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Running head: SEXUALLY ABUSED MALES

The Male Sex Role and Responses to Disclosures by Adult Male Survivors of Sexual Abuse

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Abstract

Research evidence indicates that male survivors of sexual abuse fear being labelled unmasculine or homosexual upon disclosure. They express the social maxim that masculine men don't get sexually abused and gay men shouldn't complain. The male sex role contains a strong prohibition against feminine behaviour in males that is enforced through homophobic attitudes. The objective of the current study was to investigate empirically factors that influence reactions toward disclosure by male sexual abuse survivors. The present study investigated reactions to a hypothetical adult male survivor. Ninety-two male and 92 female participants responded to a vignette in which a 30-year-old male stimulus person (SP) disclosed sexual abuse by a male or female offender when the SP was 5, 15, or 25 years old. Dependent variables were sex-role perceptions of the SP's masculinity and femininity, attitude toward the SP and offender, attributions of responsibility to SP characteristics and behaviour and to offender, male sex role endorsement and rape myth acceptance, and behavioural appraisal for the SP. Results indicate that sex of participant, sex of offender, and age at incident affect perceptions of the male discloser. As SP age at incident increases, the SP was seen as less masculine, held more responsible for the incident and faced increased application of the traditional male sex role and rape myths by participants. Female, rather than male, participants had a more positive attitude toward SP, a more negative attitude toward the offender and held the SP less responsible. While female participants prescribed the traditional male sex role and rape myths to the SP to a lesser degree when the offender was a female than a male, male participants' responses on these two variables were not affected by the sex of offender. Overall, results demonstrate that male survivors who disclose to other males, survivors who are older at the time of the abuse and whose offender was a female receive less positive responses.

The Male Sex Role and Responses to Disclosures by Adult Male Survivors of Sexual Abuse

There is a growing body of research about childhood sexual abuse. The women's movement has increased public awareness and investigation into sexual assault, which some say has feminized the concept (Sepler, 1990). Much attention has been paid to the father-daughter incestuous relationship, to the detriment of those survivors who do not fit this pattern (Schoenewolf, 1991). Some speculate that most of the writing has been on females because of widely-held assumptions that boys often initiate sexual contacts with adults and that these contacts do not negatively affect boys (Finkelhor, 1984). In contrast, girls and women are accepted as helpless victims of sexual abuse, but, "there is almost universal repudiation of the male victim" (Kelley, 1990).

Many people, including the survivors themselves, fail to recognize males as experiencing sexual abuse because men are not generally thought of as being able to be abused in such a way. Typically, sexual abuse is portrayed as occurring between a male offender and a female, not between a two males or involving a female offender. The mass market contains many trivializing portrayals of male sexual abuse, especially by female offenders. One famous example is the motion picture "The Graduate" (Trivelpiece, 1990). Peake (1989) discusses "notions of youthful male sexuality" as one facet of why males can be overlooked as having been sexually abused. She says that, because society expects boys to be "worldly wise," and that "early sexual experiences are somehow a part of most boys' lives. . . (this) leaves many boys who are assaulted feeling quite unclear about whether the experience is a 'rite of passage' or an assault. (p.46)"

There is still a large discrepancy between official statistics and survey data as to the

prevalence of male sexual abuse. Police statistics, bound by the law and various other factors related to under-reporting, are generally the lowest. Finkelhor (1987) gives estimates ranging from 3% to 31% obtained by various studies. The Report of the Committee on Sexual Offences Against Children and Youths surveyed the Canadian population and found that half of females and one-third of males were reported having been sexually abused, four-fifths of both sexes being younger than 21 years at the time of the first offence (Badgley, 1984). A Canadian Gallup poll also yielded an estimate of one-third of males surveyed reporting having been sexually abused (Hunter, 1990a). All of these sources of data also vary with differences in definitions of sexual abuse or differences in the populations included in the samples. Nonetheless, a pattern of under-reporting of male sexual abuse is discernible because official statistics and survey data are disparate.

There are many reasons put forth to help explain under-reporting of male sexual abuse. These include society's expectation that males should be self-reliant (Peake, 1989) and the stigma of being labelled homosexual (Finkelhor, 1984). As well, the more the survivor blames himself, the less likely he is to report the incident to police (Gunn & Minch, 1988). It is also fairly common for the offender to issue threats to prevent the survivor from disclosing (Beitchman et al., 1992). Fortunately, as research on male survivors of sexual abuse who have not offended emerges and awareness of the problem increases, more are coming to the attention of helpers. Many are critical of the continued lack of empirical and clinical evidence on this topic, especially with regards to female offenders (e.g., Violato & Genuis, 1993).

The Effects of Sexual Abuse

Sexual abuse affects male and female survivors in many similar ways. Hunter (1990a) suggests that males and females experience the actual trauma in the same way. Long-term effects

for both sexes are fairly well documented, although male reactions to abuse have not been described to the extent that female sequelae has. Some of the effects experienced by sexual abuse survivors of both sexes include sexual disturbances in adulthood, anxiety, fear, depression, and a higher risk of suicide and revictimization (Beitchman et al., 1992), low self-esteem, shame, flashbacks, lack of trust and intimacy (Nice & Forrest, 1990), a variety of self-destructive behaviours, a feeling of powerlessness and being different from others, and feeling like "damaged goods" (Urquiza & Capra, 1990). Finkelhor (1989) notes, however, that sexual abuse is not an inevitably life-shattering trauma because most survivors are able to recover to a certain degree. However, it is in the interest of public policy to publicize the notion of sexual abuse as a "time bomb" in order to increase awareness of its harmful effects and encourage reporting. Even though the majority of survivors recover, they may be disheartened by frequent media reports of lives irreparably shattered by the experience.

Women and children who are sexually abused generally receive supportive responses from agencies and the public at large. Unfortunately, the same response is not as forthcoming for male survivors. Other differences do exist between males and females who are sexually abused. In terms of disclosure, men in one national sample were less likely than women to tell anyone about the abuse at any time after it occurred (Gordon, 1990). In a study of a medical centre's records over a two-year period (Reinhart, 1987), the abuse of males, rather than females, was more often reported by a third party. In contrast, females were more likely than males to report the abuse themselves. As well, abuse of males was reported less often as a suspicion without confirmation than was the abuse of females. This suggests that the abuse of males is less likely to be detected and that the survivor himself is less likely than a female to receive help for the abuse. Also, many

professionals, like much of the general population, may not be alert to the possibility of male abuse because they do not expect to find it in males. It has been shown, however, that males are more likely than females to be physically injured as a result of the abuse (Hunter, 1990a) and are twice as likely to experience multiple acts as females.

Typical overt emotional reactions of male survivors may differ substantially from that of female survivors (Stuart & Greer, 1984). For instance, they exhibit somewhat poorer social adjustment than sexually abused females (Beitchman et al., 1992), meaning that their social functioning is more impaired than is often reported in females. Where women are thought to internalize the resultant emotions, some men externalize their abuse through inappropriate attempts to reassert masculinity or recapitulation of the experience (Watkins & Bentovin, 1992). For instance, a sexually abused male may exhibit excessive machismo in an attempt to compensate for feelings of lost masculinity. Vander-Mey (1988) noted that survivors who identified with the offender felt no loss of masculinity but, instead, experienced the abuse as inconsequential or positive. This may reflect their reframing the impact of the event to minimize threat to their senses of masculinity. Three other common characteristics of abused men are sexual compulsiveness, relationship dysfunction and masculine identity confusion, which includes confusion about male roles and confusion regarding sexual orientation (Dimock, 1988).

Male survivors also frequently experience intense anger. Bruckner and Johnson (1987) found that abused males display more anger than depression or guilt and have more problems in coping with their anger than females. It is suggested that men are generally out of touch with many emotions that are portents to anger (e.g., hurt, fear, inadequacy) and these, combined with threats to masculinity, produce anger as an emotional catch-all (Blanchard, 1986). In treating male survivors

of sexual abuse, anger is often a central consideration in formulating treatment (e.g., Bruckner & Johnson, 1987).

Homosexual sexual orientation is found four times more frequently in male sexual abuse survivors than in the general population (Finkelhor, 1984). However, it is unclear whether this is an effect or a precondition of the abuse itself. The survivor may identify himself as gay as a result of the abuse experience and begin to behave consistently. It is also possible that offenders seek out targets they perceive as vulnerable or who exhibit feminine characteristics (Doll et al., 1992), which may feed into the homosexual stereotype or the survivor's self-perception of homosexuality. As Dimock (1988) noted, it is important to emphasize that no causal link between homosexual behaviour and sexual abuse has been established. The formation of gender identity in adolescent females, however, is disrupted by childhood sexual abuse (Aiosa-Karpas et al., 1991) and adolescent males. In adolescent males, this occurs regardless of the sex of the perpetrator (Richardson et al., 1993). Information on the gender identity of female survivors of female perpetrators is not yet available due to the lack of research on female perpetrators, especially those who offend against females. So, regardless of the perpetrator's sex, a male may experience disrupted gender identity formation. Sexual dysfunction, as well as questioning of sexual identity, seems to figure more prominently as a recovery issue for male, rather than female, survivors, perhaps because of the connection between sexuality, heterosexuality and masculinity.

It is apparent, however, that many needs of male survivors are being neglected by both service agencies and society in general. Men's different reactions to the abuse and their unique concerns like masculinity and anger make accessing the current system of support and recovery, which is generally aimed at female survivors, more difficult (Timms & Connors, 1990). Pierce and

Pierce (1985) found that boys consistently spend less time in treatment for sexual abuse than girls. Overall, male advocacy is lacking and no system of helpers for male survivors of sexual abuse exists as it does for female survivors (Sepler, 1990). Fortunately, resources for men are emerging. Sexual assault crisis centres are recognizing the demand for male therapists and all-male groups. One such group runs weekly in Thunder Bay for nonoffending male survivors over 18 years of age.

> Many victims are surprised to learn that other males have been abused. . . Until very recently, articles, television programs, and books did no more than make passing references to nonoffending male victims or female offenders. Male victims were left to think that either the sexual abuse of males didn't happen or that it was too disgusting to be talked about. The idea that large numbers of males are sexually victimized is actually fairly new (Hunter, 1990a, p.26).

How Survivors Expect Others to React

Recovery literature produced by and for survivors also frequently mentions issues of masculinity in relation to sexual abuse (e.g., Grubman-Black, 1990; Hunter, 1990a). Because they are male, survivors are subject to the same social expectations and sex-role beliefs, but they must deal with them in a new context. Male survivors repeatedly find themselves deciding not to disclose or seek help because they believe that they will be ostracized for admitting "unmanly" behaviour. There are many aspects of sexual abuse and victimization that survivors feel expose them to risk of being considered unmasculine. Male survivors, in Bruckner and Johnson (1987), describe the traditional yet pervasive expectation that they should be strong, should have been able to protect themselves, and should be in control of their emotions. Male survivors question their own independence and masculinity because they may also believe they should live up to these

ideals. One group of abused boys reported that their worst fears in this regard were confirmed by peoples' reactions of disbelief to their disclosures (Nasjleti, 1980).

> Just as many female rape victims have been told they should have "lain back and enjoyed it," many male victims of sexual maltreatment are told that not only were they not abused but they were in fact fortunate. This leads many to feel ashamed about feeling ashamed over something they "should" have enjoyed (Hunter, 1990a, p. 313).

Nearly every piece of literature on male sexual abuse mentions the fear of survivors that they will be wrongly categorized as homosexual (e.g., Halpern, 1987; Violato & Genuis, 1993). This relates to the male sex role's rejection of all that is feminine and the belief that men are always in control of sexual situations. If a male "allows" himself to be assaulted by another male, they are both perceived as gay because they are of the same sex. The offender is assumed to be homosexual because he is inaccurately perceived as being attracted to other men (Hunter, 1990a). The survivor is also seen as gay because, if it happened, he must not have done all he could to prevent it and so he, in some way, wanted it to occur. Mendel (1995) summed up the expectations placed on male survivors of sexual abuse as follows: "if he was abused he mustn't be a man and if he's a man he mustn't have been abused."

The fear of being labelled homosexual is also an issue when a female perpetrator is involved. Although the act is heterosexual, a male may feel that he cannot express that he has been hurt by it because he should not complain about an opportunity to be sexual with a woman. The "myth of complicity" states that men desire and are willing participants in any heterosexual sexual activity (Gerber, 1990). To deny that an experience with a woman was welcomed implies that one is not interested in heterosexual encounters.

Sexually abused males tend to perceive themselves as unique in their experience, feel isolated and experience a lack of identification with their own sex (Bruckner & Johnson, 1987). Many speculate that differences in the way male survivors of sexual abuse respond to the abuse and are treated by others are due to differences in socialization and the prescriptions of traditional sex roles (e.g., Ben-David & Silfin, 1993; Nasjleti, 1980; Vander-Mey, 1988; Wellman, 1993). The meanings attached to gender in our society may account for why boys (and males in general) are less likely than girls to be recognized as abused and to report their abuse (Peake, 1989). The next two subsections discuss how the male sex role and rape myths play a role in others' reactions to sexually abused males.

The Male Sex Role

Sex roles are prescriptive expectations about proper conduct and personality attributes for men and women (Stoppard & Kalin, 1978). They are similar to stereotypes in that both are expectations about behaviour of members of a social category, but roles are prescriptive and stereotypes are only descriptive. Thompson et al. (1985) summarized the traditional male sex role in the following four prescriptions for masculine behaviour:

No Sissy Stuff. "Males must avoid anything seen as vaguely feminine" (p. 414). This means they should be physically large and strong and take the role of sexual initiator (Mezey, 1992). This also includes homophobic attitudes and the fear of being labelled a homosexual, as well as a proscription against showing emotional vulnerability. Failure to protect oneself also violates this principle. Whereas women are seen as needing protection, men must protect themselves from all possible perils.

The Big Wheel. "Men must strive to be respected and admired. To gain this needed status,

men must achieve. Traditional expectations demand that men be successful in all they undertake" (p. 414). One measure of a man is said to be his sexual prowess. Damage to his sexual identity lowers a man's status.

The Sturdy Oak. "This aspect of the expectations men encounter is best captured by the phrase 'the strong silent type.' Men must remain calm in the most hectic and frightening situations. They must be able to handle difficult problems alone, never show any weakness, and keep intimate aspects of their personality to themselves" (p. 414). Men are supposed to remain in control at all times. One example of this is a man who is reluctant to stop for directions when he gets lost. This also relates to sexual abuse as men are expected to conceal victimization and their need for help.

Give 'Em Hell. "This dimension underscores a man's love of adventure, danger and violence" (p. 414). A man should be willing to take risks. This makes it hard for men to acknowledge the sexual violence perpetrated on men as a whole since men are supposed to be able to deal with the consequences of living dangerously.

Sex typing is the process by which a society transposes male and female behaviour into prescriptive masculine and feminine characteristics (Bem, 1981). Sex stereotypes and traditional sex-determined role standards reinforce each other. Brown (1965) states that intra-role conflict arises when there is disagreement over what is proper behaviour for role occupants and relates a pertinent example. For a girl, to be seen as a "tomboy" is acceptable. However, for a boy to be called a "sissy" is belittling. Some say this belittling of a feminine male occurs because the male is mimicking a lower status group. The social status hypothesis states that males are punished for acting feminine because feminine behaviour is lower in status, but this theory has not been upheld in the research (McCreary, 1994).

