

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF THE EFFECTS OF COMMUNICATION
EFFORTS ON AUDIENCE BELIEFS ABOUT SEXUAL ASSAULT

by

Casey Eike

B. A., University of Kansas, 1972

Submitted to the Department of Speech and
Drama and the Faculty of the Graduate School
of the University of Kansas in partial
fulfillment for the degree of Master of Arts.

Redacted Signature

Chairperson

Redacted Signature

Redacted Signature

Redacted Signature

For the Department

May, 1978

"Do women want to be raped? Do we crave humiliation, degradation, and violation of our bodily integrity? . . . Must a feminist deal with this preposterous question? The sad answer is yes, it must be dealt with, because the popular culture that we inhabit, absorb, and even contribute to, has so decreed."

S. Brownmiller, 1975

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iii
LIST OF TABLES	v
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Purpose of the Study	1
Rape in Our Society	2
Definitions of Sexual Assault	5
Negative Impact of Myths and Misconceptions about Sexual Assault	7
Education and Communication	12
Beliefs and Attitudes	13
Design of the Study	15
II. PREVIOUS RESEARCH	17
Research Overview	17
Sex Differences in Attitudes Toward Rape	18
Women's Attitudes Towards Rape	20
Attitudes Toward Victims of Sexual Assault	21
Fault Attribution	23
Summary	28
III. DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	29

Chapter		Page
	The Film "Rape Prevention: No Pat Answer"	30
	The Sexual Assault Belief Survey	32
	Administration of the Questionnaire	34
	Program Summaries	36
	Scoring and Descriptive Data	37
	Statistical Methodology	39
	Limitations	40
IV.	RESULTS	42
	Descriptive Data	43
	Score Comparisons by Sex	43
	Score Comparisons by Ethnic Background	44
	Score Comparisons by Answer to the Proximity to Victims of Sexual Assault Question	47
	Subgroup Scores Within Each Treatment by Each Variable	48
	Program Format Summaries	49
	Scores by Subgroup and Program Format	68
	Item-by-Item Analysis	69
	Statistical Tests	79
V.	SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	87
	Summary	87
	Introduction, Purpose of the Study, and Previous Research	87
	Design and Methodology	88
	Results	89
	Conclusions and Recommendations	92
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	95

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Number of Participants by Sex	45
2. Mean Scores by Sex	45
3. Number of Participants by Ethnic Background	46
4. Mean Scores by Ethnic Background	46
5. Number of Participants by Answer to Proximity to Victims of Sexual Assault Question	47
6. Mean Scores by Answer to Proximity to Victims of Sexual Assault Question	48
7. Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Control Group, Subgroup One	48
8. Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Control Group, Subgroup Two	50
9. Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Control Group, Subgroup Three	51
10. Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Control Group, Subgroup Four	52
11. Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Control Group, Subgroup Five	53
12. Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Control Group, Subgroup Six	54
13. Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Control Group, Subgroup Six	55
14. Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Treatment One, Subgroup One	56
15. Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Treatment One, Subgroup Two	57

Table		Page
16.	Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Treatment One, Subgroup Three	58
17.	Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Treatment One, Subgroup Four	59
18.	Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Treatment One, Subgroup Five	60
19.	Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Treatment One, Subgroup Six	61
20.	Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Treatment Two, Subgroup One	62
21.	Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Treatment Two, Subgroup Two	63
22.	Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Treatment Two, Subgroup Three	64
23.	Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Treatment Two, Subgroup Four	65
24.	Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Treatment Two, Subgroup Five	66
25.	Subgroup Scores by Each Variable, Treatment Two, Subgroup Six	67
26.	Program Format Summaries, Percent of Time	68
27.	Scores by Subgroup and Program Format, Percent of Time	69
28.	Responses to Belief Statements, Control Group	70
29.	Responses to Belief Statements, Treatment One	72
30.	Responses to Belief Statements, Treatment Two	74
31.	Comparison of Number of Incorrect Responses Between the Control Group and Treatment One	77
32.	Comparison of Number of Incorrect Responses Between the Control Group and Treatment Two	78

Table		Page
33.	Comparison of Number of Incorrect Responses Between Treatments One and Two	79
34.	Interactive Scores and Ranks, Control Group- Treatment One	81
35.	Interactive Scores and Ranks, Control Group- Treatment Two	82
36.	Interactive Scores and Ranks, Treatment One- Treatment Two	83

CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Study

The Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service exists to aid victims of sexual assault and to educate the public about the nature of this crime through community educational programs. This researcher has been a member of the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service for a number of years and through this organization has facilitated many of their programs about sexual assault. Although education is the goal of these programs, communication provides the means to achieve that goal. Until very recently, communication about sexual assault was virtually nonexistent. People are just now beginning to talk, to communicate openly, about sexual assault. This researcher believes that until widespread public communication about the true nature of sexual assault exists, our society will not be able to cope with this crime. Thus, it is important to find the means to achieve this goal and to test the effectiveness of those means. Therefore, the goal of this study is to test the effectiveness of a sexual assault education program with the hopes that even a limited validation of the effectiveness of the program will generate a more far-reaching effort or that indications of lack of effectiveness will spur the organization to examine its communication mode.

This chapter lays the groundwork for this study by discussing the various aspects of sexual assault. A general section entitled, "Rape in Our Society," attempts to pinpoint the extent of the crime of sexual assault in this country. The next section, "Definitions of Sexual Assault," discusses the various definitions of sexual assault. The section entitled, "Negative Impact of Myths and Misconceptions," points out the ways in which misinformation about sexual assault impacts on society's ability to deal with this crime and its victims. The purpose and goal of this project is further clarified in the section entitled, "Communication as the Answer." The next section explores the relationship of beliefs and attitudes. The chapter ends with an explanation of the design of the study.

Rape in Our Society

The crime of rape is a serious national problem that is fast approaching crisis proportions. Forcible rape has been recognized by the Federal Bureau of Investigation as one of the fastest growing and least reported crimes in this country. Statistical evidence about the prevalence of this crime is not conclusive. According to the Uniform Crime Reports published by the FBI, 31,060 rapes were reported in 1968,¹ 36,470 in 1969,² (a 17.4 percent increase

¹Uniform Crime Reports for the United States (Washington, D. C.: Federal Bureau of Investigation--U. S. Department of Justice, 1968), p. 11.

²Uniform Crime Reports for the United States (Washington, D. C.: Federal Bureau of Investigation--U. S. Department of Justice, 1969), p. 11.

from the year before), 37,270 in 1970³ (a 2.2 percent increase), 41,890 in 1971⁴ (a 12.4 percent increase), 46,430 in 1972⁵ (a 10.89 percent increase), 51,000 in 1973⁶ (a 9.8 percent increase), 48,082 in 1974⁷ (a 5.7 percent increase), and 56,090 in 1975⁸ (a 16.7 percent increase). Statistics on forcible rape gathered and published by the FBI cover only those reported incidents that are accepted as falling into the FBI definition of forcible rape. Official definitions of rape, however, exclude many sexual assaults. Statutory rape, forced anal intercourse, forced oral sex, indecent liberties with a child, the introduction of objects into the body, incest, sexual molestation of children, "date-rapes," and forced intercourse within a marriage relationship are not included in official statistics of forcible rape.

³Uniform Crime Reports for the United States (Washington, D. C.: Federal Bureau of Investigation--U. S. Department of Justice, 1970), p. 12.

⁴Uniform Crime Reports for the United States (Washington, D. C.: Federal Bureau of Investigation--U. S. Department of Justice, 1971), p. 12.

⁵Uniform Crime Reports for the United States (Washington, D. C.: Federal Bureau of Investigation--U. S. Department of Justice, 1972), p.

⁶Uniform Crime Reports for the United States (Washington, D. C.: Federal Bureau of Investigation--U. S. Department of Justice, 1973), p. 13.

⁷Uniform Crime Reports for the United States (Washington, D. C.: Federal Bureau of Investigation--U. S. Department of Justice, 1974), p. 22.

⁸Uniform Crime Reports for the United States (Washington, D. C.: Federal Bureau of Investigation--U. S. Department of Justice, 1975), p. 22.

Statistical reporting procedures are faulty, as well. The 1931 National Commission on Law Observance commented on the "un-systematic, often inaccurate, and more often incomplete statistics available in this country."⁹ The 1967 President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, in apparent agreement, reported that the country had "not yet found fully reliable methods for measuring the volume of crime."¹⁰ Plea bargaining and charge negotiations change rape statistics. The rape charge may be changed by the police or the courts to another criminal category easier to prove. The defendant may plead guilty to a lesser charge if the rape charge is dropped. Rape murders may be recorded only as murders.

The actual number of sexual assaults in this country may approach half a million a year or one every two minutes. Many rapes and attempted rapes are unreported. Law enforcement officials, criminologists, and community agencies estimate that anywhere from three out of five to one out of ten actual rapes or attempted rapes are ever reported. Many rape crisis centers report that 90 percent of actual rapes or attempted rapes go unreported.

⁹National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, Report on Criminal Statistics (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1931), p. 34.

¹⁰President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 27.

Definitions of Sexual Assault

The legal definition of rape in most states is the "act of sexual intercourse committed by a man with a woman not his wife, and without her consent." Susan H. Klemmack and David L. Klemmack studied the congruency between what was legally defined as rape and what the participants in their study identified as rape. They found that a situation was more likely to be defined as rape when the assailant was a stranger to the victim. Similarly, participants were much less willing to define a situation as rape when dating was involved or when the victim and attacker knew each other. It was found that such characteristics as socioeconomic status, education, family background, and attitudes toward a woman's role related to the participant's willingness to define situations as rape.¹¹

Another study conducted by the Kansas Community Rape Prevention and Victim Support Project found that personal definitions of rape vary widely. For example, of the 64 definitions of rape, 58 gave a personal definition that expanded the legal definition to include more instances than the law would recognize. Only seven responses specifically stated that it is a crime of a man against a woman, and only one stated that it was a crime against

¹¹Marcia J. Walker and Stanley L. Brodsky, eds., Sexual Assault (Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books, 1976), p. 135.

¹²Study done by the Kansas Community Rape Prevention and Victim Support Project, 1976.

"a woman not his wife." Thirty-seven definitions included the use of force. Typical responses were "forced sexual intercourse," or "sexual relations without the consent of one of the parties."¹²

Other definitions cited in the popular literature extend the implications of sexual assault into the broader realm of women's experience. Rape is sometimes viewed as an act of political oppression, whereby a woman is "kept in her place" under the threat of physical violence from men who are bigger, stronger, and more accustomed to physical intimidation. Medea and Thompson in Against Rape refer to the "little rapes" of on the street come ons and sexist language as not only an insulting invasion of privacy but as an overall part of the intimidation of women by men. The Victim Support Staff of the Ann Arbor Rape Crisis Center defines rape as:

Any act of genital contact which a woman has not initiated or explicitly agreed to, and which is imposed on her by a man using deception, social blackmail, threat, or physical violence. Rape is a different sort of crime. There is no economic motive, and rape is not even primarily a sexual act. . . . In most communities rape is uniquely an act of hostility and contempt committed by men against women.¹³

It is unlikely that the majority of the populace holds views similar to those of the victim support staffs of rape crisis centers. More likely are definitions based on myths such as, "women secretly desire to be raped," "nice girls do not get raped," "women ask

¹³Brochure, Ann Arbor Rape Crisis Center, 1975.

to be raped by their behavior," or that it is somehow the victim's fault that the crime occurred. A general lack of understanding of the nature of sexual assault continues to shroud this crime in misconceptions.

