PERPETRATING SEXUAL ASSAULT: ASSESSING PREVALENCE, ATTITUDES, AND BEHAVIORS AMONG MALE MILITARY PERSONNEL

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A Thesis Submitted to the
University of North Carolina Wilmington in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Arts

Department of Sociology and Criminology

University of North Carolina Wilmington

2010

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ABSTRACT

This research reports on factors linked to sexual assault perpetration. Past research primarily studied male college students as a whole. Few studies have examined the impact of group participation on sexual assault perpetration outside of the athletic and fraternity membership. In an effort to expand the information available of the effect of group membership on sexual assault perpetration this study examines sexual assault perpetration in active duty and veteran military college students. Using a feminist perspective military culture is examined as reinforcing hegemonic masculinity and sexual deviance among its members. Past research has indicated that pornography consumption, peer approval for forced sex, alcohol consumption, rape myth acceptance, support for adversarial sexual beliefs and acceptance of interpersonal violence are linked to individuals that perpetrate sexual assault. Additionally, research on childhood sexual victimization has indicated an increased likelihood to perpetrate sexual assault. The aforementioned variables were examined for military respondents and non military respondents. While the results did not support the theoretical claims made in this thesis additional support was found for attitudinal and behavioral variables linked to sexual assault perpetration.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am forever indebted to my mentor and committee chair, Dr. Christina Lanier. Thank you for your encouragement, guidance, and friendship throughout my graduate education. You have aided in my professional and personal development in so many ways. I would also like to thank my committee members, Dr. Kimberly Cook and Dr. Shannon Santana. The support and feedback you have provided proved invaluable. I am extremely appreciative of Dr. Mike Maume for endless statistical help throughout the final stages of my thesis.

Additionally, I am grateful to the faculty and staff of the Sociology and Criminology department. This department has provided me with the opportunity of a lifetime; to learn from truly passionate and caring individuals. I hope that one day I may make the same impact that each of you has made on my life.

Alicia, Jess, and Nick, a simple thank you will never suffice after all we have been through. I am lucky to call such talented individuals my friends and colleagues.

To my family, Claire, Diane and Ryan, thank you for your endless support and encouragement. The three of you are my foundation and without you I would not be where I am today. I love you.
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INTRODUCTION

In the United States violence against women is often viewed with little or no importance despite the fact that every eight minutes an individual in the United States is raped (Rape, Abuse and Incest National Network, 2008) and most of these brutal attacks are against women. In 2003 it was estimated that nine out of ten rape victims were women (RAINN, 2008). For decades the responsibility of preventing sexual assaults and rapes from occurring has been placed on women. However, in recent years, researchers have begun to examine the role that men play in committing sexual assaults and rapes (e.g., Koss & Oros, 1982; Malamuth, Sockloskie, Koss, & Tanaka, 1991; Lisak & Miller, 2002; Abbey, Parkhill, Clinton-Sherrod, & Zawacki, 2007; Burgess, 2007). Research has specifically focused on factors that predict sexual assault perpetration. Abbey (2005, p. 40) contends, “in contrast to early research, little evidence has been found that links specific victim characteristics to the likelihood of being sexually assaulted, supporting the feminist perspective that sexual assault is not caused by its victims.” While these studies have thoroughly evaluated college populations (e.g., Spencer & Helmreich, 1972; Koss & Oros, 1982; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987; Malamuth, Sockloskie, Koss, & Tanaka, 1991; Spence & Hahn, 1997; Lisak & Miller, 2002) researchers have yet to clearly evaluate the predictors of sexual assault perpetration in special populations, such as active-duty military and veterans.

Since December 2007, men in the military have murdered four women. All four of these horrific murders took place near two of the largest bases on the east coast in North Carolina (Wright, 2008). Additionally, in 2002 four military spouses were murdered by their husbands after the husbands returned home from deployments (Wright, 2008). These violent murders substantiate the theoretical claims addressed later in this research; specifically that military
culture accepts and largely ignores violence against women. In order to determine whether this is true, large-scale evaluations of military culture and violence against women need to be empirically conducted. However, it is beyond the scope of this paper to conduct a large-scale study of active-duty military personnel. Therefore, it is the goal of this research to use a multi-factor approach to evaluate predictors of sexual assault perpetration comparing traditional college students to active-duty military and veteran college students.

Using a feminist perspective, the current study will examine how military culture reinforces hegemonic masculinity. Specifically, West and Zimmerman’s (1987) concept of doing gender will be used to argue that hegemonic masculinity is accomplished, as an individual and as an institution, through physical domination, aggressive behavior, and the degradation of women. The collective norms and values of military culture lead to an atmosphere in which sexual and physical violence towards women is accepted. While decades of research have examined sexual assault and its perpetrators, the research presented in this paper uniquely examines the impact military culture has on veteran and active duty personnel’s likelihood to perpetrate sexual assault.

Following this introduction is a review of sexual assault as a national problem and risk factors associated with the perpetration of sexual assault. An examination of sexual assault in the military will be presented following the aforementioned section. The data and methods section will discuss a quantitative mixed-mode approach using previously established scales to measure sexual assault perpetration, alcohol use during sexual situations, pornography consumption, peer approval for obtaining unwanted sex, and attitudes supporting violence against women. Finally, future implications for the importance of studying perpetration rates and sexual aggression predictors in a large military population will be discussed.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Sexual Assault: Scope of the Problem

Despite increased national awareness of issues surrounding violence against women, sexual assault remains one of the most underreported crimes according to the Department of Justice 2005 National Crime Victimization Survey. It is estimated that 60 percent of sexual assault and rapes are never reported to the police (DOJ, 2005; RAINN, 2008). Additionally, in the 1998 National Violence against Women Survey it was found that approximately 18% of all women in the United States are raped in their lifetime (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). Rape victims suffer from a plethora of mental and physical health consequences, including, but not limited to, an increased likelihood of alcohol and drug abuse and higher contemplations of suicide. In addition, they are more likely to suffer from Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) and depression (Skinner, Kressin, Frayne, Tripp, Hankin, Miller et al., 2000; Testa, VanZile-Tamsen, Livingston, & Koss, 2004; RAINN, 2008).

While women are more likely to become victims of sexual assault (RAINN, 2008; Katz, 2006), men are overwhelmingly the primary perpetrators of sexual assault (Katz, 2006). Moreover, due to the widespread underreporting of sexual assault, incarceration rates of sexual offenders are extremely low (DOJ, 2005; RAINN, 2008) and many rapists go “undetected” (Lisak & Miller, 2002). To successfully study these undetected rapists, Koss and Oros (1982) developed the Sexual Experiences Survey (SES), consisting of twelve self-report questions that measure sexual aggression and coercion in males. The SES is one of the most widely used and validated instruments in measuring sexual aggression (Koss & Oros, 1982; Koss & Gidycz, 1985; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987; Lisak, Hopper, & Song, 1996; Abbey, McAuslan, Zawacki, Clinton, & Buck, 2001; Vega & Malamuth, 2007; Koss et al. 2006; Koss et al., 2007).
In order to effectively measure sexual aggression, Koss and Oros (1982) did not include any legal terminology in the survey. “The SES was originally conceived to operationalize a continuum of unwanted sexual experiences that at the extreme reflected legal definitions of attempted rape and rape” (Koss et al., 2007, p.359). Instead, behavior specific questions were developed in an effort to evoke honest responses from participants (Koss & Oros, 1982). Koss et al. (2006) updated the original SES to include more behaviorally specific descriptions of experiences, the role of alcohol and drug use in unwanted sexual acts and gender-neutral language. Researchers using the original SES in college men have found that 5% to 25% have perpetrated acts that met the standard legal definition of rape or attempted rape (Koss & Oros, 1982; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987; Lisak, Hopper, & Song, 1996; Abbey et al., 2001). Using a modified version of the SES in a community population, Abbey et al. (2007) found that 24.5% of participants committed an attempted or completed rape, with 60% of those who committed at least one sexual assault indicating that they had committed multiple offenses (Abbey et al., 2007). In a longitudinal study of male college students, 14% reported committing sexual assault within a one-year period (Abbey & McAuslan, 2004). It is important to note that the rates of perpetration have fluctuated drastically due to differences in terminology used, number of questions asked, and the combination or modification of the SES to fit the specific context of the study (Koss & Oros, 1982; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987; Lisak, Hopper, & Song, 1996; Abbey et al., 2001; Vega & Malamuth, 2007; Abbey, Parkhill, Clinton-Sherrod, & Zawacki, 2007). For the purposes of this study, a modified version of the most recent SES-Long Form Perpetration will be used (Koss et al., 2006). Although the SES is able to measure sexual assault perpetration in various samples it does not provide insight into the predictors of sexual aggression. While rates of sexual assault perpetration may vary, the relevant factors predictive
of sexual aggression are often similar (Koss & Oros, 1982; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987; Lisak, Hopper, & Song, 1996; Abbey et al., 2001; Vega & Malamuth, 2007; Abbey, Parkhill, Clinton-Sherrod, & Zawacki, 2007).

