<input type="checkbox"/>
No income	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$30,001-\$45,000	<input type="checkbox"/>	Over \$100,000	<input type="checkbox"/>
\$5,000 or less	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$45,001-\$60,000	<input type="checkbox"/>		
\$5,001- \$15,000	<input type="checkbox"/>	\$60,001-\$75,000	<input type="checkbox"/>		

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE NEXT PAGE

7. Please tick all educational achievements that you have attained:

- Did not go to school
- Primary School or equivalent
- Secondary School - Years 7, 8 or 9 or equivalent
- Secondary School - Years 10 or 11 or equivalent
- Secondary School - Year 12/HSC/VCE or equivalent
- TAFE, Trade Certificate, Apprenticeship or equivalent Please specify.....
- University - Undergraduate degree Please specify area of study.....
- University - Postgraduate degree Please specify area of study.....
- Other Please specify

8. What best describes your usual employment status? Please tick all that apply

- | | |
|--|---|
| Employed (Full Time) <input type="checkbox"/> | Workcover <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Self-employed <input type="checkbox"/> | Employed (Part-Time/casual) <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Home duties with children <input type="checkbox"/> | Home duties without children <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Volunteer (Full Time) <input type="checkbox"/> | Disability Pension <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Volunteer (Part Time) <input type="checkbox"/> | Sickness Benefits <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Retired – self-funded <input type="checkbox"/> | Age pensioner <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Retired <input type="checkbox"/> | Other pensioner <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Carer <input type="checkbox"/> | Sub-contractor <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Unemployed <input type="checkbox"/> | Other (Please specify) <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Student (Full time) <input type="checkbox"/> What year are you in?..... What field?..... | |
| Student (Part-time) <input type="checkbox"/> What year are you in?..... What field?..... | |
| Apprentice <input type="checkbox"/> What year are you in?..... What field?..... | |

What is your usual occupation?.....

9. In what religion were you raised?.....If none, please tick here

10. What religion are you now?If no religion, please tick here

11. How important is religion in your life? Please tick

- Extremely important Very important Important Slightly important Not at all important

12. What is your current marital status? Please tick

- | | | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|---------------|--------------------------|
| Married | <input type="checkbox"/> | Widowed | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| De facto | <input type="checkbox"/> | Engaged | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Divorced | <input type="checkbox"/> | Never married | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Separated but not divorced | <input type="checkbox"/> | | |

Please indicate whether your answer refers to a heterosexual or same sex relationship

- Heterosexual Same sex
-

13. Which of the following statements best describes you? Please tick

- | | | |
|---|--------------------------|--|
| I have casual relationship[s] | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| I am in a committed relationship | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| I am in a committed relationship, but I secretly see other people too | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| I am in a committed relationship, but I openly see other people too | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| I am typically in a committed relationship but not at the moment | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| I have never been in a committed relationship | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| I have not been in a committed relationship for an extended period | <input type="checkbox"/> | Please indicate in months or years
..... months years |

Please indicate whether your answer refers to a heterosexual, same sex relationship or both

- Heterosexual Same sex Both
-

14. Have you had any children, including any children that are now adults Yes No

If yes, please indicate the number of all children, as well as their ages and genders

Number of female children..... Their ages: [e.g., 4, 9, 17]

Number of male children..... Their ages:

15. Which of the following is the most representative of you? Please tick

- | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|---|--------------------------|
| I am sexually attracted to males | <input type="checkbox"/> | I am not sexually attracted to either males/females | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I am sexually attracted to females | <input type="checkbox"/> | Don't know/unsure/undecided | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| I am sexually attracted to both males and females | <input type="checkbox"/> | Other: | <input type="checkbox"/> |
-

16. With whom do you have sex? Please tick all that apply

- | | | | |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------|---|--------------------------|
| Males | <input type="checkbox"/> | Currently no-one, because of my religion or beliefs | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Females | <input type="checkbox"/> | Currently no-one, because I am not interested | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Both males and females | <input type="checkbox"/> | Currently no-one, because of lack of opportunity | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Currently, no-one as I am a virgin | <input type="checkbox"/> | | |
-

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE NEXT PAGE

17. How do you describe your sexual orientation? Please tick

- | | | | |
|----------|--------------------------|-------------------------------|--|
| Gay | <input type="checkbox"/> | Both gay/lesbian and straight | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Lesbian | <input type="checkbox"/> | Transgendered | <input type="checkbox"/> Please specify birth sex..... |
| Straight | <input type="checkbox"/> | Other | <input type="checkbox"/> Please specify..... |