An alternative explanation that has received support is the sexual orientation hypothesis (McCreary, 1994). It states that, for males, the link between sex roles and sexuality is much stronger than it is for females and that male violations of sex roles signal homosexuality. Because of this "male gender role rigidity," a male acting feminine is more likely to be considered homosexual than a female acting masculine. While adults view sex-role transgressions as undesirable because they are a sign of homosexuality, children penalise cross-gender behaviour in a rule-based manner, as if those who violate sex roles have acted immorally. Thus, the need for "avoidance of femininity" influences males of all ages and is punished by observers of all ages.

Homophobia can be conceived of as a mechanism for the enforcement of the traditional male sex role. Negative attitudes toward homosexuality are labelled "homophobic." It is these attitudes that may explain how deviations from the traditional male sex role are punished. Homophobia is defined on a cultural level and on a personal level (Morin & Garfinkle, 1978). Culturally, the term describes belief systems that justify discrimination of homosexuals and devaluation of a homosexual lifestyle as well as the offensive slang associated with homosexuals (e.g., queer, faggot). In a "sex-negative," or sexually conservative, culture like North America, any behaviour suggestive of homosexuality is to be avoided and condemned. A review of cross-cultural research shows that attitudes regarding gay lifestyles are more negative in people who are raised in more sex-negative cultures (Morin & Garfinkle, 1978). However, the need to preserve traditional roles for men and women seems to be the underlying agenda for homophobic attitudes, not sexual conservatism (e.g., Morin & Wallace, 1976). Homophobic views are associated with the belief that men are more potent than women and is the single best predictor of a belief in the traditional family ideology, the second being agreement with traditional beliefs about women (Morin & Wallace,

1976). Traditional religious beliefs are also predictive of traditional attitudes toward women and homophobic attitudes (Morin & Wallace, 1975).

In 1972, George Weinberg was the first to describe homophobia on a personal level in referring to it as specific phobic condition of self-hatred resulting from the internalization of others' irrational fears (Morin & Garfinkle, 1978). Other personality attributes that correlate with homophobia point to an intolerance or fear in many other social situations. Authoritarianism, dogmatism, intolerance of ambiguity, status-consciousness, sexual rigidity, guilt and negativity about one's own sexual impulses, and lower acceptance of others in general, all correlate with homophobic attitudes. Phallometric findings also indicate that heterosexual men seem to fear their own sexual impulses toward men, although homosexual men do not fear women. Thus, homophobia may be a sign of anxiety about one's sexuality as a whole.

Homophobic behaviour serves to demonstrate to the individual male, and to others, that he is 'perfectly straight' by projecting the fear of their own homosexual impulses onto others' homosexual expressions. In their review of the area, Morin and Garfinkle (1978) describe two studies that help to illuminate this point. In one study, a confederate who labelled another as homosexual was rated as more masculine and more sociable, illustrating that men are actually rewarded for their "skill" in identifying other men as homosexual. In the same study, gay men were rated as less good, less honest, less stable, less clean, less handsome, smaller, weaker, more passive, and more unpleasant, when compared with the typical heterosexual male. Also, one survey found that 70% of heterosexual respondents reported a belief that "homosexual men are not fully masculine." These sorts of inferences strike at heart of the male sex role and, according to the male sex role, the hearts of all men.

Evaluations of psychometric properties of scales developed for the purpose of measuring homophobia have not been favourable. O'Donohue and Caselles (1993) reviewed such instruments and concluded that existing measures have not been demonstrated to possess adequate psychometric properties, thus, one cannot be sure that the construct of homophobia can be correctly measured. Even the most widely-used Index of Homophobia (IHP, Hudson & Ricketts, 1981) was shown to have serious flaws in its validity and sampling.

Male Rape Myths

Just as female sexual assault has myths associated with it, rape myths and misinformation exist surrounding male sexual abuse. Male rape myths may help to explain why there is widespread under-reporting of male sexual abuse perpetrated by both males and females. The existence of these myths also prevents males from getting adequate help (Hunter, 1990a) because the survivor may fear a punitive response from a potential helper, or may have received one in the past, and learns not to reach out for fear of being repeatedly ashamed.

Many believe that males cannot be raped. Some think that such an occurrence is just not possible. Sometimes people think that the survivor must have wanted it because, in a case where the offender is male, the survivor must be homosexual. When a female offender is involved, the usual notion is that it is impossible for a man to achieve or maintain an erection when threatened or attacked. This has been termed the "assumption of the problem of limp penis" (Finkelhor & Russell, 1984). Psychophysiological research reports that erection does occur in many negative emotional states including embarrassment, humiliation, anxiety, fear, anger or terror (Sarrel & Masters, 1982). The response is part of a generalized body reaction to emotional turmoil and, although the brain influences sexual response, the latter can function independently of the brain as it

is mediated through centres in the spinal cord. It is this misinformation that prevents many from accepting the reality of male sexual assault. This myth also impacts upon survivors. Many feel that they had responded sexually when a normal man would have been impotent and so, came to regard themselves as abnormal and inadequate as a man (Sarrel & Masters, 1982).

Because taboos against father-son and mother-son incest are very strong, any disclosures of abuse that violate them may be seen as less credible. Meiselman (1978) cites a general agreement in the literature that the mother-son taboo is the strongest incest taboo and the one most rarely violated. Two factors discourage reporting of father-son abuse cases: incest itself has occurred, and taboos against homosexuality have also been violated (Vander-Mey, 1988). Consequently, the survivor risks shame on two counts if he were to disclose abuse by his father.

Another barrier to male disclosure has been termed the "cycle of abuse hypothesis" (Langevin et al., 1989). It states that all males who are sexually abused will, in the future, go on to abuse others. It is known, however, that less than half of sexual offenders have histories of childhood sexual abuse. It is also known that only a portion of survivors of sexual abuse go on to offend (Hunter, 1990a). Finkelhor and Russell (1984) state that the theory is flawed because females are more likely to be sexually abused, yet the majority of offenders are male. Nonetheless, survivors and non-abused people have the impression of a "cycle of abuse." This may prevent male survivors from disclosing for fear that they will be classified as an abuser.

While these and other myths are acknowledged to exist in our society, the level at which each individual accepts them varies. Quackenbush (1989) found that sex-typed (high masculine-low feminine or high feminine-low masculine) and undifferentiated (low masculine-low feminine) males on the Bem Sex-Role Inventory were more accepting of attitudes toward women survivors

that are more supportive of rape than androgynous participants (high masculine-high feminine). Androgynous participants were less accepting of these rape-supportive attitudes. Sexual abuse is more often reported in countries with more egalitarian family roles than in countries with more traditional sex-role ideologies (Family Violence Prevention Division, 1989). More traditional values are present in less developed countries (Williams & Best, 1984). It would follow that a more traditional society, and the individuals in that society, would be more apt to subscribe to myths surrounding sexual abuse. Sexual abuse survivors in such a climate would face an additional hurdle to disclosure. Possibly, the greater prevalence of reported sexual abuse in a more egalitarian society reflects greater ability of the survivors to alert others to their situation because challenging a traditional role in that society is not seen as a transgression in itself.

The dilemma facing male survivors consists of balancing the pressure to conform to the male sex role and myths surrounding sexual abuse with their need to acknowledge and recover from their abuse, something that requires violations of the male sex role. The social implications surrounding the abuse event and subsequent help-seeking leaves male survivors open to censure and even personal attack or disgrace where female survivors are generally accepted and assisted to recover.

Examining Sex Differences in Responses to Disclosure

Previous research has found several sex differences in responses to survivors of sexual assault. In their study of college student attitudes toward rape, Szymanski et al. (1993) found that gender, not gender role, was the significant indicator of rape attitudes. In that study, men had more negative attitudes toward women, and held stronger beliefs in rape myths and more pro-rape attitudes. Additionally, men attributed more blame to the rape survivor than did women.

Males tend to have a stronger "belief in a just world" than do females, leading males to place more blame on a rape survivor and be more sensitive to the introduction of a rationale for blaming the survivor (Whatley & Riggio, 1993). Quackenbush (1989) found that masculine sex-typed and undifferentiated (neither masculine nor feminine) males exhibited greater acceptance of rape-supportive attitudes, rape myths, and interpersonal violence than did androgynous males. Broussard and Wagner (1988) found that males attributed more responsibility than females for a sexual abuse incident to the male survivor. One study of homophobic behaviour indicated that men are more likely than women to be influenced by the attitudes of their peers, to the point where they were socially rewarded for labelling a target male as a homosexual (Larsen, Reed, & Hoffman, 1980). This would indicate that males are more responsive to the judgements of others in guiding their own behaviour, be it how they choose to behave in a situation or how they behave in judging the behaviour of others. In addition, males reward each other for enforcing the male sex role, as well as pressuring each other to conform.

Research on causal attributions shows that men make stronger internal attributions for success and failure than women (Huber & Podsakoff, 1985). Women have a tendency to attribute success or failure to external factors, such as luck. This male-female difference is most likely to occur in male-oriented, rather than female-oriented, tasks. According to the male sex role, controlling a sexual encounter and avoiding a homosexual encounter would be male-oriented tasks in which males would be more likely to make these internal attributions for the incident's outcome.

Skitka and Maslach (1990) tested a theory of cognitive processing for gender schema information. Known as self-schema theory, it incorporated the definition of a schema as special knowledge in a specific domain, characterized by a particular ease and efficiency of processing

related knowledge. An individual who is schematic in a certain area is thought of as "expert" in that area. Self-schema theory states that people will only be gender schematic in self-relevant ways, since these are the areas in which they are comparatively "expert." The self is a knowledge source and one's gender schema is a direct function of that self-knowledge. This is not to imply that these people have no knowledge of other characteristics, only that they have more knowledge about their own. Someone with a traditional gender identity processes information about others differently than someone with a non-traditional gender identity. Similarly, males and females will process information differently because they are "experts" in different domains. Self-schema theory provides a mechanism for males to be seemingly stricter in their application of the attitudes already discussed. Because they are male, they have more expert knowledge in the area of the male sex role and are, according to schematic processing theory, more apt to apply it than females due to the greater ease of processing information using the schema.

Men learn to punish and devalue themselves and other men when they do not meet the masculine ideal. As previously discussed, violations of the male sex role can be signalled by and punished with labels of homosexuality. Sex-role deviance is more severely punished in males than females (O'Neil, 1981), as also confirmed by the sexual orientation hypothesis already discussed. Males are more rejecting of male than female homosexuals because male homosexuality is more incongruent with the male sex role than female homosexuality is with the female sex role (Morin & Garfinkle, 1978).

The greater potential for censure reinforces the idea that the male sex role can be very a salient part of a man's life. It serves as the filter through which a man's world is perceived. The degree to which men and women subscribe to these traditional sex roles affects the degree to which

they will accept deviance from them by a male. Previous research indicates that male respondents attributed more blame for a sexual assault to the behaviour of male survivors than female survivors, whereas female respondents attributed approximately equal blame to the male survivors' behaviour and characteristics (Howard, 1984). This may imply that men see each other as more agentic, or "in control," than women do and, so, are more apt to assign blame for the outcome of a situation where a man, rather than a women, is involved.

Homophobic attitudes are held by men and women, although several studies have found them to be stronger in males (Morin & Garfinkle, 1978). The (male) homosexual's violations of the male sex role may account for the sex differences in level of homophobia. This leaves gay men more likely to experience rebuke and condemnation than lesbian women. The difference in responses of men and women toward gays and lesbians and to men in general provides a foundation for comparing the responses of male and female participants to males who disclose that they have been sexually abused. Male survivors may receive a differential response to a disclosure of sexual abuse depending on the sex of the person hearing the disclosure because they may hold different attitudes toward homosexuality. Also, previous findings in the area of sex differences in attitudes toward homosexuality have yet to be tested in the context of sexual abuse, an issue that is closely linked to sexuality and sexual identity.

Age as a Variable in Research on Sexual Assault

In their study on sexual assault, Broussard and Wagner (1988) used a 15-year-old survivor but called for replication with a younger age survivor. They felt that their use of a survivor that was only 6 years younger than the offender may have influenced respondent ratings. A younger survivor was used by O'Donohue et al. (1992) who used ages 5, 10 and 15 years. An older survivor

was used by Howard (1984), but only in the context of a random act of sexual assault.

Because these previous studies do not span the developmental spectrum, we do not have a complete picture of people's reactions to male survivors of sexual abuse. A 5-year-old would represent the group of survivors who are abused as children. Due to their young age, they are heavily reliant on others to detect mistreatment because they lack the understanding and power to act on their own behalf. However, it is important to examine people's perceptions of how the male sex role should apply to a child whose own sense of their "maleness" is undeveloped or just beginning to form. A 15-year-old would represent male survivors who are offended upon when, presumably, their sense of self and their own masculinity are still taking shape. In addition, a 25-year-old condition will allow participants to react to someone who, many would agree, is "a man" in the sense that he could be expected to know and apply the principles of masculinity. It would also be possible to test male rape myths of control and physiological response as well as to create a situation in which the male survivor should have already formed stable sexual orientation and level of masculinity. Examining this wider age range would be an important step in discovering the influence of the age of the survivor at the time of the abuse on reactions to disclosure of sexual abuse by a male.

Examining the Influence of the Sex of Offender

Many studies done to date do not even mention female offenders. O'Donohue et al. (1992) call for the use of a female offender condition to elucidate the effect of perpetrator sex on credibility of reports of sexual abuse. Shelden and Shelden (1989) also assert that there is a paucity of research about the sexual abuse of males by females. Mendel (1995) partly attributes this lack of recognition to the idea that men, not women, are the oppressors in contemporary society. Thus,

many feel that women, because of their inferior position in a patriarchal society, are not only incapable of abusing a man, all of whom are regarded as having superior social status, but also that inflicting harm on another runs contrary to the very nature of women. Schoenewolf (1991) is rancorous in his criticism of this view, blaming the feminist movement, and goes so far as to predict that there are as many female sex offenders as there are male. However, the literature on sexual abuse estimates female perpetration in a range from 4% (Peake, 1989; Reinhart, 1987) to 17% (Finkelhor et al., 1990, cited in Violato & Genuis, 1993) of all offenders. One survey of 25,000 Canadian males who affiliate themselves with a support group found that 17% of that population reported having been sexually assaulted by females (S. A. M., 1985, cited in Blanchard, 1986). O'Connor (1987) reports that 63% of sexual offences committed by women involve children. Also, it is well known in the criminological field that women commit about 10% of homicides (Silverman & Kennedy, 1993). Therefore, the view that women are inherently incapable of harming others is not substantiated. Female offenders may also be less often reported even though many males are abused by offenders of both sexes. The survivor is more likely to identify the male offender first (Kendall-Tackett & Simon, 1987), possibly because abuse by males tends to be more physically damaging or because it is more likely to be deemed credible.

Examination of the sex of offender would be informative in gauging responses to a male survivors of sexual abuse. Inclusion of a female offender would help to raise awareness that such an occurrence, while less common than perpetration by a male offender, is not the rare exception to the rule or the inconsequential "rite of passage" that many have described. The inclusion of a female perpetrator would yield the opportunity to test myths that males cannot be sexually victimized by a female. The inclusion of a male offender would allow one to examine the impact

on a male survivor's masculinity in responses to abuse involving two males. It would also enable one to test findings from the area of attitudes toward homosexuality in the context of sexual abuse.