Predictors of Sexual Assault Perpetration

Since the creation of the SES by Koss and Oros (1982), researchers have found using a multi-factor approach to the analysis of situations, behaviors, attitudes and beliefs provides the best insight into non-incarcerated sexual offenders. Studies have found that men who perpetrate sexual assault are more likely to endorse rape myths, have peers that are accepting of violence against women, drink more frequently, and have been victims of childhood sexual abuse (Burt, 1980; Ouimette, Shaw, Drozd, & Leader, 2000; Lisak & Miller, 2002; Vega & Malamuth, 2007; Abbey et al., 2007; Burgess, 2007; Parkhill & Abbey, 2008). While these studies have identified and validated the aforementioned risk factors as predictors of sexual assault perpetration, “none of these factors necessarily identify someone as a perpetrator, and they tend to work in combination, so that men who have many of these characteristics are more likely to commit sexual assault than are men who have just a few” (Abbey, 2005, p. 41).

Alcohol

Alcohol use among offenders has been measured in two contexts. First, Parkhill and Abbey (2008) assessed general alcohol behaviors by asking participants to report monthly alcohol consumption rate and the number of drinks consumed (Parkhill & Abbey, 2008). The second context measured by Parkhill and Abbey (2008) evaluated how frequently participants drank alcohol during sexual situations and how much alcohol was consumed. Fifty-eight percent of the participants in this study acknowledged forcing a woman to have sex when she was either unable to give consent or made clear her lack of consent (Parkhill & Abbey, 2008). In contrast
to Abbey et al. (2007), Parkhill and Abbey (2008) found that 25% of participants had committed sexual assault both when intoxicated and sober. This result implies that alcohol consumption may not be a significant predictor of an individual’s propensity to perpetrate sexual assault. However, Abbey et al. (2001) found that 35% of sexual assaults involved alcohol consumption. Additionally, alcohol consumption was most likely during perpetrations of rape, by both men and the women, as compared to other sexual assaults (Abbey et al., 2001). Confirming this finding, Abbey et al. (2007) found that perpetrators more frequently consumed alcohol when in sexual situations. Generally, the National Survey on Drug Use and Health (NSDUH) (DHHS, 2006) found that the rate of current alcohol use for 18-20 years old is 51.6% and 68.6% for 21 to 25 year olds. Additionally NSDUH (DHHS, 2006) found “young adult’s ages 18 to 22 enrolled full time in college were more likely than their peers not enrolled full time to use alcohol in the past month, binge drink, and drink heavily.” These findings signify the importance of assessing alcohol consumption because of the high rates of alcohol use among college students and the increased association with perpetrating sexual assault (Abbey et al., 2001; DHHS, 2006; Abbey et al., 2007; Parkhill & Abbey, 2008).

Childhood Sexual Abuse

Childhood sexual abuse has been linked to perpetration of sexual assault later in life (Finkelhor, 1981; Lisak et al., 1996; Carr & VanDeusen, 2004; Parkhill & Abbey, 2008). Parkhill and Abbey (2008, p.531) assert, “witnessing or experiencing abuse as a child…create a social environment which teaches men to treat women as objects rather than equals.” The effect of childhood sexual abuse is often examined under the “‘cycle of abuse’ theory---the notion that victims of childhood abuse may be more likely than non-victims to perpetrate various forms of abuse as adults” (DeGue & DiLillo, 2004, p.676). DeGue and DiLillo’s (2004) study on
nonphysical sexual coercion found partial support for childhood abuse as a predictor of sexual coercion. In a sample of college men, the authors found that 74.1% of men that used sexually coercive tactics to obtain sex also self-reported childhood physical abuse. However, no significant difference was found between non-offenders and offenders for childhood sexual abuse (DeGue & DiLillo, 2004). Conversely, Lisak et al. (1996) found overwhelming evidence supporting the link between childhood sexual and physical victimization and perpetration of sexual assault as adults. In their study of male university students, nearly half of all participants surveyed on the cycle of violence had been sexually or physically abused as children (Lisak et al., 1996). Of those men that perpetrated either sexual or physical abuse, 70% indicated being sexually or physically abused themselves (Lisak et al., 1996). Carr and VanDeusen (2004, p.285) found significant associations of child sexual victimization and “being sexually or physically abusive to their dates.” In a meta-analysis of sexual abuse history among adult sex offenders and non-sex offenders, Jespersen, Lalumiere, and Seto (2009, p.183) found that out of 17 studies all but one “reported greater odds of having experienced sexual abuse among sex offenders relative to non-sex offenders.” Childhood sexual abuse may work in combination with other predictive factors and influences from military culture to create an atmosphere where sexual aggression is accepted.

Pornography

study the long-term effects of repeated violent pornography consumption had no significant impact on sexual aggression. More generally, using a state-level analysis Pazzani (2007, p.737) found that the subscription rate for *Playboy* was “positively associated with stranger rape at the state level.” In Carr and VanDeusen’s (2004) study of male college students, pornography consumption contributed to the prediction of sexual violence against women. While Carr and VanDeusen (2004) did not measure the violence content, they did assess various forms of pornography including videos, magazines, Internet use, phone sex, and attending strip clubs. In contrast, some researchers have found little support for the claim that use of pornography increases an individual’s likelihood to perpetrate sexual assault (Taylor, 2006). For example, Taylor (2006) found that in a sample of college undergraduate men reading pornography was not related to self-reported aggressive behavior. These studies illuminate the debate of linking pornography use to sexual assault perpetration. Given the equivocal nature of this relationship, it is important to include measures of pornography consumption in the current study.

### Hostile Masculinity

The concept of hostile masculinity or hostile gender-role beliefs has been used in several studies of sexual assault (e.g., Burt, 1980; Malamuth et al., 1991; Wheeler, George, & Dahl, 2002; Abbey & McAuslan, 2004; Carr & VanDeusen, 2004). According to Wheeler, George, and Dahl (2002, p.760) “the domineering and hostile orientation characterized by the Hostile Masculinity construct is associated with sexually aggressive attitudes, beliefs, and behavior.” Most important to the examination of hostile masculinity is Burt’s (1980) study of cultural myths and support for rape. Despite not using the label of hostile masculinity, Burt (1980) developed the scales often used for assessing this concept. In a sample of randomly selected adults, Burt (1980, p.229) reported two major findings: “[f]irst, many Americans do indeed believe many
rape myths. Second, their rape attitudes are strongly connected to other deeply held and pervasive attitudes such as sex role stereotyping, distrust of the opposite sex (adversarial sexual beliefs), and acceptance of interpersonal violence.” More recently, using a large sample of college men, Malamuth et al. (1991) found evidence to support that sexual aggression is significantly influenced by hostile masculinity. Additionally, the “Confluence Model” originally used by Malamuth et al. (1991) was replicated by Wheeler, George, and Dahl (2002). In a sample of college undergraduates, Wheeler, George and Dahl (2002, p.769) showed “the interaction—or confluence—between Hostile Masculinity and Impersonal Sex was an important predictor of participants’ self-reported history of committing sexual coercion and/or assault.” Using similar scales for hostile gender-role beliefs (hostile masculinity), Abbey and McAuslan (2004) found that hostile attitudes towards women were a significant predictor of sexual assault perpetration in their sample of male college students. Even more support was found in Carr and VanDeusen’s (2004) study of male undergraduate students in which Burt’s (1980) scales were used to assess hostile masculinity.

In summary, the role of attitudes such as hostile masculinity cannot be understated. As demonstrated above, researchers have consistently identified a positive and significant relationship between hostile/negative feelings towards women and the perpetuation of sexual assault. Thus, it is important to include this predictor when examining sexual assault/rape perpetration among men.

Peer Approval

Abbey et al. (2001) assessed peer support for forced sex in a sample of college men. Participants that perpetrated sexual assault, which represented 33% of the sample, were significantly more likely to have peer support for obtaining forced sex (Abbey et al., 2001).
Abbey et al. (2007) also assessed peer approval for obtaining unwanted sex in a community sample of men by asking if male friends would approve of obtaining sex through lies, guilt, or force (p.1572). Twenty-five percent of the community sample reported committing an attempted or completed rape. Importantly, Abbey et al. (2007, p.1575) found that those admitting perpetration “reported greater peer approval of forcing sex on women” than non-assaulters.