These misconceptions, in turn, affect society's ability to cope with this crime. Publicly held myths and misconceptions about rape lead to attitudes that create a reluctance to report the crime, prevent the crime, convict perpetrators of the crime, and help heal emotional wounds caused by the crime. In other words, there are four areas for which the holding of misinformation about sexual assault has negative impact: the reporting to authorities of the crime by the victims, the creation of an environment that is conducive to the emotional healing and well-being of victims of this crime, the prevention of this crime, and the eventual incarceration, or even rehabilitation, of men who commit sexual assault.

Negative Impact of Myths and Misconceptions about Sexual Assault

Most criminologists realize that the crime of rape is greatly underreported and agree that the reason many rapes go unreported is that the victim herself has heard and may have believed many of the myths about sexual assault. Susan Brownmiller in Against Our Will: Men, Women, and Rape lists some of these myths. "'All women want to be raped,' 'No woman can be raped against her will,' 'She was asking for it,' 'If you're going to be raped, you might

as well relax and enjoy it,' are the deadly male myths of rape, the distorted proverbs that govern female sexuality. . . . They are the beliefs that most men hold, and the nature of male power is such that they have managed to convince many women."¹⁴ In a study of rape victims conducted by Diana E. H. Russell, "several women stated that they had always believed that it was impossible for a woman to be raped until it happened to them, and they were convinced that if they told their boyfriends, their colleagues, or the police, they would not be believed, since the victims expected others to subscribe to the myth as unquestioningly as they had done."¹⁵

Myths about sexual assault, its nature, its victims, and how it occurs place the victims in an impossible situation. "To the extent that friends and acquaintances, employers, and clients, believe the myth(s), to that extent victims have to deal with incredulity should they choose to talk about their experiences."¹⁶ Many victims are imprisoned by these myths and find it impossible to report the crime to authorities.

Bard and Ellison report in "Crisis Intervention and Investigation of Forcible Rape" that "rape victims need sustain no physical

¹⁴Susan Brownmiller, Against Our Will: Men, Women and Rape (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1975), p. 346.

¹⁵Diana E. H. Russell, The Politics of Rape: The Victim's Perspective (New York: Stein and Day, 1975), p. 259.

¹⁶Russell, p. 24.

injury to suffer severe and lasting pain, few crimes are better calculated to leave their victims with lasting psychic wounds."¹⁷ The emotional wounds of a victim of sexual assault are repeatedly reopened if she chooses to cooperate with the judicial system. "Should the victim report the offense to the police, her suffering may be continued or even exacerbated by the justice system. She may be exposed to police skepticism, tactlessness, or outright prurience, inadequate, delayed, or non-existent medical care; and the need to describe repeatedly details of the attack to a seemingly endless assortment of police, doctors, prosecutors, and judges, most, if not all, of whom are men. If she should continue her cooperation to the point of trial, court rules can open her chastity, character, and choice of companions to scrutiny and, often, disparagement."¹⁸ The skepticism, prurience, and disparagement experienced by the victim is caused by misunderstanding about the nature of sexual assault. Often victims who have heard the myths about sexual assault, for example, "all rape victims ask for it," find themselves going to considerable lengths to convince themselves that they were at fault. "I was trying to find ways to blame

¹⁷Morton Bard and Katherine Ellison, "Crisis Intervention and Investigation of Forcible Rape," The Police Chief (May, 1974), p. 166.

¹⁸Lisa Brodyaga, et al., Rape and Its Victims: A Report for Citizens, Health Facilities, and Criminal Justice Agencies (Washington, D. C.: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1974), p. xi.

myself, trying to think, what did I do? What brought this on?"¹⁹
"And I kept wondering, why did this happen to me? What have I
done that this thing would happen?"²⁰ Our culture's current myth-
ology about rape creates an environment that fosters guilt feel-
ings on the part of the victim and hardly ever on the part of the
rapist. Clearly, these myths foster an environment that is not
conducive to the healing of emotional wounds caused by sexual
assault.

The most common myth that stands in the way of prevention
of sexual assault is "It can't happen to me." One of the victims
questioned in Russell's study stated a good example of this common
myth. "Rape only happens to bad girls. I am a good girl, so
it can't happen to me."²¹ Common beliefs such as, "Rape usually
occurs in dark alleys," or that "Rapists are always strangers,"
or that "Rapists are looking for sexy-looking women," are other
examples of misinformation about rape. This kind of misinforma-
tion serves to make potential victims even more vulnerable to
attack. To believe that one is immune to this crime precludes the
first step in not being vulnerable, mental preparation. To believe
that "it can't happen to me" is as dangerous as reasoning that
"I am a good person, therefore, I will not be in an automobile
accident."

¹⁹Russell, p. 21.

²⁰Russell, p. 21.

²¹Russell, p. 35.

Finally, beliefs that foster an unwarranted skepticism of women who claim to have been victims of sexual assault are directly related to the reason this country has such a low conviction rate for sexual assault offenders. Jurors are very reluctant to convict accused assailants because of attitudes about rape based on myths and misconceptions. For the same reason, police are often reluctant to pursue a complaint of sexual assault. According to Justice Department figures for 1974, only 51 percent of the reported rapes resulted in the arrest of a suspect. Only 60 percent of those arrested for forcible rape were prosecuted. Of those prosecuted, 49 percent had their cases acquitted or dismissed, a substantially higher rate than the acquittal-dismissal rate of adults prosecuted for all crimes, which is 29 percent. Thus, in only 15 percent of the reported cases of forcible rape could the victims rest assured that their attackers would be convicted. Nancy Gager and Cathleen Schurr in their book, Sexual Assault: Confronting Rape in America, draw a shocking conclusion from these figures:

Eighty-five percent of victims reporting rape had to live with the knowledge that their attackers were free--neither arrested nor convicted. Taking a conservative figure and assuming that the rape rate is minimally five times that of the reported cases, the following figures emerge: only 3 percent of the rapists will be convicted, and 97 percent will escape either arrest or conviction.²²

²²Nancy Gager and Cathleen Schurr, Sexual Assault: Confronting Rape in America (New York: Grosset and Dunlap, 1976), p. 166.

Undoubtedly, myths such as "women ask for rape," "women enjoy it," "nice girls don't get raped," or "most women who charge rape are seeking revenge against a man" contribute to jurors' reluctance to come to a guilty verdict in rape cases. Also, among women jurors, there may be a subconscious desire to deny that rape could happen to a "normal" woman, someone just like them. Thus, she may conclude that it must have been the victim's fault.

Clearly, if we are to cope with the crime of rape, we must begin by confronting the many myths and misconceptions that hinder society's ability to deal with this crime. Misconceptions about sexual assault may well lead to undesirable attitudes and beliefs about the crime and its victims, thus hampering a true understanding of this crime. Until society does understand this crime, sexual assault will continue to be the most personally devastating and least reported of all crimes against a person.

Education and Communication

Communication is the key to understanding. Communication with potential victims of sexual assault, potential jurors, law enforcement, hospital, and judicial officials and personnel, and others whose lives will be touched by this kind of victimization is vital. Of the various methods of communication, small group discussions and question-and-answer sessions seem most appropriate. Community educational programs utilizing these communication methods, as well as other information vehicles, such as films or filmstrips, have

potential for positive impact. Many such community programs now exist. Most follow a format consisting of the introduction of the presenters and the purpose of the agency, the showing of a film or other media information vehicle, and a discussion/question-and-answer session.

Very few programs have measured the effectiveness of their communication efforts. Since communication is the key to a better understanding of this crime, greater efforts should be made to reach increasing audiences in the most effective way. The purpose of this study is to test the effectiveness of one such program, the community education effort of the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service. More specifically, this study attempts to determine the effectiveness of this agency's major communication vehicle, the film, "Rape Prevention: No Pat Answer," as well as the effectiveness of their small group discussions.

Beliefs and Attitudes

This researcher originally believed that the measurement of the attitudes of the audience participants, before and after the film and the discussion, was an appropriate measure of the effectiveness of the film and the program. However, an examination of the qualities and definitions of attitudes led to doubt that an attitude scale could appropriately measure the effectiveness of the film and the program.

Since 1862, many definitions of attitudes have been offered. Thurstone defined attitude as "the degree of positive or negative

affect associated with some psychological object."²³ Park suggested four criteria for an attitude:

1. It must have definite orientation in the world of objects (or values) and in this respect differ from simple and conditioned reflexes,
2. It must not be an altogether automatic and routine type of conduct, but must display some tension even when latent,
3. It varies in intensity, sometimes being regnant, sometimes relatively ineffective,
4. It is rooted in experience, and therefore is not simply a social instinct.²⁴

According to Thomas and Znaniecki, "attitudes are individual mental processes that determine both the actual and potential responses of each person in the social world. Since an attitude is always directed toward some object, it may be defined as a state of mind of the individual toward a value."²⁵ The purpose of the film, however, is to affect people's beliefs about sexual assault. Thus, the question of the relatedness of beliefs and attitudes arises.

²³Allen L. Edwards, Techniques of Attitude Scale Construction (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1957), p. 3.

²⁴G. W. Allport, "Attitudes" in The History of Social Psychology in Attitudes: Selected Readings, eds. Marie Jahoda and Neil Warren (Baltimore: Penquin Press, Inc., 1966), p. 15.

²⁵Allport, p. 19.

Some authors define attitudes as being an "organization of beliefs,"²⁶ or a "consistent system of beliefs,"²⁷ or an "organization of interrelated beliefs."²⁸ Beliefs are thought to be components of attitudes and of a more primary nature. Beliefs, in turn, may be affective or purely cognitive, whereas attitudes must always envelop the affective. Since the film contains factual information and since that factual information is of great importance to the goals of the film, a measurement of attitudes alone cannot measure the total of the desired effect of the film. Thus, the measurement of effectiveness by means of a Likert-type or any other attitude measurement scale was rejected in favor of a scale that primarily measures beliefs. Inasmuch as most research in the area of the effectiveness of various presentational modes centers on the concept of attitude change, discussions of related research includes only that research which is directly related to beliefs about sexual assault.

Design of the Study

An agree-disagree-no opinion questionnaire made up of 17 statements of belief was administered to the audience participants of the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service's educational programs. These subjects completed the questionnaire at one of three

²⁶Milton Rokeach, Beliefs, Attitudes and Values (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1968, p. 112.

