

GENDER STEREOTYPES, HOMONEGATIVISM, AND
SUPPORT OF SEXUALLY COERCIVE BEHAVIOUR
AMONG ADOLESCENTS IN NEWFOUNDLAND
AND LABRADOR

CENTRE FOR NEWFOUNDLAND STUDIES

**TOTAL OF 10 PAGES ONLY
MAY BE XEROXED**

(Without Author's Permission)

TODD GRAHAM MORRISON



GENDER STEREOTYPES, HOMONEGATIVISM, AND SUPPORT
OF SEXUALLY COERCIVE BEHAVIOUR AMONG ADOLESCENTS
IN NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR

BY

TODD GRAHAM MORRISON

A thesis submitted to the School of Graduate
Studies in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of
Master of Science

Department of Psychology
Memorial University of Newfoundland
December 1994

St. John's

Newfoundland



National Library
of Canada

Acquisitions and
Bibliographic Services Branch

395 Wellington Street
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale
du Canada

Direction des acquisitions et
des services bibliographiques

395, rue Wellington
Ottawa (Ontario)
K1A 0N4

Your file / Votre référence

Our file / Notre référence

The author has granted an irrevocable non-exclusive licence allowing the National Library of Canada to reproduce, loan, distribute or sell copies of his/her thesis by any means and in any form or format, making this thesis available to interested persons.

The author retains ownership of the copyright in his/her thesis. Neither the thesis nor substantial extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without his/her permission.

L'auteur a accordé une licence irrévocable et non exclusive permettant à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada de reproduire, prêter, distribuer ou vendre des copies de sa thèse de quelque manière et sous quelque forme que ce soit pour mettre des exemplaires de cette thèse à la disposition des personnes intéressées.

L'auteur conserve la propriété du droit d'auteur qui protège sa thèse. Ni la thèse ni des extraits substantiels de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation.

ISBN 0-612-01891-1

Canada

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine whether adolescents possess attitudes that are gender stereotypic, homonegative, and supportive of sexually coercive behaviour. For this specific purpose, an instrument entitled the Sexual Aggression and Conservatism Scale (SACS) was developed. Reliability and validity assessments suggested that the instrument was psychometrically robust. The researcher distributed 1,124 questionnaires to randomly selected schools in Newfoundland and Labrador for administration to students in grades ten and twelve. An analysis of returns (1,045 questionnaires - a response rate of 93%) revealed that: (1) male respondents were more gender stereotypic, homonegative, and supportive of sexually coercive behaviour than females; (2) academic achievement was negatively correlated with endorsement of gender stereotypes, homonegativism, and sexual coercion; (3) religiosity (operationally defined as frequency of church attendance) was not associated with endorsement of these attitudes; (4) respondents' site of residence (urban versus rural) was not associated with endorsement of these attitudes; and (5) homonegativism and endorsement of sexual coercion were positively correlated.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank Newfoundland's Department of Education (Division of Evaluation, Research, and Planning) for its invaluable administrative and financial support. I am also indebted to the schools that agreed to participate in this study.

I would also like to thank my thesis supervisor, Dr. Cathryn Button, and the members of my committee, Dr. Ginny Grant and Dr. Mary Courage. Their comments and constructive criticisms were much appreciated.

A special note of gratitude is extended to Barbara Hopkins, Melanie Morrison, Wendy O'Connor, and Dr. Lenora Perry-Fagan. Finally, I would like to thank Charles Murray for his editorial suggestions and provocative insights about many of the topics explored in this thesis.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	page
Abstract	ii
Acknowledgements	iii
List of Tables	vi
1.0 Introduction	1
1.1 Sexual Coercion	2
1.2 Homonegativism	5
1.3 Gender Stereotyping	6
1.4 Demographic Correlates of Attitudes Toward Sexual Coercion, Homosexuality, and Gender Stereotyping	9
1.5 Hypotheses	10
2.0 Sexual Aggression and Conservatism Scale	11
2.1 Scale Development	12
2.1.1 Attitudes Toward Sexually Coercive Behaviour Subscale (ATSCBS)	12
2.1.2 Homonegativism Subscale (HS)	14
2.1.3 Gender Stereotyping Subscale (GSS)	14
2.2 Scale Reliability	15
2.3 Scale Criterion-Related Validity	15
2.4 Social Desirability	16
2.5 Scale Construct Validity	17
2.6 Discussion	18
3.0 Survey of Adolescents Using the SACS	19
3.1 Method	19
3.1.1 Subjects	19
3.1.2 Procedure	20

TABLE OF CONTENTS (CONT'D)

	page
3.2 Results	22
3.2.1 Scale Reliability	22
3.2.2 Sex Differences	22
3.2.3 Urban/Rural Differences	23
3.2.4 Academic Achievement	24
3.2.5 Religiosity	25
3.2.6 Homonegativism and Attitudes Toward Sexually Coercive Behaviour	26
3.3 Discussion	26
References	31
Appendix A	38
Appendix B	42
Appendix C	46
Appendix D	51

List of Tables

	page
Table 1	
Selected Sample Stratified By Religious Category and Urban/Rural Location of School	21

The term sexual ideology refers to the systems of meaning, knowledge, beliefs and practices through which individuals regulate and express sexual behaviour (Troiden & Jendrek, 1987). Many variables are subsumed under this construct including attitudes toward sexual coercion, homosexuality, and gender stereotypes (Lottes & Kuriloff, 1992). Although these topics have received considerable scientific attention, the value of the research has been restricted by its use of college students as subjects. The assumption that college students are an adequate proxy for non-college populations has been questioned (Price, 1982). For example, Sears (1986) reviewed the ways in which college students qualitatively differ from other cohorts and concluded that "reliance on this narrow data base may result in a portrait of human nature that describes, rather accurately, the behaviour of . . . college students in an academic context but [one that] distorts human social behaviour more generally" (p. 515). Therefore, he felt it was imperative that psychologists investigate other age groups to more accurately gauge the generalizability of their findings. Despite these criticisms, the sexual ideologies of other populations, in particular adolescents, are seldom investigated. This thesis partially redresses that deficiency by examining high school students' attitudes toward sexual coercion, homosexuality, and gender stereotypes.

1.1 Sexual Coercion

Coercive sexual behaviour refers to the use of physical force, use of weapons, threat of harm, blackmail, unfair use of authority, or use of alcohol or drugs to obtain any form of sexual activity (Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992). The two key elements of this definition are: 1) the diversity of perpetrators' coercive strategies ranging from psychological to physical abuse, and 2) the inclusion of sexual activities that do not involve vaginal penetration. The term coercive sexual behaviour is used in this thesis instead of rape, because the latter is often stereotypically defined as a "situation in which an unknown male attacks a female and forces her . . . to [engage] in sexual intercourse" (Dull & Giacopassi, 1987, p. 175). This definition requires both violent resistance by the victim and the culmination of rape with intercourse. Consequently, incidents of sexual assault that do not satisfy these criteria may not be categorized as rape (Albin, 1977; Burt, 1991).

Sexual coercion is a pervasive social phenomenon (Quinn, Sanchez-Hucles, Coates, & Gillen, 1991). Sandberg, Jackson, and Petritic-Jackson (1987) reported that 48% of their female respondents had been touched, held, or kissed against their will by a dating partner, and 74% had experienced verbal pressure to engage in sexual intercourse. Similarly, Garrett-Gooding and Senter, Jr. (1987) observed that 64.7% of the women in their study had been

victims of at least one act of sexually aggressive behaviour. Finally, Craig (1990) examined the results of 23 studies, dating from 1957 to 1989, which investigated coercive sexual behaviour among college students. The average percentage of female victimization, calculated across studies providing frequency of coercion data (N=16), was 72.5%.

Social scientists have examined underlying attitudinal variables to further their understanding of sexual coercion. Research suggests that those who endorse rape myths and/or believe that sexual relationships are characterized by antagonism and exploitation may perpetuate and reinforce violence against women (Briere, Malamuth, & Check, 1985). Such individuals often regard sexual coercion as a normative, rather than anomalous, component of male/female relationships and, consequently, do not perceive it to be a particularly disturbing occurrence. For example, Deitz, Blackwell, Daley, and Bentley (1982) reported that male subjects' empathy for rape victims was negatively correlated with their desire to engage in coercive sexual behaviour. In addition, subjects who did not empathize with a hypothetical rape victim attributed less blame to the perpetrator, issued a more lenient sentence in a mock rape trial and minimized the psychological impact of the perpetrator's behaviour. Similarly, Muehlenhard and MacNaughton (1988) reported that females who believed that "leading a man on" justifies rape were more likely to hold punitive attitudes toward a hypothetical victim who behaved "suggestively." These subjects also minimized

the psychological and physical pain experienced by the victim and were less likely to define the incident as rape.

Muehlenhard and MacNaughton (1988) also found that a woman who believes that "leading a man on" obligates her to satisfy him sexually, may find it difficult to refuse unwanted advances. Their results supported this assumption as women who endorsed rape-supportive beliefs were more likely to have experienced verbally coerced sex. Finally, Anderson and Cummings (1993) noted that 23% of females surveyed had capitulated to the sexual demands of their partners because they perceived them to be irreversibly "turned on."

The failure of studies to examine adolescents' beliefs about sexually coercive behaviour is disturbing given that adolescence corresponds with the onset of puberty and a concomitant interest in sexual activity (Feltey, Ainslie, & Geib, 1991). For example, findings from a Canadian health survey revealed that 57% of the grade nine students surveyed had engaged in petting below the waist and 25% had engaged in sexual intercourse (King, Beazley, Warren, Hankins, Robertson, & Radford, 1988). Similarly, a study of adolescents in Newfoundland and Labrador found that 83% of the province's grade eleven students had engaged in petting below the waist and 63% had engaged in sexual intercourse (Cregheur, Casey, & Banfield, 1992). Given the large proportion of youth that are sexually active, it would appear that the issue of sexual coercion is germane to this age group.