Brown and Messman-Moore (2010) found supportive peer attitudes towards sexual aggression in a sample of male college students. As indicated in the studies presented research suggests that peer approval plays a significant role in an individual’s likelihood to perpetrate sexual assault. The importance of assessing peer approval is evident from the reliance military personnel place on one another.

Sexual Assault and the Military

The recognition of sexual assault as a problem in the United States military has a short history. Much of the history of sexual assault in the military is centered on wartime crimes of foreign soldiers using rape to ignite fear in their enemies. However, “there has been a tendency…to ignore or downplay the fact that British, American, and Australian troops have also periodically engaged in orgies of sexual violence” (Bourke, 2007, p.360). As Bourke (2007) points out, this issue was brought to light when the sexual victimization by U.S. military personnel of both female and male prisoners in Abu Ghraib was exposed. On the home front, a few positive steps have been taken to address the issue of sexual assault in the military. In 2004, under the direction of Secretary of Defense Donald Rumsfeld, a review of the treatment of sexual assault victims in the military was ordered (DOD, 2005). From this, the Care for Victims of Sexual Assault Task Force was assembled, which quickly led the way in presenting and effectively changing military policy on sexual assault prevention and response. The task force
successfully implemented prevention programs, trained military service members and sexual
assault first responders and established sexual assault program offices on all major military
installations (DOD, 2005). Additionally, with the creation of the task force a new sexual assault
reporting policy was implemented. Military personnel in the Armed Forces and the Coast Guard
have two options for reporting sexual assault: restricted or unrestricted reporting. Restricted
reporting “allows a sexual assault victim to confidentially disclose the details of his or her assault
to specified individuals and receive medical treatment and counseling, without triggering the
official investigative process” while unrestricted reporting allows for a formal investigation to be
conducted (DOD, 2005). In 2005, the Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Policy was made
a permanent policy, establishing the existence of the Sexual Assault Prevention and Response
Office (SAPRO), which now monitors that all military branches are complying with sexual
assault prevention and response policy (DOD, 2005).

The definitions of sexual assault and rape according to the Uniform Code of Military
Justice (UCMJ) as defined by the Department of Defense (DOD) are included to inform the
present study about sexual assault in the military. The definition is as follows:

Sexual assault is a crime. Sexual assault is defined as intentional sexual contact, characterized by
use of force, physical threat or abuse of authority or when the victim does not or cannot consent. Sexual assault includes: rape, nonconsensual sodomy (oral or anal sex), indecent assault
(unwanted, inappropriate sexual contact or fondling), or attempts to commit these acts. Sexual
assault can occur without regard to gender or spousal relationship or age of victim.

“Consent” shall not be deemed or constructed to mean the failure by the victim to offer physical
resistance. Consent is not given when a person uses force, threat of force, coercion or when the
victim is asleep, incapacitated, or unconscious. (US Congress, 1950).

According to the DOD, sexual assault is seen as an umbrella term for rape, and unwanted oral or
anal sex.

Despite the recent allotment of resources and attention, research indicates that sexual
harassment and sexual assault, as well as perceptions of it, are prevalent issues for military institutions (DMDC, 2007). In 2006, the Defense Manpower Data Center (DMDC) (2007) found that 5.1% of active-duty women experienced unwanted sexual contact. This is an increase from 2002 when it was found that 2.7% of active duty women experienced unwanted sexual contact (DMDC, 2007). In a sample of female veterans who reported sexual harassment or assault while in the military, it was found that they were more likely to have health problems, experience anxiety, and have alcohol and substance abuse problems (Skinner et al., 2000). Additionally, the study found more than half (55%) of participants had been sexually harassed and almost 25% of female veterans surveyed had been sexually assaulted while in the military (Skinner et al., 2000). Both men and women surveyed by the DMDC (2007) found that perceptions of sexual harassment as a problem in the military has increased since 2002. Specifically, only 14% of women in 2002 felt that sexual harassment was a problem compared to 23% in 2006 (DMDC, 2007). Men experienced a smaller increase from 11% to 15% in 2006 (DMDC, 2007). The DOD 2007 Report on Sexual Assault in the Military showed that in 2007, the military reported 2,688 sexual assaults. Of those assaults, 1,758 (68%) were perpetrated by military service members (DOD, 2008a). Similar results were found in the DOD 2008 report, with over half of all sexual assaults on military service members being perpetrated by other members of the Armed Forces. The Department of Defense also stated that sexual assault reports in combat zones have increased approximately 26% in the past year (DOD, 2009). More importantly for 2008, the DOD reported an 18% increase from 2007 in sexual assault reports involving service members (DOD, 2009). Specifically, there was a 9% increase for unrestricted reporting and 7% increase for restricted reporting, for a total of 2,908 sexual assaults (DOD, 2009).

Despite the obvious increase in reports of sexual assault, the DOD has indicated that less
than 10% of all sexual assaults that occur in the Armed Forces are reported (DOD, 2009). This is substantially lower than the civilian statistic stated earlier, that 60% of victims of sexual assault do not report to the police (RAINN, 2008). Interestingly, the Report on Sexual Assault in the Military (DOD, 2009) indicates an overwhelming 49.4% of prosecutions in 2008 were thrown out for “cases that were unsubstantiated or unfounded, lacked sufficient evidence, [or] involved a victim that recanted” (DOD, 2009, p.36). Despite of all the demographic and offense information collected for the DOD’s sexual assault report, a conviction rate for military sexual offenders is not collected. Important to consider is that the overall number of individuals convicted is probably very low considering that almost half of the cases were not prosecuted. These findings set the foundation for the arguments made in the following section that the dominant norms and values affect the individual and institutional levels of the military.

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

According to Messerschmidt (1997, p.3), “[h]istorical and social conditions shape the character and definition of sex, race, and class categories.” Men and women are influenced socially and culturally from a young age to perform certain roles according to their gender. Central to this argument is the work of West and Zimmerman (1987) on “doing gender”. For West and Zimmerman (1987, p.126) we must understand gender “as a routine, methodical, and recurring accomplishment.” Additionally, Judith Butler, a postmodern theorist, explains that “people do not begin life with an internal identity as man or woman: rather they get hold of certain understandings of man and woman depending on their personal biographies and their location in history” (as cited in Ritzer, 2008, p.462). West and Zimmerman (1987) contend the concept of “doing gender” is not static. Individuals perform gender differently “depending on the social situation and the social circumstances we encounter” (Messerschmidt, 1997, p.4).
By taking this feminist perspective and applying it to military culture, the behaviors, attitudes, and beliefs of individual military members is seen as a reinforcement and accomplishment of gendered acts. West and Zimmerman (1987, p.126) explain this further: “[w]hen we view gender as an accomplishment, an achieved property of situated conduct, our attention shifts from matters internal to the individual and focuses on interactional and, ultimately, institutional arenas.” In this context these behaviors, attitudes, and beliefs are created and reinforced by the military because it functions as a total institution.

Erving Goffman, as cited in Davies (1989, p.11), defines a total institution as “a place of residence and work where a large number of like-situated individuals cut off from the wider society for an appreciable period of time together lead an enclosed formally administered round of life” (p.11). As a total institution, Goffman (p.15) stipulates that daily “enforced activities are brought together into a single rational plan purportedly designed to fulfill the official aims of the institution.” Due to the fact that the military functions as a total institution, it creates what Emile Durkheim referred to as social facts. These social facts operate as the militaries cultural norms and expectations. As O’Toole and Schiffman (1997) assert, these norms and expectations include individual behaviors focused on “doing gender” or being aggressive, invulnerable, powerful, physically strong, and not feminine. Researchers refer to this form of masculinity as hegemonic masculinity (Malamuth, Sockloskie, Koss, & Tanaka, 1991; O’Toole & Schiffman, 1997; Sinclair, 1999).

An examination of the theoretical work of Durkheim on social facts provides a foundation for how “doing gender” reinforces the collective conscience that is coercive over members of the military. Durkheim viewed the collective conscience as “the totality of beliefs and sentiments common to average citizens of the same society [that] forms a determinate system which has its
own life” (Ritzer, 2008, p.79). The military is able to socialize members by creating a collective conscience or an “external constraint rather than an internal drive” (Ritzer, 2008, p.76) over all members. O’Toole and Schiffman (1997, p. 69) assert that institutions, for example the military, “play a substantial role in both shaping violent masculinity and socializing male members to distance themselves from femininity.” Additionally, Connell (1987, p.185) asserts, “the public face of hegemonic masculinity is not necessarily what powerful men are, but what sustains their power and what large numbers of men are motivated to support.” From this perspective the military acts as a structure providing norms and values coercive over its members (Ritzer, 2008). O’Toole and Schiffman (1997, p.69) go on to argue that “attempts by organizations to maintain internal continuity, as well as to justify socialization rituals, often result in institutional tolerance for the violent behavior of members.”

