

COMMUNITY COLLEGE MALE ATHLETES AND NON-ATHLETES:  
AN EXAMINATION OF STATUS CHARACTERISTICS AND RAPE  
SUPPORTIVE ATTITUDES

by

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A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Criminal Justice  
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## Abstract

### Community College Male Athletes and Non-Athletes: An Examination of Status Characteristics and Rape Supportive Attitudes

by

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Male students who played on community college sports teams, designated “Athletes,” and male students who were not on community college teams, designated “Non-athletes,” participated in the study. The research compared how athletes and non-athletes perceived their status in terms of the variety of dimensions, as well as how they thought others perceived them on those same status dimensions. The athletes and non-athletes completed questionnaires indicating their self-perceptions of their own present status with respect to their intellectual, athletic, educational, and social status. They also indicated their perceived future status: educational status, athletic status, non-athletic career status, and overall career success.

In addition to rating their own perceptions of their status, subjects were asked to rate how they thought others saw them on present and future status variables. These “other” people were involved in the subject’s day-to-day life in college and included: other students, professors, and the current or last girlfriend. It was hypothesized that athletic subjects’ self-perceptions and perceptions of how others thought of them would be higher in all status areas than the non-athletic subjects. It was also hypothesized that athletes would be more accepting of rape myths, including the belief that women lie about rape, than non-athletes.

Results found that athletes perceived themselves as having higher present and future athletic status than non-athletes, as predicted. In addition, athletes rated other people as seeing them with higher present and future athletic status than non-athletes. Contrary to

the prediction, athletes thought others perceived them as having lower present and future educational status and lower overall future career success than non-athletes. Also, contrary to prediction, athletes saw themselves as having lower future non-athletic career status than non-athletes. An additional finding was that both groups believed their girlfriends perceived them as having overall higher present status than other students and professors.

Contrary to the hypotheses, athletes did not have a greater acceptance of rape myths than did non-athletes; however, they did believe that women lie more about rape.

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## INTRODUCTION

Sexual coercion and assault is not a new problem on college and university campuses. For the past forty years, researchers have examined this issue and attributed the problem to a multitude of factors. Cultural myths, social institutions, peer groups, personality factors, victim characteristics, gender roles, and miscommunications have all been considered important social components integral to this problem. Despite the complexity of the issue, the one specific factor that has been continually blamed for encouraging and fostering sexual violence on campus is athletics (Anderson & Dohrmann, 2004; McCallum, 2003; Chandler et al., 1999). Several studies have examined the association between student athletes' behavior and rape myth acceptance. The overall consensus of research and literature has indicated that there is a strong correlation. However, many of these studies have been challenged by theoretical and methodological questions.

The first civil lawsuit under the 1994 *Violence Against Women Act* was brought by Christy Brzonkala against Virginia Tech (Wagner, 1996). She sought 8.3 million dollars in damages (the same amount the school's Division I football team accrued by competing in the 1995 Sugar Bowl). Brzonkala claimed that two members of the football team sexually assaulted her in 1994. After appearing before the university's disciplinary board, one student was exonerated from any wrong doing, and the other was given a one-year suspension from school (McKay & Robbins, 2003). The suspension was overturned in August of 1995, just before the start of the football season. As an alternative, the student participated in a one-hour educational seminar on rape while actively playing football on the school's team. Brzonkala's case, though initially won, was overturned in June of 2000 (Kovaleski, 2002).

Over the past few years other cases have focused on athletes and sexual violence. In light of the recent Kobe Bryant case (McCallum, 2003), there has been significantly

more media attention directed at athletes both at the national and collegiate level. Benedict (1997) has found that professional athletes are more likely to be arrested for sexual assault and domestic violence; however, they are less likely to be convicted. In November of 1999, two freshmen athletes at Heidelberg College were charged with rape after they bragged about videotaping themselves raping an unconscious woman (Weir & Brady, 2003).

In September 2001, two Michigan State football players were permitted to resume playing on the team after serving thirty days for the alleged rape of a thirteen year-old girl. They pled to misdemeanor assault charges. Also in 2001, seven Jackson State basketball players were arrested for the rape of a fellow student. In October of that same year, a Syracuse basketball recruit from a local community college was charged with sexually assaulting a female student. In January 2002, a University of Georgia female student was allegedly gang-raped. Members of the basketball and football teams were indicted that summer (Security On Campus, 2002). In August of 2003, Florida State University officials were accused of trying to broker a deal between a football player accused of rape and his victim, in order to keep the matter quiet and out of the court system (McKay & Robbins, 2004). The University of Colorado recruiting scandal has raised questions that not only address the issues of athletes and sexual violence, but also those of athletic recruitment practices, and the participation of as well as those of college administration and coaches, and those policies which contribute to fostering an atmosphere that models, condones and encourages this type of aggressive sexual behavior (Weir & Brady, 2003; Payne, 2002; Poppen, 2001).

### College Athletes and Rape Myth Acceptance

#### *The Function and Framework of Rape Myths*

Considerable research has been devoted to examining characteristics, attitudes, and sexual behaviors of college males. Several theorists have argued that the socialization of

men in the United States encourages attitudes and behaviors that predispose men to dominate, abuse, and denigrate women (Abbey, 1991; Berkowitz, Burkhart, & Bourg, 1994; Bohmer & Parrot, 1993; Kanin, 1971; Koss, 1988; Schur, 1984). These theorists believe that gender socialization is the foundation for sexual aggression and that it promotes a rape-supportive culture by encouraging men to adopt these beliefs and patterns (Sanday, 1990). Men who accept stereotypical or false myths about women and sexual assault view relationships between men and women as adversarial; they tend to condone violence against women; and are found to be more tolerant of rape (Koss, Leonard, Breezley, & Oros, 1985). In one study it was found that 86% of convicted rapists believed that their actions did not constitute rape (Scully & Marolla, 1985; Parrot & Bechhofer, 1991).

Burt (1980) argued that belief in rape myths plays an important role in perpetuating the cycle of sexual violence and abuse. These attitudes may take the form of rape myths, which are defined as prejudicial, stereotypical, or false beliefs about rape, the victims, and offenders (Burt, 1980). It is hypothesized that these beliefs are being used by rapists to justify their behavior. These beliefs can also act as “neutralizers”, which allow offenders to turn off the internal buttons that might otherwise, stop them from acting on their impulses. It was also agreed that similar beliefs held by family members and/or peers of assailants may indirectly contribute and endorse these behaviors through mutually constructed excuses which seek to blame the victim or minimize the seriousness of injury. Research evidence has shown that rape myth acceptance is part of a larger, interrelated attitudinal structure, which includes acceptance of interpersonal violence and the belief that sexual relationships are adversarial in nature. “Rape myths have the effect of denying that many instances involving coercive sex are actually rapes” (Burt, 1991, 26).

An issue documented in Burt’s (1980) research is the surrounding set of attitudes

which support the rape myths. There exist strong positive correlations between acceptance of these myths and high levels of sex role stereotyping, adversarial sexual beliefs, and an acceptance of interpersonal violence and sexual conservatism (Burt, 1980 & 1983).

Some rape myths include the presumption that: rape is sex; it occurs only at night; women fantasize about being raped; and only 'bad' women get raped. (Burt, 1980; NCAVA, 2001). Rape myths are widely accepted in our own society, mainly by men (Burt, 1980). These myths contribute to how the public perceives rape and sexual coercion.

People have in their heads an idea of a 'real rape'. This idea is a good deal narrower than the legal definition and excludes many types of rape that happen more frequently than the classic 'real rape'. When they hear of a specific incident in which a woman says she was raped, they look at the incident, compare it to their idea of a 'real rape' and, all too often, decide that the woman was not really raped (Burt, 1991, p.27).

The common, classic 'real rape' image for many is a rape committed by a stranger, with a weapon, at night, with violence, injury, and resistance by the victim. In reality, more than half of all rapes are committed by someone who is known to the victim; most occur in the victim's or assailant's home, and most involve no weapon and no severe physical injuries (Burgess & Holmstrom, 1979; Burt, 1991; Koss & Gidycz, 1985; Koss & Oros, 1982; Warshaw, 1988). Date and acquaintance rapes are not perpetrated by strangers – in most cases the victim has participated in some interaction with the assailant prior to the crime – which can include anything from having dinner or drinks together, borrowing a textbook for homework, or exchanging 'hellos' in a classroom. Essentially, the problem in deciding whether a rape has occurred happens when determining where the voluntary action ends and the coercion begins (Burt, 1991; Warshaw, 1988).

Rape myths are mechanisms that people use to dismiss an incident of sexual

coercion and aggression as a rape. If one accepts these myths, one denies the true reality of most rapes and attempted rapes. This has a significant ripple effect and ultimately impacts the criminal justice system, not only to the extent of how practitioners investigate and prosecute cases, but also regarding the believability of the victim and the defense(s) of an assailant. A person's definition of real rape becomes narrow and it has been found that a person is less likely to convict someone of rape or more probable to recommend a lighter sentence. This has been shown in mock jury situations (Burt, 1983).

These myths permeate our culture and transform our images of sexual violence. For example, a belief strongly associated with sexual assault is that violence is an acceptable response to women who "lead men on". Beliefs in such myths have been strongly correlated with men's willingness to justify rape (Burt, 1980; Koss et al., 1985). This viewpoint was also supported by Beneke (1982) who explored male attitudes about sexual violence through analysis of language, cues, and symbols used by men. He suggested that our culture endorses "rape signs" and "rape language" which are prevalent within our society and affect how men interpret and perceive sexual violence (Beneke, 1982). These include slang expressions from referring to women as a "'ho" or a "bitch", to items of women's clothing (for example, "f\*\*k-me pumps") and describing women with violent connotations (for example, "she's a bombshell" or "she got knocked-up"). These images and expressions used over and over again with regularity in our language are absorbed in our psyches and, according to Beneke (1982), exist within many male fantasies and their pre-existing perceptions of women. "Just as rape signs make it difficult to think clearly about rape, men's fantasies of rape make it difficult for men to think of the true reality of rape" (Beneke, 1982, 10).

The existing rape myth that when a woman says "no", she really means "yes" is still a prevalent misperception. Many males support the belief that women are dishonest about their sexual intentions and like to "tease" men. This particular type of belief in conjunction with men and women's sex-role social training still reinforces that it is customary for males

to initiate sexual activity and, more so, that “token resistance” to sex is not only acceptable; but also, desired and pleasurable. Thousands of films and television shows further illustrate and underline this point. For example, in one of the most famous scenes in American film history, Scarlett O’Hara (in *Gone With The Wind*) was forcibly carried up the stairs against her will by Rhett Butler and the following scene shows her in bed the next morning, smiling. In 1981, on the television serial *General Hospital*, the character Luke raped Laura and she later married him. Their wedding had the highest ratings on record for daytime television (Parrot & Bechhofer, 1991). In a campus study of undergraduates, 39% of women claimed to have engaged in “token resistance sex” primarily because they believed it normal for male/female relationships to be adversarial (Parrot & Bechhofer, 1991).

Another misperception contributing to the support of rape myths is that once men are aroused, sex must be inevitable (Sanday, 1996). Although sexual arousal may be a precursor to rape, the way men cognitively handle it determines the outcome. Alcohol and drugs can influence this situation significantly. In *The College Alcohol Study* (1995), 26% of women surveyed experienced unwanted sexual contact initiated by a male student who had been drinking. The Core Institute on Alcohol & Other Drug Studies (1996) reported that 77% of students who experienced unwanted sexual intercourse said they had been drinking or using drugs just before the incident (Weschler, Austin, & Delong, 1996). There is an association that those individuals who are high rape myth accepters are more likely to say that they would rape if they could get away with it, and are found to be more aroused by violent pornography and more likely to admit they have had sexual intercourse with a woman by force (Koss et al., 1985; Malamuth & Donnerstein, 1984; Malamuth, 1981).

According to the feminist model in social research, patriarchy in our society is designed to maintain power, privilege, and control by and for men. Even though the feminist model itself has not thoroughly empirically examined the conflict of inequality and power between the sexes, its work has addressed serious issues of concern to women,

including sexual violence, sexual harassment, and social injustice. Research supports the association of this patriarchy in our culture with the existence of physical and sexual violence in our society (MacKinnon, 1982; Burt, 1980; Brownmiller, 1975). To maintain control groups in power, men use various means, for example, socialization, training, and beliefs about what is “good”, “right”, and/or “natural”. Burt (1991) notes: “The part of patriarchal ideology is our culture’s set of beliefs of what is right, good, true, and natural about men, women and their relationship to each other. Rape myths are part of this ideology” (Burt, 1991, 36). Rape myths justify and excuse sexual violence and can deny victims appropriate care, assistance, and support (Warshaw, 1988; Burt, 1980). Rape myths, “ allow rapists to rape with near impunity. They transform rape by acquaintances, friends, and intimates into no rape at all. The myths make clear to her [women] that avoiding rape is her responsibility...They especially make clear the disbelief and blame she [women] will encounter should she be so foolish as to be raped by someone she knows” (Burt, 1991, 32). Those who accept rape myths hold more traditional stereotypical attitudes, have a stronger belief in male-female relationships that are fundamentally exploitive, and have an inclination to tolerate interpersonal violence. Rape myth acceptance scale scores have been related to gender stereotyping, adversarial sexual beliefs, and acceptance of interpersonal violence (Burt, 1980; Koss, 1988; Martin & Hummer, 1989). Rape myths, as well as the act and threat of sexual violence are mechanisms for maintaining control and dominance of women (Burt, 1991; Koss et al, 1985).

### *College Athletes and Sexual Violence*

Much of the published research underscores that sex-role socialization fosters rape supportive beliefs and myths that are then reinforced by power, control, and competition between men and women (Boering, 1996). This has shifted some of the focus of research on sexual assault to male athletes and sexual violence. Sex role socialization theory presumes that people are socialized into male and female gender personalities that have been constructed from socially institutionalized roles. Some of the problems with this

perspective of research in this area is that it too, like the feminist model, has given little attention with respect to power imbalances between men and women. When social constructions of gender have been examined, the research has not looked at how these sex role characteristics have become attached and has not explained thoroughly why certain traits, classified as masculine, are valued more in certain societies than those which are feminine.

Koss and Dinero's (1990) study found that those males involved in peer groups that reinforced highly sexualized views of women were important predictors of sexual coercion and aggression by college males. The researchers cited varsity athletics and fraternal orders as examples of these peer groups (Koss & Dinero, 1990). Warshaw (1988) concluded that, "athletic teams are breeding grounds for rape [because they] are often populated by men who are steeped in sexist, rape-supportive beliefs" (Warshaw, 1988, 113). Sanday (1990) and Messner (1995) have postulated that within the athletic subculture, as well as other groups, such as fraternities, group identity and attitudes become personalized through socialization and the individual becomes subordinate to group actions and group thinking. Athletes' emphasis on toughness, obedience to superiors (coaches), and utilizing physical force to obtain compliance all contribute to a lifestyle that diminishes sensitivity and fosters intragroup loyalty. This may legitimize the use of coercion or force by those in power and may contribute to the use of violence in dating situations (Sanday, 1990). Research on masculinity and sports contend that sports are used to socialize boys to become men. Sports act as the glue within a masculine culture, and help men facilitate dominance by affirming that their gender gives them status enhancement (Messner, 1995).

Researchers have found that a substantial number of athletic team members have been involved in campus rapes; thus, this is a special problem for college males who are members of an athletic team. Bohmer and Parrot (1993) examined rape on college campuses and found that 40% of reported campus rapes were committed by members of sport teams. This figure is considered high given the number of male athletes on a college

campus in proportion to non-athletic males. Since the early 1990's, a succession of publicized rape cases have involved high-profiled athletes (Benedict, 1997). Subsequently, Boeringer (1996) reported a greater number of incidences of sexual assault perpetrated by athletes than by those with non-athletic membership. It has been estimated that one out of three sexual assaults on college campuses is perpetrated by an athlete (Flores, 2002; Katz, 1995; National Coalition Against Violent Athletes, 2001). While statistics indicate that student athletes comprise 3% of the total college population in America, they represent over 20% of sexual assault perpetrators and 35% of domestic violence perpetrators (NCVA, 2001; Nguyen, 1999).

