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Attribution of Blame, and Equal Protection

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BARRY UNIVERSITY

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MALE RAPE MYTHS - AMBIVALENCE, ATTRIBUTION OF BLAME, AND
EQUAL PROTECTION

by

Jordan M. Pate B.S.

A THESIS

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Dedication

To my brother, without you my motivation for examining the law and reforming the legal process to positively impact the well-being of those involved would not have been as great.

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine how conviction in rape myths and ambivalent attitudes, hostile or benevolent, predict attribution of blame towards male rape victims. The acceptance of rape myths is one way in which sexual violence has been sustained and justified throughout history. The degree to which society accepts these male rape myths may impact society's view of the male victim, the willingness to prosecute such cases, and the willingness of victims to report rape cases. The current study analyzed rape myths acceptance, ambivalent attitudes, hostile and benevolent, and attribution of blame using the Male Rape Myth Scale (Struckman-Johnson and Struckman-Johnson, 1992), The Ambivalence Toward Men Inventory (Glick and Fiske, 1999), and The Attitudes Toward Rape Scale (Fields, 1978). One hundred ninety-one participants (68 male, 121 female, 2 identified as other) ranging in age from 18 years to 30 and above, from a variety of ethnic backgrounds, accessed an online survey (psychdata.com). They were asked to read a short vignette depicting either a male victim and male perpetrator, or a male victim and female perpetrator. After reading the vignette, the participants were asked to respond to the three measures; the Male Rape Myth Scale (MRMS), the Ambivalence Toward Men Inventory (AMI), and the Attitudes Toward Rape Scale (ATR). A regression model and independent samples t-test were used to conceptualize the data. The hypotheses that were tested using the regression model were all supported. These findings suggested that strong rape myth beliefs toward males predicts less support for the victim and identified that rape myth acceptance was the greatest predictor of attribution of blame. The hypotheses that were tested using the T-test model were not supported. The gender of the perpetrator had no significant impact on the attribution of blame regardless of the attitude towards males. The results of this study will be useful in educating people who interact with male sexual assault victims, such as

police, lawyers, jurors, and medical professionals. This study and others like it can aid in *voir dire*, as it can help to predict possible outcomes of a trial based on how the jury perceives the victim and their personal beliefs.

Introduction

It has often been assumed that only women can be the victims of rape. Little work has been conducted related to males as rape victims, and thus, is very understudied (Davies, 2002). Prejudices that prevail in society about men may skew the idea of even allowing them to be viewed as victims. It is estimated that 1 in 5 women and 1 in 71 men will be raped in their lifetime. Further, 1 in 45 men reported that they had been forced to penetrate an intimate partner during his lifetime (National Sexual Violence Resource Center, 2015). When the criminal prisoner population is included in the statistics, the number of male rape victims increases. In 2013, the National Crime Victimization Survey asked 40,000 households about rape and sexual violence. The survey found that 38 percent of incidents were against men turning up a remarkable statistic due to men representing between 5% and 14% in past years.

Included in the belief that men cannot be victims of rape is a belief that male rape victims do not suffer the same psychological consequences as female rape victims. However, there is some research that indicates men display serious psychological disturbances, even years after their assault (Davies, 2002). These incorrect assumptions or male rape myths have contributed to a veil of silence about how others will view a male victim of rape, as well as how victims identify with themselves, all driven ultimately by fear. Greater understanding of the sexual abuse towards male victims is necessary for men to report and disclose their experiences.

The acceptance of rape myths is one way in which sexual violence has been sustained and justified throughout history. Struckman-Johnson and Struckman-Johnson (1992), attempted to identify three general myths: (a) Male rape does not happen (e.g., “it

is impossible to rape a man”), (b) rape is the victim’s fault (e.g., “men are to blame for not escaping”), and (c) men would not be traumatized by rape (e.g., “men do not need counseling after being raped”). The degree to which society accepts these male rape myths may impact society’s view of the male victim, the willingness to prosecute such cases, and the willingness of victims to report rape cases.

This literature review critically evaluates literature regarding male rape myths and individuals’ attitudes towards victims. Early studies in the area concluded that ideologies that support male rape myths are similar to those that support female rape myths (Chapleau et al., 2008). This review will address how the aversive racism framework lead to the development of the ambivalence towards men inventory. The inclusion of ambivalent subfactors hostile and benevolent sexism will also be addressed along with how they relate to attribution of blame in male victims and the acceptance of male rape myths. The issue of Equal rights regarding the prosecution of male rape cases will also be addressed. The protection that should be granted under the 5th and 14th Amendments should extend to males, as well as female victims. The adequacy of the law regarding male rape, and how male rape victims are treated will be explored. This review will enclose summaries and critiques of existing literature, followed by a discussion of the proposed research question and hypothesis suggested by the review and examined in this thesis.

History of Male Rape Myths

Aversive Racism

The framework in which male rape myths derive begins with racial implication. The aversive racism framework views contemporary racial attitudes as multifaceted. The

conflicts between a person's positive conscious attitudes, the denial of personal prejudice, and unconscious negative feelings and beliefs about particular minority groups are components that are entailed in the critical aspect of the aversive racism framework. Aversive racism is a form of contemporary racism that, in contrast to the traditional form, operates unconsciously and in subtle ways ("Aversive Racism," 2010). The basic principles of this modern form of prejudice apply to the racial attitudes of members of dominant groups in society who endorse egalitarian values but discriminate in subtle ways that can be rationalized.

This discrimination is applied toward minority groups with histories of discrimination and strong contemporary egalitarian values. Dovidio and Gaertner, (2000) stated that according to aversive-racism perspective, many people who explicitly support egalitarian principles and believe themselves to be nonprejudiced also unconsciously harbor negative feelings and beliefs about blacks and other historically disadvantaged groups. This conflict creates ambivalence between aversive racist's egalitarian beliefs and their negative feelings towards minority groups. Aversive racism represents a particular type of ambivalence. Ambivalence is a pervasive feature of White America's racial attitudes (Katz, 1981). Dovidio and Gaertner, (2004) affirmed that within the United States, aversive racism relates to varying degrees of orientations toward women.

Ambivalent Sexism

Ambivalent sexism stemmed from the aversive racism framework. The focus on ambivalence evolved partly from the insight that perceivers have an easier time justifying prejudices if they can affirm some subjectively positive (not just negative) beliefs about another group (Glick & Fiske, 2011). Ambivalence is termed as having mixed feelings or

contradictory ideas about someone or something. Men and women lead intimately intertwined lives, whereas people from different racial backgrounds experience less contact. The absence of excessive contact created a difference in race relations compared to gender relations and sexist attitudes, leading to the development of ambivalent sexism theory. According to Glick and Fiske (2011), racism had become more subtle and ambivalent.

The issue of racial ambivalence was viewed as a contemporary phenomenon with no conflict which allowed for stronger support in developing a new sexism scale with an added component. Women and African Americans were viewed as hostile. A study conducted by Eagly and Mladinic (1989) demonstrated that American student had more favorable stereotypes of women than men. Glick and Fiske (2011) stated that the “women are wonderful effect” seemed to confirm that attitudes toward women had, like attitudes toward Blacks, transformed from hostile to ambivalent. Ambivalence towards women differs from racial ambivalence due to sexist rejecting women in the workplace yet embracing them at home. Men genuinely love and like women, which brings about their ambivalence.