Evidence for O’Toole and Schiffman’s (1997) assertions is found in the 2006 Gender Relations Survey of Active Duty Members (DMDC, 2007), which found that 6.8% of women surveyed experienced unwanted sexual contact. Sexual contact in this survey meets the definition of sexual assault according to the Uniform Code of Military Justice, discussed in the following section. Further analysis of the unwanted sexual contact showed that 84% of the women who experienced unwanted sexual contact identified their offender as military personnel. Of the unwanted sexual contact reported, 40% of victims indicated that the incident occurred at work, on a military installation. This finding is expected since female junior enlisted members were more likely than all other ranks to indicate experiencing unwanted sexual contact, according to the DMDC 2006 Gender Relations Survey of Active Duty Members. Junior enlisted military personnel have the least power in the hierarchy of military institutions and therefore other military personnel may exert their masculinity by victimizing those with less
power. In order for this argument to properly explain masculinity in the military as external to, and coercive of, the members involved, the members themselves must reinforce and produce these beliefs and norms. In order to maintain privilege and power, men in the military must perform an idealized hegemonic masculinity through aggression, hostility towards women, and most importantly, sexual dominance. Sinclair (1999, p.64-65) furthers this assertion by stating that males that do not have resources or power available to them “prove their manhood through heterosexuality and the subordination of women.”

Feminist perspective on doing gender illuminates how sexual assault and the factors linked to perpetrating sexual assault relate to masculinity in the military. In order to remain a part of the institution individuals must adhere to the collective conscience and remain within the constraints of masculinity and military culture. These constraints drive men to perform gender, specifically hegemonic masculinity, by portraying aggressive behavior, being physically strong, and accepting an environment that degrades and violates women. The culture of masculinity in the military leads to the acceptance and perpetration of such violent crimes as sexual assault. Individuals committing these heinous crimes perform more stereotypical acts related to the ideal type of masculinity and place greater value on doing gender. Durkheim (1984, p.329) asserts that in “human consciousness…we must realize within ourselves in its entirety is nothing other than the collective consciousness of the group of which we form part.” For members of the military the collective conscience permeates their lives creating a dangerous environment in which violence, aggression and violence against women is the norm.

**METHODOLOGY**

It is the objective of this research to provide general knowledge on the state of sexual assault perpetration rates in a sample of male active-duty and veteran military students as
compared to traditional college students. Moreover, it is the general hypothesis of this study that active-duty and veteran military personnel will have higher rates of sexual assault perpetration and coercion and stronger associations with the risk factors linked to sexual assault perpetration compared to traditional students. More specifically, it is hypothesized that eligible participants with increased pornography consumption, peer approval for obtaining unwanted sex, higher levels of hostile masculinity, increased use of alcohol, and childhood sexual abuse, will display an increased likelihood of perpetrating sexual assault. Individuals who have perpetrated sexual assault were also examined based on the demographic information collected including current age and race. If the hypothesis stated above is supported, the result will provide evidence for the theoretical orientation that military institutions provide norms and values that are coercive over its members. Additionally, a supported hypothesis will support the argument that idealized hegemonic masculinity is structured action reinforced by all members of the military.

Administration of Survey

Mixed mode surveys were distributed to all potential participants. The advantage of using a mixed-mode survey is that “the time when population access and response could usually be achieved by one mode is past. For increasing numbers of surveys, reliance on only one mode does not provide assurance of reaching or eliciting responses from most of the sampled individuals” (Dillman, 2007, p.223). At UNCW, a random sample of classes was selected, using SPSS, to receive a paper version of the survey tool. To gain access to UNCW’s military population, members of the UNCW Student Veterans Organization were sent, via email, a link to the online version and were also provided the paper version at an organizational meeting. Furthermore to increase the response rate from UNCW’s military population, all male students from the UNCW fall 2009 enrollment list were sent, via email, a link to the online version of the
survey. The subject line read “Attention active duty and veteran military students” and advised students to not retake the survey if they had received a paper version in class. The online version allowed individuals to anonymously take the survey one time. Finally, the online version of the survey tool was distributed to students enrolled in UNCW’s Onslow Extension Program. Students involved in this program attend classes at Coastal Carolina Community College’s facility in Jacksonville, NC and on the Marine Corps Base in Camp Lejeune, NC.

Sampling Procedure

The sample population includes traditional college students, veteran military college students, and active-duty military college students. This is considered a non-probability convenience sample. The sample is non-probability convenience because “people have an unknown, or no chance of being selected” (Bloch, 2004, p.173). Due to the restricted nature of the population, it was not possible to survey a representative sample of military personnel. The survey conducted was anonymous and voluntary for all participants. In accordance with the Institutional Review Board (IRB), participants were informed that by taking the survey they consented to participate.

Missing Data

The original sample consisted of 259 participants; however, the final sample had to be modified due to the large number of participants that did not complete the survey in its entirety. Participants that did not complete the last section assessing sexual assault perpetration were excluded from the final analysis. In total 46 individuals were disqualified, dropping the sample size to 213 participants. To determine if there were any trend differences between individuals who completed the survey and those that did not complete the survey, comparisons were made based on a number of demographic variables. The two groups did not differ significantly with
regard to age or race. However, the groups did differ on the variable year in college. Specifically, the final sample contained less juniors and graduate students than the original sample. An association was found in participants excluded from the final sample that participated online versus those participants that were administered the survey on paper. In other words, individuals that participated online were significantly less likely to complete the survey in its entirety as compared to those individuals that were administered the survey on paper.

One factor that may have led to incomplete online surveys is the amount of time it took individuals to complete the survey. At 50 questions respondents may also have become disengaged from the length of the survey instrument. Additionally, due to the sensitive nature of the instrument the participants may have abstained from completing the more serious behavioral questions. Finally, as a result of the anonymity of the online version, respondents may not have felt a need to complete the survey in its entirety.

Lack of privacy may have contributed to the incomplete paper versions of the survey. Compounding the lack of privacy, professors were often pressed for time, despite being gracious enough to allow for administration during class time, they would encourage students to complete the survey quickly so they may resume teaching. The aforementioned situations may have had impacted the number of incomplete questionnaires.

Participants

Since data indicate that in the general population men perpetrate the majority of sexual assaults against women, eligible participants were limited to men. This study utilized a sample of 213 male college students currently enrolled in higher education at the University of North Carolina Wilmington (UNCW) or the Onslow Extension Program run by UNCW. Respondents specifically included active-duty military and veteran personnel in any branch of the armed
forces. Additionally traditional college students, defined as non-military, attending UNCW or the Onslow Extension Program were included in the sample for comparison. The current study only included males 18 years of age and older to eliminate minor consent issues, therefore, participants ranged in age groups from 18 to 50 or older. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of the respondents in the analyses, the majority identified as 18 to 22 years of age (71.4%), with 16.0% being age 23 to 29 years, and 6.1% being age 30 to 39 years old. The remaining 6.6% of respondents identified as age 40 to 49 or 50 and older. Information collected on the participant’s grade in college showed 40.4% of respondents were freshman in college. Sophomores, juniors, and seniors were almost equally represented at approximately 17% of the sample. With regard to race, White respondents made up 90.5% of the sample, which is an overrepresentation compared to the UNCW undergraduate campus composition of 83.1% of students identifying as White (Office of Institutional Research, 2010). Black or African American participants represented 3.8% of respondents, while the remaining 5.7% consisted of other ethnicities including (Asian American, 0.5%; American Indian/Alaskan Native, 0.9%; Multiracial, 2.8%; and Other, 1.4%).

Military Sample

Military participants comprised of 24.8% of the sample included in the final analyses. Participants were not asked to identify the branch of the military they served in; however, rank/pay grade was assessed for military service. Rank/pay grade is defined as the position held by active-duty military personnel and often denotes the amount of time an individual has been in the service. Rank/pay grade was measured using the DOD classifications utilized in the fiscal year 2007 Report on Sexual Assault in the Military including both enlisted (e.g., E1-E4) and the officer ranks (e.g., O1-O3) (Appendix A). Rank and age, according to the DOD 2008 sexual
assault report, provided important information on typical sexual offenders. The lowest level, enlisted personnel, ranks E1-E4, represented 46.4% of all sexual offenders (DOD, 2009). In this sample, E5 to E9 represented the majority of respondents at 54.7% of the military sample. Ranks E1 to E4 made up 37.7% of the military sample, with the remaining 7.6% identifying WO1 to O10 as their rank/pay grade. In terms of years spent in the military, 43.4% of respondents had been or were in for 1 to 4 years. Military respondents with 4 to 8 years made up 28.3% of participants, while 3.8% served 8 to 12 years, and the final 24.5% identified 12 or more years of military service. Military respondents were significantly older than the traditional college students, with 45.3% of military respondents being 23 to 29 years old. Only 6.2% of traditional college students identified being between in the aforementioned age group. Service members exclusively made up the 40 to 49 age group (15.1%) and the 50 or older age group (11.3%). As with traditional college students, the majority, 84.9%, of military respondents identified their race as White. Military respondents identified as upperclassmen more often than their non-military counterparts. Juniors and seniors made up 60.4% of military participants, while graduate students and other students made up 22.6% of military participants. Only 25.2% of non-military students identified as upperclassmen and 3.8% as a graduate student or other student.