Though some believe that the media has overstated the problem with regard to athletes and violence against women, there is some evidence to support this association. Koss & Gaines (1993) studied the connection of sexual aggression by athletes and fraternity members with alcohol use, and found that the link between athletic involvement and sexual aggression was independent of other factors, including alcohol, drugs, and nicotine use. Researchers have found that the frequency of sexual assault and other examples of violence against women is higher when female power and authority are low and are perceived as such by men (Koss & Gaines; 1993). Other studies have found that male college athletes account for "more than their share of reported battering and sex assault complaints" (Crosset et al., 1996, p. 172). By examining college judicial programs, Crosset (1995) found that athletes were more often involved in campus rape cases than were non-athletes. Given the fact that athletes tend to represent an aggressive group (Messner, 1995), the premise is that women who are close to and associate with these men are more likely to be exposed to potentially high-risk situations (drugs & alcohol use) and settings (parties), thereby increasing their risk of victimization (Koss & Gaines, 1993; Benedict, 1997). Jackson's study (1991) at the University of Arkansas reported that 27% of male athletes revealed having coerced a woman verbally into having sex (with the aid of alcohol and drugs) and 4% said they had raped a woman (Benedict, 1997).

Another area of research has examined the problem of gang rapes on college campuses. One study found athletic team members to be responsible for over 25% of gang rapes (Benedict, 1999). A major reason cited is their privileged position on campuses (O'Sullivan, 1994). There is speculation by researchers that factors that facilitate a gang rape include: group cohesiveness, membership in a group, acceptance by the group, and the satisfaction and challenge of performing in a group situation (O'Sullivan, 1994).

According to Brownmiller (1975), men who would not rape alone may become rapists in the company of their sexually aggressive male peers (O'Sullivan, 1994). Scully and Marolla's (1985) research on the rewards of gang rape indicates that the sexual assault may actually create a sense of camaraderie among male peers, which includes acceptance by others in the group and the satisfaction and challenge of performing in a group situation.

#### *College Athletes and Status*

Early research on sexual violence has indicated that college males who experience pressure from male peers are more likely to rape (Kanin, 1984). Those men who are not restrained by their values may become products of hyper-masculine, male-peer supportive groups like sport teams and fraternities. Other findings have concluded that acts of sexual assault on college campuses combine factors of power, dominance, peer pressure, alcohol, and the need to employ coercive techniques to obtain gratification (Koss & Cleveland, 1996; Abbey, 1991; Parrot & Bechhofer, 1991; Kanin, 1984).

It has been suggested that the campus environment creates a climate of privilege and higher status for male athletes as compared to male non-athletes (Koss & Gaines, 1993). This status is manifested in a variety of ways and infers that special treatment goes hand-in-hand with this status. Special advisement, extensive support from coaches and student services personnel, different admissions criteria and recruitment efforts, excused absences from classes for games and practices, compared to what is given to the general traditional student, serve as just a few examples. "They come to campus as semi-professionals and are slotted under the rubric of 'student-athletes' " (Smith, 2002, 4). This

ascribed label lasts from the initial recruitment period through graduation, and beyond. This perceived status is reinforced and confirmed by other people in the college network, including, administration, coaches, classmates, and even at times, law enforcement (Benedict, 1997; 1999). Benedict (1999) believes that this created status is directly linked to perceived enhanced sexual status that can become abusive when an athlete, who is used to getting what he wants, is denied.

Thus, the actions and cues by ‘other’ people endow athletes with a higher status position within the college environment. For example, excessive absences from classes allowed for practices/games, extra incentives and perks such as, discounts from local college sporting goods stores and even instances of, grade inflation, not only enhance the perception of status for the athletes themselves but have an impact on how the athletes believe others see them (Blackledge, 2001). This is regardless of whether these perceptions and views are truly earned and/or deserved. Studies have shown that athletes have a need for prestige and status even more so than non-athlete students (Patterson, 1996). There have even been studies that suggest that a perceived “higher” status exists for college athletes and can be considered a basis for endorsed stereotypes on campus (McKinney, 2000).

### Status Characteristics Theory and Athletic Membership

#### *Prior Research on Status Characteristics Theory*

Status characteristics theory has examined the way status affects the behaviors that take place in interpersonal interactions (Berger, Fisek, Norman, & Zelditch, 1977; Berger, Rosenholtz, & Zelditch, 1980). People differ in many aspects. They differ by race, gender, wealth, beauty, intellect, and other characteristics – all these carry social distinctions and significance in our society. Status has been a significant area of interest and study since the early 20<sup>th</sup> century. Weber (1922) “viewed status characteristics as connoting social worth and therefore a part of society’s stratification system, along with wealth and power”

(Webster & Hysom, 1988, 351). Park (1928) postulated that organized social interaction and conduct resulted from how one person classified another regarding race, sex, and age (Webster & Hysom, 1998). After the 1950's, several theorists began to analyze how status is translated into different characteristics of varying degrees in our society and culture.

A status characteristic refers to any characteristic around which beliefs and expectations about the person become organized. Status characteristics involve two or more differentially valued states (Wagner & Berger, 1997). For example, gender or education can serve as a status characteristic. Gender operates as a status characteristic in many situations in which men have higher status than females. By the same token, education also operates as a status characteristic in many situations, for example, with college students having higher status than high school students (Berger et al., 1980; Gerber, 1996; Wagner & Berger 1997).

Specific examples of early research include: Dahrendorf (1958), who examined how society is defined by status characteristics; and Collins et al (1990; 1993), who looked at social interactions and the effects they had on various social and political influences in society. This last work was expanded to examine the status effect of gender and the association between social movements, social power, and gender stratification (Webster & Hysom, 1998). Other studies have focused on how status characteristics affect group structures (Berger et al, 1980; Gerber, 1996; Wagner & Berger, 1997). Studies have looked at how gender, educational achievement and race affect competence and work evaluation; and how beauty affects conceptions about intellectual competence (Webster & Driskell, 1978; Foschi, 1996). For example, several studies of juries have shown that individuals with high occupational status, for example, white collar workers, are more likely to be selected as a jury foreperson than those with lower statuses. As well, they are more likely to direct the discussions and influence the final verdict (Wiggins, Vander, & Zanden, 1993).

Other research has included the examination of sexual stratification in work

organizations and found that the status characteristic (gender) in workgroups is the most substantial determinant of sexual harassment. Women in predominantly male groups were less likely to identify or even report sexual harassment (Fain & Anderton, 1987). Gerber (1996) looked at the use of status characteristics theory to make predictions about dispositional attributions. The study tested whether or not external status characteristics affect personality dispositions attributed to police teams. A central theme throughout the general research on status characteristics was “the existence of social advantages and disadvantages associated with these characteristics, often including estimations of overall social worth and specific performance capabilities” (Webster & Hysom, 1998, 352). Status characteristics theory states that certain status elements “become salient” in our society, meaning, that they become “cues” in defining certain interpersonal interactions (Wagner & Berger, 2001).

#### *Legitimation of Status in Groups*

Before examining the link between status and college athletic membership, it is essential to outline what determines the value of a status characteristic and also how it becomes legitimized in our culture. The theory of status characteristics has usually been applied to situations where the people studied are *task-focused* and *collectively-oriented* work groups (Wagner, 1998; Webster & Hysom, 1998). “Task-focused means that people’s primary purpose in meeting is to solve a problem or a set of problems. Collectively-oriented means the problem belongs to the group” (Webster & Hysom, 353). Corporate committees and juries are considered good examples of task-focused and collectively-oriented groups. The theory itself defines different types of status characteristics and that individuals possess several different ones at any one time. A status characteristic is not only meant to be descriptive but gives relevant information about the status value it has in our culture. One type with which this research is concerned is *diffuse status characteristics*. Diffuse status characteristics such as age, race, and gender can effect the formation of expectations in others. Diffuse status characteristics usually have two or more

states that are evaluated differently in a culture. For example, within our own society, men are perceived to have higher status than women (Gerber, 2001; Lockheed & Hall, 1976). From that conclusion, performance expectations are associated with each state. Those who have a status advantage are expected to perform better (Webster & Hysom, 1998). There are differences associated with social worth, respect, and even honor with status characteristics. When examining gender specifically, Wagner (1998) asserts, “men enjoy generally higher performance expectations than women in our culture (and in most cultures) without explicit limit on areas to which those expectations apply” (Webster & Hysom, 1998, p. 353).

Based on these status characteristics, people develop certain “expectancy states” (Ridgeway, 1993), whereby one recognizes a level of competency of and about the group. This, in turn, creates legitimacy for the group. An expectation is created and held by other people and that in turn contributes to the group’s development of power and prestige status ratings (Ridgeway, 2001).

With any status characteristic, there is a process of legitimation, whereby the person’s status is reinforced (Ridgeway, 1993). By creating legitimacy, it establishes rules by which status is granted to the person and/or the group and ultimately affects who has the right to status (Ridgeway, 1993). The legitimization of the person or group’s status is constructed within the group and reinforced by other people, even those outside the group (Berger et al., 1980; Ridgeway, 1993; Wagner & Berger, 1997). For this legitimization to be established the status must be given value by others who go through a process of social interaction. The status generalization process shows how performance expectations are created and then translated into observable parts of a group’s power structure and their prestige.

Figure 1. Status Generalization Process

<i>Initial Conditions</i>	<i>Inferential Link</i>	<i>Theoretical Constructs</i>	<i>Observable Effects</i>	<i>Behavioral Outcomes</i>
Distribution of Status Elements  (Examples: gender, color, occupation, beauty, SAT scores)  →	Status Generalization Process  →	Performance Expectation States  (e.g., perceived competence at specific or general skill)  →	Translation to Behavior  →	Elements of Interaction Power & Prestige  (e.g., chances to perform, positive evaluations, agreement, choice for leadership positions)

(From: Webster & Hysom, 1998, 354).

The figure shows how status elements create performance expectation states, which are transferred into observable behaviors.

Ridgeway and Berger (1986) argue that people hold “reality-based beliefs called ‘referential beliefs’” about categories of people, for example: whites, wealthy, well-educated, and male (Ridgeway, 1993, 121). These categories hold value status positions in society. People use these referential beliefs to formulate their expectations and evaluate what they perceive to be high status positions. The more people there are who confirm beliefs that a particular person will have a higher status than another, the more certain these expectations become. Ridgeway (1993) examined this in the context of a group: “if one group member is a white middle-aged man and another is a young black woman, race, gender and age beliefs will combine to create very certain expectations that the older white man will have higher status” (Ridgeway, 1993, 121). The more expectations held that a group will have higher status and be given greater value the more likely the group will be treated as highly legitimate. Outside collective support for that person or group may encourage people, both within the group and outside, to treat them with more respect and status. Legitimizing the norms of a group is created by “coalitional support” (Ridgeway, 1993). This reinforces the belief that their status is highly valued; it changes their perceptions of who they are, their importance, their competence, and dominance (Fisek,

Berger, & Norman, 1995). As Ridgeway (2001) explains with respect to gender, “because gender stereotypes contain certain status beliefs that associate greater status worthiness and competence with men than women...legitimacy (of a group) brings with it normative support of others” (Ridgeway, 2001, 648).

*Athletes, Status, and Rape Myth Acceptance*

The problem with examining the significance of status and athletes and whether or not it is associated with rape myth acceptance is significantly influenced by how prior research has defined “status”. Most published research has discussed the concept of status as a conceptual term (Benedict, 1997; Messner, 1995; O’Sullivan, 1994) linking it with other associated concepts of power, dominance, entitlement, and group unity.

O’Sullivan’s research on athletes, fraternities and gang rape (1994) found that members of high status groups on campus (athletes and fraternities) become convinced of their entitlement, invulnerability, and group power. What comprised the definition of status was not defined. O’Sullivan compared athletic cohesion and secrecy to groupthink (Janis, 1989). *Groupthink* refers to a decision-making process that occurs in a highly cohesive group. Members are so preoccupied with maintaining group consensus that individuals place a premium on unanimity. This, in turn, interferes with their critical thinking process and individual choices. Janis (1989) identified some particular characteristics of groupthink including: an illusion of invulnerability, rationalization, and self-censorship. The cohesiveness of the group becomes so predominant that individuals suppress their own divergent opinions (Janis, 1989; Wiggins, Vander, & Zanden, 1993). O’Sullivan concluded that groupthink explained why these particular all-male peer groups protect each other from accusation and punishment, even though they know their behavior is dangerous and criminal (O’Sullivan, 1994). This and other studies have defined status as a non-specific construct. Status has only been defined in a general context and specific kinds of status have not been explored.

Other theorists have suggested that organized college sports create a situation which further develops and reinforces masculine identities that can lead male athletes to accept rape myths, interpersonal violence, and sexually aggressive behavior. Thus, sports give men from all backgrounds a means of status enhancement (Messner, 1995), and the college community traditionally has reinforced this status. For example, coaches and administrators will go to great lengths to recruit athletes who they believe will advance their school athletically and, ultimately, financially. A college environment that legitimizes an athlete's status may in fact contribute to their inappropriate behavior and influence their level of social responsibility, the defense of their behavior, and even the outcome of their punishment.

#### *Athletes and Status Conflict*

There exist certain general assumptions about the college athletic population. Many perceive athletes as not being as academically motivated and successful as their non-athletic counterparts. This perception is furthered by how people interpret the special treatment athletes receive on campuses. However, the problem is that the status given to college athletes creates a significant conflict for them, because there are two important status characteristics that operate within the college environment. On the one hand, the athlete is perceived as having status because of his athletic ability and team association. On the other hand, however, educational success is generally considered a more important measure of status within the college environment. Since athletes have often been found not to perform as well academically (Robinson, 1999; Blann, 1985), a conflict is created between the high status granted the athlete for his sports prowess and the low status attached to athletes' poor grades.

Some research suggests such a conflict between two important statuses is associated with increased violence by men, particularly towards women (Gelles, 1972; Gerber, 1995; Messner, 1995). For example, increased violence by a husband towards his wife has been found when the wife has greater educational achievement than the husband

(Gelles, 1972). Here, there is a conflict with status between gender and education. It is generally expected that males have higher status than females; in this situation, however, the wife is more educated than the husband. As a result, the husband establishes his dominance with violence, because he cannot do so legitimately through superior educational success. Evidence suggests that in families in which the husband's education and occupational status are inferior to the wife's, the husband becomes hypersensitive to the legitimacy of his status as head of the family. In some instances, a violent attack has occurred after the husband's superior position in the family was undermined or challenged by the wife's (Gelles, 1972). Further, it has been asserted that some men in low-status occupations believe that if they can establish an atmosphere of aggression and violence that they can then pass as "real men" – beatings and rape help re-establish their masculinity (Messerschmidt, 1993; Messner, 1995). Couples in which the husband is less educated or in a lower-status employment position than the wife's were significantly more likely to subscribe to an ideology of familial patriarchy and the men were more likely to have beaten their wives (Messerschmidt, 1993).

These findings have implications for this study on college athletes. Since athletes are treated as having higher status within the college environment on the basis of their athletic ability, they perceive themselves as having the status legitimately. Yet, this often conflicts with their educational status, which is reflected by their actual grades. This conflict may help explain why college athletes may have more experiences as perpetrators of sexual aggression and why they may have a greater acceptance of rape myths and beliefs than college non-athletes. There may be an attempt to resolve this conflict and assert their superior status and dominance through sexual aggression towards women. By contrast, non-athletic college males generally have higher GPAs in comparison with athletes and do not experience status. As a result, they are less likely to perpetrate violence against women and are less likely to accept interpersonal violence and rape myths.

This study has significant implications for the criminal justice system. The vast majority of sexual assaults against college students (84-98%) are perpetrated by assailants known to the victim (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2000). Many victims and attackers do not define their experiences using legal terms. Both the victims and perpetrators not being able to understand or describe their experience in terms of the legal definition and context of sexual assault must be changed. Additionally, a campus culture that encourages a rape supportive environment must be challenged. This study can assist criminal justice practitioners in understanding that rape myths are still prevalent on our campuses. It can also help those involved and connected with college administration (i.e., student affairs, faculty, coaches, public safety officers, etc.) in shifting and re-shaping attitudes towards rape myths and sexual violence and promoting a safer college environment for all students.