As the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory developed, so did the theory. Glick and Fiske (2011) found that the domains in which men and women compete and cooperate helped in deepening the analysis of gender relations. They were specified by two categories, hostile versions which presented sexuality as combat, competing gender roles, and women challenging male dominance. The second-factor benevolent versions included romantic intimacy, complementary gender roles, and women as cooperative subordinates. These beliefs lead to the construction of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory

(ASI), based on sexist ambivalence and gender relations including benevolent and hostile subscales.

Hostile and Benevolent Sexism

Glick and Fiske (1996) stated that sexism is a multidimensional construct that encompasses two sets of sexist attitudes: hostile and benevolent sexism. The nature of ambivalent sexism would signify that these two constructs entail contradictory tones towards women. These terms are characterized as ambivalent because even if the beliefs are positively related, they have opposing evaluative implications, fulfilling the literal meaning of ambivalence (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

These constructs began with the focus strictly being on women. Hostile sexism is explained by the classic definition of prejudice, while benevolent sexism is the attitude towards women which views them in stereotypical restricted gender roles but have an underlying positive, prosocial tone. These two constructs share three components; paternalism, gender differentiation, and heterosexuality. Paternalism goes well with the idea that sexism is a form of ambivalence. The Random House College Dictionary (1973) defines paternalism as relating to others “in the manner of a father dealing with his children.” This definition includes connotations of both domination, domineering paternalism, as well as affection and protection, protective paternalism (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Ambivalent Sexism Inventory Towards Men

Women are likely to hold ambivalent attitudes about men as a group, resenting men’s structural power, sexist attitudes that portray men as superior, and the manner in which men assert control within intimate heterosexual relationships (Glick & Fiske,

1999). The dependence women have on men may enable them to create ambivalent attitudes. They may resent men's power, but their dependency may also provide incentive to "flatter" men as well (Glick & Fiske, 1999). Ambivalent sexism toward men reflects women's conflicted relationship with the more powerful outgroup (Glick & Fiske, 1999). Hostile sexism characterizes men as arrogant, sex-starved, and domineering while benevolent sexism views men as strong, resourceful, and stoic. These two constructs allow women to resolve their inner conflict of resentment towards males and their status but also the need to depend on them for protection. With these constructs developed the full construction of the Ambivalence Towards Men Inventory, (AMI) assessing women's ambivalence toward men was completed. Subordinate groups may resent the power of a higher dominant group and begin characterizing the dominant group as inferior critically and by associating negative traits that are associated with power to the dominant group.

Rape Myths

Rape Myths about Female Victims

The maltreatment of female rape victims is driven by rape myths. Rape myths are stereotypical or false beliefs about the culpability of victims, the innocence of rapists, and the illegitimacy of rape as a serious crime (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). The Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scales, Payne, Lonsway, and Fitzgerald (1999) identified seven types of rape myths regarding women, a few include; she asked for it, it wasn't really rape, he didn't mean to, and she wanted it. Previous studies have found that one of the best predictors of rape myth acceptance was acceptance of interpersonal violence. This is the belief that "force and coercion are legitimate ways to gain compliance and specifically that they are legitimate in intimate and sexual relationships" (Burt, 1980).

Glick and Fiske (1996) ultimately updated Burt's construct with the proposal of benevolent and hostile sexism. Although hostile and benevolent sexism are both stereotypical beliefs about women, they differ in prejudicial evaluations (Glick & Fiske, 1996). These two subscales provided insight into the attribution of blame towards victims. Viki and Abrams, (2002) suggested that individuals who score higher in benevolent sexism may be more likely to blame victims of acquaintance rape for falling short of the "ladylike" standard. Chapleau, Oswald, and Russell, (2008) expect that those who are higher in benevolent sexism toward men will be more supportive of male rape myths, such that they will judge male rape victims harshly for not being "man enough" to escape a sexual assault. Another assumption was that those who scored higher in benevolent sexism toward males would expect male victims to quickly regain their manhood and deny that the assault was traumatic (Chapleau, Oswald, & Russell, 2008). Individuals who blamed victims in this setting did so to protect their belief in a just world. For men, rape myths about female victims justify men's sexual domination of women; for women, rape myths mitigate fear and feelings of vulnerability (Chapleau, Oswald, & Russell, 2008).

Rape Myths about Male Victims

Chapleau, Oswald, & Russell, (2008) stated that:

Male rape myths have been identified using the following beliefs: (a) Being raped by a male attacker is synonymous with the loss of masculinity (Groth & Burgess, 1980), (b) men who are sexually assaulted by men must be gay (Stermac, Del Bove, & Addison, 2004), (c) men are incapable of functioning sexually unless they are sexually aroused (Smith, Pine, & Hawley, 1988), (d) men cannot be

forced to have sex against their will (Stermac et al., 2004), (e) men are less affected by sexual assault than women (Stermac et al., 2004), (f) men are in a constant state of readiness to accept any sexual opportunity (Clements-Schreiber & Rempel, 1995), and (g) a man is expected to be able to defend himself against sexual assault (Groth & Burgess, 1980).

The first attempt to measure these myths was made by Struckman-Johnson and Struckman-Johnson (1992). These myths were generalized into three generic beliefs: (a) Male rape does not happen, (b) rape is the victim's fault, and (c) men would not be traumatized by rape. It is not clear how these myths develop and who in fact believes them, however, researchers consider that the same attitudes that support female rape myths would also support rape myths regarding males. Males seem to take more scrutiny due to the societal labels. The persistence of male rape myths means that victims are often left untreated, isolated, and sidelined (Cohen, 2014).

If assaulted, male victims are expected to quickly reclaim their manhood and deny that the assault was traumatic. When it comes to perpetrator blame, women typically are not seen as a threat in male rape. As noted in a 1952 Yale Law Review article: the "role of the man as the initiator of sexual relations and the active partner in the act ... contributes to the assumption that men cannot be raped by a woman" (p. 70). Based on these beliefs, Struckman-Johnson and Struckman-Johnson (1992) created the Male Rape Myth Scale, measuring the relationship between male rape myth acceptance and attributions of blame. Struckman-Johnson and Struckman-Johnson (1992), attempted to identify three general myths: (a) Male rape does not happen (e.g., "it is impossible to rape a man"), (b) rape is the victim's fault (e.g., "men are to blame for not escaping"), and (c)

men would not be traumatized by rape (e.g., “men do not need counseling after being raped”). The degree to which society accepts these male rape myths may impact society’s view of the male victim, the willingness to prosecute such cases, and the willingness of victims to report rape cases. This measure uses a 6-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 6 = *strongly agree*), with higher scores indicating more endorsement of these rape myths.

