

**The Relationship Between Sexual Aggression and Perception of Abuse in Adult
Survivors of Child Sexual Abuse**

Rehman Y. Abdulrehman

University of Manitoba

**A thesis submitted to the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Master of Arts in the Department of Psychology.**



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**The Relationship Between Sexual Aggression and Perception of
Abuse in Adult Survivors of Child Sexual Abuse**

BY

Rehman Y. Abdulrehman

**A Thesis/Practicum submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of The University
of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree
of
Master of Arts**

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Abstract

Aggression frequently is cited as both a short and long-term symptom of child sexual abuse. In child victims, aggression is often paired with guilt and anxiety (Hack, Osachuk, & De Luca, 1994). Adult survivors also have been noted to exhibit aggression (Bolton, Morris, & MacEachron, 1989) and generally are more likely to perpetrate against others (Finkelhor, 1984). This 2 X 2 factorial design study examined aggression in adult survivors of sexual abuse and the relationship of aggression to (a) the perception of abuse by the victim and (b) the gender of the perpetrator. A modified version of Finkelhor's Sexual Victimization Survey (1979) was administered to 348 (320 of whose responses were included in the final analysis) male introductory psychology students to indicate the presence of a childhood sexual experience. Participants' responses on a measure of aggression (Fischer's Forcible Date Rape Scale) were compared. Differences between victims of male perpetrators and victims of female perpetrators revealed a trend when analyzed by the GLM ANOVA, that victims of male perpetrators are more likely than victims of female perpetrators to be sexually aggressive. An additional chi-square analysis implied that victims of female offenders appeared less likely to perceive their abuse as abusive, than are victims of male perpetrators. A profile analysis on the perpetrators of the abused victims revealed that 82.6 percent of the offenders were female. The finding that these female perpetrators were more likely to coerce their victims instead of using physical force suggests that the abused participants did not incorrectly report the gender of their perpetrator. The results of this study challenge stereotypes held about the gender roles of victims and perpetrators of sexual abuse, and encourage further research in the area of male victims and female perpetrators.

The Relationship Between Sexual Aggression and Perception of Abuse in Adult Survivors of Child Sexual Abuse

Recent research indicates that 34 percent of women have been sexually abused as children at least once (Wyatt, Loeb, Solis, Carmona, & Romero, 1999). Though rates of reported sexual abuse are thought to be significantly lower in men, early findings indicate that one in three males have been sexually abused as children (Committee on Sexual Offences Against Children and Youths, 1984). Recent literature conservatively estimates that at least one in six boys have been sexually abused (Prendergast, 1993). Regardless of the gender of the victim, deleterious symptoms of child sexual abuse often continue from childhood into the adulthood (Coffey, Leitenberg, Henning, Turner, Bennett; 1996; Finkelhor, 1990; Mullen, Martin, Anderson, Romans, & Herbison, 1996; Romano & De Luca, 1997; Wyatt, et al. 1999). As children, victims of child sexual abuse display symptoms such as guilt, loneliness (De Luca, Hazen, & Cutler, 1993), low self-esteem, anxiety, depression and behavior problems (Calam, Horne, Glasgow, & Cox, 1998; De Luca, Boyes, Furer, Grayston, Hiebert-Murphy, 1992; De Luca, Boyes, Grayston, & Romano, 1995). If victims do not receive treatment, symptoms such as a lack of trust in others (Jehu, 1992; Lisak, 1994), depression, anxiety, hostility (Beitchman, Zucker, Hood, DaCosta, Akman, & Cassavia, 1992; Collings, 1995; Finkelhor, 1990; Lisak, 1994; Rudd & Herzberger, 1999), fear, and guilt (Lisak, 1994) are likely to be present in adult survivors of sexual abuse. (For a complete review of the short and long-term effects of child sexual abuse, see Beitchman, Zucker, Hood, Da Costa, & Akman (1991) and Beitchman, et al. (1992).)

Internalized and Externalized Behaviors

Freidrich, Beilke, & Urquiza (1988) referred to the difference in the manifestation of behaviors as internalized and externalized behaviors. As noted above, a variety of symptoms may result from child sexual abuse. The suggestion made by Freidrich et. al. (1988) is that these symptoms and behaviors are differentially exhibited. For example, some victims will manifest the behaviors inwardly toward themselves (internally), and other victims will manifest behaviors outwardly toward others (externally). Differential manifestations of abuse symptoms are present when examining a gender difference.

Internalized Behaviors

Internalized behaviors refer to those symptoms expressed by both male and female victims (Friedrich et al., 1988). Examples of internalized behaviors noted in both children and adult survivors of sexual abuse include lowered self-esteem, anxiety, loneliness (De Luca et al., 1992; 1995), and depression (Calam et al., 1998; De Luca et al., 1992; 1995). Internalized behaviors are symptoms that manifest themselves in a manner that affect the victim primarily, e.g., poor performance at school (Kendall-Tackett, Williams, & Finkelhor, 1993), eating disorders (Rudd & Herzberger, 1999), gender identity (Duncan and Williams, 1998), suicide (Rudd & Herzberger, 1999) and even re-victimization (Gold, Sinclair, & Balge, 1999).

Externalized Behaviors

Unlike internalized behaviors, externalized behaviors are more common in abused males than in females who have experienced abuse (Friedrich et al., 1988). Examples of externalized behaviors include acting out aggressively, disruptive behavior, and fighting. Finklehor (1979, 1984) noted that victims often blame themselves for the abuse and,

therefore, guilt is a common symptom of sexual abuse in males and females. However, Finkelhor noted that in the case of boys, their masculinity is also threatened. Due to a combination of guilt, feelings of loss of control and masculinity, and the cultural expectation that boys are more aggressive than girls, male victims of sexual abuse may reassert their lost masculinity and control by acting out aggressively and sometimes sexually aggressively against others.

In the case of female victims, cultural expectations that girls should not be aggressive, may cause symptoms of guilt to work their way inward and cause other symptoms such as depression and a poor self worth. It is important to note that these symptoms are not always gender exclusive nor are they clearly differentiated. Male victims also suffer from a poor self-esteem, and depression (De Luca, Grayston, & Romano, 1999; Hack et al., 1994), and female victims of sexual abuse may also exhibit symptoms of aggression (Grayston & De Luca, 1999).

Gender Differences in Symptoms

The negative effects of abuse discussed above occur in both male and female victims of child sexual abuse. Though both male and female victims of sexual abuse tend to experience the same symptoms; they appear to manifest those symptoms differently. For example, symptoms of depression in girls are often expressed through self-mutilation and suicide attempts (De Luca et al., 1992). Though boys who have been sexually abused do express depression through self-mutilation and suicidal attempts, they are more likely to manifest their depression externally and aggressively (Finkelhor, 1990). Furthermore, female victims of child sexual abuse are more likely to be revictimized (Gold et al., 1999) whereas male victims are more likely to perpetrate against others (Romano & De Luca,

1997). This does not mean that only male victims perpetrate against others, or that only female victims are revictimized. Rather, this effect may be reflective of cultural expectations of gender sensitive behavior. For example, it would appear that it is more acceptable for males in our society to act out aggressively, than it is for females.

In a review of the literature, Finkelhor (1990) suggested that male victims of childhood sexual abuse have a tendency to exhibit more externalized behaviors as a result of their victimization. Finkelhor (1990) noted that male victims of child sexual abuse are more likely to express an interest in hurting others, and women are more likely to be depressed.

Current studies on the effects of child sexual abuse concur with Finkelhor (e.g. Briggs & Hawkins, 1995; Collings, 1995; Hack et al., 1994; Lisak, 1994; Romano & De Luca, 1997). In a study examining adult male survivors of child sexual abuse, 48 percent had been convicted of aggressive offenses (Etherington, 1995). Furthermore, psychopathology following child sexual abuse tended to be more active/aggressive for male survivors, and more affective/anxiety related for female survivors (Stein, Golding, Siegal, Burnham, & Sorenson, as cited in Finkelhor, 1990). For example, the psychopathology of female victims tended to be associated with depression, mania, phobias, and obsessive-compulsive disorders.

Clearly not only males perpetrate sexual abuse. In a review of current research, Grayston & De Luca (1999) reported that large numbers of female perpetrators do exist. However, even in a comparison of characteristics of male and female perpetrators, males are noted to exhibit more aggressive types of behavior. Ray & English (1995) found that male perpetrators were more likely than female perpetrators, to use physical

force and aggression when perpetrating. Ray & English (1995) reported that female perpetrators tended to molest, whereas male perpetrators tended to rape. Finkelhor (1984) also noted that female perpetrators are often accompanied by a male counterpart.