### An Extension of Status Characteristics Theory

Status characteristics theory has primarily examined the impact of status characteristics and involved task-focused status, meaning it looked at the abilities and competence related to an immediate task. Status characteristics theorists typically have examined only one particular variable and its association with a task (Foschi, 2000; Webster & Driskell, 1985). However, some work has dealt with conflicting external status characteristics and their relationship with task-oriented groups (Berger et al., 1977). An external status characteristic can be used to evaluate one's performance and shape one's social interactions. An external status characteristic can convey and send messages about a person's worth and competence. They can be culturally prescribed and affect not only interactions between people but the order within and between groups (Webster & Driskell, 1985). Certain external characteristics can shape what people believe to be important or relevant about another individual. These characteristics become salient and further affect the expectations about a person and their competence (Ridgeway, 2001; Ridgeway, Johnson & Diekema, 1994). Findings have supported this with regard to gender roles and status (Ridgeway, 2001). For example, it has been written that men whose social status has shown greater levels of sensitivity are referred to as men who "behave like women" (Snodgrass, 1985, p.148).

The present study expands on status characteristics theory. The athletic membership connotes its own value, social worth and perceived levels of expectations, which in turn, has a direct affect on the athlete and the perception of how he sees himself and how he thinks others see him. Athletic membership as an external characteristic was

examined as to how it affected multiple types of status variables, particularly those that directly relate to the college athlete and college students. These variables included intelligence, educational status, social status, athletic status, and types of career status. The research expanded the construct of status to include types of variables, that directly relate to the college student and in particular to the college athlete. The study specifically broke status down into various typologies and measures not only considered significant to the subjects, but to how they perceive that other significant people in their lives see them. The status variables selected were based on relevant social issues and goals important to both college athletes and non-athletes alike.

The research data focused on both present and future status variables. This was critical for two reasons. First, previous research on status characteristics theory had generally examined status measures found in present status variables, but not related to future status, like these. Second, the assessment of present and future status variables is relevant during this time period in college and many students are not only concerned with how they are seen by others, but are also preoccupied and thoughtful about their future with regard to their image and goals. Measures were based on the subjects' perceptions of how they believed their peers and their professors at school saw them, and how they thought their girlfriends perceived them. The status measures relating to present status examined included: Intellectual status, Educational status, Social status, and Athletic status. The future status variables included: Educational status, Athletic status, Non-athletic Career status, and Overall Career Success status.

The study principally observed how status measures were perceived by the subjects. As suggested in prior research, status has been considered a factor with rape myth

acceptance. Status characteristics theory, originating from the sociological perspective is now applied more towards criminological theory by examining if status is possibly a factor with rape myths and rape supportive attitudes. It was the PI's belief that athletes would consider themselves as having higher status and that this status perception would be evident for all present and future variables. The athletes not only would see themselves with higher status but this perception would also manifest itself in the results regarding how they thought others saw them as well. The research observed how their self-perceptions influenced their beliefs and behaviors. It examined whether or not these community college athletes perceived themselves with higher status, and whether this factor led them to a higher acceptance of rape myths. Additionally, it observed whether this perception would vary in regard to the various types of status.

Status and its value is perceived differently by people. Additionally, a person may believe that he is seen by others in a particular way. This is an important factor to consider when examining status. One must view it not only as a description, but a characteristic of who we are, how we see ourselves, and how our views, attitudes, and behaviors may be judged by others. This is necessary to understand how status is attributed to one's social significance. How an athlete believes another person sees his social standing, how he thinks a girlfriend may see his athleticism, or how he thinks a professor may perceive his popularity or success, and how he thinks his fellow students may perceive his intelligence is directly linked to his self-esteem, his own self-value and his sense of social importance. It may be directly associated with their behaviors and views towards women, rape myths, and sexual behaviors. In addition, it has significance in determining whether there is a connection between their athletic status, educational status, and their acceptance of rape

myths. This study attempts to define status as it is perceived by the subject. It defines measures of status and makes them applicable to how athletes see themselves and how those perceptions affect their views and behaviors. Additionally, the researcher examines the subjects' perceptions of himself in both the present time and the future. Athletes and non-athletes rate themselves on how they think significant people on campus see them – other students, professors, and girlfriends.

*Status and Rape Myth Acceptance by Athletes*

As stated previously, studies have included status as a factor in rape myth acceptance (Benedict, 1999; Boeringer, 1996; Burt, 1980; Crossett, 1995; Sawyer, Thompson, & Chicorelli, 2002). However, the concept of status was not clearly defined, nor was an empirical correlation between status and rape myths investigated. This study attempted to establish a correlation between rape myths and status based upon these newly defined status variables for college students and college athletes.

*Status Conflict and Perceptions By Athletes*

The study also examined if these college male athletes experienced status conflict because they were given higher status within the college community on the basis of their athletic association, yet generally underachieved in their academic performance. Studies have indicated that even though organizations like the NCAA set academic standards and eligibility requirements for incoming and present athletes, many colleges ignore their own rules in order to secure the best players (Suggs, 1999). Athletes are more likely to have lower SAT scores, lower grade point averages (GPAs), and more non-completion of college courses with partial credits and failures (Shulman & Bowen, 2001; Robinson, 1999). In fact an earlier study indicated that athletes are less likely to graduate than non-

athletes (Purdy, Eitzen & Hufnagel, 1982). More recently, it was estimated that four out of ten basketball players graduate in six years or less (Suggs, 1999). With underachievement in academics, athletes must compensate for their lower academic status. Perhaps their acceptance of interpersonal violence, rape supportive beliefs, and increased rates of sexual violence is an attempt to assert their power and control. It becomes a way to express their status to themselves and to others, a way to reinforce their athletic status and to compensate for their lower educational status. However, this study assessed the students' grade point averages, any differences between the groups, and whether the difference is significant.

#### *A Focus on Community College Level Students*

This study is also important because the subjects of the study are from the community college population. Most published research has primarily been focused at four-year campuses (Koss et al, 1987; Warshaw, 1988). Even large scale studies that have focused on perpetrators and victims on college campuses have either only looked at four-year schools or have lumped both four-year and two-year institutions together (Fisher et al, 2002; Warshaw, 1988; Koss et al, 1987). To date, there exists very little information about sexual attitudes, beliefs, and aggression at the two-year community college level. This study expands that knowledge base and will contribute to a greater understanding of this normally neglected population. If these findings are significant, it can open up a new avenue of research for different divisions of students and athletes, for example, examining high school populations and four-year college and university students.

### Overview of the Study

The present study will assess athletes and non-athletes attending a community college in the northeastern United States and their self-perceptions on various measurements of status including education, athleticism, and personal statuses. It will also include their perceptions of their present status and their future status in a professional or athletic endeavor. Further, the study explores how athletes and non-athletes believe other people perceive their status. Those other people include: other students; professors; and girlfriends.

### Significance of the Study

Whereas other studies have looked at the issues of rape myth acceptance, sexual coercion and assault from various perspectives, including the feminist model and the sex-role socialization model, this research examines athletes' behaviors and self-perceptions by looking at social status characteristics. The study hypothesizes that athletes who perceive themselves as having higher status have a greater acceptance of rape myths than non-athletes. These athletes may experience, as well, a status conflict because they are arbitrarily given higher status within the college community because of their athletic association, while they generally underachieve in their academic performance. The present research will explore the relationship between athletic membership, attitudes toward rape myths and sexual aggression, and other various indices of status within the college environment. This study is significant for different reasons. If athletes have an inflated view of themselves that infuses their sense of entitlement in certain areas of school and interpersonal relationships and which is further reinforced by those within the college network, including women, classmates, and professors, then attention must be focused on re-educating athletes about their role, value, and status within the college environment.

It is important to understand the impact of the college culture and its organizations on defining, reinforcing, and/or changing student attitudes and values. The significant role

that athletes play in developing and shaping the attitudes of their peers has been a critical point of debate. It has been hypothesized in several studies that male athletes are more likely than other college men to engage in sexual assault and other forms of violence against women (Benedict, 1997; Koss & Gaines, 1993; O'Sullivan, 1995). The literature indicates that athletes are more likely to be accepting of rape myths that in turn foster a climate which encourages violence against women (Messner, 1995). The research has referred to status on campuses, but measures have not been developed to examine and assess this issue. Today's academic research, as well as our media, have linked athletes to variables like status, entitlement, and violence. This has been done on a qualitative level, but this is no longer enough. Although the present study is preliminary and new, it attempts to apply definitions and values to status measures and any possible relationship to rape myths. The study attempts to investigate possible factors, which may be conducive to this behavior of rape myth acceptance. More importantly, with all the recent attention placed on rape awareness on college campuses, this study may help institutions of higher education in their efforts to curb and/or prevent violent behavior and help them create affective educational programs for athletes and non-athletes on their campuses.

### Hypotheses

- I. A. Male athletes will perceive themselves as having higher present status than non-athletes for the following status variables: intellectual status, educational status, social status, and athletic status.
- B. Male athletes will perceive themselves as having higher future status than non-athletes for the following status variables: educational status, athletic status, non-athletic career status, and the status associated with overall career success.

- II. A. Male athletes will perceive other people in their lives as seeing them as having higher present status than non-athletes. Other people include: other students, professors, and girlfriends. The present status variables include: intellectual status, educational status, social status, and athletic status.  
B. Male athletes will perceive other important people in their lives as seeing them as having higher future status than non-athletes. Other people include: other students, professors, and girlfriends. The future status variables are as follows: educational status, athletic status, non-athletic career status, and the status associated with overall career success.
- III. Male athletes will perceive themselves as recipients of better treatment on their college campus than non-athletes.
- IV. A. Male athletes will have greater rates of self-sex role satisfaction, a greater acceptance of rape myths, and a belief that women lie more about rape than the non-athletic group.  
B. Higher present status variables will be associated with greater own self-sex role satisfaction, a greater acceptance of rape myths, and a belief that women lie more about rape for male athletes than non-athletes.  
C. Higher future status variables will be associated with greater self-sex role satisfaction, a greater acceptance of rape myths, and a belief that women lie more about rape for male athletes than non-athletes.

## METHOD

### Subjects

#### *Recruitment of Community College Subjects*

Westchester Community College (WCC) is a two-year institution, which offers degree programs that grant Associate degrees in Arts, Science, and Applied Science. The school is located in Valhalla, Westchester County, New York. WCC is a unit of the State University of New York (SUNY), a corporation within the State Education Department. The student population consists of approximately 10,000 students including full and part-time, day, evening, and weekend. It also has off-site locations. Over 60% of WCC graduates transfer to four-year institutions immediately after graduating. A substantial number of students who have not completed their degrees transfer prior to graduation.

There are approximately 110 male athletes who participate on the intercollegiate teams that are fielded in soccer, basketball, baseball, volleyball, golf, tennis, and bowling. WCC is a member of the National Junior College Athletic Association (NJCAA), Region XV of the NJCAA, The Mid-Hudson Conference, The Central Atlantic Conference, and the New York State Junior College Athletic Association (WCC Catalogue, 2003). Several in the student athletic population hope to be recruited to four-year schools or qualify for funding/scholarships to continue their education and sports activities. As well, there are a few small athletic scholarships available for athletes to play and attend school.

This study took specific steps to recruit male students who participated in college athletics and those who did not. The study was advertised on campus in the student activities center, gymnasium, training rooms, classroom buildings, and in the school newspaper. Subjects were initially screened about athletic membership and participation,

age and prior association with the principal investigator (PI). The Non-athletic subjects were screened for comparable age because athletic participants were between 18-24 years. If students were participating on at least one college team for one designated semester/season, they were assigned the role of “Athlete”. Subjects, with no athletic membership or participation were ascribed the role of “Non-athlete”. The length of the survey was thirty-pages and it was the decision of the PI to compensate students for their time. Students were given specific scheduled time slots to answer the questionnaire. Subjects were required to sign informed consent forms. The PI had previously taught a class at the institution and it was deemed necessary that subjects were required to sign a consent form with an additional section stating that they had no prior association with the PI (See Appendix A for permission and consent forms). The PI took specific steps to ensure that participation was voluntary, anonymous, and that risk and potential harm to subjects was minimal, if any. Additional steps were taken to protect against student identification. The PI was available if students needed any questions answered or debriefing during and after the administration of the survey.

### Procedure

The questionnaire was designed to be self-administered. Arrangements were made for the participating subjects to fill out the questionnaire in a private classroom. Times were scheduled over the course of a week to accommodate the participants. A focus group had been conducted earlier to see if any specific concerns existed with regard to the amount of time to complete the questionnaire; literacy and reading comprehension of respondents were taken into consideration, as well as the overall comfort level of the survey

administration. Questionnaires were then handed to the candidates who met the initial criteria and volunteered. The surveys that were distributed were the same for both athletes and non-athletes. They were coded to differentiate between the groups; those pre-coded with a “1” were the primary identification for the athletic sample and those pre-coded with a “2” were distributed to the non-athletes.

The survey instrument was comprised of different sections – each of which examined different concepts and variables regarding: the student’s perceptions of himself, how he thought others see him, status measures, scales measuring rape myth acceptance, and incidences of sexual aggression (See Appendix B for survey).

## Measures

### *Personal and Demographic Information*

The first section of the questionnaire covered demographic information. It had questions about college activities, and specific items regarding athletic membership for subjects to complete (See Appendix B). Pertinent questions included gathering information on age, race, college level, athletic participation, and dating situations. Additional questions for each student covered areas, such as, demographic queries about the student, his future plans, goals, and his numeric grade point average (GPA). Questions were formatted in a variety of ways including, open and closed-ended and contingency questions.

### *Demographic Characteristics of Subjects*

One hundred and twenty-eight male students completed the survey. Sixty-three participants (49.2%) were designated as having athletic membership and 65 (50.8%) were designated as non-athletes. Subjects' ages ranged between 18-24 years with a mean age of 20.02 years ( $SD=1.37$  years). The athletes' mean age was 20.27 ( $SD=1.32$ ) and the non-athletes' mean age was 19.77 ( $SD=1.41$ ). A t-test for differences in age between the athletic and non-athletic groups was not statistically significant,  $t(126) = .069$ . Table 1 shows relevant demographic, school-related, and dating characteristics of athletes and non-athletes. As can be seen, most of the respondents were African-American. Other areas examined also included interpersonal relationships in which subjects were not only asked about their dating status, but the lengths of their relationships.

### *School-Related Characteristics and Variables*

Grade point averages were measured based on a range of A (4.0) to F (0.0). Actual averages were entered for computations. Mean grade point averages for each group were: athletes 2.53 ( $SD= .57$ ) and non-athletes 2.64 ( $SD= .77$ ). A t-test for differences between the groups was not found to be significant with  $t(125) = .096$ . Almost all the respondents expressed the desire to attend a four-year college and further their education.

One question item included in Part III of the survey (See Appendix B), measured respondents' assessment regarding their treatment on campus. The item asked whether or not the subject perceived whether they had received any special treatment at school. The answer was scored on a 5-point Likert scale, with the higher score (7) indicating the subject perceived he received better treatment from the college, and a lower score (1) indicating that no special treatment was perceived as given by the school. This will be examined further in the Results section.

Table 1  
Frequencies and Percentages for Participants' Demographic Characteristics

Variable	Role			
	Athletes		Non-Athletes	
<u>Role</u>	63	(49.2)	65	(50.8)
<u>Race/Ethnicity</u>				
African-American (non-Latino)	31	(24.2)	28	(21.9)
Caucasian (non-Latino)	15	(11.7)	22	(17.2)
Latino	14	(10.9)	9	(7.0)
Other	3	(2.3)	6	(4.7)
<u>School Status</u>				
<u>School Level</u>				
First Year	27	(21.1)	33	(25.8)
Second Year	36	(28.1)	32	(25.0)
<u>Wish to Continue to a Four-year School</u>				
Yes	61	(47.7)	63	(49.2)
No	2	(1.6)	2	(1.6)
<u>Dating Status</u>				
<u>Current Dating Status</u>				
Yes	55	(42.0)	45	(32.0)
No	9	(7.0)	23	(18.0)
<u>How Long With Current Partner</u>				
Under 3 months	23	(23.0)	17	(17.0)
3 months – 6 months	10	(10.0)	9	(9.0)
6 months – 1 year	12	(12.0)	7	(7.0)
1 – 2 years	3	(3.0)	8	(8.0)
Over 2 years	7	(7.0)	4	(4.0)

Note. Percentages are given in parentheses. Sixty-three athletes and 65 non-athletes responded to each variable, except for the question about current length of dating partners where 55 athletes and 45 non-athletes responded.