Summary

Male survivors are often overlooked in discussions of sexual abuse. This creates a pattern of under-reporting in official statistics and a feeling of isolation and lack of access to services for male survivors. The area of the sexual abuse of males as a whole is often described as under-researched. In many studies, survivors have reported fears that they are, or will be, labelled unmanly or homosexual. They express the social expectation that "masculine men don't get sexually abused and gay men shouldn't complain;" the female corollary being "nice girls don't get raped and bad girls shouldn't complain" (The District of Columbia Task Force on Rape, 1973, cited in Giacopassi and Dull, 1986). Several male rape myths contribute to individual fears and negative responses from others when a survivor discloses his abuse. Many have suggested that the social ideal of masculinity contributes to the unwillingness to identify males, and for survivors to identify themselves, as having suffered sexual abuse. The fear of survivors that they will be labelled homosexual is pervasive and seems to deter survivors from seeking help with this issue. The link between the male sex role and the reluctance to address this issue publicly may be the strong prohibition against feminine behaviour in males, which is expressed in people's attitudes toward homosexuality. Behaviour that contradicts the ideal of masculinity is then suppressed by society through homophobic attitudes and endorsement of the traditional male sex role.

Although anecdotal evidence from survivors indicates that they are afraid of being labelled feminine, no empirical studies have confirmed this. To date, it has not been determined whether the fears of male survivors of sexual abuse stem from internal pressure to behave a certain way or

from the responses of others to disclosures of sexual abuse. It is possible that the fears of male survivors are valid in their external social environment, or their fears could also be the result of internal pressure to conform to standards of masculinity. Variables that may impact on reactions of others to a disclosure of sexual abuse are sex of the person receiving the disclosure, age of the male when the abusive incident occurs and sex of the offender.

Present Study

The present study provided an empirical test of the fears that male survivors of sexual abuse have about negative social responses and perceptions of homosexuality and deviation from the male sex role from others. The objective of this study was to examine the reactions that people (participants) have to disclosure of sexual abuse by an adult man (stimulus person or SP) as a function of the age at which the sexual abuse (incident) took place, the sex of the offender and the sex of the participant. This yields a 2 x 2 x 3 design with sex of the participant (male or female), sex of offender (male or female), and age at incident (5, 15, or 25 years old) as independent variables. Dependent variables were participants' attitudes, reactions and attributions toward the male SP and are presented below.

1. Sex-role Perceptions of SP (Masculinity and Femininity). This was included to discover how participants viewed the SP in terms of the sex-role dimensions of masculinity and femininity.

2. Attitude toward SP. Participants' attitudes toward the SP were assessed to evaluate the degree to which they had a positive or sympathetic attitude toward him. In particular, this variable assessed whether the SP disclosure was believed, and whether the participant was willing to accept and respect a survivor of sexual abuse.

3. Attitude toward Offender. Participants' attitudes toward the offender included

perceptions about the offender's punishment, motivation, and sexual orientation. A more negative attitude toward the offender would reflect more realistic beliefs about the offender's motivation and that the offender is deserving of punishment.

4. Attribution of Responsibility. Attribution of responsibility was assessed as a multivariate factor. It is the extent to which men and women believe the offender, SP's characteristics, or SP's behaviour was responsible for the incident. SP characteristics present a more stable and uncontrollable feature than SP behaviour. In this way, it can be determined whether participants feel the responsibility for the incident can be attributed to something within the hypothetical survivor or something in his behaviour that may or may not be congruent with participants' views of how he might usually behave.

5. Endorsement of Traditional Male Sex Role. This tapped into whether participants would enforce the male sex role for survivors of an incident of sexual abuse. Examples of such enforcement are thinking that male survivors should be able to protect themselves from such an event and that they should avoid seeking help from others.

6. Acceptance of Rape Myths. This variable gauged whether the participant gave credence to various misconceptions surrounding male survivors of sexual abuse. This includes perceptions of the survivor as homosexual as a result of such an experience and the belief that men cannot be raped.

7. Alternative Behaviour. Participants were asked whether they thought the SP should have done anything differently and what it was he should have done differently. This variable is of secondary interest and was included to further elucidate how participants think males should respond to situations of sexual abuse.

Hypotheses

1. With regards to sex of participant, it was hypothesized, based on previous research (e.g., Broussard & Wagner, 1988; Whatley & Riggio, 1993), that, male participants will generally respond more negatively than female participants to the SP, and will respond more positively to the offender. Specifically:

    a. male participants will attribute more responsibility to the SP's characteristics and behaviour and less to the offender than female participants.

    b. male participants will also hold a less positive attitude toward SP and a less punitive attitude toward the offender than female participants.

    c. given that males tend to use the male sex role tenets as guiding principles (Skitka & Maslach, 1990), male participants are expected to rate the SP lower on masculinity and higher on femininity than female participants.

    d. male participants will be more likely to endorse the traditional male sex role and accept rape myths than female participants.

2. It is also hypothesized that when the offender is male rather than female:

    a. more responsibility will be attributed to the SP characteristics and less to SP behaviour. This is because a general myths exists that male perpetrators offend because they are attracted by homosexual characteristics of the survivor (Finkelhor & Russell, 1984). Male offenders are expected be held more responsible than female offenders because men are more likely to be seen as agentic and as initiators in sexual situations than women.

    b. the male sex role dictates that a male resist an incident with a male offender at all costs. Hence, participants will also have a more positive attitude toward SP and a less punitive

attitude toward the offender when the offender is male, rather than female because a male who participates in a sex act with another male is perceived as homosexual.

c. the SP is expected to be judged as less masculine and more feminine when the offender is male, and not a female, because the sexual act may be viewed as homosexual when the offender is male.

d. acceptance of rape myths is expected to be higher when the offender is male, rather than female. However, no difference is hypothesized for endorsement of the traditional male sex role because the male sex role requires that, if the encounter is unwanted, the male SP should be able to resist a male or a female offender.

3. Finally, SP age at incident is expected to affect participant responses such that reactions to a younger SP will be more positive than reactions to an older SP as follows.

a. When the SP is 5 rather than 25 years old, the responsibility assigned to the offender will increase and the responsibility attributed to the SP characteristics and behaviour will decrease. The rationale for this is that young children are often considered to be helpless in such situations. This perception of helplessness as age decreases is expected to impact upon many of the dependent variables.

b. Participants will have more positive attitudes toward SP and have a more punitive attitude toward the offender when the SP is 5 rather than 25. Again, this is due to the powerlessness of the child.

c. A 25-year-old SP will be seen as less masculine and more feminine because they are expected to have more control over the situation than a 5-year-old. This is based on the idea that a child's sense of masculinity has yet to develop. Although children do enforce the

male sex role, it is in a rule-based manner (McCreary, 1994). Adults are unlikely to hold children to the same standard of masculinity.

d. Participants will be less likely to accept rape myths and endorse the male sex role with a 5-year-old SP than with a 25-year-old SP. This is also based on the under-developed nature of the child's masculine gender identity.

e. When the SP is 5 years old, more participants will respond negatively to the behavioural approval (i.e., respond that the SP should not have behaved differently) than when the SP is 25.

Implications of the Present Study

Sexual abuse is a serious social problem for which help with coping is available While many have accessed helping resources, it is clear that not everyone who is in need of these services is receiving assistance. This study clarifies factors that affect reactions to the male survivor. This may help to determine the degree of correspondence between survivor fears as described in previous anecdotal works and others' actual responses. Understanding interpersonal reactions to male sexual abuse survivors has implications for these individuals in seeking help. For people close to a male survivor and for the wider society, it will increase awareness of the topic of male sexual abuse in general as well as help others to facilitate abuse identification and recovery. It will aid in targeting of public service campaigns about sexual abuse and, most importantly, help survivors recover without fear of ostracism or rejection. To date, it has been unclear whether it is society in general, survivors themselves, or a combination of both, that prevent needy survivors from getting the support they need from people around them as well as from various service agencies.

Method

Participants

Participants were 92 male and 92 female Introductory Psychology students volunteers (mean age = 21.24 years, sd = 4.81 years) who received a bonus point towards their final grade in Introductory Psychology for their participation in the study.

Materials

Sex of offender and age at incident were manipulated using various versions of a vignette (see Appendix A). The vignettes were based, in part, on those used by Broussard et al. (1991) and Smith et al. (1988). They reflected the ostensible disclosure by an adult man, "Jim," (i.e., SP) of an unwanted sexual incident with either a male or female neighbour (i.e., the offender). The incident occurred when Jim was 5, 15, or 25 years old. The abusive act was presented as petting and 15 minutes of oral-genital sexual activity performed on Jim.

There were a total of six different vignettes to reflect the different combinations of sex of offender and age of SP at incident:

1. male offender and 5-year-old survivor
2. male offender and 15-year-old survivor
3. male offender and 25-year-old survivor
4. female offender and 5-year-old survivor
5. female offender and 15-year-old survivor
6. female offender and 25-year-old survivor

Measures

The manipulation check, dependent measures and post-experimental check are described as

follows:

1. Manipulation Check (Questionnaire A, items 1-7, Appendix B). A manipulation check was used to ensure that the respondent correctly understood the identity of the survivor (i.e., Jim) and the offender (i.e., the neighbour).

2. Attribution of Responsibility (Questionnaire A, item 8, Appendix B). This variable looked the various sources that the participant holds responsible for the occurrence of the incident in the account. The participants used a visual analogue scale (VAS) to assign levels of responsibility for the incident to the following elements: the offender, the survivor's characteristics, and the survivor's behaviour. A VAS is a 10 centimetre line used, in this study, to depict the level of responsibility the participant attributed to various elements in the account, as named above. One end of the line was labelled as the absence of responsibility and the other end was labelled to indicate a maximum or extreme responsibility. Participants responded by marking a short perpendicular line corresponding to the degree or level of responsibility they felt was attributable to the given element. This section evaluated what factors participants saw as important in precipitating the abuse event.

The use of visual analogue scales dates back to the early 1920's (e.g., Freyd, 1923) and is commonly used to rate subjective feelings and mood states (e.g., Davies, Burrows, & Poynton, 1975; Little & McPhail, 1973) as well as pain (Merskey, 1973) and other mental states (Bond & Lader, 1974). VAS ratings allow for finer discrimination of participant responses as compared to categorical scales (Joyce, Zutshi, Hrubes, & Mason, 1975). Concurrent (Davies et al., 1975) and discriminant (Monk, 1989) validity have been established, as well as reliability (Luria, 1975).

3. Behavioural Appraisal (Questionnaire B, Appendix C). This measure assessed how the

participants thought the SP should have behaved differently or what was good about how he did behave. This revealed how people feel males should act to avoid being sexually assaulted and additional facets of the respondents' attitudes toward survivors of sexual assault. The yes-no response to the Behavioural Appraisal was followed by seven suggestions that participants rank-ordered.

4. Attitudes Toward SP and Attitudes Toward Offender (ATSP and ATO, Questionnaire C, Appendix D). The assessment of these two variables was combined into one measure, Questionnaire C. The Attitudes Toward SP (ATSP) variable revealed participants' attitudes toward the SP in the account. Its five items include perceptions of how truthful the SP was (Item 1), how sexually pleasurable the experience was (Item 2), the traumatic impact experienced (Item 3), and whether the participant was willing to accept (Item 5) and respect (Item 6) the SP and his experience with the abuse. Scores on the ATSP dimension can vary from 5 (sympathetic attitude toward the SP) to 30 (unsympathetic attitude toward the SP). The Attitude Toward Offender (ATO) variable examined participants' attitudes toward the offender in the account. Four items examined how much offenders deserve punishment by jail term (Item 4), whether they are motivated by sexual gratification (Item 8) or homosexual initiation of a younger male (Item 9), or a homosexual orientation (when the offender and survivor are of the same sex) (Item 7). Scores on the ATO variable may range from 4 (more punitive attitudes to the offender) to 24 (less punitive attitudes toward the offender).

On Questionnaire C, five of the nine items (items 1, 3, 4, 5 and 6) for the two variables were reverse-scored. There were two equivalent versions of this measure, one for participants reading about a male offender and one for participants reading about a female offender.

5. Sex-role Perceptions of SP (Masculinity and Femininity, Questionnaire D, Appendix E). This variable tapped into participants' view of the adult SP's masculinity and femininity using a modified Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI). The BSRI was originally designed to measure respondents' perceptions of their own personality characteristics. For this study, the instructions were modified to measure respondents' perceptions of another person, i.e., the SP in the vignette. The BSRI is a pencil-and-paper standardized test that conceptualizes masculinity and femininity as orthogonal dimensions. It consists of 60 items and indicates whether the SP is high on both masculinity and femininity (androgynous), low on both scales (undifferentiated) or high on one dimension and low on the other (masculine or feminine). The masculinity and femininity ratings of the SP were used simultaneously in analysis. The BSRI has been shown to be internally consistent (Cronbach's alpha ranging from .75 to .90), with independent scales, high test-retest reliability (from .76 to .94) and discriminant validity versus the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (-.15 to .24) (Bem, 1981).

6. Male Sex Role Endorsement and Rape Myth Acceptance (MSR and RMA, Questionnaire E, Appendix F). The Rape Myth Acceptance and Male Sex Role dimensions are both included in Questionnaire E. They tapped into whether participants lent credence to various misconceptions about sexual assault and whether they approved of enforcing the traditional male sex role on male survivors of sexual abuse. There were two equivalent versions of this measure: one for participants reading about a male offender and one for participants reading about a female offender. The 16-item questionnaire asked for participants' ratings on a 6-point likert-type scale of various statements relating to rape myths and how the male sex role should be applied to the male survivor, Jim. It was developed by the author with some of the items' content based on work by

Hunter (1990a), Jones (1992), Nasjleti (1980) and Watkins and Bentovin (1992). Ten of the 16 items (items 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10, 13, 14 and 15) on Questionnaire E are reverse-scored. The two dimensions measured by this questionnaire are described below.

Male Sex Role Beliefs in the Context of Sexual Abuse (MSR): This dimension has eight items that tap into endorsements of the traditional male sex role such as: that men who experience sexual abuse should keep it to themselves (Item 1), that they are weak for admitting such experiences (Item 2), that males should always be able to protect themselves from others' aggression (Item 9), that men who are sexually assaulted by women are "lucky" (Item 10), that men should not seek help in dealing with past sexual abuse (Item 11), that men should be in control of all situations, especially sexual ones (Item 12), that the "strong silent type" of man is better suited to deal with traumatic situations (Item 13) and that women who force men to have sex are trying to initiate them into adulthood (Item 14). Scores on the MSR dimension range from 8 (low endorsement of the traditional male sex role) to 48 (high endorsement of the traditional male sex role).

Rape Myth Acceptance (RMA): This dimension is assessed by eight items which look at subjects' acceptance of the following myths: that passive resistance to a male offender means the survivor is a homosexual (Item 3), that male survivors should not be believed when they disclose sexual abuse (Item 4), that nothing a female could do to a male sexually is harmful (Item 5), that males are not as adversely affected by sexual abuse as females (Item 6), that it is impossible for a man to be sexually abused by a woman because a man can't get an erection if he does not want to (Item 7), that all men who are sexually abused go on to abuse others (Item 8), that men cannot be raped (Item 15), and that sexual abuse survivors in general are not entitled to express outrage (Item

16). Scores on the RMA dimension range from 8 (low acceptance of rape myths) to 48 (high acceptance of rape myths).

7. Post-experimental Check (Questionnaire F, Appendix G). This measure was composed of nine questions and was designed to assess whether the participant was suspicious of the nature and hypotheses while filling out the previous measures. Suspicious participants may have intentionally altered their responses to the other questionnaires. Participants deemed to be suspicious by two independent judges had their responses eliminated from the analysis. Participants were also given the opportunity to express any comments they may have had about the study.