²⁷Patricia Niles Middlebrook, Social Psychology and Modern Life (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1974), p. 116.

²⁸Rokeach, p. 116.

points during the program: before the film was shown (Control); immediately after the film was shown (Treatment I), and after the question-and-answer, small group discussion (Treatment II). These questionnaires were scored according to the desired response, and the Mann-Whitney U test was utilized to determine whether a statistically significant difference between the scores of participants in each treatment existed. Demographic data, including sex, ethnic background, and proximity to victims of sexual assault (whether or not the subject has been a victim or has been close to a victim of sexual assault) was also gathered via the questionnaire. Mean score comparisons among groups were made to determine any score differences along demographic lines.

Chapter II discusses previous research in the area of publicly held beliefs about sexual assault and the effectiveness of rape education programs. A detailed description of the design and the implementation of this study is in Chapter III. The results of this study are outlined in Chapter IV, and Chapter V discusses the implications of these results.

CHAPTER II

PREVIOUS RESEARCH

Research Overview

Popular literature about sexual assault and its victims abounds with descriptions of the public's beliefs and attitudes on the subject. The list of publicly held myths remains consistent: nice girls don't get raped; a rape victim is damaged goods, women ask to be raped, rape victims deserve what they get, women enjoy rape, etc. Even the personal testimonies found in some works, notably Diana E. H. Russell's The Politics of Rape, reflect the same myths. For example, "I never really understood before how girls got raped. Also, I always thought that they got raped on the street, walking in the dark. It was surprising to me that I would get raped in the apartment of a friend--well, not a friend, but an acquaintance,"¹ or "By the way, I used not to believe it was possible to be raped. As a child, yes, but not as an adult."² These statements indicate that "prior to a rape experience, most victims, not surprisingly, subscribe to the same myths about rape as everyone else."³

¹Diana E. H. Russell, The Politics of Rape: The Victim's Perspective (New York: Stein and Day, 1975), p. 42.

²Russell, p. 124.

³Russell, p. 43.

Even though the literature seems to agree on the predominant myths surrounding sexual assault, very few actual studies have been done that attempt to measure attitudes or assess beliefs on the subject. Even fewer are studies that measure the effectiveness of education programs designed to change people's beliefs about sexual assault. The Metropolitan Organization to Counter Sexual Assault of Kansas City, Missouri, is one of the few organizations that has attempted to assess people's beliefs about sexual assault and to measure the effectiveness of their own educational program. Several studies have been conducted to assess university students' perceptions of and attitudes toward rape. Among these are a study done on the University of Maryland campus by Michele H. Herman and William E. Sedlacek and one done at a large southeastern university by Nona J. Barnett and Hubert S. Feild. A few studies measure fault attribution to victims of sexual assault, such as Saul Feinman's "Fault Attribution as a Function of the Actor's Intentions and Characteristics, and of Sex of the Observer" and Jones and Aronson's "Attribution of Fault to a Rape Victim as a Function of Respectability of the Victim."

Sex Differences in Attitudes Toward Rape

The Barnett and Feild study, "Sex Differences in University Students' Attitudes Toward Rape" was conducted in response to the fact that "there appears to be little knowledge among students about what rape is, . . . and few empirical studies have investigated

students' perceptions of rape."⁴ Thus, Barnett and Feild set out to investigate students' attitudes toward rape and, more specifically, the "nature of sex differences with respect to university students' attitudes toward rape."⁵ They developed an agree-disagree Attitude Toward Rape Questionnaire and administered it randomly to 400 undergraduate students. The twenty-five item questionnaire contained most, if not all, of the predominant myths about sexual assault, for example, "In most cases, when a woman was raped, she was asking for it," "Most women secretly desire to be raped," "Women provoke rape by their appearance or behavior," and "In forcible rape, the victim always causes the crime."⁶

Statistical comparisons were run on the male and female responses to these items. "Of the 25 t-tests calculated, 18 were significant, suggesting substantial sex differences in attitudes toward rape among these college students."⁷ Four of the 25 items were found to be the "most important items contributing to sex group differences."⁸ These statements were: "All rape is a male exercise in power over women," to which 40 percent of the females agreed

⁴Nona J. Barnett and Hubert S. Feild, "Sex Differences in University Students' Attitudes Toward Rape," Journal of College Student Personnel (March, 1977), p. 93.

⁵Barnett and Feild, p. 93.

⁶Barnett and Feild, p. 94.

⁷Barnett and Feild, p. 95.

⁸Barnett and Feild, p. 95.

and only 18 percent of the males agreed, "The degree of a woman's resistance should be the major factor in determining if a rape has occurred," to which 40 percent of the males agreed and only 18 percent of the females agreed, "In order to protect the male, it should be difficult to prove that a rape has occurred," to which 40 percent of the males agreed and only 15 percent of the females agreed, and "It would do some women some good to get raped," to which 32 percent of the men agreed and only 8 percent of the women agreed. Barnett and Feild concluded that the male students seem to possess "traditional and sexist attitudes toward rape"⁹ and that "it is likely that these sexist views will continued to perpetrate themselves among men, and even some women, until some form of rape education program is initiated."¹⁰

Women's Attitudes Towards Rape

Herman and Sedlacek, on the other hand, in their study "Female University Student and Staff Perceptions of Rape," found attitude differences based on age among their sample of 100 women. Much of their study was focused on determining the security needs of the University of Maryland campus. However, they did find that 53 percent of the respondents believed that penalties against rape are rarely enforced, 74 percent believe that rape is not racially motivated, and 93 percent believe that rape is not a result of the

⁹Barnett and Feild, p. 96.

¹⁰Barnett and Feild, p. 96.

breakdown of sexual mores. Speaking of the variations in responses among the women, they stated that "Most of the differences tended to be age-related with undergraduates answering items significantly differently from graduate students and staff."¹¹ There were also some differences in attitudes toward rape among women enrolled in different schools within the University. The researchers concluded that there are many factors that contribute to differences in attitudes towards sexual assault, including age, education, marital status, and level of information about rape. Finally, they stated that "Until rape is considered in a serious, preventive, and non-paranoid manner, and until all members of the campus community, including males, are provided with information, rape may continue to be one of the most protected, least understood phenomena affecting campus life."¹²

Attitudes Toward Victims of Sexual Assault

The Metropolitan Organization to Counter Sexual Assault is in the process of developing a series of attitude scales describing attitudes toward victims, attitudes toward offenders, and attitudes toward the judicial system. One goal of their project is to use these questionnaires as a "selection mechanism" for police officers in sexual assault investigation units and for jurors in

¹¹Michele H. Herman and William E. Sedlacek, "Female University Student and Staff Perceptions of Rape," Journal of NAWDAC (Fall, 1974), p. 22.

¹²Herman and Sedlacek, pp. 23-24.

court cases involving rape. MOCSA's initial findings indicate a statistically significant difference in male and female attitudes towards victims and towards offenders. "Females responded to significantly more positive victim items and significantly more negative offender items than males."¹³ In other words, the females' responses to the questionnaire items reflected more favorable attitudes toward victims and less favorable attitudes toward offenders than the males' responses. Age seemed also to be a factor in positive and negative attitudes toward both victim and offender. However, females of all ages consistently showed more positive attitudes toward victims than did the males. MOCSA's questionnaire includes three items that indicate the "respondent's level of experience with the crime of rape":¹⁴ "Have you ever been a victim of rape?" "Has anyone you have known been a victim of rape?" and "Has anyone you have known been accused of rape?" Not surprisingly, the initial survey found that respondents who indicated that they had been a victim of rape scored higher or more positive towards victims than nonvictims.

MOCSA has also applied the attitude scale as pre and post measures of their own education program. Preliminary results show significantly higher, positive toward victims, scores as a result of participation in MOCSA's educational program.

¹³Letter to Casey Eike from the Metropolitan Organization to Counter Sexual Assault, September 26, 1977.

¹⁴Metropolitan Organization to Counter Sexual Assault, Kansas City, Missouri.

Fault Attribution

One purpose of Saul Feinman's study, "Fault Attribution as a Function of the Actor's Intentions and Characteristics, and of Sex of Observer," was to evaluate the replicability of the findings of a similar study,¹⁵ Jones and Aronson's "Attribution of Fault to a Rape Victim as a Function of Respectability of the Victim." Jones and Aronson's study, which appeared in the Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, was largely based on Lerner's "just world" theory. The "just world" can be described as a place where individuals get what they deserve and deserve what they get. Thus, extending the reasoning of this theory, "if a disaster befalls an individual, more fault is attributed to that victim if he is a respectable person than if he is less respectable."¹⁶ The researchers, assuming that marital status carries with it degrees of respectability, i.e., married or single-virgin as most respectable and divorced as least respectable, expected individuals to attribute more fault to the more "respectable" victims. Jones and Aronson found that subjects did attribute more fault to a married or virgin victim than to a divorced rape victim. They concluded

¹⁵Saul Feinman, "Fault Attribution as a Function of the Actor's Intentions and Characteristics, and of Sex of Observer," unpublished paper presented at the Midwest Sociological Society meetings, April 24, 1976, St. Louis, Missouri, p. 1.

¹⁶Cathleen Jones and Elliot Aronson, "Attribution of Fault to a Rape Victim as a Function of Respectability of the Victim," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 26, No. 3 (1973), 415.

that, "The more respectable person should be seen as more likely to have caused his own misfortune because he did not deserve the misfortune as a function of his intrinsic characteristics."¹⁷ This study seems to conclude that regardless of marital status or "respectability," a married, virgin, or divorced rape victim will still be viewed as being at fault, the divorcee because she is less respectable, so somehow deserved it, and the married/virgin victims because they do not deserve it, therefore, they must have done something to cause it.

Feinman's study did not replicate the findings of Jones and Aronson; however, he did find significant variables in fault attribution to victims. Variables were: the impact of victim resistance; the immediate reaction of the victim, the marital status of the victim, the physical attractiveness of the victim, and the sex of the observer. Four hundred forty University of Wyoming undergraduates were given differing descriptions of a rape scene and then were asked to answer questions about the incident. Among the questions was one that attempted to ascertain the amount of fault the subject attributed to the victim.

The primary focus of this study was an investigation of Heider's naive analysis of action and attribution of fault theories. According to Heider's theory, "The extent to which the actor is perceived as having intended to produce the accomplished effect, the greater

¹⁷Jones and Aronson, pp. 417-418.

the responsibility (personal causality) he will be attributed."¹⁸ Translating this theory into a rape situation, "a rape victim who resists the assailant should be attributed lesser amounts of responsibility for the rape than would a victim who did not resist."¹⁹ Also, according to Heider's theories, "if the actor appears pleased with the outcome, the observer is more likely to believe that the actor desired the outcome than if the actor appears displeased."²⁰ Again, translated to a rape situation, "a victim who is perceived as displeased with the rape will be attributed less responsibility for the rape."²¹ Because most rape victims' reactions to the crisis vary along a spectrum from the controlled style (calm, shock, seemingly unfeeling) to the expressed style (crying, hysteria, sobbing), one would expect that less fault would be attributed to those victims reacting in the expressed style as it is easier for the observer to translate this reaction as displeasure.