Key Concepts and Measures

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable is the likelihood of the perpetration of sexual assault. Sexual assault is an umbrella term that is defined according to the Ohio Revised Codes (2002) and the

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1 Due to the limited number of military respondents, rank/pay could not be included in the statistical model.
Uniform Code of Military Justice (UCMJ). For the purposes of this paper, sexual assault, legally called sexual conduct, and rape are defined according to Koss et al.’s (1985) definitions used in the SES, which most closely meet the Ohio state statutes (Gylys & McNamara, 1996).

Specifically, the definitions of sexual conduct and rape are as follows:

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for all Original Variables in the Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-22</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>71.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23-29</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 +</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Race</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White/Caucasian</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>90.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black or African American</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian American</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian/Alaskan Native</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiracial</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grade</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freshman</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>40.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophomore</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate Student</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Military</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>24.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>75.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group Membership</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercollegiate Athlete</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fraternity Member</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honors Student</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intramural Athlete</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>37.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None of the Above</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>49.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: N=213
"Sexual conduct" means vaginal intercourse between a male and female; anal intercourse, fellatio, and cunnilingus between persons regardless of sex; and, without privilege to do so, the insertion, however slight, of any part of the body or any instrument, apparatus, or other object into the vaginal or anal opening of another. Penetration, however slight, is sufficient to complete vaginal or anal intercourse (Ohio Revised Code, 2002, 2907.01)

(A)(1) No person shall engage in sexual conduct with another who is not the spouse of the offender or who is the spouse of the offender but is living separate and apart from the offender, when any of the following applies:

(a) For the purpose of preventing resistance, the offender substantially impairs the other person’s judgment or control by administering any drug, intoxicant, or controlled substance to the other person surreptitiously or by force, threat of force, or deception.

(b) The other person is less than thirteen years of age, whether or not the offender knows the age of the other person.

(c) The other person’s ability to resist or consent is substantially impaired because of a mental or physical condition or because of advanced age, and the offender knows or has reasonable cause to believe that the other person’s ability to resist or consent is substantially impaired because of a mental or physical condition or because of advanced age.

(2) No person shall engage in sexual conduct with another when the offender purposely compels the other person to submit by force or threat of force (Ohio Revised Code, 2002, 2907.02)

Sexual assault was measured using the Sexual Experiences Survey, as previously mentioned (Koss & Oros, 1982; Koss & Gidycz, 1985; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987; Lisak, Hopper, & Song, 1996; Abbey, McAuslan, Zawacki, Clinton, & Buck, 2001; Vega & Malamuth, 2007; Koss et al., 2006; Koss et al., 2007). The revised SES, 20-item version was used to measure the dependent variable. However, not all revised questions from the SES were included in the survey to keep the length of the survey to a minimum. Specifically, the questions examined lower degrees of sexual assault such as sexual coercive behavior. Using modified versions of the SES research has constantly found support for sexually assaultive behaviors without the need for all original SES questions (Lisak, Hopper, & Song, 1996; Abbey, McAuslan, Zawacki, Clinton, & Buck, 2001; Vega & Malamuth, 2007). Six of the revised sexual behavior questions were used (Appendix A). The original “Sexual Experiences Survey
was written in parallel versions and consisted of 12 yes-no questions that referred explicitly to sexual intercourse associated with various degrees of coercion, threat, and force” (Koss & Oros, 1982, p.455). For the purposes of this research only the long form perpetration version of the SES was used with permission from the author (Koss et al., 2007). Mutually exclusive categories were created for each degree of sexual assault including non-perpetrator, sexual coercion, sexual contact, attempted rape and rape. For the final analyses, the dependent variable was recoded to examine non-perpetrators of sexual assault versus those that perpetrated any form of sexual assault. The aim of this research was to examine the factors linked to any level of sexual assault perpetration. Due to the stated research interests an analysis examining the differences between perpetration levels was not analyzed.

Independent Variables

The independent variables are as follows: military personnel, pornography consumption, peer approval for unwanted sex, alcohol use during sexual situations, childhood sexual abuse, and hostile masculinity.

For the purposes of this research those individuals that identified as military personnel were included as an independent variable to test the abovementioned hypotheses. A dummy variable was created with non-military college students as the reference group.

Pornography is defined as any “sexually explicit media designed to sexually arouse the consumer without any pejorative meaning necessarily intended” (Vega & Malamuth, 2007, p.104). Pornography consumption was measured according to a frequency question similar to one used by Vega and Malamuth (2007). Participants self-reported how frequently, based on a 5-point scale of ‘never’ to ‘every issue’, they read from a list of 10 magazines including three magazines containing pornography, Playboy, Penthouse, and Hustler (Carr & VanDeusen, 2004;
Vega & Malamuth, 2007). Additionally, two questions were included to measure the use of Internet pornography and television or video pornography. Both questions were measured on a 5-point scale of ‘never’ to ‘very often’. Two separate scales were created to measure pornography consumption. The first scale was created by summing television or video and Internet pornography use with scores ranging from 2 to 10, with higher scores indicating a more frequent consumption of television or video and Internet pornography. The three aforementioned pornographic magazines were summed to create the second scale (Vega & Malamuth, 2007). Scores for the second scale ranged from 3 to 15 with higher scores indicating more frequent self-reported use of the three pornographic magazines.

Peer approval for obtaining unwanted sex from a woman was examined (Abbey et al., 2001; Abbey et al., 2007). This concept is measured using ratio level measurements replicating questions from Abbey et al. (2007) and Abbey et al. (2001). The first question asked participants “What percent of your male friends would approve of obtaining sex with a woman through lies?” Subsequent questions addressed obtaining sex with a woman through guilt and through the use of force (Appendix A). Responses ranged in the following percentage groups 0%, 1 to 25%, 26 to 50%, 51 to 75%, 76 to 99%, and 100% with individuals endorsing the percentage range that their male friends would approve of the behavior. A peer approval scale was created by summing the three questions to create an interval level variable. Scores ranged from 3 to 18 with higher scores indicating more peer approval for the aforementioned acts.

Alcohol use was measured on a self-reported frequency level relating to use before or during sexual assault and sexual situations. It is not the intention of this study to classify participants as meeting the standard guidelines for alcohol abuse or dependency. Rather, based on findings of previous research (Abbey et al., 2001; Abbey et al., 2007; Parkhill & Abbey,
2008), alcohol consumption was assessed to determine if participants who perpetrate sexual assault drink more frequently during sexual situations. Parkhill and Abbey’s (2008) question on frequency of alcohol consumption during sexual situations is utilized (Appendix A). The original variable was measured on a scale from never using alcohol before or during sexual situations to very often using alcohol. In the final statistical model, alcohol consumption was recoded collapsing the categories of similar alcohol consumption. The recoded variable was collapsed to very often or often use of alcohol, some to rare use of alcohol and no use of alcohol during sexual situations. A dummy variable was then created for each category and included in the final analyses with no alcohol use as the reference category.

Childhood sexual abuse was measured on a self-reported frequency level using an ordinal level of measurement. A modified version of Finkelhor’s (1979) definition was used. For the purposes of this study the frequency of victimization before the age of 16 was assessed. Questions included “Did you have any of the following experiences before the age of 16 by someone older than you and without your consent?” such as “another person fondling you sexually” (Finkelhor, 1979; Carr & VanDeusen, 2004). Responses to the six dichotomous questions were summed to create a childhood sexual abuse variable. Any affirmative response to the six questions was classified as an individual having experienced childhood sexual abuse. The final variable was recoded into a dummy variable indicating childhood sexual abuse or no childhood sexual abuse.