Procedure

The objectives of the study, confidentiality of responses and voluntary participation were explained to participants (see Appendix H). They were provided with a consent form to sign and return (see Appendix I). Participants read one of the six versions of the vignette, depending on the experimental conditions, and completed the questionnaire package of Questionnaires A and B, the appropriate Questionnaire C, Questionnaire D, the appropriate Questionnaire E and a post-experimental manipulation check titled Questionnaire F. The session concluded with debriefing (see Appendix J) and a take-home list of resources in Thunder Bay relating to sexual assault (see Appendix K). Participants completed a mailing label with their address if they wished a summary of the results.

Results

Design Reminder

This study was of a 2 x 2 x 3 design with sex of participant (male or female), sex of

offender (male or female), and age of the stimulus person (SP) at the time of the abuse (5, 15, or 25 years old) as independent variables. The dependent variables included (i) sex-role perceptions (masculinity and femininity) of the SP, (ii) attitudes towards the SP and attitudes toward the offender, (iii) attribution of responsibility for the offender and for SP's characteristics and behaviour, (iv) endorsement of the male sex role and application of rape myths to the SP, and (v) alternative behaviours for the SP. The first four sets of dependent variables were analyzed by separate multivariate analysis of variance (full-factorial MANOVA), with discriminant analysis and post hoc pairwise means comparison tests to follow up on significant effects. The fifth was subjected to descriptive analysis.

Sample

Twelve participants were excluded from the analyses because they answered the manipulation check incorrectly. Three were also excluded because they disclosed having been survivors of sexual abuse themselves or they had held a position such as children's aid worker. This was done because their responses may have been affected by their familiarity with or emotional reactions to the topic. The assignment of the remaining 184 participants to the experimental cells are presented in Table 1.

Overview of Analysis

Separate full factorial MANOVAs were performed on the following sets of dependent measures: (i) Sex-role perceptions of SP (masculinity and femininity), (ii) Attitude toward SP (ATSP) and Attitude toward offender (ATO), (iii) Attributions of Responsibility for the Offender, SP Characteristics and SP Behaviour, and (iv) Endorsement of Male Sex Role (MSR) and Acceptance of Rape Myths (RMA). MANOVA was used to protect against inflated Type I error

because the variables in each set are conceptually linked and correlated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989, p. 372).

To investigate the relationships of variables within sets of dependent measures, correlations among variables were obtained (see Table 2). ATSP and ATO were significantly correlated. Variables within the "Attributions of responsibility" set are also correlated quite highly, especially SP characteristics and SP behaviour. As more responsibility was attributed to the offender, less was assigned to the SP. Measures of endorsement of male sex role and acceptance of rape myths correlate highly. Various other correlations were significant but their large numbers prohibit individual and detailed discussion. The reader is invited to refer to Table 2 to examine the correlations between and within sets of variables.

Pillai's criterion was used as the multivariate test to preserve the robustness of the significance testing because of unequal cell sizes (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989, p. 399). All significant MANOVA effects were followed up with discriminant function analysis to investigate the relative contribution of variables to group discrimination. Univariate F-tests were not used because of correlated measures within sets of variables which could lead to inflated Type 1 error (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989, p.400). For multivariate interaction effects and main effects with more than two levels, pairwise means comparisons were conducted with the Tukey procedure to determine groups that differ significantly from each other (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989, p. 53).

The Behavioural Appraisal measure was subjected to descriptive analysis for two different reasons. Firstly, participants who felt that the SP could not have done anything differently comprised a very small minority of those who completed the measure. Thus, there was an unequal sample size between the two groups (particularly, those who felt that the SP should have behaved

differently and those who did not) which precluded a quantitative analysis of the data. Also, the two groups ranked different lists of possible behaviours or advantages to how the SP did behave. In other words, someone who responded affirmatively would rank different items than someone who answered negatively.

Pre-analysis Issues

Outliers

The data were examined for missing values, univariate outliers and multivariate outliers. Cases with missing data were excluded from the corresponding analysis to obtain greater equality between cell sizes. Univariate outliers, defined as cases with z-scores of greater than $\pm$ 3.00, were set closer to the mean until their z-score was less than $\pm$3.00 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). Eighteen data points were set closer to the mean in this fashion. Multivariate outliers were tested for using Mahalanobis distance with a chi-square criterion (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). No multivariate outliers were found.

Assumptions

The following MANOVA assumptions were tested: multivariate normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, multicollinearity and singularity. As previously discussed, outliers have been managed to eliminate the possibility of violation of the assumption of normality due to outliers. Detrended expected normal probability plots were also examined to protect against violation of this assumption (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989, p. 72).

All pairs of variables must be bivariate normal (Stevens, 1986). To this end, bivariate scatterplots were visually examined to ensure an elliptical shape. If the linearity assumption is violated, the overall shape of the plot will be curved, not rectangular. A violation of the assumption

of homoscedasticity would show up in a residual plot as a band of plotted residuals becoming wider at larger predicted values. A visual examination of the residuals plots suggests that the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were generally satisfied.

Box's M test is a very conservative test of the assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices (Stevens, 1986). In the present analysis, Box's M was significant only for the attribution of responsibility MANOVA ($F(66,30977) = 6.12$, $p < .001$). However, a Box's M with a $p < .001$ does not necessarily mean the MANOVA will not be robust. This is because Box's M is considered an overly sensitive test and because relatively equal cell sizes make the MANOVA robust to violations of the assumption (e.g., Stevens, 1986).

Correlations between measures were examined for multicollinearity and singularity (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989, p. 87). Multicollinearity occurs when a correlation between variables exceeds .90. Singularity occurs when the correlation between variables is .99 or greater, indicating the variables are essentially identical. No multicollinearity or singularity was found.

Analysis

Internal Consistency of Measures

The reliability of the measures used was investigated using Cronbach's alpha calculation. Alpha values ranged from .40 to .92 (see Table 3). Overall, measures on femininity, masculinity, male sex role and rape myths had adequate to high internal consistency. Attitudes toward SP and attitudes toward offender measures had lower internal consistency. Measures of responsibility assigned to the offender, SP characteristics and SP behaviour, and the behavioural appraisal do not lend themselves to an assessment of internal consistency because of their response format.

MANOVA Results

MANOVA results for each set of variables are discussed below.

1. Sex-role Perceptions of SP (Masculinity and Femininity). A table of cell means and standard deviations for these variables is contained in Table 4. A summary of results for the full factorial MANOVA can be found in Table 5. The only significant effect was that for age at incident, indicating that there were differences in how participants perceived the masculinity and femininity characteristics in the SP as a function of age at incident. The discriminant function analysis showed a canonical correlation of .47, indicating a moderate association between the linear combination of femininity and masculinity and the main effect. Structure loadings indicate that the masculinity dimension was almost entirely responsible for the discriminant function (see Table 6). Centroids show that, as SP age at incident increases, ratings of SP masculinity decrease (see Table 7). Post hoc Tukey tests with alpha levels of .05 conducted on masculinity reveal that the SP who was abused at age 25 was rated as significantly less masculine ($\underline{M} = 2.85$) than the SP abused at 5 ($\underline{M} = 3.78$) or 15 ($\underline{M} = 3.47$) years of age. Within-cell univariate means and standard deviations for the three age groups on femininity and masculinity are presented in Table 8.

2. ATSP and ATO. Cell means and standard deviations are contained in Table 9. Results for the full factorial MANOVA on ATSP and ATO are summarized in Table 10. A significant main effect was found for sex of participant. The discriminant function analysis for sex of participant, which yielded a moderate canonical correlation of .48, is summarized in Table 11. Structure loadings show that both ATO and ATSP contributed to the discriminant function, with the former variable exerting greater influence. Centroids, given in Table 12, show that male participants had a less positive attitude toward the SP and a less punitive attitude toward the

offender than female participants.

There were also significant main effects for sex of offender and SP age at incident. Generally, the sex of offender effect shows that participants' attitudes toward the SP were more positive (M = 9.87) and their attitudes toward the offender were more punitive (M = 10.15) when the offender was male instead of female (M = 10.67, M = 11.15, respectively). SP age at incident shows, in the larger sense, that a 25-year-old SP is seen less positively (M = 12.23) and the offender is seen less punitively (M = 11.78) than when the SP is 5 (M = 8.93, M = 9.84, respectively) or 15 (M = 9.65, M = 10.34, respectively). However, both of these effects are qualified by a significant interaction effect between them and will not be discussed outside of the context of the interaction. The results of the discriminant function analysis for the interaction between sex of offender and age at incident are summarized in Table 13. This discriminant function analysis produced a low canonical correlation of .23, indicating a low association between the linear combination of the dependent variables and the main effect. Structure loadings indicate that the function is composed mostly of ATO with negligible contribution from ATSP. Centroids are shown in Table 14. Post hoc pairwise means comparisons with Tukey tests with alpha levels of .05 were conducted on ATO. Results indicated that a male offender of a 5-year old SP received significantly more punitive ratings (M = 8.38) than the following groups: male (M = 11.98) and female (M = 11.58) offenders of a 25-year-old SP and a female offender of a 5-year-old SP (M = 11.30). Within-cell univariate means and standard deviations for ATSP and ATO are presented in Table 15.

3. Attributions of Responsibility for the Offender, SP Characteristics and SP Behaviour.

Cell means and standard deviations for these measures are shown in Table 16. A summary of results for this full factorial MANOVA is presented in Table 17. A significant main effect was

found for age at incident. The discriminant function analysis (summarized in Table 18) furnished a canonical correlation of .68, suggesting a moderately high degree of association between the linear combination of the dependent variables and the main effect. Structure loadings indicate that the three items were contributing about equally to the function. It should be noted, however, that when more responsibility is attributed to the offender, less is assigned to SP's characteristics and behaviour as the respective items for the offender and the SP are keyed in opposite directions. Centroids, given in Table 19, show a tendency for responsibility attributed to SP behaviour and characteristics to be higher and responsibility attributed to the offender to be lower as SP age at incident increased. Post hoc pairwise means comparisons using Tukey tests with alpha levels of .05 reveal significant differences between groups as follows. Offenders of 5- ($\underline{M}$ = 97.78) and 15-year-old ($\underline{M}$ = 95.80) SPs were attributed significantly more responsibility than the offender of a 25-year-old SP ($\underline{M}$ = 79.88). With regards to responsibility attributed to SP's characteristics and SP's behaviour, all three groups differed from each other significantly, with the younger SPs having less responsibility attributed to them. Groups means were as follows for SP characteristics and SP behaviour, respectively: $\underline{M}$ = 4.33 and 9.28 for the 5-year-old SP, $\underline{M}$ = 12.92 and 24.90 for the 15-year-old SP, and $\underline{M}$ = 35.43 and 49.35 for the 25-year-old SP. Within-cell univariate means and standard deviations for responsibility assigned to the offender, SP characteristics and SP behaviour are presented in Table 20.

Another significant multivariate main effect was found for sex of participant. The discriminant function analysis (see Table 21) yielded a canonical correlation of .26, indicating a low association between the linear combination of the dependent variables and the main effect. Structure loadings indicate that the responsibility attributed to the SP behaviour maximally

distinguished between male and female participants, although the responsibility assigned to SP's characteristics and to the offender were also moderately important contributors to the discriminant function. Centroids, given in Table 22, show that male participants attributed more responsibility to SP behaviour and characteristics and less to the offender than did female participants.

4. Endorsement of Male Sex Role (MSR) and Acceptance of Rape Myths (RMA). Cell means and standard deviations for these measures are contained in Table 23. The full factorial MANOVA analysis of MSR and RMA is summarized in Table 24. Significant main effects were found for SP age at incident. The discriminant function analysis for this effect yielded a canonical correlation of .24, indicating a low correspondence between the linear combination of the dependent variables and the main effect. MSR and RMA are both strong contributors to the discriminant function (see Table 25). Centroids, given in Table 26, show that participants are more likely to endorse the male sex role and accept rape myths when the SP is older at the time of the abuse incident. Post hoc pairwise means comparisons with Tukey tests with alpha levels of .05 showed that the 25-year-old SP ($\underline{M}$ = 16.91) received significantly more enforcement of the male sex role than a 5-year-old SP ($\underline{M}$ = 13.74). No significant pairwise differences were found for RMA, suggesting that a more complex comparison may be involved. Within-cell univariate means and standard deviations for MSR and RMA are given in Table 27.

Sex of participant was also a significant main effect that generally indicates that males are more likely to enforce the male sex role ($\underline{M}$ = 17.12) and accept rape myths ($\underline{M}$ = 16.13) than females ($\underline{M}$ = 14.17, $\underline{M}$ = 13.98). However, this finding is qualified by a significant interaction between sex of offender and sex of participant. The results of the discriminant function analysis following up on the interaction effect are presented in Table 28. The discriminant function itself

yielded a canonical correlation of .35, indicating a moderate degree of correspondence between the dependent variables and the main effect. The structure loadings indicate that the discriminant function was composed of RMA, with MSR making a negligible contribution.

A visual inspection of the centroids (shown in Table 29) reveal an interesting pattern for this result. When the sex of participant and the sex of offender matched, RMA was higher than when the sex of participant and the sex of offender did not match. In other words, a female perceiver reading about a female offender or a male perceiver reading about a male offender seemed to be more likely to accept rape myths when applied to the SP, regardless of his age at incident. When a female perceiver read about a male offender or when a male perceiver read about a female offender, they appear to be less likely to accept rape myths. Post hoc pairwise means comparisons with Tukey tests with alpha levels of .05 were conducted on RMA for the interaction effect between participant sex and offender. Results indicate that female participant-female offender group ($\underline{M}$ = 12.42) had significantly lower RMA scores than the two groups with a male participant-female offender ($\underline{M}$ = 17.25) and a female participant-male offender ($\underline{M}$ = 15.54). No difference was found between the male participant-male offender group ($\underline{M}$ = 15.01) and the remaining three groups. Lower RMA scores indicate a lower acceptance of rape myths. Within-cell univariate means and standard deviations for MSR and RMA are given in Table 30.

5. Behavioural Appraisal. In completing this measure, participants answered yes or no as to whether SP should have behaved differently during the incident. Depending on their response, participants then ranked one of two lists of seven behavioural alternatives. Participants who did not complete the measure were excluded from the descriptive analysis. Of the 140 who properly completed the measure by ranking all seven choices, 136 (97.14%) indicated that the SP should

have behaved differently during or after the incident. The three top-ranked items for this group indicated that the participant felt that the SP should have said "no," yelled and fought back more. Only 4 (2.86%) indicated that the SP should not have behaved differently. The group with a female offender and a 5-year-old SP represented 3 of these 4 responses. The three top-ranked items ranked by these participants indicated that the positive outcome of the sexual encounter was that the SP wasn't physically injured, that he did the best he could given the situation, and that the incident was over as quickly as possible. The mean rankings of all choices are presented in Table 31.

Discussion

Previous research on male survivors of sexual abuse indicates that males disclosing such an experience face greater barriers to support than female disclosers. Male survivors' fears of being perceived as unmanly or homosexual fuel a reluctance to tell others about their abuse. Myths about sexual abuse and the male sex role, possibly enforced through homophobic attitudes, seem to perpetuate an apparent unwillingness of many male survivors to seek help that is readily available to other survivors. The present study investigated factors that affect reactions of people to a disclosure of sexual abuse from a male survivor.

Related to sex of participant, hypotheses 1a, and b were supported by the current results. Male, rather than female, participants attributed more responsibility to the survivor's characteristics and behaviour and less to the offender. Male, rather than female, participants also held a less positive attitude toward the survivor and a less punitive attitude toward the offender. These two findings may relate to the tendency for males to make internal, instead of situational, attributions (Huber & Podsakoff, 1985). It would seem that males are more likely to place the consequences of the incident on the survivor, not the offender because the male sex role expects males to be

instrumental, independent and responsible for themselves and to be in control of situations (Thompson, et al., 1985).