18. How many people known about your sexual orientation? Please tick

- No-one A few Quite a few Most people Widely known

19. I have contact with a gay or lesbian person.... Please tick

- | | | | |
|-------------|--------------------------|--------------------|--------------------------|
| Daily | <input type="checkbox"/> | A few times a year | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Weekly | <input type="checkbox"/> | Rarely | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Fortnightly | <input type="checkbox"/> | Never | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Monthly | <input type="checkbox"/> | Unknown | <input type="checkbox"/> |

20. My attitudes towards gay and lesbian individuals are... Please tick

- | | | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|
| Totally accepting | <input type="checkbox"/> | Somewhat unaccepting | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Accepting | <input type="checkbox"/> | Unaccepting | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Somewhat accepting | <input type="checkbox"/> | Totally unaccepting | <input type="checkbox"/> |

21. Over the past couple of weeks, have you... Please tick

- | | | |
|--|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Been having restless or disturbed nights? | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Been feeling unhappy or depressed? | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Felt unable to overcome your difficulties? | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Been dissatisfied with the way you've been doing things? | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/> |

22. Have you ever seriously thought of taking your own life? Please tick

- Never A couple of times A few times Several times Often

23. Have you ever made a suicide attempt? Please tick

- Yes No

- If yes, how many times have you made a suicide attempt?.....times
- How old were you at the time of your last or only suicide attempt?.....years old

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE BACK OF THIS PAGE

For the following question please use this rating scale:

1 = No Empathy; 2 = Very little empathy; 3 = Some empathy; 4 = Lot of empathy; 5 = Extreme empathy;

24. How much empathy do you feel for... Please circle the appropriate number

Female victims of rape	1	2	3	4	5
Male victims of rape	1	2	3	4	5
Female convicted rapists	1	2	3	4	5
Male convicted rapists	1	2	3	4	5
Females accused of rape	1	2	3	4	5
Males accused of rape	1	2	3	4	5

25. Do you personally know someone who has been a victim/survivor of rape? Please tick

Yes No

26. Do/Did you personally know someone who has raped someone other than yourself? Please tick

Yes No

27. If someone I cared about were raped, I would encourage that person to report it... Please tick

Definitely Very likely Likely Unlikely Very unlikely Definitely not

28. If I were raped, I would report it... Please tick

Definitely Very likely Likely Unlikely Very unlikely Definitely not

PLEASE read the following...

Some people experience unwanted sexual activity. For the current research, unwanted sexual activity is defined as the penetration of the vagina, anus or mouth by an object or any part of the attacker's body, without the consent of the victim. Unwanted sexual activity involves the attacker not withdrawing their body part or object on becoming aware that the victim is not consenting or freely agreeing. Free agreement can not take place when the victim is under the age of 10, the victim is under the age of 16 AND the attacker is more than 2 years older, the victim is asleep, unconscious, alcohol or drug intoxicated, incapable of understanding the nature of the act, mistakes the identity of the attacker or the sexual act, or believes that the act is for medical or hygiene purposes. Although the victim did not verbally protest, physically resist, obtain physical injury, or on an earlier occasion freely agreed to another sexual act with the attacker or another person they are still not seen to be consenting.

29. Has this ever happened to you? Please tick

Yes No Unsure, comments.....

If 'no' or 'unsure' go to "Section 5". If 'yes', PLEASE complete the following questions

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE NEXT PAGE

30. How many times did this happen to you? *Please tick*

1 2 3 4 5 6-10 10+

31. How old were you when this first happened?.....years old

32. What was the *approximate age* of the other person when this first happened?.....years old

33. If this happened more than once how old were you when this last happened?years old
Tick here if not applicable

34. If this happened more than once, was it the same person who did it? *Please tick*

Yes No N/A

37. Do you believe the other person was affected by alcohol when the unwanted sexual activity took place? *Please tick*

Yes, extremely intoxicated Yes, somewhat intoxicated Yes, slightly intoxicated Unsure No

38. Do you believe the other person was affected by drugs when the unwanted sexual activity took place? *Please tick*

Yes, extremely intoxicated Yes, somewhat intoxicated Yes, slightly intoxicated Unsure No