These studies report that male victims are more likely than female victims to manifest their symptoms externally, and also males are more likely to perpetrate sexual aggression than females. In order to focus on the act of sexual aggression in victims of sexual abuse, this study examined male survivors of child sexual abuse.

Sexually Abused Males and the Cycle of Abuse

The label “cycle of abuse” refers to the trend whereby victims of sexual abuse tend to abuse others. Considering the gender biased behavior and externally manifested symptoms of abused males mentioned above, it becomes evident that abused males may be at risk for abusing others.

In an examination of convicted perpetrators, it has been found that a majority of sexual offenders were sexually abused as children. In a study of incarcerated males who had sexually offended against children, Romano and De Luca (1997) reported that 75 percent had been sexually abused as children. In an adolescent sample of male sexual offenders, Worling (1995) also found that 75 percent had been victimized sexually as children. Though it may be perceived that examining criminal populations represents a bias in studying abuse history and current aggressive behavior, non-criminal samples of abused males still confirm the cycle of abuse pattern. For example, with a clinical sample of adult male survivors, Etherington (1995) noted that abused males who were not convicted of criminal behavior did display symptoms of antisocial behavior. Furthermore, Etherington found that these individuals engaged in domestic violence. In another study,

also involving non-convicted male survivors of abuse, Lisak (1994) found anger and aggression to be a common self-reported symptom in adult survivors of sexual abuse. In light of this evidence, the “cycle of abuse” suggestion generally is accepted by researchers (Worling, 1995).

Studies that examine the cycle of abuse, measure the phenomenon retroactively; where convicted offenders are examined for histories of being sexually abused (e.g., Romano & De Luca, 1997; Worling, 1995) or clinical samples of abuse survivors are treated for child abuse experiences (Etherington, 1995; Lisak, 1994). Considering that studying and predicting the future of male victims of sexual abuse is difficult, retroactive analysis of this situation appears prudent. An examination of current characteristics of males, who have experienced sexual abuse during childhood, may help in identifying characteristics of previously unidentified victims, and possible perpetrators. Examining the presence of sexually aggressive thoughts or acceptance of those types of behaviors in male survivors of sexual abuse, and the characteristics related to those beliefs, provides heuristic value for identification and treatment of beliefs common in perpetrators. For the sake of prevention of future abuse and treatment of male survivors of sexual abuse, an examination of a model of sexual aggression seems critical.

Model of Sexual Aggression

According to Malamuth, Sockloskie, Koss, & Tanaka (1991) the cycle of abuse has been delineated in the form of a model of sexual aggression. Malamuth et al. (1991) tested their hypothesized model of sexual aggression by comparing common characteristics in males who had sexually aggressive tendencies. Results suggested that

the explanation of sexually aggressive behavior by the model was accurate. The assumptions that comprise the model are as follows:

- (i) The acts of sexual and non-sexual aggression against women have a common causal factor.
- (ii) The common factor being that the perpetrator of sexual aggression had experienced child abuse (primarily sexual) or had home environments in which they witnessed spousal abuse, where these experiences lay a foundation for altered cognitive, emotional, and behavioral responses.
- (iii) Children who are abused or witness abuse, become likely to associate with peers (who likely have experienced the same abuse/violence) who reinforce antisocial behavior and punish or discourage behavior that would delay frustration or gratification.
- (iv) Due to the feelings of lost control or masculinity, the male victim of sexual abuse tries to regain his dominance (i.e., perceived as masculinity) by acting more controlling and aggressively toward women.
- (v) Another possibility would be that being a victim of sexual abuse, the male victim of abuse then expresses his delinquency through sexually acting out.
- (vi) The latter two points may work together or separately, and are likely to be expressed in other aspects of the perpetrator's life other than the aggression toward women.

According to the model of sexual aggression provided by Malamuth et al. (1991), males with hostile childhood experiences (i.e., child sexual abuse) are more likely than

non-victimized males to engage in antisocial or delinquent behavior. As cited earlier, several studies support the fact that victims of child sexual abuse, especially males, manifest their symptoms externally and often aggressively (Briggs & Hawkins, 1995; Collings, 1995; Etherington, 1995; Finkelhor, 1990; Hack et al., 1994; Lisak, 1994; Romano & De Luca, 1997). Malamuth et al. suggested that the aberrant behavior of childhood victims often leads to (a) hostile attitudes and personality and/or (b) sexual promiscuity. Results of the study by Malamuth et al. confirmed that hostile attitudes were carried into both sexual and non-sexual interactions. Also, when sexual promiscuity was paired with hostility, it produced sexual aggression. Malamuth et al.'s findings suggest that feelings of hyper masculinity were often responsible for the hostility and promiscuity demonstrated by the perpetrator.

Feelings of insecurity, lack of control, fear, and anxiety, are common in boys who were sexually abused (Hack et al. 1994). Lisak (1994) noted that many of these feelings are common in men who survived child sexual abuse. Lisak further explained that these symptoms of sexual abuse are responsible for masculinity issues in male survivors. According to Malamuth et al.'s (1991) model of sexual aggression, the victim interprets these feelings of insecurity and anxiety as a loss of masculinity. Considering that our culture often expects males to be in control and dominant, feelings of submissiveness and a loss of control by way of being a victim may cause males to feel they have lost their masculinity, or in other words they may feel feminine.

Finkelhor (1979, 1990) noted that sexual abuse is more an issue of control and power than it is sexual gratification. This again supports the notion that when perpetrated against, males feel that they have lost their masculinity. As described by Malamuth et al

(1991), the majority of sexual aggression is attributed to overcompensation for perceived lost masculinity. It would appear that when males are sexually abused, it violates the norm that males are in control, and victims are forced to struggle with this conflict (Coffey et al., 1996; Lisak, 1994). Considering also that males may be viewed as more “rugged” and less fragile than females, society may provide less support for male victims of child sexual abuse. It would appear that culturally biased gender expectations such as these, force victims to not only deal with issues of masculinity and lack of control, but also, with feelings of loneliness and betrayal (Coffey, et al. 1996).

Gender of the Perpetrator

In consideration of the model presented by Malamuth et al. (1991), and research described above, the gender of the perpetrator may heavily influence the victim’s symptoms of loss of control, and thereby manifestation of sexual aggression. For example, considering that the majority of sexual perpetrators are male (Bruinsma, 1995; Oliver, Hall, & Neuhaus; 1993; Worling, 1995), the majority of sexually abused boys are likely to have been abused by other males. Considering also the culturally governed gender appropriate behaviors in our society, the gender of the perpetrator may serve to inflame the aforementioned symptoms. It may be that the stigma of being abused by another male would not only make the victim feel a loss of control but would also place him with the stigma of being homosexual. Again, in order to overcompensate for these feelings of guilt the victim may become sexually promiscuous with women to prove his heterosexuality. As Malamuth et al suggested, and as asserted by Finkelhor (1984), being abused would likely cause hostility to become fused with the sexual promiscuity and the former victim may become a perpetrator himself.

Duncan & Williams (1998) stated that for boys, being victimized by another male causes more stress than being sexually victimized by a female. Considering that victims of sexual abuse often feel guilty or responsible for the abuse (Hack et al. 1994), in cases of homosexual sexual abuse, the child feels that he or she accepted that abuse and is therefore homosexual.

Considering that abused and non-abused individuals are raised with the same cultural norms and perceptions, the perceptions of non-abused individuals can likely be compared and generalized to victims of abuse from the same culture. When individuals with no abuse history were asked to rate cases of abuse that included a male victim and a male perpetrator, compared to a male victim and a female perpetrator, participants viewed the male-male interaction as more deleterious (Broussard, Wagner, Kazelskis, 1991). In cases where the participants were asked to rate abuse situations, in which the perpetrator was female, participants noted these abuse scenarios to be unrepresentative of abuse. The ratings of the non-abused participants were indicative of (a) the stigma of male to male abuse and (b) the myth that females do not sexually abuse. In either case, these representations reflect the dismal and helpless situation male victims of child sexual abuse are placed in. By abusing others, Malamuth et al.'s (1991) model would suggest that the victim is able to gain back a sense of control and masculinity.

In situations where boys are victimized by other males, Duncan and Williams (1998) suggest that the victim models his behavior after the perpetrator because the perpetrator perpetuates the stereotype that a masculine role requires being forceful and aggressive. According to Malamuth et al. (1991), the victim compensates for his perceived loss of masculinity by imitating the "masculinity" exhibited by the perpetrator.