### *Athletic Sample*

Of the 63 respondents who classified themselves as “athletes”. Thirteen (10.2%) responded that they had held a position of authority, including positions of captain, co-captain, etc. Of those who fit the category of athlete, the breakdown of sports categories

are shown in Table 2.

Table 2  
Frequencies of Sport Team Membership for Athletic Sample

Team	Athletes ( $n = 63$ )	
	Frequency	Percentage
Basketball	28	44.4
Baseball	14	22.2
Soccer	14	22.2
Bowling	4	6.3
Tennis	3	4.8

Table 2 shows that among the athletes only, the highest percentage played basketball. By contrast, few athletes participated on the tennis or bowling teams.

### Status Measures

A twenty-item scale was specifically created for this study to ascertain how their status was perceived by the subjects. These twenty questions examined the current and future status of the respondent based on specific areas of status. Respondents were asked how they perceived themselves, as well as, how they believed other people in their life perceived them. "Other people" included: other students, their professors, and their girlfriends. Since this was a newly developed scale, reliability analyses were run on all status measures, except single items. Coefficient alphas for all of the status variables were found satisfactory and are given in Table 3.

### *Self-perceptions by Athletes and Non-athletes*

Respondents were asked to rate themselves on items specific to present and future status variables. All questions were designed in a Likert-scale format with measures

ranging from 1-7. The higher the score (7) meant that the subject felt he had more status, higher status in his life. Low scores (1) indicated subjects perceived they had low status.

Present Intellectual Status was a single question item where subjects were asked to rate themselves on being *Not at all intelligent – Very Intelligent*.

Present Educational Status consisted of four status items designed for respondents to rate their perceptions of themselves regarding their academic grades, school performance and success. Item examples include: *Do not get good grades – Do get good grades* and *Am not a competent student – Am a competent student*.

Present Social Status was comprised of five items, which assessed self-perceptions of social status on campus. Examples include: *Not at all popular with girls – Very popular with girls* and *Not at all respected by peers – Very respected by peers*.

Present Athletic Status was made up of four question items, which measured the subject's perception of his athletic status. An item example included: *Not considered a valuable player – Considered to be a valuable player*.

Future Educational Status was a single item question that asked respondents about their future educational goals past their Associates' degree. The item had subjects indicate whether or not they would continue on with their education.

Future Athletic Status was comprised of two-items in which subjects examined what their perceptions were about how they saw their athletic status in the future. For example, *Will not be successful as an athlete after college – Will be successful as an athlete after college*.

Future Non-Athletic Status was made up of another two questions that focused on the subjects' self-perceptions in the future with regard to careers. One example consisted

of, *Will not make a lot of money in a non-athletic career after college – Will make a lot of money in a non-athletic career after college.*

Future Overall Career Success: A one-item measure, which asked respondents to indicate their perception on whether they will be successful in a future career.

*Self-Perceptions by Athletes and Non-Athletes on How Other People See Them*

In addition to rating their own perceptions of their own status, respondents were asked to rate how they thought other people in their lives saw them. Those other people were involved in the subject's day-to-day life in the college environment. They included: other students, professors, and girlfriends. The same 20-item scale was used to measure their responses for both present and future status variables. Reliability analyses were also run for these scale items for each group and the coefficient alphas are included in Table 3.

Table 3  
Reliability Analyses for Status Measures

Category	Status Measure	N	Coefficient
			Alpha
Self	Present Educational Status	4	.85
	Present Social Status	5	.86
	Present Athletic Status	4	.91
	Future Athletic Status	2	.82
	Future Non-Athletic Status	2	.74
Other Students	Present Educational Status	4	.83
	Present Social Status	5	.86
	Present Athletic Status	4	.91
	Future Athletic Status	2	.83
	Future Non-Athletic Status	2	.78
Professors	Present Educational Status	4	.84
	Present Social Status	5	.84
	Present Athletic Status	4	.91
	Future Athletic Status	2	.90
	Future Non-Athletic Status	2	.86
Girlfriends	Present Educational Status	4	.91
	Present Social Status	5	.88
	Present Athletic Status	4	.92
	Future Athletic Status	2	.90
	Future Non-Athletic Status	2	.78

Note. Intellectual status and Future Overall Career Success status variables were only 1-item scales, so coefficient alphas could not be computed for this scale.

### The Rape Myth Acceptance Scale: An Overview

The Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (Burt, 1980) was included to measure prejudicial, stereotypical or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and offenders. Since its development, it has been used in many studies on cultural attitudes, victimization, criminal justice, and sexual behavior (Schwartz & Norgardy, 1996; Ward, Chapman, Cohn, White & Williams, 1991; Warshaw, 1988). Items relating to this scale are on a Likert-scale from 1-7 points. Some general items include for example, “Being roughed up is sexually

stimulating to many women” and “A healthy woman can successfully resist a rapist if she really wanted to”. This study was particularly concerned with Burt’s rape myth acceptance sub-scales, which included rating the subject’s own sex role satisfaction, the general rape myth acceptance scale, and the items regarding whether women lie about rape (Burt, 1980). The rape myth acceptance scale has been found to discriminate between convicted rapists and non-rapists; however, it is also used to evaluate the validity of rape myths. This particular scale and its subscales have been proven popular and may be the most widely used instrument for the assessment of rape-related attitudes (Desai & Saltzman, 2001). Descriptions of the sub-scales used by the PI are described as follows.

*Satisfaction with Own Sex Role Subscale*

This subscale combines ten items measuring a subject’s satisfaction with his sex role performance. Items were measured on a Likert-scale range from 1-7, with endpoints of Very Satisfied (1) and Not Satisfied at All (7). Thus, a low score was indicative of greater sex role satisfaction on the part of the respondent and a high score indicated dissatisfaction with their sex role. A reliability analysis on the items was conducted and a reliable and valid Cronbach alpha of .82 (N=128) was found, which is satisfactory. Examples of items included: “How satisfied are you with your attractiveness to the opposite sex?” and “How satisfied are you with your sympathy and understanding for others”?

*The General Rape Myth Acceptance Sub-Scale*

This subscale consists of ten items specifically used to identify whether a subject agreed with rape myths. Items relating to this measure are on a Likert-scale from 1-7 points ranging from Strongly Agree (1) to Strongly Disagree (7). A low score indicated the

respondent accepted rape myths and a high score indicated he disagreed and rejected them. Items included: “A healthy woman can successfully resist a rape if she wants to”; and “Sometimes the only way a man can get a cold woman turned on is to use force”. This scale was found to be valid and reliable with a Cronbach alpha of .85 (N=128), which is satisfactory.

#### *Women Who Lie About Rape*

This subscale consisted of questions regarding women and their capacity to lie about rape. These two-items were measured from 1-5, with endpoints of Almost All (1) and Almost None (5). A lower score indicated that men perceive that women lie about rape and a higher score indicated that they do not. An example of an item is, “What percentage of women who report a rape would you say are lying because they are angry and want to get back at the man they accuse?” (See Appendix C for means and standard deviations of rape myth subscales.)

## RESULTS

### Differences Between Athletes and Non-Athletes on Self-Perceived Status

#### *Present Status Variables*

Hypothesis IA stated that male athletes would perceive themselves as having higher present status than non-athletes for the following status variables: intelligence, education, social status, and athletic status.

To test this hypothesis, a 2 x 4 analysis of variance (ANOVA) with factors for Role (Athlete, Non-athlete) and Present Status (Intellectual status, Educational status, Social status, Athletic Status), and a repeated measure on the last factor was performed. Results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4

#### *Analysis of Variance for Self-Perceptions of Present Status Variables*

Source	MS	df	F
Between Subjects			
Role (A)	1.722	1	<1.000
Error	4.296	126	
Within Subjects			
Present Status (B)	17.774	3	16.061***
A x B	5.611	3	5.070**
Error	1.107	378	

\*\*p < .01. \*\*\*p < .001.

The main effect for present status was significant (see Table 4). This main effect needed to be examined in light of the significant interaction between Role and Present Status. Protected t-tests were done to test for differences in the means between athletes and non-athletes on each of the Present Status variables. Only the comparison for athletic status was significant with athletes perceiving themselves as having higher athletic status than the non-athletes (See Table 5).

Table 5

*Means for Significant Effects from Analysis of Variance of Self-Perceptions of Present Status*

Role	Intellectual Status	Educational Status	Social Status	Athletic Status
Athlete	5.365	4.813	5.406	5.369
Non-Athlete	5.800	4.615	5.286	4.788
<u>Mean</u>	<u>5.583</u>	<u>4.714</u>	<u>5.346</u>	<u>5.079</u>

*Note.* The comparison for Athletic status was significant ( $p < .05$ ).

Thus, male athletes perceived themselves as having higher present athletic status than non-athletes. However, contrary to the hypothesis, no significant differences between the groups were found with regard to intellectual, educational, or present social status variables.

*Future Status Variables*

Hypothesis IB stated that male athletes would perceive themselves as having higher future status than non-athletes for the following status variables: educational, athletic status, non-athletic/career status, and overall career success status.

To test this hypothesis, a 2 x 4 ANOVA with repeated measures on the last factor was performed for Role (Athlete, Non-athlete) and Future Status (Educational Status, Athletic Status, Non-athletic Career Status, Overall Career Success) for athletes and non-athletes.

The main effect for Future status was significant (see Table 6). This main effect needed to be examined in light of the significant interaction between Role and Future Status. Protected t-tests were done comparing the means for athletes and non-athletes on each of the future status variables.

The comparison for athletic status was significant showing that athletes perceived themselves as having higher future athletic status than non-athletes (see Table 7). The comparison for non-athletic/career status was also significant, indicating that non-athletes perceived themselves as having more non-athletic/career status than athletes.

Table 6

*Analysis of Variance for Self-Perceptions of Future Status Variables*

Source	MS	df	F
Between Subjects			
Role (A)	.158	1	<1.000
Error	4.688	126	
Within Subjects			
Future Status (B)	84.205	3	47.590**
A x B	19.940	3	11.268*
Error	1.769	378	

\*p < .05. \*\*p < .01.

Table 7

*Means for Significant Effects from Analysis of Variance of Self-Perceptions of Future Status*

Role	Educational Status	Athletic Status	Non-Athletic Career Status	Overall Career Success
Athlete	5.524	4.611	5.278	5.524
Non-Athlete	5.862	3.469	5.823	5.923
<b>Mean</b>	<b>5.693</b>	<b>4.040</b>	<b>5.550</b>	<b>5.723</b>

*Note.* The comparisons for Athletic status and Non-athletic career status were significant at p < .05.

Thus, as hypothesized, athletes perceived themselves as having higher athletic status in the future than did the non-athletic group. However, contrary to the hypothesis,

non-athletes rated themselves as having higher future non-athletic career status than did athletes. There were no differences between athletes and non-athletes on educational and overall career success status self-perceptions.

### Differences Between Athletes and Non-Athletes on Perceived Status and Other People's Views

#### *Perception of Other People's Views and Present Status Variables*

Hypothesis IIA stated that male athletes would perceive other important people in their lives as seeing them as having higher present status than non-athletes. Other people included: other students, professors, and girlfriends. The present status variables were as follows: intellectual status, educational status, social status, and athletic status.

A 2 x 3 x 4 ANOVA was performed with repeated measures on the last two factors.

Factors were: Role (Athlete, Non-Athlete), Other Person (Other Students, Professors, Girlfriends), and Present Status (Intellectual Status, Educational Status, Social Status, Athletic Status). Protected t-tests were conducted with significance level at  $< .05$ .

The main effect for Other Person was significant (see Table 8). When examining Other People's means, girlfriends (5.328) perceived both athletes and non-athletes as having higher overall present status than other students (4.977) and professors (5.092). Girlfriends perceived male athletes and non-athletes as having higher overall status than did Other Students and Professors.

In addition, there was a significant main effect for Present status. This main effect needed to be examined in the light of the significant interaction between Role and Present status.

Table 8

*Analysis of Variance For Perceptions of How Other People See Present Status Variables*

Source	MS	df	F
Between Subjects			
Role (A)	29.314	1	2.980
Error	9.827	126	
Within Subjects			
Other person (B)	16.411	2	6.407**
A x B	7.646	2	1.493
Present Status (C)	25.281	3	13.840***
A x C	21.318	3	11.678***
Error	1.825	378	
B x C	1.240	6	1.762
A x B x C	.599	6	<1.000
Error	.704	756	

---

\*\*p <.01. \*\*\*p <.001.

Protected t-tests were done to compare athletes and non-athletes on each of the present status variables (See Table 9). Athletes perceived that other people saw them as having higher athletic status than non-athletes, as hypothesized. However, contrary to the prediction, the non-athletic group perceived other people as viewing them as having higher educational status than did athletes.

Table 9

*Means for Interaction of Present Status X Role from Analysis of Variance of Perceptions of Other's Views of Present Status*

Role	Intelligence	Educational Status	Social Status	Athletic Status
Athlete	5.307	5.060	5.416	5.299
Non-Athlete	5.440	5.982	5.204	4.349
<b>Mean</b>	<b>5.374</b>	<b>5.021</b>	<b>5.310</b>	<b>4.824</b>

*Note.* The comparisons for Educational Status and Athletic Status were significant at  $p < .05$ .

As predicted, Athletic Status was shown to be significant. Overall, athletes saw Other People as seeing them as having higher athletic status. Non-athletes rated Other People as seeing them as having higher educational status.

To summarize these results: The hypothesis was supported for athletic status: athletes saw other people as viewing them as having higher present athletic status. But contrary to the prediction, non-athletes saw other people as perceiving them as having higher educational status than the athletes. Both groups indicated that Girlfriends perceived male athletes and non-athletes as having higher overall status than did Other Students and Professors.

*Perception of Other People's Views and Future Status Variables*

Hypothesis IIB stated that male athletes would perceive other important people in their lives as seeing them as having higher future status than non-athletes. Other people include: other students, professors, and girlfriends. The future status variables were as

follows: educational status, athletic status, non-athletic/career status, and future overall career success status.

A 2 x 3 x 4 ANOVA was performed with repeated measures on the last two factors. Factors were Role (Athlete, Non-athlete), Other Persons (Other Students, Professors, Girlfriends), and Future status variables (Education, Athletic, Non-athletic/Career, Overall Success). As Table 10 indicates, the main effect for future status was significant. This main effect must be examined in light of the significant interaction between Future Status variables and Role. Protected t-tests were performed between Athletes and Non-Athletes (See Table 11). As hypothesized, Athletes believed other people saw them as having higher future athletic status. However, contrary to the prediction, Non-athletes indicated that they saw other people as seeing them as having higher future educational and higher future overall career success status.

Table 10

*Analysis of Variance For Perceptions of How Other People See Future Status Variables*

Source	MS	df	F
Between Subjects			
Role (A)	.581	1	<1.000
Error	13.382	126	
Within Subjects			
Other person (B)	6.885	2	<1.000
A x B	4.376	2	.827
Future Status (C)	170.963	3	55.194***
A x B	67.230	3	21.715***
Error	3.097	378	
B x C	1.197	6	1.444
A x B x C	1.845	6	2.222
Error	.829	756	

---

\*\*\*p <.001.

Table 11

*Means for Interaction of Future Status X Role from Analysis of Variance of Perceptions of Other's Views of Future Status*

Role	Educational	Athletic	Non-athletic Career	Overall Career Success
Athlete	5.275	4.728	5.153	5.233
Non-Athlete	5.631	3.436	5.479	5.687
<b>Mean</b>	<b>5.453</b>	<b>4.082</b>	<b>5.316</b>	<b>5.460</b>

*Note.* The comparisons for Educational Status, Athletic Status, and Overall Career Success Status were significant at  $p < .05$ .

In summary, the results indicated that Athletes perceived other significant people in their lives as seeing them having higher future athletic status, as predicted. However, the non-athletic group saw others as viewing them as having higher future educational status and future overall career success as compared to the athletes. The latter results were contrary to the prediction.

Athletes and Perception of Special Treatment on Campus

Hypothesis III stated that male athletes will perceive themselves as having better treatment on their college campus than the non-athletes.