The final set of independent variables in the model measured the concept of hostile masculinity. Three scales are used: Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence (AIV), Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (RMA) and Adversarial Sexual Beliefs (ASB) (Burt, 1980; Malamuth et al., 1991; Abbey & McAuslan, 2004; Vega & Malamuth, 2007). All three scales were measured
according to Burt (1980) using a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree”. The first scale is the AIV scale taken from Burt (1980). The AIV scale has six items measuring “attitudes condoning the use of force in relationships” (Vega & Malamuth, 2007, p.107). Cronbach’s alpha was calculated at .230 demonstrating that the internal reliability for this scale was not strong enough to be considered in the model (Garson, 2010). According to Garson (2010) Cronbach’s alpha should have at least of .6 or above to demonstrate good internal reliability. Thus, two subscales were created using factor analysis via a principal components method with a varimax rotation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001, p.582) factor analysis is applied “to a single set of variables when the researcher is interested in discovering which variables in the set form coherent subsets that are relatively independent of one another.” The two subscales, AIV coercion subscale and AIV violence subscale, were created “to summarize patterns of correlations among observed variables” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001, p. 582) and then included the final analysis. Higher number scores on the two subscales indicate higher levels of agreement with acceptance of sexual coercion and acceptance of interpersonal violence.

The second scale that comprises hostile masculinity is the RMA. The RMA scale was used to further measure hostile masculinity (Burt, 1980; Malamuth et al., 1991; Abbey & McAuslan, 2004; Vega & Malamuth, 2007). The RMA scale assesses participants’ beliefs in “false information concerning rape” (Vega & Malamuth, 2007, p.107). The version of the RMA scale used was modified and does not include all original 14 questions because, given that the scale was designed in 1980, not all 14 questions would have been fruitfully understood by participants. For example, “Women who get raped while hitchhiking get what they deserve” will not be included because hitchhiking is not common practice among young people anymore.
Cronbach’s alpha was calculated at .715, demonstrating good internal reliability. In the final statistical model all variables in the RMA were summed to create a single indicator, scores ranged from 0 to 40, with higher scores indicating more agreement of rape myth acceptance. The mean for the recoded RMA scale was 17.0376 with a standard deviation of 4.18².

The last scale utilized to measure hostile masculinity is the adversarial sexual beliefs (ASB) scale. The ASB measured participants’ beliefs that women are sly, cheating and manipulative (Burt, 1980). “To a person who holds this view of male and female sexuality, rape might seem the extreme on a continuum of exploitation, but not an unexpected or horrifying occurrence, or one justifying sympathy or support” (Burt, 1980, p.218). The ASB was summed to create a single ASB scale with scores ranging from 0 to 36 with higher scores indicating more agreement with adversarial sexual beliefs. Cronbach’s alpha was calculated at .772 indicating good internal reliability (Garson, 2010). The mean for the recoded ASB scale was 14.98 with a standard deviation of 4.45.

Control Variables

Race was included as a control variable in the final analysis. The original variable included the following racial categories, White/Caucasian, Black or African American, Asian American, American Indian/Alaskan Native, Multiracial, and Other. Due to the homogenous makeup of the sample the categories were recoded, in the final analyses, to include White/Caucasian and Non-White.

The DOD 2008 sexual assault report, (2009) indicates that age groups 20-24 and 25-34 represented over 50% of all sexual offenders. While studies often utilize college-aged

² Comparisons of means and standard deviations for the RMA scale and the ASB scale to previous research cannot be made due to differences in number of scale items and coding.
populations, researchers have found that age groups 18-24 are more likely to be victims and offenders of sexual violence (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). Therefore, age was controlled for in the final statistical analysis. Age was collected in as part of the survey, using a modified version of the DOD’s age groupings from the same report. Due to the distribution of the respondents age was recoded into 3 categories including, 18 to 22, and 23 to 29 and 30 or older. The age variable was created into a dummy variable with 30 or older as the reference group.

RESULTS

In the final sample, 91.1% (n=194) of respondents reported they had not committed any type of sexual assault since the age of 18. In total 8.9% (n=19) of respondents reported committing sexual assault in general. Specifically, participants that indicated perpetrating sexual coercion represented 5.6% (n=12) of the sample, no participants reported perpetrating sexual contact, .5% (n=1) had committed attempted rape, while 2.8% (n=6) had committed rape. Overall the sample population reported a lower percentage, 3.3% of attempted or completed rape, when compared to previously discussed research (Koss & Oros, 1982; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987; Lisak, Hopper, & Song, 1996; Abbey et al., 2001).

Table 2. Frequencies for Categories of Sexual Assault Perpetration for Non-Military and Military Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sexual Assault Peretration</th>
<th>Non-Military % (N)</th>
<th>Military % (N)</th>
<th>Total % (N)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-perpetrator</td>
<td>91.2 (146)</td>
<td>90.6 (48)</td>
<td>91.1 (194)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coercion</td>
<td>4.4 (7)</td>
<td>9.4 (5)</td>
<td>5.6 (12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contact</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attempted Rape</td>
<td>.6 (1)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>.5 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape</td>
<td>3.8 (6)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>2.8 (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100 (160)</td>
<td>100 (53)</td>
<td>100 (213)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Military respondents represented 26.3% (n = 5) of those that reported any sexual assault perpetration, while non-military respondents made up the remaining 73.7% (n = 14) of sexual assault perpetrators (Table 2).

A multivariate logistic regression was used to predict the likelihood of sexual assault perpetration compared to those that reported no sexual assault perpetration while controlling for previously discussed attitudinal and behavioral variables. Before conducting the binominal logistic regression all independent variables were examined for multicollinearity. Multicollinearity was determined not to be a problem for all independent and control variables included in the final regression. Additionally, due to the small number of cases and the number of continuous variables included in the binomial logistic regression (Table 3) the Omnibus tests of model coefficients was not significant at .141. However, Hosmer and Lemeshow’s chi square test of goodness of fit proves to be a more reliable test for the model (Garson, 2010). A well fitting model should show non-significance on the Hosmer and Lemeshow’s test (Garson, 2010). For the final model the Hosmer and Lemeshow’s test indicated a significance of .529, indicating the model is a very good fit or in other words “the prediction is not significantly different from observed values” (Garson, 2010). The classification table correctly identified perpetrators and non-perpetrators 90.6% of the time indicating further support for the good fit of the model. Furthermore the model summary indicates that the current model explains 21.1% of the variance in sexual assault perpetration (Table 3).

---

3 To assess multicollinearity, variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance levels were examined for all variables. One control variable, age 18 to 22, did indicate multicollinearity with a VIF of 4.94218 and a tolerance level of .202. However, Garson (2010) discusses that an indication of multicollinearity among a control variable and the dependent variable is associated with “strong control effects on the independents” and is not considered multicollinearity.
Table 3 reports the findings of attitudinal and behavioral variables related to sexual assault perpetration. The majority of variables included in the analysis failed to reach statistical significance. Most importantly, no statistical significance was found to support the theoretical arguments made regarding military membership influencing sexual assault perpetration. This may be due in part to the small number of military personnel included in the analysis. While no significant difference was found between perpetrators and non-perpetrators of sexual assault for having experienced childhood sexual abuse, the frequency of childhood sexual abuse was high in the current sample. Thirty-five percent of respondents reported experiencing some form of childhood sexual abuse compared to 20% of respondents in Carr and VanDeusen’s study (2004).

Table 3. Results for Binomial Logistic Regression Examining the Effects of Attitudinal and Behavioral Variables on Sexual Assault Perpetration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>Odds Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Whiteª</td>
<td>-.333</td>
<td>.875</td>
<td>.717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Militaryª</td>
<td>-.550</td>
<td>.947</td>
<td>.577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ageª</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 to 22</td>
<td>-.985</td>
<td>1.164</td>
<td>.373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 to 29</td>
<td>-.030</td>
<td>1.011</td>
<td>.971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol During Sexual Situationsª</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rare or Some</td>
<td>-1.235</td>
<td>.850</td>
<td>.291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often or Very Often</td>
<td>-.049</td>
<td>.997</td>
<td>.952</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence Scale</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coercion Subscale</td>
<td>.754*</td>
<td>.328</td>
<td>2.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violence Subscale</td>
<td>-.304</td>
<td>.266</td>
<td>.738</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversarial Sexual Beliefs Scale</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.606</td>
<td>1.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape Myth Acceptance Scale</td>
<td>-.029</td>
<td>.066</td>
<td>.972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Abuse</td>
<td>.756</td>
<td>.585</td>
<td>2.129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer Approval</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.109</td>
<td>1.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Image Pornography</td>
<td>-.195</td>
<td>.185</td>
<td>.823</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magazine Pornography</td>
<td>.366*</td>
<td>.187</td>
<td>1.442</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>-1.107</td>
<td>1.779</td>
<td>.330</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ª The reference groups are Non-White, Non-Military, 30 or older and No Alcohol Use.
* p<.05

**SPSS 16 was used to compute the logistic regression.**
Significant support was found for two variables included in previous research specifically for pornographic magazine consumption and acceptance of sexual coercive violence against women.

