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**MALE SEXUAL ENTITLEMENT AND MEN'S RESPONSES TO TWO CAMPUS  
SEXUAL ASSAULT PREVENTION APPROACHES**

A Thesis in

Psychology

by

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## ABSTRACT

Sexual assault on college campuses is a serious problem in need of systematic research and improved prevention. This need is exacerbated by the scarcity of formative research in the prevention literature. Such research offers an opportunity to tailor effective, evidence-based materials that avoid a “one size fits all” approach to prevention.

The purpose of this study was to focus a single moderating variable and test the interaction between that variable and two distinct prevention approaches. Based on the fact that rape is perpetrated overwhelmingly by men I focused exclusively on a male audience. I employed Male Sexual Entitlement (MSE) – an internalized subset of masculine norms that perpetuates the belief that women own men sex – as the moderating variable and created the Male Sexual Entitlement Scale (MSES) that allows for its measurement.

I used two video-based prevention materials to reflect the two distinct prevention approaches. The first focused on inducing empathy towards rape victims, while the second underscored consequences of rape for the perpetrator. The Dependent Variables were based on a battery of self-report measures, which tested behavioral intent to rape, arousal to depictions of consensual and non-consensual sex, rape myth endorsement, and the ability to empathize with a rape victim and a rapist. I predicted an interaction whereby the empathy video will be more beneficial for men low in MSE, while the consequences video will be more beneficial for men high in MSE.

Results support the predicted beneficial effect of the perpetrator consequences videos for high MSE men in the case of the behavioral intent measures. MSE in general proved to be a consistent predictor of scores on the majority of rape-related variables, which further validates the construction and use of MSES. Limitations and implications of the results are discussed.

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## **Introduction**

Sexual assault on college campuses is a serious, long-standing problem that warrants attention, systematic research, and improved prevention. Estimates indicate that between one-fifth and one-quarter of college women are victims of rape or attempted rape during their college years (National Institute of Justice, 2000; Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2007). The pervasiveness of rape on college campuses is hard to estimate for a number of reasons. Factors that lead to its pervasiveness also influence underreporting in non-college settings, such as fear of retaliation (about a quarter of victims), expectation of negative experience related to the reporting process, lack of information about the procedures and a feeling of lack of importance given to the issue (U.S. Department of Justice, 2014; Schwartz, 2015; Reingold & Gostin, 2015).

However, universities are environments where underreporting is, when compared to non-student populations, exceptionally high with around 80% of unreported sexual assaults (U.S. Department of Justice, 2014). Surprisingly, as compared to non-student populations, students are similarly unlikely to receive assistance from a victim service agency, with only 51% of schools offering victim assistance and advocacy programs (Association of Title IX Administrators, 2014). The Association of Title IX Administrators lists further issues, including lack of or not enough investigations (40% of colleges did not hold any investigations for more than 5 years, while 20% of private institutions conducted less investigations than the number of incidents they report) and lack or not adhering to procedures which might help alleviate the problem (e.g., more than 70% of schools do not have procedures that would allow cooperation with local law enforcement). Yung (2015) suggests serious undercounting of sexual assault reports by the

universities, as supported by an average spike of 44% in reports during the time when a college is investigated for Clery Act violations, with The Pennsylvania State University setting a record in this regard with a 1389% spike in acknowledged reports between 2010 and 2012.

The above data implies that campus sexual assault is a vast and complex problem that requires immediate action. However, the existing interventions and prevention programs are inadequate and proven to be either ineffective or only briefly effective (Brecklin & Forde, 2001; Breitenbecher, 2000; Breitenbecher & Swarce, 2001).

### **State of the Literature**

Reports about sexual assault prevention are based on limited literature, which has relatively little to offer in terms of systematic research on rape prevention programs. Similar voices of discontent are heard over the span of the past few decades. In 1993, McCall claimed that “sexual assault prevention programming remains a confused, scattered, and sporadic enterprise with little scientific underpinning” (p. 277). In fact, in the early 1990s there was a surge in rape prevention programs in the US due to government directives. However, that did not result in a clear picture of “what types of programmes are most effective, what attitudinal, cognitive and behavioural outcomes can be expected; or how stable any changes are over time” (Carmody, 2005).

Recently, DeGue, Valle, Holt, Massetti, Matjasko and Tharp (2014) reported an analysis of 140 studies on primary prevention of sexual violence, with 98 focusing on a college campus setting. Of the 140, only three studies (Foshee et al., 2004; Taylor, Stein, Woods, Mumford, & Forum, 2011; Boba & Lilley, 2009) were able to demonstrate a reduction in sexually violent behavior. Notably, these three studies do not target college students. The first two of the programs, called “Safe Dates” (Foshee et al., 2004) and Shifting Boundaries (Taylor, Stein,

Woods, Mumford, & Forum, 2011), consisted of complex curricula targeted at 8<sup>th</sup> and 9<sup>th</sup> graders. The second focused on an even younger audience in 6<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> grade. The third of the quoted effective “programs” is in fact the Violence Against Women Act funding, which was a granting program started in 1994 and evaluated by Boba and Lilley (2009). None of these studies provide guidance for prevention in college settings.

DeGue et al. (2014) discuss the state of literature and conclude that while there is a significant increase in publications on sexual violence, the publications on its prevention seem to be “stagnant both in terms of quantity and quality” (p. 352). The studies are not only small in number, but also often lack large samples, randomized assignment and control groups. Jewkes, Flood and Lang (2014) come to similar conclusions when discussing the lack of high quality studies that would provide ample evidence for action. As a result, there is a general paucity of evidence-based programs among the interventions that are currently implemented by practitioners.

Ironically, DeGue et al.’s meta-analysis revealed that after 1999 the studies have decreased in their methodological quality. As compared to publications from between the years 1985 and 1999, research published between the years 2000 and 2012 utilized *fewer* randomized experimental designs (DeGue et al., 2014; p. 356).

### **Need for systematic research and formative studies**

Banyard (2014) shares DeGue et al.’s (2014) concern about the lack of systematic research in sexual violence prevention, and both suggest a path led by formative research. What seems to be needed to jumpstart more evidence-driven prevention programs is smaller scale research that analyzes how certain elements of prevention work for certain individuals, which Banyard refers to as “unpacking” elements of prevention tools (Banyard, 2014, pp. 339, 342,

347-348). Specifically, one of the suggested ways of unpacking these elements would be to test the moderating effects that variables such as individual differences have on the effectiveness of a certain prevention approach.

One example of such an endeavor is a study by Moynihan, Banyard, Cares, Potter, Williams, and Stapleton (2014), who tested the effectiveness of a bystander-intervention education program and examined a number of individual differences as possible moderators of the treatment's effects. Results indicated that individual differences, such as awareness of intimate partner violence being a problem, significantly affected the outcome of the education program.

The Moynihan et al. (2014) study is a rare exception to the rule that individual differences, with the exception of gender, are ignored as possible moderator variables. Banyard (2014) highlights that only a handful of studies in this literature test moderating effects, especially in terms of assessing which prevention approaches work best for various groups of participants. Banyard recommends that researchers test moderators *other* than gender.

The experimental study presented in this thesis addresses this issue by focusing on Male Sexual Entitlement (MSE) as the moderator of interest. The target audience of the tested prevention approach were college students self-identified as men who were pre-tested on the Male Sexual Entitlement Scale (MSES). I predicted that participants would respond to the prevention materials differently depending on their initial level of MSE. Prior to the study the participants were evaluated with the Male Sexual Entitlement Scale (an individual difference measure) and randomly assigned to one of the three prevention approach conditions (two treatment groups and a control group).

## **Addressing Men and Masculinity**

Although participant gender is apparently the only individual difference variable examined in multiple studies (Moynihan et al., 2014), I recruited only male participants. The exclusive focus on men in this project is justified by three main considerations.

First, men constitute an overwhelming majority of the perpetrators of sexual violence. The Federal Bureau of Investigation reported in 2011 (FBI, 2011) that men accounted for 98.8% of arrests for forcible rape and 92.5% of arrests for other sex crimes (excluding forcible rape and prostitution). Being able to influence these men would potentially have a tremendous and disproportionate impact on sexual violence rates. Surprisingly though, men are rarely exclusively targeted by interventions (Berg, Lonsway, Fitzgerald, 1999; Renzetti, Edleson, & Bergen, 2001). Anderson and Whiston (2005) report that, among the sexual assault education studies they analyzed, women constituted on average between 31% and 41% of the participants. In the same time, Morrison, Hardison, Mathew, and O'Neil (2004; see also Policy Department of the European Parliament, 2013) reported that only 8% of educational rape prevention programs are directly targeted at boys or men, despite their being the vast majority of perpetrators. My study targets self-identified men exclusively.

Second, a number of research studies (Malamuth, Linz, Heavey, Barnes, & Acker, 1995; Hill & Fischer, 2001; Abbey, Jacques-Tiura, & LeBreton, 2011) and other writings (Funk, 1993; Kimmel, 2005; Miedzian, 2005) suggest that not solely men (however recognized), but rather *masculinity* and its various manifestations should be targeted as producing a culture that normalizes sexual violence, primarily against women. It is not a matter of hormonal, anatomical or otherwise determined gender that produces men's violent behavior against women. Rather, it is a common experience of what is understood as being a man and the pressure to live up to these

expectations.

A common argument is that the norms of hegemonic masculinity are strongly tied to objectifying, sexualizing and victimizing women (Connell, Messerschmidt, 2005). Jewkes, Flood, and Lang (2014) further argue that a variety of masculinities can adopt these norms and thus it is crucial to recognize them and address the expectations they produce. They recommend that formative research investigates masculinity and its various forms. They further suggest that understanding and confronting masculinity is key in producing effective interventions.

Tharp, DeGue, Valle, Brookmeyer, Massetti, and Matjasko's (2012) review underscores the gendered nature of sexual violence by showing that it is often related to traditional gender role adherence, hypermasculinity, and being under influence of hypermasculine and/or all-male peers (e.g. fraternity membership).

Malamuth and colleagues (Malamuth et al., 1995; Malamuth, Heavey, & Linz, 1993; Malamuth, Sockloskie, Koss, & Tanaka, 1991) contributed to the effective prediction of men's sexual aggression by forming and testing the Confluence Model of Sexual Aggression. In short, this model proved to be able to predict men's sexual aggression against intimate female partners based on men's two sets of characteristics. These were labeled as *hostile masculinity* (consisting of traits that show an insecure, hypersensitive, distrustful attitude towards women and need for control and domination over women) and *impersonal sex* (tendency to engage in sex without commitment or closeness to the partner).

The Confluence Model of Sexual Aggression therefore provides evidence that certain internalized masculinity norms are strongly related to and may lead to sexual aggression. My research tackles the problem of masculinity and sexual violence by addressing and measuring the endorsement of Male Sexual Entitlement as an individual difference variable.

The third and final argument for targeting men and masculinity in the proposed research stems from the recent push towards bystander intervention as the primary method of addressing campus sexual violence. This push comes from both researchers (e.g., Banyard, Moynihan, & Plante, 2007; Gidycz, Orchowski, & Berkowitz, 2011; Langhinrichsen-Rohling, Foubert, Brasfield, Hill, & Shelley-Tremblay, 2011; McMahon, Postmus, & Koenick, 2011; Exner & Cummings, 2011; Koelsch, Brown, & Boisen, 2012; Amar, Sutherland, & Kesler, 2012; Palm Reed, Hines, Armstrong, & Cameron, 2014) and policy makers, as exhibited by the recent White House Task Force to Protect Students from Sexual Assault campaign “It’s On Us” (Obama, 2014; Lierman, 2014).

In a way, it may seem that bystander intervention represents a positive change as compared to the surprisingly common and highly problematic studies and programs that intend to teach women “how not to get raped” (e.g., Gidycz, Rich, & Orchowski, King, & Miller, 2006; Farris & Fischhoff, 2012). The latter approach has been highly criticized – to name just two issues – for placing the responsibility of rape prevention on potential victims, as well as for labeling all women as potential victims in need of “managing” their risk of being raped daily (Hall, 2004; Carmody, 2005).

However, critics point out that attempts at engaging bystanders in preventing sexual violence shifts the responsibility of preventing rape to everyone *but* the perpetrators. These attempts also typically ignore the fact that consequences of intervening in situations where sexual violence occurs can have dire consequences, such as injury, incarceration or death. Also ignored is the problematic nature of determining whether in fact something wrong is happening in the first place (Chief & Devereaux, 2014). The below study focuses solely on attempts to influence the potential perpetrators in an attempt to balance both the research and practice, which

has disproportionately directed its efforts on educating victims of sexual violence and attempting to convince bystanders into risking experiencing violence in the name of violence prevention.

We identify men expected to be more likely to be sexually aggressive by measuring their endorsement of Male Sexual Entitlement.

### **Male Sexual Entitlement (MSE)**

Sexual entitlement has been described as a set of culturally-based beliefs endorsing male sexual privilege (Hanson, Gizzarelli, & Scott, 1994; Hill and Fischer, 2001). Hanson, Gizzarelli and Scott (1994) indicate that sexual entitlement, which goes beyond the general masculine entitlement, includes the internalized myth that "[men] have strong sexual needs that must be satisfied (...) [and] that men, in general, are entitled to act out their sexual impulses" (Hanson, Gizzarelli and Scott, 1994, p. 189). Consistent with the patriarchal system, men are supposed to be "entitled to have their sexual needs met by women" (Hill & Fischer, 2001, p. 40).