This imitation of masculinity (i.e. aggressive behavior) can be thought of as a symptom of abuse. Aside from the physical and emotional or stress related symptoms, victims' beliefs and thinking often change. Over compensating for masculinity by acting aggressive is an example of a cognitive symptom of child sexual abuse. These cognitive symptoms are deleterious in that they may direct or control stress related symptoms such as anxiety and depression to be manifested externally in aggressive behavior.

Stress-Related Versus Cognitive Symptoms

Stress-Related Symptoms

Research on child sexual abuse is often conducted on stress-related symptoms rather than on cognitive perceptions of the victim (Finkelhor, 1990). Stress-related symptoms refer to the more generic responses to stress such as depression, anxiety, fear, and the feelings and behaviors associated with aggression. Symptoms related to stress include the external behaviors as well as the internal symptoms of child sexual abuse. Though there exists a gender differentiation between internal and external symptoms of abuse (Friedrich, et al., 1988), research indicates that stress related symptoms of sexual abuse are prominent in both genders. Studies on the treatment of sexually abused girls (De Luca et al., 1995; 1993) have described the presence of stress related symptoms, which also have been reported in research on the treatment of sexually abused boys (Briggs & Hawkins, 1995; Hack, et al., 1994). Furthermore, stress-related symptoms noted in abused children (Briggs & Hawkins, 1995; De Luca et al., 1995; 1992; 1993; Hack, et al., 1994) match those found in untreated adult survivors of sexual abuse (Collings, 1995; Lisak, 1994; Romano & De Luca, 1997). Though it appears that symptoms of abuse are uniform across gender and age, gender (of both the victim and the

perpetrator), has implications for the cognitive symptoms of sexually abused individuals (Finkelhor, 1990).

Cognitive Symptoms

Cognitive symptoms refer to the attitudes, beliefs, and self-conceptions victims hold about themselves and their abuse experience as a result of their abuse (Conte, as cited in Finkelhor, 1990). For example 72 percent of victims in a University sample did not report their experiences of being sexually abused during childhood as “abuse” (Abdulrehman & De Luca, in press). Though these victims did show the enduring negative effects of their childhood sexual abuse such as lower levels of social interaction with peers and family, they still were able to function at a University level. In this case, the cognitive symptom of perceiving an abusive event as non-abusive may have served as a defense mechanism, thereby allowing the student to function at a higher level. Of course, this interpretation should not be misunderstood to suggest that cognitive symptoms positively affect the victim. For example, in a case where the victim does not perceive his abuse as negative, there may not be anything to prevent him from abusing others. In a situation where a cognitive symptom is the misperception of a situation, the resulting behavior may become problematic.

Several factors may influence victims’ perception of their abuse. In the case of date rape, the victim may convince her/himself that no abuse took place simply because the perpetrator was the same age. Abdulrehman, De Jaegher, De Luca, & La Rosa (1998) found that the closer in age the perpetrator was to the victim, the less likely the victim perceived the experience as abusive. A factor pertinent to this study is the effect gender can have on the perception of the abuse. In another study, Abdulrehman et al. (1999)

found that victims abused by female perpetrators perceived their experiences less negatively than victims abused by male perpetrators. As described earlier, if a male victim is abused by another male, this may produce a cognitive symptom where the victim feels responsible for the abuse, and bear the stigma of being homosexual. This cognitive symptom then may affect stress-related symptoms such as anxiety, stress and aggression. In accordance with Malamuth et al. (1991) and their model of sexual aggression, these feelings may manifest themselves in the culture and gender appropriate behavior of aggression, overcompensating for feelings of inferiority, and loss of masculinity.

Hypotheses

The aforementioned studies suggest that cognitive symptoms of abuse, or perceptions the victim hold after the abuse, may affect stress-related symptoms of abuse. This study examined the relationship between cognitive and stress-related symptoms directly by comparing the responses of abused and non-abused men to scenarios of sexual aggression. The primary focus of this study examined whether perceptions of abuse, based upon the gender of the perpetrator influence the victim's perception of abuse as abusive or non-abusive (cognitive symptoms) and influence the external manifestation of aggression (stress-related symptoms). For example, if a victim perceives an experience less negatively or as non-abusive, does this lower levels of aggression? Moreover, is a male victim who is abused by a male perpetrator more likely to be sexually aggressive. In light of the study conducted by Abdulrehman and De Luca (in press), they suggest that cognitive symptoms of abuse directly influence stress-related symptoms of childhood sexual abuse.

The present study examined the relationship between the stress-related symptom of aggression and the cognitive symptom or perception of abuse held by the victim. Based on the examination of abused and non-abused adult male survivors of child sexual abuse mentioned in the literature, this study hypothesized that (a) abused individuals are more likely than non-abused individuals to be sexually aggressive, (b) individuals sexually abused by males are more likely than individuals sexually abused by females to be sexually aggressive, and (c) victims who perceive their abuse experiences as non-abusive, are more likely than those who accurately perceive their experience as abusive, to be sexually aggressive.

Method

Participants

Three hundred and forty eight male introductory psychology students from the University of Manitoba were recruited for participation in this study. Experimental credit as partial course requirements was exchanged for participation in this study. Previous studies (Abdulrehman & De Luca, in press, DeJaegher & De Luca, 1997, Ternowski & De Luca, 1996) conducted with a population of males and females found that at least 20 percent of students reported having been sexually abused. These studies on average note that males constitute half of that number (i.e., 10 percent). In light of the aforementioned findings, and the with respect to the number of participants in this present study, it was expected that approximately 10 percent (35 participants) would indicate that they had experienced child sexual abuse.

Finkelhor (1979) noted some limitations with the use of a university sample. The lack of homogeneity can be viewed as a concern by some, as it does not provide

representativeness in age. Moreover, considering that this sample is functioning at a university level it may be indicative that this sample is not suffering as adverse effects of the abuse experience as those not in a university setting. In response to these concerns, Finkelhor suggested that the lack of homogeneity in age provides the opportunity to assess the effects of child sexual abuse change over time. However, since the change of effects of abuse over time does not concern this study, the homogeneity poses no problem. Also, several studies with a University sample found that participants who were victimized as children do display negative symptoms of abuse, even though they were able to function at a University level, (Abdulrehman & De Luca, in press; De Jeagher & De Luca, 1997; Finkelhor, 1979).

Widom and Ames (1994) reported that child victims of sexual abuse who do not receive treatment are at greater risk of arrest for sex crimes in adulthood. Presumably, most of the university sample is biased in this aspect because they have passed through a filter that rewards intelligence, conformity, and self-discipline (Finkelhor, 1979). However, Finkelhor (1979) stated that the homogeneity of the university population is not a large problem. He explained that if an individual were to have experienced child sexual abuse, then the individual would have already had the experience by the time he or she was in university. Also, this experience of abuse would be fresh in the minds of young adults and easier to recall. Moreover, individuals who survive child sexual abuse can be vulnerable to its effects and at the same time reach university level (Finkelhor, 1979). In addition, Finkelhor (1979) stated that the student sample is very motivated and comfortable with the sensitive subject matter.

As mentioned earlier in this study, the use of an adult university population allows the examination of the cycle of abuse by identifying current characteristics of previously abused males. Since it was expected that the participants of the present study were not likely to have been convicted for sexual aggression, an examination of the possible sexually aggressive thoughts present in previously unidentified victims of sexual abuse was present. Conviction of an aggressive offense was also examined to consolidate this assumption. By examining sexually aggressive thoughts and behaviors in non-convicted participants, it may prevent us from entering into the bias and retroactive examination of convicted perpetrators who have already perpetrated.

Materials

Two scales were used in the present study; a modified version of Finkelhor's (1979) Sexual Victimization Survey (SVS), and Fischer's (1986) Forcible Date Rape (FDR) scale. Finkelhor's SVS was used to differentiate between abused and non-abused males, to determine the gender of the perpetrator, and the victim's perception of the abuse. Fischer's FDR scale measured the participants' attitudes toward sexual aggression. A third scale, Check's Hostility Toward Women Scale (1984), was administered as means of lengthening the time spent in the experimental session by participants. This served to not isolate and identify those who took longer to fill out the SVS due to more numerous sexual experiences.

Sexual Victimization Survey. Finkelhor's Sexual Victimization Survey (see Appendix A) has often been used in research to identify an abused sample within a university population, e.g., (Abdulrehman & De Luca, in press; De Jeagher & De Luca, 1997; Ternowski & De Luca, 1996; Runtz, 1992). The survey is a modified version of the

original Finkelhor (1979) Sexual Victimization Survey. The first part of the scale recorded the demographics of the participating sample. Some of the modifications in this section included the addition of other backgrounds pertinent to the sample at the University of Manitoba, and the inclusion of additional religious affiliations. The second part of the study assessed the presence of childhood sexual experience, the extent and duration of the abuse experience, the age at which it occurred, if force or coercion was used, and the age of the perpetrator. Two distinct factors may interact to define an experience as sexual abuse in this study. In light of the understanding that sexual abuse is considered more an act of control and dominance rather than sexuality (Finkelhor, 1979), the present study defined abuse respectively. An experience was considered sexual abuse when (a) the behavior was due to force, coercion, or power of one individual over another and/or (b) the perpetrator was 5 or more years older than the child (Browne & Finkelhor, 1986).