37. Were you affected by alcohol when the unwanted sexual activity took place? *Please tick*

Yes, extremely intoxicated Yes, somewhat intoxicated Yes, slightly intoxicated Unsure No

38. Were you affected by drugs when the unwanted sexual activity took place? *Please tick*

Yes, extremely intoxicated Yes, somewhat intoxicated Yes, slightly intoxicated Unsure No

39. What was your relationship at the time with the person[s] that did this? *Tick all that that apply to your situation*

Stranger	<input type="checkbox"/>	Casual or first date	<input type="checkbox"/>
Casual acquaintance [distant neighbour, shopkeeper, etc]	<input type="checkbox"/>	Romantic acquaintance [steady date, lover]	<input type="checkbox"/>
Work or study colleague	<input type="checkbox"/>	Partner [e.g., spouse, de facto]	<input type="checkbox"/>
Non-romantic friend	<input type="checkbox"/>	Relative (please specify:)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Trusted figure [close friend, family friend]	<input type="checkbox"/>	Other (please specify:.....)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Person in position of care, supervision or authority [e.g, teacher, doctor, carer, etc]	<input type="checkbox"/>	
		

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE BACK OF THIS PAGE

40. Here are a few of the reasons why unwanted sexual activity happens to people. These reasons may apply to unwanted sexual activity experienced during childhood and/or adulthood.

Tick all of those that apply to your situation.

- The other person used his/her authority [boss, teacher, Dr. etc.]
- As a child, it felt good
- As a child, I had to do what I was told
- As a child, I was curious
- As a child, the other person said it was "ok"
- The other person gave me gifts, money, or lollies
- The other person threatened to physically hurt or punish me
- The other person threatened to physically hurt or punish others
- The other person threatened to hurt or punish me [non-physically]
- The other person threatened to hurt or punish others [non-physically]
- The other person used blackmail
- The other person used physical force
- The other person used psychological force
- Unable to say no [embarrassed, scared, numb, frozen, etc.]
- Unable to stop him/her
- I was under the influence of drugs
- I was under the influence of alcohol
- Other (please specify).....
- Comments welcome.....
.....

41. How many persons had unwanted sexual activity with you?.....person/people

42. Were there other people involved with the unwanted sexual activity who intentionally coerced, set you up, lied to you, tricked you, abandoned you, or allowed the rape to occur? *Please tick*

No Yes (specify).....

43. Who of the following have you spoken to about the unwanted sexual activity?

Please tick all that apply

- No-one Friend Family Neighbour
- Colleague Police Doctor/nurse Counsellor
- Psychologist Stranger Teacher Religious figure
- Sexual assault centre worker Other (please specify).....

44. How difficult has it been confiding about the unwanted sexual activity? *Please tick*

Not difficult Slightly difficult Moderately difficult Very difficult N/A

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE NEXT PAGE

45. How do you feel about your disclosure? Please tick

- I regret going to the police
- I regret telling anyone
- I regret telling some people but not all that I told Specify who you regret telling [eg. family, counsellor, etc.].....
- I have no regrets
- I wish I had told someone sooner
- I would like to tell someone soon
- I would like to tell someone but it is too difficult
- I have no intentions of telling anyone

46. Did/are you pressing charges? Please tick Yes No Unsure

• **If yes, what description best applies to the situation (please tick) If no, go to 'Question 47.'**

- Person[s] not caught
- Person[s] caught but no charges laid
- Person[s] caught, charges laid but found not guilty
- Person[s] caught, found guilty Please indicate type/length of sentence.....

Feel free to provide further comments.....

47. How traumatic was the unwanted sexual activity? Please tick

Not traumatic Mildly traumatic Moderately traumatic Severely traumatic Extremely traumatic

48. Overall, how much trauma have you experienced since the unwanted sexual activity? Please tick

No trauma Mild trauma Moderate trauma Severe trauma Extreme trauma

If you did NOT answer yes to the four questions in the box below go to "Section 5".

If you answered "yes" to any of the four questions in the box below please continue.

Over the past couple of weeks, have you...

- Been having restless or disturbed nights?*

Been feeling unhappy or depressed?

Felt unable to overcome your difficulties?

Been dissatisfied with the way you've been doing things?