The limited use of adolescents in this area has also prevented researchers from thoroughly investigating the development of sexually coercive attitudes and from constructing appropriate interventions for attitudinal change (Bell, Kuriloff, Lottes, Nathanson, Judge, & Fogelson-Turet, 1992).

1.2 Homonegativism

Homonegativism is any prejudicial affective or behavioral response directed toward an individual because of his/her homosexual orientation (Cerny & Polyson, 1984). Although it is seldom used, homonegativism is preferable to the term homophobia because the latter implies that antihomosexual bias is dysfunctional (Herek, 1986). This implication ignores the fact that prejudice based on homosexual orientation plays a vital role in the development of traditionally masculine attitudes and behaviours (Frank, 1991).

Many individuals are homonegative. For example, D'Augelli and Rose (1990) found that 44% of their male respondents perceived lesbians as "sick"; 75% believed that male homosexuals were "disgusting"; and 45% reported that their university would be a "better place" if only heterosexuals attended. Similarly, Kurdek (1988) noted that 60% of the college students he surveyed thought that homosexuals should seek psychiatric help; 61% believed that the "growing number" of homosexuals in society represented a decline in moral values; and 70% said that they would not like to have homosexual friends.

The correlates of homonegativity have also been examined. For example, Larsen, Reed, and Hoffman (1980) and Ficaroto (1990) found that stereotypic beliefs about gender and race were positively correlated with homonegativity. Similarly, Kurdek (1988) reported that subjects who did not believe in equality between the sexes displayed greater homonegativity than their more egalitarian counterparts.

As with attitudes toward sexually coercive behaviour, researchers examining homonegativism have primarily used college students as subjects. Studies with adolescents are important given the amount of anecdotal evidence which suggests that homonegativity is prevalent in junior high and high-school and the salience of homonegative attitudes in the masculine identification process of young males (Frank, 1991; Monette, 1992).

1.3 Gender Stereotyping

Gender stereotypes are characterizations involving personality attributes, physical traits, ambitions, occupations and lifestyles, ascribed to an individual because of his/her sex (Belk & Snell, Jr., 1986; Biernat, 1991). Such stereotypical beliefs are problematic because they place males and females into antagonistic spheres (masculine versus feminine) and circumscribe their affective and behavioral choices. Males are stereotypically perceived to possess traits clustering along an instrumental dimension (e.g., logic, self-

reliance) while females are seen to possess a cluster of expressive attributes (e.g., emotionalism, dependency) (Deaux & Kite, 1987).

Stereotypical beliefs associated with male sexuality include: (a) men possess basic sexual needs (Tiefer, 1987); (b) men are always motivated to have sex (Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992; Yachnes, 1973); (c) male sexual prowess is "a serious, task-oriented business [that does not advocate] experimentation, unpredictability, or play" (Tiefer, 1987, p. 167); (d) it is men's responsibility to initiate sexual activity (Muehlenhard & Hollabaugh, 1988; Yachnes, 1973); (e) men should try to "overcome" a woman's initial resistance to engage in sex (Muehlenhard & Hollabaugh, 1988); (f) men should ensure that all sexual activity culminates with intercourse (Zilbergeld, 1992); and (g) men should perceive "any physical contact other than a light touch" as an invitation to have sex (Tiefer, 1987, p. 167).

Stereotypical beliefs associated with female sexuality include: (a) women should initially resist the sexual advances of men (Muehlenhard & Hollabaugh, 1988); (b) women possess complicated sexual needs (Tiefer, 1987); (c) women are sexually insatiable once aroused (Burt & Albin, 1981); and (d) women should establish limits on sexual activity and should be held accountable when men exceed them (Abbey, 1991).

These stereotypical perceptions may promote sexual violence. Assuming that women are initially reluctant to engage in sex may lead to endorsing the

rape-supportive belief, "women say 'no' when they really mean 'yes'." In addition, perceiving most forms of physical contact as an invitation to have sex engenders false assumptions of male entitlement and implies that women are culpable for their sexual victimization. Finally, the belief that men are always willing to engage in sex may cause individuals to minimize the trauma experienced by male victims of sexual assault (Garcia, Milano, & Quijano, 1989; Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992).

Indeed, studies examining the relationship between gender stereotyping and sexual coercion suggest that individuals who accept gender stereotypes are more likely to engage in, or be victims of, sexually coercive behaviour (Craig, 1990). Bell et al. (1992) reported that subjects who believed in gender stereotypes were more likely to endorse rape supportive beliefs. Muehlenhard and Linton (1987) found that males who had traditional attitudes toward women were more likely to exhibit sexually aggressive behaviour. Finally, Muehlenhard and MacNaughton (1988) observed that women's adherence to traditional gender role expectations was positively correlated with their likelihood of having experienced verbally coerced sex.

In summary, the data presented above suggest that gender stereotyping, homonegativism, and attitudes toward sexually coercive behaviour are

interrelated. Moreover, a consistent gender difference exists with males being more homonegative, gender stereotypic, and supportive of sexually coercive behaviour than females (Belk & Snell, Jr., 1986; Bell et al., 1992; D'Augelli & Rose, 1990; Feltey et al., 1991; Herek & Glunt, 1993; Kurdek, 1988; Larsen & Long, 1988; Lottes & Kuriloff, 1992; Spence, Losoff, & Robbins, 1991).

1.4 Demographic Correlates of Homonegativity, Sexual Coercion, and Gender Stereotyping

A variety of demographic variables have been examined in relation to gender stereotyping and attitudes toward homosexuality and sexually coercive behaviour (see Craig, 1990; Kurdek, 1988). The author decided to focus on two of these, religiosity and site of residence (urban versus rural), because Newfoundland has a denominational school system and most of its population lives in rural communities. The third demographic variable, academic achievement, was selected at the request of the organization which funded the study.

Dull and Giacopassi (1987) and Fischer (1986) reported that frequency of church attendance was not associated with attitudes toward sexual coercion. However, Herek (1984) and Peplau, Hill, and Rubin (1993) found that church attendance was positively correlated with endorsement of homonegativism and gender stereotypes. In addition, Peplau et al. (1993) noted that cognitive ability

(operationalized in their study as self-reported academic achievement and performance on the Scholastic Achievement Test) was negatively correlated with endorsement of gender stereotypes. Kurdek (1988) and Marsiglio (1993) found a similar relationship between academic achievement and homonegativity. Finally, Etaugh (1975) and Stephan and McMullin (1982) examined the influence of site of residence on gender stereotyping and homonegativism, respectively. Their results suggested that respondents in rural communities were more gender stereotypic and homonegative than respondents in urban communities.

1.5 Hypotheses

Based on the research outlined in sections 1.1 through 1.4, it was hypothesized that: (a) male adolescents would be more gender stereotypic, homonegative, and supportive of sexually coercive behaviour than females; (b) frequency of church attendance (this study's operational definition of religiosity) would be positively correlated with endorsement of gender stereotypes and homonegativism but would not be associated with attitudes toward sexually coercive behaviour; (c) academic achievement (as determined by a self-report measure) would be negatively correlated with endorsement of gender stereotypes and homonegativism; and (d) respondents in rural schools would be more likely than respondents in urban schools to endorse attitude statements that are gender stereotypic and homonegative.

Although not previously examined in the literature, the following hypotheses seemed plausible given that rape-supportive, gender stereotypic, and homonegative beliefs have similar correlates. These are: (a) academic achievement would be negatively correlated with endorsement of sexual coercion; (b) respondents from rural schools would be more likely than respondents from urban schools to endorse sexually coercive behaviour; and (c) homonegativism and endorsement of sexual coercion would be positively correlated.

2.0 The Sexual Aggression and Conservatism Scale (SACS)

No single instrument measures gender stereotypic, homonegative, and rape-supportive beliefs. Combining the scales that are typically used in this research was impractical because the length of such a composite questionnaire would have been prohibitive. In addition, some of these scales are too explicit for use with adolescents (e.g., the Sexual Experiences Survey - Koss & Oros, 1982) and others provide insufficient data about their reliability and validity (e.g., the Attitudes Toward Rape Questionnaire - Barnett & Feild, 1977; the Survey of Sexual and Dating Attitudes - Dull & Giacomassi, 1987; and the Sexual Experience Survey - Miller & Marshall, 1987).

Consequently, an instrument comprised of three subscales to examine 1) beliefs about sexual coercion, 2) homonegativism, and 3) gender stereotyping was designed for use with adolescents. This instrument has been entitled the Sexual Aggression and Conservatism Scale (SACS; see Appendix A). It uses a five-point response format (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree) and requires approximately 15 minutes to complete.

2.1 Scale Development

2.1.1 Attitudes Toward Sexually Coercive Behaviour Subscale (ATSCBS)

Based on a review of the literature, an initial pool of 30 items examining attitudes toward sexually coercive behaviour was developed. A convenience sample of university students in Victoria, British Columbia (N= 125) and St. John's, Newfoundland (N=147) was selected. Item-total summary and descriptive statistics were computed. Items that substantially lowered Cronbach's alpha, or had a "don't know" response rate greater than 40 percent, were eliminated (Benson & Vincent, 1980). In addition, comments provided by respondents were examined and, where appropriate, used to modify specific items.

Unfortunately, high-school students were omitted from this portion of the

pilot test. In an attempt to compensate for this omission, consultants from Newfoundland's Department of Education reviewed the items to ensure they were suitable for use with adolescents in grades ten and twelve. This evaluative process resulted in the modification of several items for increased comprehension. For example, the question "Women provoke rape by their appearance" became "Women who wear sexy clothing are asking to be raped."

Finally, a coordinator at the St. John's Rape Crisis Centre and a researcher with the Newfoundland Women's Policy Office were consulted to ensure that the items had face validity.