The effect of the marital status of the victim and the sex of the observer, factors that were used in the Jones and Aronson study, were of secondary importance. Lastly, the physical attractiveness of the victim, was included as an attempt to evaluate the popular literature's view that more attractive victims will

¹⁸Feinman, p. 4.

¹⁹Feinman, p. 5.

²⁰Feinman, p. 5.

²¹Feinman, p. 5.

be attributed greater fault as they "would be perceived as being desirous of the rape."²²

Feinman's lengthy analysis included the effect of the five main factors and their interactive effects. The findings for the main effects are as follows: "If the victim struggled, she was rated lower on attribution of fault than if she did not struggle," "The victim who appeared calm was attributed greater fault than was the sobbing victim," "The married victim was attributed the least amount of fault, the victim described as a virgin received a higher amount of fault, and the divorced victim received the highest amount of fault for the rape," "Males attributed greater fault to the victim than females did,"²³ and the physical attractiveness of the victim did not have a significant effect. Thus, this study supported Heider's theories but did not replicate Jones and Aronson's findings, nor did it substantiate the popular view that more attractive victims are attributed greater fault in rape situations.

Perhaps the most interesting and relevant information found in this study is contained in Feinman's discussion. For example, in discussing the fact that a resisting victim is attributed less fault, he mentioned Heider's suggestion that if a person believes that her ability to avoid an outcome is not sufficient, she may

²²Feinman, p. 10.

²³Feinman, pp. 14-15.

not try to avoid that outcome."²⁴ Many rape victims do not believe that they can resist and, therefore, do not. Again, Heider suggested that most people expect "rational actors" or expect that a consideration of consequences can be made in most situations. Feinman pointed out that sexual assault statutes are based on the assumption that rape victims are rational actors. Many rape victims do not have time to react to the threat and, therefore, are not rational actors. He mentioned, too, the fact that some literature advises women not to resist. This discussion provides a good example of the implication of Feinman's entire study, that is, that unwarranted fault is attributed to rape victims for a variety of reasons.

Another interesting insight occurs in Feinman's discussion of the implications of the sex of the observer. Females attribute less fault to victims than males. Feinman speculated that this is because the females tended to identify and empathize with the victims and attributed fault more to chance, a view "consistent with the findings of Luginbuhl and Mullin,"²⁵ in their study, "Rape and Responsibility: Attribution in the Victim's Character, Behavior, and to Chance." Obviously, one reason for greater empathy with victims among women is that most women have had experience with a

²⁴Feinman, p. 22.

²⁵Feinman, p. 29.

potential rape situation. The experience is not foreign and, therefore, easy to identify and empathize with.

Finally, Feinman cites examples of other, more recent, experiments that indicate less fault attribution to victims than in the earlier studies. Feinman's explanation for this trend is that public attitudes are changing so that victims of sexual assault are seen more sympathetically.

Summary

Although there are few studies that attempt to measure beliefs about sexual assault, those that do tend to agree. They find that males and females differ in attitudes toward rape and victims of rape. Age of the subject, too, seems to be a factor in attitude differences. Actual victims of rape tend to reflect more favorable attitudes towards victims than do nonvictims and males. Among studies measuring fault attribution to victims of rape, measurable differences occur along these same lines. Most of the studies conclude that education about sexual assault is needed, be it on the college campus, in the police force, or for the general public, which makes up the population of potential jurors.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service has developed a 16mm film entitled "Rape Prevention: No Pat Answer" and utilizes it as the primary communication tool in their sexual assault educational programs. Their program format consists of a brief introduction to the purposes of the organization, the showing of this film, and a question-and-answer discussion following the film. This researcher attempted to ascertain the effectiveness of the film itself, as well as of the overall program, with the intent of determining which communication mode (the film only or the film and the question-answer discussion) is most effective in achieving the goals of the program. In doing so, other kinds of information can be obtained as well.

To approach these primary research questions, several issues must first be resolved. Most important are the questions: "What is the desired effect or goal of the film and the educational program?" and "What criteria are most appropriate in determining or measuring effectiveness?" This chapter attempts to explain and answer these questions, and in doing so, provide an explanation and justification of this project's research methodology. The purpose of the film "Rape Prevention: No Pat Answer" and the goal of

the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service's educational efforts are first discussed. Following is an explanation of the development, implementation, scoring, and analysis of the resulting measurement scale, as well as a justification of the statistical methodology.

The Film "Rape Prevention: No Pat Answer"

Definitions of the documentary film are abundant. The Academy of Motion Picture Arts and Sciences defines documentary films as "those that deal with historical, social, scientific, or economic subjects, either photographed in actual occurrence or re-enacted, and where the emphasis is more on factual content than on entertainment."¹ The founder of the documentary film, John Grierson, defines it as "a creative treatment of actuality."² Forsyth Hardy called the documentary a "selective dramatization of fact in terms of their human consequences,"³ and this definition seems appropriate in describing the documentary film "Rape Prevention: No Pat Answer."

The purpose of the documentary film is "to alert the viewer to some aspect of reality that should be his legitimate concern,

¹Roy Paul Madsen, The Impact of Film (New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc., 1973), p. 317.

²Madsen, p. 317.

³Madsen, p. 317.

or serious interest, and to illuminate a social problem."⁴ "Rape Prevention: No Pat Answer" is a film about sexual assault and its prevention. It is designed to point out myths surrounding the subject of sexual assault and replace these myths with fact. It attempts to "alert the viewer" to the reality of sexual assault, to instill in the viewer a "serious personal interest" in the subject, and to "illuminate a social problem," namely sexual assault. As a documentary, the film attempts honest persuasion while being "factual, objective, and cinematically candid."⁵ On its most basic level, the film's purpose is to change, where erroneous, what people believe to be true about the nature and prevention of sexual assault.

The film is 16mm with optical sound and color and is 16 minutes in length. Three women characters speak candidly about sexual assault. A mature woman, once a victim, talks about myths that surround the crime and points out that rape is an act of criminal violence, not uncontrolled passion. A young, single woman addresses the reality of date rapes and rape by assailants known and well known to the victim. A black professional woman with a family discusses alternatives for deterring a rapist, techniques for identification of suspects, and sexual assaults against children. Each woman demonstrates simple self-protection measures that can be used by any woman in day-to-day living.

⁴Madsen, p. 328.

⁵Madsen, p. 322.

The Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service has the same goal as the film--to change people's beliefs about sexual assault and to provide factual information on the subject.

The Sexual Assault Belief Survey

An "agree/disagree/no opinion" questionnaire, made up of statements of belief about sexual assault, its prevention, and related issues was devised. Two sources were used in selecting the seventeen statements of belief. Statements one through eleven were taken directly from the information offered in the film. These statements are as follows:

1. In most cases when a woman was raped, she was asking for it.
2. Rape is primarily a sexual act of uncontrollable passion.
3. Rape is a humiliating experience for a woman.
4. A rapist is looking for a "sexy-looking" woman.
5. Girls who are raped on dates have usually asked for it.
6. Nice women do not get raped.
7. When you make a fist, your thumb should be on the outside.
8. Hitchhiking is one of the most likely situations for rape.
9. There are very few ways of getting out of a rape situation.
10. Most assaults on young children are committed by people known to them.
11. A kick to the groin is one of the best defense techniques.

Statements twelve through seventeen were taken from Barnett and Feild's Attitude Toward Rape Questionnaire. They are:

12. Most women secretly desire to be raped.
13. A woman cannot be raped against her will.
14. Rape is a male exercise in power over women.
15. The degree of a woman's resistance should be the major factor in determining whether a rape has occurred.
16. It would do some women some good to get raped.
17. Women are trained by society to be rape victims.

Only statements one through eleven are directly related to the film and, therefore, are capable of direct measurement of the film's effectiveness. Statements twelve through seventeen reflect beliefs not specifically dealt with in the film although they are related to the information in the film. Correct responses to these statements can reflect the extent to which the subject accepts the information offered in the film and the program.

This questionnaire was then administered to the members of the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service in order to verify its validity in terms of the "correct" responses. They were also asked to provide comments as to the clarity of the format and the understandability of the wording. All of the members of the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service received perfect scores on the survey, thus verifying the selection of "correct" responses. Each of the members, too, verified that the questionnaire's statements

of belief were clear and easy to read and that the format of the questionnaire was simple and easy to understand.

The survey was then administered to a class of University of Kansas students in order to determine whether subject responses would truly be varied. The scoring of these questionnaires indicated that a wide variation in beliefs existed among these pretest subjects.

Demographic information was also gathered. Respondents were asked their sex, nationality or ethnic background, and whether or not they had ever been a victim of sexual assault or had been close to someone who was a victim of sexual assault. Score comparisons can be made based on these data.

Administration of the Questionnaire

The participants in the educational programs presented by the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service constituted the subjects for this research. As groups or organizations requested a program from the Rape Victim Support Service, they were put into one of three groups. In other words, the first group requesting a program constituted a control group. Subjects in the control group filled out the questionnaires before the film was shown and before any interaction had taken place. The second group requesting a program received the first treatment. These subjects filled out the questionnaires immediately after the film was shown but before any discussion took place. The third group requesting

a program received the second treatment. These subjects filled out the questionnaires at the conclusion of the program. The next group requesting a program again constituted a control group, and so on. Thus, audiences were alternately administered the different treatments until 100 subjects had participated in each treatment and in the control group.

The completed questionnaires of the control-group subjects provide the basis from which comparisons can be made with the other two treatments. The control group tests the level of knowledge and beliefs about sexual assault and its prevention of audiences that have not seen the film or participated in an educational program of the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service. The completed questionnaires of subjects receiving Treatment One provide the data to test the extent to which viewing the film only affects subjects' levels of knowledge and beliefs about sexual assault and its prevention when compared to the control group. The completed questionnaires of subjects receiving Treatment Two provide the data to test the extent the film and the discussion affects the subject's level of knowledge and beliefs when compared with the data obtained from the first two groups.

Following is a diagram of the three treatments and what information they yield:

Control (no film, no discussion)	<u>Tests.</u> the level of knowledge and beliefs of audiences that do not see the film or participate in a discussion. This is a control group.
Treatment I (film only)	<u>Tests:</u> the extent to which the film only affects beliefs about sexual assault when compared to the control group.
Treatment II (film and discussion)	<u>Tests:</u> the extent to which the film and discussion affects the audience participants' beliefs about sexual assault when compared to the control group. A comparison between Treatments I and II should yield the answer to which sort of program is most effective.