49. Do you believe that these experiences/feelings are related to your experience of unwanted sexual activity? Please tick

Not related Somewhat related Related Very much related Extremely relate

THE QUESTIONNAIRE CONTINUES ON THE BACK OF THIS PAGE

If you have NEVER seriously thought of taking your own life, please go to "Section 5".

If you have you EVER seriously thought of taking your own life please continue.

50. Do you believe your past suicidal thoughts were related to your experience of unwanted sexual activity? Please tick

Not related Slightly related Related Very much related Extremely related

51. If you have ever made any suicide attempts, do you believe that any of these were related to your experience of unwanted sexual activity? Please tick

Never made an attempt Yes at least once Specify number of related attempts..... No

Section 5

This section does not contain any questions however it does contain very important information. Please read the following carefully. *For your convenience, separate this section and take it with you...* The researchers do not endorse the statements within this questionnaire, as rape is an unacceptable, serious crime. Despite the beliefs held by some people, studies of sexual aggression and rape in many different circumstances have established the following...

Myth: Rape within in a marriage or relationship can not occur as it is the woman's/man's duty to provide sex

Fact # 1 It is NOT acceptable for somebody to scare, threaten, or force you into doing things that make you feel unhappy or uncomfortable, whether you are in a relationship or not. You do not have to have sex with someone just because you are in a relationship or because you have had sex together in the past.

Myth: Rapists are usually strangers lurking in dark alleyways

Fact # 2 Most victims know their rapists. The majority of rapes are perpetrated by acquaintances, dates or marital partners in places where the victim usually feels safe, such as in their own home or their dates home. Males and females are both capable of raping males and females.

Myth: Men can not be raped

Fact # 3 Men are raped. Approximately 10% of rapes reported involve male victims and this number appears to be rising. A man can be raped regardless of size, strength, sexuality, or appearance.

Myth: Women/Men often falsely report rape

Fact # 4 The percentage of false allegations is extremely low and the percentage of false allegations is similar to those of other crimes. Individuals are more likely to not report the rape than to make false allegations of rape.

Myth: Only certain types of men/women get raped

Fact # 5 People of all classes, ages, genders, professions, sexual orientations, intelligence levels, and races can be and are raped.

Myth: Rape victims complain too much about rape and exaggerate how adversely it effects them

Fact # 6 It is estimated that approximately 60% to 90% of rapes go unreported. Thus, rape victims do not say enough about their crime and need to be encouraged and supported to come forward.

Myth: Only homosexual men rape other men

Fact # 7 Most men who rape other men identify themselves as heterosexual. The rape is about violence, anger and control, not about their sexual urges.

Myth: Any healthy man/woman should be able to fight off an attacker

Fact # 8 Surprise, threats, a weapon, being out numbered, being intoxicated, or frozen by fear makes fighting back impossible for most victims of rape.

Myth: Rape requires physical and verbal resistance from the victim

Fact # 9 Just because somebody does not physically resist does not mean they are consenting. If they say no, that is what they mean, No! If they do not say anything, a persons silence can be their NO.

Myth: Male rape is only a problem in all-male institutional settings

Fact # 10 Male rape is not just a problem within prisons, it occurs within the community also. Rape can happen to any man or woman at anytime and at any place.

Myth: Rape is a spontaneous sexual act and people rape due to uncontrollable sexual urges

- Fact # 11** The majority of rapes are planned in advance. Rape is not a sexual act. It is a violent act that uses sex as a weapon. People can control their sexual urges if they really want to. No sexual urge gives somebody the right to rape.
- Myth: Women/Men secretly desire or asked to be raped and some women/men deserve to be raped
- Fact # 12** Rape can have devastating effects upon the victim. NOBODY enjoys, desires, asks or deserves to be raped. Regardless of what people dress, look or live like, they do not invite rape.
- Myth: Rape is usually committed by a maniac and rapists usually come from lower class backgrounds
- Fact # 13** Most rapists are ordinary people and very few are referred for psychiatric treatment. Most rapists are known to the victim, they are not some psychotic stranger.
- Myth: It is OK to force somebody to have sex with you as long as you do not hurt them
- Fact # 14** Never force anybody to have sex with you. They must give consent! Having sex with someone when they do not want to is a serious criminal offence, even if you do not use physical force or a weapon, or have had sex together in the past, or you believe you have not hurt the other person. If you are guilty of raping somebody you could spend 25 long years in jail!
- Myth: It is OK to have sex with someone when you are intoxicated or when they are intoxicated
- Fact # 15** If you are so intoxicated that you do not know if the other person is consenting - stop, this may be rape. If the other person is so intoxicated they may not be able to give informed consent - stop, this is rape!