The final version of the *ATSCBS* contains eleven items developed by the author as well as two items from the Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (Burt, 1980); one from an untitled scale by Giacopassi and Dull (1986); and two modified items from both the Attitudes Toward Rape Questionnaire (Barnett & Feild, 1977) and the Survey of Sexual and Dating Attitudes (Dull & Giacopassi, 1987). There are eighteen items in total, thirteen of which are statements endorsing sexually coercive behaviour (e.g., "a man has the right to force a woman to have sex, if she has led him on"). The remaining five items endorse non-coercive expectations about having sex and require reverse scoring (e.g., "even if a man has spent a lot of money on a date, he does not have the right to expect that the woman will have sex with him"). Scores can range from 18 to 90, with higher scores representing greater endorsement of sexual coercion.

2.1.2 Homonegativism Subscale (HS)

Procedures identical to those used with the *ATSCBS* were employed in the construction of this subscale.

The final version of the *HS* contains three items developed by the author as well as three items from the Heterosexual Attitudes Toward Homosexuals scale (*HATH*) (Larsen et al., 1980). There are six items in total, four of which are homonegative statements (e.g., "homosexuals should not be allowed to work with children"). The remaining two items endorse non-homonegative attitudes and require reverse scoring (e.g., "homosexuals should have the same rights as heterosexuals"). Scores can range from 6 to 30, with higher scores representing greater homonegativity.

2.1.3 Gender Stereotyping Subscale (GSS)

Procedures identical to those used with the *ATSCBS* were employed in the construction of this subscale.

The final version of the *GSS* contains nine items developed by the author as well as one item from the Sexist Attitudes Toward Women Scale (*SATWS*) (Benson & Vincent, 1980). There are ten items in total, eight of which are gender stereotypic statements (e.g., "men should be more sexually experienced before marriage than women"). The remaining two items endorse non-stereotypic perceptions about gender and require reverse scoring (e.g., "women are just as

good at making decisions as men"). Scores can range from 10 to 50, with higher scores representing greater acceptance of gender stereotypes.

2.2 Scale Reliability

Internal consistency analysis is the reliability assessment technique recommended for any untested, multiple-item scale which is administered at a single point in time* (Patrick & Beery, 1991). Copies of the *SACS* were distributed to a convenience sample of university students in Victoria, British Columbia (N=57). Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the *ATSCBS*, the *HS*, and the *GSS* were .83, .85, and .78 respectively (coefficient alpha for the total scale = .89). These values represent satisfactory levels of reliability (Carmines & Zeller, 1979).

2.3 Scale Criterion-Related Validity

Each subscale of the *SACS* was compared with a reliable and valid scale designed to measure the same construct. The three scales chosen were: 1) the Attitudes Toward Rape Victims Scale (ARVS) [a 25-item, 7 point Likert-type scale that measures rape-supportive beliefs] (Ward, 1988); 2) the Heterosexual Attitudes Toward Homosexual Scale (HATH) [a 20-item, 5 point Likert-type scale that measures antihomosexual attitudes] (Larsen et al., 1980); and 3) the Sexist Attitudes Toward Women Scale (SATWS) [a 40-item, 7 point Likert-type scale

that measures sexism] (Benson & Vincent, 1980).

Copies of the *SACS* and the *ARVS*, the *HATH*, and the *SATWS* were distributed to a convenience sample of university students in Victoria, British Columbia ($N=31$).

Scores on the *ATSCBS*, the *HS*, and the *GSS* were then correlated with scores on the *ARVS*, the *HATH*, and the *SATWS*, respectively. It was predicted that: a) scores on the *ATSCBS* and the *ARVS* (high scores on both denote acceptance of sexual coercion) would be positively correlated; b) scores on the *HS* (high scores denote greater homonegativism) and the *HATH* (low scores denote greater homonegativism) would be negatively correlated; and c) scores on the *GSS* and the *SATWS* (high scores on both denote gender stereotyping) would be positively correlated. Each prediction was confirmed:

(*ATSCBS* and *ARVS* $r = .906$, $p < .001$; *HS* and *HATH* $r = -.951$, $p < .001$; and *GSS* and *SATWS* $r = .756$, $p < .001$).

These high correlations suggest that the three subscales of the *SACS* possess criterion-related validity. Also, unless one assumes that the *ARVS*, the *HATH*, and the *SATWS* are qualitatively similar, it seems plausible to assume that the three subscales of the *SACS* are each measuring a different construct. However, additional research should be conducted on the divergent validity of the subscales of the *SACS* to ensure that they are not simply measuring the same construct.

2.4 Social Desirability

Social desirability bias reflects an individual's tendency to seek approval by responding in a manner which is considered to be culturally appropriate and acceptable (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960). It is imperative that one test for this bias because contamination of testing items by a social desirability tendency may lead to inaccurate responses. Copies of the *SACS* and the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (M-C SDS) [a 32-item, true/false scale with higher scores denoting greater desirability bias] (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) were distributed to a convenience sample of high-school students in Victoria, British Columbia (N=28). Scores on the *SACS* and the M-C SDS were then correlated. The resulting correlation coefficient was non-significant ($r = .03$), suggesting that, among adolescents, there is minimal social desirability influence on responses to the *SACS*.

2.5 Scale Construct Validity

Copies of the *SACS* and the "Macho" Scale (MS) [a 28-item, 5 point Likert-type scale with higher scores denoting greater endorsement of sexist "macho" ideologies] (Villemez & Touhey, 1977) were distributed to a convenience sample of high-school students in Victoria, British Columbia (N=33). The MS is psychometrically robust and includes items such as: "most women have little respect for weak men"; "in general, it is more important for a

man to be successful in his career than it is for a woman"; and "a wife shouldn't contradict her husband in public" (Gayton, Sawyer, Baird, & Ozmon, 1982; Villemez & Touhey, 1977).

Researchers have found that subjects with high MS scores are often more gender stereotypic, homonegative, and supportive of sexually coercive behaviour than their low scoring counterparts (Brinkerhoff & MacKie, 1985; Gayton et al., 1982; Mazer & Percival, 1989). Therefore, it was hypothesized that scores on the MS and the *SACS* would be positively correlated. This hypothesis was confirmed ($r = .893$ $p < .0001$).

2.6 Discussion

In summary, the results described above suggest that the *SACS* is a reliable and valid instrument. Although it is regrettable that adolescents were not included in all phases of the pilot testing, attempts were made to compensate for this deficiency through the use of education consultants. In addition, it must be noted that the construct validity of the *SACS* and the scale's potential contamination by social desirability bias were examined using a sample of high-school students.

3.0 Survey of Adolescents Using the SACS

3.1 Method

3.1.1 Subjects

The questionnaires, 1,124 in total, were distributed to participating schools. The response rate was 93% (1,045 usable questionnaires were returned). The mean age of respondents was 16.5 years. Of the total sample, 51% (531) were male and 49% (514) were female; 53% (544) were in grade ten and 47% (490) were in grade twelve [eleven unclassified cases].^A Twenty-two percent (230) reported attending church every week, 19% (197) reported sporadic attendance, 35% (361) reported attending only on special occasions, and 24% (255) reported never attending church [two unclassified cases]. The percentage of students enrolled in Pentecostal, Seventh Day Adventist, Roman Catholic, or Integrated schools was 6% (66), .006% (5), 20% (206), and 73% (768) respectively. Students' average level of self-reported academic achievement was 73%, or a "B." Finally, 21% (224) of the students were from urban schools and 79% (821) were from rural schools.

^A Due to cost considerations, students in grade eleven were not included in this study. It was assumed that grades ten and twelve would serve as an adequate representation of the high school population.

3.1.2 Procedure

To ensure that a representative sample was obtained, high schools in Newfoundland and Labrador were stratified by location (urban or rural as defined by Statistics Canada) and religious category (Pentecostal, Seventh-Day Adventist, Roman Catholic, and Integrated). Approximately 10% of these schools were then randomly selected (N=22). Twenty schools agreed to participate. The two that refused did so because their principals found the survey instrument "invasive" and "anti-male." Unfortunately, the author had no way of determining if these two schools systematically differed from the ones that agreed to participate. A comparison of the sample and population school data is provided in Table 1.

Following the ethical guidelines established for research with human subjects, teachers were provided with a sheet of instructions requesting that, before distributing the SACS, they inform students that participation in the survey was voluntary and that all responses would be anonymous and confidential.

Table 1
 Selected Sample Stratified By Religious Category and
 Urban/Rural Location of School

	Urban	Sample	Rural	Sample	Total	10% of Total
Integrated ¹	21	2	95	10	116	12
Roman Catholic	21	2	51	5	72	7
Pentecostal	3	1	12	1	15	2
Seventh Day Adventist	3	1	0	0	3	1
Total	48 (23%)	6 (27%)	158 (77%)	16 (73%)	206	22

¹Integrated refers to United, Presbyterian, and Anglican schools.

3.2 Results

3.2.1 Scale Reliability

Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the *ATSCBS*, the *HS*, and the *GSS* were .75, .84, and .67 respectively (coefficient alpha for the total scale = .86). These values represent satisfactory levels of reliability (Carmines & Zeller, 1979).

3.2.2 Sex Differences

A two-group MANOVA was conducted on the 18 items of the *ATSCBS* to find out whether males and females differed in their attitudes toward sexually coercive behaviour. The overall sex effect was significant (male $M = 42.88$, $s.d. = 19.20$; female $M = 36.69$, $s.d. = 17.02$; Wilk's lambda = .801, $F(18, 1020) = 14.09$, $p < .0001$). Follow-up univariate analyses revealed significant sex differences for 15 of the 18 items, with males being more accepting than females of sexual coercion.

A two-group MANOVA was conducted on the six items of the *HS* to determine if males and females differed in their levels of homonegativism. The overall sex effect was significant (male $M = 18.00$, $s.d. = 7.71$; female $M = 14.12$, $s.d. = 7.01$; Wilk's lambda = .862, $F(6, 1033) = 27.47$, $p < .0001$). Follow-up univariate analyses revealed that males were more homonegative than females on all six items.