Hypotheses 1d was also supported in that males applied the male sex role and rape myths to the male survivor more so than did females. This is not surprising, in light of previous research that shows that males have held on to more traditional attitudes than females (e.g., Stark, 1991). Stark comments that men have been slower to broaden the range of appropriate behaviours for men, possibly because they fear they have more at stake than women when roles change. In contrast, females tend to be more flexible in their acceptance of behaviours for themselves and others (Katz & Ksansnak, 1994) Stark also found that endorsement of traditional sex roles by individuals of both sexes, especially traditional attitudes toward the sex role of one's own sex, is strongly correlated with high homophobia. Past writers have discussed the influence of sex-role beliefs on attributions about sex-typed behaviour and homosexuality. For example, Larsen, Reed and Hoffman (1980) found anti-homosexuality to be related to conservatism, religiosity, authoritarianism, responsiveness to negative peer attitudes, and sex-role rigidity. It must be noted that the current finding is modified by the effect of sex of offender, which will be discussed below with Hypothesis 2d.

Hypothesis 1c which stated that male participants would rate the survivor lower on masculinity and higher on femininity than female participants was not confirmed. Many participants indicated during the session or on the post-experimental questionnaire that they did not feel comfortable rating the survivor on the modified BSRI, saying that they did not have enough information about him. However, this measure did exhibit a significant effect with survivor age at incident, so, despite their discomfort, participants did show some variability in their responses. The

age effect may be due to adults being reluctant to assign sex-role characteristics to a person whose gender identity has yet to develop, as in the case of a 5-year-old boy. Nonetheless, the information that would have helped participants characterize an older survivor in terms of sex-role perceptions was, apparently, lacking from the vignette. Perhaps they wanted to know more about how the survivor reacted to the situation or how he felt about the incident. Future research endeavours might want to address this by including more information about the survivor's reactions and behaviour, possibly with various conditions of passive and active resistance, positive and negative emotional reactions of the survivor to the incident, and poor and skilful coping skills exhibited by the survivor, in the long- and short-term.

Two of the hypotheses relative to the sex of offender (Hypotheses 2a and c) were not corroborated. No effect as a function of sex of offender was found for attributions of responsibility to survivor behaviour, characteristics or to the offender (Hypothesis 2a). As well, there were no differences found for ratings of the survivor's masculinity or femininity (Hypothesis 2c). As mentioned in the previous section, it may be that participants were lacking crucial information to be able to make a distinction between the survivor of a male offender as compared to the survivor of a female offender. Hypothesis 2b was supported as participants had a more positive attitude toward the survivor and a more punitive attitude toward the offender when the offender was male, rather than female. However, this was modified by the age of the survivor at incident and will be discussed with Hypothesis 3b below.

Hypothesis 2d which stated that rape myth acceptance would be higher with a male offender than with a female offender was partially corroborated. Results indicated that this was the case for female respondents but not for male respondents whose reactions were not influenced by the sex of

the offender. Males were found to adhere to rape myths in a general fashion, whereas females tended to consider the sex of the offender in their reactions.

It is not clear why females would apply rape myths differently than males. Perhaps, females are less likely to accept rape myths when the offender is male because the majority of sex offenders are male (Finkelhor & Russell, 1984). Hence, females may have identified and empathized with the survivor. When the offender was female, females may have a more difficult time understanding how a female could have overpowered a male survivor, because females are relative "experts" in the female sex role, which traditionally portrays women as "the weaker sex." Males' more general application of rape myths to the survivor regardless of the sex of the offender can be explained by the male sex role. While it states that males should rebuff other males because of the implications of femininity, it also states that men should be able to rebuff an unwanted female sexual partner because men are supposed to be the sexual aggressors over women and, in the more general context, be in control of women.

Considering survivor age at incident, several hypotheses (3a, b, d) received support. As expected, when the survivor was 5, rather than 25, responsibility assigned to the offender increased and that assigned to survivor behaviour and characteristics was lower (Hypothesis 3a). Also, as predicted in Hypothesis 3d, 5-year-old survivors were less apt to have the male sex role and rape myths applied to them than 25-year-old survivors. Partial support was found for Hypothesis 3c which stated that a 25-year-old survivor would be seen as less masculine and more feminine than a 5-year-old survivor. Twenty-five-year-old survivors were seen as less masculine, but not more feminine. This fits with Bem's construction of the BSRI with two orthogonal scales. Masculinity, according to the male sex role and experimental evidence presented in the introduction, must be

actively demonstrated by behaving in ways that demonstrate to others that the male is "perfectly straight" or the process in which males reward each other for identifying non-masculine behaviour in other males. The lack of masculinity, however, is not automatically the presence of femininity, according to Bem's conceptions of the two concepts.

Hypothesis 3b was borne out in that the survivor was viewed more positively and the offender was viewed more punitively when the survivor was 5, instead of 25. However, this was modified by sex of offender. Results showed that a less positive attitude toward the 25-year-old survivor and a less punitive attitude toward the offender was adopted when the offender was male, rather than female. The pattern, however, was not entirely straightforward. The male and female offenders of 25-year-old survivors received the least punitive response. The male offender of a 5-year-old survivor received the most punitive response, with the offenders of a 15-year-old survivor receiving moderately punitive responses. The intricacy arises in that a female offender of a 5-year-old survivor received ratings comparable to those received by the offenders of 25-year-old survivors.

In other words, the female offender of a very young child received relatively little negative response, although her male counterpart received the harshest response from observers. Possibly, participants did not feel that the act was damaging, when perpetrated by a female, although it was perceived as serious when perpetrated by a male. The potential or expectation of greater physical damage with homosexual assault is, in general, greater. Broussard et al. (1991) found that a homosexual encounter (i.e., male offender-male survivor or female offender-female survivor) was judged to be significantly more harmful than a heterosexual encounter (i.e., male offender-female survivor or female offender-male survivor). In this study, however, the extent of physical damage

committed by a female or male offender could not have varied because the abusive act was held constant across all conditions. It may be extrapolated, then, that participants may be identifying damage to something other than the physical body.

Cases with a female offender also seem to be situations that fail to receive the label of "sexual abuse" from the survivor or from others. There are several plausible explanations for this finding. Firstly, the above finding, in which the female offender of a 5-year-old is regarded with relative impunity, is an example of a situation where the adult female offender has a lesser chance of being labelled as a sex offender, unlike an adult male. It may be that the female offender does not fit the current media image of a "sex offender" or even many people's idea of a "child molester." Finkelhor and Russell (1984) highlight the stereotype of pedophiles as men. Thus, participants may not expect the consequences of sexual abuse from a person they do not identify as a prototypic sex offender. Secondly, the traditional female sex role portrays females as sexually benign. In this vein, the anticipated consequences of an encounter with a female abuser would be classified as minimal and even beneficial to a male.

Thirdly, as previously discussed, many describe a young male's encounter with an older female as a "rite of passage" or as a part of a male's initiation into adulthood. Broussard et al. (1991) found that, with a female offender and a male survivor behaving passively, the survivor was seen as significantly less traumatized than a male survivor who displayed more resistance. The authors speculate that the absence of resistance indicates to many observers that the sexual interaction is an suitable method of sex education for boys. Whether this sort of initiation is appropriate for a 5-year-old child is morally questionable and certainly illegal. Nonetheless, it would appear that participants of the current study may have felt that an act perpetrated by a female

has far less damaging consequences than the same act perpetrated by a male. The implications of a male perpetrator for violation of the male sex role might explain this difference in participant reactions. An early heterosexual experience might be categorized as healthy, or, at least, inconsequential by the male sex role. An early homosexual experience, on the other hand, might be cause for grave concern and yields a much more punitive attitude toward the offender on the part of observers. As previously mentioned, the general aura of potential for physical harm surrounding male homosexual sex acts in general may also contribute to this attitude.

Hypothesis 3e stated that respondents would be more likely to indicate that the survivor should not have behaved any differently by answering negatively to the behavioural appraisal when the survivor was 5-years-old when the abuse occurred. However, only 4 (2.86 percent) of respondents who completed this measure answered negatively, the group with a female offender and a 5-year-old survivor representing 3 of these responses. Considering the visual analogue scale items which assessed the degree of responsibility participants assigned to survivor characteristics, survivor behaviour and the offender, it is possible that respondents interpreted these assignments of responsibility as a measure of blame, as they generally held the offender responsible and not the survivor. Because almost all respondents responded that the survivor should have behaved differently (as indicated by their responses to the behavioural appraisal), it suggests that, while they did not blame the survivor (as shown by the responses to the VAS items), they, perhaps, did feel that, had the survivor behaved differently, he could have prevented the incident. It is in this sense that respondents may have felt the survivor was responsible for the incident's outcome but not for its initiation.

Respondents may also have been indicating that the survivor should have offered more

resistance to the offender, as the four most highly ranked items in the "should have behaved differently" checklist describe resistant behaviours. It is, perhaps, this lack of resistance that made judging the survivor's masculinity and femininity difficult for some respondents, as a few indicated during the sessions and on the post-experimental questionnaires that they didn't know enough about the survivor to feel comfortable assigning masculine or feminine characteristics. The presence or absence of resistance may also be a key to inferring the survivor's sexual orientation, which could affect observers' attitudes about the incident's contributing factors. Future research should investigate the link between level of resistance and inferences of sexual orientation, and test the common notion that sexual abuse increases one's chances of being homosexual.

The presence or lack of resistance also has implications for children. Many young survivors are in situations where they are, essentially, trading sexual favours for attention or gifts from an adult, typically a man. Boys with absent fathers (Pierce & Pierce, 1985) and child prostitutes are described as being at increased risk for this type of circumstance. Hunter (1990a) points out the myth that boys often initiate sexual contact with adults and that these contacts are not detrimental. Despite the appearance of consent or even initiation of a sexual act by the young person, such situations are still harmful and exploitive. However, an observer, lacking the cue of resistance by which to judge responsibility or blame, may be less apt to label such encounters as harmful, especially where material or emotional gains for the survivor are involved. Broussard and Wagner (1988) state that, when the child is perceived as responsible for sexual abuse, it is not viewed as harmful to the survivor. Some offenders interpret the failure to resist as evidence that they were actually being seduced or that their survivor wanted the act to occur.

As it would seem that the lack of overt resistance on the part of the survivor left many

participants unsure of some of their responses, including a resistance condition might help to tease apart the facets of reactions to a male survivor. It is probable that a male survivor who resisted an offender's advances would be perceived differently than an survivor who, like the survivor in the present study, offered passive resistance to the offender.

These findings may all be due to the diminished responsibility of a child. Our society has codified this principle in laws that hold young offenders less responsible for their actions because children, according to this principle, are not as capable as adults of controlling their actions or foreseeing the consequences of their actions. In the situation of an exploited child, the same logic is generally applied by observers, with a few exceptions that were noted above. In general terms, the child is seen "a victim of circumstance" in that children are not expected to have any substantial measure of control of their surroundings. The actor in the situation (here, the offender) is assigned the responsibility for the situation's outcome and is seen more punitively. The young survivor is seen in a more sympathetic light, is under less pressure to conform to the male sex role and observers do not apply rape myths as reasons for the situation's outcome. For example, observers are not compelled to classify the child as homosexual to rationalize why he was a target of abuse. In general terms, disclosure of abuse that occurred when the survivor was 5 years old would receive a more positive response, with the exception of the evidence that the 5-year-old survivor of a female offender may be treated more like someone who had been abused when they were 25.

This study has a few strengths and limitations. Its key strength lies in its experimental testing of the fears of male sexual abuse survivors which have, to date, been documented in an anecdotal fashion. Additionally, it includes a female offender for comparison purposes. Many writers have commented on the lack of discussion of male survivors of sexual abuse in relation to

the discourse on female survivors (e.g., Beitchman, et al., 1992; Ben-David & Silfin, 1993; Violato & Genuis, 1993). Others have also criticised the near silence on the issue of females as sexual offenders (e.g., Sarrel & Masters, 1982). These issues have been addressed by including such conditions in the experimental design. It also acknowledges the experience of men who are sexually assaulted as adults. By labelling these occurrences as abuse, instead of rites of passage, initiation, or the fault of the victim's sexual orientation, hopefully it will educate readers and validate survivors who have, perhaps, felt left out. This study also provides empirical findings that begin to outline the real-life experience of male survivors, the lack of which has also been criticised (Violato & Genuis, 1993).

One of the limitations of this study lies in the low internal consistency of some measures. The ATSP and ATO measures, in particular, had fairly low Cronbach's alphas of .61 and .40, respectively. However, effects were obtained for both of these variables. Another drawback relates to the recruitment procedure of participants in which they were informed that the study was clearly stated as being about men who had experienced abuse. The incident was also referred to as abuse in some of the measures. The effect of having clearly labelled the incident as "abuse" may have made participants more likely to respond to the incident as if it were abusive, even if they would not have classified it as such without such information. This may have predisposed participants to assign more responsibility to the offender and less to the survivor, have a more positive attitude toward the survivor and a more punitive attitude toward the offender, and be less likely to endorse the male sex role and accept rape myths. This upfront manner of describing the content of the study was purposeful. It gave potential participants the opportunity to easily and politely decline if they were upset by the subject matter. The author feels that this may have been the case in at least two

of the initial telephone contacts, based on the character of their responses to an invitation to participate. The consent form also clearly identified the study's topic in order to fulfil ethical obligations for informed consent and to prepare participants for potentially disturbing test materials. On a positive note, it is possible that explicitly referring to the incident as abuse may have increased awareness, as it would seem that similar real-world events are often not so labelled by survivors or those who receive a disclosure of sexual abuse.

Another limitation of the study lies in its analogue methodology which limits the ecological validity of the results. However, this method does lend itself to experimental manipulation of the variables under investigation. Future studies may wish to examine reactions to actual male disclosure of sexual abuse. In a practical sense, this may be difficult to achieve because incidents involving female offenders are less frequent than those involving male offenders, and there may be some ethical issues regarding disclosure to consider as well. Nonetheless, a non-analogue study would provide results that are more easily generalizable to actual disclosure situations.

The results of the current study suggest several possibilities for future research. It would be useful to test a female survivor in similar situation. Other studies have compared male and female survivors, but generally with a male offender in a context of stranger attack or acquaintance rape. The wider span of ages and the inclusion of female offenders have not, to date, been examined with a female survivor. This might provide a better picture of the kinds of reactions male survivors face compared to female survivors, as well as test reactions to female survivors of female offenders. This scenario is being increasingly mentioned in the literature, although empirical findings are lacking.

Comparing reactions to an abused survivor to those received by a non-abused person would

also be of interest. Although difficult to compare in terms of disclosure because the non-abused person has nothing to disclose, it would be possible to present various personal information in the abused condition containing information that the person had been previously sexually abused. Reactions to abused versus non-abused individuals could then be compared. This would help to illuminate just how having been sexually abused changes the interpersonal environments of people who disclose their experience. One study found that people treat children whom they know to be survivors differently and have different expectations for the child's behaviour and achievement (Briggs et al., 1994).

It would be very useful to test observers of different ages and education levels for their reactions to similar materials. The sample used was a university population; most participants were relatively young and more highly educated than the average member of the general population. A more varied sample may have yielded more definite results, in the sense that responses may span a wider range, the range of this sample's scores on some measures being rather narrow. The group used in the present study may have been more sympathetic to the survivor because they may have been exposed to more public education about sexual abuse than older or less educated populations.