The definition of rape varies somewhat between states but generally rape can be defined as...

...The penetration of the vagina, anus or mouth by an object or any part of the attacker's body, without the consent of the victim. The definition states that rape involves the attacker not withdrawing their body part or object on becoming aware that the victim is not consenting or freely agreeing. Consent can not take place when the victim is: i) asleep, ii) unconscious, iii) alcohol or drug intoxicated, iv) incapable of understanding the nature of the act, v) under the age of 10, vi) under the age of 16 AND the attacker is more than 2 years older, vii) believes that the act is for medical or hygiene purposes, OR viii) mistakes the identity of the offender or the sexual act. Also, the victim is not consenting if the offender uses force, threat of force, harm of others, or unlawful detention. The fact that the victim did not say or do anything to indicate consent is usually enough to indicate that the victim did not consent, i.e., although the victim did not verbally protest, physically resist, obtain physical injury, or on an earlier occasion consented to another sexual act with the person or another person they are still not seen to be consenting to the act.

If you are worried that somebody close to you may have been sexually assaulted or you yourself have been sexually assaulted you may wish to discuss this with your doctor or the police. Should you prefer to retain your anonymity, you may choose to call the numbers below...

- **Centre Against Sexual Assault (CASA):** Local call - (03) 9344 2210 www.casa.org.au
Free call - 1800 806 292

CASA offers 24 hour crisis care service responding to the needs of both recent and past survivors of sexual assault. Their services are free and confidential and available to all victim/survivors of recent and past sexual assault regardless of gender, and non-offending family members, partners and friends.

- **Lifeline:** Local call - 13 11 14

Lifeline is a 24-hour telephone counseling service available to anyone, at anytime and from anywhere in Australia. Well-trained Lifeline volunteer telephone counsellors are always ready to listen to you. You can also be sure that you will receive friendly and kind advice and that your information is strictly confidential.

- **Confidential Helpline: 1800 200 526**

A confidential help line that has recently been established by the Australian Government as part of their "Violence against women: Australia says no" campaign. Provides information for young people, parents and the community on identifying and avoiding abusive and violent relationships and where to get help.

- **Gay and Lesbian Switchboard: Metropolitan Area - (03) 9827 8544
Country Area - 1800 184 527**

Gay and Lesbian Switchboard aims to actively strengthen Victoria's lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender communities, primarily by delivering a free, confidential, anonymous, quality telephone counselling, referral and information service provided by trained volunteers. Counsellors are available daily from 6pm until 10pm, and Wednesdays from 2pm until 10pm.

- **Men's Line: 1300 78 99 78**

The mission of Men's Line Australia is to provide relevant and accessible telephone counselling, information and referral in order for men to enhance their relationship capacities and manage the challenges encountered when faced with disruptions to their family life or their primary relationships. It also provides support and information for women and family members who are concerned about the welfare of their partners, husbands or fathers.

- **Care Ring: 13 61 69**

Care Ring is the oldest telephone counselling service in Australia offering telephone counselling and referral services 24 hours a day seven days per week 365 days per year. Care Ring has no religious or political affiliations.

Care Ring provides compassionate and responsive telephone counselling to all people in personal crisis, with timely information and facilitated referral to relevant services

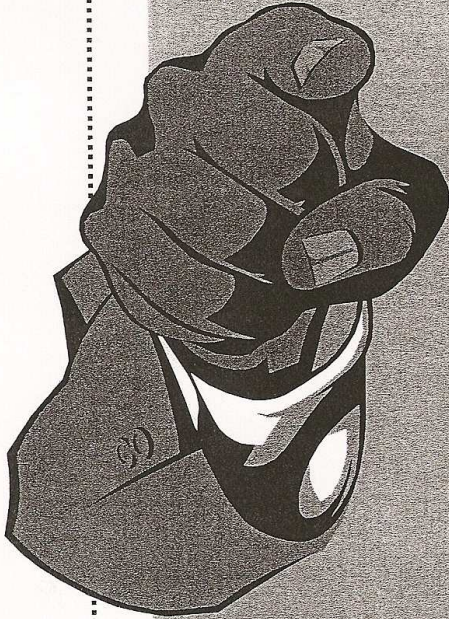
If you have any concerns during or after completion of the questionnaire you are encouraged to discuss these. You are welcome to discuss these concerns confidentially with the primary investigator, Ms. Kara Granger (via telephone: (03) 9925 7376 or via e-mail: s3041360@student.rmit.edu.au) or contact the supervising investigator Dr. David Smith (via telephone: (03) 9925 7523 or via e-mail: david.smith@rmit.edu.au)

Thank-you for participating in this research

You have made a valuable contribution

APPENDIX B: Advertising material.