I argue that it is crucial to keep this political perspective of larger systematic phenomena of patriarchy and hegemonic masculinity in mind when studying sexual violence. To understand sexual violence, it helps to consider the complex contexts in which it takes place and the positionality and experiences of its victims and perpetrators. Below, I attempt to keep MSE and sexual violence in the context of gendered violence, i.e., I underscore how violence is a prescribed masculine norm that contributes greatly to sexual aggression. Ultimately, these steps help demystify the act of sexual violence that is often falsely assumed to be a "deviant" event, an uncommon one, and perpetrated by men who are not "normal." I also reiterate that this gendered violence resembles an expression of power that reflects the male privilege as positioned above women.

Following similar assumptions, Funk (1993) underscores the importance of MSE in

understanding sexual violence and defines MSE as a sum of feeling entitled to control and dominate women in heterosexual relationships, along with anger when faced with being denied such a privilege. Such an understanding stems strongly from feminist theory and feminist writing on the importance of issues of gendered power in sexual assault. Similarly, Hill and Fischer (2001) refer to feminist theory in their studies of MSE, underlining the importance of power, rather than sex per se, as the main motivation in sexual assault. Their understanding of mechanisms of rape is similar to Funk's, and is discussed in terms of gendered power disparities. Sexual entitlement as understood in this proposal is not to be mistaken with the use of term in a study by Armstrong, England, and Fogarty (2012), where sexual entitlement refers to one's right to receive pleasure from sex and as a tool of empowering women in sexual relationships.

Specifically, the elements of Male Sexual Entitlement are taken here to be (1) sexual narcissism and (2) maladaptive beliefs about both sex in heterosexual relationships and about women in heterosexual relationships. This reflects the factors identified in the Male Sexual Entitlement Scale (MSES), which was created for the purposes of this study and used in the experiment described further.

### **Sexual Narcissism**

A number of authors underline the narcissistic aspects of sexual entitlement. Wryobeck and Wiederman (1999, p. 329), for instance, defines the "sense of [sexual] entitlement" as an "aspect of sexual narcissism [that] has to do with feelings of being in charge and viewing sex as a right within a heterosexual relationship". Conversely, sexual narcissism can be perpetuated by culturally-driven prescriptions that underscore male sexual privilege.

Baumeister, Catanese and Wallace (2002) present a Narcissistic Reactance Theory of Rape that includes an exaggerated sense of general and sexual entitlement as part of narcissism

(DSM-IV; American Psychiatric Association, 1994) and propose that these feelings of entitlement could lead to unrealistic and unreasonable expectations of being owed sex. Once these expectations are frustrated, narcissists may show strong reactance and anger, which can result in sexual coercion and aggression. Bushman, Bonacci, Dijk and Baumeister (2003) test this theory and report that in fact narcissism proved to be related to rape-supportive beliefs and low empathy for rape victims.

The following research utilizes the Male Sexual Entitlement Scale, which measures men's sexual narcissism with a number of both new and borrowed items (Hanson Sex Attitude Questionnaire: Hanson, Gizzarelli, & Scott, 1994; Index of Sexual Narcissism: Hurlbert, Apt, Gasar, Wilson, & Murphy, 1994; Raskin & Terry, 1988; Bouffard, 2010). For instance, participants were asked to indicate their agreement with statements such as "I have a strong desire to be powerful during sex," "Sexual prowess is important to me," and "I have a higher sex drive than most people."

### **Maladaptive Beliefs**

Authors representing cognitive psychology write about sexual entitlement as an Implicit Theory (IT). Mihailides, Devilly, and Ward (2004), Ward and Keenan (1999), Beech, Fisher, and Ward (2005) understand sexual entitlement as a set of maladaptive beliefs that set the perpetrator's sexual needs above the needs of the victim. These beliefs lead to cognitive distortions and biases, such as these seen in the example of college athletes studied by Parrot and Cummings (1994). They report that 28% of men in the studied rowing team and 30% of men in the studied football team expressed a high level of sexual entitlement. These athletes understood their entitlement to having sex with their partner not in terms of mutual wanting and consent, but in terms of "owing" sex based on prior sexual contact or "buying" of sex (e.g., with a dinner or

date). These distortions pertain both to beliefs about women and about the rules that drive heterosexual relationships in general.

Similarly, the Male Sexual Entitlement Scale utilized in my study divides maladaptive beliefs into two basic categories of (a) beliefs about sex in heterosexual relationships and (b) beliefs about women in heterosexual relationships. The first category includes statements that assume certain power disparities in heterosexual relationships, without explicitly mentioning women: “In a close relationship, you should expect to get sex,” “The more serious the relationship is, the more one should expect to get sex,” or “In order to have a good sexual relationship, at least one partner needs to take charge.” The second category specifically mentions women’s characteristics and roles in these relationships with items such as “Women enjoy being submissive sexually,” “Women ought to be enjoyed by men,” or “Women sometimes don’t realize they want to have sex with a man.”

### **The Utility of Male Sexual Entitlement in Understanding Rape**

The value of MSE in explaining sexual violence has been shown in a number of studies on different populations. Hanson, Gizzarelli and Scott (1994) place sexual entitlement among the beliefs of incest perpetrators that contribute to their offenses in the Hanson Sex Attitude Questionnaire. When distributed among convicted incest offenders, male batterers and a control group, incest offenders proved to be significantly higher in support of male sexual privilege as compared to the two other groups. Gannon, Keown, and Rose (2009) and Blake and Gannon (2010) have shown the high prevalence of beliefs about personal entitlement to sex among child molesters and convicted rapists. Mihailides et al. (2004) tested sexual entitlement as an implicit theory endorsed by child sexual offenders, confirming stronger implicit associations to sexual entitlement as compared to nonsexual offenders. Davis, Schraufnagel, Jacques-Tiura, Norris,

George, and Kiekel (2012) detected a link between sexual entitlement cognitions and sexual aggression intentions, where men with a history of childhood sexual abuse and intoxicated men scored higher on sexual entitlement, which in turn led to higher sexual aggression intentions. Hill & Fischer (2001) provide evidence that sexual entitlement helps explain sexual assault proclivity, in that sexual entitlement plays a mediating role between (a) the endorsement of masculine gender roles and (b) rape-related variables such as rape myth endorsement and self-reported likelihood of raping.

After empirically testing four models that positioned MSE as a significant link between masculinity norms and rape-related variables, Hill and Fischer conclude that sexual entitlement plays an important role in explaining sexual assault proclivity, working as a mediator between rape myth acceptance and rape-related variables. Feelings of sexual entitlement (both general and towards women) seem to be central in understanding the link between masculine norms and rape-related behaviors and attitudes.

Interestingly, Hill and Fischer put these results in a greater social perspective. They discuss the predominance and effects of MSE in the context of the patriarchal system prevalent in the US. They note that feelings of general and sexual entitlement may perpetuate rape, domestic violence, child sexual abuse, and sexual harassment – the four types of patriarchal sexual terrorism described by Sheffield (1995). Mugweni, Pearson and Omar studied forced sex within marriages in Zimbabwe and revealed that endorsing sexual entitlement – as part of a set of traits of hegemonic masculinity – predicted higher risk of perpetrating sexual assault.

Bouffard (2010) also underscores the issues of hegemonic masculinity, linking patriarchy with individual attitudes that maintain gendered violence against women. Specifically, she predicts that male sexual proprietariness and entitlement that stem from the influence of a patriarchal

system lead to motivation to sexually aggress. Bouffard tested these predictions on a sample of college students and reported significant relationships in expected directions between sexual entitlement (proprietaryness) and a number of rape-related variables, such as history of sexual coercion (Sexual Experiences Survey: Koss & Oros, 1982), beliefs that indicate heterosexual relationships are based on conflict (Adversarial Heterosexual Beliefs: Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995), and endorsement of rape myths (Rape Myth Adherence: Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995).

Male Sexual Entitlement has been mainly utilized then as both a predictor and mediator in models predicting the risk of sexual violence. In the present research, however, MSE serves as a moderator variable that I predict will influence how men will respond to different sexual violence prevention materials. I chose to test the moderating effect of MSE on two types of prevention materials: (1) messages that attempt to induce victim empathy and (2) messages that present the negative consequences of rape for its perpetrator.

### **Empathy Induction**

A number of intervention programs targeting sexual violence integrate empathy training as one of their methods. For example, according to Knopp, Freeman-Longo and Stevenson (1992), an overwhelming majority – up to 95% – of sex offender programs attempt to induce empathy, both general empathy and empathy for rape victims in particular.

However, there is no consistent evidence of empathy induction being an effective method of preventing men from raping (Breitenbecher, 2000; Burke, 2001). In fact, evidence exists that under certain conditions such attempts may produce iatrogenic effects. Berg, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald (1999) report that men who participated in their study showed greater self-reported likelihood of raping after being exposed to an empathy-inducing material. On the other hand, Schewe and O'Donohue (1993b) found positive effects of empathy induction, but only among

men who reported low likelihood of perpetrating rape and were consequently rated prior to the study as “low risk.”

Deficits of empathy are also not a clear predictor of rape proclivity (Varker, Devilly, Ward, & Beech, 2008). Some of the prevention programs and interventions seem to echo an erroneous assumption that perpetrators are somehow deviant and – in this case – presumably have deficits in empathy that are not present in the general population. This, however, is not necessarily true according to the literature. Results of many studies are conflicted or find deficits in specific kinds of empathy under specific conditions in participants of certain age. For example, Varker & Devilly (2007) found that sexually offending adolescents showed deficits in empathy towards their own victim, but showed only a mixed pattern of contradictory results on the factors of the utilized general empathy scale (Interpersonal Reactivity Index: Davis, 1980).

In the following research I tested the effectiveness of a video intended to induce empathy towards rape victims in affecting a number of rape-related variables. The video contains techniques of increasing victim empathy used in other studies. First and foremost, it discusses the consequences of rape for the victim and shares victim narratives (Hojat, 2009; Pithers, 1994), which explicitly and vividly describe their experience of sexual assault. Second, it asks male participants to imagine themselves being raped by another man (Lee, 1987). This video covers both of the perspective taking mechanisms described by Batson, Early, and Salvarani (1997): imagining how another feels and imagining how you would feel.

In terms of predictions, I anticipated that the moderating effect of MSE (as an individual difference variable) may help explain previous mixed findings about sexual violence prevention interventions. Specifically, I predicted that men low in MSE will respond in a positive way to the empathy induction video, as evidenced by a reduction of scores on rape-related dependent

variables. Conversely, I expected men high in MSE to show no change or perhaps even respond negatively to the same video material.<sup>1</sup> I based this on the assumption that high MSE men may respond with reactance to attempts of inducing empathy towards potential victims of rape. This reactance could be caused by both the tenets of MSE that prescribe a lower power status to women who are not expected to have a say in their sexuality and by the narcissistic component of MSE that assumes women own men sex. Attempts at introducing and enhancing victim empathy, which is often cited as a factor that inhibits rape or, conversely, the lack of which is described as one of the necessary factors in sexual assault (Barbaree & Marshall, 1991; Marshall, Hudson, Jones, & Fernandez, 1995; Bushman, Bonacci, Dijk, & Baumaister, 2003; Baumaister, Catanese, & Wallace, 2002), may illicit both feelings of being restricted in acquiring “impersonal sex” and being denied power in sexual relationships with women. Because of that mechanism, efforts to get high MSE men to take someone else’s perspective may be doomed to fail.

At the same time I assumed that men low in MSE would benefit from the empathy induction, since (1) their lower MSE would mean they do not have the same egoistic motivation that can be frustrated by not being aggressive sexually towards women, and (2) through being better able to imagine the victim’s perspective they may experience an increase in altruistic motivation (Batson, Early, & Salvarani, 1997).

Better understanding of why empathy induction so far produces mixed results is crucial, as it is commonly used as a method of prevention programs, even if confounds often exist because of the simultaneous use of several different intervention components (e.g. O’Donohue, Yeater, & Fanetti, 2003). In the following experimental design, the empathy induction video

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<sup>1</sup> I conducted preliminary analyses halfway through data collection to ensure that no harmful effects occur in any of the conditions. These analyses did not suggest any significant iatrogenic effects.

alone was presented to one group of participants, making sure that its effects are tested exclusively and separately from a second video, which presents the negative effects of rape for the perpetrator.

### **Perpetrator Consequences**

The recently released report from The Pennsylvania State University Task Force on Sexual Assault and Sexual Harassment (2015) confirms that the university's official sanctioning guidelines include only "moderate" to "major" and no "minor" consequences for perpetrating sexual harassment and misconduct, asserting that the university's serious stance on campus sexual violence. However, the Task Force also noted that some of the individuals consulted for the purposes of the report were convinced that the consequences that perpetrators in fact face are inappropriately low or nonexistent, with some suggesting that "the consequence for plagiarism (...) was often more severe than the consequence for sexual assault" (p. 19).