Of particular interest to the present study, this survey also asked the participant to report the gender of their perpetrator, as well as whether they (the victim) perceived their involvement with the perpetrator as abusive or non-abusive. The original form, which sub-sectioned the experiences of the participant into different age groups, was simplified. For example, the original form asked the participant if abuse had occurred before the age of 7, or from the ages of 7-12, and so on. Then participants would have had to explain the extent of the abuse, the age of the perpetrator, etc., within each age range in which they reported abuse experiences. The modified version of the scale included only one section in which age is not specified. The items that followed in that section allowed participants to explain their abuse experiences, the age of onset, as well as the age of the perpetrator.

The survey consisted of a mixture of open-ended and forced-choice questions that were indicative of childhood sexual experiences. No reliability or validity scores were reported for this survey, but Runtz (1992) found a Cronbach's Alpha of .90, with the University of Manitoba introductory psychology students. The reliability score for the university population should be generalizable to the current University of Manitoba sample.

Forcible Date Rape Scale. Fischer's FDR scale (see Appendix B) was used to determine attitudes toward date rape. The scale is comprised of a vignette (describing a date rape scenario), two accompanying questions, and 9 separate Likert-scale questions. For the purpose of this study, the two questions following the vignette were not included. Considering that these first two questions directly refer to the vignette as that of a possible "rape" scenario, a social desirability bias could occur in the responses of the participants. The following 9 likert questions pose conditions, which asked when the male's behavior in the above example was considered acceptable. For example, the first of these nine items states, "If he had spent a lot of money on her." The choices ranged from (a) definitely acceptable to (f) definitely unacceptable. These latter 9 questions did not mention the word "rape" and their inconspicuous nature would likely have prevented socially desirable responses. Scores of the participants were then averaged; where by the lower the score, the more tolerant the participant is toward sexual aggression.

Fischer (1986, 1987) tested the FDR scale with a sample of college students. His findings indicate that the scale was successful in identifying sexually aggressive thoughts and predicting sexually coercive behavior. Reliability of this scale is also reported to be high (.93). The reliability of the sample of the proposed study should be similar considering that Fischer's sample was also comprised of college students.

Hostility Towards Women Scale. Designed by Check (1984) the Hostility Toward Women Scale consists of 30 true and false items that discretely examine the respondents' hostility toward women (see Appendix C). The Hostility Toward Women Scale had two purposes; the first of which had application for the present study. Considering that males without sexual experience would have completed the scales much sooner than those who had sexual experience (simply because they likely had more to report on the SVS), this may have inadvertently identified those who been abused, or those who had been sexually active. In order to maintain the anonymity of the abused participants, the Hostility Towards Women Scale was added to increase the time spent by both abused and non-abused participants during the experimental sessions. This action prevented those who had more experiences to report from being easily identified. The second purpose of this scale was to assess the differences in hostility toward women between abused and non-abused males. The results of the analysis of the differences present in the hostility scale are to presented in future research.

Debriefing Sheet. The debriefing sheet was attached to the end of the study, and explained the purpose of the study to the participants. The debriefing sheet used by Abdulrehman & De Luca (in press) was modified (see Appendix D) to accommodate the purpose of this study. Phone numbers for social service centers were included for participants who wished to seek help regarding their previous or concurrent abuse experience.

Consent Form. Before the participants agreed to participate, the purpose of the study was clearly delineated for them on the consent form (see Appendix E). The form explained the details of informed consent, and that the participant had the right to

withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

Procedure

During recruitment, participants were informed that the purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between early sexual experiences and adult sexual attitudes. The term sexual experience was intentionally substituted for sexual abuse, as the majority of individuals do not perceive their experiences as abusive (Abdulrehman & De Luca, in press), and thus do not identify themselves as victims (Finkelhor, 1979). Participants were informed during recruitment and when filling out the surveys that the information they provided is completely confidential, and would be treated appropriately. Participants were also informed that participation was optional and they had the right to discontinue participation at any time without penalty.

At the experimental session, participants had placed on their desk the two scales, a debriefing sheet, two IBM answer sheets and one envelope. Only the FDR scale and the accompanying IBM sheet remained outside the envelope, and were completed first. Each set of surveys and IBM sheets had on them a number. Participants were informed that the number was solely for enumeration purposes, rather than identification. Again, they were informed of the anonymity of the surveys. Though participants were required to complete their answers on the IBM sheets, they were asked to write their answers for the open-ended questions directly on the questionnaire. The participants were informed that once they had completed the first survey, they should place it and the accompanying IBM sheet in the envelope and then work on the following survey. The SVS was completed last because the last item was indicative of the fact that the study concerned sexual abuse. The knowledge of this fact prior to the completion of the surveys could have

inadvertently lead the participant to respond in a way he believed abused or non-abused individuals would respond. In order to avoid a similar bias, the headings of the FDR scale and SVS were replaced by the headings, Part 1 and Part 2, respectively. Upon the completion of the sections, participants were asked to the surveys into the envelope and seal it. They were asked to place the package and the consent form (in separate piles) on the front desk as they left, and to pick up a debriefing sheet (see Appendix C) upon their departure.

Results

Of the total 348 male psychology students that participated in this study, 320 participants' responses were included in the final analyses. Occurrence of the independent variable, child sexual abuse, was assessed via participants' responses on the SVS. Twenty-eight participants in total had incomplete responses or indicated experiences where they appeared to coerce their partner to engage in sexual relations, and were not included in the final analysis because they did not conform to the criteria of any of the outlined groups examined by this research. Due to a surprisingly large percentage of participants ($n = 40$, 12.4%) who indicated they were convinced to participate in sexual acts (where no significant age difference, position of power, or other use of coercion was present), a third group labeled as "convinced" was created. According to Finkelhor's (1979) criteria of abuse with the original SVS, participants of the "convinced group" in this study would have been considered abused. However, due to changes made on certain items to more clearly delineate the presence of abuse experiences, validity of the item assessing if the victim was "convinced" may have been compromised. In order to remain conservative this group was first compared with the abused group by way of a

t-test in order to discern whether the convinced and abused group should be collapsed into a single category. The remaining sample of 280 participants consisted of 29 (9.06 %) abused participants and 251 (78 %) non-abused participants.

Finkelhor's (1979) original criteria for sexual abuse (those employed in this study) state that if an age difference of more than five years between the perpetrator and the victim, and/or a position of power of one individual over the other, and/or force, threat, hurt, or coercion were present, then abuse had occurred. On these bases, it appeared that the abused and convinced group should be collapsed into one larger abused group. As stated above, in order to remain conservative, a t-test was conducted to examine the differences between the abused and convinced group; before the two groups were collapsed into one. Despite the conservative modifications made to the SVS, no significant difference was apparent between the abused ($M = 4.21$) and convinced group ($M = 4.32$), $p = .603$.

If the "convinced" item on the SVS was not perceived correctly as coercion, by participants, then the validity of the item would have to be questioned along with the merging of the abused and convinced group. In a study with a University sample, Rothman (1999) further examined the validity of the "convinced" item on the SVS. The analysis of Rothman's study examined whether abused participants who indicated that they were "convinced" to participate in sexual activity, perceived the term "convinced" less severely than abused participants who indicated that they had been "hurt physically", "forced", or "threatened" into participating in sexual activity. By comparing the convinced victims to those who were hurt, forced or threatened, on a measure of distress, findings presented by Rothman (1999) suggested that due to insignificant differences

between the groups, abused individuals who were convinced perceived the term as negatively as the terms “hurt physically”, “forced”, or “threatened” were perceived by victims who indicated they were hurt, forced, or threatened into participating in sexual activity. In response to the findings presented in the above two paragraphs, the abused and convinced groups were collapsed into one abused group.

Of the total 69 abused participants, only 11 (15.9 %) were abused by other males, while 57 (82.6%) were abused by females. One participant did not respond to the item that questioned the gender of the perpetrator. Moreover, only 8 (11.6 %) of the abused participants perceived their abuse experiences as abusive; 61 (88.4 %) did not perceive their abuse experience as abusive.