Individuals that more frequently reported reading pornographic magazines were 1.44 times more likely to perpetrate sexual assault versus those that did not perpetrate sexual assault. Interestingly, more frequent consumption of internet, video, or television pornography did not indicate an increased likelihood to perpetrate sexual assault. Additionally, respondents reporting higher scores on the acceptance of interpersonal violence against women scale for the sexual coercive questions were 2.12 times more likely to perpetrate sexual assault. The RMA and ASB scales were not significant indicators of sexual assault perpetration, which contradicts prior findings (e.g., Burt, 1980; Malamuth et al., 1991; Wheeler, George, & Dahl, 2002; Abbey & McAuslan, 2004; Carr & VanDeusen, 2004). Because not all three scales that measure hostile masculinity were significant only partial support can be found for the idea that individuals who report higher levels of hostile masculinity perpetrate sexual assault. Additionally, no significant differences were found between the age or race of respondents that perpetrated sexual assault and those that did not perpetrate any sexual assault. In regards to race, this finding is not surprising due to the overwhelming homogeneity of the sample.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The focus of this research was to examine the attitudes, behaviors, and prevalence of sexual assault perpetration in an active duty and veteran military college sample. According to previous studies sexual offenders exhibit certain attitudes and beliefs that may predict sexual assault perpetration. Research has shown that pornographic magazine consumption and acceptance of sexual coercive violence against women are predictive of committing acts of
sexual assault for this sample. However, no empirical support was found for the theoretical arguments made in the present study that active duty and veteran military college students will have higher rates of sexual assault perpetration. Potential justifications for the lack of empirical support, an alternative hypothesis to the current study, and the limitations of the current sample will be discussed. Finally, the contributions of the present study and the importance of further applications of this study to a large sample of male active-duty military personnel will be discussed.

While no empirical support was found for the theoretical arguments made in this research, five respondents answered affirmatively to “Do you think you may have ever raped someone?” Of those, military respondents made up the majority that answered yes to perpetrating rape (N=3). Although no significant association can be made between military and non-military respondents, this finding lends support to the idea that hegemonic masculinity is coercive over members of the military. As previously mentioned military participants committed 26.3% of all sexual assault perpetrations, with the highest level of assault being sexual coercion. With a larger active duty military sample, empirical support may be found for the theoretical claims made in this study. Additionally, this final question indicates that the SES may not accurately capture the behaviors of these respondents or that the sexual assault occurred before the age of 18.

Although previous research found strong support found for the aforementioned attitudinal and behavioral variables no support was found for the majority of variables included in the model (Table 3). The lack of empirical support may be in part of the small sample size of 213 respondents. Most interesting to the analyses is the finding that increased consumption of pornographic magazines was linked to perpetration of sexual assault. The literature reviewed on
pornography consumption showed mixed results in predicting sexual assault perpetration. Carr and VanDeusen (2004) found evidence that pornographic magazines, videos, television programming were all linked to sexual assault perpetration where as Taylor (2006) found no indication of the same in a sample of male college students. The findings of significance in the current study add to the complex debate on if the use of pornographic materials increases an individual’s likelihood to commit sexual assault. Because only consumption of pornographic magazines was significant it may indicate that those individuals who reported perpetrating sexual assault are more invested in obtaining lewd material.

The three questions included in the AIV coercion subscale focused on attitudes supporting the use sexual aggression towards women who pretend to deny sex or deny enjoying rough sex (Appendix A, questions 25 to 27). Significant support was found for those individuals that endorsed the abovementioned attitudes and the perpetration of sexual assault. Although the statistical methods implored for this scale are unique to the current study, widespread support has been found for the link between acceptance of interpersonal violence against women and committing sexual assault (e.g., Burt, 1980; Malamuth et al., 1991; Wheeler, George, & Dahl, 2002; Abbey & McAuslan, 2004; Carr & VanDeusen, 2004). This finding indicates that participants that perpetrated sexual assault were more likely to endorse the myth that society portrays of women ‘saying no to sex but meaning yes’. While no support was found in this sample, previous research indicates individuals that perpetrate sexual assault have higher levels of agreement with rape myths (Burt, 1980; Malamuth et al., 1991; Abbey & McAuslan, 2004; Carr & VanDeusen, 2004).

An alternative hypothesis may be offered to explain the results of this research. Due to the high rates of sexual assault perpetration in the traditional college student population, 5% to
25% of college men, a finding of no significant difference between traditional college students and military personnel may provide support for the theoretical claims made in this paper. Previous research has primarily studied traditional college men and found strong support for the attitudinal and behavioral variables examined (Burt, 1980; Ouimette, Shaw, Drozd, & Leader, 2000; Lisak & Miller, 2002; Vega & Malamuth, 2007; Abbey et al., 2007; Burgess, 2007; Parkhill & Abbey, 2008). Therefore, military and college culture are similar enough that no difference should be expected in regards to attitudinal and behavioral variables linked to sexual assault perpetration. Future research should examine this alternative hypothesis using active duty military and traditional college students.

Limitations

Given the sensitive nature of the present research several limitations must be considered. Participants may have felt compelled to alter actual experiences, beliefs and attitudes to avoid perceived judgments by myself or peers. Moreover due to the strong reaction the survey instrument received from some participants, obtaining completed or non-biased responses may be unattainable. Additionally, because the study asked participants to recall sexual experiences from the past year and since the age of 18, changes may occur in the way events are remembered, especially if these experiences include use of mind-altering substances. Due to the nature of self-report surveys, it is virtually impossible to verify the events being surveyed.

Limitations exist in accessing the population for several reasons, including the restrictive nature of active-duty and veteran military personnel and the unknown numbers that attend UNCW. Part of this limitation is due to the restrictive access in place to researchers interested in examining military personnel in general. Ideally, active duty military or recently discharged members of the military would provide a better sample for the theoretical arguments made by
this research. Military respondents in the present study were older in age and may have transitioned back into civilian culture by the time of participation. Therefore, the coercive nature of the military may no longer influence the respondents involved in this study. Moreover, the data presented is not generalizable to all male-active duty and veteran military college students nationally or on UNCW’s campus.

Contributions and Future Research

Military personnel remain a largely untapped study population in social science research, particularly in sensitive topic areas. While valuable research has been extended and examined by conducting a self-report survey of the prevalence, beliefs, and attitudes associated with sexual assault perpetration, conducting the present study using a sample of active duty military personnel would provide information on how to prevent and reduce these behaviors in that specific population. Violence against women is perceived by members of all services to be an issue and one that is preventable (DMDC, 2007). Furthermore, this research should lead the way for more comprehensive multi-factor analyses of sexual assault perpetration in military personnel. Additionally, the strong negative reactions encountered from military respondents regarding the bias and agenda of the survey provide strong support for continued efforts to study this specific population. Katz (2006) argues that the majority of men in our nation do perpetrate sexual assault against women but that those individuals that do commit sexual violence against women are often repeat offenders. With less than half of all sexual assaults reported to the police, many offenders go ‘undetected’ (Lisak & Miller, 2002). Sensitive studies, such as the current research, are often met with resistance from the dominant culture. However, this should not prevent future research from examining sexual violence against women by specific populations such as the military. Future research should continue to examine attitudes and
behaviors linked to sexual assault perpetration for the goal of preventing and eliminating sexual assault against men and women.


Ohio Revised Code, 2907.01, 2907.02 (2002).


The following questions concern sexual experiences, behaviors, and beliefs. We know these are personal questions, so we do not ask your name or other identifying information. Your information is completely confidential. Your participation is voluntary and you may stop at any time or refuse to answer any question and the researcher will not treat you any differently. We hope this helps you to feel comfortable answering each question honestly.