Research, albeit scarce, indicates that similar attitudes held by perpetrators may be partially responsible for the prevalence of sexual assault (Scully & Marolla, 1985; O'Donohue, McKay, & Schewe, 1996; O'Donohue, Yeater, & Fanetti, 2003). Importantly for the predictions made in my research, O'Donohue, McKay and Schewe (1996) report that the severity of anticipated negative consequences for sexually assaulting (known as "outcome expectancies") are significantly and negatively correlated with a self-reported history of sexually aggressive behavior. Importantly, these "outcome expectancies" are an especially important predictor of sexually coercive behavior for men high on measures of hypermasculinity. However, there appears to be a common practice of *not* exposing the intervention participants to the possible consequences of sexual aggression (DeGue et al., 2014). The review performed by DeGue et al. (2014) indicates that only 6 out of 140 reviewed programs included a "policy and sanctions"

section in their materials. In the same time, 34 of those programs aimed to train the audience in victim empathy. Educating men about policy and sanctions may prove crucial in reforming potential perpetrators who, as noted by Jewkes et al. (2014), often think they are not obliged to follow social norms.

In the below research I exposed one group of participants to a video that describes examples of perpetrators facing consequences and sanctions following their assault. I predicted that men high in MSE will benefit more from watching this video, as evidenced by the reduction in scores on all the rape-related dependent variables. At the same time, I did not expect men low in MSE to change their responses on the dependent measures due to this video. I based these predictions on the assumption that presenting potential consequences may be more convincing for men high in MSE because these sanctions could affect them personally. In contrast, asking the same group of high MSE men to imagine how a rape victim would feel and how they themselves would feel as a rape victim may illicit reactance and fixation on egoistic motivation (Batson, Early, & Salvarani, 1997). The focus on perpetrator consequences is an alternative approach that can produce a motivation to preserve one's well-being (avoid loss of status, financial security, education, job prospects, social relationships, and other) by abstaining from sexual aggression. Men low in MSE who I predicted to generally have a much lower risk of becoming a perpetrator as compared to high MSE men may find these videos irrelevant, thus potentially producing null treatment effects.

The pattern of predicted results suggests a possible interaction between the level of MSE and the type of treatment video. In short, men high in MSE were predicted to respond negatively to the empathy video, or at best show no change, and to respond positively to the perpetrator consequences video. Men low in MSE were expected to show overall lower scores on the

dependent measures, respond positively to the empathy video and not change or respond negatively to the perpetrator consequences video.

### **Present Study**

The purpose of this study was to test the effectiveness of two types of sexual assault prevention materials on a sample of college men who were prescreened on the Male Sexual Entitlement Scale.

This study involved a 3 (*prevention approach*) by 2 (*MSE level*) factorial design. The first independent variable – referred to as *prevention approach* – was operationalized by randomly assigning participants to one of the three conditions, in which participants were exposed to video materials that either (a) described negative consequences of rape for the perpetrator (*perpetrator consequences*), (b) discussed negative consequences of rape for the victim (*victim empathy*), or (c) were of a neutral nature in relation to the topic of the study (*control condition*). The second independent variable was based on pre-existing individual differences in the endorsement of Male Sexual Entitlement; participating men were divided into high, medium and low in scores on MSE. The dependent variables contained three types of rape-related measures: (i) behavioral intent measures (i.e. self-reported likelihood to sexually assault), (ii) attitudes (endorsement of dysfunctional beliefs about rape, rape victims and rape perpetrators), (iii) and empathy (general empathy and rape-specific empathy).

I predicted two significant main effects and a significant interaction between the independent variables:

H1: I predicted a main effect of *Male Sexual Entitlement level*, whereas participants *high* in MSE would score significantly higher on all rape-related variables (other than *victim empathy*, where higher scores indicate a more positive outcome) as compared to

participants who were *medium* in MSE, who would in turn score higher on the same rape-related variables than participants *low* in MSE.

H2: I predicted a main effect of *prevention approach*, where participants exposed to the treatment conditions would show lower scores on rape-related variables (other than *victim empathy*) as compared to participants in the control condition.

H3: I predicted an interaction, where (a) men *high* in MSE would have lower scores on rape-related variables (other than *victim empathy*) when exposed to the *perpetrator consequences* video as compared to *high* MSE men in the *victim empathy* and *control* conditions, while (b) men *low* in MSE would show lower scores on the same rape-related variables when exposed to the *victim empathy* treatment as compared to *low* MSE in the *perpetrator consequences for the perpetrator* and control conditions.

These predictions were tested using ANOVA and simple effects tests in IBM SPSS 22 statistical software.

## Method

### Participants

Based on the literature I expected small to medium effect sizes and estimated that the experiment would require between 120 and 180 subjects to participate (20 to 30 subjects per cell). Unfortunately, the number of participants who were pre-screened through the mass screening itself proved too small to satisfy this requirement. As a result, I decided to recruit more men through a different screening method, testing these men in sessions separate from the pre-screened participants. I also tested to see whether effects differed between the two screening methods.

The first part of the participants ( $N = 79$ ) were prescreened on MSE and sexual orientation scales through the Psychology Group Test mass screening (referred to here as *prescreening*). This took place well in advance of the actual experiment as initially intended. The second set of participants ( $N = 75$ ) filled out the same measures in the lab right before the experimental procedure began (referred to as *in-session*).

Thus, a total of 154 participants were successfully recruited among Pennsylvania State University undergraduate students enrolled in an Introductory Psychology course. All participants were at least 18 years of age. They were compensated with course credit.

13 participants were excluded from the analyses for failing to pass the attention checks built into the questionnaire and/or because they did not self-identify as predominantly heterosexual. 77 of the remaining 141 subjects participated in the *prescreening* procedure, while the other 64 participated in the *in-session* procedure. SPSS further filtered out incomplete and invalid responses, leaving exactly 127 participants in the final analysis.

Men with valid data (N = 127) were split into three MSE groups: (a) men high in MSE (scores including and above the 67<sup>th</sup> percentile, N = 43), (b) men average in MSE (scores between the 67<sup>th</sup> and 33<sup>th</sup> percentile, N = 42), and (c) men low in MSE (33<sup>th</sup> percentile, N = 42).

## **Materials**

### **Screening Measures.**

#### *Male Sexual Entitlement Scale.*

Male Sexual Entitlement is defined as a set of culturally-based beliefs stemming from the patriarchal system and endorsing male sexual privilege (Hanson, Gizzarelli, & Scott, 1994). These beliefs can be understood as internalized myths, which state that “[men] have strong sexual needs that must be satisfied (...) that men, in general, are entitled to act out their sexual impulses” (Hanson, Gizzarelli and Scott, 1994, p. 189). Higher scores on MSE have been shown to be related with higher scores on rape-related variables, such as rape myth endorsement.

The Male Sexual Entitlement Scale (MSES), created for the purposes of this study, was first constructed as an amalgam of items that were both found in a number of relevant pre-existing sub-scales (Hurlbert et al., 1994; Hanson, 1994; Raskin & Terry, 1988; Wryobeck & Wiederman, 1999; Hannawa, Spitzberg, Wiering, & Teranishi, 2006; and Bouffard, 2010) and newly created items that reflected the literature on the topic (e.g., Funk, 1993; Bouffard, 2010). Ultimately, the final version of the scale consisted of 28 items that are distributed among three latent factors which define the components of MSE (example items included in parentheses): (1) sexual narcissism (e.g. “It’s easy for me to accept being refused sex”; “In sex, I like to be the one in charge”), (2) beliefs about heterosexual relationships (“Sex during a hookup is a given”; “I believe it is appropriate to demand sex if two people have been dating long enough or if they are

married”), and (3) beliefs about women in heterosexual relationships (“Women should oblige men’s sexual needs”; “Men need sex more than women do”). Please refer to Appendix A for the full version of the scale.

The participants are asked to indicate their agreement with the proposed statements on a Likert scale with responses ranging from 1 (“Strongly Disagree”) to 7 (“Strongly Agree”), with a mid-point of 4 (“Neither Agree nor Disagree”). A separate study dedicated to creating and validating the MSE Scale showed its high reliability among college students at Cronbach’s  $\alpha = .92$  ( $N=300$ ,  $N_{\text{items}}=28$ ; Zawadzki & Zawadzki, unpublished data). Reliability for each of the three subscales scales equaled: (1)  $\alpha = .80$  (narcissism, 8 items), (2)  $\alpha = .85$  (relationships, 12 items), (3)  $\alpha = .85$  (women, 8 items). In the current study the reliability remained high at  $\alpha = .92$  ( $N=293$ ,  $N_{\text{items}}=28$ ) (reliability for each of the subscales).

### ***Sexual Orientation Questionnaire.***

Based on the Kinsey Scale (Kinsey, Pomeroy, & Martin, 1948; Kinsey, Pomeroy, Martin, & Gebhard, 1953), this measure was used to assess participants’ sexual preference towards different genders. Please see Appendix B for a complete version of the measure.

### ***Gender.***

Participants’ gender was determined through the university’s research recruitment system, which allows an investigator to select students who identify either as male or as female.

### **Video Materials.**

The videos utilized in this study are a part of a set titled “Rape: A Perspective for Men,” designed in collaboration with the University of Nevada, Reno Department of Psychology (PI: William O’Donahue, Ph. D.) and published by Northwest Media (1996). It was intended as a comprehensive aid for sexual violence prevention on college campuses. The entire package

consists of three parts: (1) “Rape: Drawing the Line,” which discusses a number of rape myths, (2) “Rape: Can you Imagine?” that focuses on the experience of rape from the victims perspective, and (3) “Rape: It Hurts to Hurt,” which depicts accounts of negative consequences of rape for its perpetrators. Each of the videos is approximately 15 minutes long. This study used “Rape: Can you Imagine?” as the empathy inducing video and “Rape: It Hurts to Hurt” as the perpetrator consequences video. These represent two levels of the *prevention approach* independent variable.

### ***Empathy Video.***

This video material presents a number of accounts of rape from the perspective of its victims. This perspective is exclusively heterosexual and all of the victims are women. The actors share stories of sexual assault, including feelings and thoughts associated with it.

The narrator ties the stories with additional comments about the experience. She depicts the experience of rape in graphic detail, assuring the viewers that “the woman does not experience arousal – instead, she experiences fear, terror, and trauma.” The narrator further describes the physical pain of forced intercourse, pain which can last for “hours after the attack.”

The video includes a short segment that acknowledges that for men imagining this experience may be hard and invites them to think of rape as a violation of someone’s space somewhat comparable to having your personal space violated, like in an invasion of your home. Finally, viewers are also asked to imagine men being raped and acknowledge that these cases also cause lasting pain and trauma.

### ***Perpetrator Consequences Video.***

This video presents a number of accounts of consequences that rape perpetrators face. Similarly to the previous video, the perspective is exclusively heterosexual and focuses on male perpetrators only.

The actors share details of the sanctions and retaliation they experienced and are still facing. These include incarceration, arrest and questioning, ostracism, exclusion from family, loss of status, a permanent criminal record, unemployment, expulsion from university, prison harassment and assault.

The narrator ties the stories together and labels the sexual assault as a “mistake” and a choice which has direct and severe consequences for all the men in the video.

### **Dependent Measures – Behavioral Intent Measures.**

#### ***Likelihood of Sexually Assaulting.***

This measure was borrowed from Briere & Malamuth (1983), Malamuth (1981), Berg, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald (1999). It consists of a set of items reflecting different sexual behaviors. Participants are asked how likely they would be to engage in these behaviors if they knew that no-one would know about them doing so. These likelihood items include Likelihood to Use Force (LF), Likelihood to Rape (LR), Likelihood to Use Coercion (LC) and Likelihood to Use Alcohol (LA<sub>lc</sub>). Participants responded on a 7-point Likert scale from (“Not at all likely”) to 7 (“Very likely”). Appendix C contains the full version of the measure. *Likelihood of Sexually Assaulting* and the following *Date Rape Scenario* were treated as a set of measures of self-reported *behavioral intent*.

### ***Date Rape Scenario.***

As a measure of self-reported likelihood of engaging in sexual assault, I used a modified version of the date rape vignette adapted from Chiroro, Bohner, Viki, and Jarvis (2004), with added items borrowed from Koss and Oros (Sexual Experiences Scale; 1982) and self-authored items. The measure consists of a single vignette that describes a dating scenario. Participants are asked to imagine a situation where they engage in flirting with a woman with whom they are keen to have sex. The descriptions in each scenario end with the woman resisting sex.

This was followed by a set of questions that range from non-threatening (“How aroused would you be in this situation?”, “How likely is that scenario to happen to you?”), to questions about the likelihood of the participant’s engaging in sexual coercion and assault (“How likely would you be to try to convince her to have sex with you?”, “How likely would you be to use some degree of physical strength (lying down on her, holding her down, etc.) to try to engage in sexual intercourse?”). Most of the question categories were treated as filler items, which included questions about participants’ arousal, misperceptions concerning the woman’s motivations, and behaviors related to consent. In the final analysis, I focused on items indicating the likelihood of engaging in sexual assault, which included questions about both verbal coercion and rape. Participants answered the questions on a Likert scale with responses ranging from 1 to 5 (1 – Not at all, 2 – Slightly, 3 – Moderately, 4 – Very much, 5 – Extremely). For the full description of the vignettes and the full set of questions, please refer to the Appendix D.