A two-group MANOVA was conducted on the ten items of the *GSS* to detect if males and females differed in their endorsement of gender stereotypes. The overall sex effect was significant (male $M = 22.58$, $s.d. = 10.24$; female $M = 18.97$, $s.d. = 8.36$; Wilk's lambda = .769, $F(10, 1022) = 30.73$, $p < .0001$). Follow-up univariate analyses revealed that males were more gender stereotypic than females on nine of the ten items. On the remaining item, "men cannot control themselves sexually," females were more stereotypic.

A detailed statistical profile of the gender differences observed on the subscales of the *SACS* is presented in Appendix B.

3.2.3 Urban/Rural Differences

Due to extreme differences in urban/rural sample size, MANOVA was not considered an appropriate statistical procedure (Pagano, 1990). Therefore, χ^2 analyses^A were conducted on the averaged distribution of responses to the *ATSCBS*, the *HS*, and the *GSS* to determine whether respondents from urban and rural schools differed in their attitudes. A significant difference in attitudes toward sexually coercive behaviour was not obtained, $\chi^2(2, N=1044) = .426$, $p > .05$. Similarly, respondents from urban and rural schools did not differ in their

^A For this analysis, strongly disagree/disagree and strongly agree/agree categories were collapsed.

levels of homonegativism, $X^2 (2, N=1045) = 1.44, p > .05$, or in their endorsement of gender stereotypes, $X^2 (2, N=1045) = 1.33, p > .05$.

3.2.4 Academic Achievement

Self-reported academic achievement was negatively correlated with total scores on the *ATSCBS* ($r = -.243, p < .001$). Therefore, respondents reporting low levels of academic achievement were more likely to endorse sexually coercive behaviour. To provide additional information about this relationship, X^2 analyses^A were conducted on each item of the *ATSCBS*. Respondents' level of academic achievement was placed into one of three categories: low (0-59%), moderate (60-79%), or high (80-100%).^B X^2 analyses revealed significant differences between low and high academic achievers for eleven of the eighteen items on the *ATSCBS*.

^A To ensure that the minimum expected frequency was met for each chi-square cell, strongly disagree/disagree and strongly agree/agree categories were collapsed.

^B Data associated with moderate achievers are not presented in this thesis because they obfuscate the relationship between academic achievement and total scores on the subscales of the *SACS*.

Self-reported academic achievement was negatively correlated with total scores on the *HS* ($r = -.193, p < .001$). Therefore, respondents reporting low levels of academic achievement were more likely to endorse homonegative attitudes. X^2 analyses revealed significant differences between low and high academic achievers for five of the six items on the *HS*.

Self-reported academic achievement was negatively correlated with total scores on the *GSS* ($r = -.273, p < .001$). Therefore, respondents reporting low levels of academic achievement were more likely to endorse gender stereotypes. X^2 analyses revealed significant differences between low and high academic achievers for six of the ten items on the *GSS*.

A detailed statistical profile of the differences observed between low and high academic achievers on the subscales of the *SACS* is presented in Appendix C.

3.2.5 Religiosity

Frequency of church attendance did not significantly correlate with respondents' total scores on the *ATSCBS* ($r = .033, p = ns$), the *HS* ($r = .001, p = ns$) or the *GSS* ($r = .043, p = ns$).

3.2.6 Homonegativism and Attitudes Toward Sexually Coercive Behaviour

Respondents' total scores on the *ATSCBS* and the *HS* were positively correlated ($r = .480, p < .001$).^A To further examine this relationship, scores on the *HS* were dichotomized (scores from 6-17 were considered non-homonegative and scores from 18-30 were considered homonegative) and χ^2 analyses^B were conducted on the 18 items of the *ATSCBS*. Significant differences were obtained for thirteen items, with homonegative respondents being more likely to endorse sexually coercive behaviour than their non-homonegative counterparts. A detailed statistical profile of this information is presented in Appendix D.

3.3 Discussion

These results support the hypotheses that male adolescents are more homonegative, gender stereotypic, and supportive of sexually coercive

^A Although not formally hypothesized in this thesis, significant correlations were also observed between the *GSS* and the *ATSCBS* ($r = .631, p < .001$) and the *HS* and the *GSS* ($r = .408, p < .001$). Similar relationships have been reported by many researchers including Anderson & Cummings, (1993); Bell et al., (1992); Henley & Pincus, (1978); and Minnigerode, (1976).

^B To ensure that the minimum expected frequency was met for each chi-square cell, strongly disagree/disagree and strongly agree/agree categories were collapsed.

behaviour than female adolescents. A similar gender difference among college students and older adults has been observed by researchers since the 1970s (e.g., Barnett & Feild, 1977; Minnigerode, 1976; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1973). The present results also indicate that self-reported academic achievement is negatively correlated with gender stereotyping, homonegativism, and endorsement of sexual coercion. In addition, the findings suggest that homonegative and rape-supportive beliefs are related. However, no effects were found for religiosity or site of residence.

The search for causal agents that explain sex differences in the endorsement of sexual coercion, gender stereotypes, and homonegativism may lie with gender socialization. Previous research has shown that attitudinal differences between male and female adolescents increase with age and may result from pressures to conform to traditional gender-role expectations (Massad, 1981). Male adolescents are particularly susceptible to this pressure, because one of the critical elements in their self-development is the need to display traditionally masculine attitudes and behaviours (Galambos, Almeida, & Petersen, 1990).

The results of this study may reflect male adolescents' need to display an "acceptable" degree of masculinity. For example, male respondents were more likely to blame a woman for her sexual victimization, more likely to justify using

force to obtain sex, and less likely to be tolerant of homosexuals. Similarly, a significant proportion exaggerated the importance of sexual activity for men and endorsed the traditional double standard that men should be accorded more sexual freedom than women. As sexist, aggressive, and homonegative sexual attitudes are contrary to traditional gender-role expectations for women (see Cartledge & Ryan, 1983), it is not surprising that females in this study were less likely to endorse sexual coercion, gender stereotyping, and homonegativity.

As hypothesized, academic achievement was negatively correlated with endorsement of sexually coercive behaviour, homonegativism, and gender stereotypes. However, this relationship must be interpreted with caution. The correlations obtained between academic achievement and scores on the *ATSCBS*, the *HS*, and the *GSS* were relatively small. For example, academic performance accounted for only 6% of the variance on the *ATSCBS*. Moreover, achievement levels were based on self-report data and were not corroborated by more objective indices such as standardized tests or school records. Consequently, the validity of this measure of academic achievement can be questioned.

Liberal attitudes represent an individual's ability to integrate the perceived rights and needs of the individual with general social norms (Kurdek, 1988). This process of integration has been positively correlated with cognitive variables such as academic achievement and performance on standardized

tests (Kurdek, 1988). It is possible that adolescents who reported low levels of academic achievement were less able to integrate individual rights and societal responsibilities. As a result, they may have adopted a less intellectually demanding, more conservative, sexual ideology -- hence, their high scores on the SACS.

As hypothesized, homonegativism and attitudes supporting sexually coercive behaviour were correlated, with homonegative respondents being more likely than their non-homonegative counterparts to endorse sexual coercion. It is possible that homonegativity and endorsement of sexually coercive behaviour are related because they both reflect a conservative sexual ideology.

Contrary to what was hypothesized, religiosity was associated with neither homonegativity nor gender stereotyping. It should be noted, however, that the lack of a significant effect may have been due to the study's simplistic definition of religiosity. For example, Sheeran, Abrams, Abraham, and Spears (1993) reported that religiosity has five dimensions: religious upbringing, religious self-schema, salience of religious identity, religious denomination and religious behaviour. Their results suggested that religious self-schema -- whether an individual perceives him or herself to be religious -- was most strongly associated with adolescents' sexual attitudes and behaviours. Unfortunately, the present study narrowly defined religiosity as frequency of church attendance, thereby focusing exclusively on the dimension of religious

behaviour.

Contrary to what was hypothesized, students' site of residence was not associated with endorsement of attitudes that are gender stereotypic, homonegative, or supportive of sexually coercive behaviour. It is possible that simply classifying schools as urban or rural was not a sufficiently sensitive measure. Perhaps a more detailed population typology, such as the one employed by Amato (1983) in his investigation of helping behaviour, would have allowed a more accurate assessment of this variable.

In conclusion, the results of this thesis suggest that adolescents, like college students, possess attitudes that are gender stereotypic, homonegative, and supportive of sexual coercion. Given the often tenuous relationship between attitudes and overt behaviours, one must interpret these findings with caution. It is distressing to realize, however, that youth endorse discriminatory and antagonistic attitudes toward women and homosexuals. Such findings underscore the dilemma confronting gender researchers -- namely, that despite the social progress realized through feminist activities, stereotypical attitudes regarding human sexuality remain firmly entrenched in Western society. Rather than reaffirming the existence of these attitudes, social scientists must direct greater attention to developing and implementing age-appropriate intervention strategies, and in doing so, limit the ability of these attitudes to perpetuate inequities based on sex and sexual orientation.

References

- Abbey, A. (1991). Misperception as an antecedent of acquaintance rape: A consequence of ambiguity in communication between women and men. In A. Parrot & L. Bechhofer (Eds.), *Acquaintance rape: The hidden crime* (pp. 165-184). New York, New York: Wiley-Interscience Publication.
- Albin, R.S. (1977). Psychological studies of rape. *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society*, 3, 423-435.
- Amato, P.R. (1983). Helping behaviour in urban and rural environments: Field studies based on a taxonomic organization of helping episodes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 45, 571-586.
- Anderson, W.P., & Cummings, K. (1993). Women's acceptance of rape myths and their sexual experiences. *Journal of College Student Development*, 34, 53-57.
- Barnett, N.J., & Feild, H.S. (1977). Sex differences in university students' attitudes toward rape. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, March, 93-96.
- Belk, S.S., & Snell, Jr., W.E. (1986). Beliefs about women: Components and correlates. *Personality and Social Psychological Bulletin*, 12, 403-413.
- Bell, S.T., Kuriloff, P.J., Lottes, I., Nathanson, J., Judge, T., & Fogelson-Turet, K. (1992). Rape callousness in college freshmen: An empirical investigation of the sociocultural model of aggression towards women. *Journal of College Student Development*, 33, 454-461.
- Benson, P.L., & Vincent, S. (1980). Development and validation of the Sexist Attitudes Toward Women Scale (SATWS). *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 5, 276-291.
- Biernat, M. (1991). Gender stereotypes and the relationships between masculinity and femininity: A developmental analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 61, 351-365.