It is important that more research be done on the connection between homophobia and the male sex role, although it has been established that people with more traditional sex-role beliefs generally hold more homophobic attitudes. If homophobia is to be held as the mechanism for the enforcement of the male sex role, a correspondence between the two must be demonstrated. A more direct test of attitudes toward homosexuality or a better measure of such attitudes must be developed. Also important to establishing this connection would be comparing the reactions of people with traditional sex-role beliefs to those with egalitarian sex-role beliefs to a male survivor

of sexual abuse apart from the influence of attitudes toward homosexuality.

Conclusion

The overarching objective of the current study was to empirically investigate the factors that influence reactions toward disclosure by male sexual abuse survivors. The response received by male survivors depends on the age of the survivor at the time of the sexual abuse incident, the sex of the person being disclosed to, and the sex of the offender. Disclosure of an incident that occurred when the survivor was much younger receives a more favourable response than an incident involving an older survivor such that a younger survivor is viewed more positively and is seen as less responsible for the incident. It would seem that males are somewhat harsher in their reactions to disclosure by another male as exhibited by holding the survivor more responsible for the abuse incident, having a less positive attitude toward the survivor and a less punitive attitude toward the offender, and being generally more apt to apply rape myths to the survivor. This may be due to their relative familiarity with the male sex role and a tendency to make internal attributions for situational outcomes. Sex of the offender impacts on attitudes toward that offender, and modifies the effect of age at incident and sex of observer. Survivors of female offenders and survivors who are older when the incident occurs, according to the present results, would receive less supportive responses to their disclosure. Generally, the fears expressed by male survivors of sexual abuse that they may be seen as unmasculine should they disclose were not corroborated by the results of this study because the age at which the abuse occurred played a strong role in determining how others respond to the disclosure. Hence, males who survived childhood abuse may not necessarily receive the negative reactions they anticipate from others, particularly from females.

The manner in which male survivors respond to having been sexually abused can have a palpable impact on their recovery from such an experience. Research suggests that survivors who exhibit androgynous behaviour cope better than sex-typed individuals. Eisler and Blalock (1991) state, "that rigid commitment to masculine schemata for the appraisal and coping with life's problems may both produce stress and result in dysfunctional coping patterns in men" (p.45). Sex-typed males are less likely to seek emotional support than androgynous males because support-seeking, especially of emotional as opposed to instrumental support, is incongruent with the male sex role (Ashton & Fuehrer, 1993). Therefore, gender-typed individuals will be less likely to benefit from the documented positive impact of social support on physical health and mental well-being. It follows that a male who permits himself, and is permitted by others, to exhibit non-traditional male behaviour will, according to this evidence, more readily access available services and more readily benefit from intervention and therapy. Permission to behave non-traditionally would include the option to exhibit traditionally feminine traits without incurring depreciatory judgements from the individual himself or from others.

Understanding interpersonal reactions to male sexual abuse survivors is important to facilitating abuse identification and recovery. Society has become more aware of sexual abuse in recent years, but it is clear that this awareness has yet to develop into a supportive response for all survivors. Exploring the social processes underpinning reactions to male survivors, and survivors' reactions to themselves, will, hopefully, pave the way to for open discussion of these issues and relief for those whose lives have been touched by abuse. Helping survivors of sexual abuse requires honest communication and caring. The ostracism and rejection too often faced by survivors of sexual abuse, male and female, only magnifies the impact of the original abuse.

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Table 1

Cell Sizes

SP Age at Incident and Sex of Participant	Sex of Offender		
	Male	Female	Total
5 Years Old			
Male Participant	15	15	30
Female Participant	16	17	33
15 Years Old			
Male Participant	15	15	30
Female Participant	15	14	29
25 Years Old			
Male Participant	14	16	30
Female Participant	17	15	32
Total	92	92	184

Table 2

Pooled Correlations Among Dependent Variables

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Femininity	--	.02	-.27**	-.16**	-.22**	.03	.10	.02	-.05
2. Masculinity		--	-.18*	-.26**	-.26**	-.11	.28**	-.40**	-.32**
3. Male sex role endorsement (MSR)			--	.76**	.45**	.36**	-.24**	.29**	.42**
4. Rape myth acceptance (RMA)				--	.52**	.41**	-.30**	.24**	.39**
5. Attitude to SP					--	.31**	-.45**	.41**	.48**
6. Attitude to offender						--	-.22**	.21**	.29**
7. Responsibility of offender							--	-.54**	-.41**
8. Responsibility of SP characteristics								--	.66**
9. Responsibility of SP behaviour									--

Note: $n = 184$.

*$p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 3

Internal Consistency of Measures

Variable Set and Measure	Cronbach's Alpha
Sex-role Perceptions of SP	
Femininity	.82
Masculinity	.92
Attitudes	
Toward SP	.61
Toward Offender	.40
Endorsement / Acceptance	
of Male Sex Role	.72
of Rape Myths	.71

Note. n = 184.

Table 4

Cell Means (and Standard Deviations) for Sex-role Perceptions of SP (Masculinity and Femininity)

Sex of Offender and Participant	Age at Incident		
	5	15	25
		Femininity	
Male Offender			
Male Participant	4.51 (.67)	4.23 (.60)	4.48 (.63)
Female Participant	4.48 (.62)	4.29 (.53)	4.71 (.74)
Female Offender			
Male Participant	4.52 (.61)	4.39 (.50)	4.26 (.79)
Female Participant	4.16 (.64)	4.54 (.54)	4.28 (.51)
		Masculinity	
Male Offender			
Male Participant	3.74 (1.10)	3.16 (.55)	2.84 (.73)
Female Participant	3.85 (.62)	3.49 (.86)	2.87 (.78)
Female Offender			
Male Participant	3.69 (.73)	3.56 (.79)	2.87 (.61)
Female Participant	3.85 (.74)	3.66 (.74)	2.83 (.64)

Note. n = 184.

Table 5

Summary Table for MANOVA as a Function of Sex of Participant, Sex of Offender, and SP Age at Incident on Sex-role Perceptions of SP (Masculinity and Femininity)

Source	df	F	p	power
Sex of Participant (A)	2	.54	.58	.11
Sex of Offender (B)	2	.79	.46	.17
Age at Incident (C)	4	10.89	<.001	>.99
A x B	2	.39	.68	.15
A x C	4	.83	.50	.27
B x C	4	1.74	.14	.46
A x B x C	4	.30	.88	.12

Note. All F's based on Pillai's criterion. n = 184.

Table 6

Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficients and Structure Loadings for SP Age at Incident on Sex-role Perceptions of SP (Masculinity and Femininity)

Dependent variable	S. D. F. C.[a]	S. L.[b]
Femininity	-.06	-.04
Masculinity	>.99	>.99

Note. n =184.

[a] Standardized discriminant function coefficient. [b] Structure loading.

Table 7

Centroids for SP Age at Incident on Ratings of SP Masculinity

Age at Incident	Centroid Value
5 years	4.59
15 years	4.17
25 years	3.35

Note. Lower discriminant function scores are associated with lower ratings of SP Masculinity.

Table 8

Univariate Means (and Standard Deviations) for SP Age at Incident on Masculinity and Femininity

	Age at Incident		
	5	15	25
Femininity	4.42 (.65)	4.37 (.55)	4.54 (.62)
Masculinity	3.73 (.82)	3.46 (.76)	2.88 (.69)

Note. n = 184.

Table 9

Cell means (and Standard Deviations) for Attitude toward SP and Attitude toward Offender

Sex of Offender and Participant	Age at Incident		
	5	15	25
	Attitude toward SP		
Male Offender			
Male Participant	9.27 (3.39)	8.53 (3.58)	13.86 (3.92)
Female Participant	7.75 (2.35)	8.93 (2.74)	10.88 (4.26)
Female Offender			
Male Participant	9.93 (4.04)	13.13 (3.68)	13.44 (3.95)
Female Participant	8.77 (3.33)	8.00 (2.39)	10.73 (3.11)
	Attitude toward Offender		
Male Offender			
Male Participant	9.27 (2.55)	11.13 (2.85)	14.07 (3.85)
Female Participant	7.50 (1.83)	9.07 (2.66)	9.88 (3.39)
Female Offender			
Male Participant	12.67 (3.44)	11.87 (3.58)	13.63 (3.50)
Female Participant	9.94 (3.01)	9.29 (3.65)	9.53 (3.14)

Note. n = 184.

Table 10

Summary Table for MANOVA as a Function of Sex of Participant, Sex of Offender, and SP Age at Incident on Attitudes toward the SP and Attitudes toward Offender

Source	df	F	p	power
Sex of Participant (A)	2	25.42	<.001	>.99
Sex of Offender (B)	2	3.12	.05	.59
Age at Incident (C)	4	8.82	<.001	>.99
A x B	2	1.32	.27	.20
A x C	4	1.16	.33	.45
B x C	4	2.94	.02	.79
A x B x C	4	1.83	.12	.40

Note. All F's based on Pillai's criterion. n = 184.

Table 11

Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficients and Structure Loadings on Sex of Participant for Attitude toward SP and Attitude toward Offender

Dependent variable	S. D. F. C.[a]	S. L.[b]
Attitude toward SP	.50	.60
Attitude toward Offender	.81	.87

Note. n =184.

[a] Standardized discriminant function coefficient. [b] Structure loading.

Table 12

Centroids for Sex of Participant on Attitude toward SP and Attitude toward Offender

Sex of Participant	Centroid Value
Male Participant	4.73
Female Participant	3.67

Note. Lower discriminant function scores are associated with a more positive attitude toward SP and a more punitive attitude toward the offender.

Table 13

Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficients and Structure Loadings on Significant Interaction Effect Between Sex of Offender and SP Age at Incident on Attitude toward SP and Attitude toward Offender

Dependent variable	S. D. F. C.[a]	S. L.[b]
Attitude toward SP	.06	.18
Attitude toward Offender	.99	>.99

Note. n =184.

[a] Standardized discriminant function coefficient. [b] Structure loading.

Table 14

Centroids for Interaction between SP Age at Incident and Sex of Offender on Attitude toward SP and Attitude toward Offender

Sex of Offender	SP Age at Incident	Centroid Value
Male	25	3.95
Female	25	3.83
Female	5	3.70
Male	15	3.49
Female	15	3.31
Male	5	2.77

Note. Lower discriminant function scores are associated with a more punitive attitude toward the offender.

Table 15

Univariate Means (and Standard Deviations) for Interaction between SP Age at Incident and Sex of Offender on Attitude toward SP and Attitude toward Offender

	Age at Incident		
	5	15	25
	Attitude toward SP		
Male Offender	8.45 (2.77)	8.57 (2.88)	12.21 (4.24)
Female Offender	9.50 (3.57)	10.29 (3.77)	11.64 (3.59)
	Attitude toward Offender		
Male Offender	8.41 (2.41)	10.01 (2.92)	11.90 (4.24)
Female Offender	11.54 (2.94)	10.61 (3.90)	11.57 (3.78)

Note. n = 184.

Table 16

Cell Means (and Standard Deviations) for Attributions of Responsibility for Offender, SP Characteristics and SP Behaviour

Sex of Offender and Participant	Age at Incident		
	5	15	25
		Offender	
Male Offender			
Male Participant	96.27 (4.42)	96.00 (5.31)	75.71 (22.75)
Female Participant	99.31 (1.08)	95.07 (6.34)	82.65 (21.30)
Female Offender			
Male Participant	97.13 (3.98)	94.13 (7.93)	77.88 (19.12)
Female Participant	98.41 (3.08)	98.00 (4.33)	83.27 (15.44)
		SP Characteristics	
Male Offender			
Male Participant	6.00 (10.58)	17.40 (28.72)	45.93 (22.76)
Female Participant	4.06 (9.22)	12.13 (26.25)	36.35 (30.62)
Female Offender			
Male Participant	5.60 (8.42)	13.73 (14.72)	32.63 (26.24)
Female Participant	1.65 (2.98)	8.43 (16.76)	26.80 (29.20)
		SP Behaviour	
Male Offender			
Male Participant	9.47 (11.32)	31.80 (32.90)	59.14 (27.67)
Female Participant	6.88 (10.73)	16.20 (27.55)	44.53 (30.56)
Female Offender			
Male Participant	15.20 (18.48)	29.73 (22.47)	55.13 (29.47)
Female Participant	5.59 (9.49)	21.86 (22.64)	38.60 (27.83)

Note. n = 184.

Table 17

Summary Table for MANOVA as a Function of Sex of Participant, Sex of Offender and SP Age at Incident on Attributions of Responsibility for Offender, SP Characteristics and SP Behaviour

Source	df	F	p	power
Sex of Participant (A)	3	4.02	.01	.83
Sex of Offender (B)	3	1.36	.26	.36
Age at Incident (C)	6	18.59	<.001	>.99
A x B	3	.02	.99	.07
A x C	6	.40	.88	.13
B x C	6	.34	.92	.30
A x B x C	6	.30	.94	.20

Note. All F's based on Pillai's criterion. n = 184.

Table 18

Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficients and Structure Loadings for SP Age at Incident on Attributions of Responsibility to Offender, SP Characteristics and SP Behaviour

Dependent variable	S. D. F. C.[a]	S. L.[b]
Offender	.58	.72
SP Characteristics	-.20	-.69
SP Behaviour	-.59	-.76

Note. n =184.

[a] Standardized discriminant function coefficient. [b] Structure loading.

Table 19

Centroids for SP Age at Incident on Attributions of Responsibility to Offender, SP Characteristics and SP Behaviour

SP Age at Incident	Centroid Value
5 years	4.40
15 years	3.83
25 years	2.26

Note. Lower discriminant function scores are associated with higher responsibility attributed to SP Characteristics and SP Behaviour and lower responsibility attributed to the offender.

Table 20

Univariate Means (and Standard Deviations) for SP Age at Incident on Attributions of Responsibility for Offender, SP Characteristics and SP Behaviour

	Age at Incident		
Responsibility Assigned	5	15	25
Offender	97.23 (5.13)	95.21 (8.33)	80.74 (19.23)
SP Characteristics	4.53 (10.90)	13.09 (22.69)	35.02 (28.24)
SP Behaviour	9.65 (15.85)	26.45 (26.81)	48.46 (29.26)

Note. n = 184.

Table 21

Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficients and Structure Loadings for Sex of Participant on Attributions of Responsibility for Offender, SP Characteristics and SP Behaviour

Dependent variable	S. D. F. C.[a]	S. L.[b]
Offender	-.45	-.52
SP Characteristics	-.13	.49
SP Behaviour	.91	.90

Note. n =184.

[a] Standardized discriminant function coefficient. [b] Structure loading.

Table 22

Centroids for Sex of Participant on Attributions of Responsibility for Offender, SP Characteristics and SP Behaviour

Sex of Participant	Centroid Value
Male Participant	-2.17
Female Participant	-2.69

Note. Lower discriminant function scores are associated with higher responsibility attributed to SP Characteristics and SP Behaviour and lower responsibility attributed to the offender.

Table 23

Cell Means (and Standard Deviations) for Endorsement of Male Sex Role and Acceptance of Rape Myths

	Age at Incident		
Sex of Offender / Sex of Participant	5	15	25
	Endorsement of Male Sex Role		
Male Offender			
Male Participant	14.80 (6.13)	17.40 (5.62)	20.71 (6.23)
Female Participant	14.00 (5.42)	15.20 (7.34)	15.06 (6.31)
Female Offender			
Male Participant	13.93 (5.31)	19.00 (6.87)	16.88 (5.41)
Female Participant	12.24 (3.36)	13.50 (6.22)	15.00 (4.54)
	Acceptance of Rape Myths		
Male Offender			
Male Participant	12.27 (4.59)	15.27 (5.54)	17.50 (5.54)
Female Participant	14.19 (4.59)	16.20 (8.16)	16.24 (7.74)
Female Offender			
Male Participant	14.60 (4.17)	19.27 (6.45)	17.88 (5.83)
Female Participant	12.71 (2.93)	12.14 (4.17)	12.40 (5.22)

Note. n = 184.