### **Dependent Measures – Sexual Arousal Measure.**

#### ***Rape Index Scenarios.***

This measure, based on stimuli used by Malamuth (1986) and Abel, Barlow, Blanchard, and Guild (1977), involve exposing participants to two audio recordings and measuring their

responses to each of them. Both were recorded with the same voice actress for the purposes of this study. They are (a) a depiction of a mutually consensual heterosexual intercourse, and (b) a depiction of rape. The narrator describes these situations from a third person perspective with graphic detail, putting the listener in the position of the man who is either having sex with a woman or sexually assaulting her. After listening to each recording, participants are asked to indicate their arousal in response to the presented story through several items (e.g., “It was easy for me to get turned on listening to the story”) on a scale from 0% (“Completely disagree”) to 100% (“Completely agree”). Please see Appendix E for the full measure. The *Rape Index Scenarios* were used as measures of self-reported *sexual arousal*.

#### **Dependent Measures – Rape Myth Endorsement Measure.**

##### ***Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale Short Form (IRMA-SF).***

IRMA, created by Payne, Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1999), consists of seven subscales that resemble the most prevalent misconceptions about rape, its victims and its perpetrators: (1) *she asked for it* (SA), (2) *it wasn't really rape* (NR), (3) *he didn't mean to* (MT), (4) *she wanted it* (WI), (5) *she lied* (LI), (6) *rape is a trivial event* (TE), (7) *rape is deviant event* (DE).

Endorsement of each myth is measured with up to 8 items on a 7-point Likert scale, where a higher score indicates stronger rape myth endorsement (from 1 – “Strongly Disagree, through 4 – “Neutral”, to 7 – “Strongly Agree”). The total score is calculated by averaging the scores on all the items. Higher scores on the scale indicate stronger endorsement of rape myths. Please see Appendix F for reference. IRMA-SF was used here to measure the extent of *endorsement of beliefs* related to sexual assault.

## **Dependent Measures – Empathy Measures.**

### ***Rape Empathy Scales.***

These scales, developed by Smith and Frieze (2003), were used to measure the participants' self-reported *capacity to feel empathy* towards the rape victim and / or the rapist. This measure is divided into the Rape-Victim Empathy Scale and Rape-Perpetrator Empathy Scale, each consisting of 18 items. See Appendix G for the full version of both scales.

## **Dependent Measures – Demographics.**

Basic demographic questions ask the participants about their (a) age, (b) nationality, (c) race / ethnicity, and (d) political affiliation.

## **Procedure**

As mentioned earlier, there were two ways in which the screening measures were administered: *prescreening* and *in-session*.

In the *prescreening* participants filled out the screening measures early in the semester as part of the psychology subject pool's mass screening. These participants, therefore, were not able to link the screening measures with the following in-lab experimental procedure. *In-session* participants, in contrast, were first invited into the lab and then, after filling out the consent forms, asked to fill out a paper version of the screening measures. *Prescreening* participants took part in separate sessions from the *in-session* participants.

In both cases participants were invited to an "Intimate Relationships Video Study" study. Once signed up, they were invited into the lab alone or in groups of up to four depending on availability, greeted by the experimenter and seated at one of four computer stations. Their seating was predetermined, as the computers were preset to one of the three randomly assigned *prevention approach* conditions (*empathy induction video*, *perpetrator consequences video*, or

*control video*). Participants were asked to thoroughly read the consent form, which consisted of an underlined trigger warning information. It asked participants to individually consider possible adverse effects of being exposed to the experimental materials which contain depictions of and references to sex and sexual violence. In *prescreening*, participants who agreed to continue with the study were asked to proceed with the onscreen instructions. *In-session* participants who agreed to continue with the study were first asked to fill out a set of paper-based screening measures and then proceed with the onscreen instructions.

Each computer station was isolated in such a way that the participants were not able to see each other's screens. Additionally, participants wore headphones to block any audio stimuli from other conditions. The experimenter left the participant at the computer station and sat in an adjacent room. The participants were informed that in case any questions arise or they wish to withdraw, the experimenter would be available in that adjacent room.

Participants were exposed to one of the three *prevention approaches* conditions:

(a) *Empathy induction* condition, where participants viewed an approximately 15 minute video intended to promote and induce empathy towards the victim.

(b) *Perpetrator consequences* condition, where participants viewed an approximately 15 minute video that described the negative consequences of sexual assault (e.g. social exclusion, ostracism, jail) for rape perpetrators.

(c) *Control video* condition, where participants viewed the "All-American Bear", an approximately 15 minute excerpt from a video documentary, not relevant to the topic of sexual assault, and describing the life of a wild black bear.

Once finished with watching the assigned video materials, the participants filled out the dependent measures: (a) a set of measures of self-reported rape proclivity (Date Rape Scenario

adapted from Chiroro, Bohner, Tendayi Viki, & Jarvis, 2004; Likelihood of Sexually Assaulting items borrowed from Briere & Malamuth (1983), Malamuth (1981), Berg, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald (1999); (b) Rape Index Scenarios based on research from Malamuth (1986) and Abel, Barlow, Blanchard, and Guild (1977), which indicate participants' sexual arousal, (c) Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Short Form Scale (IRMA-SF; Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999) that test the endorsement of rape myths, and (c) Rape Empathy Scales (Smith & Frieze, 2003), which indicate propensity for empathy towards the rape victim and/or perpetrator. Once the participants filled out the provided questionnaires, they were asked to provide basic demographic data, were debriefed and let go.

### **Analyses**

Data were analyzed in IBM SPSS statistical software, using the factorial analysis of variance method (ANOVA) in order to test for the predicted interaction and main effects. Post-hoc LSD were performed to follow up on main effects and simple effects analyses were performed to probe significant interactions. Additionally, I controlled for the MSE and sexual orientation measurement *procedure types* to determine whether being measured *in-session*, versus being *prescreened*, significantly affected the results. I did that by performing additional analyses with the *procedure type* as an additional factor with two levels (*prescreening* and *in-session*).

## Results

The results below describe the analyses of the effect of two independent variables (*prevention approach* and *MSE level*) on a set of dependent variables (Date Rape Scenario, Likelihood of Sexually Assaulting, Rape Index Scenarios, Rape Myth Endorsement, and Rape Empathy) tested through ANOVAs with a 3 (*prevention approach: empathy induction, perpetrator consequences, and control*) x 3 (*MSE level: high, medium, and low*) factorial design. For a correlations and reliability values table of the dependent variables please refer to Table 1.

**Table 1.** *Dependent variables correlation and reliability table.*

EP	EV	RMA	RIC	RIN	LSA	DRS	
<b>.416**</b>	-.088	<b>.505**</b>	<b>.296**</b>	<b>.299**</b>	<b>.651**</b>	$\alpha$ .644	Date Rape Scenario (DRS)
<b>.392**</b>	-.087	<b>.534**</b>	<b>.274**</b>	<b>.416**</b>	$\alpha$ .758		Likelihood of Sexually Assaulting (LSA)
<b>.324**</b>	-.138	<b>.369**</b>	<b>.409**</b>	$\alpha$ .788			Rape Index Nonconsensual Arousal (RIN)
<b>.223*</b>	-.058	.174	$\alpha$ .875				Rape Index Consensual Arousal (RIC)
<b>.496**</b>	$\alpha$ .256**	$\alpha$ .859					Rape Myth Acceptance (RMA)
.017	$\alpha$ .877						Empathy for the Victim (EV)
$\alpha$ .890							Empathy for the Perpetrator (EP)

\*\* - Correlation significant at  $p < .01$ , \* - Correlation significant at  $p < .05$

A separate set of ANOVAs was performed to control for the possible interaction effect of the *procedure type* (*prescreening* and *in-session*) by adding it as another independent variable, creating a 3 (*prevention approach*) x 3 (*MSE level*) x 2 (*procedure type*).

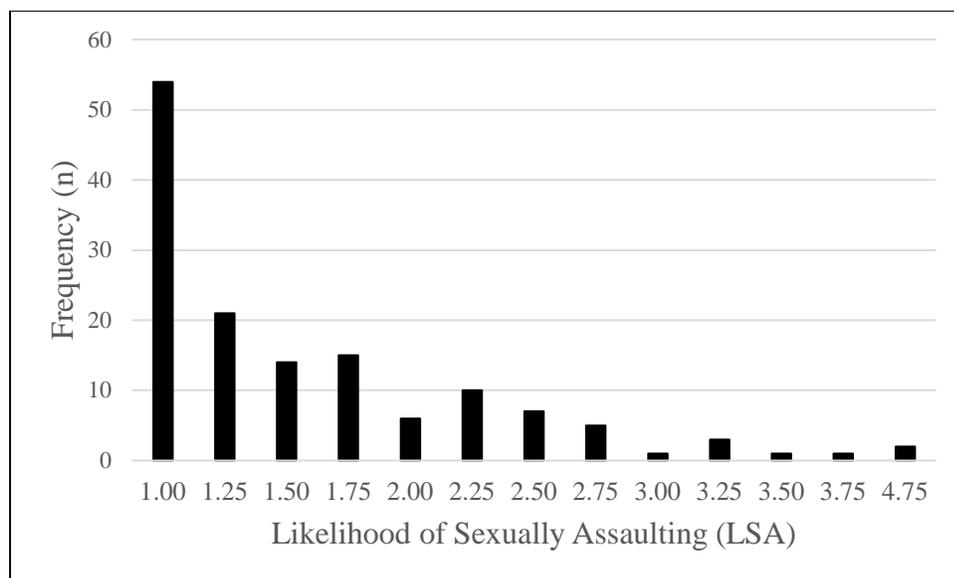
## Behavioral Intent Measures

### Likelihood of Sexually Assaulting.

This measure indicates respondents' rape proclivity through a set of items that ask the participants to self-report their likelihood of engaging in a number of behaviors in order to have intercourse with a woman (e.g. likelihood to use force, likelihood to use alcohol, likelihood to rape). The final score is an average of responses to these items, which can range from 1 ("Not at all likely") to 7 ("Very likely"), with higher scores indicating higher self-reported likelihood of perpetrating rape.

This measure proved to be non-normally distributed at  $KS(140) = .215, p < .001$  (Figure 1).

**Figure 1.** *Distribution of the scores for the Likelihood of Sexually Assaulting (LSA), with a possible range of scores from 1 ("Not at all likely") to 7 ("Very likely").*

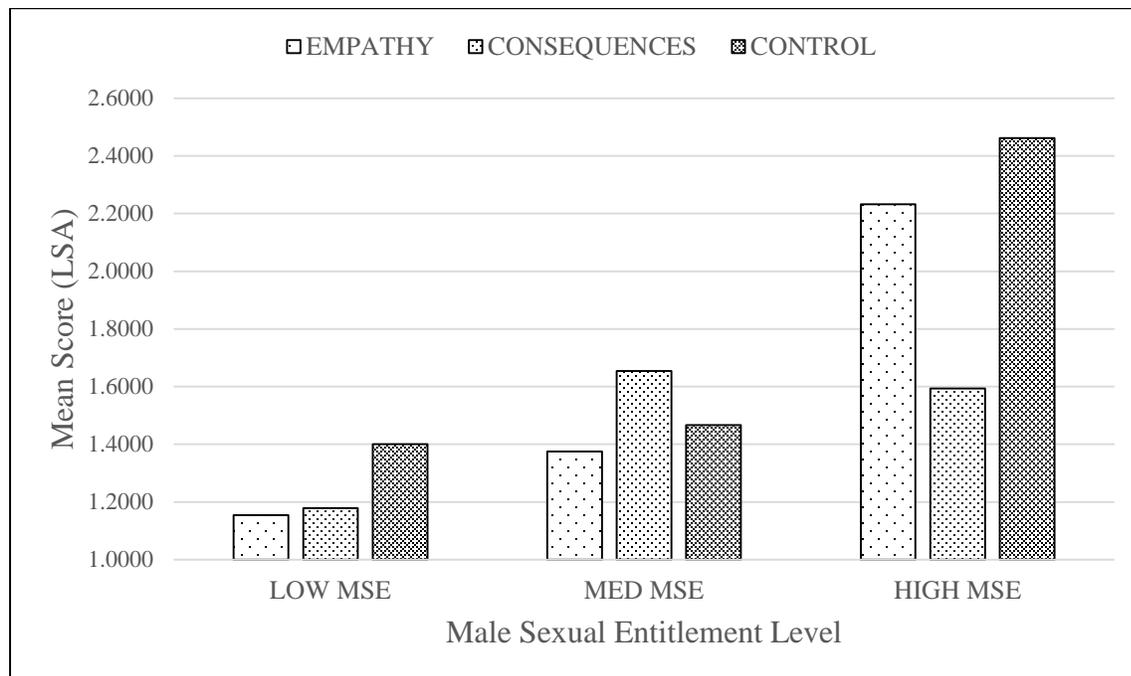


No transformations were successful in achieving normality. Analyses of such F-test assumption violations however show that their consequences may be negligible, with most possible negative consequences being a reduction in power of the test (Harwell, Rubinstein, Hayes, & Olds, 1992; Glass, Peckham, & Sanders, 1972; Lix, Keselman, & Keselman, 1996). Further, the distribution patterns among the non-normal DVs analyzed in this study proved to be very similar, with consistent floor effects that were expected due to the nature of the measures. As a consequence, I decided to continue with the initially planned analyses of variance for both the normally and non-normally distributed dependent variables.