As expected, cell sizes of this sample were grossly unequal (see Table 1). Two General Linear Model (GLM) Analyses of Variances (ANOVA), which took into account the uneven sample sizes, were conducted to compare participants' responses on the FDR. The significance level for this study was set at $p < .05$. The first GLM ANOVA, which examined the differences between abused and non-abused participants, revealed no significant differences on the measure of sexual aggression (see Table 1). The second GLM ANOVA assessed the factors that differentiated sexual aggression, within the sexually abused group. The GLM ANOVA also assessed interaction effects between items. The findings of this analysis revealed that although no differences of sexual aggression were found between those who perceived their experiences differently (see Table 1), a trend was apparent between victims of males ($M = 3.94$) and victims of females ($M = 4.33$), $p = .089$. Those victimized by males presented scores on the FDR

that were indicative of a greater tolerance toward sexual aggression, than those abused by females.

A chi-square was also conducted within the abused group to determine if there was any association between gender perpetrator and the perception their victims held about their abuse experiences (see Table 2). Results indicated, that although there was a tendency for most male victims, regardless of perpetrator gender, to perceive their experiences as non-abusive, it was more likely for victims of females to perceive their abuse as non-abusive, $\chi^2(1, N = 68) = .335, p < .005$.

Due to the large number of female perpetrators, several demographic characteristics were examined to further understand the nature of these offenders. Of the abused participants, 53 reported their age at the time of the abuse, and the age of the perpetrator, and 55 noted their relation to the offender. The mean age of the female perpetrator was $M=14.42$, and the mean age of their male victim was $M=12.85$. Of the perpetrators, 26.3 percent were younger than the victim, 21.1 percent were the same age as the victim, and 45.8 percent were older than the victim. A frequency table of the relation the female victim had with the male victim (see Table 3), denotes that the majority of male victims considered the offender to be either a girlfriend (35.1 %), or a friend (28.1 %). Moreover, the female offenders, as reported by their victims, were more likely to coerce, or convince their victims (84.2 %) than they were to threaten (8.8 %), force (12.3 %), or hurt (8.8 %) them (see Table 4).

Discussion

Results of the analyses supported one of the three proposed hypotheses. A trend in the findings revealed that victims of male perpetrators are more likely than victims of

female perpetrators, to be sexually aggressive. The hypotheses suggesting a difference in sexual aggression as indicated on the variables of presence of abuse, and perception of abuse experience were not supported. The following discussion will address the findings of the proposed hypotheses, in the order they were initially proposed, and possible explanations for the results. Myths and cultural biases about male victimization and female perpetration will also be discussed.

Abuse Versus Non-Abused

Although recent research suggests a difference in sexual aggression between abused and non-abused males (Collings, 1995; Etherington, 1995; Lisak, 1994; Malamuth, et al., 1991; Worling, 1995), the results of this study did not support that assumption. Although mean differences existed between these groups, these difference was not large enough produce a trend (see Table 1). Unfortunately research on abused males is sparse (Lab, Feigenbaum, & De Silva, 2000). This makes a comparison of empirical findings difficult. In the few articles that examine behavior problems, a difference between abused and non-abused males is noted. Garfneski & Diekstra (1997) found that adolescent boys with histories of child sexual abuse have higher rates of behavioral problems than non-abused boys. Several other studies also noted behavior problems in sexually abused males (Awad & Saunders, 1991; Finkelhor, 1990; Ray & English, 1995). Sexual aggression in survivors of sexual abuse has also been noted. Holmes (1997) and Worling (1995) noted that children with histories of child sexual abuse do have symptoms of aggression in adulthood. Certain factors, however, may have affected the results of the present study.

As suggested by Malamuth et al. (1991) symptoms of abuse such as aggression manifest themselves in gender appropriate and culturally appropriate outlets. For example, Malamuth and his colleagues stated that because it is socially acceptable for males to display aggression, male victims of sexual abuse would be able to display their symptoms of aggression more easily than female victims of sexual abuse. In the case of the sample examined in this study, the university environment may have acted as a cultural filter through which the participants of the present study responded to the FDR. This cultural filter present in the university environment may have acted positively or negatively. Positive effects of a cultural filter include the educational efforts present in schools and universities in North America, which may have minimized some of the negative sequelae of child sexual abuse. Also, due to the acceptance of a more sexually aggressive environment on college and university campuses, cultural bias may have served negatively if non-abused males were as accepting of sexual aggression as victims of sexual abuse.

Considering that this study was conducted with a university sample, certain aspects of socialization of this sample may have offset the results. Since this study was examining tolerance toward sexual aggression, there are two specific socialization effects that may have interfered. Abused males may be responding in a socially desirable way, considering the attention the media and educational systems have been paying to date rape (Hilton, Harris, Rice, Krans, & Lavigne, 1998). Secondly, due to the social acceptance of excessive alcohol consumption and a more aggressive sexual environment present in universities (Osman & Davis, 1999), non-abused participants may have displayed more of a tolerance for sexual aggression. Since the FDR used a scenario

involving date rape and alcohol, both of the factors noted above may have contributed in minimizing the differences between abused and non-abused participants.

In an examination of mental health professionals asking male clients about histories of sexual abuse, Lab, et al. (2000) found that about one third of these practitioners never inquired about histories of child sexual abuse with their male clients/patients, while two thirds asked about child abuse experiences only occasionally. Lab and her colleagues explained that many professionals did not ask male clients about histories of sexual abuse due to strong myths about male victimization present in our society. Myths discussed by Lab and her colleagues, are that males are more likely to be the oppressor in an abuse situation, and secondly, that if abuse did occur, the male was not likely to be scarred by the experience. These myths are not exclusive to non-victims of abuse, but are also likely to be present in male victims themselves. In order to avert feelings of lost masculinity and control male victims may readily believe these myths as a defense mechanism (Cermak & Molidor, 1996; Hack, et al., 1994). As noted by Abdulrehman & De Luca (in press), false beliefs taken as defense mechanisms by abuse victims may serve to alter their feelings and sometimes their behavior. Although the majority of victims in the study by Abdulrehman & De Luca (in press) did not perceive their abuse as abuse, and despite their symptoms of social inadequacy, they were able to function at a University level of education. Considering that the male victims in the present study also were able to function at a higher level of education, the finding that 87 percent of abuse victims maintained the same false perception as did the majority in the aforementioned research, may account for a defense mechanism. Another finding that may suggest the presence of defense mechanisms is that 58 percent of the abused sample

considered themselves to only be convinced into participating. Despite the fact that they were abused, perhaps considering oneself to be merely “convinced” helps the victim’s perception of control in the situation to be higher.

Victims of Males Versus Victims of Females

Contrary to previous assumptions about the ratio of male to female perpetrators (Bruinsma, 1995; Faller, 1989; Oliver, Hall, & Neuhaus; 1993; Worling, 1995), the majority of male victims in this study were victimized by females. As was stated in the introduction of the present study, it is expected that because most perpetrators are male, most male victims are therefore victimized by male offenders (Bruinsma, 1995; Faller, 1989; Oliver, et al., 1993; Worling, 1995). A further review of research revealed that although most of the perpetrators are male, females abuse the majority of male victims. In two separate samples, Fromuth and Burkhart (1989) noted that 60 and 70 percent, respectively, of male victims were sexually abused by females. In an examination of symptomatology of incarcerated sexually aggressive males, 62 percent had been victimized by female perpetrators (Romano & De Luca, 1997). Findings such as these confront myths of sexual perpetrators, and warrant further empirical research.

A difference between victims of male and female perpetrators was present as a trend, where victims of male offenders displayed a greater tolerance for sexual aggression than victims of female offenders. Although the results do not support the assumption that most abused males are abused by other males, they do lend credibility to the hypothesis that males abused by other males are more likely to be sexually aggressive than are males abused by females. According to the previously cited assumptions (Malamuth, et al., 1991) presented in recent literature, it may be that a perceived loss of control and

masculinity cause male victims of male perpetrators to identify with the aggressor role in order to gain a sense of control. Despite the concordance this finding has with cited research, it does not fit with Romano & De Luca's (1997) finding that male inmates incarcerated for sexually aggressive crimes were abused by females during their childhood. This contradiction is typical in research on abused males, as empirical studies on the topic are only recently emerging (Lab, et al., 2000). Contradictions of this sort can be attributed to limited empirical findings on male victims, and cultural stereotypes as well as false perceptions regarding gender and its relation to victimization and perpetration (Lab, et al, 2000).