WE WANT YOU



RMIT University

RMIT University is looking for males and females aged over 18 years, from all walks of life, to anonymously complete a brief questionnaire about their attitudes towards rape and rape related issues.

All you need to do is take a slip below and go to the website and spend approximately 20 minutes completing the questionnaire.

Alternatively, you can contact the researcher, Kara Granger, and request a paper version of the questionnaire be sent to you.

ATTITUDES TOWARDS RAPE

Like a paper version or have any questions? Contact Kara Granger on (03) 9925 7376 or email at s3041360@student.rmit.edu.au

<http://weblearn.rmit.edu.au/raq>

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APPENDIX C: Plain language statement.

Invitation to Participate in a Research Project
Project Information Statement

Attitudes Towards Rape

Primary Investigator: Ms. Kara Granger (BA, PGDip Psych, Doctor of Clinical Psychology student)
Phone: (03) 9925 7376 or E-mail: s3041360@student.rmit.edu.au

Supervising Investigator: Dr. David Smith (BBSc, Mpsych, PhD, MAPS, MASH, Senior Lecturer, RMIT University) Phone: (03) 9925 7523 or E-mail: david.smith@rmit.edu.au

Who is involved in this research? Why is it being conducted?

My name is Kara Granger and I am a Doctor of Clinical Psychology student in the School of Health Sciences at RMIT University. I invite you to participate in my study about attitudes towards rape and rape related issues. The study is under the supervision of Dr. David Smith and is part of my Doctoral degree. The research has received the approval of the RMIT Human Research Ethics Committee.

What is the project about? Why have you been approached?

The project examines individuals' attitudes towards rape and aims to obtain information from a broad range of people in the community. Thus, if you are over 18 years of age, you are invited to participate in this study.

If I agree to participate, what will I be required to do?

If you agree to participate you will be presented with a questionnaire that should take you no longer than 30 to 45 minutes to complete. The questionnaire asks you to rate your level of agreement with statements that concern attitudes towards rape in general, and rape in regard to males specifically and to females specifically. You will also be asked to complete a personal information section to help us understand the information you provide. Finally, you will be asked to read a brief section that gives you information about rape, and from where assistance is available if required. Because of the nature of the data collection, we are not able to obtain written informed consent from you. Instead, we assume that you have thoroughly read this plain language statement and given consent to participate by your completion and return of the questionnaire.

What are the risks associated with participation?

It is important for you to be aware that the questionnaire asks questions of an intimate, sexual and personal nature. These questions are presented in a direct manner. If you feel as if you might be unreasonably confronted, embarrassed, or discomforted by such material, then you should not participate in the research. Due to the nature of the topics covered, it is possible that you may become worried or anxious. Should you find any aspects of the study disturbing, you might wish to contact the 24-hour phone counselling service, LifeLine or the Centre Against Sexual Assault (CASA). You are, of course, free to cease your participation at any time, in which case any information that you have already provided will be destroyed. After the questionnaire has been lodged it will form part of a large database, at this stage you will be unable to withdraw your consent. If you do agree to participate in the current study it is suggested that you read 'Section 5' of the questionnaire. 'Section 5' contains important information about rape and from where assistance is available if required. For your convenience you are able to take home 'Section 5.'

CASA (24 HOURS): **PHONE: 1800 806 292**
LIFELINE (24 HOURS): **PHONE: 131 114**

What are the benefits associated with participation?

Your participation in this study will provide a valuable contribution to further our understanding of how individuals view rape and as a consequence, provide information that can be used to develop strategies that can lead to possible ways to reduce its occurrence.

What will happen to the information I provide?