The results of an ANOVA revealed a main effect of MSE,  $F(2, 118) = 18.24, p < .001$ , such that the higher the *MSE level* were, the higher were the scores on the likelihood of sexually assaulting measures, which indicate higher self-reported rape proclivity. Specifically, a post-hoc LSD contrast showed that high MSE men scored significantly higher ( $M = 2.06$ ) than both medium MSE ( $M = 1.49, p < .001$ ) and low MSE men ( $M = 1.25, p < .001$ ). Low and medium MSE men scored marginally different from each other ( $p = .096$ ).

A significant *prevention approach* by *MSE level* interaction was also observed,  $F(4, 118) = 2.78, p = .030$  (Figure 2).

**Figure 2.** A significant interaction between prevention approach and MSE level on Likelihood of Sexually Assaulting (LSA), with a possible range from 1 (“Not at all likely”) to 7 (“Very likely”).



To better describe the nature of the interaction, I performed a simple effects test to determine the unique effects of *prevention approach* within each *MSE level*. Consistent with my hypotheses, high MSE men scored significantly lower on the Likelihood measure in the *consequences* condition ( $M = 1.59$ ), as compared to both the *empathy* ( $M = 2.23$ ,  $p = .01$ ) and *control* ( $M = 2.46$ ,  $p = .001$ ) conditions. The *prevention approaches* did not result in significant differences within the medium or low *MSE levels* ( $p$ s ranging from .279 to .923). In short, men high in MSE were more likely to report intent to rape, unless they saw the *consequences* video material. Simultaneously, different *prevention approaches* did not result in any difference in scores for low or for medium MSE men.

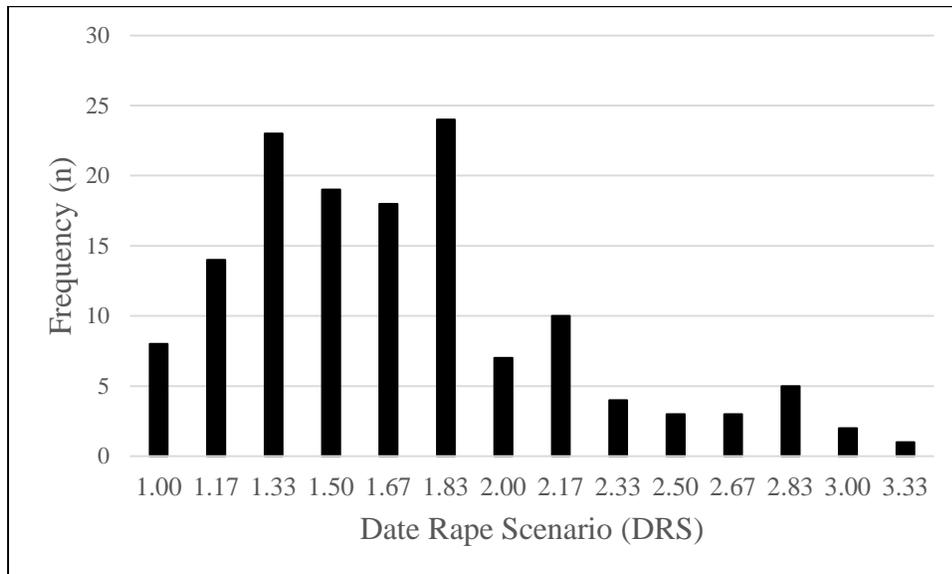
### **Date Rape Scenario.**

This measure consists of a vignette depicting a hypothetical situation between the participant and a woman who refuses to have sex with him, followed by a set of questions about how the participant would behave when faced with this scenario (e.g., “How likely would you be to use some degree of physical strength (lying down on her, holding her down, etc.) to try to engage in sexual intercourse?”). The responses ranged from 1 (Not at all) to 5 (Extremely) and the final score was calculated from their mean. Therefore, higher scores indicate higher self-reported behavioral intent to sexually assault.

Since they were used here as filler, items pertaining to arousal, consent and misperceptions about the woman’s motivations were excluded from the analyzed composite variable which was intended to represent behavioral intent. The alpha coefficient of the resulting variable equaled .644. This reliability coefficient could not be improved significantly by removing any of the items.

The scores for the Date Rape Scenario were non-normally distributed with the value of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test at  $KS(141) = .155$  with a p-value lower than .001 (Figure 3).

**Figure 3.** Distribution of the scores for the Date Rape Scenario (DRS), with a possible range of scores from 1 (“Not at all”) to 5 (“Extremely”).



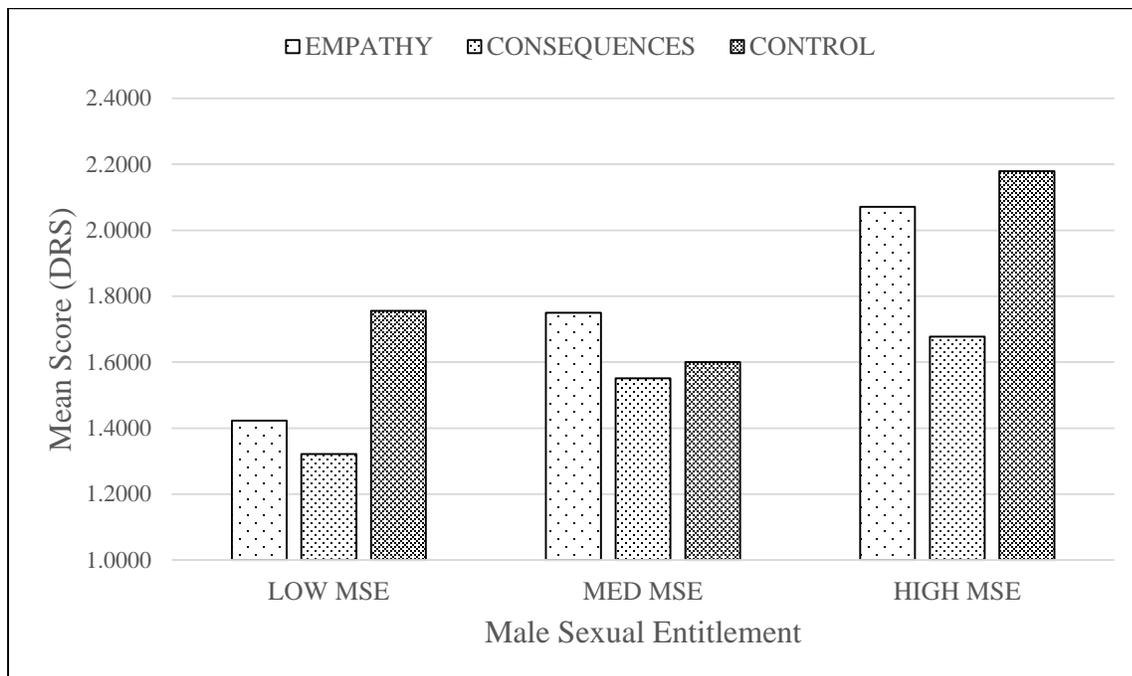
An ANOVA was performed, revealing two significant main effects. Similarly to the *likelihood* measure, a main effect of MSE was observed,  $F(2, 118) = 14.52, p < .001$ . Men high in MSE scored higher in rape proclivity ( $M = 1.96$ ) than both men medium ( $M = 1.64$ ) and low ( $M = 1.51$ ) on the MSE measure. LSD post-hoc tests showed that high MSE men differed significantly from medium and low MSE men at a  $p = .001$  and  $p < .001$  respectively, while men medium and low in MSE did not significantly differ in scores on the Date Rape Scenario. I also found a significant main effect of *prevention approach* ( $F(2, 118) = 6.91, p = .001$ ), with participants in the *control* and *empathy* conditions scoring highest ( $M = 1.85$  and  $M = 1.75$  respectively) and not significantly differing from each other ( $p > .42$ ). Participants in the *consequences* condition, however, scored significantly lower than the participants in the other two conditions ( $M = 1.52$ ; LSD,  $p = .012, p = .001$ ). Again, this suggests a positive influence of the *consequences* video material.

Although the interaction only approached marginal significance ( $p = .114$ ,  $F(4, 118) = 1.91$ ), I decided to conduct a simple effects test to explore the relationship further.<sup>2</sup> For men high in MSE, as predicted by the hypotheses, the *perpetrator consequences* condition was beneficial and caused these men to score significantly lower ( $M = 1.68$ ) as compared to high MSE men in the *empathy induction* ( $M = 2.07$ ,  $p = .011$ ) and *control* ( $M = 2.18$ ,  $p = .002$ ) conditions; the latter two did not differ from each other ( $p = .505$ ). Men with medium MSE did not show any significant differences between the *prevention approach* conditions ( $p$ -values equal and higher than  $.221$ ). Men low on MSE significantly benefited from both of the treatment conditions, as supported by the significantly lower scores in *empathy induction* ( $M = 1.42$ ,  $p = .039$ ) and *perpetrator consequences* ( $M = 1.32$ ,  $p = .006$ ) conditions as compared to the *control* condition ( $M = 1.76$ ). Men low in MSE did not differ significantly between the treatment conditions themselves, however ( $p = .530$ ). Please refer to Figure 4.

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<sup>2</sup> This decision was based on (1) the similarity with the patterns of results for the Likelihood of Sexually Assaulting, which is the only other behavioral intent measure. Also, (2) a significant *prevention approach* by *procedure type* interaction was found ( $F(2, 109) = 3.24$  ( $p = .043$ )), where within the *control* condition subjects taking part in the *in-session* procedure were scoring significantly higher than *prescreening* participants (Figure 5 in Appendix H, p. 81). This interaction could be reducing the power to detect the *prevention approach* by *MSE level* interaction observed on the previous DV.

**Figure 4.** A marginally significant interaction between prevention approach and MSE level on Date Rape Scenario (DRS), with a possible range from 1 (“Not at all”) to 5 (“Extremely”).

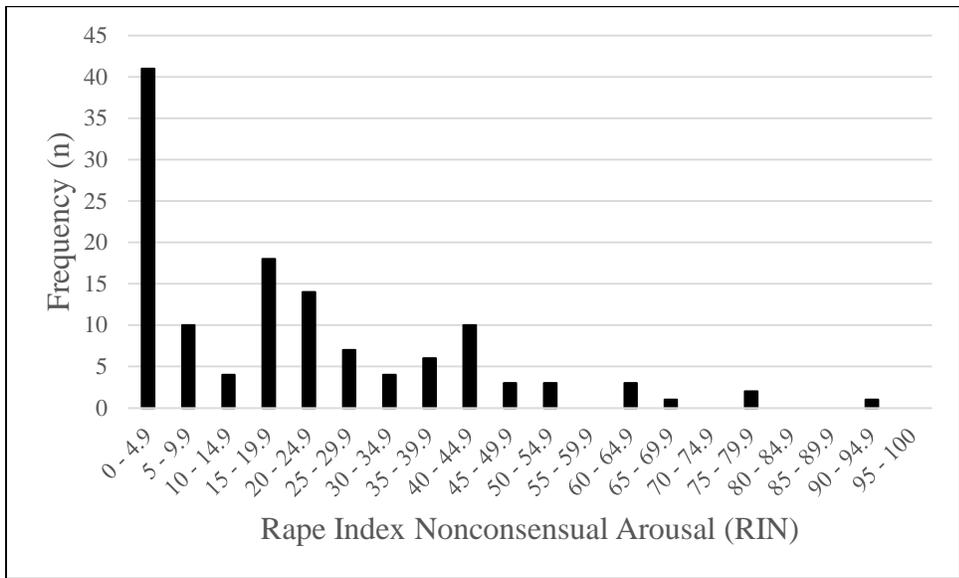


### Sexual Arousal Measure – Non-Consensual Description

The Rape Index Scenarios measure consists of two parts displayed to participants in a randomized order. The Nonconsensual Arousal Measure involved an audio recording of a voice actress depicting a rape scene. The narrator refers to the participant in second person (e.g., “(...) you are in a room, on a bed, with Jess (...)”), implying his role as a perpetrator in the described assault. After listening to the recording, participants rated their arousal by responding on a scale from 0% (“Completely disagree”) to 100% (“Completely agree”) for six items (e.g., “It was easy for me to get turned on listening to the story”). The final score was obtained by calculating a mean of the responses. Higher scores meant higher self-reported arousal to depictions of rape.

The distribution of the scores proved non-normal ( $KS(127) = .16, p < .001$ ). No transformation was successful in normalizing the distribution (Figure 6).