The Scales in Practical Use

Chapleau, Oswald, & Russell, 2008, investigated male rape myths using the Struckman-Johnson measure on male rape myths. This scale was the first scale that focused strictly on males and the beliefs surrounding rape regarding them. They also examined gender differences in rape myth acceptance and explored the underlying ideologies that facilitate male rape myth acceptance. The topic of ambivalent sexism and how this measure plays a role in rape myth acceptance is also presented. Chapleau, Oswald, & Russell, 2008 also examined how acceptance of interpersonal violence, adversarial sex beliefs, and ambivalent sexism toward men relate to male rape myth acceptance. Ambivalent Sexism is comprised of two sub-factors described as benevolent sexism, viewing men as strong, resourceful, and stoic and hostile sexism, viewing men as arrogant, sex-starved, and domineering. Chapleau, Oswald, & Russell, stated that in past research in interpersonal violence items on scales depict men as the sexual aggressor and that individuals who believe that men should assert themselves through violence may also be less sympathetic to male victims. Men being held in a benevolent light would play into this idea. The authors believed that participants who were higher in benevolent sexism toward men would be more supportive of male rape myths, such that they will judge the

males harshly for not being “man enough” to escape a sexual assault (Chapleau Oswald, & Russell, 2008).

The authors replicated previous findings (Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1992) that men are more supportive of male rape myths. The participants consisted of 423 college students 65% female (276), 85.2% White with a mean age of 20. The findings support the hypothesis and coincide with Struckman-Johnson's study as well. Men are more supportive of male rape myths than women, but the magnitude of these differences depend on the type of the myth. Overall men were supportive of all rape myths than were women.

Davies, Gilston, & Rogers' (2012) article examining the relationship between rape myth acceptances, victim blame, gender roles, homophobia, and ambivalent sexism, it was found that male respondents were more accepting of both male and female rape myths and displayed more negative affective attitudes toward gay men than did female respondents. Also, when victim blame and sexual assault were highlighted male respondents saw these factors to be less severe than did their female counterparts. Studies have shown that in general men are more likely to endorse rape myths than women (Burt, 1980; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995) and the authors also found evidence to support this claim as well. This article explored how male rape myth acceptance related to and was predicted by, a series of attitudinal measures using dynamics such as; social roles, attitudes towards specific gender and sexual orientations.

Past research on the effects of male rape has shown that many men display severe psychological disturbances, even years after their assault (Davies, Gilston, & Rogers, 2012). Male survivors of rape experience an array of psychological problems, such as

depression, loss of self-esteem, posttraumatic stress disorder, and sexual dysfunction, loss of masculinity or confusion about their sexual identity, and anger and revenge fantasies. Examining the effects of male rape and how people think about this crime is where interest is lying in recent studies like this. The authors predicted that men would assign more victim blame and perceive the sexual assault of a gay male victim to be less severe than would men and that rape myth acceptance would be predicted by victim blame and perceptions that male rape is not such a serious event. This is the view of male rape that most individuals partaken in when males are victims.

Participants involved in the study included 323 undergraduate students (146 males; 177 females). Respondents age ranged from 18 to 47 ($M = 23.4$ years), with the majority identifying as White/British. All volunteers were handed a study booklet and asked to complete the questionnaires privately and on their own time. The study booklet was comprised of questionnaires that rated along a 7-point Likert-type scale including the Male Rape Myth Scale, an 11-item questionnaire measures stereotypical/prejudicial beliefs about male rape; Illinois Rape Myths Scale, a 12-item questionnaire measuring stereotypical/prejudicial beliefs pertaining to the victims and perpetrators of female rape; Affective Reactions Toward Gay Men Scale, nine-item scale assess negative and highly emotive attitudes toward gay men; Social Roles Questionnaire, 13-item questionnaire measures negative gender stereotypes relating to the role adopted by men, women, and children within society; Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, 22-item scale measure both hostile and benevolent sexist attitudes toward women; Ambivalence Toward Men Inventory, 20-item measure measures hostile and benevolent sexist attitudes toward men; and scenario and attribution items a hypothetical scenario depicts a stranger rape carried

out in a car park as the victim was walking home from his evening job. Results broadly conformed to predictions, with men generally more negative than women, and male rape myth acceptance significantly related to female rape myth acceptance, negative attitudes about gay men, gender role attitudes, and victim blame.

A study by Walker, Archer, & Davies (2005), examined the effects of male rape on psychological functioning. Male rape survivors display psychological disturbances, sometimes years after the assault, for example, depressive symptoms and suicide attempts (Mezey & King, 1989) and a range of other problems including alcohol and drug misuse (Coxell & King, 1996). The authors suggested that male rape survivors would have more negative scores on measures of psychological functioning, lower self-esteem, and more negative assumptions about the world, than males with no prior history of sexual assault. No studies have compared men that have been raped with those who have not as of yet. Survivors who do not belong to clinical populations have rarely been investigated, which could confound findings.

Participants took part in responding to: the General Health Questionnaire, which measures aspects of psychological functioning: somatic symptoms, anxiety, social dysfunction, and depression, the World Assumption Scale which gauges people's basic assumptions about the world in which they live, the State Self-esteem Scale which assesses current feelings of self-esteem, and the Impact of Event Scale that refers to a serious life-event, in this case to the rape. Participants were 40 men who were recruited through convenience sampling and were matched as much as possible with the survivor's demographics. It is difficult to determine how representative the sample used was of all male survivors because it was self-selected.

As predicted the survivors had significantly higher scores than the controls, males with no prior sexual assault experience, on the General Health Questionnaire, State Self-esteem, and Impact of Event Scale. However, contrary to predictions, the survivor and control groups did not differ significantly on the world assumption scale. It has been stated in previous articles as well as this that men exhibit disturbances in their psychological function after an assault. The concern of Walker et al.'s study was to determine the association between attempting suicide and not seeking psychological help after rape. It is crucial for treatment services to reach survivors to avoid such events, although many survivors, even if they do seek psychological help, only do so long after the assault.

Chaplaeu, Oswald, & Russell (2007) examined how ambivalent sexism toward women and men support rape myth acceptance. Benevolent sexism toward men, but not hostile sexism positively correlated with rape myth acceptance (Chapleau, Oswald, & Russell, 2007). Although most rape is perpetrated by men, women, and attitudes towards female victims, have been the focus of research, legal proceedings, and rape prevention programs. To better understand rape, it is time researchers turn their attention to men and attitudes towards male rape victims. In the cases of rape, often perceivers make judgments about both the victim and aggressor that result in minimizing the violence and exonerating the perpetrator, which should not be the case. Chapleau, Oswald, & Russell, examined the distinct sub-factors of hostile and benevolent sexism in relation to rape myth acceptance.

This study sought to determine how the specific components of hostile and benevolent sexism about men and women were associated with rape myth acceptance.