- Briere, J., Malamuth, N., & Check, J. (1985). Sexuality and rape-supportive beliefs. *International Journal of Women's Studies*, 8, 398-403.
- Brinkerhoff, M.B., & MacKie, M. (1985). Religion and gender: A comparison of Canadian and American student attitudes. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 47, 415-429.
- Burt, M.R. (1980). Cultural myths and supports for rape. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 38, 217-230.
- Burt, M.R. (1991). Rape myths and acquaintance rape. In A. Parrot & L. Bechhofer (Eds.), *Acquaintance rape: The hidden crime*. (pp. 26-40). New York, New York: Wiley-Interscience Publication.
- Burt, M.R., & Albin, R.S. (1981). Rape myths, rape definitions, and probability of conviction. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 11, 212-230.
- Carmines, E.G., & Zeller, R.A. (1979). *Reliability and Validity Assessment*. Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications.
- Cartledge, S., & Ryan, J. (1983). *Sex and love: New thoughts on old contradictions*. London, England: Women's Press.
- Cerny, J.A., & Polyson, J. (1984). Changing homonegative attitudes. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 2, 366-371.
- Craig, M.E. (1990). Coercive sexuality in dating relationships: A situational model. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 10, 395-423.
- Cregheur, L.A., Casey, J.M., & Banfield, H.G. (1992). *Sexuality, AIDS, and decision making: A study of Newfoundland youth*. St. John's, Newfoundland: Queen's Press.
- Crowne, D.P., & Marlowe, D. (1960). A new scale of social desirability independent of psychopathology. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 24, 349-354.
- D'Augelli, A.R., & Rose, M.L. (1990). Homophobia in a university community: Attitudes and experiences of heterosexual freshmen. *Journal of College Student Development*, 31, 484-491.

- Deaux, K., & Kite, M.E. (1987). Thinking about gender. In B.B. Hess & M.M. Ferree (Eds.), *Analyzing gender: A handbook of social science research* (pp. 135-153). Newbury Park, California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Deitz, S.R., Blackwell, K.T., Daley, F.C., & Bentley, B.J. (1982). The measurement of empathy toward rape victims and rapists. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 43, 372-384.
- Dull, R.T., & Giacomassi, D.J. (1987). Demographic correlates of sexual and dating attitudes: A study of date rape. *Criminal Justice and Behaviour*, 14, 175-193.
- Etaugh, C. (1975). Biographical predictors of college students' attitudes toward women. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, 16, 273-276.
- Feltey, K.M., Ainslie, J.J., & Geib, A. (1991). Sexual coercion attitudes among high school students: The influence of gender and rape education. *Youth and Society*, 23, 229-250.
- Ficarrotto, T.J. (1990). Racism, sexism, and erotophobia: Attitudes of heterosexuals toward homosexuals. *Journal of Homosexuality*, 19, 111-116.
- Fischer, G.J. (1986). College student attitudes toward forcible date rape: I. Cognitive predictors. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 15, 457-466.
- Frank, B.W. (1991). Everyday/everynight masculinities: The social construction of masculinity among young men. *SIECCAN Journal*, 6, 27-37.
- Galambos, N.L., Almeida, D.M. & Petersen, A.C. (1990). Masculinity, femininity and sex role attitudes in early adolescence: Exploring gender intensification. *Child Development*, 61, 1905-1914.
- Garcia, L., Milano, L., & Quijano, A. (1989). Perceptions of coercive sexual behaviour by males and females. *Sex Roles*, 21, 569-577.
- Garrett-Gooding, J., & Senter, Jr., R. (1987). Attitudes and acts of sexual aggression on a university campus. *Sociological Inquiry*, 57, 348-371.

- Gayton, W.F., Sawyer, B.L., Baird, J.G., & Ozmon, K.L. (1982). Further validation of a new measure of machismo. *Psychological Reports, 51*, 820-822.
- Giacopassi, D.J., & Dull, R.T. (1986). Gender and racial differences in the acceptance of rape myths within a college population. *Sex Roles, 15*, 63-75.
- Henley, N.M., & Pincus, F. (1978). Interrelationship of sexist, racist, and antihomosexual attitudes. *Psychological Reports, 42*, 83-90.
- Herek, G.M. (1984). Beyond "homophobia": A social psychological perspective on attitudes toward lesbians and gay men. *Journal of Homosexuality, 10*, 1-21.
- Herek, G.M. (1986). On heterosexual masculinity: Some psychical consequences of the social construction of gender and sexuality. *American Behavioral Scientist, 29*, 563-577.
- Herek, G.M., & Glunt, E.K. (1993). Interpersonal contact and heterosexuals' attitudes toward gay men: Results from a national survey. *Journal of Sex Research, 30*, 239-244.
- King, A.J C., Beazley, R.P., Warren, W.K., Hankins, C.A., Robertson, A.S., & Radford, J.L. (1988). *Canada youth and AIDS study*. Ottawa, Ontario: Queen's University Press.
- Koss, M.P., & Oros, C.J. (1982). Sexual Experiences Survey: A research instrument investigating sexual aggression and victimization. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 50*, 455-457.
- Kurdek, L.A. (1988). Correlates of negative attitudes toward homosexuals in heterosexual college students. *Sex Roles, 18*, 727-738.
- Larsen, K.S., & Long, E. (1988). Attitudes toward rape. *Journal of Sex Research, 24*, 299-304.
- Larsen, K.S., Reed, M., & Hoffman, S. (1980). Attitudes of heterosexuals toward homosexuality: A Likert-type scale and construct validity. *Journal of Sex Research, 16*, 245-257.

- Lottes, I.L., & Kuriloff, P.J. (1992). The effects of gender, race, religion, and political orientation on the sex role attitudes of college freshmen. *Adolescence, 27*, 675-688.
- Marsiglio, W. (1993). Attitudes toward homosexual activity and gays as friends: A national survey of heterosexual 15 to 19 year-old males. *Journal of Sex Research, 30*, 12-17.
- Massad, C.M. (1981). Sex role identity and adjustment during adolescence. *Child Development, 52*, 1290-1298.
- Mazer, D.B., & Percival, E.F. (1989). Ideology or experience? The relationships among perceptions, attitudes, and experiences of sexual harassment in university students. *Sex Roles, 20*, 135-147.
- Miller, B., & Marshall, J.C. (1987). Coercive sex on the university campus. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 28*, 38-47.
- Minnigerode, F.A. (1976). Attitudes toward homosexuality: Feminist attitudes and sexual conservatism. *Sex Roles, 2*, 347-352.
- Monette, P. (1992). *Becoming a man: Half a life story*. New York, New York: HBJ Publishers.
- Muehlenhard, C.L., & Hollabaugh, L.C. (1988). Do women sometimes say no when they mean yes? The prevalence and correlates of women's token resistance to sex. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*, 872-879.
- Muehlenhard, C.L., & Linton, M.A. (1987). Date rape and sexual aggression in dating situations: Incidence and risk factors. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 34*, 186-196.
- Muehlenhard, C.L., & MacNaughton, J.S. (1988). Women's beliefs about women who "lead men on." *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 7*, 65-79.
- Pagano, R.R. (1990). *Understanding statistics in the behavioral sciences*. New York, New York: West Publishing Co.
- Patrick, D.L., & Beery, W.L. (1991). Measurement issues: Reliability and validity. *American Journal of Health Promotion, 5*, 305-311.

- Peplau, L.A., Hill, C.T., & Rubin, Z. (1993). Sex role attitudes in dating and marriage: A 15 year follow-up of the Boston couples study. *Journal of Social Issues, 49*, 31-52.
- Price, J.H. (1982). High school students' attitudes toward homosexuality. *The Journal of School Health, (October)*, 469-474.
- Quinn, K., Sanchez-Hucles, J., Coates, G., & Gillen B. (1991). Men's compliance with a woman's resistance to unwanted sexual advances. *Journal of Offender Rehabilitation, 17*, 13-31.
- Sandberg, G., Jackson, T.L., & Petritic-Jackson, P. (1987). College students' attitudes regarding sexual coercion and aggression: Developing educational and preventive strategies. *Journal of College Student Development, 28*, 302-311.
- Sears, D.O. (1986). College sophomores in the laboratory: Influences of a narrow data base on social psychology's view of human nature. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*, 515-530.
- Sheeran, P., Abrams, D., Abraham, C., & Spears, R. (1993). Religiosity and adolescents' premarital sexual attitudes and behaviour: An empirical study of conceptual issues. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 23*, 39-52.
- Spence, J.T., Helmreich, R., & Stapp, J. (1973). A short version of the Attitudes Towards Women Scale (AWS). *Bulletin of the Psychonomic Society, 2*, 219-220.
- Spence, J.T., Losoff, M., & Robbins, A.S. (1991). Sexually aggressive tactics in dating relationships: Personality and attitudinal correlates. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 10*, 289-304.
- Stephan, G.E., & McMullin, D.R. (1982). Tolerance of sexual nonconformity: City size as a situational and early learning determinant. *American Sociological Review, 47*, 411-415.
- Struckman-Johnson, C., & Struckman-Johnson, D. (1992). Acceptance of male rape myths among college men and women. *Sex Roles, 27*, 85-100.