**Figure 6.** *Distribution of the scores for the Rape Index Scenario Nonconsensual Arousal Measure (RIN), with a possible range of scores from 0 (lowest arousal) to 100 (highest arousal).*



An ANOVA performed with the Nonconsensual Arousal Measure as the dependent variable resulted only in a significant main effect of MSE ( $F(2, 105) = 10.51, p < .001$ ). Men high in MSE scored significantly higher ( $M = 31.54$ ) than both men medium ( $M = 15.41$ ) and low ( $M = 14.36$ ) on MSE, indicating high MSE men experienced higher self-reported arousal to a rape scenario ( $p$ -values  $< .001$ ). Men low and medium on the MSE measure did not differ significantly on this dependent measure ( $p > .80$ ).

Controlling for the *procedure type*, a 3 (*MSE level*) x 3 (*prevention approach*) x 2 (*procedure type*) ANOVA resulted in the same pattern of results, which included a significant main effect of MSE and no other main effects or interactions.

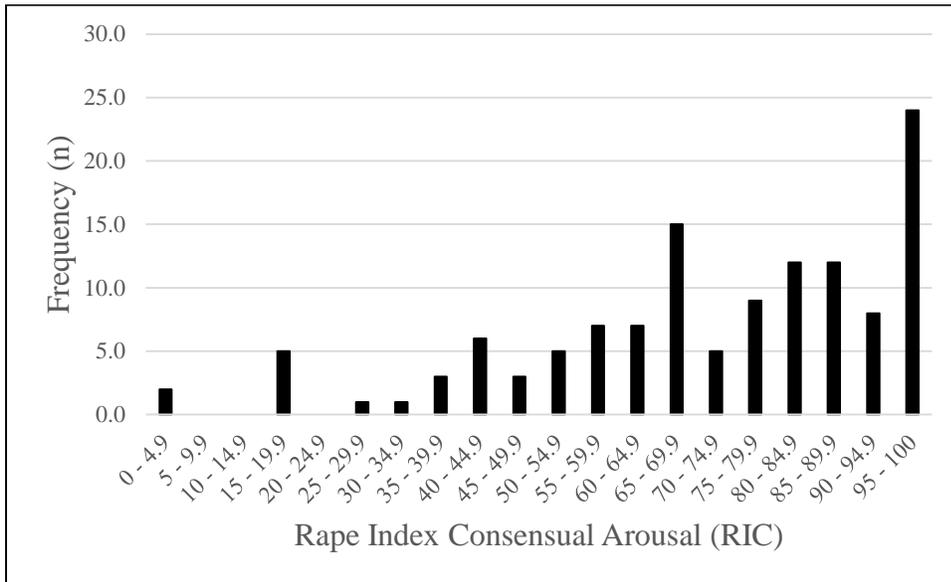
### **Sexual Arousal Measure – Consensual Description**

Unlike the previous measure, the Consensual Arousal Measure begins with an audio narrative depicting a consensual sex scene. Similarly to the Nonconsensual Arousal Measure, this dependent variable also asks the participants to report their arousal level on a scale from 0%

to a 100% in response to the same set of six statements. Higher responses on this measure are interpreted as higher self-reported arousal to a depiction of consensual sex.

The distribution of the scores was non-normal ( $KS(125) = .112, p = .001$ ) and no transformations were successful in alleviating that (Figure 7).

**Figure 7.** *Distribution of the scores for the Rape Index Scenario Nonconsensual Arousal Measure (RIC), with a possible range of scores from 0 (lowest arousal) to 100 (highest arousal).*



An ANOVA with the Consensual Arousal Measure as the dependent variable revealed a significant main effect of MSE ( $F(2, 105) = 6.05, p = .003$ ). High MSE participants scored significantly higher ( $M = 82.23$ ) than both medium ( $65.95, p = .003$ ) and low MSE participants ( $M = 66.90, p = .005$ ). Men medium and low on MSE did not show a significant difference ( $p > .85$ ).

A 3 (*MSE level*) x 3 (*prevention approach*) x 2 (*procedure type*), conducted in order to examine the possible influence of the *procedure type*, revealed an identical pattern of results: a main effect of MSE and no interactions.

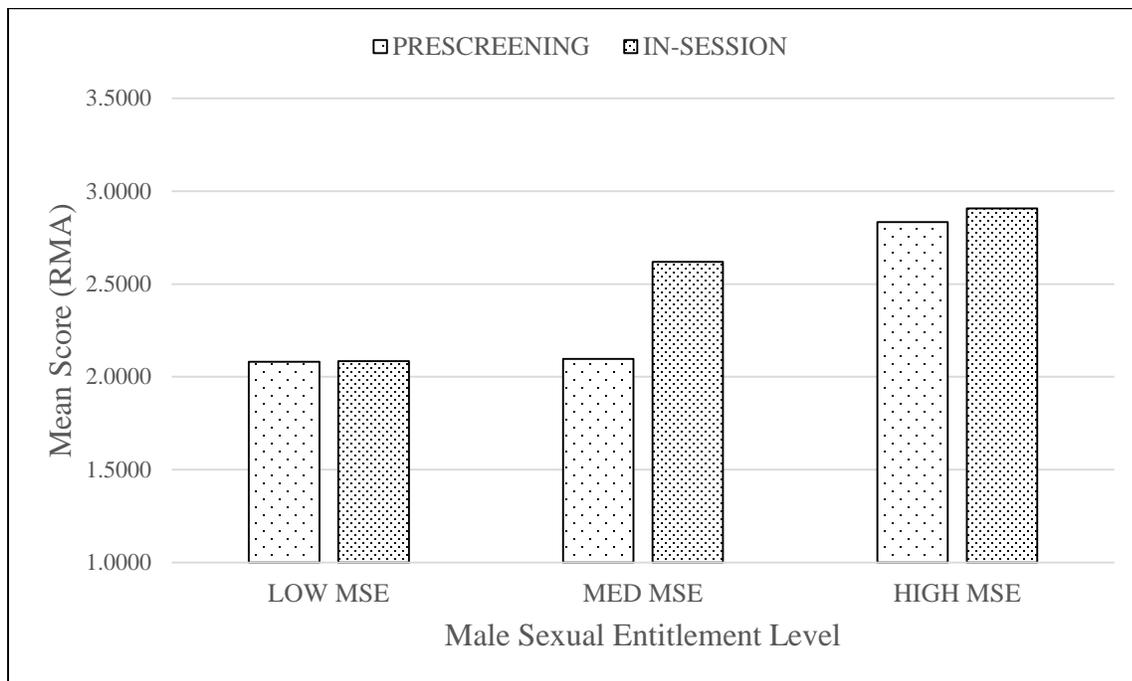
### **Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance – Short Form (IRMA-SF)**

This measure was used to determine the level of endorsement of rape myths, which perpetuate false beliefs about sexual assault and stigmatize its victims. Subjects responded to 20 statements on a Likert scale from 1 (“Not at all agree”) to 7 (“Very much agree”). The final score was calculated by averaging these response. Higher scores indicate a stronger endorsement of rape myths. Normality tests confirmed that the distribution of IRMA-SF scores was normal.

The ANOVA showed only a significant main effect of MSE ( $F(2, 116) = 17.78, p < .001$ ). The pattern of results suggests that the higher the *MSE level*, the stronger the endorsement of rape myths. According to the post-hoc LSD test, men who were high in MSE scored significantly higher ( $M = 2.87$ ) than both men medium ( $M = 2.37$ ) and low in MSE ( $M = 2.08$ ). In addition, men medium in MSE scored significantly higher than men low in MSE (all  $p$ -values  $< .05$ ).

I followed up with a control for *procedure type* by performing a 3 (*MSE level*) x 3 (*prevention approach*) x 2 (*procedure type*) ANOVA. The analysis revealed a marginal effect of *procedure type* ( $p = .100$ ) and a marginal *MSE level* by *procedure* interaction ( $p = .090$ ). The interaction seems to suggest that men medium in MSE score higher on rape endorsement when going through the *in-session* procedure, where they fill out the Male Sexual Entitlement Scale right before the experimental procedure begins. Please refer to Figure 8.

**Figure 8.** A marginal interaction between prevention approach and procedure type on Rape Myth Acceptance (RMA), with a range from 1 (“Strongly Disagree”) to 7 (“Strongly Agree”).



### Empathy Measures

I used a scale consisting of two parts to measure the degree to which participants report being able to empathize with (a) rape victims (referred to as *victim empathy*;  $\alpha = .877$ ;  $N_{\text{items}} = 18$ ,  $N = 135$ ) and (b) rape perpetrators (referred to as *perpetrator empathy*;  $\alpha = .890$ ;  $N_{\text{items}} = 18$ ,  $N = 139$ ). Participants were asked to indicate their agreement to a number of statements (e.g. “I find it easy to take the perspective of a rape victim,” “I can feel a person’s humiliation at being accused of forcing someone to have sex”) on a Likert scale from 1 (“Strongly disagree”) to 5 (“Strongly agree”). Both of the measures proved to be normally distributed.

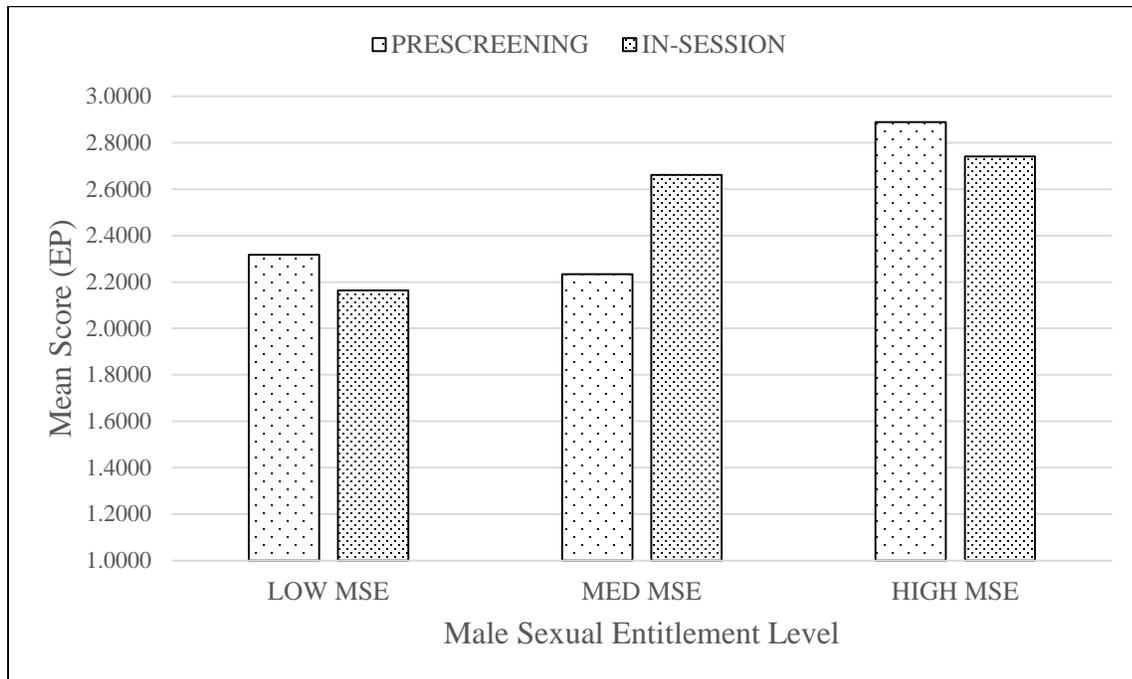
The analyses showed no significant main effects and no interactions for the *victim empathy* measure. It is, in fact, the only tested dependent variable that shows no main effect of

Male Sexual Entitlement. Testing for the possible interaction of *procedure type* did not yield any significant results.

In contrast, the *perpetrator empathy* measure showed a main effect of *MSE level*. A post-hoc LSD analysis of this main effect revealed that high MSE men scored significantly higher ( $M = 2.81$ ) as compared to both medium MSE men ( $M = 2.46$ ) and low MSE men ( $M = 2.25$ ) with p-values of .009 and less than .001 respectively. Medium and low MSE men did not differ from each other ( $p = .113$ ).

Additionally, testing the possible effect of *procedure type* resulted in two significant interactions: (a) *MSE level* by *procedure type* and (b) *prevention approach* by *procedure type*. The first interaction pattern suggests that medium MSE men score significantly higher when participating in the *in-session* procedure, which involves filling out a paper version of the screening measures (MSE scale, sexual orientation scale) right before the experiment (Figure 9).