The authors presented three hypotheses, however in relation to the male population; they predicted that protective paternalism, the belief that men should protect women, will be a significant predictor of rape myth acceptance and that heterosexual hostility will be negatively associated with rape myth acceptance. Regarding males, hostile sexism has three sub-factors. The resentment of paternalism, which negatively characterizes men as having a stronghold on social hierarchy, and unwilling to share power with women is the first sub-factor. Next, compensatory gender differentiation, the belief that women are superior to men and responsible for men's success and last under hostile sexism, heterosexual relationships, the expressed frustration that men dominate and exploit women. Benevolent sexism also has three sub-factors; maternalism, asserts women's superiority over men in the domestic realm while simultaneously justifying their servitude towards men, complementary gender differentiation women's admiration for men's stereotypical abilities, which supports why they are in power, and heterosexual intimacy, the belief that women are incomplete without the romantic involvement of a man.

The participants who partook in this study were 420 college students from a medium Midwestern Catholic university (N = 245) and a small eastern public college (N = 175). They were predominately female (65.2%) and White (85.7%). The mean age was 19.6 years old. Of the participants, 9 had a high percentage of missing values, and two were omitted for being outliers. The remaining sample size was 409. Participants were asked to complete the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale-Short Form, Ambivalence toward Men Scale, and Ambivalent Sexism Inventory. As predicted, protective paternalism was positively correlated with rape myth acceptance. Conversely, the study

found that heterosexual intimacy was positively associated with rape myth acceptance and was not moderated by participant gender. Hostile sexism toward men was not a predictor for either participant.

Blame and Victim Responsibility

Mitchell, Hirschman, and Hall (1999) examined the following: (a) the relationship between the sexual orientation of a male rape victim and participants' attributions of the victim's degree of responsibility, pleasure, and trauma associated with the assault, and (b) differences between male and female participants in their attributions of these variables. They hypothesized that a male rape victim described as homosexual would be held more responsible for being assaulted and would be rated as experiencing greater pleasure and less trauma than their heterosexual counterparts. They also proposed that male participants would attribute greater responsibility, greater pleasure, and less trauma to the victim than female counterparts would. Clinical research that is available suggests that male rape victims experience significant physical and psychological trauma from the assault and it suggests that like females, male rape victims are often perceived as responsible for being assaulted.

Participants were undergraduate students who volunteered as a requirement of a general psychology course at a large Midwestern university. Of the participants 369 that successfully completed the experiment, 181 were male, and 215 were female. The mean age was 18.9 and ranged from 16 to 21. Concerning ethnicity 87.4% identified as Caucasian, 8.1% as African American, 1.8% as Asian or Pacific Islander, 1.8% as Latino, 0.5% as Native American or Alaska Native, and 0.5% as coming from a mixed ethnic background.

Participants in the study read a report in which another male sexually assaulted a man; they were unaware that it was a fictional incident. The participants were randomized, 178 of them received a report in which the victim's sexual orientation was described as heterosexual and 214 participants reading an identical description of the victim, except the sexual orientation was substituted for homosexual instead. The assignment of sexual orientation was random and double-blind so that neither the participant nor the experimenter knew which report participants received. After the vignette, a two-part questionnaire was completed. The first part asked participants to rate their perception of the victim's responsibility for the assault, the amount of trauma the victim experienced, and the amount of pleasure received from the assault. The questions were on a 9-point Likert scale. The second half was a 10-item bogus memory test. One of the items was a manipulation check for the victim's sexual orientation, and the other nine items were intended as filler and dealt with demographics and occupation in regards to the victim.

Both hypotheses were supported. Participants held the male rape victim more responsible for being assaulted when he was described as homosexual than when he was described as heterosexual. Participants also rated the victim as experiencing more pleasure from the assault when he was described as homosexual than when he was described as heterosexual. The verdict of blame should not be placed on a victim concerning their sexuality; however, this study provides clear evidence that it is a predictor for attribution of blame.

This study highlights the male as a victim and the effects of their rape after it has gone unreported. The population, the authors, reported on, college males, is a very

impressionable population, if help post a rape is received early, risky health behaviors may be stopped before they become a severe problem. Turchik (2012) examined the relationship between college men's sexual victimization experiences, engagement in a number of health risk behaviors, and sexual functioning. The study also examined sexual victimization by assault severity categories and utilized a multi-item, behaviorally specific, gender-neutral measure. Although the majority of adult sexual crimes are committed by men against women, other forms of sexual assault, such as those perpetrated against men, are often ignored.

Although research has demonstrated the potential negative mental and physical health effects of male sexual victimization only a few studies have examined such issues among college students. It was hypothesized that men who reported sexual victimization would report more frequent engagement in the health risk behaviors, more sexual functioning problems, and lower sexual desire, and that endorsement of these variables would be highest among those with more severe victimization experiences.

An item measuring sexual functioning was constructed and used to obtain a count of sexual functioning problems. Participants were asked to circle all of the sexual problems that applied to them. The seven problems were based on the seven sexual dysfunction disorders as categorized in the DSM IV. The Sexual Desire Inventory was used to assess both dyadic and solitary sexual desire. The SDI is a cognitive self-report measure that explores the strength of a person's sex drive and the desired frequency of sexual behavior rather than the frequency of the actual behavior. All the substance use variables were assessed using the Drinking and Drug Habits Questionnaire. The 31-item DDHQ assessed participants' substance use employing standardized definitions of what

constitutes a drink (e.g., one 4 oz. glass of wine). The 23-item Sexual Risk Survey was used to assess the frequency of sexual risk behaviors in the past six months. All items pertain to the actual participant's behavior over the past six months, and the scale was designed for college students with or without sexual experience. Sexual victimization was assessed using the Sexual Coercion Tactics Scale, which assesses sexual coercion used by and used on both men and women since the age of 16 years. These surveys ask participants to indicate how many times they have either used coercive tactics to get someone to engage in sexual behaviors or how many times he or she engaged in sexual behaviors because someone used these tactics on them and the gender of the other person involved.

Participants were 302 undergraduate men, from a medium-sized Midwestern University, the majority of whom were between the ages of 18 to 23 ($M = 19.2$). The majority of participants indicated they were heterosexual (95.7%), Caucasian (92.4%). Most of the participants (85.4%) reported having consensual sexual experience. Three participants had a significant amount of missing data and were removed from the analyses leaving a total sample of 299. The hypothesis was supported. Sexual victimization among college men was related to higher levels of alcohol use, problem drinking behaviors, tobacco use, sexual risk behaviors, and more sexual functioning problems; however, neither drug use or sexual desire were related in the presence of the other predictors. This study also demonstrated that health risk behaviors and sexual functioning problems were highest among those who experienced more severe victimization with all these problematic behaviors being greater among those who reported rape compared to no victimization.

Davies, Rogers, and Bates (2008) investigated the impact of victim sexual orientation, the degree of victim physical resistance and respondent gender on attributions of blame and assault severity in a hypothetical case of stranger-perpetrated male rape. Male rape victims have been neglected, though surveys suggest that the rape of men is a significant problem. Male victims are aware of the negative attributions people sometimes make against them and fears about homophobic reactions are one of the reasons why many male rape victims fail to disclose their assault to family, friends, and the authorities. Another reason relates to male victims being blamed or deemed responsible for their assault because they were not “man enough” to defend themselves from their aggressor.