Perception as Abused Versus Perception as Non-Abused

No difference was found on the variable of sexual aggression, between those who perceived their abuse as abuse, and those that did not. The findings thus far show that the male victims in this study were mostly abused by women, and further suggested that those victims were less likely to display symptoms of sexual aggression. Considering the aforementioned findings, with the finding that victims of females perceive their experience less negatively than victims of males (Abdulrehman, et al, 1999), it would make sense that the male victims in our study, would in general display low levels of tolerance toward sexual aggression.

The finding that 87 percent of male victims did not perceive their experiences as abusive is a startling finding. As noted by Abdulrehman & De Luca (in press), this may represent a defense mechanism utilized by the victims. As an additional Chi-square analysis revealed, these perceptions or defense mechanisms, may be influenced by gender of the perpetrator (see Table 2). Though it appears that the majority of the university male

sample assessed have a tendency to view their abuse as non-abusive, it is more likely that victims of female perpetrators present this perception than victims of male perpetrators. Once again, the finding that victims of female offenders perceive their experiences to be less negative than victims whose perpetrators are male, lends support to this finding (Abdulrehman et al., 1999).

As is generally the problem in studies examining male victims (Lab, et al., 2000), cell sizes (e.g. male victims vs. female victims, male perpetrators vs. female perpetrators, etc.) are often unequal. Considering that the observed power for this analysis was low, .06, and the cell sizes for this analysis grossly unequal, a more balanced sample may have produced different results. A randomly matched control sample may help in producing comparable results between abuse and gender categories.

Profile of the Perpetrators

Surprisingly, this study noted that the majority of perpetrators were female. Though findings denote that female perpetrators have offended against more than 50 percent of male victims (Fromuth and Burkhart 1989; Romano & De Luca, 1997), the present study notes a much higher ratio of female to male perpetrators. A profile examination of the characteristics of these female offenders revealed that although the majority of them were older than the victim, the difference was negligible enough for the victim to consider the offender a peer. As found by Abdulrehman and colleagues (1999), this is further validation that the closer in age the perpetrator is to the victim, and if the perpetrator is of the opposite gender, the more likely the victim is to perceive the abuse as non-abusive. In fact, the examination of perpetrators in the present study further revealed that most victims considered their perpetrators to be either a girlfriend or a friend.

Violating cultural stereotypes about gender sex roles, this finding implies that females are not only capable of date rape but that the incidence of female perpetrating is higher than previously thought. The excessively high number of female perpetrators however, may be inaccurate. Due to the stigma of homosexuality present in male victims of male perpetrators (Cermak & Molidor, 1996; Duncan & Williams, 1998), it may be speculated that a certain portion of male victims in the present study intentionally indicated that their perpetrators were female when in reality they were male. Examples of a few participants' responses that raise suspicion are where perpetrator gender appeared to have been marked as male, but then erased and marked as female, and when gender of the perpetrator was not answered at all. This possible biased reporting of perpetrator gender is unlikely however, as revealed by an analysis of force used by the so-called female perpetrators. Ray and English (1995) found that a male perpetrator is more likely than a female perpetrator to use force and aggression to get his victim to comply with his wishes. More importantly, Ray and English (1995) and Finkelhor (1984) found that a female offender is less likely to use aggression, but more likely to be coercive in her attempt to make her victim comply. The perpetrators in the present study rarely used force and aggression. Instead, the large majority of perpetrators "convinced" or coerced their male victims into participating in sexual activity. Thus it is unlikely that the male victims in this study incorrectly reported the gender of the perpetrator. Though these findings do not comply readily with the majority of findings on female perpetrators, they are likely valid and thereby requisition further research on female perpetrators of sexual abuse.

Though it appears unlikely that the participants in this study incorrectly reported the gender of their "perpetrator", it may be likely that the interpretation of the term

“convinced” on the SVS was not perceived as coercive in a forceful way by the participants of the present study. Although Rothman (1999) reports high reliability for the “convinced” item on the SVS, his results do not exclusively apply to male victims of female perpetrators. In the present study a large percentage of male victims considered their female “perpetrators” to be either a friend or a girlfriend, where the age difference between the two was minimal. Such a finding calls into question whether the female “perpetrators” did possess a position of power over their male “victims”. Moreover, the “convinced” item on the SVS can be questioned for its reliability with male “victims” of female “perpetrators”. The above assumption can be supported by the finding that most female sexual perpetrators will abuse younger children rather than teenagers due to the greater power they would possess in a situation with younger children (Margolin, 1991; Rudin, Zalewski, & Bodmer-Turner, 1995). Considering that the majority of male “victims” were peers to their female “perpetrators” in this study, this may have removed the element of a power differential between the perpetrator and victim from the abuse scenario. Hence, it may be likely that the actual percentage of abuse cases where the female perpetrator had power over the male victim in the sample used in the present study is slightly lower.

Due to the complexities present in determining power differentials in the male victim/female perpetrator relationship, the inherent flaws and biases present with small sample studies, and findings of previous studies claiming female perpetrators are in the minority when compared to male perpetrators, it is imperative that caution be taken in the interpretation of the results of the present study (Grayston & De Luca, 1999). Furthermore, it is in the interest of the present study not to enter into a cultural bias by

minimizing the presence of female perpetrators and male victims. The ambiguities in the interpretation of aberrantly high rates of female “perpetrators” alone warrants further research. For example, in many abuse scenarios it is often the male perpetrator that has power over the female victim, unless the female perpetrator is of a significantly greater age than her male victim is. As suggested by Grayston & De Luca (1999), due to the narrow knowledge base regarding female sexual offenders, definitive conclusions from data must be avoided, and results of data concerning this population are best interpreted as tentative until further research can consolidate the findings.

Myths and Steps Toward Future Research

It is noted by current researchers that the effect of child sexual abuse on males has been greatly neglected until recently (Briggs & Hawkins, 1995; Cermak & Molidor, 1996; Hack, et al., 1994; Lab et al., 2000). Yet, in an examination of the publications from the journal *Child Abuse and Neglect*, from February to October of the year 2000 only one of the 83 articles reviewed dealt directly with male victimization. The noted underreporting of male victims (Cermak & Molidor, 1996) likely reflects the myths and stereotypes regarding victims and perpetrators of child sexual abuse. While the research and treatment of sexually abused girls is strongly warranted and needed, cultural biases of the male and female gender roles often minimize the effect of trauma that males experience. Sepler (1990, as cited in Lab et al., 2000) dubbed the outcome of this cultural stereotype as the “feminization of victimization”. Undoubtedly, this cultural bias also perpetuates another stereotype; i.e., females are often incapable of abusing others. The finding of the present study, and those presented by others (Fromuth & Burkhart, 1989; Romano & De Luca, 1997) would suggest that women abuse a majority of male victims.

The false perception that only males perpetrate sexual abuse was termed the “masculinization of oppression” by Mendel (1995, as cited in Lab et al., 2000). These stereotypes may be largely responsible for the underreporting of male victims and female perpetrators in our society.

In a study examining the attitudes of mental health professionals toward male childhood sexual victimization, Lab et al. (2000) found that only 3 percent always ask male patients about histories of sexual abuse. Also, 33 percent of the professionals never ask about histories of abuse, while the remainder of the professionals asked about histories of abuse occasionally. In support of Holmes, et al.’s, (1997) hypothesis, a major contributor to the low rates of reported male victimization is due to professionals not asking their patients about sexual victimization. As discussed by Lab et al. (2000), one reason why histories of abuse are not questioned in males is that it contradicts the societal view that men are dominant, and active in terms of the initiation of sexual activity. To make matters worse, Lab et al. noted that popular culture often portrays sexual encounters with an older woman to be a fantasy for young males. These stereotypes not only minimize the belief non-abused individuals may hold about male sexual victimization, but may also affect the victim’s perception of their own abuse. As noted by Broussard et al. (1991) and Blanchard (1986), the views of society, often become the views of the victims of abuse. In the case of the sample examined in the present study, this effect is clearly noted. Not only are victims more likely to view their experiences as non-abusive, but male victims of female perpetrators are more likely than victims of male perpetrators to incorrectly perceive the negative nature of their experience as less or not negative.

It seems clearly evident that victims of female abusers are more negatively affected than victims of male abusers. Once again, these findings are analogous to previous research that notes male perpetrators to perceive their experience more negatively (Abdulrehman, et al., 1999). Again, due to cultural stereotypes of masculinity, the violation that occurs during male to male abuse leaves the victim feeling more helpless and less in control (Duncan & Williams, 1998; Hussey, Strom, & Singer, 1992; Faller, 1989). These feelings of lost masculinity conflict with what the victim has been socialized to feel; control. Also, the stigma of the homosexual encounter would make it less likely that the victim would report the abuse (Cermak & Molidor, 1996; Duncan & Williams, 1998). As suggested by the model of sexual aggression by Malamuth et al. (1991), hypothesized by Holmes, Offen, & Waller (1997), and the findings of this study, the victim may then feel the need to assert his masculinity by identifying with the perpetrator and becoming sexually aggressive in his future relations.