The results came from a single item scale asking respondents to rate whether they felt they received better treatment on campus. The item was measured on a Likert-scale with scoring which ranged from (1) to (7) with a high score (7) indicating that they felt they received better treatment on their campus and a low score (1) indicating they had not received special treatment. A t-test for the difference between means of independent samples was done comparing athletes and non-athletes. This showed that the difference

was statistically significant with  $t(126) = 4.76, p < .001$ , supporting the hypothesis. The athletes had a mean score = 4.63 and the non-athletes had a mean score = 3.17.

### Beliefs About Rape: Athletic and Non-Athletic Role And Status Variables

#### *Athletes & Non-Athletes: Present Status Variables and Rape Myths*

Hypothesis IVA stated that male athletes will have a greater rate of self-sex role satisfaction, a greater rate of rape myth acceptance, and a belief that women lie more about rape than the non-athletic group.

Hypothesis IVB stated that higher self-perceived present status variables will be associated with greater sex role satisfaction and a greater acceptance of rape myths for male athletes and non-athletes.

A series of hierarchal multiple regression analyses were conducted for each of the rape myth acceptance subscales: Self-Sex Role Satisfaction, General Rape Myth Acceptance, and Women Lie Scale. The purpose of the analyses was to determine if the participants' rape myth acceptance (the dependent or predicted variable) was related to their Athletic or Non-Athletic role, present status variables, and the interaction of role and status variables. Role was dummy coded with Athletes = 1 and Non-athletes = 0.

Role was entered on the first step. On the second step, the present status variables; intelligence, education status, social status, and athletic status, were entered. The interaction terms between Role and each of the present status variables were entered on the third step.

*Satisfaction with Own Sex Role*

In this multiple regression analysis for the Satisfaction with Own Sex Role subscale, Table 12 shows the results.

Table 12

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Satisfaction With Own Sex Role*

Variable	R	R Squared Change	F Change	Beta
Step 1 Role (A)	.026	.001	<1.00	-.055
Step 2 Present Status Variables	.326	.106	3.605*	
Intelligence (B)				-.049
Education (C)				-.073
Social Status (D)				-.231*
Athletic Status (E)				.034
Step 3 Interaction	.340	.009	<1.00	
A x B				.119
A x C				-.038
A x D				-.109
A x E				.115

*Note.* In the scoring of this scale 1 = high sex role satisfaction, and 7 = low sex role satisfaction. Thus, the lower the score, the more one is more satisfied. In Step 1  $df= 1/126$ , in Step 2  $df= 4/122$ , in Step 3  $df= 4/118$ . \* $p < .01$ .

Contrary to Hypothesis IVA, athletes did not have greater self-sex role satisfaction than non-athletes. The results in Step 1 indicated that there were no differences between athletes and non-athletes with regard to their self-sex role satisfaction. In Step 2, the significant F Change showed that the present status variables accounted for a significant portion of the variance. An examination of the beta weights showed that present social status was significant. As predicted, the greater the social status, the greater a student was

satisfied with his sex role. Since none of the interactions were significant, including Intelligence, Educational and Athletic Status, this shows that greater social status was associated with greater self-sex role satisfaction for both athletes and non-athletes. Also, contrary to prediction, none of the other present status variables were associated with sex role satisfaction.

#### *General Rape Myth Acceptance*

In this multiple regression analysis for General Rape Myth Acceptance, the results are presented in Table 13.

Table 13

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Rape Myth Acceptance*

Variable	R	R Squared Change	F Change	Beta
Step 1 Role (A)	.016	.000	.034	.040
Step 2 Present Status Variables	.299	.089	2.982*	
Intellectual (B)				.046
Educational (C)				.192 <sup>a</sup>
Social (D)				-.007
Athletic (E)				.122
Step 3 Interaction	.317	.032	.361	
A x B				.110
A x C				-.036
A x D				.208
A x E				-.139

*Note.* In the scoring of this scale 1= acceptance of rape myths and 7= rejection of rape myths. Thus the lower the score, the more one accepts rape myths. In Step 1  $df= 1/126$ , in Step 2  $df= 4/122$ , in Step 3  $df= 4/118$ .  
<sup>a</sup>  $p < .10$ . \* $p < .05$ .

In this multiple regression analysis of Rape Myth Acceptance, Step 1 results showed that there were no differences found between the athletic and non-athletic groups, contrary to Hypothesis IVA. Additionally, athletes did not have a greater acceptance of rape myths, as was hypothesized.

The present status variables accounted for a significant portion of the variance when they were entered on the second step (See Table 13). An examination of beta weights showed that Present Educational Status tended towards significance, indicating that the higher one's educational status, the fewer rape myth beliefs tend to be held. None of the interactions were significant, and contrary to prediction, none of the other present status variables, including Intellectual, Social, and Athletic Status, were associated with

general rape myth acceptance. Thus, there was found only partial support of Hypothesis IVB.

*Women Lying About Rape*

In this multiple regression analysis for examining whether women lie about rape, Table 14 shows the results.

Table 14

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Whether Women Lie About Rape*

Variable	R	R Squared Change	F Change	Beta
Step 1 Role (A)	.184	.034	4.426	-.393*
Step 2 Present Status Variables	.303	.058	1.940 <sup>a</sup>	
Intelligence (B)				.003
Education (C)				.216*
Social Status (D)				-.007
Athletic Status (E)				-.001
Step 3 Interaction	.336	.021	.697	
A x B				.105
A x C				-.080
A x D				-.152
A x E				-.192

*Note.* These items were coded so that 1=belief that women do lie about rape and 5= belief that women do not lie. In Step 1  $df= 1/126$ , in Step 2  $df= 4/122$ , in Step 3  $df= 4/118$ .

<sup>a</sup>  $p < .10$ . \* $p < .05$ .

The R Squared change was significant when Role was entered on the first step of the equation. For the first step, role was significant indicating that athletes believe that women lie more about rape. Non-athletes responded that women lie less about rape than the athletic group. This gave support to Hypothesis IVA

On the second step, the  $R^2$  change for present status variables was not significant (See Table 14). An examination of the beta weights showed that present educational status was significant. This indicated that the higher the education status, the less likely students would think that women lie about rape. However, these results need to be taken with caution since the overall R Squared Change was not significant.

#### Athletes and Non-Athletes: Future Status Variables and Rape Myths

Hypothesis IVC stated that higher future status variables will be associated with greater self-sex role satisfaction and a greater acceptance of rape myths for male athletes and non-athletes.

A series of hierarchal multiple regression analyses were conducted for each of the rape myth acceptance subscales: self-sex role satisfaction, general rape myth acceptance, and women lying about rape. The purpose of the analyses was to determine if the participants' rape myth acceptance (the dependent or predicted variable) was related to their role, future status variables, and the interaction of role and status variables.

In these analyses, Role was dummy coded with Athletes = 1 and Non-athletes = 0. Role was entered on the first step. On the second step, the future status variables: education, athletic status, non-athletic/career, and overall success, were entered. The interaction terms between Role and the present status variables were entered on the third step.

*Satisfaction with Own Sex Role*

In this multiple regression analysis to examine future status variables and subjects' self-sex role satisfaction, the results are found in Table 15 below.

Table 15

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Satisfaction With Own Sex Role*

Variable	R	R Squared Change	F Change	Beta
Step 1 Role (A)	.026	.001	.086	-.055
Step 2 Future Status Variables	.285	.081	2.678*	
Education (B)				-.066
Athletic Status (C)				.063
Non-athletic/Career Status (D)				-.029
Overall Career Success (E)				-.128 <sup>a</sup>
Step 3 Interaction	.306	.012	.401	
A x B				-.127
A x C				.101
A x D				.018
A x E				-.029

*Note.* In the scoring of this particular scale 1 = high sex role satisfaction, and 7 = low sex role satisfaction. Thus, the lower the score, the more one is more satisfied. In Step 1  $df= 1/126$ , in Step 2  $df= 4/122$ , in Step 3  $df= 4/118$ .

<sup>a</sup> $p < .10$ . \* $p < .05$ .

The results from Step 1 indicated that there were no differences found between athletes and non-athletes with regard to their own sex role satisfaction, as before. There were however, significant results found in Step 2. Among the individual beta weights in the equation, there was a tendency for overall future career success status to be associated with their self-sex role satisfaction. Results indicated that if overall future career success

status was high, subjects were found to have greater sex role satisfaction. Contrary to the prediction, none of the other future status variables were associated with Self-Sex Role Satisfaction. On Step 3, none of the interactions were found to be significant.

*General Rape Myth Acceptance*

The results for the multiple regression analysis, which examined future status variables and general rape myth acceptance are described in Table 16.

Table 16

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Rape Myth Acceptance*

Variable	R	R Squared Change	F Change	Beta
Step 1 Role (A)	.016	.000	.034	.040
Step 2 Future Status Variables	.231	.053	1.710	
Education (B)				-.035
Athletic Status (C)				-.032
Non-athletic/Career Status (D)				.182
Overall Career Success (E)				-.009
Step 3 Interaction	.273	.021		.679
A x B				.184
A x C				-.090
A x D				-.127
A x E				.135

*Note.* The scoring of this particular scale was a Likert measurement (range from 1-7) where 1= acceptance of rape myths and 7= rejection of rape myths. The lower the score, the more one accepts rape myths. In Step 1  $df= 1/126$ , in Step 2  $df= 4/122$ , in Step 3  $df= 4/118$ .

On Step 1, no differences were found between the athletic and non-athletic groups. On Step 2, no significant differences were found, and on Step 3, no significant interactions were found. Contrary to the prediction, none of the future status variables were associated with rape myth acceptance and thus, these results did not support the hypothesis.

*Women Lying About Rape*

In this multiple regression analysis for examining whether women lie about rape, Table 17 describes the results.

Table 17

*Summary of Regression Analysis for Role, Future Status Variables, and Women Lying About Rape*

Variable	R	R Squared Change	F Change	Beta
Step 1 Role (A)	.184	.034	4.426 <sup>a</sup>	-.393*
Step 2 Future Status Variables	.358	.094	3.298 <sup>a</sup>	
Education (B)				.038
Athletic Status (C) Non-athletic				.122*
Status (D) Overall Career				.118
Status (E)				.074
Step 3 Interaction	.385	.020	.700	
A x B				.203
A x C				-.109
A x D				-.086
A x E				-.022

Note. These items were coded so that 1=belief that women do lie about rape and 5= belief that women do not lie. In Step 1  $df= 1/126$ , in Step 2  $df= 4/122$ , in Step 3  $df= 4/118$ .

<sup>a</sup> $p < .10$ . \* $p < .05$ .

Among the individual variables in the equation in the second model, future athletic status was significant, with the Beta weight significant ( $p < .05$ ). Step 1 was significant and indicated that athletes believed that women lie more about rape than the non-athletes, which supported the hypothesis. On Step 2, the  $R^2$  Change was significant and indicated that the greater the future athletic status, the more likely the subject believed women lie

about rape. On Step 3, none of the interactions were found to be significant. Thus, the higher the athletic status, the more likely the subjects believe women lie about rape. The other future status variables were not associated with women lying about rape. Results that support the hypothesis indicate that athletes believe that women lie about rape more than the non-athletes.

### Summary of Results from Multiple Regression Analyses

#### *Present Status Variables and Rape Myths*

Although no differences were found between athletes and non-athletes with regard to their Own Sex Role satisfaction, Present Social Status was found to be associated with greater rates of self-sex role satisfaction for both groups. With regard to Rape Myth Acceptance, the Present Education Status variable indicated that the higher one's education status, the fewer rape myth beliefs tend to be held. Results also indicated that athletes believe women lie more about rape than non-athletes. The Present Educational Status variable was found to be significant, indicating that that the higher the educational status, the less likely students were to think that women lie about rape. However, results must be taken with caution, as the overall R<sup>2</sup> Change was not significant.

#### *Future Status Variables and Rape Myths*

Results showed that Future Overall Career Success Status was associated with Satisfaction with Own Sex Role, although there were no differences found between athletes and non-athletes. There were no significant results found with Future Status Variables and General Rape Myth Acceptance. Results further indicated that the greater the future athletic status, the more likely that the subjects believed women lie about rape.

Results in the regression analyses of the present status variables, supported the hypothesis that athletes believe that women lie more about rape than the non-athletic group.

## DISCUSSION

### Athletes and Non-Athletes and Status Variables

Status characteristics have been found to have an impact on one's social worth and on how one perceives their competence. Previous research on status characteristics has focused on one particular characteristic and its effect on specific work groups and/or competence in a task. Berger et al., (1977; 1980) examined multiple external status characteristics and how they would combine into one overall status and how that further related to competence and ability in the work group – the relationship between one's perceived status dimension and their competence to the task. “For example, if a male laborer interacts with a female professional on a task not related to sex or occupational differences, their behavior is nevertheless, predicted to be based on expectations they form by combining gender and occupation status information” (Berger et al., 1980, p. 492).

The primary goal of this research was to expand the theory by taking one external characteristic (athletic membership) and examining its implications on multiple types of perceived status variables including: intelligence, educational status, social status, athletic status, and types of career status. The status variables were selected based on their importance to the college students (aged 18-24 years) to be surveyed. Further the present study measured their perceptions of these both at the present moment in time and for the future. Due to the predominance of research literature and attention directed at athletes and sexual aggression, this project additionally conducted analyses to investigate whether any relationships existed between the status variables and rape myth acceptance. Although the

results gave only partial support for the various hypotheses, they presented some interesting findings that encourage further research on this topic.

The ascribed role of an athlete comes with its own social value, expectations, and legitimization which are all reinforced by others in the college community. Athletic membership on college campuses comes with a certain degree of status and power (Messner, 1995; O'Sullivan, 1994). How others view status variables is important, but how the subject perceives and interprets their own status can significantly impact their attitudes, behaviors, and actions. The status variables selected for this study were found to have an effect on athletes, not only on their self-perceptions, but also on how they think others see them.

#### *Athletes and Non-Athletes and Present Status Variables*

It was hypothesized and indicated that athletes would rate themselves higher than non-athletes on the following present status variables: intelligence, educational status, social status, and athletic status. The reasoning was based on assumptions formulated by previous research, which suggested that athletes understand that they are different from other populations on the college campus. The findings further suggested that they develop a sense of entitlement and power which reinforces their concept of their status. This self-perception, that everyone on campus knows and understands their position, is reinforced and allows athletes to adopt a general attitude regarding their position which permeates all areas of their lives in the college environment (Benedict, 1999; Boering, 1996; Koss & Gaines, 1993). As predicted, athletes perceived themselves as having higher athletic status than the non-athletic group. However, there were no significant differences found between the groups with regard to the other variables – intellectual status, educational status, and

social status. Though it does not support the hypothesis, the result is noteworthy. There have been some studies with small sample populations of athletes and non-athletes that similarly did not find any significance with regard to grade point averages, intelligence, and educational levels (Elder, 2004; Beal, 1999; Purdy & Hufnagel, 1982).

In regard to the fact that no differences were found between the groups on the present social status variable, one possibility that might explain the results may be reflective of the actual type of college from which the sample population was chosen. With respect to previous research on college athletes, most studies have focused on four-year institutions (Boeringer, 1996; Crossett, 1995; Koss & Gaines, 1993; Warshaw, 1988).

The dynamics and differences between two-year and four-year colleges are significant. At the community college level, student groups have limited interaction with one another. Even if athletic support exists on the campus, the students do not experience the same type of exposure to one another, as is necessitated by living at a four-year college. In a four-year institution, many students live on their campuses or in off-campus housing and which the proximity allows them many more opportunities to experience social interactions with each other outside the limitations and structure of the classroom. Typically in a community college with a significantly high commuter population, student interactions may be limited to the classroom and minimal off-campus social events. Non-academic student interactions are not as pervasive and frequent as in other institutions with numerous dormitories, fraternal and athletic houses. This could affect the results of the present study because of the limited social interactions. The non-athletes may not be as aware of the social impact of athletes within their current institution, whereas the impact on

social status at a four-year school where sport activities and sponsorship are more intense and frequent may be much more significant.

*Athletes and Non-Athletes and Future Status Variables*

Consistent with the findings on present status variables, athletes rated themselves as having higher future athletic status than non-athletes. This means that these respondents perceived themselves as becoming successful as an athlete after college and having a career in sports. In light of the fact that the student athletes surveyed attended a community college and given the highly competitive world of professional athletics, it is interesting that these students would believe that they would be successful in future professional sports. It is of significant concern that these athletes may be encouraged by college administration and staff to strive for these particular sport-directed goals, but not encouraged to develop academically. This warrants deeper investigation.