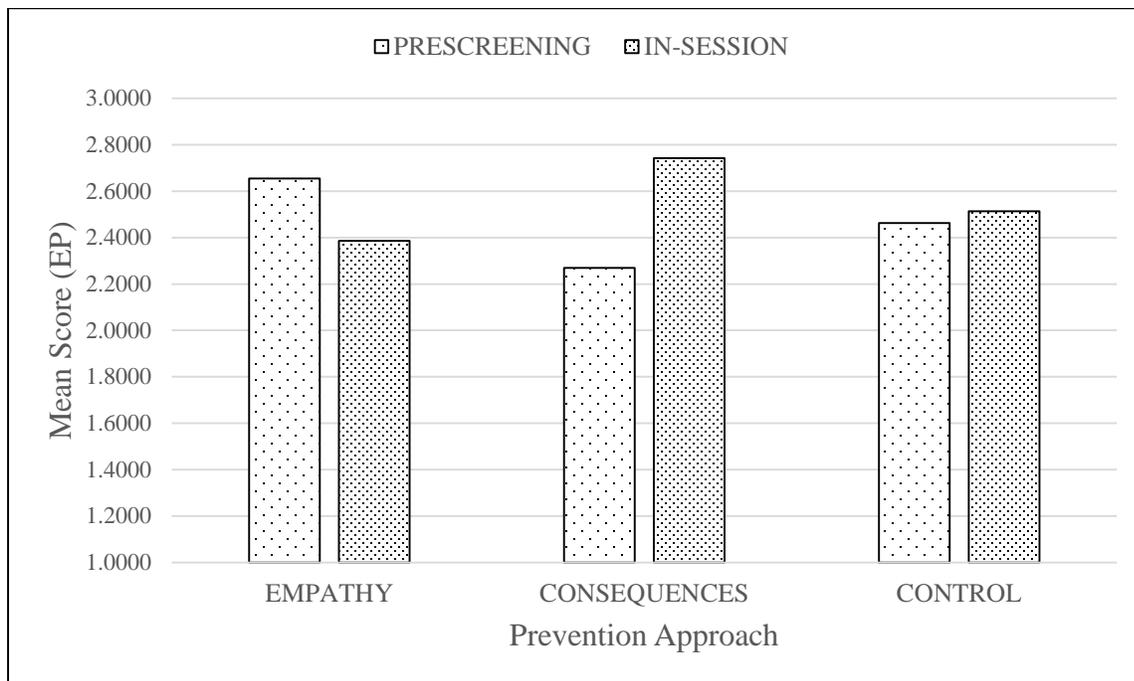
**Figure 9.** A significant interaction between MSE level and procedure type on Empathy for the Perpetrator (EP), with a possible range from 1 (“Strongly disagree”) to 5 (“Strongly agree”).



Interestingly, this is the same pattern that I observed in the case of the *rape myth endorsement* DV.

The second interaction shows an interesting cross-over pattern (Figure 10).

**Figure 10.** A significant interaction of prevention approach by procedure type on Empathy for the Perpetrator (EP), with a range from 1 (“Strongly disagree”) to 5 (“Strongly agree”).



Among *prescreening* participants, the *empathy induction* condition men score significantly higher ( $M = 2.66$ ) than *perpetrator consequences* condition men ( $M = 2.27$ ,  $p = .031$ ) on the measure of empathy for the perpetrator. In contrast, among *in-session* participants this relationship nearly reverses: the *empathy induction* condition men score lower ( $M = 2.39$ ) as compared to the *perpetrator consequences* condition men ( $M = 2.74$ ), albeit this difference is only marginally significant ( $p = .079$ ).

## Discussion

The purpose of this research was to (a) experimentally test two types of sexual assault prevention approaches, while also (b) testing the moderating effect of a theoretically relevant individual difference measure on these prevention approaches and (c) creating and validating the Male Sexual Entitlement Scale. This was accomplished by utilizing campus sexual assault prevention video materials, created by O'Donahue for Northwest Media (1996), which resemble two prevention techniques employed in prevention programs worldwide. Specifically, I focused on testing the effectiveness of (1) inducing empathy for the rape victim, a ubiquitous prevention technique, and (2) a much less commonly used presentation of the negative consequences of rape for the perpetrator.

I hypothesized that the effect of these two experimental treatment conditions will depend on participants' level of Male Sexual Entitlement, an individual difference construct that draws from feminist, social psychological and practitioner writings that discuss the intertwined nature of masculinity and rape.

### **Moderating effects of Male Sexual Entitlement**

I predicted that I would observe a pattern of significant interactions between *MSE level* and *prevention approach*, such that (a) men high on MSE would score lower on rape-related variables only after watching the *perpetrator consequences* video, while (b) men low on MSE would score lower on the same variables only after watching the *victim empathy* video. The results partially support the first part of this hypothesis and provided no evidence in support of the second part.

Perhaps unsurprisingly, the results were heavily dependent on the type of outcome variable employed. I demonstrated a significant moderating effect of Male Sexual Entitlement on

the *prevention approach* condition for one of the *behavioral intent* measures – Likelihood of Sexually Assaulting – and a (nearly) marginally significant moderating effect for the second of the behavioral intent measures – Date Rape Scenario.

These interaction patterns confirmed my predictions about the beneficial effects of exposing men high in Male Sexual Entitlement to material showing negative consequences of rape for the perpetrator. Interestingly, and against initial predictions, none of the treatment conditions produced any significant changes as compared to the control condition for medium MSE men. This was also true for low MSE men tested with the Likelihood of Sexually Assaulting measure. However, when tested with the Date Rape Scenario, low MSE men benefited from both of the treatment conditions.

### **Main Effect of Male Sexual Entitlement**

I hypothesized that I would find a pattern of main effects of Male Sexual Entitlement on all of the rape-related variables, where (a) men high on MSE would score significantly higher on all rape-related variables other than victim empathy (where they would score lowest) as compared to men medium on MSE, (b) who would in turn score higher than men low on MSE (who would score highest on victim empathy). I found support for the first part of this hypothesis and partial evidence in support of its second part.

I observed the main effect of Male Sexual Entitlement on all but one of the dependent measures. Confirming the predictions, in all cases men high in Male Sexual Entitlement scored significantly higher on rape-related variables as compared to men both medium and low in MSE. However, men medium and low in MSE did not differ on most measures. Differences were observed only in the cases of Likelihood of Sexually Assaulting (significant) and Rape Myth Acceptance (marginally), with medium MSE men scoring higher than low MSE men. The

consistent pattern of main effects, especially on measures of *behavioral intent* and *rape myth endorsement* which are linked to higher rape proclivity, substantiates the utility of the Male Sexual Entitlement Scale as a tool of identifying men high in risk of perpetrating sexual assault who are in need of individualized preventive materials.

The only dependent variable which did not show the main effect of MSE was *victim empathy*. In fact, this measure showed no main effects and no interactions. This null result may have serious implications, as it turns out that an improvement on *behavioral intent* measures was not accompanied by any improvement on the *victim empathy* measure, undermining the widely presumed usefulness of attempts at inducing men's empathy for victims of rape. It also means that such empathy-based interventions may not achieve the intended changes in empathy, as I did not observe any changes in capacity to empathize with rape victims despite introducing a manipulation designed solely to induce such changes. This could be a result of the difficulty in producing such changes, perhaps due to reactance. Regardless, focusing resources and efforts on empathy induction may not make sense in light of how other measures related to rape proclivity do not seem to be correlated with the capacity to empathize with the victim as shown by the pattern of results, including the outcome variable correlation matrix.

### **Main Effect of Prevention approach**

I predicted that I would find a pattern of main effects of *prevention approach*, where subjects in treatment conditions (*victim empathy* and *perpetrator consequences*) would score significantly lower on all rape-related variables (higher on the *victim empathy* measure) in comparison with the participants in the *control* condition.

Contradictory to my predictions, I found a significant main effect of *prevention approach* only in the case of the Date Rape Scenario outcome. Furthermore, the pattern of this main effect

was not consistent with these predictions, showing that only the *perpetrator consequences* video had a positive effect on the participants resulting in their significantly lower scores as compared to men in the *empathy induction* and *control* conditions who, in turn, did not differ significantly from each other.

## **Practical Implications, Limitations, and Future Directions**

### **Are perpetrator consequences important?**

The current study suggests that *perpetrator consequences* is by far the more promising prevention approach as compared to the *empathy induction* attempts. As hypothesized, *perpetrator consequences* primarily, significantly and positively affected men high in MSE. These effects were limited to *behavioral intent* measures, which are also probably the most meaningful of the measures in the current study, representing a self-reported statement of men's rape proclivity.

Since the perpetrator consequences approach is underrepresented in both research and programs addressing rape prevention, it is crucial that the beneficial effects are replicated and further studied. Additionally, exposing men to the negative consequences of perpetrating rape should not only be thought of as just a messaging strategy or a part of a brief intervention, but should also be considered in a broader context of supporting university and campus policies. As pointed out in the introduction, students often think campus rape perpetrators face no or little consequences. The additional problem that such beliefs are often true points to the fact that universities are in need of changes in both policy against sexual assault and the prevention programs against sexual assault. Combined efforts along these lines may in turn affect the norms of campus rape culture and deter potential perpetrators.

### **Is empathy useful?**

One important pattern, in terms of some predictions not being met, is the fact that the *empathy induction* video failed to produce any significant change as compared to the *control* condition on all of the dependent variables, including even the *empathy* outcome measures. This could be a result of a certain difficulty in teaching empathy, especially in a time-constrained laboratory setting. This, however, is a source of potentially meaningful implications, as university-based prevention programs often are also highly time-constrained and conducted as an artificial segment of students' experience. Empathy induction methods should be given much lower priority if either (a) they require extensive effort to produce intended change, or (b) empathy towards the victim, as shown in this research, is not significantly related to positive change on behavior-related variables or variables that have previously been shown to be correlated with actual rape proclivity, as in the case of rape myth acceptance.

### **Is behavioral intent good enough?**

The expected interaction patterns were confirmed in the case of *behavioral intent* measures, whose improvement was a priority, as they conceptually are closest to actual behavior among the dependent variables used in this study. Still, creating measures of actual behavior is crucial as a future direction ahead of the formative research of sexual assault prevention approaches. While the behavioral intentions measures used in this research proved practical and feasible, and while they showed promising results, they cannot be treated as a substitute of or point of direct inference about actual behavior. Creating measures of actual behavior is a challenge, but procedures like the "computer harassment paradigm" (Maass, Cadinu, Guarnieri, & Grasselli, 2003) show that more direct ways of measuring sexual aggression may be possible. Conceivably, progress in creating such measures may be closely related to the use of virtual

environments and participants' growing familiarity with their environment. Short-term methods of measuring actual behavior make it possible to utilize experimental designs without resorting to more effortful and costly methods of determining causality, such as longitudinal studies. In the end, the context of the current literature dictates that continuous emphasis on outcome measures related to behavior, including behavioral intent, would already be a huge improvement in future studies.

### **How and why does procedure type matter?**

It is important to note that there is some evidence of a possible interactive effect of the *procedure type* (*prescreening*, where participants were prescreened well in advance of the experiment, and *in-session*, where participants filled out a paper version of the screening methods right before the experiment). These patterns, however, are complex and, more importantly, do not in any way limit the findings on the two behavioral intent measures.

In the case of the Date Rape Scenario, the significant interaction between *procedure type* and *prevention approach* suggests that for men within the *control* condition of the prevention approach variable, the *in-session* participants scored significantly higher than the *prescreening* participants. There were, however, no such effects for any participants in both of the treatment conditions (*empathy induction* and *perpetrator consequences*).

In the case of *rape myth endorsement*, I found a marginally significant interaction, which shows that men who were medium on MSE scored significantly higher on that dependent variable when in the *in-session* procedure. This result matches the one revealed in one of the two interactions found for *perpetrator empathy*, where a significant *MSE level* by *procedure type* interaction showed the same pattern – medium MSE men scored significantly higher in the *in-session* procedure. It seems that being exposed to statements from the Male Sexual Entitlement

Scale and the sexual orientation scale not only can provoke medium MSE men to report endorsement of more hostile beliefs about women, but also a greater capability of empathizing with a potential rapist.

An interesting possibility is that, for men medium in MSE, thinking about their own level of MSE or having the MSE content itself salient activate the normative influence of masculinity standards as included in the MSE measure. As mentioned earlier, I regard Male Sexual Entitlement not as a deviant set of norms, nor as an outlier of sorts, but rather a set of norms that are widespread and taught to men as masculine values. In this context, hypothesizing that salience of MSE may trigger higher empathy towards perpetrators and higher endorsement of beliefs hostile towards women seems justified. Such triggering and the possible higher identification with men and masculinity may be more likely in medium MSE men because, as compared to low MSE men, they have internalized masculinity norms to a higher degree.

Alternatively, it is also possible that asking predominantly heterosexual men about their behaviors and fantasies related to their sexual orientation triggers a masculinity threat. This may, in turn, result in attempts to reassert their heterosexual masculinity by being more hostile towards women – at least in the form of endorsing rape myths and showing more empathy for a sexual assault perpetrator.

The second significant interaction found for the *perpetrator empathy* measure was between the *prevention approach* and *procedure type* pattern. Specifically, *in-session* participants in the *perpetrator consequences* condition scored highest as compared to *in-session* subjects in the *empathy induction* and *control* conditions on a marginally significant level.

The results for *prescreening* participants – with men in *perpetrator consequences* showing lowest scores – are almost symmetrically opposite to *in-session* participants. This

pattern, however, did not replicate on any other measure.

The most consistent pattern in the results involving *procedure type* suggests that medium MSE men may score significantly higher when they fill out the screening measures right before the experiment, at least on measures related to rape myth endorsement and perpetrator empathy. The other results show unexpected and almost contradictory to the hypothesized patterns of results for participants in the *in-session* procedure.

In short, when one measures MSE and / or sexual orientation in proximity to the experiment involving sexual assault prevention approaches, a change in results may occur as compared to distal screening of these measures. Influence of these measurements ought to be controlled for. Importantly, the findings for the behavioral intent measures were not moderated by when MSE and sexual orientation were measured.