Program Summaries

The members of the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service administered the questionnaires and presented the educational programs to the 300 subjects. After each program, the facilitator completed a Program Summary Sheet. This form records the facilitator's estimates as to the percentage of time spent on the several areas generally discussed during programs. They are: The factual and procedural, which includes statistics, definitions, RVSS process, and police, hospital, and court procedures, the emotional, which includes victims' reactions, the three stages of emotional recovery, personal anecdotes, and personal feelings on the subject, and self-defense, which includes demonstrations, personal anecdotes on defense techniques, and questions about personal safety. The facilitator also recorded her estimate as to the percentage of total discussion

time spent on the personal level, which includes personal anecdotes about victims, personal feelings on the subject, and personal anecdotes about self-defense.

Nineteen programs were given altogether in order to obtain 300 subjects. A compilation of the nineteen program summaries yields a general or average profile of the program discussion. Six of the audiences received the second treatment, in which the questionnaire was administered at the conclusion of the program. The mean scores of these six audiences could be compared to see whether or not there was a correlation of high scores with a certain discussion profile. For instance, one might be able to conclude that the audiences in which a high percentage of discussion time was on the personal level scored higher than others.

Scoring and Descriptive Data

A score, determined by the number of "correct" responses, was determined for each subject in each treatment. Correct responses are those that reflect the desired beliefs, as determined by the members of the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service, in accordance with their program's goals. The correct responses are given a value of 3, no opinion responses are given a value of 2, incorrect responses are given a value of 1, and those items left with no response are given a value of 0. A "perfect" score is 51. Using these scores, the following data were compiled:

For the Total Subject Pool

- **the number of women and men participants
- **the numbers of participants with various ethnic backgrounds
- **the number of participants who answered "yes" and the number who answered "no" to the proximity to victims of sexual assault question

For Each Treatment

- **the number and mean score for women and men
- **the number and mean score for subjects answering "yes" and subjects answering "no" to the proximity to victims of sexual assault question
- **the number and mean score for participants of each ethnic background
- **the number and mean score of participants in each subgroup for each treatment
- **the number and mean score for women, men, those answering "yes," those answering "no" (to the proximity to victims of sexual assault question), White, Black, Native American, Spanish-speaking, and Asian participants for each subgroup within each treatment

Further, each subject's responses to the seventeen statements of belief were stored on computer cards. These cards were used in running a Fortran program that calculated the number of participants who answered "agree," "disagree," "no opinion," or gave no response for each of the seventeen statements. The resulting tables of data, contained in Chapter IV, are descriptive only and must not be construed as statistically significant in terms of the apparent differences in scores.

Statistical Methodology

In order to determine whether a statistically significant difference exists in the scores of subjects in each treatment, the Mann-Whitney U test was employed. The choice of an appropriate statistical test is of crucial importance in the evaluation of any experiment. Key to the selection of the right test is the level of measurement of the variables employed in the experiment. With most of the "hard" sciences the level of measurement is high, i.e., all the operations that hold true for the real number system, such as addition, subtraction, etc., will hold true for the measurements of the experimental variables. Because of the high level of measurement, various statistical tests, usually classified as parametric tests, can be employed.

Unfortunately, the social sciences very seldom can attain such a high level of measurement on the variables that they study. However, there is a collection of nonparametric tests that can be used by the social scientist to analyze the results of experiments whose level of measurement is nominal, ordinal, or at best interval (ratio).

The variable being measured in this particular study is the score on a belief survey. Since "correct" responses scored higher than "incorrect" or no-response and no-opinion responses, an ordinal or ranking scale can be established for the variable being measured. In other words, a score of 40 implies that a subject holds more correct beliefs and knowledge toward sexual assault than a subject

with a score of 20. However, a score of 40 cannot be said to be twice as correct as a score of 20. Thus, a nonparametric test suitable for a level of measurement that is at most ordinal must be used.

One of the most powerful of the nonparametric tests requiring at best ordinal measurement is the Mann-Whitney U test. In fact, the Mann-Whitney U test is an excellent alternative to the t test, with a power efficiency of close to 95 percent that of the t test, if moderate sized samples are obtained.⁶ A detailed description of the mathematical process involved in this test is contained in Chapter IV.

Limitations

There are several limiting factors inherent in this research design. Since the same subjects did not receive each of the three treatments, the research design is not truly experimental. Also, the subjects were somewhat self-selected, that is, only those who chose to attend a program about sexual assault were tested. Because the researcher did not specify age, sex, education level, socioeconomic background, or ethnic background in subject selection, unequal numbers of subjects with similar backgrounds were included, making comparisons among groups not fully reliable.

With these limitations in mind, this researcher views the results of this project as indications only of the effectiveness

⁶Sidney Sigel, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1956), p. 126.

of the film and the program of the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service, not as an absolute verification.



CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The primary research question in this study was: which communication mode, the film only or the film and question-and-answer discussion, is most effective in achieving the goals of the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service's educational efforts. With this purpose in mind, the Sexual Assault Belief Survey was devised and administered to audience participants of the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service's educational programs. This chapter compiles the resulting data and comments about its significance.

The data can be divided into three groups: descriptive data, item-by-item analysis, and statistical tests. These groupings provide the structure for this chapter. The section "Descriptive Data" includes the compilation and breakdown of numbers and mean scores of audience participants in each treatment by sex, ethnic background, and answer to the proximity to victims of sexual assault question. Nineteen subgroups or audiences were included in the three treatments, seven in the Control group, six in Treatment One, and Six in Treatment Two. The number and mean score for women, men, those answering "yes" and those answering "no" to the proximity to victims of sexual assault question, White, Black, Native American,

Spanish-speaking, and Asian participants are presented for each of these subgroups. The program format summary data are outlined, and score comparisons are discussed in regard to the program formats of the subgroups in Treatment Three.

The following section, "Item by Item Analysis," charts for each treatment the number of participants who answered "agree," "disagree," "no opinion," or gave no response for each of the seventeen statements of belief. Finally, the section "Statistical Tests" outlines the mathematical process for the Mann-Whitney U test and provides a statistically sound answer to the primary research question.

Descriptive Data

The variables used in compiling these descriptive data are those demographic items included on the Sexual Assault Belief Survey. Participants were asked their sex, ethnic background, and whether or not they had been or were close to a victim of sexual assault. After each questionnaire was scored, total scores and mean scores were calculated per variable by treatment and subgroup. These scores should not be regarded as reflecting any statistically significant differences between groups but rather as some preliminary indications that these differences may exist.

Score Comparisons by Sex

The overall subject pool was primarily female. About 83 percent of the Control group, 62 percent of Treatment One, and

95 percent of Treatment Two were females. Males tended to score lower than females in the Control group and Treatment One but not in Treatment Two; however, males made up only 5 percent of the participants in Treatment Two, whereas they were 16 percent of the audience in the Control group and 38 percent of the audience in Treatment One. Also, the females making up the audience of Treatment Two were one third Native American, and, as will be shown, Native Americans tended to score lower than whites.

Score Comparisons by Ethnic Background

Audience participants in all the treatments were predominantly white; 95 percent of the audience in the Control group, 84 percent of the audience in Treatment One, and 66 percent of the audience in Treatment Two. In Treatment One there were about equal numbers of Blacks and Native Americans, and in Treatment Two there was a substantial number of Native Americans (33 percent). Because of the extremely high percentage of Whites in the Control group, their mean score is the only significant score. Since there were only six Blacks and seven Native Americans in Treatment One, score comparisons with Whites are not really valid, although the mean scores of Blacks and Native Americans tended to be lower than those of Whites. Treatment Two provided some opportunity to begin comparing scores between Whites and Native Americans since Native Americans did make up 33 percent of the audiences. A comparison of these mean scores reveals what seems to be a significantly lower scoring pattern for Native Americans as compared with Whites.

TABLE 1

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS BY SEX

Sex	Control	Treatment 1	Treatment 2
Female	83	62	95
Male	16	38	5

TABLE 2

MEAN SCORES BY SEX

Sex	Control	Treatment 1	Treatment 2
Female	42.68	44.83	43.14
Male	39.81	41.00	44.40

TABLE 3
NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS BY ETHNIC BACKGROUND

Ethnic Group	Control	Treatment 1	Treatment 2
Native American	1	6	31
Black	0	7	2
White	95	84	66
Hispanic	0	0	1
Asian	2	1	0
No Response	1	2	0

TABLE 4
MEAN SCORES BY ETHNIC BACKGROUND

Ethnic	Control	Treatment 1	Treatment 2
Native American	40.00	42.00	39.09
Black	---	38.28	41.00
White	42.62	44.42	45.21
Hispanic	---	---	43.00
Asian	31.00	36.00	---

Score Comparisons by Answer to the Proximity
to Victims of Sexual Assault Question

The majority response to the proximity to victims of sexual assault question (Have you ever been a victim of sexual assault, or have you been close to someone who was a victim of sexual assault?) was "no" for all the treatments. However, about 17 percent of the audiences in the Control group, 19 percent of the audiences in Treatment One, and 20 percent of the audiences of Treatment Two did indicate that they either had been sexually assaulted or were close to someone who was. Additionally, the no-response rate for this questionnaire item was markedly higher than for any other item with 10 percent of the audiences in both the Control group and Treatment Two not responding. Curiously, those subjects answering "yes" to this question tended to score higher in the Control group and Treatment Two but not in Treatment One. Although subjects who answered "yes" to this question tended to score higher, the differences do not seem great enough to indicate any real difference.

TABLE 5

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS BY ANSWER TO PROXIMITY
TO VICTIMS OF SEXUAL ASSAULT QUESTION

Answer	Control	Treatment 1	Treatment 2
Yes	17	19	20
No	72	76	70
No Response	10	5	10

TABLE 6
MEAN SCORES BY ANSWER TO PROXIMITY TO
VICTIMS OF SEXUAL ASSAULT QUESTION

Answer	Control	Treatment 1	Treatment 2
Yes	43.64	42.52	44.15
No	42.15	43.46	43.10

Subgroup Scores Within Each Treatment by Each Variable

A further breakdown of information is provided in Table 7. This table reflects the number, mean scores, and no responses for each variable; sex, answer to the proximity to victims of sexual assault question, and ethnic background for each subgroup or audience within each treatment.

TABLE 7
SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE, CONTROL GROUP, SUBGROUP ONE

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	18	44.55	0
Men	0	---	
Yes to Proximity	2	46.00	5
No to Proximity	11	44.63	
Native American	0	---	
Black	0	---	
White	18	44.55	0
Hispanic	--	---	
Asian	0	---	

Program Format Summaries

After each of the nineteen programs, the program facilitators made estimates as to the percentage of time spent discussing factual and procedural, emotional, and self-defense topics. They then made an additional estimate as to the percentage of total discussion time spent on the personal level. Table 26 indicates the estimates for each of the programs within the Control group and Treatment One. It appears that the program format varies a great deal among audiences, which is in keeping with the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service's philosophy of individualizing each program in order to fit the needs of that particular audience. Thus, some programs spent as much as 90 percent of the time on the subjects pertaining to the emotional reactions of victims and no time on the factual and procedural aspect of sexual assault. Some spent 90 percent of the time discussing the factual and procedural and only 5 percent of their time on the emotional aspects. By and large, discussions were not focused on the personal level as the average discussion time spent on personal experiences was only about 10 percent. In fact, in only one group of the nineteen was the majority of the discussion estimated to be on the personal level.