No previous studies have varied the victim’s sexuality at the same time as manipulating their level of resistance. Sexual orientation has been shown to impact significantly on how people, men, in particular, perceive victims. The authors hypothesized that female respondents would attribute less blame to the victim irrespective of his sexuality or his degree of resistance, differences should only be found in men’s attributions. They also proposed that men should be more negative toward the gay victim and when a male victim does not attempt to physically resist his attacker. If the victim was gay and did not resist they would receive the most blame.

A hypothetical scenario was created and indicated whether the victim physically resisted his attacker. There were two instances of non-resistant and resistant. The non-resistant scenario stated, “Steven did not resist as the man told him that he would be very sorry if he did not do what he was told.” The resistant scenario stated that the victim punches his attacker in the face before finally being overwhelmed by him. The victim’s

sexuality was described by him belonging to a certain society at his school. A 12-item attribution questionnaire followed the scenario that assessed attributions of victim or perpetrator. “How much do you think Steven’s behavior was to blame for the assault” was the blame component while the severity component stated, “How much do you think Steven will be traumatized by the assault.”

Participants included 183 respondents, (70 male and 113 female) with an age range of 18-56 years ($M = 21$). The majority were White/British (85.1%), Asian (Indian or Pakistani; 9.5%), with a remainder of Afro-Caribbean or Chinese (5.4%). 87.3% heterosexual males, 7.9% gay males, and 4.8% bisexual. The first hypothesis was supported. As predicted men considered the assault to be less severe and blamed the victim more than did women. Research is consistent with this finding regarding males, females, and homosexual men. The second hypothesis was supported and rejected at the same time. Although the heterosexual victim was attributed more blame if he did not resist, the gay victim was, contrary to expectations, blamed more when he fought back than when he did not. This article provides support for the insight people have on the victims of male rape. This is good news for those being affected by or treated for the effects of male rape.

Male Rape and the Law

The History of Male Rape and the Law

Historically, male rape was classified under sodomy as a crime. Laws pertaining to homosexual activity were referenced regarding cases of male rape. Within the context of sexual violence, male rape has only recently been discussed, though sodomy laws have been existent. The English common-law definition for rape was defined as “a man having

carnal knowledge of a woman, not his wife through force and against her will” and generally involved penetration of the vagina by the penis (Lyons, 2004). It was not until the 1970’s that laws in the U.S began to consider men as victims becoming more gender neutral. Studies in the United Kingdom have taken a more active role in the male rape cases, although the U.S has begun to take strides in the inclusion of legislation protecting male victims of rape. Turchik and Edwards (2011) stated that many states do not recognize forced anal intercourse as rape, but instead “forced sodomy,” and therefore, the legal consequences of committing rape against a man are often different than those for victimizing a woman.

Additionally, many states and countries do not recognize female perpetrated sexual coercion as a prosecutable type of sexual aggression and do not recognize male rape or even male sexual assault if it is committed by a woman (Turchik & Edwards, 2011). Rumney (2009) reviewed the research on attitudes toward male rape victims and found three central barriers to the recognition of male rape: (a) denying or minimizing male rape; (b) viewing male rape as less serious than other crimes, especially when homosexual victims are involved; and (c) blaming the victim. With the assault of the opposite sex not being accounted for in the issue of male rape and sodomy laws being the framework the result is what is seen today with underreporting and judgment in the courtroom when male victims choose to come forth.

Equal Protection and Rape Shield Laws

According to the statistics, male rape is a significant issue. The National Institute of Justice & Centers for Disease Control & Prevention, Prevalence, Incidence, and Consequences of Violence Against Women Survey (1998) showed that as of 1998, 2.78

million men in the U.S. had been victims of attempted or completed rape. Under the 5th and 14th Amendment, individuals are allowed equal rights. The 5th Amendment states:

“No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a Grand Jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the Militia, when in actual service in time of War or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation (Legal Information Institute, 1992).”

Despite the prevalence of rape and sexual assault, many offenders are neither arrested nor prosecuted. Male rape cases typically do not get due process of law they are granted through their 5th Amendment right as a result of the stereotypes and myths surrounding male rape victims. The deprivation of a fair trial is only reinforcement of the stigma placed on males. The Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment prohibits states from denying any person within its territory the equal protection of the laws. This would mean that a state must treat an individual in the same manner as others in similar conditions and circumstances regardless of any extenuating factors that allow rights to be granted. This would force a state to govern impartially not draw distinctions between individuals, which introduces the issue of Rape Shield Laws.

The objective of Rape Shield Laws limits a defendant's ability to introduce evidence about the past sexual behavior of a rape victim. Over time, however, criminal justice advocates and feminist groups began to question the treatment of rape and rape

victims and to confront the sexism that infused the laws surrounding rape (Bachman & Paternoster, 1993). As stated in Javiad, 2014, the statute encouraged the reporting and successful prosecution of rape by limiting embarrassing and inflammatory testimony about the victim's prior sexual history. Rape Shield Laws were intended to protect female victims. Legislators did not examine the impact such laws would have on male victims of rape nor did they write the laws with male victims in mind. However, most Rape Shield Laws apply equally to victims of either sex. Thus, in states where the statutes defining rape and sexual assault are gender neutral, courts have used the gender-neutral language to find Rape Shield Laws applicable to cases of male rape (Javiad, 2014). Despite the lack of legislative history supporting such the application of Rape Shield Laws in male rape cases, it is consistent with the policies behind to apply them.

As a result of the new statute both the reporting and prosecution of rape increased. Male victims of rape feared the idea of disbelief as their women counterparts and their sexual history being revealed. Male victims have their own set of concerns when reporting their sexual assault aside from common apprehension. They are worried about the stigma that is perceived with a male victim and also fear of being recognized as unmasculine or gay. They suspect that verdicts in criminal cases can be compromised because of anti-gay bias, regardless of the evidence male victims, therefore, require at least the same kind of protection that female victims receive under Rape Shield Laws, as well as additional protection that addresses their unique concerns (Javiad, 2014). While Rape Shield Laws should be used to encourage male rape victims to come forward with their assault, they should also be altered to protect male rape defendants from prejudice in the courtroom. As a result, Rape Shield Laws must be interpreted to provide a "shield" in

male rape cases not only for sexual history evidence but also for sexual orientation evidence (Javiad, 2014).

Issues in the Courtroom

According to Bullock & Beckson (2011), erections and ejaculations are only partially under voluntary control and are known to occur during times of extreme duress in the absence of sexual pleasure. Particularly within the criminal justice system, this misconception, in addition to other unfounded beliefs, has made the courts unwilling to provide a legal remedy to male victims of sexual assault, especially when the victim experienced an erection or an ejaculation during the assault (Bullock & Beckson, 2011). Ignorance surrounds the exclusion of males as victims. Bullock and Beckson, (2011) indicated that the incident is so rare that it does not merit attention, that males are more responsible, and that male victims are more likely to be homosexual and therefore actually wanted the assault.