Further, findings indicated that athletes rated themselves lower on non-athletic career status than did non-athletes. This, also, is disconcerting since college is meant to prepare students for their futures. It is estimated that 44% of undergraduates go to a community college, many of these institutions purposely set up programs for students to have specific vocational and essential educational preparation.

From previous literature, when examining status in relationship to athletes (Koss & Gaines, 1993; Sanday, 1996), this researcher assumed that athletes would perceive themselves with higher status across all variables. It is interesting that athletes saw themselves with higher future status, but not higher on the other status areas including: Future Education Status, Non-athletic Career Status, and Future Overall Career Success Status. There were no differences between the two groups' grade point averages. Perhaps,

the results that athletes rated themselves lower may be linked to other issues including individual perceptions of academic performance and self-esteem. This result also lends itself to further investigation.

### Perceptions of Other People's Views

#### *Athletes versus Non-Athletes and Present Status Variables*

The sample rated how they perceived other people seeing them on campus. The choice of people was based on those who are directly involved with these students on a day-to-day basis. They included: other students, professors, and girlfriends. Athletes rated other people as seeing them with higher athletic status as they did with their own initial ratings of self perceptions, as predicted. Results indicated that they also perceived other people as seeing them as having lower educational status than the non-athletes. Again, this finding is significant considering that no differences were found between the groups' grade point averages. Perhaps this sample believed that other people possibly see them as "dumb jocks". Further queries should be made not only assessing perceptions regarding educational status but asking specifically for the reasons behind them.

With regard to other people's perceptions of status, both groups rated Girlfriends as seeing them with overall higher status than Other Students and Professors. It is understandable that college men would perceive that their girlfriends would hold a more idealized view of them than other people and would want to see them with higher status across all present status variables.

*Athletes versus Non-Athletes and Future Status Variables*

Athletes saw other people as seeing themselves with higher athletic status as predicted. Additional results from future status variables found that the non-athletic group rated themselves with higher future educational status and higher future overall career success than the athletic group, as perceived by others. This contradicts the model but is interesting in what it implies about the athletes in this population sample. It leads one to wonder exactly how student athletes perceive themselves and their future value in society. We must further explore the messages that are being reinforced during their critically formative years and continue to assess if these students are truly being prepared for their futures.

It was further indicated that the athletic group perceived themselves as having better treatment on campus than their non-athletic counterparts. If that were true, then it would be presumed that they would have perceived higher status in all categories, which was not the case. If better treatment is something they are experiencing in their college environment, it appears not to carry over into their future preparation for the real world. Further steps must be taken to investigate this area specifically, how student athletes perceive themselves receiving better treatment. Does this special treatment involve academic/non-academic favors or grade inflation, or other perks? It is also important to determine who is perceived as giving athletes the treatment – the college administration, faculty, coaches, or other classmates. If various sectors of the college campus reinforce athletic status, athletes may expect that everyone in their environment perceives them as having greater value and importance than non-athletes.

Earlier research has suggested that athletes have a sense of entitlement, perceive themselves to be better than other social groups on campus, and perceive others to agree with that image; then this study stands in sharp contrast to earlier studies. It must be reiterated that many of the previous studies (Benedict, 1999; Humphrey, 2000; Messner, 1992; O'Sullivan 1994; Sanday, 1990) did not examine status as a specific variable or measure. Most of the literature was based on interviews and qualitative data. Athletes, rating themselves with lower status on significant variables including future education and future overall career success, indicate that what is being encouraged and reinforced in the college environment is counterproductive in terms of their future academic and non-athletic success. It not only suggests that further examination is needed to look at their role on campus but also at the influences on their self-perceived social worth and value.

#### Athletes and Non-Athletes and the Acceptance of Rape Myths

##### *Satisfaction with Own Sex Role: Athletes versus Non-Athletes*

There were no significant differences found between athletes and non-athletes with regard to own sex role satisfaction. Possible reasons for this may have been due to some items in the scale. Items included measures of how satisfied the respondent was with their ability to express emotions and how satisfied they were with their attractiveness to the opposite sex. According to the results found here, athletes in a community college sample are not more satisfied than non-athletes.

##### *Present Status Variables*

The results indicated that the greater the social status, the greater a student was satisfied with his sex role. This finding was associated with both athletic and non-athletic

groups. When examining the items on the questionnaire, certain ones pertaining to socialization and interpersonal skills were very relevant to the present Social Status variable. The greater the social skills in both groups, the more satisfaction subjects described with their own sex role.

However, none of the other interactions were significant, including Intelligence, Educational Status, and Athletic Status. These findings highlighted the importance of effectiveness in interpersonal skills in sex role satisfaction.

#### *Future Status Variables*

Findings here indicated that overall future career success was associated with their own sex role satisfaction: If the respondents expected to be successful in a future career, they were reported to have greater sex role satisfaction. This result is a logical conclusion. If individuals feel confident about their future goals and plans and they believe themselves to be successful in their career path, then naturally they feel confident about who they are with regard to issues of self-esteem, work performance, and other issues which were associated with the Own Sex Role scale.

#### *General Rape Myth Acceptance: Athletes versus Non-Athletes*

Contrary to the hypothesis, there were no significant differences found between the athletic and non-athletic groups in general rape myth acceptance. This result contrasts with research that has consistently suggested that athletes have a greater acceptance of rape myths than the non-athletic population (Bohmer & Parrot, 1993; Caron, 1998). One reason for this may be due to the sample population and the differences found on the particular campus between the athletic and non-athletic roles. Community College athletes overall may have a less positive view of themselves than those students attending a four-year

college. Most college male athletes who support rape myths tend to have more hyper-masculine qualities, an exaggerated concept of themselves and more experiences of male bonding with similar counterparts (O'Sullivan, 1994; Sanday, 1990). Community college athletes do not share the same living and bonding experiences that provide an environment conducive to support these beliefs like the four-year school athletes share.

#### *Present Status Variables*

From this analysis, the results indicated the higher one's educational status, the fewer rape myths held. This has been supported by previous research (Berkowitz et al., 1994; Burt, 1991; Warshaw, 1988), which corroborates the notion that the more value education has to an individual, the more they are opened to gender differences. More educated men do not subscribe to ideas that most victims of rape are promiscuous or that women have a desire to be raped. Further, education has been used to change attitudes in men who are more prone to accepting adversarial views of women or condoning interpersonal violence (Herbert, 2002).

#### *Future Status Variables*

Surprisingly, there were no significant results found with regard to any future status variables. Although this may be due to the lack of significant differences between the athletes and non-athletes, it is possible that general rape myth acceptance may not have anything to do with future status variables. It is entirely possible that present status variables really have the most effect with regard to rape myth acceptance.

#### *The Belief of Women Lying About Rape: Athletes versus Non-Athletes*

A difference between the athletic and non-athletic group was found in the belief that women lie about rape, with athletes indicating that they believe women lie more than

non-athletes. This is an issue which has been addressed by several theorists with both qualitative and quantitative studies (Benedict, 1997; Berkowitz, 1994; Crossett, 1995). Also, this view may have been reinforced by the media with celebrity cases like Mike Tyson and more recently, Kobe Bryant. Their cases may send a message to athletes that many women falsify rape allegations to attain money, attention, etc. Further investigation should be made with regard to why student athletes are more likely to think women lie about rape than non-athletes.

It has been suggested that the culture of male athletes help sustain negative attitudes toward women with sexist dialogue and that it legitimizes violence by reinforcing concepts of status and dominance. Many victims of sexual assault perpetrated by athletes are acquaintances or dating partners. These athletes are given perks and status which make them appealing as sexual partners and they are often the one pursued.

“Because of the complicity of women (in these situations), athletes’ distorted perceptions of women are reinforced, and the concept of consent has been trivialized. As a result, legitimate rape claims are difficult to prosecute – a fact that some athletes understand and use to their advantage...other women who pursue social relations with athletes are seen as easy prey by players and as poor prosecution witnesses by lawyers” (Benedict, 1997, 59).

#### *Present Status Variables*

The results suggested that the higher the education status the less likely students were to think women lie about rape. As mentioned earlier, it has been asserted that education can help curb rape myth acceptance and beliefs (Burt, 1980; Katz, 1995; Kormos & Brooks, 1994; Malamuth, 1986; Martin & Hummer, 1989).

#### *Future Status Variables*

Results showed that the higher the future athletic status, the more likely the respondents were to believe women lie about rape. It is possible that the respondents

associate a certain degree of power and celebrity with athletic status, which is attractive to many. Respondents may believe that people are out to take advantage or profit from one's status. It may be that these results about athletes' perceptions of women lying may be due not only to the concept of power, status and entitlement that is suggested about athletes and which was anticipated by the researcher, but to a more defensive response brought on by extensive media coverage of cases involving athletes and sexual assault. Also, there have been numerous criminal and civil cases in which women are portrayed not only as manipulators, but as "the opponent" (Benedict, 1997).

#### Limitations of the study

A major limitation of this study is the use of a non-randomized convenience sample which restricts the generalizability of the findings. These results should be considered applicable only to the population sampled. Gaining access to study college athletes and their views on sexual violence is difficult. This fact helps explain the lack of published data on the subject. This doctoral project was intended to be an initial study used as a springboard for larger and more randomized studies at four-year institutions where status and athleticism have a higher significance and economic value. As the method of data collection was self-report surveys, respondents may have been concerned about the social desirability of some questions, which then may have led to some false and/or exaggerated responses. As previously discussed, steps were taken by the principal investigator to minimize any concerns regarding anonymity and to ensure confidentiality about the questionnaire.

One item in the study indicated that athletes saw themselves as receiving better treatment on campus than the non-athletic group. Although this supported the hypothesis, it needs to be examined in more depth and with further research. “Special treatment” needs to be defined and broken down – for example, what constitutes special treatment? Areas that need to be investigated include: the issue of grade inflation, permissions for absences from classes, special privileges and perks given athletes including sponsorship items, etc. Additionally, how do these special privileges and treatment affect athletes’ self-esteem as well as contribute to possible higher status?

Another aspect of the study which should be examined further has to do with status conflict. Although athletes and non-athletes did not differ in their reported grade point averages, this issue should not necessarily be dismissed. Some possible reasons for the lack of differences may be due to the sample population – community college students. As mentioned before, these students differ from traditional four-year students with regard to campus socialization and fraternization, academic readiness and programming, and basic social interactions with professors and other classmates on campus. Community colleges tend to be primarily commuter-based schools with limited extra-curricular activities for students and more vocational-based programs of study.

### Implications from the Study

A significant and serious point raised from the study is how the athletes actually rated themselves overall. Even though the previous research has suggested athletes would see themselves with higher status across all aspects of their college life (Crossett, 1995; Koss & Gaines, 1993; Messner, 1992), this population only rated themselves higher with

athletic status. More significant is that overall they see themselves becoming successful in the area of professional sports, when in actuality, very few, if any, will ever make it to the professional level. It is critical to tease out all the factors that may contribute to these results, specifically, the role of college administrations/middle management, and faculty. This population of athletes did not rate themselves higher with regard to their intellectual status nor their educational status. Given the type of social educational institution they are in, it should be a definite concern of the administration to help this group excel in their academic areas and prepare them for further scholastic endeavors. It is not beneficial to encourage these athletes to believe that they will succeed in the fiercely competitive and aggressive field of professional sports.

#### Specific Implications for Colleges and Recommendations for Further Research

The Ramstad Act of 1992 required schools to develop campus policies and programs to promote sex crimes awareness, develop institutional sanctions for offenders and provide assistance and services for victims of violence (Smith & Fossey, 1996). Although rape myth and rape education programs have now become nationally commonplace on college campuses, all too many have primarily directed their attention and initiatives to sexual assault prevention and risk-reduction training for female students. Newer programs have been established to educate men about rape myths, empathy for rape victims and to “encourage men to confront inappropriate rape supportive behaviors among peers” (Berkowitz et al., 1994, 36). For the male student athlete, all-male workshops have begun to address changing masculine, as well as athletic norms (Smith & Welchans, 2000). This athlete-oriented type of programming has been met with some resistance on various

campuses. This is particularly due to the concerns that having this type of educational/awareness program on campus may give an impression that may hurt a college's public image and possible recruitment potential (Katz, 1995).

However, publicized incidents of sexual assault involving not only college athletes, but also high school and professional athletes, have led to public perceptions that athletes and the sports culture are primarily responsible for sexual assault and abusive behavior on campuses and that they foster and reinforce rape supportive beliefs. Many programs, like the *Mentors in Violence Prevention Project* (Northeastern University, Boston, MA) try to address changing the social status of athletes on campus by working with the athletes themselves. They try to inspire male athletes "to use their stature among their male peers in the larger student body to promote healthier attitudes and behaviors among women...to help catalyze a growing intolerance by all men for the abuse of women" (Katz, 1995, 173). One reason why further study on status and status variables is crucial is to examine/evaluate how extensive the link is between athletes, rape myth acceptance and sexual aggression and violence.

Although previous research on social status characteristics theory has not been applied to incidences of sexual violence or rape myth beliefs, the concept of status has been a point of reference for researchers in the area of violence against women and masculinities (Berkowitz, 1995; Messner, 1995; & Messner & Sabo, 1994). Nor has status characteristics theory been applied to research on athletes, thus this study extends the theory's application to a new issue and a new perspective of criminological theory. The study may be of significant value to the criminal justice system and its assessment of sexual violence and rape myths among athletes. Educating law enforcement, college

administrators and staff, campus police, and students and increasing their understanding of rape supportive attitudes can only change the cultural tolerance of sexual violence. The research also serves the criminal justice system by promoting a better understanding of the athletic culture on the community college campus which in turn, can help all members of the college community in addressing issues of rape myths and sexual violence. It encourages the development of education models for both athletes and non-athletes and further examining cultural factors which encourage rape supportive beliefs and sexual aggression.

As stated previously, this research is meant to serve as a springboard to begin to look at alternative reasons why some research has indicated that athletes have more rape-supportive beliefs. Recommendations include tailoring and shortening the survey to include only questions dealing with pertinent demographics (race, age, etc.); social demographic information (dating, alcohol and drug use); rape myths and sexual aggressive experiences; and expanding the items for status variables. For example one item asked how the respondent felt about their treatment by the college. As cited, athletes indicated that they perceived themselves as having more special treatment than the non-athletic group. This item should be expanded to include other questions which focus and explore why and how they interpret their special treatment.

In addition, sample selections must come from a larger four-year institution and/or from multiple institutions. These schools have a wider variety of sport teams and more organized athletic departments. Some are classified as more revenue-driven and vary in terms of their division levels – all of which may have an impact on status variables. It would also be beneficial for further analysis to study any possible differences with regard

to status and specific-sport athletes. For example, are there differences between athletes participating in a team-based sport (like basketball or football) and an individual-based sport (like tennis or golf)? It may also be significant to examine the absence of group violence in the individual-based sport, for example, golf or tennis (Smith, 2001). Other important differences may reflect athletes on private versus public college campuses.

This study suggests that status and its perception by the individual has an impact on an individual's social value, which may ultimately affect their behavior. Athletes and violence on campus, in particular issues of violence against women are not rare. Future research needs to focus on the unique aspects of the sports culture in colleges to provide a solution for this on-going social problem.

# APPENDIX

## A



Office of the Vice President for Research and Sponsored Programs  
Committee on the Protection of Human Subjects

The Graduate School and University Center  
The City University of New York  
365 Fifth Avenue  
New York, NY 10016-4309  
TEL 212.817.7523 FAX 212.817.1629

Date: January 31, 2002

To: Lavery, Cathryn (Criminal Justice)

STUDY: 6-20-01-02 • "Community College Male Athletes & Non-Athletes: An Examination of Social Status Characteristics, Rape Supportive Attitudes, and Beliefs" (Originally a Full Review 1/28/02 and changed to Expedited Review)

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) of The Graduate Center of the City University of New York has approved the above study involving humans as research subjects. This study was approved through **expedited review** based on 45CFR46.110a(7).

**IRB Number:** (IRB#6-20-01-02) This number is an IRB number at The Graduate Center which should be used on all consent forms and correspondence.