TABLE 8

SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE, CONTROL GROUP, SUBGROUP TWO

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	9	48.00	0
Men	0	---	
Yes to Proximity	0	---	
No to Proximity	9	48.00	0
Native American	0	---	
Black	0	---	
White	9	48.00	0
Hispanic	0	---	
Asian	0	---	

TABLE 9
SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE, CONTROL GROUP, SUBGROUP THREE

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	7	43.28	
Men	6	35.33	0
Yes to Proximity	2	41.50	
No to Proximity	8	41.25	0
Native American	0	---	
Black	0	---	
White	10	42.40	1
Hispanic	0	---	
Asian	2	31.00	

TABLE 10

SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE, CONTROL GROUP, SUBGROUP FOUR

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	4	43.00	
Men	0	---	0
Yes to Proximity	0	---	
No to Proximity	4	43.00	0
Native American	0	---	
Black	0	---	
White	4	43.00	0
Hispanic	0	---	
Asian	0	---	

TABLE 11

SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE, CONTROL GROUP, SUBGROUP FIVE

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	20	40.90	0
Men	0	---	
Yes to Proximity	4	43.75	
No to Proximity	16	40.18	0
Native American	0	---	
Black	0	---	
White	20	40.90	0
Hispanic	0	---	
Asian	0	---	

TABLE 12

SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE, CONTROL GROUP, SUBGROUP SIX

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	15	42.86	
Men	6	42.83	0
Yes to Proximity	9	43.55	1
No to Proximity	11	42.63	
Native American	1	40.00	
Black	0	---	
White	20	43.00	0
Hispanic	0	---	
Asian	0	---	

TABLE 13

SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE, CONTROL GROUP, SUBGROUP SEVEN

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	10	37.30	
Men	4	42.00	0
Yes to Proximity	0	---	
No to Proximity	13	38.30	1
Native American	0	---	
Black	0	---	
White	14	38.64	0
Hispanic	0	---	
Asian	0	---	

TABLE 14
 SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE,
 TREATMENT ONE, SUBGROUP ONE

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	5	48.40	
Men	1	45.00	0
Yes to Proximity	3	48.33	
No to Proximity	3	47.33	0
Native American	0	---	
Black	0	---	
White	5	47.40	1
Hispanic	0	---	
Asian	0	---	

TABLE 15
 SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE,
 TREATMENT ONE, SUBGROUP TWO

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	7	47.14	
Men	9	43.22	0
Yes to Proximity	2	42.00	
No to Proximity	11	45.27	3
Native American	0	---	
Black	1	41.00	
White	15	45.20	0
Hispanic	0	---	
Asian	0	---	

TABLE 16
 SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE,
 TREATMENT ONE, SUBGROUP THREE

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	25	45.44	
Men	20	40.03	0
Yes to Proximity	10	41.40	
No to Proximity	35	43.65	0
Native American	0	---	
Black	6	37.83	
White	38	44.18	0
Hispanic	0	---	
Asian	1	36.00	

TABLE 17
 SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE,
 TREATMENT ONE, SUBGROUP FOUR

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	11	39.90	
Men	4	35.15	0
Yes to Proximity	1	39.00	
No to Proximity	13	38.53	1
Native American	0	---	
Black	0	---	
White	14	38.73	1
Hispanic	0	---	
Asian	0	---	

TABLE 18
 SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE,
 TREATMENT ONE, SUBGROUP FIVE

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	8	47.62	
Men	4	44.00	0
Yes to Proximity	1	49.00	
No to Proximity	10	45.90	1
Native American	0	---	
Black	0	---	
White	12	46.41	0
Hispanic	0	---	
Asian	0	---	

TABLE 19
 SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE,
 TREATMENT ONE, SUBGROUP SIX

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	6	42.00	
Men	0	---	0
Yes to Proximity	2	38.50	
No to Proximity	4	43.75	0
Native American	6	42.00	
Black	0	---	
White	0	---	0
Hispanic	0	---	
Asian	0	---	

TABLE 20
 SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE,
 TREATMENT TWO, SUBGROUP ONE

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	7	46.85	
Men	3	41.66	0
Yes to Proximity	3	41.00	
No to Proximity	7	47.14	0
Native American	0	---	
Black	2	41.00	
White	7	46.85	0
Hispanic	1	43.00	
Asian	0	---	

TABLE 21
 SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE,
 TREATMENT TWO, SUBGROUP TWO

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	8	46.37	
Men	2	48.50	0
Yes to Proximity	5	47.80	
No to Proximity	4	45.00	1
Native American	0	---	
Black	0	---	
White	10	46.80	0
Hispanic	0	---	
Asian	0	---	

TABLE 22
 SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE,
 TREATMENT TWO, SUBGROUP THREE

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	34	44.05	
Men	0	---	0
Yes to Proximity	3	47.00	
No to Proximity	24	44.12	7
Native American	0	---	
Black	0	---	
White	34	44.05	0
Hispanic	0	---	
Asian	0	---	

TABLE 23
 SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE,
 TREATMENT TWO, SUBGROUP FOUR

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	6	43.50	
Men	0	---	0
Yes to Proximity	0	---	
No to Proximity	6	43.50	0
Native American	0	---	
Black	0	---	
White	6	43.50	0
Hispanic	0	---	
Asian	0	---	

TABLE 24
 SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE,
 TREATMENT TWO, SUBGROUP FIVE

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	9	47.66	
Men	0	---	0
Yes to Proximity	1	49.00	
No to Proximity	7	47.57	1
Native American	0	---	
Black	0	---	0
White	9	47.66	
Hispanic	0	---	
Asian	0	---	

TABLE 25
 SUBGROUP SCORES BY EACH VARIABLE,
 TREATMENT TWO, SUBGROUP SIX

Variable	Number	Mean Score	No Response
Women	31	39.09	
Men	0	---	0
Yes to Proximity	8	41.37	
No to Proximity	22	38.81	1
Native American	31	39.09	
Black	0	---	0
White	0	---	
Hispanic	0	---	
Asian	0	---	

TABLE 26
PROGRAM FORMAT SUMMARIES, PERCENT OF TIME

	Subgroup						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
<u>Control Group</u>							
Factual	35	85	25	25	15	0	0
Emotional	5	15	0	25	35	40	90
Self-defense	60	0	75	50	50	60	10
Personal	25	0	1	10	15	15	90
<u>Treatment I Group</u>							
Factual	85	90	90	0	25	50	
Emotional	10	5	5	20	60	0	
Self-defense	5	5	5	80	15	50	
Personal	5	5	5	5	20	2	

Scores by Subgroup and Program Format

Since questionnaires were administered after the question-and-answer discussion in Treatment Two only, mean-score comparisons with program formats are relevant only for this treatment. It appears that the highest scoring audience, Subgroup 5, spent most of the discussion time (90 percent) on the factual and procedural aspects of the topic. However, the lowest scoring audience in this treatment, Subgroup 6, spent almost the same amount of time on the factual and procedural aspects. The amount of discussion

time spent on the personal level does not seem to affect scores either. There are too many variables involved in the makeup of each audience to come to any valid conclusions as to the effect of the program format. Table 27 provides a breakdown of the percentage of time spent in each area for each subgroup within Treatment Two as well as the mean score for each of these subgroups.

TABLE 27
SCORES BY SUBGROUP AND PROGRAM FORMAT, PERCENT OF TIME

	Subgroup					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
<u>Treatment II</u>						
Factual	45	45	15	25	90	80
Emotional	50	50	35	25	10	5
Self-defense	5	5	50	50	0	15
Personal	15	10	15	10	15	25
Mean Scores	43.30	46.80	44.05	43.50	47.66	39.09

Item-by-Item Analysis

A Fortran program was run in order to compile the numbers of audience participants who answered "agree," "disagree," "no opinion," or gave no response to each of the seventeen statements of belief in each treatment. Tables 28-30 present these results. The "correct" response varies in terms of an agree or disagree answer.

TABLE 28
RESPONSES TO BELIEF STATEMENTS, CONTROL GROUP

Belief Statement	Disagree	Agree	No Opinion	No Response
1. In most cases when a woman was raped, she was asking for it.	86	5	8	0
2. Rape is primarily a sexual act of uncontrollable passion.	59	27	13	0
3. Rape is a humiliating experience for a woman.	4	95	0	0
4. A rapist is looking for a "sexy-looking" woman.	86	4	9	0
5. Girls who are raped on dates have usually asked for it.	57	14	27	1
6. Nice women do not get raped.	96	2	1	0
7. When you make a fist, your thumb should be on the outside.	27	61	10	1
8. Hitchhiking is one of the most likely situations for rape.	9	82	8	0
9. There are very few ways of getting out of a rape situation.	59	23	16	0
10. Most assaults on young children are committed by people known to them.	19	64	16	0
11. A kick to the groin is one of the best defense techniques.	27	65	7	0

TABLE 28 (Continued)

Belief Statement	Disagree	Agree	No Opinion	No Response
12. Most women secretly desire to be raped.	82	6	11	0
13. A woman cannot be raped against her will.	90	4	5	0
14. Rape is a male exercise in power over women.	24	43	30	2
15. The degree of a woman's resistance should be the major factor in determining rape.	51	29	18	1
16. It would do some women some good to get raped.	84	6	8	1
17. Women are trained by society to be rape victims.	71	8	19	1

For statements 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 9, 11, 12, 13, 15, and 16, a "disagree" response constitutes the "correct" answer. For statements 3, 7, 8, 10, 14, and 17, an "agree" response constitutes the "correct" answer. Overall, in all the treatments, the number of "correct" responses to each item outweighs the number of "incorrect" responses, except for item seventeen, "Women are trained by society to be rape victims." Neither of the communication modes or presentations served to convince audiences of society's role in facilitating victimization.