Complicating these misperceptions is the status and meaning of erectile and ejaculatory behavior in men and the erroneous assumption that, when present, these physiological occurrences signify consent by the victim (Fuchs, 2004). As noted in Groth and Burgess (1980), a major strategy used by some offenders in the assault is to get the victim to ejaculate, which may symbolize to the offender his ultimate and complete control, may bewilder the victim and discourage the victim from reporting the assault, and may impeach the victim's credibility of his allegation of nonconsent in trial testimony. The First Circuit Court's definition of sexual contact provides implication that a full erection would signify that the sexual contact was in fact consensual. In many instances, reported cases of male rape when the victim maintains an erection are difficult

to come across because judges will simply dismiss the charges and thus, the decision remains unpublished (Fuchs, 2004). In the New England case *R. v. Armstrong*, a judge instructed the jury to acquit a defendant charged with forcible sodomy solely on the basis that the victim had an erection during the assault, which the judge accepted as a “defense of submission.” Only the protection of male victims who maintained partial erections during their attacks was sought, and those who maintained full erections would be left without a cognizable legal remedy.

Bullock and Beckson (2011) stated that anxiety, however, plays a role in the male sexual response. Studies have shown that increased anxiety is associated with premature or spontaneous ejaculation... men and boys have been described as having spontaneous ejaculations in response to several exciting or anxiety-provoking stimuli. This would suggest that anxiety facilitates erections in men. Such a reaction may serve to impeach male rape victims' credibility in trial testimony and discredit their allegation of non-consent (Groth and Burgess, 1980).

Current Study

Male rape has been too long neglected. The purpose of this literature review was to examine the information that is out there about male rape and male rape myths. Though women do not receive the treatment in legal settings that they should, males do not even get the fundamental rights that they are endowed to receive. Their rights are infringed upon, and an increase in the likelihood of other males' not coming forth about their sexual assault occurs.

The research has shown that males go through the same psychological and emotional trauma as women, however, treatment is not offered due to lack of reporting

and stigma. In reviewing the literature, it was found that males attribute more blame based on the acceptance of male rape myths. The current study analyzed how belief in rape myths and ambivalence, hostile or benevolent attitudes, predict attribution of blame of male rape victims.

Hypotheses

1. High rape myth acceptance would predict higher attribution of blame to male victims.
2. There would be higher attribution of blame to the male victim when the perpetrator is female rather than male.
3. There would be higher rape myth acceptance and higher attribution of blame to the victim when the perpetrator is male rather than female.
4. High rape myth acceptance and high ambivalence towards men would predict high attribution of blame to the male victim.
5. High rape myth acceptance would be a stronger predictor of blame to the male victim than would be high benevolent ambivalence attitude towards males.

Method

Participants

There were 191 participants (68 men, 121 women, the remaining 2 identified as other, age range: 18 – 30 years and above). Participants were from a variety of ethnic backgrounds; 31.4% identified as African American, 25.1% identified as Hispanic, 34% identified as Caucasian, 1.6 identified as Middle Eastern, 2.1% identified as Asian, .5% identified as Native American, and 5.2% identified themselves as Other. Participants'

level of education varied; 130 undergraduate students, 33 graduate students, 23 had some college, and 5 selected other.

Materials

Demographic Questionnaire. An author constructed demographic questionnaire was administered asking participant's gender, age, educational level, and ethnicity.

Male Rape Myth Scale. The rape myth scale (Struckman-Johnson and Struckman-Johnson, 1992) consists of 12-items that reflect misconceptions about men as victims of rape. Six items refer to men victimized by another man (e.g., "it is impossible for a man to rape a man"), and six items refer to women as perpetrators (e.g., "it is impossible for a man to be raped by a woman"). This measure uses a 6-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 6 = *strongly agree*), with higher scores indicating more endorsement of these rape myths. The total is derived from summing the scores of the 12 items. The total score can range from 12 to 72. (See Appendix A)

Ambivalence Toward Men Inventory. The Ambivalence Toward Men Inventory (Glick and Fiske, 1999) consists of 32 items that address how much an individual agrees with items advocating hostile and benevolent stereotypes and prejudices about men (e.g., men are unwilling to share power with women; men should provide for women) using a 6-point Likert-type scale (0 = *disagree strongly*, 5 = *agree strongly*). The scores determined two scales - benevolent sexism and hostile sexism. The total AMI score is derived from averaging scores on all items or averaging the Hostility toward Men (HM) and Benevolence toward Men (BM) subscale scores; higher scores indicate the greater the degree of the sexism. The total score for each scale is derived from averaging the subscale-specific items. (See Appendix B)

Attitudes Towards Rape Scale-Revised. The Attitudes Toward Rape Scale (Fields, 1978) consists of 32 items that address an individual's attitude toward rape using a 6-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree (scored 1) to strongly disagree (scored 6). The total is derived from summing the scores of the 32 items. The total score can range from 32 to 192. The higher scores indicate, the greater degree of blame placed on the victim. This revision was made by Pate and Bacheller (2017), to include language that focused on accountability for rape and victim blaming when the victim is male, and the perpetrator is a gender-neutral individual. (See Appendix C)

Procedure

The study required participants to access an online survey (psychdata.com) where they were asked to read a short vignette (See below). After reading the vignette, the participants were then asked to respond to three measures; the Male Rape Myth Scale (MRMS), the Ambivalence Toward Men Inventory (AMI), and the Attitudes Toward Rape Scale (ATR). A brief demographic questionnaire was included for descriptive purposes only.

The vignette is as follows:

“After a long day, Tom finally left his office building to get home. It was later than usual, and he was the only one left at the office along with the building's security guard. The lights were dim in the parking lot, so the security officer offered to walk Tom out. Tom smiled and declined, proceeding to walk to his car alone. As Tom approached his car, he reached into his briefcase for his keys; a (gender of the perpetrator, male or female) suddenly grabbed him by the arm pushing him roughly towards the bushes at the

darkened rear of the parking lot. Tom did not resist as the (gender of the perpetrator, male or female) told him that he would be very sorry if he did not do what he was told.”

Results

A correlation of the scale scores (Total MRMS, TotalATR, TotalAMI, and its subtests BM and HM) was conducted to ensure that there was indeed a relationship between the scales; results suggested that they were. See Table 1 for correlations.

Table 1

Correlations

| Measures | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|----------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---|
| 1. MRMS | - | | | | |
| 2. AMI | .342** | - | | | |
| 3. BM | .457** | .866** | - | | |
| 4. ATR | -.447** | -.385** | -.400** | - | |
| 5. HM | .140 | .872** | .510** | -.270** | - |

Note. ** Correlation is significant at the $p < .01$ level, two-tailed.

*Male Rape Myth Scale (MRMS); Ambivalence Toward Men Inventory (AMI); Benevolence Subscale (BM); Attitudes Towards Rape Scale-Revised (ATR); Hostility Subscale (HM)

Regressions

A linear regression was performed to predict attribution of blame based on rape myth acceptance. A significant regression equation was found $F(1, 188) = 46.91, p < .001$, with an R^2 of .20, adjusted $R^2 = .20$. A linear regression was performed to predict attribution of blame based on rape myth acceptance and ambivalence towards men. A significant regression equation was found $F(2, 187) = 32.95, p < .001$, with an R^2 of .26,

adjusted $R^2 = .25$. A multiple regression was conducted on rape myth acceptance, attribution of blame, and benevolent ambivalence with rape myth acceptance and benevolent ambivalence as the independent variables and attribution of blame as the dependent variable. The model was significant $F(2, 187) = 30.87, p < .001$. The individual predictors were examined further and indicated that rape myth acceptance $\beta = -.33, p < .001$ and high benevolent ambivalent attitudes toward males $\beta = -.25, p < .001$ were both significant predictors in the model.