- Tiefer, L. (1987). In pursuit of the perfect penis: The medicalization of male sexuality. In M.S. Kimmel (Ed.), *Changing men: New directions in research on men and masculinity* (pp. 165-184). Newbury Park, California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Troiden, R.R., & Jendrek, M.P. (1987). Does sexual ideology correlate with level of sexual experience? Assessing the construct validity of the SAS. *Journal of Sex Research, 23*, 256-261.
- Villemez, W.J., & Touhey, J.C. (1977). A measure of individual differences in sex stereotyping and sex discrimination: The "macho" scale. *Psychological Reports, 41*, 411-415.
- Ward, C. (1988). The Attitudes Toward Rape Victims Scale: Construction, validation, and cross-cultural applicability. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 12*, 127-146.
- Yachnes, E. (1973). The myths of masculinity: A panel. *American Journal of Psychoanalysis, 33*, 56-61.
- Zilbergeld, B. (1992). *The new male sexuality*. New York, New York: Bantam Books.

Appendix A

Sexual Aggression and Conservatism Scale

Instructions to Students

This questionnaire is not a test. It is an opportunity for you to express your opinions. You should be able to answer all questions within 10 to 15 minutes. Please read the instructions carefully and answer each question as honestly as possible.

Thank you for your participation!

Please answer the following:

- A) Sex _____ (1 = male; 2 = female)
- B) Age _____
- C) Grade _____
- D) Your school is...
 Roman Catholic _____
 Pentecostal _____
 Integrated _____
 Don't Know _____
- E) Your average mark last term was _____
 EXAMPLE: If your average mark was about 60, you would write 60 on the line above. Or, if you had a "C" average you would place the letter C on the line above.
- F) How often have you attended church or another religious institution (e.g., a synagogue) in the past 12 months ?
 Usually every week _____
 Now and then _____
 On special occasions _____
 Never _____

Appendix A (cont'd)

Instructions Place the appropriate number beside each question

- 1 = strongly disagree
- 2 = disagree
- 3 = don't know
- 4 = agree
- 5 = strongly agree

PLEASE NOTE: For the purpose of this survey, *rape* is defined as *the use of physical force, use of weapons, threat of harm, blackmail, unfair use of authority, or use of alcohol/drugs to obtain any form of sexual activity.*

I believe:

1. when a man is so turned on he can't stop, it is ok for him to force a woman to have sex.^A _____
2. a rapist's primary motivation is to have sex.^A _____
3. homosexuals should not be allowed to work with children.^B _____
4. one of the most common types of rape is that of black man against a white woman.^A _____
5. it is impossible for a man to be raped by a woman.^A _____
6. even if a man has spent a lot of money on date, he does not have the right to expect that the woman will have sex with him.^{A #} _____
7. men should be more interested than women in sex.^C _____
8. women rarely lie about being raped.^{A #} _____
9. a woman cannot be truly happy unless she is in a relationship.^C _____
10. if a woman gets drunk or stoned at a party, she's asking for trouble.^A _____
11. women do not provoke rape by their behaviour.^{A #} _____
12. some women would benefit from being forced to have sex.^A _____

Appendix A (cont'd)

13. women should not be less career-oriented than men.^C # _____
14. most rapists do not know their victims.^A _____
15. when a woman says "no" to a come-on she really means "yes."^A _____
16. homosexuality is not a mental disorder.^B # _____
17. people who support homosexual rights are probably homosexual themselves.^B _____
18. a woman should do whatever is necessary to keep her man happy.^C _____
19. homosexuals should have the same rights as heterosexuals.^B # _____
20. women should be less aggressive than men.^C _____
21. women are just as good at making decisions as men.^C # _____
22. men should be more sexually experienced than women before marriage.^C _____
23. a man has the right to force a woman to have sex, if she has led him on.^A _____
24. a woman who goes to a man's home or apartment on their first date implies that she is willing to have sex.^A _____
25. it is rape, if a man forces his wife to have sex.^A # _____
26. women who wear sexy clothing are asking to be raped.^A _____
27. a woman cannot be happy unless she has children.^C _____
28. homosexuality is immoral.^B _____
29. a man raped by a woman does not suffer as much as a woman raped by a man.^A _____
30. many women secretly want to be raped.^A _____
31. a man cannot be truly happy unless he is in a relationship.^C _____

Appendix A (cont'd)

32. any woman can be raped.^A # _____
33. men cannot control themselves sexually.^C _____
34. homosexuals should be avoided whenever possible.^B _____

^A items on the ATSCBS; ^B items on the HS; ^C items on the GSS; # items require reverse scoring.

Appendix B

Responses on the Sexual Aggression and Conservatism Scale (SACS) Stratified By Sex

Attitudes Toward Sexually Coercive Behaviour Subscale (ATSCBS)

Item	M (s.d.)	SA (%)		A (%)		DK (%)		D (%)		SD (%)	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
When a man is so turned on he can't stop, it is ok for him to force a woman to have sex. F(1, 1037) = 29.15 §	1.37 (.87) 1.13 (.50)	3.6	1.0	0.9	0.2	1.3	0.2	16.8	8.2	77.4	90.5
A rapist's primary motivation is to have sex. F(1, 1037) = 1.06	3.45 (1.07) 3.38 (1.15)	13.6	15.6	44.6	40.0	20.2	17.0	17.1	21.7	4.5	5.7
One of the most common types of rape is that of a black man against a white woman. F(1, 1037) = 12.32 §	2.27 (.93) 2.07 (.88)	1.9	0.6	3.8	2.9	38.4	30.4	31.8	36.0	24.1	30.2
It is impossible for a man to be raped by a woman. F(1, 1037) = .103	2.14 (1.17) 2.12 (1.07)	5.6	2.9	11.7	12.6	7.3	7.2	41.2	47.3	34.1	30.0
Even if a man has spent a lot of money on a date, he does not have the right to expect that the woman will have sex with him. F(1, 1037) = 18.85 §	4.33 (1.03) 4.60 (.95)	55.9	77.2	34.7	16.1	0.6	0.6	4.0	1.4	4.9	4.7
Women rarely lie about being raped. F(1, 1037) = 10.37 §§	2.69 (1.02) 3.10 (1.12)	5.5	9.9	23.7	31.1	32.4	25.7	31.3	26.3	7.2	7.0
If a woman gets drunk or stoned at a party, she's asking for trouble. F(1, 1037) = 24.80 §	3.27 (1.21) 2.89 (1.26)	14.9	9.7	38.4	31.8	12.1	9.2	27.7	36.1	7.0	13.3
Women do not provoke rape by their behaviour. F(1, 1037) = 41.23 §	2.77 (1.05) 3.20 (1.11)	4.5	12.5	22.8	32.0	27.2	23.2	36.0	27.9	9.4	4.5

(continued)

Key: M = mean; (s.d.) = standard deviation; SA = strongly agree (5); A = agree (4); DK = don't know (3); D = disagree (2); SD = strongly disagree (1).
Males and females significantly differ at §§ $p < .001$; § $p < .0001$.

Appendix B

ATSCBS (Cont'd)

Item	M (s.d.)	SA (%)	A (%)	DK (%)	D (%)	SD (%)
	Male Female	Male Female	Male Female	Male Female	Male Female	Male Female
Some women would benefit from being forced to have sex. F(1, 1037) = 33.77 §	2.09 (1.12) 1.70 (1.02)	4.0 1.9	9.0 6.2	16.6 11.3	32.6 21.2	37.9 59.3
Most rapists do not know their victims. F(1, 1037) = 1.24	2.97 (1.12) 2.89 (1.08)	8.5 6.0	25.8 27.4	28.4 23.2	28.1 36.0	9.2 7.4
When a woman says "no" to a come-on she really means "yes." F(1, 1037) = 94.10 §	1.86 (.99) 1.34 (.70)	4.0 1.2	3.2 0.8	9.4 3.5	41.5 19.8	41.9 74.7
A man has the right to force a woman to have sex, if she has led him on. F(1, 1037) = 61.74 §	1.87 (1.10) 1.33 (.69)	5.3 1.0	5.6 1.4	5.8 2.3	37.9 20.2	45.4 75.1
A woman who goes to a man's home or apartment on their first date implies that she is willing to have sex. F(1, 1037) = 104.59 §	2.28 (1.05) 1.68 (.84)	4.0 0.8	13.4 4.9	9.4 5.3	53.5 39.9	19.8 49.2
It is rape, if a man forces his wife to have sex. F(1, 1037) = 39.90 §	3.72 (1.08) 4.12 (.96)	24.1 39.7	42.9 41.8	17.5 11.5	11.5 4.5	4.0 2.5
Women who wear sexy clothing are asking to be raped. F(1, 1037) = 66.24 §	2.29 (1.09) 1.74 (.82)	4.5 0.6	13.9 5.3	9.2 5.1	51.2 46.3	21.1 42.6
A man raped by a woman does not suffer as much as a woman raped by a man. F(1, 1037) = 22.82 §	2.73 (1.28) 2.37 (1.15)	8.7 4.7	24.1 16.0	20.7 16.9	25.2 37.4	21.3 25.1
Many women secretly want to be raped. F(1, 1037) = 101.46 §	2.31 (1.05) 1.68 (.95)	2.8 1.6	7.3 3.1	35.8 16.5	26.0 20.0	28.1 59.8
Any women can be raped. F(1, 1037) = 31.44 §	4.31 (.97) 4.61 (.77)	62.2 70.6	37.3 25.1	2.6 1.2	4.5 0.6	3.4 2.5

Key: M = mean; (s.d.) = standard deviation; SA = strongly agree (5); A = agree (4); DK = don't know (3); D = disagree (2); SD = strongly disagree (1).
Males and females significantly differ at § $p < .0001$.

Note: Overall multivariate results: Wilk's lambda = .801 $F(16, 1020) = 14.09, p < .0001$.
Due to rounding, percentages may not total one hundred.