Total scores indicated some "positive" change between treatments, that is, total scores improved upon viewing the film and discussing

TABLE 29
RESPONSES TO BELIEF STATEMENTS, TREATMENT ONE

Belief Statement	Disagree	Agree	No Opinion	No Response
1. In most cases when a woman was raped, she was asking for it.	91	0	9	0
2. Rape is primarily a sexual act of uncontrollable passion.	75	15	10	0
3. Rape is a humiliating experience for a woman.	1	94	5	0
4. A rapist is looking for a "sexy-looking" woman.	83	7	10	0
5. Girls who are raped on dates have usually asked for it.	76	5	19	0
6. Nice women do not get raped.	93	2	5	0
7. When you make a fist, your thumb should be on the outside.	7	88	5	0
8. Hitchhiking is one of the most likely situations for rape.	18	62	20	0
9. There are very few ways of getting out of a rape situation.	70	16	13	1
10. Most assaults on young children are committed by people known to them.	12	77	10	1
11. A kick to the groin is one of the best defense techniques.	52	38	10	0

TABLE 29 (Continued)

Belief Statement	Disagree	Agree	No Opinion	No Response
12. Most women secretly desire to be raped.	85	1	14	0
13. A woman cannot be raped against her will.	91	2	7	0
14. Rape is a male exercise in power over women.	32	42	25	1
15. The degree of a woman's resistance should be the major factor in determining rape.	69	15	15	1
16. It would do some women some good to get raped.	87	5	8	0
17. Women are trained by society to be rape victims.	73	12	15	0

the topic. It seems likely that some belief statements had more effect on the positive change than others. In other words, certain items or statements of belief probably had more effect on score differences between treatments than others in terms of being consistently responded to "incorrectly." An examination of the items receiving the highest numbers of "incorrect" responses in the Control group reveals which statements seem to be crucial in score differences.

In the Control group the following items received the largest number of incorrect answers: (2) "Rape is primarily a sexual act of uncontrollable passion," (7) "When you make a fist, your thumb

TABLE 30
RESPONSES TO BELIEF STATEMENTS, TREATMENT TWO

Belief Statement	Disagree	Agree	No Opinion	No Response
1. In most cases when a woman was raped, she was asking for it.	91	2	7	0
2. Rape is primarily a sexual act of uncontrollable passion.	60	20	20	0
3. Rape is a humiliating experience for a woman.	5	92	3	0
4. A rapist is looking for a "sexy-looking" woman.	82	6	12	0
5. Girls who are raped on dates have usually asked for it.	76	4	20	0
6. Nice women do not get raped.	93	3	4	0
7. When you make a fist, your thumb should be on the outside.	8	88	4	0
8. Hitchhiking is one of the most likely situations for rape.	15	76	9	0
9. There are very few ways of getting out of a rape situation.	68	19	13	0
10. Most assaults on young children are committed by people known to them.	12	70	17	1
11. A kick to the groin is one of the best defense techniques.	50	42	8	0

TABLE 30 (Continued)

Belief Statement	Disagree	Agree	No Opinion	No Response
12. Most women secretly desire to be raped.	83	4	13	0
13. A woman cannot be raped against her will.	77	9	13	1
14. Rape is a male exercise in power over women.	37	38	23	2
15. The degree of a woman's resistance should be the major factor in rape.	52	24	24	0
16. It would do some women some good to get raped.	84	3	13	0
17. Women are trained by society to be rape victims.	63	15	22	0

should be on the outside," (9) "There are very few ways of getting out of a rape situation," (10) "Most assaults on young children are committed by people known to them," (11) "A kick to the groin is one of the best defense techniques," (14) "Rape is a male exercise in power over women," (15) "The degree of a woman's resistance should be the major factor in determining rape," and (17) "Women are trained by society to be rape victims." These responses indicate that these items are the crucial statements of belief in terms of score differences. Comparing the number of "incorrect" responses to these items between the Control group and Treatment One, the

Control group and Treatment Two, and Treatment One and Treatment Two should reveal some positive changes, i.e., fewer "incorrect" responses, for Treatments One and Two when compared with the Control group. Table 31 compares the number of "incorrect" responses for the Control group and Treatment One. This comparison indicates that, except for Items (14) "Rape is a male exercise in power over women," and (17) "Women are trained by society to be rape victims," the number of "incorrect" responses diminishes in Treatment One. Recall that items one through eleven were taken directly from the film and that items twelve through seventeen are those beliefs generally discussed after the film is shown. Thus, it is not surprising that the two items showing no positive change in the comparison of the Control group and Treatment One are items not specifically dealt with in the film.

A similar comparison of the number of "incorrect" responses between the Control group and Treatment Two should reveal more correct answers for Treatment Two. Table 32 records this comparison. Fewer "incorrect" responses for all items except Item (14) "Rape is a male exercise in power over women," are shown for Treatment Two.

The comparison of numbers of "incorrect" responses for Treatments One and Two is shown by Table 33. This comparison reveals no decrease in the number of "incorrect" responses for Treatment Two when compared with Treatment One except for Item (17) "Women are trained by society to be rape victims," indicating that the

TABLE 31
COMPARISON OF NUMBER OF INCORRECT RESPONSES
BETWEEN THE CONTROL GROUP AND TREATMENT ONE

Item	Treatment One	Treatment Two
2	27	15
7	27	7
9	23	16
10	19	12
11	65	38
14	24	32
15	29	15
17	71	73

film is more effective in remedying "incorrect" beliefs than is the discussion following the film. In other words, the film only treatment seems to correct untrue beliefs to a greater extent than the film and discussion, even for belief statements that are not described in the film.

From an analysis of the responses to the seventeen statements of belief, we can conclude that the film does change or affect in a positive way audiences' beliefs, however, the film and discussion do not seem to be more effective than the film alone. In order to reach a statistically sound conclusion regarding these preliminary hypotheses, statistical tests were run, using score

TABLE 32

COMPARISON OF NUMBER OF INCORRECT RESPONSES
BETWEEN THE CONTROL GROUP AND TREATMENT TWO

Item	Treatment One	Treatment Two
2	27	20
7	27	8
9	23	19
10	19	12
11	65	42
14	24	37
15	29	24
17	71	63

comparisons between treatments. The results of these tests finally reveal the answer to this study's research question: "Is the film "Rape Prevention: No Pat Answer" effective?" and "Which communication mode, the film only or the film plus discussion, is more effective in achieving the educational goals of the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service?"

TABLE 33
COMPARISON OF NUMBER OF INCORRECT RESPONSES
BETWEEN TREATMENTS ONE AND TWO

Item	Treatment One	Treatment Two
2	15	20
7	7	8
9	16	19
10	12	12
11	38	42
14	32	27
15	15	24
17	73	63

Statistical Tests

The Mann-Whitney U Test is one of the most powerful of the nonparametric tests and may be used when at least ordinal measurement has been achieved. One version of this statistical test employs the following hypotheses.

Given samples from two populations, S_c and S_t ;

H_0 : S_c and S_t have the same distribution.

H_A : S_t is stochastically larger than S_c , i.e., if

a is an observation from S_t and b is an observation from S_c , the probability that

$(a > b) > 1/2$.

The process for determining the statistical test is a lengthy one. In step one, the scores of both S_1 and S_2 are combined and ranked, keeping track of which scores belong to which sample. The scores are ranked with the lowest receiving a "one"; the next lowest receiving a "two," etc. The scores receive an average rank. The interactive scores and ranks of all three treatments are given in Tables 34 through 36.

Next a weighted sum of the ranks of scores in Treatment One is made, (R) , and the U statistic is determined by the formula:

$$U = n_1 n_2 + \frac{n_1 (n_1 + 1)}{2} - R_1$$

where n indicates the sample size of each treatment.

As the number of scores or sample size becomes large, the sampling distribution of U rapidly approaches the normal distribution, with the following mean and standard deviation:

$$\text{mean}_U = \frac{(n_1) (n_2)}{2}$$

$$\text{standard deviation}_U = \sqrt{\frac{(n_1) (n_2) (n_1 + n_2 + 1)}{12}}$$

Thus, a z statistic can be computed as follows:

$$z = \frac{U - \mu_u}{\sigma_u} = \frac{U - \frac{n_1 n_2}{2}}{\sqrt{\frac{n_1 n_2 (n_1 + n_2 + 1)}{12}}}$$

The next step is to set the level of the test that defines the region of rejection, determine the z statistic, then consult the

TABLE 34

INTERACTIVE SCORES AND RANKS, CONTROL GROUP-TREATMENT ONE

Score	Number of Scores		Average Rank
	Control Group	Treatment One	
17	1	3	2.5
29	1	0	5.0
30	2	0	6.5
32	2	1	9.0
33	0	1	11.0
35	2	0	12.5
36	1	3	15.5
37	3	2	20.0
38	2	2	24.5
39	7	2	31.0
40	4	6	40.5
41	16	9	58.0
42	7	5	76.5
43	16	8	94.5
44	9	7	114.5
45	14	11	135.0
46	2	7	152.0
47	4	12	164.5
48	0	1	173.0
49	6	15	184.0
50	0	1	195.0
51	0	4	197.5

TABLE 35

INTERACTIVE SCORES AND RANKS, CONTROL GROUP-TREATMENT TWO

Score	Number of Scores		Average Rank
	Control Group	Treatment Two	
17	1	0	1.0
27	0	1	2.0
29	1	0	3.0
30	2	0	4.5
32	2	1	7.0
34	0	6	11.5
35	2	1	16.0
36	1	3	19.5
37	3	4	25.0
38	2	0	29.5
39	7	4	36.0
40	4	5	46.0
41	16	4	60.5
42	7	7	77.5
43	16	14	99.5
44	9	6	122.0
45	14	7	140.0
46	2	4	153.5
47	4	13	165.0
48	0	5	176.0
49	6	14	188.5
50	0	0	--
51	0	1	199.0

TABLE 36

INTERACTIVE SCORES AND RANKS, TREATMENT ONE-TREATMENT TWO

Score	Number of Scores		Average Rank
	Treatment One	Treatment Two	
17	3	0	2.0
27	0	1	4.0
32	1	1	5.5
33	1	0	7.0
34	0	6	10.5
35	0	1	14.0
36	3	3	17.5
37	2	4	23.5
38	2	0	27.5
39	2	4	31.5
40	6	5	40.0
41	9	4	52.0
42	5	7	64.5
43	8	14	81.5
44	7	6	99.0
45	11	7	114.5
46	7	4	129.0
47	12	13	147.0
48	1	5	162.5
49	15	14	180.0
50	1	0	195.0
51	4	1	198.0

relevant table of z statistics to determine whether the null hypothesis should be rejected.

Statistical Significance--The Control Group and Treatment One

H_0 = The Control group and Treatment One have the same distribution, i.e., the film does not affect audiences' beliefs about sexual assault in a positive way.

H_A = Treatment One is stochastically larger than the Control group, i.e., the film does affect, positively, audiences' beliefs about sexual assault.

$$\text{ranked } T_c = 8529$$

$$U = (99)(100) + \frac{(99)(100)}{2} - 8529 = 6321$$

$$z = \frac{6321 - \frac{(99)(100)}{2}}{\frac{(99)(100)(200)}{12}} = 3.38$$

Set $\alpha = .01$, then the region of rejection is for $z \geq 2.33$. Since $3.38 \geq 2.33$, reject H_0 and accept H_A .

Statistical Test--The Control Group and Treatment Two

H_0 = The Control group and Treatment Two have the same distribution, i.e., the film plus discussion does not affect in a positive way audiences' beliefs about sexual assault.