Approval Date: January 31, 2002

Expiration Date: January 30, 2003

**This approval is for a one-year period. You should receive a courtesy renewal notice approximately four weeks before the expiration of this project's approval. However, it is your responsibility to insure that an application for continuing review approval has been submitted by the required time. In addition, you are required to submit a final report of findings at the completion of the project.**

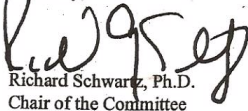
**Consent Form:** The approved and stamped consent form must be used by all subjects. You are responsible for maintaining signed consent forms for a period of at least three years after study completion.

**Reporting:** The principal investigator must report to the IRB any serious problem, adverse effect, or outcome that occurs with frequency or degree of severity greater than that anticipated. In addition the principal investigator must report any event or series of events that prompt the temporary or permanent suspension of a research project involving human subjects.

**Modifications:** All modifications of protocols involving subjects must have prior approval except those involving the prevention of immediate harm to a subject which need to be reported within 24 hours to the IRB.

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me through the IRB Office at 817-7525.

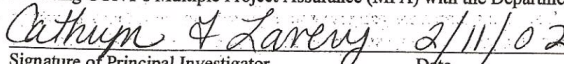
Sincerely,

  
Richard Schwarz, Ph.D.  
Chair of the Committee

c: Gwendolyn L. Gerber

Please return one copy of this letter to the attention of Kay Powell at the above address:

**Verification:** By signing below, I acknowledge that I have received this letter and am aware of and agree to abide by all of its stipulations in order to maintain active approval status, including prompt reporting of adverse events/serious problems and annual continuing review. I am aware that it is my responsibility to be knowledgeable of all federal and state regulations including CUNY's Multiple Project Assurance (MPA) with the Department of Health and Human Services.

  
Signature of Principal Investigator

Date

<http://www.gc.cuny.edu>

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Ph.D. Program in Criminal Justice

The Graduate School and University Center

John Jay College of Criminal Justice  
The City University of New York  
899 Tenth Avenue, #434  
New York, NY 10019  
TEL 212.237.8419/8818 FAX 212.237.8940

Dear Student:

My name is Cathryn Lavery. I am a student in the Criminal Justice Program at the Graduate School and University Center at the City University of New York, and the principal investigator of this project. This is a research study of male student athletes. The results of this survey is expected to see how athletes differ in terms of their self-esteem and other aspects of their personality as compared to those who do not participate in school sports.

This survey will take you about a half an hour to forty-five minutes to complete. I will pay you \$10 dollars to complete this questionnaire. Any information gathered will be kept strictly confidential, and will be stored in a locked cabinet file, to which only I, and my advisor, will have access.

The only risk involved in this study is that you may experience some discomfort in answering certain questions pertaining to sexual issues and behaviors. The benefits of your participation is that the information gathered from this survey will help your college format programs on topics like students' self-esteem and sexuality issues.

I may publish the results of this study, but names of people, the school, and any identifying characteristics will not be used in any of the publications. If you would like a copy of the results, please provide me with your address and I will send you a copy in the future. It will also be available to you through this institution.

If you have any questions about this research, you can call me at (914) 738-3979 or my advisor, Dr. G. Gerber at (212) 237-8796. If you have questions about your rights as a participant in this study, you can contact Hilry Fisher, Sponsored Research, Graduate School/City University of New York, (212) 817-7523, [hfisher@gc.cuny.edu](mailto:hfisher@gc.cuny.edu).

Thank you for your participation in this study. I will give you a copy of this form to take with you.

If you agree to participate in this study, **please sign below:**

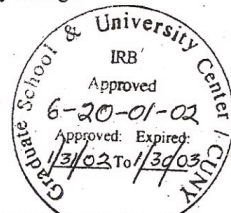
\_\_\_\_\_  
Participant's signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

**Please check and sign below:**

\_\_\_\_\_ I have never had Ms. Cathryn Lavery as an instructor at Westchester Community College.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Participant's signature



<http://www.gc.cuny.edu>

The Graduate School and University Center is The City University of New York's doctorate-granting institution, which operates in consortium with all the CUNY campuses: ~~Borough of Manhattan College~~ ~~Borough of Manhattan Community College~~ ~~Bronx Community College~~ ~~Brooklyn College~~ ~~The City College~~ ~~The City University of New York Medical School~~ ~~The City University of New York School of Law at Queens College~~ ~~The College of Staten Island~~ ~~Medgar Evers College~~ ~~Eugenio Maria de Hostos Community College~~ ~~Hunter College~~ ~~John Jay College of Criminal Justice~~ ~~Kingsborough Community College~~ ~~Fiorello H. LaGuardia Community College~~ ~~Herbert H. Lehman College~~ ~~New York City Technical College~~ ~~Queens College~~ ~~Queensborough Community College~~ ~~York College~~

## Certificate of Completion

The NIH Office of Human Subjects Research certifies that **Cathryn F. Lavery** completed the computer-based training course on the Protection of Human Research Subjects.

Serial: 971044953

Date: October 08, 2000

# APPENDIX

## B

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## COLLEGE QUESTIONNAIRE

This is an anonymous questionnaire that is being used to understand something about students here at your college. You will be describing the kind of person you think you are, how you relate with team members, and identifying different social views that you have. Some questions might seem similar, however it is important that you answer all of them. The survey itself appears lengthy, however, it only requires that you check or circle most answers and goes rather quickly. Please try to answer all questions as honestly as possible. Don't spend too much time on any one question. Give each question a moment's thought and then answer it. Remember this survey is anonymous, so be sure NOT to write your name anywhere on it.

### SECTION A

**Part I. BACKGROUND QUESTIONS ABOUT YOU .** Please answer the following questions. These questions are some general questions about you. Please answer all questions as honestly as possible.

1. Your Age: \_\_\_\_\_
2. Please indicate your race/ethnicity:
  - \_\_\_\_\_ White
  - \_\_\_\_\_ Asian
  - \_\_\_\_\_ Black
  - \_\_\_\_\_ Indian
  - \_\_\_\_\_ Hispanic
  - \_\_\_\_\_ Native American
  - \_\_\_\_\_ Other. Please identify: \_\_\_\_\_
3. How long have you attended this College (number of semesters): \_\_\_\_\_
4. What level or year are you: \_\_\_\_\_ 1st Year \_\_\_\_\_ 2nd Year
5. What degree are you studying: \_\_\_\_\_
6. What is your academic average? Check one below.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ A (4.0) 93-100%
  - \_\_\_\_\_ A- (3.7) 90-92%
  - \_\_\_\_\_ B+ (3.3) 87-89%
  - \_\_\_\_\_ B (3.0) 83-86%
  - \_\_\_\_\_ B- (2.7) 80-82%
  - \_\_\_\_\_ C+ (2.3) 77-79%
  - \_\_\_\_\_ C (2.0) 73-76%
  - \_\_\_\_\_ C- (1.7) 70-72%
  - \_\_\_\_\_ D+ (1.3) 67-69%
  - \_\_\_\_\_ D (1.0) 63-66%
  - \_\_\_\_\_ D- (0.7) 60-62%
  - \_\_\_\_\_ F (0.0) Below 62%
7. Were you born in the United States? \_\_\_\_\_ Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No
8. If "No", where were you born?: \_\_\_\_\_
9. How long have you been in the United States?: \_\_\_\_\_

10. Do you speak a language other than English at your permanent residence?  
 Yes  No
11. If "Yes", what language?: \_\_\_\_\_
12. Where do you live?:  
 At home with parents  
 My own apartment [alone]  
 With a roommate  
 With a girlfriend/partner
13. If you are living at home, what is your family income (Father, Mother, Self) level:  
 Under \$20,000  
 \$20,000-29,999  
 \$30,000-39,000  
 \$40,000-49,999  
 \$50,000-59,999  
 \$60,000-69,999  
 \$70,000-79,999  
 \$80,000 - 100,000  
 Over \$100,000
14. If you are living on your own, what is your income level:  
 Under \$20,000  
 \$20,000-29,999  
 \$30,000-39,000  
 \$40,000-49,999  
 \$50,000-59,999  
 \$60,000-69,999  
 \$70,000-79,999  
 \$80,000-100,000  
 Over \$100,000
15. Are your parents:  
 Married  Divorced  Separated  Never married
16. Are both parents living?  Yes  No
17. If "No", which parent is living: \_\_\_\_\_
18. What are your parents' occupations:  
 Father: \_\_\_\_\_ Mother: \_\_\_\_\_
19. Do you currently participate on a College Sport Team?  
 Yes  No [If "No", please skip to question #24]
20. If "Yes", do you participate on more than one team during the academic year?  
 Yes  No

21. Please list the Sport (or Sports) you play, the semester, and how many years you have participated on them at the College?

<i>SEMESTER</i>	<i>SPORT TEAM</i>	<i>YEARS PLAYED</i>
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

22. Do you hold a specific position of authority on team?  Yes  No

23. Please write your position on the team (Captain, Co-captain, etc.): \_\_\_\_\_

24. Did you play on an organized sport team in High School?  
 Yes  No [If "No", please skip to #30]

25. If "Yes", please list the Sport (or Sports) and how many years you played:

<i>SPORTS TEAM</i>	<i>NUMBER OF YEARS PLAYED</i>
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

26. In High School, did you hold a specific position of authority on the team?  
 Yes  No

27. Please identify the position you held in High School (Captain, Co-captain): \_\_\_\_\_

28. Please number in order with (1) being most important and (6) being least important, the reasons or motivation for you to join a sports team:

- Enjoy the sport
- Enjoy the spirit of competition
- The status associated with being a member of a team
- Exercise
- Brotherhood or building friendships
- Possibility for future scholarships

29. Do you wish to continue playing sports after college?  Yes  No

30. Do you currently belong to a Fraternity House?  Yes  No

31. If "No", do you wish to join a Fraternity House in the future?  Yes  No

32. Once you complete your degree, do you wish to continue to a four-year institution?  
 Yes  No

33. At this time, how likely do you think it will be to continue at a four-year institution? Check one of the following:

Very certain  
 Very likely  
 Likely  
 Not likely right now  
 Not likely at all

34. Do you ever think about pursuing a higher degree?  Yes  No

35. If "Yes", please indicate at this time, what type of degree you might pursue:

Graduate School, Master's Degree (Liberal Arts)  
 Graduate School, M.B.A. (Business)  
 Graduate School, Ph.D. (Doctorate)  
 Medical School, M.D.  
 Law School, (J.D.)  
 Other, Please indicate: \_\_\_\_\_

36. Are you:  Single  Married  Divorced  Widowed  
 Separated

37. Are you currently dating?  Yes  No

38. Please indicate gender of your dating partner:  Female  Male

39. Please indicate how long you have been together?

Under 3 months  
 3-6 months  
 6 months to 1 year  
 Over a year to two years  
 More than 2 years

40. Does your partner attend college?  Yes  No

41. Does your partner attend the same college as you?  Yes  No

42. Do you know your partner's GPA  Yes  No

43. If "Yes", please indicate your partner's GPA. If you are not sure, what would you guess it would be? :

A (4.0) 93-100%  
 A- (3.7) 90-92%  
 B+ (3.3) 87-89%  
 B (3.0) 83-86%  
 B- (2.7) 80-82%  
 C+ (2.3) 77-79%  
 C (2.0) 73-76%  
 C- (1.7) 70-72%  
 D+ (1.3) 67-69%  
 D (1.0) 63-66%  
 D- (0.7) 60-62%  
 F (0.0) Below 62%

44. If your partner does not attend your college, does he/she attend:

High school  
 A two-year college  
 A four year college or university  
 Vocational school  
 Other. Please identify type of school: \_\_\_\_\_

45. Does your partner participate on a Sports Team?  Yes  No

46. If "Yes", please indicate type of Sports Team: \_\_\_\_\_

47. Do you socialize regularly with members of your College Sports Team?  
 Yes  No

48. If "Yes", how often:

Rarely  Occasionally  Frequently

49. Have you ever experimented with alcohol for recreational/social use?

Yes  No

50. How often do you drink alcohol for recreation/social use?

- Once a month or less
- 1-3 times per month
- Once a week
- Twice a week
- Several times a week
- Every day

51. Approximately how much alcohol do you consume at a social activity?

- 1-2 drinks
- 2-4 drinks
- 5-6 drinks
- More than 6

52. Have you ever experimented with drugs, other than alcohol?  Yes  No

53. Please check which drug(s) you have experimented with:

- Marijuana
- Cocaine
- Crack
- LSD
- Heroin
- Ecstasy
- Special K
- Inhalants

54. Please list any other types of drugs you experimented with that was not listed above:

\_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_

55. If "Yes", how often do you use drugs/narcotics?

- Once a month or less
- 1-3 times per month
- Once a week
- Twice a week
- Several times a week
- Every day

**Part II. WHAT KIND OF PERSON YOU ARE.** The items below examine what kind of person you think you are. Each item consists of a pair of characteristics, with the letters A-E in between.

For example:    Not at all artistic                    A.....B.....C.....D.....E                    Very artistic

Each pair describes contradictory characteristics -- that is, you cannot be both at the same time, such as very artistic and not at all artistic. The letters form a scale between the two extremes. You are to circle a letter which describes where you fall on the scale. For example, if you think you have no artistic ability, you would circle "A", if you think you are pretty good, you would circle "D". If you are medium, you might circle "C", and so forth.

Now go ahead and answer the questions on the following pages. For each characteristic, circle the letter that best describes you. Be sure to answer every question, even if you're not sure.

- |                                   |                           |                                 |
|-----------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Not at all competitive         | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Very competitive                |
| 2. Very passive                   | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Very active                     |
| 3. Very submissive                | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Very dominant                   |
| 4. Not at all gullible            | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Very gullible                   |
| 5. Not at all egotistical         | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Very egotistical                |
| 6. Can make decisions easily      | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Has difficulty making decisions |
| 7. Never cries                    | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Cries very easily               |
| 8. Very fussy                     | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Not at all fussy                |
| 9. Doesn't nag                    | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Nags a lot                      |
| 10. Not at all arrogant           | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Very arrogant                   |
| 11. Feels very inferior           | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Feels very superior             |
| 12. Collapses under pressure      | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Holds up well under pressure    |
| 13. Very little need for security | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Very strong need for security   |
| 14. Very whiny                    | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Not at all whiny                |
| 15. Not at all independent        | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Very independent                |
| 16. Not at all emotional          | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Very emotional                  |
| 17. Very boastful                 | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Not at all boastful             |

18. Not at all excitable in a major crisis	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very excitable in a major crisis
19. Not at all able to devote self completely to others	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Able to devote self completely to others
20. Not at all spineless	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very spineless
21. Very rough	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very gentle
22. Not at all helpful to others	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very helpful to others
23. Not at all complaining	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very complaining
24. Not at all hostile	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very hostile
25. Subordinates oneself to others	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Never subordinates to others
26. Very home oriented	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very worldly
27. Very greedy	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Not at all greedy
28. Not at all kind	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very kind
29. Indifferent to others' approval	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Highly needful of others' approval
30. Very dictatorial	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Not at all dictatorial
31. Feelings not easily hurt	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Feelings easily hurt
32. Not at all aware of feelings of others	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very aware of feelings of others
33. Gives up easily	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Never gives up Easily
34. Very cynical	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Not at all cynical
35. Not at all aggressive	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very aggressive
36. Not at all understanding of others	A.....B.....C.....D.....E	Very understanding of others

- |  |                           |  |
|--|---------------------------|--|
| 37. Does not look out only for self; principled        | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Looks out only for self; unprincipled            |
| 38. Very cold in relations with others                 | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Very warm in relations with others               |
| 39. Not at all self-confident                          | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Very self-confident                              |
| 40. Very servile (submissive; like a slave or servant) | A.....B.....C.....D.....E | Not at all servile (not like a slave or servant) |



15. Not at all ambitious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very ambitious
16. Follower	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leader
17. Very physically weak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very physically strong
18. Not at all physically attractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very physically attractive
19. Very masculine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not at all masculine
20. Very feminine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not at all feminine
21. Not at all satisfied with my GPA	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very satisfied with my GPA
22. Not at all satisfied with myself as a person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very satisfied with myself as a person
23. Do not have a positive attitude about myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Have a very positive attitude about myself
24. Feel I am a failure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel I am a success
25. Not at all loyal To my team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very loyal to my team
26. Not proud to be a member of the team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to be a member of the team
27. The College does not treat me special	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	The College treats me special

**PART IV. Now, you are to continue describing WHAT KIND OF PERSON YOU ARE.  
Continue to describe yourself on the following items:**