Aside from the moderate correlation that gender of the perpetrator had on the level of tolerance toward sexual aggression in adulthood, several other findings have been reasserted. First, the numbers of male victims of sexual abuse are higher than initially thought to be. Secondly, female perpetrators and not male perpetrators reportedly abused the majority of male victims in this study. In addition to the above, it was also noted that victims whose perpetrators were male were more likely to be tolerant of sexually aggressive behaviors. Victims whose perpetrators were female were more likely to view their experiences as non-abusive. The present study identifies the need for further research into the victimization of males. Cermak & Mollidor (1996) surmised that further research in this area will (a) provide more accurate statistics on the incidence of male

childhood sexual victimization, (b) provide more attention to this neglected area of study, and (c) educate clinicians and mental health professionals on how to recognize and treat sexually abused boys and males.

The findings of this study hinge on the concept of culturally biased gender roles and stereotypes. Not only can these stereotypes drastically alter a victim's perception of his abuse, but they can also affect the degree of tolerance the victim of abuse has towards sexual aggression. More concerning is Lab, et al.'s (2000) finding that these stereotypes can cause mental health practitioners to avoid the issue of male childhood sexual victimization. In the same manner that education prevents the cycle of abuse from continuing by mending the perceptions altered (e.g. loss of masculinity) by the victim's abuse experience (De Luca, et al., 1992; 1993; Hack et al., 1994), research findings may help change the perceptions held by mental health practitioners about male sexual victimization. In light of the ever growing problem of male victims and the cycle of abuse, further research is warranted.

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Appendix A

Sexual Victimization Survey

Please write your age at the top of the first IBM sheet and begin answering Question 1 on the IBM sheet Number 1.

Part I (Demographic information is collected for statistical purposes only)

1) Sex: Female = 1 Male = 2

2) Marital Status:

single = 1

married or living as married = 2

separated or divorced = 3

other = 4

3) Year in program at university: (e.g., 1, 2, or 3,...)

4) Living arrangements:

with parents = 1

alone = 2

with friends or other family = 3

with spouse or partner = 4

residence = 5

5) Number of children in your family, including yourself, even if you don't live with them now.

one = 1 two = 2 three = 3 four = 4 five or more = 5

6) In your family, are you

the only child = 1

the youngest child = 2

in the middle = 3

the oldest = 4

7) Estimate yearly family income when you were 18 years and younger.

<\$10,000/yr. = 1

\$10-19,000/yr. = 2

\$20-29,000/yr. = 3

\$30-39,000/yr. = 4

>\$40,000/yr. = 5

8) Estimated size of the town or city you lived in the longest when you were 18 years of age or younger.

farm or town of 10,000 people or less = 1

11-50,000 people = 2

51,150,000 people = 3

151-300,000 people = 4

more than 300,000 people = 5

9) In what religion were you raised ?

Roman Catholic = 1

Eastern Orthodox = 2

Episcopalian = 3

Congregationalist = 4

Methodist = 5

Presbyterian = 6

Other Protestant = 7 _____

Judaism = 8

Islam = 9

Traditional Aboriginal Spirituality = 10

Hinduism = 11

Buddhism = 12

Other Eastern = 13 _____

Agnostic = 14

No religion = 15

Other = 16 _____

10) What is your predominant ethnic background (choose no more than 2):

Irish = 1

Italian = 2

German = 3

French-Canadian = 4

Polish = 5

Other Eastern European = 6

Asian = 7

Spanish = 8

English = 9

Scottish = 10

Aboriginal = 11

Philippino = 12

African = 13

Middle Eastern = 14

Ukranian = 15

Other = 16 _____

Part II (Child Sexual Abuse Scale)

It is now generally realized that most people have sexual experiences as children and while they are still growing up. Some of these experiences are with friends and playmates, and some with relatives and family members. Some are very upsetting and painful, and some are not. Some influence people's later lives and sexual experiences, and some are practically forgotten. Although these are often important events, very little

is actually known about them.

We would like you to try to remember the sexual experiences you had while growing up. Please indicate yes or no for the following questions with regard to any sexual experiences you had during childhood (up to the age of 17) with someone else.

YES = 1 NO = 2

11. An invitation or request to do something sexual.
12. Kissing or hugging in a sexual way.
13. Another person showing his/her sex organs to you.
14. You showing your sex organs to another person.
15. Another person fondling you in a sexual way.
16. You fondling another person in a sexual way.
17. Another person touching your sex organs.
18. You touching another persons sex organs.
19. Attempting intercourse (oral, anal, or vaginal).
20. Intercourse (oral, anal, or vaginal).

If you answered no to all questions from 11 to 20, then you don't have to complete the rest of the form.

If you answered yes to any the of questions 11 to 20, then please continue to answer the following questions.

If any of the above experiences occurred with more than one individual, then answer the following questions with the experience that seems most significant to you.

**PLEASE WRITE YOUR ANSWERS TO THE NEXT 3 QUESTIONS (a to c)
IN THE SPACE PROVIDED BELOW.**

a) How old were you the first time this happened? _____

b) How old was the other person, the first time it
happened? _____

c) Was the other person:

a stranger _____

an acquaintance _____

a friend of yours _____

a friend of your parents _____

your father or mother _____

your grandfather/grandmother _____

your stepfather/stepmother _____

your boyfriend/ girl friend _____

your uncle or aunt _____

your brother or sister _____

your cousin _____

your neighbor _____

your teacher _____

you baby-sitter _____

other (specify) _____

NOW CONTINUE TO ANSWER ON THE IBM SHEET

21. Was the other person: male = 1 female = 2

22. For how long would you estimate that this sexual behavior continued? (Answer for the most appropriate category.)

- happened over one day of a few days = 1
- happened over a period of a few weeks = 2
- happened over a period of a few months = 3
- happened over a period of a few years = 4
- happened over a period of many years = 5

23. How many times would you estimate that this sexual behavior occurred?

- only once or twice = 1
- from 3-10 times = 2
- from 11-25 times = 3
- from 25-50 times = 4
- more than 50 times = 5

Using the following scale, indicate if the other person ever

YES = 1 NO = 2

24. threatened you verbally

25. forced you physically

26. hurt you physically

27. convinced you to participate

28. Looking back at this experience now, would you say this experience was

positive 1...2...3...4...5 negative

29. How confident do you feel about your memory of this experience?

not very confident 1...2...3...4...5 very confident

30. Do you feel that you were sexually abused as a child?

yes = 1 no = 2

31. Have you ever been convicted of any offenses of an aggressive nature under the criminal code?

yes = 1 no = 2

Appendix B

Forcible Date Rape Scale

Read the following scenario:

A male and female college student go out on a date. Afterward, they go to his apartment and sit in front of the fireplace for a while and sip a glass of wine. He kisses her and, even though she resists his advances, uses his superior strength to force her to have sexual intercourse.

For each of the conditions in items 1 to 9 below, indicate how acceptable you consider the male's behavior in the above scenario, and mark your answers on your IBM sheet.

1. If he had spent a lot of money on her, his behavior was:

- 1 = Definitely acceptable
- 2 = Mildly acceptable
- 3 = Not sure
- 4 = Mildly unacceptable
- 5 = Definitely unacceptable

2. If she had gotten him sexually excited, his behavior was:

- 1 = Definitely acceptable
- 2 = Mildly acceptable
- 3 = Not sure
- 4 = Mildly unacceptable
- 5 = Definitely unacceptable

3. If she let him touch her breasts, his behavior was:

- 1 = Definitely acceptable
- 2 = Mildly acceptable
- 3 = Not sure
- 4 = Mildly unacceptable
- 5 = Definitely unacceptable

4. If they had dated each other for a long time, his behavior was:

- 1 = Definitely acceptable
- 2 = Mildly acceptable
- 3 = Not sure
- 4 = Mildly unacceptable
- 5 = Definitely unacceptable

5. If she was drunk, his behavior was:

- 1 = Definitely acceptable
- 2 = Mildly acceptable
- 3 = Not sure
- 4 = Mildly unacceptable
- 5 = Definitely unacceptable

6. If she was going to have intercourse with him and then changed her mind,
his behavior was:

- 1 = Definitely acceptable
- 2 = Mildly acceptable
- 3 = Not sure
- 4 = Mildly unacceptable
- 5 = Definitely unacceptable

7. If she had intercourse with other males, his behavior was:

- 1 = Definitely acceptable
- 2 = Mildly acceptable
- 3 = Not sure
- 4 = Mildly unacceptable
- 5 = Definitely unacceptable

8. If she led him on, his behavior was:

1 = Definitely acceptable

2 = Mildly acceptable

3 = Not sure

4 = Mildly unacceptable

5 = Definitely unacceptable

9. If he was so sexually excited he couldn't stop, his behavior was:

1 = Definitely acceptable

2 = Mildly acceptable

3 = Not sure

4 = Mildly unacceptable

5 = Definitely unacceptable

Appendix C

Hostility Toward Women Scale

Instructions: THIS IS ONE OF A NUMBER OF QUESTIONAIRES DESIGNED TO ASSESS MEN'S AND WOMEN'S RELATIONS AND FEELINGS TOWARD EACHOTHER. THIS PARTICULAR FORM ASSESSES MALES' FEELING TOWARD FEMALES. THUS ALL OF THE STATEMENTS ON THIS PAGE REFER TO WOMEN. PLEASE READ EACH STATEMENT CAREFULLY AND CIRCLE "T" (True) IF IT APPLIES TO YOU OR IF YOU AGREE WITH THE STATEMENT. CIRCLE "F" (False) IF THE STATEMENT DOES NOT APPLY TO YOU OF IF YOU DISAGREE WITH IT.