There were two interactions in which medium MSE men's responses were more similar to high MSE men in the in-session procedure. These findings suggest it may be worthwhile to research the effects of salience of MSE norms or of one's level of MSE. Future studies could also test whether questioning men's sexual orientation may be responsible for the observed effects. The mechanisms of these effects could be studied in the context of masculinity threat, contrast effects or priming effects.

### **Why no cover story?**

It is important to note that the way the participants were introduced to this study does not include a cover story designed to disguise the actual purpose of the experiment, which makes it different from many social psychology lab experiments. Having a cover story was considered as the study was being designed, but the idea was eventually discarded. The proposed study is intended to inform the design of sexual assault programs. Those programs, and the sexual assault

prevention research more generally, do not use deception in its studies. Rather, they are generally open about the nature of the programs in which participants engage. The proposed study follows this tradition, which I argue helps to maintain ecological validity by emulating the typical setting of campus-based sexual prevention programs, during which students are fully aware of its purpose. In addition, the main study hypothesis involves an interaction, with different effects across interventions for males high and low in MSE. It seems unlikely that participants' awareness of the general nature of the study would lead to findings that conform to this pattern.

### **Are the results practically significant?**

It is necessary to note that these results cannot be directly interpreted as practically significant. These measures have not been behaviorally evaluated. Future research should strive to develop fieldwork and behavioral research that will support the practical significance of the dependent variables that are measured in this and existing research. Similarly, the potential importance of moderating variables has to be studied.

### **Conclusions - Summary of Main Points and Strengths of Findings**

The most important implication of this study is that current prevention programs may be heavily misguided in their choice of prevention approaches and techniques. According to the observed results for the two behavioral intent measures, researchers and practitioners ought to consider exposing men to *negative consequences of rape for the perpetrator* as the prevention approach of choice, especially for high risk men. This method is currently underused, particularly in the context of what seems to be an overuse of attempts in inducing empathy for sexual assault victims among potential rapists. As evidenced in the current research, empathy-focused attempts may be futile in affecting either empathy or rape proclivity, or at the very least may be much harder to implement effectively.

While the study of the moderating effects of the individual differences in response to sexual assault prevention approaches should continue in order to maximize the effectiveness of materials, none of the studied groups of participants reacted adversely to any of the prevention approaches. In fact, the results suggest that addressing men of all *MSE levels* with just a single prevention approach – *perpetrator consequences* – produced only positive or neutral effects, with most benefit shown by high MSE men. It is possible, therefore, that it is not necessarily important to target different interventions at men high, medium and low on MSE.

Additionally, there is some evidence that screening on individual differences may not be desirable, at least for medium MSE men. These measurements, when performed right before the treatment condition is administered, may result in medium MSE men being more like high MSE men on some variables. Notably, however, this pattern was not observed on the behavioral intention measures.

Importantly, the Male Sexual Entitlement Scale proved to be a useful tool that has been largely validated by the results. As evidenced by this study, MSE matters as (i) a moderator of the effect of prevention approaches on behavior-related variables and (ii) an individual difference that consistently differs for high-risk men across measures and that highly correlates with scores on a large number of rape-related variables.

Future studies should follow the practice of formative studies and continue to build an evidence-based foundation of sexual assault prevention which inform program design. This foundation can be built on further practice- and theory-driven experimental inquiries, which need to keep a perspective of producing data interpretations that can be easily evaluated in the field. In turn, the primary challenges of such academic research and practical evaluation may be to produce focused prevention materials and meaningful outcome variables. There is a desperate

need for more dependent variables that are at least behavior-related or – ideally – direct measures of behavior.

Finally, it is imperative that there is a strong body of research that describes and targets the primary perpetrators and the central component of sexual violence – men and masculinity. Despite using dated prevention videos, this research proved that influencing high-risk men is possible even through simple messaging techniques which could potentially be immensely powerful if followed by adequate university policies that reinforce the negative consequences of rape for its perpetrators.

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## **Appendix A: Male Sexual Entitlement Scale (MSES)**

*Please read the following statements and indicate your agreement or disagreement on a scale from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree):*

1. In a close relationship, I would expect my partner to fulfill my sexual wishes.
2. A person should have sex whenever it is needed.
3. In a close relationship, you should expect to get sex.
4. Women sometimes don't realize they want to have sex with a man.
5. (R) It's easy for me to accept being refused sex.
6. Sex during a hookup is a given.
7. I believe it is appropriate to demand sex if two people have been dating long enough or if they are married.
8. Women should oblige men's sexual needs.
9. Sexual prowess is important to me.
10. In a relationship in which I commit myself, sex is a right.
11. Men need sex more than women do.
12. In a close relationship sex is an entitlement.
13. I have a higher sex drive than most people.
14. In a close relationship, if a sexual act feels good, it is right.
15. A man who is denied sex suffers more than a woman who has sex when she does not want it.
16. (R) I have no trouble going without sex if my partner is not interested.
17. I think people have the right to do anything they please sexually.
18. Women enjoy being submissive sexually.

19. In order to have a good sexual relationship, at least one partner needs to take charge.
20. I have a strong desire to be powerful during sex.
21. In a close relationship, not every sexual act has to feel good for both parties.
22. A woman should submit to her man's decisions.
23. I will never be satisfied until I get the sex that I deserve.
24. The more serious the relationship is, the more one should expect to get sex.
25. Women ought to be enjoyed by men.
26. In sex, I like to be the one in charge.
27. Everyone is entitled to sex.
28. Sometimes a woman needs to be convinced that she is willing to have sex.

## Appendix B: Sexual Orientation Questionnaire

*Please indicate the sexual orientation / group you would most likely currently identify with:*

0. **Exclusively heterosexual** – Individuals who make no physical contacts which result in sexual arousal or orgasm, and do not fantasize about individuals of their own gender.
1. **Predominantly heterosexual, only incidentally homosexual** – Individuals who have only incidental homosexual contacts or fantasies which have involved sexual arousal.
2. **Predominantly heterosexual, but more than incidentally homosexual** – Individuals who have more than incidental homosexual experience, and / or they respond often with sexual arousal to homosexual stimuli.
3. **Equally heterosexual and homosexual** – Individuals who are about equally homosexual and heterosexual in their overt experience and / or their sexual arousal responses.
4. **Predominantly homosexual, but more than incidentally heterosexual** – Individuals who have more than incidental heterosexual experience, and / or they respond often with sexual arousal to heterosexual stimuli.
5. **Predominantly homosexual, only incidentally heterosexual** - Individuals who have only incidental heterosexual contacts or fantasies which have involved sexual arousal.
6. **Exclusively homosexual** – Individuals who make no physical contacts which result in sexual arousal or orgasm, and do not fantasize about individuals of a gender different than their own.
7. **Asexual** – Individuals who do not engage in sexual contacts and / or do not experience sexual arousal.
8. **Other.**
9. **I prefer not to answer**

### **Appendix C: Likelihood of Sexually Assaulting**

*If you could be assured that no one would know, how likely would you be to engage in each of the following behaviors? Please answer on a scale from 1 (not at all likely) to 5 (very likely):*

- Group sex,
- Sex with someone else besides your steady boy/girlfriend
- Oral sex
- Talk a woman into doing something sexual she doesn't want to do
- Bondage
- Anal sex
- Make a woman do something sexual she doesn't want to do
- Same-sex sex
- Make a woman have sex when she doesn't want to
- Use alcohol in hopes of having a woman give in to something sexual she wouldn't give in to if not drinking

## **Appendix D: Date Rape Scenario**

*Below, you will read a scenario, followed by a short set of questions. Please read the description, imagining yourself in the presented situation, and respond to the questions asked about the scenario.*

At a party, you get acquainted with a good-looking, interesting woman. The two of you talk, dance and flirt with each other. Later, you take her home in your car, and she invites you into her apartment. You both sit down on the floor, and your new acquaintance starts kissing and caressing you. You willingly comply, and now you want more. When you start trying to take off her clothes in order to have sex with her, she suddenly pushes her hands against your chest and says that she's not sure if that's what she wants.

*On a scale from 1 to 5 (Not at all, Slightly, Moderately, Very much, Extremely), please indicate your responses to the following questions about this scenario.*

1. How aroused would you be in this situation?
2. How likely is that scenario to happen to you?
3. How likely is it that she just really doesn't know if she wants to have sex with you?
4. How likely would you be to stop trying to have sex with her?
5. How likely is it that she actually wants to have sex with you?
6. How likely would you be to try to convince her to have sex with you?
7. How sexually frustrated would you be in that situation?
8. To what degree did she express consent to having sex in this situation?
9. How likely is it she wants you to take initiative and make her have sex with you?
10. How likely would you be to use some degree of your physical strength (lying down on her, holding her down, etc.) to kiss her or make out with her?

11. How likely would you be to not want to have sex anymore because of the woman's resistance?
12. How likely would you be to use some degree of your physical strength (lying down on her, holding her, etc.) to try to engage in sexual intercourse?
13. How likely would you be to try to talk about consent in this situation?
14. If you could be assured that no one would know, how likely would you be to make her have sex with you even if she protested?
15. How likely is it that she doesn't want to be convinced to have sex with you?
16. How likely is it that she wants to talk about having sex with you?

## Appendix E: Rape Index Scenarios

*In this task, you will listen to an audio recording. Please listen carefully to the story and imagine yourself taking part in it.*

*After you listen to the story, please click NEXT.*

\* \* \*

*Please indicate your agreement to the statements below on a scale from 0% (completely disagree) to 100% (completely agree). You will find words describing reactions such as 'sexually aroused', or 'aroused'. With these words we mean to describe 'feelings of sexual excitement', feeling 'sexually stimulated', 'horny', 'hot', or 'turned on'. Don't think too long before answering, please give your first reaction. Be as honest as possible.*

- It was easy for me to get turned on listening to the story.
- I enjoy thinking that this would happen to me.
- I would never fantasize about this story.
- Listening to the story made me sexually aroused.
- The story was a turn off.
- Listening to the story made me want to have sex with someone.

## **Appendix F: Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale Short Form (IRMA-SF)**

### Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale Short Form (IRMA-SF)

*Please state your agreement with the following statements on a scale from 1 (not at all agree) to 7 (very much agree):*

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

16. A woman who “teases” men deserves anything that might happen.
17. When women are raped, it’s often because the way they said “no” was ambiguous.
18. Men don’t usually intend to force sex on a woman, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.
19. A woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex.
20. Rape happens when a man’s sex drive gets out of control.

## **Appendix G: Rape Empathy Scales**

*Please read the below statements and indicate your agreement on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree):*

### Rape-Victim Empathy Scale

1. I find it easy to take the perspective of a rape victim.
2. I can imagine how a victim feels during an actual rape.
3. I get really involved with the feelings of a rape victim in a movie.
4. I can understand how helpless a rape victim might feel.
5. I can feel a person's humiliation at being forced to have sex against their will.
6. Hearing about someone who has been raped makes me feel that person's upset.
7. It's not hard to understand the feelings of someone who is forced to have sex.
8. I can empathize with the shame and humiliation a rape victim feels during a trial to prove rape.
9. I know if I talked to someone who was raped I'd become upset.
10. I imagine the emotional trauma a rape victim might feel if the rape trial were publicized in the press.
11. I imagine the courage it takes to accuse a person in a court of rape.
12. I can understand why a rape victim feels bad for a long time.
13. I imagine the anger a person would feel after being raped.

14. I find it difficult to know what goes on in the mind of a rape victim.
15. I don't understand how a person who is raped would be upset.
16. I can't understand how someone who has been raped can blame their partner and not take some of the responsibility.
17. I can see how someone who had been raped would get upset at their rape trial.
18. I can feel the emotional torment a rape victim suffers when dealing with the police.

#### Rape-Perpetrator Empathy Scale

1. I find it easy to take the perspective of a person who rapes.
2. I can imagine how a person who rapes might feel during an actual rape.
3. I get really involved with the feelings of a rapist in a movie.
4. I can understand how powerful a rapist might feel.
5. Hearing about a rape, I can imagine the feelings the rapist felt.
6. It's not hard to understand the feelings that would drive someone to force sex on another person.
7. I know if I talked to someone accused of rape I'd become upset at their upset.
8. I can feel a person's humiliation at being accused of forcing someone to have sex.
9. I can empathize with the shame and humiliation an accused rapist feels during a trial to prove rape.

10. I imagine the anger a person would feel at being accused of rape.
11. I can feel the emotional trauma that a person accused of rape might feel if the rape trial were publicized in the press.
12. I imagine the courage it takes to defend oneself in a court against the charge of rape.
13. I can understand a rapist's feelings after a rape.
14. I find it difficult to know what goes on in the mind of a rapist.
15. I don't see how a person accused of rape could be upset.
16. I can't understand how someone accused of rape can blame their victim.
17. I can see how someone accused of rape would become upset at their rape trial.
18. I can feel the emotional torment a person accused of rape suffers in dealing with the police.

### Appendix H: Figure 5

**Figure 7.** A significant interaction between prevention approach and procedure type on Date Rape Scenario (DRS), with a possible range from 1 (“Not at all”) to 5 (“Extremely”).