Table 24

Summary Table for MANOVA as a Function of Sex of Participant, Sex of Offender, and SP Age at Incident on Endorsement of Male Sex Role and Acceptance of Rape Myths

Source	df	F	p	power
Sex of Participant (A)	2	5.93	<.01	.87
Sex of Offender (B)	2	1.06	.35	.21
Age at Incident (C)	4	2.63	.03	.73
A x B	2	11.84	<.001	.99
A x C	4	.87	.48	.26
B x C	4	.68	.61	.24
A x B x C	4	1.28	.28	.42

Note. All F's based on Pillai's criterion. n = 184.

Table 25

Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficients and Structure Loadings for SP Age at Incident on Endorsement of the Traditional Male Sex Role and Acceptance of Rape Myths

Dependent variable	S. D. F. C.[a]	S. _.[b]
Endorsement of Male Sex Role	.81	.99
Acceptance of Rape Myths	.24	.85

Note. n = 184.

[a] Standardized discriminant function coefficient. [b] Structure loading.

Table 26

Centroids for SP Age at Incident on Endorsement of Male Sex Role and Acceptance of Rape Myths

SP Age at Incident	Centroid Value
5 years	2.49
15 years	2.94
25 years	3.04

Note. Higher discriminant function scores are associated with greater endorsement of the male sex role and acceptance of rape myths.

Table 27

Univariate Means (and Standard Deviations) for SP Age at Incident on Endorsement of Male Sex Role and Acceptance of Rape Myths

	Age at Incident		
	5	15	25
Endorsement of Male Sex Role	13.91 (5.35)	16.36 (6.79)	16.67 (5.71)
Acceptance of Rape Myths	13.51 (4.27)	15.59 (6.69)	15.37 (5.68)

Note. n = 184.

Table 28

Standardized Discriminant Function Coefficients and Structure Loadings for Significant Interaction Effect Between Sex of Participant and Sex of Offender on Endorsement of Male Sex Role and Acceptance of Rape Myths

Dependent variable	S. D. F. C.[a]	S. L.[b]
Endorsement of Male Sex Role	1.51	.02
Acceptance of Rape Myths	-1.54	-.66

Note. n = 184.

[a] Standardized discriminant function coefficient. [b] Structure loading.

Table 29

Centroids for Interaction between Sex of Offender and Sex of Participant on Endorsement of Male Sex Role and Acceptance of Rape Myths

Sex of Offender	Sex of Participant	Centroid Value
Male	Male	-.61
Female	Female	-.70
Male	Female	-1.33
Female	Male	-1.43

Note. Higher discriminant function scores are associated with lower endorsement of the male sex role and acceptance of rape myths.

Table 30

Univariate Means (and Standard Deviations) for Sex of Offender and Sex of Participant on Endorsement of Male Sex Role and Acceptance of Rape Myths

	Sex of Participant	
	Male	Female
	Endorsement of Male Sex Role (MSR)	
Male Offender	17.98 (6.35)	14.43 (5.96)
Female Offender	16.57 (6.24)	13.74 (4.90)
	Acceptance of Rape Myths (RMA)	
Male Offender	15.00 (5.61)	15.11 (6.47)
Female Offender	16.74 (5.50)	12.43 (4.17)

Note. n = 184.

Table 31

Mean Rankings (with Standard Deviations) for Behavioural Appraisal

Initial Response and Behavioural Appraisal	Item Ranking
Yes (n = 136)	
Said "No."	1.18 (.64)
Yelled	3.15 (1.36)
Fought back more	3.43 (1.40)
Told someone	3.79 (1.37)
Called the police	4.61 (1.13)
Got counselling	5.21 (1.21)
Acted more like a man	6.62 (1.22)
No (n = 4)	
Wasn't physically injured	1.75 (.96)
Did the best he could given the situation	2.00 (.82)
It was over as quickly as possible	2.25 (.96)
Dealt with it himself	5.25 (1.26)
Didn't cause a stir in the community	5.25 (.96)
No one else found out	5.50 (1.73)
Didn't get the neighbour in trouble	6.00 (.82)

Note. n = 140.

Appendix A

Vignettes

1. male offender and 5-year-old survivor
2. male offender and 15-year-old survivor
3. male offender and 25-year-old survivor
4. female offender and 5-year-old survivor
5. female offender and 15-year-old survivor
6. female offender and 25-year-old survivor

Below is an account by a 30-year-old man. For the purpose of this research, he will simply be known as "Jim." Please read Jim's account carefully.

Jim is 30 years old. When Jim was 5 years old, he was home alone when the middle-aged man who lived next door came to visit. Jim was sitting on the couch in the living room watching television. The neighbour sat down and they began talking.

The neighbour then told Jim to lie down on the sofa, telling him that he would enjoy this and that it would feel good. Jim was unsure of what he should do, so he did as he was told. The neighbour began petting Jim's body and then slowly undressed him. He then fellated Jim for 15 minutes.

The neighbour then brought Jim his clothes and warned Jim not to tell anyone about what had happened. He said that this game was to remain their secret.

Below is an account by a 30-year-old man. For the purpose of this research, he will simply be known as "Jim." Please read Jim's account carefully.

Jim is 30 years old. When Jim was 15 years old, he was home alone when the middle-aged man who lived next door came to visit. Jim was sitting on the couch in the living room watching television. The neighbour sat down and they began talking.

The neighbour then told Jim to lie down on the sofa, telling him that he would enjoy this and that it would feel good. Jim was unsure of what he should do, so he did as he was told. The neighbour began petting Jim's body and then slowly undressed him. He then fellated Jim for 15 minutes.

The neighbour then brought Jim his clothes and warned Jim not to tell anyone about what had happened. He said that this game was to remain their secret.

Below is an account by a 30-year-old man. For the purpose of this research, he will simply be known as "Jim." Please read Jim's account carefully.

Jim is 30 years old. When Jim was 25 years old, he was home alone when the middle-aged man who lived next door came to visit. Jim was sitting on the couch in the living room watching television. The neighbour sat down and they began talking.

The neighbour then told Jim to lie down on the sofa, telling him that he would enjoy this and that it would feel good. Jim was unsure of what he should do, so he did as he was told. The neighbour began petting Jim's body and then slowly undressed him. He then fellated Jim for 15 minutes.

The neighbour then brought Jim his clothes and warned Jim not to tell anyone about what had happened. He said that this game was to remain their secret.

Below is an account by a 30-year-old man. For the purpose of this research, he will simply be known as "Jim." Please read Jim's account carefully.

Jim is 30 years old. When Jim was 5 years old, he was home alone when the middle-aged woman who lived next door came to visit. Jim was sitting on the couch in the living room watching television. The neighbour sat down and they began talking.

The neighbour then told Jim to lie down on the sofa, telling him that he would enjoy this and that it would feel good. Jim was unsure of what he should do, so he did as he was told. The neighbour began petting Jim's body and then slowly undressed him. She then fellated Jim for 15 minutes.

The neighbour then brought Jim his clothes and warned Jim not to tell anyone about what had happened. She said that this game was to remain their secret.

Below is an account by a 30-year-old man. For the purpose of this research, he will simply be known as "Jim." Please read Jim's account carefully.

Jim is 30 years old. When Jim was 15 years old, he was home alone when the middle-aged woman who lived next door came to visit. Jim was sitting on the couch in the living room watching television. The neighbour sat down and they began talking.

The neighbour then told Jim to lie down on the sofa, telling him that he would enjoy this and that it would feel good. Jim was unsure of what he should do, so he did as he was told. The neighbour began petting Jim's body and then slowly undressed him. She then fellated Jim for 15 minutes.

The neighbour then brought Jim his clothes and warned Jim not to tell anyone about what had happened. She said that this game was to remain their secret.

Below is an account by a 30-year-old man. For the purpose of this research, he will simply be known as "Jim." Please read Jim's account carefully.

Jim is 30 years old. When Jim was 25 years old, he was home alone when the middle-aged woman who lived next door came to visit. Jim was sitting on the couch in the living room watching television. The neighbour sat down and they began talking.

The neighbour then told Jim to lie down on the sofa, telling him that he would enjoy this and that it would feel good. Jim was unsure of what he should do, so he did as he was told. The neighbour began petting Jim's body and then slowly undressed him. She then fellated Jim for 15 minutes.

The neighbour then brought Jim his clothes and warned Jim not to tell anyone about what had happened. She said that this game was to remain their secret.

Appendix B

Post-manipulation Check and Attribution of Responsibility Sheet

Questionnaire A

BOOKLET 1

People with a variety of attitudes, as determined by the pre-screening you participated in, have been invited to this phase of the study. On the next page, you will be reading a short account of an event. Following that, there are a few questionnaires that ask for your thoughts, feelings and opinions. There are instructions accompanying each questionnaire. **Do not look ahead to questions other than the one to which you are responding. Do not go back to a question once you have gone on to the next one.** You may, however, refer back to the account at any time if you need to.

Your participation is voluntary and you can choose to stop at any time without penalty. You are free to abstain from responding to any item you wish, but we would appreciate it if you would answer all the items. **All your responses are confidential and anonymous.** There are no right or wrong answers. We strongly encourage you to answer the questionnaires according to your own personal beliefs, not according to what society says you should believe. This is very important to us.

If you have any questions during the study, raise your hand. Otherwise, please turn the page and begin.

QUESTIONNAIRE A

Instructions: Please consider the account you just read and answer the following questions. You are allowed to check back to the account if you need to.

1. What is the victim's name? _____

2. At what age did the incident occur? _____

3. How old is the victim now? _____

4. Where did the incident occur? _____

5. Who was the perpetrator? _____

6. What was the sex of the perpetrator? _____

7. What did the perpetrator tell the victim at the end of the incident?

_____

8. What amount of responsibility for the event do you assign to each of the following elements? Place a tick at the appropriate point on each line that corresponds to your answer.

(a) **The Neighbour**

not at all responsible _____ totally responsible

(b) **Jim's Characteristics** (Who he was or how he appeared)

not at all responsible _____ totally responsible

(c) **Jim's Behaviour** (What he did or did not do)

not at all responsible _____ totally responsible

PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.
DO NOT RETURN TO THIS PAGE ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED IT.

Appendix C

Behavioural Appraisal

Questionnaire B

QUESTIONNAIRE B

Is there anything that Jim should have done differently? Please circle either yes OR no, and complete that side only.

YES

If yes, what should Jim have done differently? (Rank order these choices.)

Said "No." _____

Yelled _____

Fought back more _____

Called the police _____

Got counselling _____

Told someone _____

Acted more like a man _____

Other (specify) _____

_____

Other (specify) _____

_____

NO

If no, what was good about how Jim acted? (Rank order these choices.)

Wasn't physically injured _____

No one else found out _____

Didn't get the neighbour in trouble _____

It was over as quickly as possible _____

Dealt with it himself _____

Didn't cause a stir in the community _____

Did the best he could given the situation _____

Other (specify) _____

_____

Other (specify) _____

_____

PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.
DO NOT RETURN TO THIS PAGE ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED IT.

Appendix D

Attitude Toward SP and Attitude Toward Offender Questionnaire

Questionnaire C

1. male offender
2. female offender

QUESTIONNAIRE C

*Instructions: Please rate the following statements using the scale provided below. We are not interested in what society says about these items, only how **you**, personally, respond to them. There are no right or wrong answers.*

1	2	3	4	5	6
strongly disagree					**strongly agree**

_____ 1. I believe that Jim is telling the truth about what happened.

_____ 2. This experience was sexually pleasurable for Jim.

_____ 3. Jim was traumatized as a result of this experience.

_____ 4. The neighbour deserves to go to jail for what he did to Jim.

_____ 5. Overall, I am willing to accept Jim and his past.

_____ 6. It's not hard to respect Jim after knowing he is a victim of sexual abuse.

_____ 7. The neighbour is gay because he sexually abused Jim.

_____ 8. The neighbour committed this act because he wanted to be sexually gratified.

_____ 9. The neighbour is just trying to introduce him to the homosexual lifestyle.

PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.
DO NOT RETURN TO THIS PAGE ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED IT.

QUESTIONNAIRE C

*Instructions: Please rate the following statements using the scale provided below. We are not interested in what society says about these items, only how **you**, personally, respond to them. There are no right or wrong answers.*

1	2	3	4	5	6
strongly disagree					**strongly agree**

_____ 1. I believe that Jim is telling the truth about what happened.

_____ 2. This experience was sexually pleasurable for Jim.

_____ 3. Jim was traumatized as a result of this experience.

_____ 4. The neighbour deserves to go to jail for what she did to Jim.

_____ 5. Overall, I am willing to accept Jim and his past.

_____ 6. It's not hard to respect Jim after knowing he is a victim of sexual abuse.

_____ 7. Men who sexually assault other males are gay.

_____ 8. The neighbour committed this act because she wanted to be sexually gratified.

_____ 9. A man who sexually abuses another man is just trying to introduce him to the homosexual lifestyle.

PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.
DO NOT RETURN TO THIS PAGE ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED IT.

Appendix E

Sex-role Perceptions of SP Questionnaire

Questionnaire D

QUESTIONNAIRE D

Instructions: Below you will find listed a number of personality characteristics. We would like you to use these characteristics to describe Jim, the person in the account you read. That is, we would like you to indicate, on a scale of 1 to 7, how true of Jim each of these characteristics is. Please do not leave any characteristic unmarked.

1 Never or almost never true **2 Usually not true** **3 Sometimes infrequently true** **4 Occasionally true** **5 Often true** **6 Usually true** **7 Always or almost always true**

Defends his own beliefs	_____	Adaptable	_____	Flatterable
Affectionate	_____	Dominant	_____	Theatrical
Conscientious	_____	Tender	_____	Self-sufficient
Independent	_____	Conceited	_____	Loyal
Sympathetic	_____	Willing to take a stand	_____	Happy
Moody	_____	Loves children	_____	Individualistic
Assertive	_____	Tactful	_____	Soft-spoken
Sensitive to the needs of others	_____	Aggressive	_____	Unpredictable
Reliable	_____	Gentle	_____	Masculine
Strong personality	_____	Conventional	_____	Gullible
Understanding	_____	Self-reliant	_____	Solemn
Jealous	_____	Yielding	_____	Competitive
Forceful	_____	Helpful	_____	Childlike
Compassionate	_____	Athletic	_____	Likable
Truthful	_____	Cheerful	_____	Ambitious
Has leadership abilities	_____	Unsystematic	_____	Does not use harsh language
Eager to soothe hurt feelings	_____	Analytical	_____	Sincere
Secretive	_____	Shy	_____	Acts as a leader
Willing to take risks	_____	Inefficient	_____	Feminine
Warm	_____	Makes decisions easily	_____	Friendly

PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.
DO NOT RETURN TO THIS PAGE ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED IT.