1. Please mark ONE of the following.
   - Male
   - Female

2. Which of the following best describes your age?
   - Under 18
   - 18-22
   - 23-29
   - 30-39
   - 40-49
   - 50+

3. Which of the following best describes your race? (Mark ONE category)
   - White/Caucasian
   - Black or African American
   - Asian American
   - American Indian/Alaskan Native
   - Multiracial
   - Other: _____________________

4. Which of the following best describes your ethnicity?
   - Hispanic
   - Non-Hispanic

5. Which of the following best describes your current year in college?
   - Freshman
   - Sophomore
   - Junior
   - Senior
   - Graduate Student
   - Other

6. How long have you been in college?
   - Less than 1 year
   - 1 year
7. Do you identify as any of the following? (Mark all that apply)
   - Intercollegiate Athlete
   - Fraternity or Sorority Member
   - Honors Student
   - Intramural Athlete
   - None of the Above

8. Are you active duty military or a veteran of the military?
   - Yes (answer questions 9 and 10)
   - No (skip to question 11)

9. Which of the following best describes your pay grade/rank OR best described your pay grade/rank when you were discharged?
   - E1-E4
   - E5-E9
   - WO1-WO5
   - O1-O3
   - O4-O10
   - Cadet/Midshipmen

10. How many years have you been or were you in the military?
    - 1-4
    - 4-8
    - 8-12
    - 12+

11. How frequently do you read each of these magazines (Mark ONE box per magazine):
   a. Men's Health
      - Never
      - Rarely
      - Sometimes
      - Often
      - Every Issue
   b. Playboy
      - Never
Rarely
Sometimes
Often
Every Issue

c. Men’s Journal
Never
Rarely
Sometimes
Often
Every Issue
d. Sports Illustrated
Never
Rarely
Sometimes
Often
Every Issue
e. Penthouse
Never
Rarely
Sometimes
Often
Every Issue
f. GQ
Never
Rarely
Sometimes
Often
Every Issue
g. FHM
Never
Rarely
Sometimes
Often
Every Issue
h. Esquire
Never
Rarely
Sometimes
Often
Every Issue
### i. Men’s Fitness
- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Often
- Every Issue

### j. Hustler
- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Often
- Every Issue

### k. Maxim
- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Often
- Every Issue

12. **How frequently do you view each of the following (Mark ONE box per category):**

   a. **Television Pornography or Video Pornography**
      - Never
      - Rarely
      - Sometimes
      - Often
      - Very Often

   b. **Online Pornography**
      - Never
      - Rarely
      - Sometimes
      - Often
      - Very Often

13. **What percent of your make friends would approve of:**

   a. **Obtaining sex with a woman through lies?**
      - 0%
      - 1% to 25%
      - 26% to 50%
      - 51% to 75%
      - 76% to 99%
b. Obtaining sex with a woman through guilt?
   - 0%
   - 1% to 25%
   - 26% to 50%
   - 51% to 75%
   - 76% to 99%
   - 100%

c. Obtaining sex with a woman through force?
   - 0%
   - 1% to 25%
   - 26% to 50%
   - 51% to 75%
   - 76% to 99%
   - 100%

d. Getting a woman drunk to have sex with her?
   - 0%
   - 1% to 25%
   - 26% to 50%
   - 51% to 75%
   - 76% to 99%
   - 100%

14. How often do you drink alcohol before and/or during sexual situations?
   - Never
   - Rarely
   - Sometimes
   - Often
   - Very Often

15. How much alcohol do you typically drink before and/or during sexual situations?
   - 0 drinks
   - 1-2 drinks
   - 3-4 drinks
   - 5+ drinks

The next set of questions asks you to indicate your level of agreement with various beliefs about sexual situations. Mark ONE box for questions 16-40:

16. A woman will only respect a man who will lay down the law to her.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree
17. Many women are so demanding sexually that a man just can’t satisfy them.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

18. A man’s got to show the woman who’s boss right from the start or he’ll end up nagged.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

19. Women are usually sweet until they’ve caught a man, but then they let their true self show.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

20. A lot of men talk big, but when it comes down to it, they can’t perform well sexually.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

21. In a dating relationship a woman is largely out to take advantage of a man.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

22. Men are out for only one thing.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

23. Most women are sly and manipulating when they are out to attract a man.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree
24. A lot of women seem to get pleasure in putting men down.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

25. People today should not use “an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth” as a rule for living.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

26. Being roughed up is sexually stimulating to many women.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

27. Many times a woman will pretend she doesn’t want to have intercourse because she doesn’t want to seem loose, but she’s really hoping the man will force her.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

28. A wife should move out of the house if her husband hits her.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

29. Sometimes the only way a man can turn on a cold woman is to use force.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree
30. A man is never justified in hitting his wife.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

31. A woman who goes to the home or apartment of a man on their first date implies that she is willing to have sex.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

32. Any female can get raped.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

33. One reason that women falsely report a rape is that they frequently have a need to call attention to themselves.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

34. Any healthy woman can successfully resist a rapist if she really wants to.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

35. When women go around braless or wearing short skirts and tight tops, they are just asking for trouble.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree
36. In the majority of rapes, the victim is promiscuous or has a bad reputation.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

37. If a girl hooks up and she lets things get out of hand, it is her own fault if her partner forces sex on her.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

38. A woman who is stuck-up and thinks she is too good to talk to guys on the street deserves to be taught a lesson.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

39. Many women have an unconscious wish to be raped, and may then unconsciously set up a situation in which they are likely to be attacked.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree

40. If a woman gets drunk at a party and has intercourse with a man she’s just met there, she should be considered “fair game” to other males at the party who want to have sex with her too, whether she wants to or not.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Unknown/Neutral
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree
41. Did you have any of the following experiences before the age of 16 by someone older than you and without your consent:

a. Person showed his/her sex organs to you.
   - Yes
   - No

b. You showed your sex organs to another at his/her request.
   - Yes
   - No

c. Another person fondled you sexually.
   - Yes
   - No

d. Another person touched or stroked your sex organs.
   - Yes
   - No

e. You touched or stroked another’s sex organs at his/her request.
   - Yes
   - No

f. Another attempted to have sex with you.
   - Yes
   - No
The next set of questions refers to different sexual situations you may have experienced since your 18th birthday and/or in the past 12 months. Following each question is a list of statements about the context of the situation described in the question. For each statement, indicate how many times the experience has occurred including occasions where more than one experience took place.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>How many times in the past 12 months</th>
<th>How many times since age 18</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>42. <strong>I fondled, kissed, or rubbed up against the private areas of someone’s body (lips, breast/chest, crotch or butt) or removed some of their clothes even if they did not want to</strong> <em>(but did not attempt sexual penetration)</em> <strong>by:</strong></td>
<td>![0 1 2 3+]</td>
<td>![0 1 2 3+]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. <strong>Telling lies, threatening to end the relationship, threatening to spread rumors about them, making promises about the future I knew were untrue, or continually verbally pressuring them after they said they didn’t want to.</strong></td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. <strong>Giving someone drugs or alcohol without their knowledge or encouraging someone to use drugs or alcohol that made them too incapacitated <em>(out of it)</em> to consent or stop what was happening.</strong></td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. <strong>Finding someone who was asleep or unconscious from drugs or alcohol and when they came to <em>(regained consciousness)</em> they could not stop what was happening or were too incapacitated <em>(out of it)</em> to give consent.</strong></td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. <strong>Threatening to physically harm them or someone close to them.</strong></td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. <strong>Using force, for example holding them down with my body weight, pinning their arms, or having a weapon.</strong></td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. <strong>Acting as part of a group of two or more people who did these things after someone objected or was unable to give consent.</strong></td>
<td>![ ]</td>
<td>![ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>I had oral sex with someone or had someone perform oral sex on me even if they did not want to by:</strong></td>
<td><strong>How many times in the past 12 months</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.</td>
<td>Telling lies, threatening to end the relationship, threatening to spread rumors about them, making promises about the future I knew were untrue, or continually verbally pressuring them after they said they didn’t want to.</td>
<td>□□□□□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b.</td>
<td>Giving someone drugs or alcohol without their knowledge or encouraging someone to use drugs or alcohol that made them too incapacitated (<em>out of it</em>) to consent or stop what was happening.</td>
<td>□□□□□</td>
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<tr>
<td>c.</td>
<td>Finding someone who was asleep or unconscious <em>from drugs or alcohol</em> and when they came to (<em>regained consciousness</em>) they could not stop what was happening or were too incapacitated (<em>out of it</em>) to give consent.</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Acting as part of a group <em>of two or more people</em> who did these things after someone objected or was unable to give consent.</td>
<td>□□□□□</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I put my penis or I put my fingers or objects into someone’s vagina or butt even if they did not want to by:</td>
<td>How many times in the past 12 months</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
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<td>Telling lies, threatening to end the relationship, threatening to spread rumors about them, making promises about the future I knew were untrue, or continually verbally pressuring them after they said they didn’t want to.</td>
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<td>0 1 2 3+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
45. **Even though it did not happen, I TRIED to have oral sex with someone or make them have oral sex with me even if they did not want to by:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>How many times in the past 12 months</th>
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</tr>
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<td>f.</td>
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<td>0 1 2 3+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
46. **Even though it did not happen, I TRIED to put my penis or I tried to put my fingers or objects into someone’s vagina or butt even if they did not want to by:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tbody>
</table>

47. Do you think you may have ever raped someone?  Yes [ ] No [ ]

Please continue to the next page
48. In the space provided below please describe in as much detail as possible, any of the experiences you reported above:

Thank you for completing the survey. All information collected in this survey is anonymous. Please turn in your survey as directed in the beginning.