28. Not at all intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very intelligent
29. Not doing well in school	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Doing <u>very</u> well in school
30. Do <u>not</u> get good grades	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Get <u>very</u> good grades
31. Am <u>not</u> a competent student	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Am a <u>very</u> competent student
32. Overall, am <u>not</u> successful in school	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Overall, I am <u>very</u> successful in school
33. Not well respected by peers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very well respected by peers
34. Do <u>not</u> have a good social life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Have a very good social life
35. Do <u>not</u> have a lot of friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Have a lot of friends
36. Not at all popular with the girls	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very popular with the girls
37. Not at all popular with the guys	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very popular with the guys
38. Do <u>not</u> perform well in sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Perform <u>very</u> well in sports
39. Not at all competent at sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very competent at sports
40. Not considered to be <u>very</u> a valuable player	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Considered to be a valuable player
41. Overall, <u>not</u> very successful in sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Overall, <u>very</u> successful in sports
42. Will <u>not</u> continue my with my education receiving this degree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> continue with education after receiving this degree
43. Will <u>not</u> be successful in a future career after college	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> be very in a future career after college
44. Will <u>not</u> be successful as an athlete after college	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> be very as an as an athlete after college
45. Will <u>not</u> make money as an athlete after College	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> make money as an athlete after College

<p>46. Will <u>not</u> at all be successful in some non-athletic career [business or professional position, etc.] after college</p>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<p><u>Will</u> be very in some non-career [business or professional position etc.] after college</p>
<p>47. Will <u>not</u> make a lot of money in some non-athletic career after college</p>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<p><u>Will</u> make a lot of in some non-athletic career after college</p>

**SECTION B**

**OTHER STUDENTS AT YOUR COLLEGE**

**Now, you are going to describe how OTHER STUDENTS AT YOUR COLLEGE THINK ABOUT YOU. Please describe how OTHER STUDENTS think about you on the following items. For each of the following items, please place an X in the box above the number that you believe best describes what OTHER STUDENTS think of you.**

**Other students at my college think that I am:**

1. Not at all intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very intelligent
2. Not doing well in school	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Doing <u>very</u> well in school
3. Do <u>not</u> get good grades	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Get <u>very</u> good grades
4. Am <u>not</u> a competent student	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Am a <u>very</u> competent student
5. Overall, am <u>not</u> successful in school	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Overall, I am <u>very</u> successful in school
6. Not well respected by peers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very well respected by peers
7. Do <u>not</u> have a good social life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Have a very good social life
8. Do <u>not</u> have a lot of friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Have a lot of friends
9. Not at all popular with the girls	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very popular with the girls
10. Not at all popular with the guys	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very popular with the guys
11. Do <u>not</u> perform well in sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Perform <u>very</u> well in sports
12. Not at all competent at sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very competent at sports
13. Not considered to be <u>very</u> a valuable player	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Considered to be a valuable player
14. Overall, <u>not</u> very successful in sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Overall, <u>very</u> successful in sports
15. Will <u>not</u> continue my with my education receiving this degree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> continue with education after receiving this degree

16. Will <u>not</u> be successful in a future career after college	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> be very in a future career after college
17. Will <u>not</u> be successful as an athlete after college	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> be very as an as an athlete after college
18. Will <u>not</u> make money as an athlete after College	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> make money as an athlete after College
19. Will <u>not</u> at all be successful in some non- athletic career [business or professional position, etc.] after college	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> be very in some non-career [business or professional position etc.] after college
20. Will <u>not</u> make a lot of money in some non-athletic career after college	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> make a lot of in some non-athletic career after college

**SECTION C  
YOUR PROFESSORS**

**Now you are going to describe how your PROFESSORS think about you on the following items. For each of the following items, please place an X in the box above the number that you believe best describes what your PROFESSORS think of you.**

**My Professors think that I am:**

1. Not at all intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very intelligent
2. Not doing well in school	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Doing <u>very</u> well in school
3. Do <u>not</u> get good grades	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Get <u>very</u> good grades
4. Am <u>not</u> a competent student	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Am a <u>very</u> competent student
5. Overall, am <u>not</u> successful in school	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Overall, I am <u>very</u> successful in school
6. Not well respected by peers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very well respected by peers
7. Do <u>not</u> have a good social life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Have a very good social life
8. Do <u>not</u> have a lot of friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Have a lot of friends
9. Not at all popular with the girls	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very popular with the girls
10. Not at all popular with the guys	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very popular with the guys
11. Do <u>not</u> perform well in sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Perform <u>very</u> well in sports
12. Not at all competent at sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very competent at sports
13. Not considered to be <u>very</u> a valuable player	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Considered to be a valuable player
14. Overall, <u>not</u> very successful in sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Overall, <u>very</u> successful in sports
15. Will <u>not</u> continue my with my education receiving this degree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> continue with education after receiving this degree

16. Will <u>not</u> be successful in a future career after college	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> be very in a future career after college
17. Will <u>not</u> be successful as an athlete after college	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> be very as an as an athlete after college
18. Will <u>not</u> make money as an athlete after College	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> make money as an athlete after College
19. Will <u>not</u> at all be successful in some non- athletic career [business or professional position, etc.] after college	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> be very in some non-career [business or professional position etc.] after college
20. Will <u>not</u> make a lot of money in some non-athletic career after college	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> make a lot of in some non-athletic career after college

5	1	
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**SECTION E**

**YOUR CURRENT OR LAST GIRLFRIEND**

Now, please indicate the way your **CURRENT GIRLFRIEND** thinks about you. If you do not have one at this time, please describe the way your **LAST GIRLFRIEND** thinks about you by placing an X in the box above the appropriate number that you believe she thinks you fall on the scale. Please indicate first which girlfriend you will be referring to.

I am referring to my: \_\_\_\_\_ **Current girlfriend** \_\_\_\_\_ **Last girlfriend**  
 If it's your **CURRENT** girlfriend, how long have you been together? : \_\_\_\_\_  
 If it's your **LAST** girlfriend, how long were you together? : \_\_\_\_\_  
 How long have you been broken up? : \_\_\_\_\_

**My girlfriend (or my last girlfriend) thinks that I am:**

1. Not at all intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very intelligent
2. Not doing well in school	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Doing <u>very</u> well in school
3. Do <u>not</u> get good grades	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Get <u>very</u> good grades
4. Am <u>not</u> a competent student	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Am a <u>very</u> competent student
5. Overall, am <u>not</u> successful in school	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Overall, I am <u>very</u> successful in school
6. Not well respected by peers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very well respected by peers
7. Do <u>not</u> have a good social life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Have a very good social life
8. Do <u>not</u> have a lot of friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Have a lot of friends
9. Not at all popular with the girls	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very popular with the girls
10. Not at all popular with the guys	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very popular with the guys
11. Do <u>not</u> perform well in sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Perform <u>very</u> well in sports
12. Not at all competent at sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very competent at sports
13. Not considered to be <u>very</u> a valuable player	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Considered to be a valuable player
14. Overall, <u>not</u> very successful in sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Overall, <u>very</u> successful in sports

15. Will <u>not</u> continue my with my education receiving this degree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> continue with education after receiving this degree
16. Will <u>not</u> be successful in a future career after college	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> be very in a future career after college
17. Will <u>not</u> be successful as an athlete after college	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> be very as an as an athlete after college
18. Will <u>not</u> make money as an athlete after College	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> make money as an athlete after College
19. Will <u>not</u> at all be successful in some non- athletic career [business or professional position, etc.] after college	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> be very in some non-career [business or professional position etc.] after college
20. Will <u>not</u> make a lot of money in some non-athletic career after college	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<u>Will</u> make a lot of in some non-athletic career after college

**SECTION F**  
**YOUR MEMBERSHIP IN YOUR SPORTS TEAM**

**We are all members of different social groups or social categories. Some groups pertain to gender, race, religion, class, social activities, etc. Please consider YOUR MEMBERSHIP IN YOUR SPORTS TEAM at your college and respond to the following statements on the basis of how you feel about your team & your membership. There are no right or wrong answers. We are interested in your honest reactions and opinions. Please read each statement carefully and respond by using the following scale from 1-7.**

**Please indicate what team you are referring to: \_\_\_\_\_**

**1= Strongly disagree**

**2= Disagree**

**3= Disagree somewhat**

**4= Neutral**

**5= Agree somewhat**

**6= Agree**

**7= Strongly agree**

- \_\_\_ 1. I am a worthy member of the team I belong to.
- \_\_\_ 2. I often regret that I belong to the team I do.
- \_\_\_ 3. Overall, my team is considered good by others.
- \_\_\_ 4. Overall, my team has very little to do with how I feel about myself.
- \_\_\_ 5. I don't feel I have much to offer the team I belong to.
- \_\_\_ 6. In general, I'm glad to be a member of the team I belong to.
- \_\_\_ 7. Most people consider my team, on average, to be ineffective.
- \_\_\_ 8. The team I belong to is an important reflection of who I am.
- \_\_\_ 9. I am a cooperative participant to the team I belong to.
- \_\_\_ 10. Overall, I often feel the team of which I am a member of is not worthwhile.
- \_\_\_ 11. I often feel that I'm a useless member of my team.
- \_\_\_ 12. I feel good about the team I belong to.
- \_\_\_ 13. In general, others think that the team of which I am a member of is unworthy.
- \_\_\_ 14. In general, belonging to the team is an important part of my self-image.

**SECTION G**  
**YOUR REACTIONS AND OPINIONS**

**Please answer the following questions. There are no right or wrong answers. We are interested in your honest reactions and opinions. Please read each statement carefully and respond by using the following scale from 1-7. Please check the box that best reflects your answer.**

1. How satisfied are you with your performance in school?

*Very satisfied*    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    *Not satisfied at all*

2. How satisfied are you with your participation on your athletic team?

*Very satisfied*    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    *Not satisfied at all*

3. How satisfied are you with the amount of socializing you do?

*Very satisfied*    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    *Not satisfied at all*

4. How satisfied are you with your ability to make decisions for yourself?

*Very satisfied*    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    *Not satisfied at all*

5. How satisfied are you with your ability to express your emotions?

*Very satisfied*    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    *Not satisfied at all*

6. How satisfied are you with the amount of money you earn?

*Very satisfied*    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    *Not satisfied at all*

7. How satisfied are you with your initiative, or "get-up-and-go"?

*Very satisfied*    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    *Not satisfied at all*

8. How satisfied are you with your dependability in times of crisis?

*Very satisfied*    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    *Not satisfied at all*

9. How satisfied are you with your attractiveness to the opposite sex?

*Very satisfied*    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    *Not satisfied at all*

10. How satisfied are you with your sympathy and understanding for others?

*Very satisfied*    1    2    3    4    5    6    7    *Not satisfied at all*

## SECTION H

**Please answer the following questions. There are no right or wrong answers. We are interested in your opinions on view views. Please read each statement carefully and respond by using the following scale from 1-7. Please check the appropriate box that best reflects your answer.**

11. A woman will only respect a man who will lay down the law to her.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

12. A man's got to show the woman whose boss right from the start or he'll end up henpecked.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

13. In a dating relationship, a woman is largely out to take advantage of a man.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

14. A lot of women seem to get pleasure in putting men down.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

15. Men are only out for one thing

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

16. People today should not use "an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth" as a rule for living.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

17. Being roughed up is sexually stimulating to many women.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

18. Many times a woman will pretend she doesn't want to have intercourse because she doesn't want to seem loose, but she is really hoping the man will force her.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

19. A woman should move out of the house if her husband hits her.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

20. Sometimes, the only way a man can get a cold woman turned on is to use force.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

21. A man is never justified in hitting his girlfriend or wife.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

22. If a woman who goes to the home or apartment of a man on their first date it implies that she is willing to have sex.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

23. One reason that women falsely report a rape is that frequently they have a need to call attention to themselves.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

24. A healthy woman can successfully resist a rapist if she really wanted to.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

25. When a woman goes around braless or wears short skirts & tight tops, they are just asking for trouble.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

26. In the majority of sexual assaults, the victim is promiscuous or has a bad reputation.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

27. If a woman engages in necking or petting, and she lets things get out of hand, it is her own fault if her partner forces sex.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

28. Women who get raped while hitchhiking get what they deserve.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

29. Many women have an unconscious wish or desire to be raped -- and may subconsciously set themselves up in a situation in which they are likely to be attacked.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

30. If a woman voluntarily gets drunk at a party and has intercourse with a man she just met there, she is considered fair game to other men at the party who want to have sex with her too, whether she wants to or not.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

31. If a man expresses interest and asks a woman out on a date where he buys her flowers, gifts, and dinner; and then she agrees to go back with him to his place for a drink, she should expect that by doing that, he is entitled to have sex from her.

*Strongly Agree* 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 *Strongly Disagree*

32. What percentage of women who report a rape would you say are lying because they are angry and want to get back at the man they accuse?

- Almost all
- About 75%
- About 50%
- About 25%
- Almost none

33. What percentage of reported rapes would you guess were merely invented by women in order to protect their own reputation?

- \_\_\_\_\_ Almost all
- \_\_\_\_\_ About 75%
- \_\_\_\_\_ About 50%
- \_\_\_\_\_ About 25%
- \_\_\_\_\_ Almost none

34. Suppose that a person comes to you and claims they were raped. For each of the following, please place an X to indicate how likely you would be to believe their statement if that person was:

	<u>Always</u>	<u>Frequently</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Never</u>
a. Your best friend	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
b. An Indian woman	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
c. A young boy:	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
d. A neighborhood woman:	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
e. A black woman:	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
f. A white woman:	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

**SECTION I  
YOUR PAST EXPERIENCES**

**Please answer the following questions. Please answer honestly and to the best of your recollection.**

1. Since leaving High School, have you ever had sexual contact with a woman when you both wanted to?
  - No
  - Yes, kissing, petting, but no intercourse
  - Yes, intercourse
  
2. Have you ever had a woman misinterpret the level of sexual intimacy you desired?
  - Yes
  - No
  
3. If "Yes", please best identify the woman's relationship to you:
  - My girlfriend
  - My ex-girlfriend
  - A female friend or colleague at work
  - A new acquaintance (recently met)
  - An unknown woman
  
4. Have you ever obtained sexual intercourse by saying things you didn't really mean?
  - Yes
  - No
  
5. Have you ever been in a situation where you became so sexually aroused that you could not stop yourself, even if the woman didn't want to?
  - Yes
  - No
  
6. Have you ever had sexual intercourse with a woman when she didn't really want to because she felt pressured by you?
  - Yes
  - No
  
7. Have you ever engaged in sexual play (fondling, petting, kissing, but no intercourse) when the woman didn't want to but was overwhelmed by your arguments and pressure?
  - Yes
  - No
  
8. Have you ever obtained sexual intercourse with a woman by giving her alcohol and drugs?
  - Yes
  - No
  
9. Have you ever tried to obtain sexual intercourse with a woman by giving her alcohol and drugs, but intercourse did not occur?
  - Yes
  - No

10. Have you ever been in a situation where you used some degree of physical force (twisting of her arm, holding her down) to try to get her to have sexual intercourse with you, but for various reasons, sexual intercourse did not occur?
- Yes  
 No
11. Have you ever had sexual intercourse with a woman when she didn't want to because you used some degree of physical force (holding her down, twisting her arm, etc.)?
- Yes  
 No
12. Have you ever been in a situation where you obtained sexual acts with a woman such as oral or anal intercourse when she didn't want to by using threats or physical force (twisting her arm, holding her down, etc.)?
- Yes  
 No
13. Have you ever been in a situation where you used some degree of physical force (twisting her arm, holding her down, etc.) to try to make a woman engage in kissing or petting when she didn't want to?
- Yes  
 No

**THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE!**

# APPENDIX

## C

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*Appendix C Table*

*Means and Standard Deviations of Rape Myth Acceptance Subscales for Athletes and Non-Athletes*

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<u>Subscale</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
	Athletes ( <i>n</i> = 63)	
Own Sex Role Satisfaction	3.055	1.113
General Rape Myth Acceptance	4.546	1.115
Belief Women Lie About Rape	3.624	1.138
	Non-Athletes ( <i>n</i> = 65)	
Own Sex Role Satisfaction	3.110	1.017
General Rape Myth Acceptance	4.455	1.317
Belief Women Lie About Rape	3.222	.967

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