Appendix B

Homonegativism Subscale (HS)

Items	M (s.d.)	SA (%)	A (%)	DK (%)	D (%)	SD (%)
	Male Female	Male Female	Male Female	Male Female	Male Female	Male Female
Homosexuals should not be allowed to work with children. F(1, 1038) = 65.69 §	3.13 (1.32) 2.48 (1.26)	20.3 10.5	22.0 12.1	19.6 16.0	26.9 38.3	11.1 23.2
Homosexuality is not a mental disorder. F(1, 1038) = 24.83 §	3.19 (1.26) 3.56 (1.14)	14.5 20.1	31.8 41.0	26.4 20.3	12.6 11.9	14.7 6.6
Those who support homosexual rights are probably homosexuals themselves. F(1, 1038) = 102.52 §	2.83 (1.29) 2.07 (1.09)	12.1 3.3	23.2 11.3	17.1 9.5	30.7 41.4	16.9 34.4
Homosexuals should have the same rights as heterosexuals. F(1, 1038) = 74.48 §	2.09 (1.33) 3.67 (1.21)	12.3 29.0	31.5 35.8	18.5 15.8	18.5 12.6	19.2 6.8
Homosexuality is immoral. F(1, 1038) = 45.62 §	3.21 (1.17) 2.71 (1.21)	19.8 9.9	14.7 14.2	38.9 31.0	19.8 26.7	6.8 18.1
Homosexuals should be avoided whenever possible. F(1, 1038) = 145.99 §	3.01 (1.34) 2.09 (1.10)	20.7 5.1	15.4 7.8	19.6 11.9	32.4 41.8	11.9 33.5

Key: M = mean; (s.d.) = standard deviation; SA = strongly agree (5); A = agree (4); DK = don't know (3); D = disagree (2); SD = strongly disagree (1).
Males and females significantly differ at § $p < .0001$.

Note: Overall multivariate results: Wilk's lambda = .862 $F(6, 1033) = 27.47, p < .0001$.
Due to rounding, percentages may not total one hundred.

Appendix B

Gender Stereotyping Subscale (GSS)

Items	M (s.d.)	SA (%)	A (%)	DK (%)	D (%)	SD (%)
	Male Female	Male Female	Male Female	Male Female	Male Female	Male Female
Men should be more interested than women in sex. $F(1, 1031) = 54.92$ §	2.52 (1.11) 2.04 (.97)	6.5 4.1	14.2 5.3	21.1 8.9	41.9 53.9	16.3 27.8
A woman cannot be truly happy unless she is in a relationship. $F(1, 1031) = 88.83$ §	2.39 (.97) 1.84 (.90)	3.2 2.1	11.5 4.9	22.5 5.7	47.7 49.5	15.1 37.8
Women should not be less career-oriented than men. $F(1, 1031) = 25.38$ §	3.60 (1.23) 4.01 (1.33)	27.7 52.1	34.7 22.5	16.0 8.8	14.2 6.8	7.4 9.8
A woman should do whatever is necessary to keep her man happy. $F(1, 1031) = 86.77$ §	2.44 (1.12) 1.83 (.97)	.62 2.9	15.6 7.2	11.3 2.9	50.8 45.7	16.0 41.2
Women should be less aggressive than men. $F(1, 1031) = 15.13$ §	2.42 (.96) 2.19 (.93)	2.5 1.0	13.2 9.7	23.4 18.9	47.0 48.3	14.0 22.0
Women are just as good as men at making decisions. $F(1, 1031) = 66.39$ §	4.28 (.90) 4.71 (.78)	46.0 80.9	44.3 15.4	3.2 0.2	3.4 0.4	3.0 3.1
Men should be more sexually experienced before marriage than women. $F(1, 1031) = 140.09$ §	2.25 (1.00) 1.61 (.74)	3.6 0.4	9.6 3.1	15.4 4.5	51.4 41.2	20.0 50.8
A woman cannot be happy unless she has children. $F(1, 1031) = 36.03$ §	1.90 (.79) 1.63 (.67)	1.7 0.2	1.7 1.6	12.6 4.9	54.4 47.7	29.6 45.7
A man cannot be truly happy unless he is in a relationship. $F(1, 1031) = 23.90$ §	2.44 (1.07) 2.13 (.95)	4.7 1.4	17.3 10.3	11.3 14.4	52.2 49.0	14.5 24.9
Men cannot control themselves sexually. $F(1, 1031) = 21.27$ §	2.10 (1.09) 2.42 (1.12)	4.1 4.1	11.1 18.5	7.5 12.1	46.1 46.3	31.1 19.1

Key M = mean; (s.d.) = standard deviation; SA = strongly agree (5); A = agree (4); DK = don't know (3); D = disagree (2); SD = strongly disagree (1).
Males and females significantly differ at § $p < .0001$.

Note: Overall multivariate results: Wilk's lambda = .769 $F(10, 1022) = 30.73$, $p < .0001$.
Due to rounding, percentages may not total one hundred.

Appendix C

Responses on the Sexual Aggression and Conservatism Scale (SACS)
Stratified by Self-reported Level of Academic Achievement (in %)*Attitudes Toward Sexually Coercive Behaviour Subscale (ATSCBS)*

Item	SA	A	DK	D	SD
	Low High	Low High	Low High	Low High	Low High
When a man is so turned on he can't stop, it is ok for him to force a woman to have sex. $X^2(4, N=1016) = 4.43$	4.7 2.3	--- 0.3	1.6 ---	17.2 8.3	76.6 89.0
A rapist's primary motivation is to have sex. $X^2(4, N=1014) = 15.92$ §	15.6 10.3	45.3 37.5	20.3 21.6	12.5 25.9	6.3 4.7
One of the most common types of rape is that of a black man against a white woman. $X^2(4, N=1016) = 9.10$	--- 0.3	3.1 2.0	45.3 35.5	35.9 29.9	15.6 32.2
It is impossible for a man to be raped by a woman. $X^2(4, N=1016) = 12.44$ §§	6.3 2.3	20.3 11.6	9.4 4.3	37.5 45.2	26.6 36.5
Even if a man has spent a lot of money on a date, he does not have the right to expect that the woman will have sex with him. $X^2(4, N=1016) = 11.69$ §§§	60.9 75.1	21.3 17.9	3.1 ---	10.6 2.0	3.1 5.0
Women rarely lie about being raped. $X^2(4, N=1016) = 1.25$	7.8 8.0	31.3 25.6	31.3 29.2	21.9 30.9	7.8 5.3
If a woman gets drunk or stoned at a party, she's asking for trouble. $X^2(4, N=1015) = 12.85$ §§	15.6 10.7	34.4 32.0	14.1 14.7	29.7 32.0	6.3 10.7
Women do not provoke rape by their behaviour. $X^2(4, N=1015) = 15.26$ §	3.2 12.3	38.1 31.6	22.2 21.9	25.4 29.2	11.1 5.0

(continued)

Key: SA = strongly agree; A = agree; DK = don't know; D = disagree; SD = strongly disagree.
High and low academic achievers significantly differ at § $p < .004$; §§ $p < .015$; §§§ $p < .03$.

Note: The following categories were used for academic achievement - low achievement = 40-59; moderate achievement = 60-79; high achievement = 80-100. Data for moderate achievers are not presented in the table.

Appendix C

ATSCBS (Cont'd)

Items	SA	A	DK	D	SD
	Low High	Low High	Low High	Low High	Low High
Some women would benefit from being forced to have sex. $\chi^2(4, N=1016) = 34.63 \text{ §}$	6.3 2.7	12.5 2.7	21.9 7.6	25.0 28.9	34.4 58.1
Most rapists do not know their victims. $\chi^2(4, N=1016) = 30.36 \text{ §}$	12.5 3.0	34.4 19.6	31.3 27.9	20.3 39.9	1.6 9.6
When a woman says 'no' to a come-on she really means 'yes.' $\chi^2(4, N=1015) = 8.54$	4.7 1.3	4.7 1.0	3.1 7.0	40.6 23.7	46.9 67.0
A man has the right to force a woman to have sex, if she has led him on. $\chi^2(4, N=1016) = 11.32 \text{ §§§}$	3.1 2.3	4.7 2.0	9.4 2.7	29.7 23.9	53.1 69.1
A woman who goes to a man's home or apartment on their first date implies that she is willing to have sex. $\chi^2(4, N=1016) = 4.42$	3.1 1.0	12.5 8.3	10.9 7.3	53.1 42.9	20.3 40.5
It is rape, if a man forces his wife to have sex. $\chi^2(4, N=1016) = 5.02$	25.0 33.9	40.6 43.5	20.3 13.6	10.9 5.3	3.1 3.7
Women who wear sexy clothing are asking to be raped. $\chi^2(4, N=1016) = 12.49 \text{ §§}$	4.7 2.7	14.1 6.3	7.8 4.3	48.4 48.8	25.0 37.9
A man raped by a woman does not suffer as much as a woman raped by a man. $\chi^2(4, N=1016) = 10.87 \text{ §§§}$	9.4 4.0	28.1 17.3	14.1 17.9	28.1 32.2	20.3 28.6
Many women secretly want to be raped. $\chi^2(4, N=1016) = 10.07 \text{ §}$	3.1 1.7	7.8 5.0	34.4 20.6	29.7 20.9	25.0 51.8
Any women can be raped. $\chi^2(4, N=1016) = 2.32$	57.8 63.8	34.4 29.6	--- 2.0	6.3 3.3	1.6 1.3

Key: SA = strongly agree; A = agree; DK = don't know; D = disagree; SD = strongly disagree.
High and low academic achievers significantly differ at § $p < .000001$; §§ $p < .015$; §§§ $p < .03$.

Note: The following categories were used for academic achievement - low achievement = 40-59; moderate achievement = 60-79; high achievement = 80-100. Data for moderate achievers are not presented in this table.