YOUR RESPONSES WILL BE ANONYMOUS AND TREATED CONFIDENTIALLY. Be assured, no one will be able to identify you from your answers. *The researchers do not want to know your name or your address.* All information you provide will be kept confidential and in a secure place. Once sufficient questionnaires have been completed, the results will be collated. Only group data will be used for research purposes and in any future research publication. In accordance with the Human Research Ethics Committee guidelines, data collected for this study will be securely retained for a minimum of five years after publication, and then destroyed. The privacy of the information you

provide will be safeguarded and only disclosed if required by law. Please note that if specific information is supplied on activities dangerous to the public, the researchers would be obliged to notify appropriate authorities. Thus, it is important that you do NOT name yourself or any third parties. Any returns in which names were mentioned would be immediately destroyed and would not form part of the research data.

What are my rights as a participant? Who should I contact if I have any questions?

You, the participant, also have the right to have any questions answered. If you are unduly concerned about your responses to any of the questionnaire items or if you find participation in the project distressing, you should contact the supervising investigator Dr. David Smith (phone: (03) 9925 7523 or e-mail: david.smith@rmit.edu.au) or Ms. Kara Granger (phone: (03) 9925 7376 or e-mail: s3041360@student.rmit.edu.au) as soon as convenient. Dr. Smith or Ms. Granger will discuss your concerns with you confidentially and suggest appropriate follow-up, if necessary. As the participant, you also have the right to access the overall findings of the study. Thus, the findings of the current study will be posted on the website www.courses.as.rmit.edu.au/psychology/survey/results.htm at the end of 2006, once the study is completed. You also have the right to withdraw your participation, without prejudice, before you submit the questionnaire. However, as your completed questionnaire ensures you remain anonymous, once you have submitted the questionnaire, your information cannot be identified, and therefore cannot be withdrawn.

How do I return the questionnaire?

When you have completed the questionnaire you have the option of either hand delivering the questionnaire to a secure drop box located at School of Health Sciences (Division of Psychology), Building 201, Bundoora Campus, RMIT University, or if you wish to remain anonymous, you may post the questionnaire using reply paid envelopes provided to Ms. Kara Granger, School of Health Sciences (Division of Psychology), Building 201, Bundoora Campus, RMIT University.

Related Research

Thank-you for considering to participate in this study. If you decide to complete the questionnaire you will be making a valuable contribution to research related to rape. We would also like to take this opportunity to inform you about other studies that are being conducted by our research group at RMIT University. Other projects that may be of interest to you investigate issues relating to:

Attitudes relating to socialising and experiences that you may have had in social settings, such as, drinking alcohol, using substances and engaging in sexual activity;

Gay, lesbian and heterosexual sexuality and experiences of sexual and non-sexual aggression (both victims and non-victims of sexual and non-sexual aggression are needed); and

Gay, lesbians and heterosexual patterns of relationships, dating, partnership, and sexuality.

As with the "Attitudes Towards Rape" study, males and females over 18 years of age are invited to participate in these studies. If you would like to help us further by contributing to these other surveys - once you have completed the "Attitudes Towards Rape" questionnaire – please either: Go to the website

www.rmit.edu.au/pd/postgraduate#surveys and click on the links under "Related Research," or phone your contact details to (03) 9925 7523 and a questionnaire will be sent to you. If you select this option, please be aware that it is necessary that you provide a name and address for postage, although a false name may be used if desired. Once the survey has been posted, the mailing details will be destroyed.

If you think you may, even at some time in the future, decide to participate in these other projects, please fill out the code name at the **TOP** of the "Attitudes Towards Rape" questionnaire. The code name will allow us to combine information you provide on the different questionnaires and thus form a broader understanding of your experiences. In order to ensure confidentiality and anonymity, **your real name should not be recorded**; instead please create a code name that **YOU WILL REMEMBER**. The code name is required to be between 2 and 10 items long, and we ask that you use a word followed by either the number of your parent(s)' home or the day of your birthday. For example, if my parents live at 23 Smith Street, my codename might be "bicycle23". Alternatively, if my birthday is on the 20th February, my codename might be "bicycle20." When you come to participating in the related research, you will be required to use the same code name.

Kara Granger
Psychology Doctoral Student
School of Health Sciences (Division of Psychology)
RMIT University

Dr. David Smith
Supervising Investigator
School of Health Sciences (Division of Psychology)
RMIT University

Details of the complaints procedure are available from the above address.