1. I feel that many times women flirt with men just to tease them or hurt them. (T or F)
2. I feel upset even by slight criticism by a woman. (T or F)
3. It doesn't really bother me when women tease me about my faults. (T or F)
4. I used to think that most women told the truth, but now I know otherwise. (T or F)
5. I do not believe that women will walk all over you if you aren't willing to fight.
(T or F)
6. I do not often find myself disagreeing with women. (T or F)
7. I do very few things to women that make me feel remorseful afterward. (T or F)
8. I rarely become suspicious with women who are more friendly than I expected.
(T or F)
9. There are a number of females who seem to dislike me very much. (T or F)
10. I don't agree that women always seem to get the breaks. (T or F)

11. I don't seem to get what's coming to me in my relationships with women. (T or F)
12. I generally don't get really angry when a woman makes fun of me. (T or F)
13. Women irritate me a great deal more than they are aware of. (T or F)
14. If I let women see the way I feel, they would probably consider me a hard person to get along with. (T or F)
15. Lately, I've been kind of grouchy with women. (T or F)
16. I think that most women would not lie to get ahead. (T or F)
17. It is safer not to trust women. (T or F)
18. When it really comes down to it a lot of women are deceitful. (T or F)
19. I am not easily angered by a woman. (T or F)
20. I often feel that women probably think I have not lived the right kind of life. (T or F)
21. I never have hostile feelings that make me feel ashamed of myself later. (T or F)
22. Many times a woman appears to care, but just wants to use you. (T or F)
23. I am sure I get a raw deal from the women in my life. (T or F)
24. I don't usually wonder what hidden reason a woman may have for doing something nice for me. (T or F)
25. If women had not had it in for me I would have been more successful in my personal relations with them. (T or F)
26. I never have the feeling that women laugh about me. (T or F)
27. Very few women talk about me behind my back. (T or F)
28. When I look back at what's happened to me I don't feel at all resentful toward the women in my life. (T or F)
29. I never sulk when a woman makes me angry. (T or F)

30. I have been rejected by too many women in my life. (T or F)

Appendix D

Debriefing Sheet

(as modified from Abdulrehman & De Luca, in press)

As mentioned at the beginning of the study, we were interested in the experiences you had as a child. Some of the questions were very personal and perhaps painful to remember. We want to reassure you that your answers are totally anonymous and that there is no way that you can be identified. Also, your answers will be totally confidential and only the examiner will have access to them. Lastly, all the answers from all the participants will be grouped together for analysis; so, individual answers will not be reported.

The aim of the present study was to assess the relationship between early sexual experience and adult attitudes toward rape. In particular, we wanted to denote which factors in your early sexual experiences would lead an individual to be tolerant toward sexual aggression.

Please do not discuss the nature of this study with anyone else who has not completed the questionnaire yet. If you have questions or issues you would like to discuss concerning this study, please contact Rehman Abdulrehman (474-9338). If you have any personal issues which you would like to discuss, feel free to contact the following resources: Klinik (786-8686), Student Counseling (474-8592), and the Psychological Service Center (474-9222). Thank you very much for your participation in our study. Your input was greatly appreciated.

Rehman Y. Abdulrehman, M. A. Student

Rayleen V. De Luca, Ph. D.

Department of Psychology

University of Manitoba

Appendix E

Consent to Participate

Dear Student:

We would like to ask you to participate in a study of attitudes and early experiences by filling out this questionnaire. Some of the items on the questionnaire are very personal. Because they are personal, social scientists have been reluctant to investigate them in the past. If, however, researchers are to help families and society become healthier environments for living and growing up, if we are to help answer questions about important social and family issues, such as parent-child relationships, sex education, child abuse, and so forth, we need to know more about these personal things.

We hope, with this in mind, and the knowledge that everything you answer here is completely anonymous, that you will decide to participate. Please remember that you are under no obligation to participate, however. As much as we would like your cooperation, you should feel free not to fill out a questionnaire. In fact, if at any point while filling out the questionnaire you decide you no longer wish to participate, you may stop wherever you are and fill out no more. Moreover, if there are any particular questions, which you want to skip, you may do so. Simply turn in your questionnaire at the end of the period along with everyone else, and no one will be aware that your questionnaire is incomplete. If you choose to leave the study, you will not lose your experimental credit.

All questionnaires are completely anonymous. Nowhere on the questionnaire do we ask for your name, and we have carefully avoided asking questions that might identify you indirectly. All questionnaires will be guarded carefully and no one but the research team will have access to them.

Because of the sensitive nature of the research, it is important that we have your fully informed consent to use your questionnaire. If you choose to participate, please sign on the line below indication your consent. Unfortunately, if you are under 18, and thus still legally a minor, we will not be able to use your questionnaire. In that case, we would ask that you simply turn in a blank questionnaire.

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

I have read the above and I agree to participate.

DATE

SIGNATURE

Please turn in this consent form before proceeding to the questionnaire. No one will be aware of your identity because consent form has a blank cover sheet.

Thank you for your co-operation.

Rehman Y. Abdulrehman, B.A.

Rayleen V. De Luca, Ph.D., C. Psych.

Department of Psychology

University of Manitoba

Author Note & Acknowledgements

This manuscript was submitted in partial fulfillment for the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Psychology.

I would like to thank my entire thesis committee for being flexible in their timings, in order to help me finish this thesis according to suggested deadlines. To Marvin Brodsky and Riva Bartell, I would like to state my gratitude for their thoughtful and sage suggestions. More importantly, I would like to express my utmost appreciation to my research advisor, Rayleen De Luca, who I hold in high esteem, for the countless hours she has spent in helping me with not only this thesis, but all my research. She has been a great support.

Also I would like to extend my thanks to my colleague Ian Clara, for his wise and witty assistance with the statistics of this paper, and to Tracy Morgan for her assistance in recruiting and running the experimental sessions.

Table 1

Analyses of Variance for Average Score on the Forcible Date Rape Scale

Group	N	Mean	df	F	p
<u>Abused Vs. Non-Abused</u>					
Abused	69	4.28	1	.179	.672
Non-Abused	210	4.44			
<u>Abused Sample: Gender of Perpetrator Vs. Perception of Abuse</u>					
Male	11	3.94	1	2.847	.096
Female	57	4.33			
Abuse	8	4.26	1	.089	.767
Non-Abuse	60	4.27			

Table 2

Chi-Square of Gender of Perpetrator and Perception of Abuse

Gender of Perpetrator	Perception of Abuse			
	Abuse		Non-Abuse	
	N	%	N	%
Male	4	5.9	7	10.3
Female	4	5.9	53	77.9

Table 3

Frequencies of Relationship of Female Perpetrator to Male Victim

Relationship	<i>f</i>	%
Acquaintance	4	7.0
Friend	16	28.1
Friend of Parents	1	1.8
Girlfriend	20	35.1
Sister	3	5.3
Cousin	1	1.8
Neighbor	2	3.5
Teacher	1	1.8
Babysitter	2	3.5
Other	3	5.3
Multiple response from above	2	3.5
Missing	2	3.5
Total	57	100.0

Table 4

Degree of Force Used by Female Perpetrators

Type of Force	Yes		No	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Threatened Verbally	5	8.8	52	91.2
Forced Physically	7	12.3	50	87.7
Hurt Physically	5	8.8	52	91.2
Convinced	48	84.2	9	15.8