Appendix C

Homonegativism Subscale (HS)

Items	SA	A	DK	D	SD
	Low High	Low High	Low High	Low High	Low High
Homosexuals should not be allowed to work with children. $\chi^2(4, N=1016) = 23.53$ §§	29.7 12.6	18.8 12.3	15.6 15.0	20.3 40.2	15.6 19.9
Homosexuality is not a mental disorder. $\chi^2(4, N=1014) = 6.33$	1.9 22.3	30.1 36.2	21.4 21.9	15.2 9.0	14.1 10.6
Those who support homosexual rights are probably homosexuals themselves. $\chi^2(4, N=1016) = 33.79$ §	14.1 4.7	26.6 11.6	20.3 10.6	20.3 40.2	18.8 32.9
Homosexuals should have the same rights as heterosexuals. $\chi^2(4, N=1016) = 11.51$ §§§§	14.1 26.2	35.9 35.9	17.2 14.0	12.5 11.6	20.3 12.3
Homosexuality is immoral. $\chi^2(4, N=1015) = 15.05$ §§§	14.1 16.3	14.1 15.0	39.1 26.0	18.8 25.0	14.1 17.7
Homosexuals should be avoided whenever possible. $\chi^2(4, N=1016) = 31.13$ §	18.8 10.6	23.4 9.3	15.6 9.6	25.0 42.2	17.2 28.2

Key: SA = strongly agree; A = agree; DK = don't know; D = disagree; SD = strongly disagree.
High and low academic achievers significantly differ at $\frac{1}{2}$ § $p < .000001$; § § $p < .0001$; § § § $p < .005$;
§ § § § $p < .03$.

Note: Due to rounding, percentages may not total one hundred.
The following categories were used for academic achievement - low achievement = 40-59; moderate achievement = 60-79; high achievement = 80-100. Data for moderate achievers are not presented in this table.

Appendix C

Gender Stereotyping Subscale (GSS)

Items	SA	A	DK	D	SD
	Low High	Low High	Low High	Low High	Low High
Men should be more interested than women in sex. $\chi^2(4, N=1012) = 17.65 \text{ \textcircled{6}}$	4.7 3.0	15.6 6.3	15.6 11.7	48.4 50.7	15.6 28.3
A woman cannot be truly happy unless she is in a relationship. $\chi^2(4, N=1014) = 11.38 \text{ \textcircled{555}}$	1.6 2.7	9.4 7.3	18.8 9.0	46.9 49.7	23.4 31.3
Women should not be less career-oriented than men. $\chi^2(4, N=1015) = 38.36 \text{ \textcircled{6}}$	25.0 55.8	35.9 26.6	14.1 6.3	21.9 4.3	3.1 7.0
A woman should do whatever is necessary to keep her man happy. $\chi^2(4, N=1016) = 5.71$	3.1 4.0	14.1 9.3	10.9 5.3	56.3 45.5	15.6 35.9
Women should be less aggressive than men. $\chi^2(4, N=1015) = 10.35 \text{ \textcircled{5555}}$	--- 1.3	12.5 8.7	28.1 17.7	42.2 51.7	17.2 20.7
Women are just as good as men at making decisions. $\chi^2(4, N=1014) = .82$	51.6 70.8	42.2 21.9	1.6 1.7	3.1 1.7	1.6 4.0
Men should be more sexually experienced before marriage than women. $\chi^2(4, N=1016) = 14.79 \text{ \textcircled{55}}$	--- 2.3	10.9 2.0	15.6 7.6	57.8 45.2	15.6 42.9

(continued)

Key: SA = strongly agree; A = agree; DK = don't know; D = disagree; SD = strongly disagree.
High and low academic achievers significantly differ at $\text{\textcircled{6}} p < .000001$; $\text{\textcircled{55}} p < .002$; $\text{\textcircled{555}} p < .006$;
 $\text{\textcircled{5555}} p < .03$; $\text{\textcircled{55555}} p < .04$.

Note: The following categories were used for academic achievement - low achievement = 40-59; moderate achievement = 60-79; high achievement = 80-100. Data for moderate achievers are not presented in this table.

Appendix C

GSS (Cont'd)

Items	SA	A	DK	D	SD
	Low High	Low High	Low High	Low High	Low High
A woman cannot be happy unless she has children. $\chi^2(4, N=1016) = 6.59$	1.6 0.3	1.6 1.3	15.6 8.6	45.3 50.8	35.9 38.9
A man cannot be truly happy unless he is in a relationship. $\chi^2(4, N=1016) = 4.05$	3.1 2.0	15.6 13.0	15.6 10.6	42.2 53.2	23.4 21.3
Men cannot control themselves sexually. $\chi^2(4, N=1016) = 12.49$	7.8 1.3	14.1 11.3	9.4 8.3	54.7 51.2	14.1 27.9

Key: SA = strongly agree; A = agree; DK = don't know; D = disagree; SD = strongly disagree.
High and low academic achievers significantly differ at $p < .015$.

Note: Due to rounding, percentages may not total one hundred.
The following categories were used for academic achievement - low achievement = 40-59; moderate achievement = 60-79; high achievement = 80-100. Data for moderate achievers are not presented in this table.

Appendix D

Responses on the Attitudes Toward Sexually Coercive Behaviour
Subscale (ATSCBS) Stratified by Homonegative Score (in %)

Items	SA	A	DK	D	SD
	Low High	Low High	Low High	Low High	Low High
When a man is so turned on he can't stop, it is ok for him to force a woman to have sex. $X^2(2, N=1040) = 5.09$	3.0 2.0	.009 .004	1.5 .004	15.7 11.0	78.9 86.2
A rapist's primary motivation is to have sex. $X^2(2, N=1038) = 16.32$ §§§	19.9 12.1	42.0 42.6	21.4 17.2	13.4 22.1	3.3 6.0
One of the most common types of rape is that of a black man against a white woman. $X^2(2, N=1040) = 55.06$ §	2.7 .01	5.6 .21	46.3 29.0	27.9 36.6	17.5 33.1
It is impossible for a man to be raped by a woman. $X^2(2, N=1040) = 19.04$ §§	5.0 4.0	12.8 11.9	12.2 5.0	40.0 45.7	29.4 33.4
Even if a man has spent a lot of money on a date, he does not have the right to expect that the woman will have sex with him. $X^2(2, N=1040) = 5.42$	53.1 72.8	36.5 20.2	1.2 .003	3.9 2.1	5.3 4.6
Women rarely lie about being raped. $X^2(2, N=1040) = 3.23$	7.1 8.0	25.2 29.3	27.9 29.6	32.9 27.0	6.9 7.1
If a woman gets drunk or stoned at a party, she's asking for trouble. $X^2(2, N=1039) = 36.92$ §	20.5 8.5	40.7 32.5	7.8 12.1	26.4 34.3	4.7 12.5
Women do not provoke rape by their behaviour. $X^2(2, N=1039) = 38.16$ §	4.5 10.4	21.1 30.1	22.3 26.8	41.8 27.4	10.4 5.4
Some women would benefit from being forced to have sex. $X^2(2, N=1040) = 26.93$ §	5.9 1.6	10.1 6.4	18.7 11.7	25.2 27.9	40.1 52.5

(continued)

Key: SA = strongly agree; A = agree; DK = don't know; D = disagree; SD = strongly disagree.
Homonegative and non-homonegative respondents significantly differ at § $p < .000001$; §§ $p < .0001$;
§§§ $p < .0003$.

Note: Scores on the HS were dichotomized, scores between 6-17 were considered non-homonegative and scores between 18-30 were considered homonegative.

Appendix D

ATSCBS (Cont'd)

Items	SA	A	DK	D	SD
	Low High	Low High	Low High	Low High	Low High
Most rapists do not know their victims. $\chi^2 (2, N=1040) = 5.65$	9.8 6.1	28.5 25.7	26.4 25.7	30.0 32.7	5.3 9.7
When a woman says "no" to a come-on she really ..means "yes." $\chi^2 (2, N=1039) = 25.77 \S$	6.0 1.0	3.3 1.4	6.8 6.0	42.0 25.5	41.1 66.0
A man has the right to force a woman to have sex, if she has led him on. $\chi^2 (2, N=1040) = 43.69 \S$	6.8 1.4	5.9 2.3	7.1 2.7	37.1 25.2	43.0 68.4
A woman who goes to a man's home or apartment on their first date implies that she is willing to have sex. $\chi^2 (2, N=1040) = 49.23 \S$	5. [^] 1.0	15.4 6.1	10.4 6.0	49.0 45.8	20.2 41.0
It is rape, if a man forces his wife to have sex. $\chi^2 (2, N=1040) = 14.88 \S\S$	23.4 35.8	45.1 41.0	14.8 14.5	12.2 6.1	4.5 2.6
Women who wear sexy clothing are asking to be raped. $\chi^2 (2, N=1040) = 60.16 \S$	6.2 .01	16.3 6.5	10.1 5.5	46.3 50.2	21.1 36.8
A man raped by a woman does not suffer as much as a woman raped by a man. $\chi^2 (2, N=1040) = 34.54 \S$	11.0 4.6	26.1 17.2	20.8 16.1	24.9 34.1	17.2 26.0
Many women secretly want to be raped. $\chi^2 (2, N=1040) = 28.48 \S$	4.7 .01	7.1 4.4	32.3 23.4	23.4 22.8	32.3 48.5
Any woman can be raped. $\chi^2 (2, N=1040) = 5.64$	54.0 64.7	36.2 28.9	1.8 2.0	4.2 1.8	3.9 2.6

Key: SA = strongly agree; A = agree; DK = don't know; D = disagree; SD = strongly disagree.
Homonegative and non-homonegative respondents significantly differ at $\S p < .000001$; $\S\S p < .0006$.

Note: Due to rounding, percentages may not total one hundred.
Scores on the HS were dichotomized; scores between 6-17 were considered non-homonegative and scores between 18-30 were considered homonegative.