H_A = Treatment Two is stochastically larger than the Control group, i.e., the film plus discussion does affect audiences' beliefs about sexual assault in a positive way.

$$\text{ranked } T_c = 8907$$

$$U = (99)(100) + \frac{(99)(100)}{2} - 8907 = 5943$$

$$z = \frac{5943 - \frac{(99)(100)}{2}}{\sqrt{\frac{(99)(100)(200)}{12}}} = 2.44$$

Set $\alpha = .01$, then the region of rejection is for $z \geq 2.33$. Since $2.44 \geq 2.33$, reject H_0 and accept H_A .

Statistical Significance--Treatments One and Two

H_0 = Treatment One and Treatment Two have the same distribution, i.e., the film plus discussion does not positively affect audiences' beliefs about sexual assault more than viewing the film only does.

H_A = Treatment Two is stochastically larger than Treatment One, i.e., the film plus discussion has a greater positive effect on audiences' beliefs about sexual assault than does viewing the film only.

$$\text{ranked } T_1 = 10,387.5$$

$$U = (100)(100) + \frac{(100)(100)}{2} - 10,387.5 = 4612.5$$

$$z = \frac{4612.5 - 5000}{\frac{(100)(100)(201)}{12}} = -.95$$

Set $\alpha = .01$, then the region of rejection is for

$z \geq 2.33$. Since $-.95$ is not ≥ 2.33 , accept H_0 and

reject H_A .

As a result of these statistical tests, the conclusion can be drawn that the viewing of the film "Rape Prevention: No Pat Answer" does positively affect audiences' beliefs about sexual assault as does viewing the film and then participating in a question-and-answer group discussion. However, viewing the film and participating in a discussion after the film is not more effective in terms of correcting incorrect beliefs about sexual assault than viewing the film only.

CHAPTER V
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

Introduction, Purpose of the Study, and Previous Research

This researcher has been actively concerned with the problem of rape in our society for a number of years and has concluded that open and honest communication about this subject is the key to a better understanding of this societal problem. As a result of this conclusion, this researcher obtained funds to produce a 16mm film on the subject of sexual assault and its prevention, which has been used extensively in community education programs around the country and in Canada. Even though audience feedback about the film and the program has been positive, it seemed necessary to formally test the effectiveness of both the film and the educational efforts of the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service. Thus, the purpose of this study is twofold: First, to test whether or not viewing this film has positive impact on audiences' beliefs about sexual assault, and, second, whether the question-and-answer discussion after viewing the film supplements the film in such a way as to reinforce or more positively affect audiences' beliefs about sexual assault.

Since the primary focus of this study was on factual information and belief change and since most of the research in the area of effect of films or other media vehicles has been based on attitude change, this researcher decided to limit the review of previous research to studies that in some way were based on the public's view of sexual assault and its victims. To broaden the review of previous research to include summaries of studies on attitude change was deemed inappropriate, as the scope of this study did not include attitude change but merely change in beliefs about sexual assault. The only other study that was truly similar to this study is the Metropolitan Organization to Counter Sexual Assault's research into the effectiveness of their own educational program, which has not yet been completed. The other studies noted, however, reflect some similar findings as those in this study, primarily in the area of sex differences in beliefs about sexual assault.

Design and Methodology

The Sexual Assault Belief Survey was designed to gather data on audience beliefs about sexual assault. This survey was administered to 300 participants of the educational programs of the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service at three different times: before the film was shown, after the film was shown but before any discussion, and after the film was shown and the discussion was concluded. Demographic data were gathered, and the facilitators were asked to summarize their estimates as to the percentage of

time during the discussion that certain topics were discussed. These questionnaires were scored according to each item's desired response as determined by the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service. Higher scores reflect the desired or "correct" responses to the seventeen statements of belief. The Mann-Whitney U statistical test was utilized to determine whether there were statistically significant differences in scores between groups. The responses to each item were cataloged to determine those statements of belief that seemed to be most affected by viewing the film and participating in a discussion.

Results

Although the descriptive data of this study cannot be construed to verify statistically significant differences in scores or beliefs between men and women, ethnic groups, or those who have been victims or have known victims of sexual assault, the data can be viewed as preliminary indications that these differences may exist. The greatest area of difference in scores was between men and women. Females did tend to score higher than males on the whole. This preliminary indication is also in line with the results of previous studies that indicate that females tend to be more sympathetic toward victims of sexual assault (MOCSA) and hold less sexist attitudes toward rape in general (Barnett and Feild).

The number of ethnic subjects was not sufficient to draw any strong conclusions as to differences in beliefs about sexual assault

along ethnic lines, except perhaps in the case of Native Americans. Since 33 percent of the subjects making up Treatment Two were of Native American background and since their scores were much lower (39.00 as compared with 45.21) than those of the Whites making up Treatment Two, one could conclude that Native Americans may hold a different set of beliefs about sexual assault or that their beliefs are not as affected by participation in an educational program presented by the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service.

Since rape and sexual assault are subjects that have not been openly discussed until very recently, it is not surprising that the question on the survey regarding the subject's own experience with sexual assault was left blank much more often than any other question. Scoring patterns also revealed that a subject's answer to this question did not indicate how she or he would score on the whole test. In other words, this factor did not seem to affect a subject's beliefs about sexual assault in any consistent way.

The analysis of the program summaries for the treatments did not reveal a general profile for the discussions that are held after the film is shown. The fact that the members of the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service fit the discussions to a particular audience's needs precluded the existence of such a general profile. However, this researcher thought that the percentage of time spent during the discussion on certain areas might affect that audience's scores. In particular, this researcher's hypothesis was that greater time spent on the personal level would positively affect scores.

Such was not the case, however, as scores in general did not seem affected by the percentage of time spent on various areas of discussion.

The preliminary conclusions drawn from the item-by-item analysis did support what later was found to be a statistically valid conclusion. The item-by-item analysis indicated that there were positive changes in beliefs between the Control group and Treatment One and between the Control group and Treatment Two but that there was little difference between Treatment One and Treatment Two, thus indicating that although both the film and the film plus discussion had positive effect on audiences' beliefs about sexual assault, the film plus discussion was no more effective than viewing the film only. This conclusion was verified by utilizing the Mann-Whitney U test in the analysis of scores of the treatments.

This researcher also found it interesting, and disappointing, to discover many people who believed some of the most devastating myths about sexual assault. For instance, five people in the Control group and two people in Treatment Two believed that "In most cases, when a woman was raped, she was asking for it."; four people in the Control group, one in Treatment One, and five in Treatment Two did not believe that "Rape is a humiliating experience for a woman.", fourteen people in the Control group, five in Treatment One, and four in Treatment Two believed that "Girls who are raped on dates have usually asked for it.", two people in the Control group, two in Treatment One, and three in Treatment Two

believed that "Nice women do not get raped ", six people in the Control group, one in Treatment One, and four in Treatment Two believed that "Most women secretly desire to be raped.", twenty-nine people in the Control group, fifteen in Treatment One, and twenty-four in Treatment Two believed that "The degree of a woman's resistance should be the major factor in determining whether a rape has occurred.", and six people in the Control group, five in Treatment One, and three in Treatment Two believed that "It would do some women some good to get raped."

Conclusions and Recommendations

The answer to this study's primary research question, "Which communication mode, the film only or the film plus discussion, is most effective in achieving the goals of the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service's educational efforts?" is that viewing the film only is at least as effective as viewing the film and participating in a question-and-answer discussion after the film is shown. The film was proven to be effective in changing people's beliefs about sexual assault, where erroneous, as was the second communication mode, viewing the film and then participating in a question-and-answer discussion. However, the discussions after the film did little to enhance or supplement the film, at least as reflected in audience scores.

It is this researcher's opinion that a discussion after the showing of the film should be able to enhance the effectiveness

of the film. Thus, one could conclude that the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service is not taking full advantage of the opportunity to affect, in a more positive way, audiences' beliefs about sexual assault through its discussions. A recommendation to the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service is that a review of this communication mode be made and that further exploration of more effective ways of supplementing the film be undertaken. For example, the Sexual Assault Belief Survey could be used at the conclusion of programs as a tool to reinforce any positive changes in beliefs by explaining why each item is correct or incorrect. On the other hand, the fact that the film itself is effective irregardless of any supplementary activity is heartening to this researcher because the film is being used in community education in over fifty communities throughout the United States and Canada, with no controls as to the expertise or experience of the facilitators.

In terms of further research, one recommendation is that similar studies be done, however, based on other types of communication modes, including other films, such as "Rape: A Preventative Inquiry," and psychodrama and theatre, such as At the Foot of the Mountain's production of "Raped." A weakness of this study was the fact that subjects were of such a broad range of backgrounds, including age, socioeconomic background, and educational level, and that unequal numbers of people of like background were included

as subjects. Therefore, other studies are needed that concentrate on differences in beliefs about sexual assault between males and females, between Whites and Native Americans, etc. Further, additional research is needed to explore the possibility that the effectiveness of certain kinds of communication modes differs among males and females or among age groups or among ethnic groups.

Finally, the writer would like to encourage the Douglas County Rape Victim Support Service, as well as the many other organizations of its type, to continue with their community education efforts until education about sexual assault is not needed and understanding prevails.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Bard, Morton and Ellison, Katherine. "Crisis Intervention and Investigation of Forcible Rape." The Police Chief, May, 1974, pp. 166-171.
- Barnett, Nona J. and Feild, Herbert S. "Sex Differences in University Students' Attitudes Toward Rape." Journal of College Student Personnel, March, 1977, pp. 93-96.
- Brodyaga, Lisa, et al. Rape and Its Victims: A Report for Citizens, Health Facilities and Criminal Justice Agencies. Washington, D. C.: Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, 1974.
- Brownmiller, Susan. Against Our Will: Men, Women, and Rape. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1975.
- Federal Bureau of Investigation. Uniform Crime Reports for the United States. Washington, D. C., 1968-1975.
- Feinman, Saul. "Fault Attribution as a Function of the Actor's Intentions and Characteristics, and of Sex of Observer." An unpublished paper presented at the Midwest Sociological Society Meeting, April 24, 1976.
- Gager, Nancy and Schurr, Cathleen. Sexual Assault: Confronting Rape in America. New York: Grosset and Dunlap, 1976.
- Herman, Michele H. and Sedlacek, William E. "Female University Student and Staff Perception of Rape," Journal of NAWDAC, Fall, 1974, pp. 20-23.
- Jones, Cathleen and Aronson, Eliot. "Attribution of Fault to a Rape Victim as a Function of Respectability of the Victim." Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 26, No. 3, 1973, pp. 413-415.
- Middlebrook, Patricia Niles. Social Psychology and Modern Life. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1974.
- National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, Report on Criminal Statistics. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1931.

- President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.
- Rokeach, Milton. Beliefs, Attitudes, and Values. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1968.
- Russell, Diana E. H. The Politics of Rape: The Victim's Perspective. New York: Stein and Day, 1975.
- Walker, Marcia J. and Brodsky, Stanley L., eds. Sexual Assault. Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books, 1976.