Appendix F

Endorsement of Male Sex Role and Acceptance of Rape Myths Questionnaire

Questionnaire E

1. male offender
2. female offender

QUESTIONNAIRE E

*Instructions: This questionnaire asks you for your own beliefs about sexual abuse. Please rate the following statements using the scale provided below. We are **NOT** interested in what society says about these items, only how **YOU**, personally, respond to them. We ask for your honest answers. All your responses will be kept confidential and anonymous. What you personally believe may or may not reflect what you think are societal attitudes. That's not a problem.*

	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
1. It will be better for everyone if Jim keeps this information about the abuse to himself.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
3. Jim reacting passively to being sexually abused by the neighbour means that Jim is gay.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
5. Nothing that a girl or woman can do to a boy or man sexually is harmful.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
7. It is impossible for a man to be sexually assaulted by a woman because a man can't get an erection if he doesn't want to.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
9. Jim shouldn't be expected to have protected himself just by virtue of being male.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
11. Jim should be able to seek help from others in dealing with a problem like the aftereffects of sexual abuse.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
13. If Jim fit the model of the "strong silent type," he would be better able to handle a situation like this than if he sought help from others.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
15. It is hard to believe that this could happen to Jim because he wouldn't let it happen if he really didn't want it to.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

QUESTIONNAIRE E

*Instructions: This questionnaire asks you for your own beliefs about sexual abuse. Please rate the following statements using the scale provided below. We are **NOT** interested in what society says about these items, only how **YOU**, personally, respond to them. We ask for your honest answers. All your responses will be kept confidential and anonymous. What you personally believe may or may not reflect what you think are societal attitudes. That's not a problem.*

	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree
1. It will be better for everyone if Jim keeps this information about the abuse to himself.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
3. If a male reacts passively to being sexually abused by another man, it means he is gay.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
5. Nothing that the neighbour could do to Jim sexually would be harmful.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
7. It is impossible for a man to be sexually assaulted by the female neighbour because he wouldn't get an erection if he didn't want to.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
9. Jim shouldn't be expected to have protected himself just by virtue of being male.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
11. Jim should be able to seek help from others in dealing with a problem like the aftereffects of sexual abuse.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
13. If Jim fit the model of the "strong silent type," he would be better able to handle a situation like this than if he sought help from others.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
15. It is hard to believe that this could happen to Jim because he wouldn't let it happen if he really didn't want it to.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

Appendix G

Post-experimental Check

Questionnaire F

BOOKLET 2

On the next few pages are questions about this study. Many are designed to ensure that you have correctly understood the instructions. Others are designed to help us understand your thoughts and feelings during the experiment. Your answers will help us to interpret the results of this study. Please turn the pages one at a time.

Do not look ahead to questions other than the one to which you are responding. Do not go back to a question once you have gone on to the next one.

Please begin.

QUESTIONNAIRE F

1. What do you think is the purpose of this study?

PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.
DO NOT RETURN TO THIS PAGE ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED IT.

2. Have you ever read an account like the one you read in this study? (Circle one.)

YES **NO**

If yes, where have you read it?

If yes, what was it for?

PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.
DO NOT RETURN TO THIS PAGE ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED IT.

3. Why do you think you were asked to read this account in particular?

At what point in this study did you come to this conclusion?

PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.
DO NOT RETURN TO THIS PAGE ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED IT.

4. Why do you think you were asked to use the line scales to assign portions of responsibility in Questionnaire A?

Here is an example of this type of item:

In Jim's account how responsible for the event's occurrence was the following:

The Neighbour

not at all responsible _____ totally responsible

At what point in this study did you come to this conclusion?

PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.
DO NOT RETURN TO THIS PAGE ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED IT.

5. In Questionnaire B, why do you think you were asked whether there was anything else Jim should have done?

Here is an example of this type of item:

Is there anything that Jim should have done differently? Circle one only.

YES **NO**

If yes, what should Jim have done differently? (Rank order these choices.)

If no, what was good about how Jim acted? (Rank order these choices.)

At what point in this study did you come to this conclusion?

PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.
DO NOT RETURN TO THIS PAGE ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED IT.

6. In Questionnaire D, why do you think you were asked to complete the questionnaire with the list of adjectives about the person in the account?

Here is an example of this type of item:

Defends his own beliefs _____
Rated 1 to 7 from never or almost never true to always or almost always true.

At what point in this study did you come to this conclusion?

PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.
DO NOT RETURN TO THIS PAGE ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED IT.

7. Why do you think you were asked to rate the list of statements in Questionnaires C and E?

Here is an example of this type of item:

1	2	3	4	5	6
strongly disagree					**strongly agree**

_____ 6. Jim is as psychologically affected in the short and long-term as a female victim.

At what point in this study did you come to this conclusion?

PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.
DO NOT RETURN TO THIS PAGE ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED IT.

8. Did it ever occur to you that you were not given a complete description of this study?

YES **NO**

If yes, what information did you think was not provided to you?

If yes, when during the study did these suspicions occur to you?

If yes, how sure are you of your suspicions? Please circle the number on the scale that best fits your answer.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
very sure						**not sure at all**

PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.
DO NOT RETURN TO THIS PAGE ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED IT.

9. Have you ever heard or read a study of this sort?

YES **NO**

If yes, what have you heard or read?

PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.
DO NOT RETURN TO THIS PAGE ONCE YOU HAVE COMPLETED IT.

10. If you have any comments or concerns about this study, please write them below.

PLEASE TURN THIS BOOKLET OVER WHEN YOU ARE DONE AND AWAIT FURTHER INSTRUCTIONS.

Appendix H

Description of Main Study

Description of Main Study

Are you all here for the MSR Project? Thank you for coming today. The session should last about an hour. As I explained to you on the phone, how people react to men who have experienced abuse. You will be reading a short account of a sexual abuse incident and then answering a series of questionnaires about what you have read. There are no right or wrong answers. We want your own honest reactions. Please read all materials carefully. If you are an Introductory Psychology student, you will receive one bonus credit for participating in this session. Your answers will be confidential and anonymous. Only me and my supervisor, Dr. Tan, will have access to this information and nothing can be traced back to you. You may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

Before we begin, I will ask you to look at the consent form in front of you. Please read it now. Does anyone have questions about the form? If you agree with what we just went through, please sign the form to indicate your willingness to participate.

Now look at the booklet I have just handed out. Each questionnaire has brief instructions that I would like you to read carefully. You will also notice that on the bottom of each page, there are instructions as to how to proceed. When you have completed this booklet, please turn it over. If you have a question during the session, please raise your hand. Please begin.

Appendix I

Consent Form

CONSENT FORM

1. The title of this research is the MSR Project.

2. I, _____, consent to take part in this study which will examine my thoughts and feelings after reading a description of a person who has experienced sexual abuse. The purpose of this study is to learn how people respond to a person who discloses having been a victim of sexual abuse. I will be asked to read an account and answer various questions about the person in the account and about some of my opinions.

3. I understand that all of my responses will be anonymous and confidential. Only the researcher, Tanya Spencer, and the project supervisor, Dr. Josephine Tan, will have access to my responses. Nothing can be traced back to me. I am free to discontinue my participation at any time and for any reason, without explanation or penalty.

4. If I am in Introductory Psychology, I will receive one bonus point toward my course mark in return for my participation.

I have read the above description of the study and wish to participate in it. I understand that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty or explanation, even after signing this form.

_____ _____

(Signed) (Date)

_____

(Witness)

Appendix J

Debriefing

DEBRIEFING

Before you go, I would like to give you some more information about the study and give you the opportunity to ask any questions you may have.

Previous research indicates that what people believe is appropriate behaviour for men and women can affect the reactions they have to other people. People also have expectations about how a victim should act. Male victims of sexual abuse often fear that others will think that they are less manly or homosexual because of their abuse experience. Until now, no studies have been done to check whether this is how others really perceive them.

This experiment was designed to evaluate people's reactions to a male victim of sexual abuse. This will show if victims really are pressured to be masculine by others. In the pre-screening, you were assessed for your "sex-role beliefs," or how you believe men and women should act. A person with traditional sex-role beliefs thinks that men should be masculine and that women should be feminine in how they act and what they do. A person with egalitarian sex-role beliefs finds it acceptable for men and women to display either masculine or feminine traits. We selected participants who held a broad range of sex-role beliefs.

The account you read was fictitious and different versions feature male victims of different ages (5, 15, and 25 years old) and an offender who was either male or female. Reactions may also vary according to the age of the victim and the sex of the offender. The study's main hypothesis is that people who are hold more traditional sex-role beliefs will treat a male victim differently than people who are more egalitarian. Do you have any questions?

Finally, we would appreciate it if you would not talk about the content of this study to anyone. Others who participate after they have heard about it may have preconceived ideas about how they should answer. If word gets out, the whole study would be ruined and we would have to start from scratch. Thank you for your participation in the study. If you would like a copy of the results of this study, please fill out a mailing label.

Appendix K

Take-home Information Sheet

TAKE-HOME SHEET

The academic literature has revealed some important facts related to this study that we would like to share with you:

1. In Canada, it has been estimated that a third of males and half of females have been victims of sexual abuse at some time in their lives (Badgley, 1984).
2. Men and boys do not become homosexual just because they have been victimized by another man (Dimock, 1988).
3. A man can be raped by a man or a woman. Many people believe that they can't, especially by a woman. However, the sexual response is mediated through the spinal cord and can function independently of the brain (Sarrel and Masters, 1982).
4. A male of any age is not "lucky" when someone makes him participate in sex.
5. Research shows that most offenders are heterosexual men who abuse both boys and girls (Hunter, 1990). They are motivated by a need to feel powerful and in control, not by a desire to have sex (Jones, 1992).
6. Less than half of male sex offenders have been sexually abused themselves (Langevin, 1989). A victim of sexual abuse does not automatically go on to abuse others (Hunter, 1990).

References:

Badgley, R. F. (1984). Sexual offences against children: Report of the committee on sexual offences against children and youths. Vol.1. Ottawa: Minister of Supply and Services Canada.

Dimock, P. T. (1988). Adult males sexually abused as children: Characteristics and implications for treatment. Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 3, 203-221.

Hunter, M. (1990). Abused boys: The neglected victims of sexual abuse. New York: Fawcett Columbine.

Jones, I. H. (1992). Cultural and historical aspects of male sexual assault. In Mezey, G.C., & King, M. B. (Eds.). (1992). Male victims of sexual assault. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Langevin, R., Wright, P., & Handy, L. (1989). Characteristics of sex offenders who were sexually victimized as children. Annals of Sex Research, 2, 227-253.

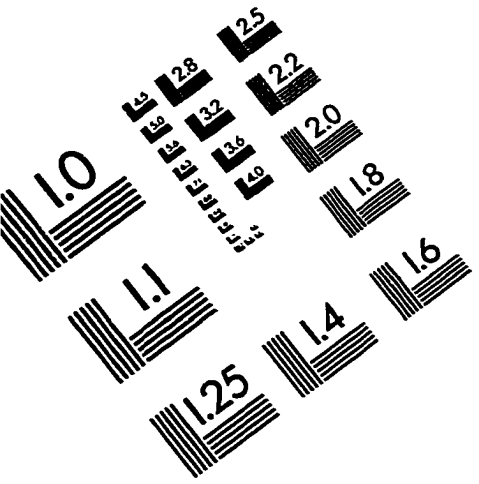
Sarrel, P. M., & Masters, W. H. (1982). Sexual molestation of men by women. Archives of Sexual Behavior, 11, 117-131.

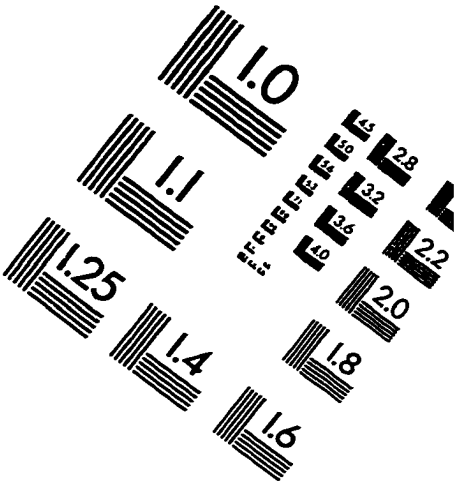
We want to increase awareness in the community that sources of assistance are available locally. Here is a list of agencies in Thunder Bay that can provide information or assistance to victims of sexual abuse and assault.

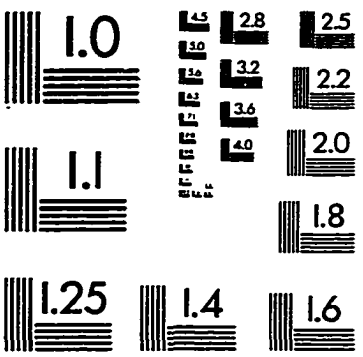
Catholic Family Development Centre, 36 Banning St 345-7323
Cumberland Counselling Centre, RR 13, 815 Lakeshore Drive 683-3535
Thunder Bay Family & Credit Counselling Agency, 411 E. Donald St 623-9596
Lakehead Psychiatric Hospital, 580 N. Algoma St 343-4300
Crisis & Admitting 343-4392
Gender Issues Centre, Student Centre 0019, Lakehead University 343-8110
Monday to Friday, 8:30 a.m. to 4:30 p.m.
St. Joseph's General Hospital, 35 N. Algoma St. 343-2431
Psychology Department 343-2420
Thunder Bay Physical & Sexual Assault Crisis Centre, 385 Mooney St 344-4502
Crisis lines open 24 Hours 345-0062

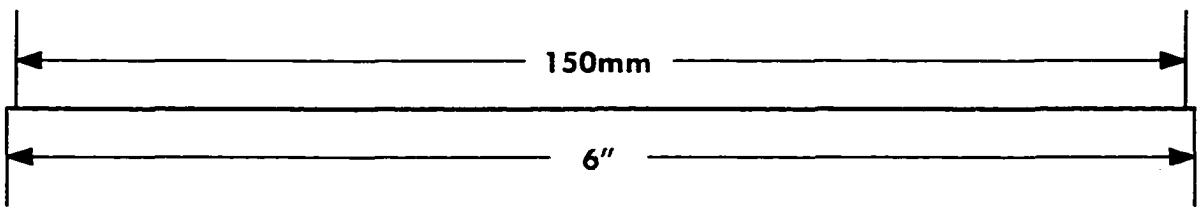
Thank you for your participation. Your responses will help answer some very important questions. If you have any questions regarding this study, please contact Tanya Spencer at 343-8476 or Dr. Josephine Tan at 346-7751.

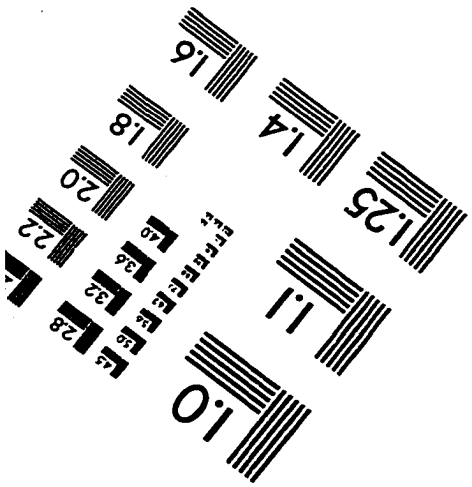
IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)

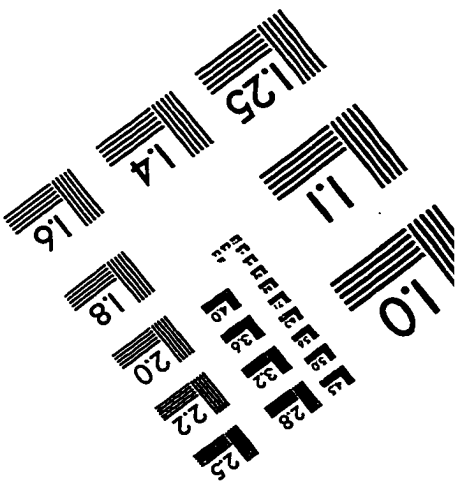












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