T-Tests

Results of the independent sample t-test indicated that there were no significant differences in whether the perpetrator was female ($M=132.54, SD=21.04$) rather than male ($M=131.63, SD=21.28$); $t(188) = .296, p = .77$, regardless of the amount of blame attributed to the victim. An independent sample t-test also indicated that there were no significant differences in whether the perpetrator was male rather than female, regardless of rape myth acceptance $t(189) = -1.487, p = .14$, and the amount of blame attributed to the victim, $t(188) = .296, p = .77$.

Discussion

The hypotheses of this study were partially supported. Hypothesis 1 was that high rape myth acceptance would predict higher attribution of blame to male victims. Results supported the idea that the belief in male rape myths has a significant impact on the amount of support given and the amount of blame placed on the victim. Hypothesis 4 was that high rape myth acceptance and high ambivalence toward men would predict greater attribution of blame to the male victim. This was supported suggesting that the acceptance of male rape myths along with ambivalence towards men will likely influence

the amount of blame attributed to a male victim after their assault. Hypothesis 5 stated that rape myth acceptance would be a stronger predictor of blame than a benevolent attitude towards males. This was supported. Both rape myth acceptance and benevolent attitudes toward males were significant predictors, but the belief in rape myths was a stronger predictor than benevolent attitudes. This provides evidence that acceptance of male rape myths, which include beliefs such as, “Most men who are raped by a man are somewhat to blame for not being more careful,” is a greater predictor of attribution of blame and significantly influences individuals’ perception of male victims regardless of the attitude towards males.

It was found that the gender of the perpetrator had no significant impact on the attribution of blame to the male victim. Hypotheses 2 suggested that higher attribution of blame would be attributed to the victim when the perpetrator was female rather than male. This was not supported. Hypothesis 3 was that high rape myth acceptance would be associated with higher attribution of blame when the perpetrator was male rather than female. This was not supported.

The hypotheses that were tested using the regression model were all supported. These findings suggest that strong rape myth beliefs toward males predict less support for the victim; meaning that more blame will be placed on the victim. Furthermore, results indicated that the benevolent male subscale was a greater predictor of blame when compared to the hostile male scale, although both were significant. This is important to note because it suggests that the belief that men are strong, stoic, and resourceful has a more significant impact on the attribution of responsibility in cases of rape more so than

the belief that they are arrogant, domineering, and sex-starved. This would mean that individuals place more blame on the victim based on their attitude toward males.

The hypotheses that were tested using the T-test model were not supported, suggesting that the gender of the perpetrator has no significant impact on the attribution of blame regardless of the attitude towards males.

The acceptance of rape myths is one way in which sexual violence has been sustained and justified throughout history. The degree to which society accepts these male rape myths may impact society's view of the male victim, the willingness to prosecute such cases, and the willingness of victims to report rape cases. In our male-dominated society, it has often been assumed that only women can be the victims of rape. The belief that men cannot be victims of rape influences the prejudices that invalidate male's victimization. Those beliefs exacerbate the belief that male rape victims do not suffer the same psychological consequences as female rape victims. Because of this skewed view, males have been less inclined to disclose their assault, and when they do report, it is taken as a joke.

Past findings have suggested that the role of the man as the initiator of sexual relations and the active partner in the act contributes to the assumption that men cannot be raped. For example, research in interpersonal violence such as Chapleau, Oswald, & Russell (2008), depict males as the sexual aggressor and individuals who believe that men should assert themselves through violence may, in turn, be less sympathetic when a male has become the victim. This could be applied even in an instance when a male decides to fight back during their assault.

Studies that involve the public's perception of a male such as Glick & Fiske (1999) and Chapleau, Oswald, & Russell (2008), can be attributed to benevolent or hostile sexism. These studies have highlighted the standard to which individuals hold men to, whether it is a hostile or benevolent construct. These constructs have allowed individuals, women specifically, to resolve their inner conflict of resentment towards males and influence how males are viewed when coming forth about an attack. This current study states that the victim is just that, a victim, regardless of gender and that an individual's belief in male rape myths the most significant indicator of attribution of blame.

Decisions in the legal setting have been made based on individual's perceptions of males and the idea of them desiring intercourse or on the premise that males enjoy sex. However, the male physiological response was neglected and deemed by some courts as a "defense of submission." Bullock and Beckson (2011), state that erections and ejaculations are only partially under voluntary control and are known to occur during times of extreme duress in the absence of sexual pleasure. Incorrect assumptions of males and the idea of male rape myths have contributed to how male victims are regarded in cases of assault. Particularly within the criminal justice system, this misconception, in addition to other unfounded beliefs, has made the courts unwilling to provide a legal remedy to male victims of sexual assault, especially when the victim experienced an erection or an ejaculation during the assault (Bullock & Beckson, 2011). Males rights have been infringed upon in many cases, and despite growing awareness of these crimes, the legal system has yet to find resolution or allow the same rights granted to women to apply to males.

Limitations

This study aimed to analyze how belief in rape myths and ambivalent attitudes, hostile or benevolent, predict attribution of blame on male rape victims. The results of the study provided evidence that rape myth acceptance is the greatest predictor of attribution of blame. However, when analyzing the perpetrator's gender, some unaccounted factors on the Attitudes Towards Rape Scale-Revised may have influenced the insignificant results: reliability of the scale, reverse wording that was unclear of the perpetrator's gender, and the possibility that attitudes toward male rape may be viewed differently.

Further studies examining sexual violence with the inclusion of gender in psychology and law should aim to make clear and definitive statements about the perpetrator's gender in the scale measures. These findings provide more recent results with regards to perception and attribution of blame in cases of male rape; thus, providing more insight into the controversial and neglected topic. The results of this study can be useful in educating people who interact with male sexual assault victims, such as police, lawyers, jurors, and medical professionals. This study and others like it can aid in *voir dire* (jury selection), as it can help to predict possible outcomes of a trial based on how the jury perceives the victim and their personal beliefs. With this information, males may be more inclined to disclose about their assault and have a higher chance at prosecuting perpetrators of sexual assault. This may ensure that both men and women are afforded Equal Protection as articulated under the 5th and 14th amendment when their cases are presented within the American legal system.

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Appendix A

Male Rape Myth Scale

In this survey, male rape is defined as a situation in which a man is forced to engage in oral, anal, or vaginal intercourse with another person – either male or female. Rape refers to the use of physical force, use of weapons, threat of harm, blackmail, unfair use of authority, or use of drugs/alcohol to obtain sex:

1. It is impossible for a man to be raped by another man.

| | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Disagree Strongly | Disagree Somewhat | Disagree Slightly | Agree Slightly | Agree Somewhat | Agree Strongly |

2. Most men who are raped by a man are somewhat to blame for not escaping or fighting the man off.

| | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Disagree Strongly | Disagree Somewhat | Disagree Slightly | Agree Slightly | Agree Somewhat | Agree Strongly |

3. Most men who are raped by a man are very upset by the incident.

| | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Disagree Strongly | Disagree Somewhat | Disagree Slightly | Agree Slightly | Agree Somewhat | Agree Strongly |

4. Most men who are raped by a man do not need counseling after the incident.

| | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Disagree Strongly | Disagree Somewhat | Disagree Slightly | Agree Slightly | Agree Somewhat | Agree Strongly |

5. Even a big, strong man can be raped by another man.

| | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Disagree Strongly | Disagree Somewhat | Disagree Slightly | Agree Slightly | Agree Somewhat | Agree Strongly |

6. Most men who are raped by a man are somewhat to blame for not being more careful.

| | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Disagree Strongly | Disagree Somewhat | Disagree Slightly | Agree Slightly | Agree Somewhat | Agree Strongly |

7. It is impossible for a man to be raped by another woman.

| | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Disagree Strongly | Disagree Somewhat | Disagree Slightly | Agree Slightly | Agree Somewhat | Agree Strongly |

8. Most men who are raped by a woman are somewhat to blame for not escaping or fighting the woman off.

| | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Disagree Strongly | Disagree Somewhat | Disagree Slightly | Agree Slightly | Agree Somewhat | Agree Strongly |

9. Most men who are raped by a woman are very upset by the incident.

| | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Disagree Strongly | Disagree Somewhat | Disagree Slightly | Agree Slightly | Agree Somewhat | Agree Strongly |

10. Most men who are raped by a woman do not need counseling after the incident.

| | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Disagree Strongly | Disagree Somewhat | Disagree Slightly | Agree Slightly | Agree Somewhat | Agree Strongly |

11. Even a big, strong man can be raped by another woman.

| | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Disagree Strongly | Disagree Somewhat | Disagree Slightly | Agree Slightly | Agree Somewhat | Agree Strongly |

12. Most men who are raped by a woman are somewhat to blame for not being more careful.

| | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Disagree Strongly | Disagree Somewhat | Disagree Slightly | Agree Slightly | Agree Somewhat | Agree Strongly |

Higher scores for items 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12 indicate stronger beliefs in male rape myths. Items 3, 5, 9, and 11 are reverse scored to indicate stronger beliefs in male rape myths.

Appendix B

Ambivalence Toward Men Inventory

Below are a series of statements concerning men and women and their relationships in contemporary society. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement using the scale below:

| | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Disagree Strongly | Disagree Somewhat | Disagree Slightly | Agree Slightly | Agree Somewhat | Agree Strongly |

B(M) ____ 1. Even if both members of a couple work, the woman ought to be more attentive to taking care of her man at home.

H(S) ____ 2. A man who is sexually attracted to a woman typically has no morals about doing whatever it takes to get her in bed.

B(G) ____ 3. Men are less likely to fall apart in emergencies than women are.

H(S) ____ 4. When men act to "help" women, they are often trying to prove they are better than women.

B(S) ____ 5. Every woman needs a male partner who will cherish her.

H(G) ____ 6. Men would be lost in this world if women weren't there to guide them.

B(S) ____ 7. A woman will never be truly fulfilled in life if she doesn't have a committed, long-term relationship with a man.

H(G) ____ 8. Men act like babies when they are sick.

H(P) ____ 9. Men will always fight to have greater control in society than women.

B(M) ____ 10. Men are mainly useful to provide financial security for women.

H(P) ____ 11. Even men who claim to be sensitive to women's rights really want a traditional relationship at home, with the woman performing most of the housekeeping and childcare.

B(S) ____ 12. Every woman ought to have a man she adores.

B(G) ____ 13. Men are more willing to put themselves in danger to protect others.

H(S) ____ 14. Men usually try to dominate conversations when talking to women.

H(P) ____ 15. Most men pay lip service to equality for women, but can't handle having a woman as an equal.

B(S) ____ 16. Women are incomplete without men.

H(G) ____ 17. When it comes down to it, most men are really like children.

B(G) ____ 18. Men are more willing to take risks than women.

H(S) ____ 19. Most men sexually harass women, even if only in subtle ways, once they are in a position of power over them.

B(M) ____ 20. Women ought to take care of their men at home because men would fall apart if they had to fend for themselves.

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Note: The HM subscales are indicated by the following notation: H(P)Resentment of Paternalism, H(G) = Compensatory Gender Differentiation, H(S) = Heterosexual Hostility. The BM subscales are indicated by the following notation: B(M) = Maternalism, B(G) = Complementary Gender Differentiation, B(S) = Heterosexual Intimacy

Scoring Instructions:

Hostility toward Men (HM) score = average of the following items:

2, 4, 6, 8, 9, 11, 14, 15, 17, 19.

Benevolence toward Men (BM) score = average of the following items:

1, 3, 5, 7, 10, 12, 13, 16, 18, 20.

Overall AM1 score = average of all items. For correlational research, purer measures of HM and BM can be obtained by partialing each of these subscales from the other to control for the correlation between the two subscales. An overall AM1 score can be obtained merely by averaging scores on all items or averaging the HM and BM subscale scores.

Appendix C

Attitudes Toward Rape Scale (ATR) Revised

This revised version includes language that focuses on accountability for rape and victim blaming when the victim is male, and the perpetrator is a gender-neutral individual (Pate & Bacheller, 2017).

1. A man can be raped against his will
2. The reason most rapists commit rape is for the thrill of physical violence
3. Rapists are “normal” individuals
4. In forcible rape, the victim never causes the crime
5. All rapists are mentally sick
6. A charge of rape two days after the act has occurred is probably not rape
7. A man should be responsible for preventing his own rape
8. An individual who has committed rape should be given at least 30 years in prison
9. Men are trained by society to be rape victims
10. A raped man is a less desirable man
11. If a man is going to be raped, he might as well relax and enjoy it
12. Rape provides the opportunity for many rapists to show their sexual maturity
13. Most men secretly desire to be raped
14. It would do some men some good to be raped
15. Men provoke rape by their appearance or behavior
16. “Nice” men do not get raped
17. Most charges of rape are unfounded
18. In order to protect the rapist, it should be difficult to prove that a rape has occurred

19. Rape is the expression of an uncontrollable desire for sex
20. Rape is the worst crime that can be committed
21. Rape is a sex crime.
22. All rape is an exercise in power over men
23. During a rape, a man should do everything he can do to resist
24. Rapists are sexually frustrated individuals
25. In most cases when a man was raped, he was asking for it
26. The reason most rapists commit rape is for sex
27. Rape of a man by a woman he knows can be defined as “a man who changed his mind afterward”
28. A convicted rapist should be castrated
29. A man should feel guilty following a rape
30. The degree of a man’s resistance should be the major factor in determining if a rape has occurred
31. A raped man is a responsible victim not an innocent one
32. Rape serves as a way to put or keep men in their “place”