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A Path Analysis of Racially Diverse Men's Sexual Victimization, Risk-Taking, and Attitudes

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Nationally, 1 in 6 men report some form of sexual victimization in his lifetime, and rates differ across racial and ethnic groups. Although research has explored the relations between sexual victimization, sexual risk behavior, and sexual attitudes among women, a dearth of literature investigates these relationships among men. Using structural equation modeling among 284 racially diverse young men, this cross-sectional study tested the mediating role of sexual risk-taking behavior on sexual victimization and attitudes about sex. Two models were tested, one to explore general attitudes toward women and the other to explore racially stereotyped attitudes toward women. The general model was a good fit of the data and showed full mediation for White men and Men of Color. The racially stereotyped mediation model fit the data for Men of Color but not White men. Implications for counseling and future research are discussed.

Keywords: sexual assault, men's victimization, structural equation modeling, sexual risk-taking

Increasingly, research is acknowledging sexual assault against men. Nationally, one in six men report sexual victimization (i.e., rape, being made to penetrate someone else, sexual coercion, and unwanted sexual contact) in his lifetime (Smith et al., 2017). Rates also differ across racial and ethnic groups, in order of highest to lowest: American Indian, Multiracial, Black, Latino, White, and Asian or Pacific Islander (Smith et al., 2017). These prevalence rates may be underestimates given the stigma of sexual victimization particularly among men, which includes the fear of being perceived as gay, the desire to be self-reliant, and the loss of independence after disclosure (Chapleau, Oswald, & Russell, 2008; Finkelhor, 1984; Holmes & Slap, 1998; Struckman-Johnson, 1988).

Research has shown that men who have been sexually victimized show greater risk behaviors (Breiding, Black, & Ryan, 2008; Ellickson, Collins, Bogart, Klein, & Taylor, 2005; Larimer, Lydum, Anderson, & Turner, 1999; Turchik, 2012) and that greater sexual risk relates to traditional gender and sexual attitudes among men (Santana, Raj, Decker, La Marche, & Silverman, 2006). Thus, particularly for heterosexual men, men's attitudes and their sexual behavior toward women may be influenced by their experience of sexual victimization. Although research among women has shown a relationship between sexual assault, sexual risk behaviors, and sexual attitudes, fewer studies have examined these relationships among men. Studies that do explore men's sexual attitudes and risk behavior have been in relation to their perpetration of sexual violence rather than their experience as victims of sexual violence (Hines, 2007). This study aims to add to the literature by investigating the role that sexual assault plays on men's sexual behavior and attitudes toward women through the use of structural equation modeling (SEM). We are interested in understanding the potential sequelae of men's sexual victimization and are not implying that men's sexual behaviors or attitudes are responsible for their victimization. This research was a secondary data analysis of an existing data set, previously published in Psychology of Men and Masculinity (French, Bi, Latimore, Klemp, & Butler, 2014).

We begin by grounding the literature in sexual script theory to explore the relationships between sexual risk-taking and sexual victimization. We integrate dynamics of gender and power in the review of literature on sexual attitudes and the role of sexual risk behavior to sexual violence. Finally, we consider racial and cultural mechanisms in these constructs that might aid in our understanding of racial disparities in victimization rates. In this article,

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Data from this article are part of a large-scale study on sexual coercion, some of which were presented in other published manuscripts. These include a factor analysis study with women and men published in 2017 in *Journal of Sex Research,* a descriptive study of the sexual coercion experiences of men published in *Psychology of Men and Masculinity* in 2015, and a latent class analysis study of women and men published in *Journal of Interpersonal Violence* in 2015. The structural equation modeling ideas and results from this article were not presented elsewhere in a conference presentation nor publication.

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we discuss and operationalize sexual victimization as the experience of being sexually victimized through the use of manipulation (often referred to in the literature as sexual coercion), substance use, seduction, and physical force.

The Role of Power in Sexual Scripts and Sexual Risk Behaviors

Sexual scripts, or social roles that are influenced by gendered and developmental norms to engage in relationships and sexual behavior (Simon & Gagnon, 1969, 1986), play an important role in understanding sexual behavior and attitudes. Traditional sexual attitudes are rooted in traditional sexual scripts and include the notion that men are sex driven and women's value rests in their sexual attractiveness. Essentially, sexual scripts serve as loose social guidelines informing what is considered "normal" for sexual encounters. Dominant sexual scripts are heteronormative in that men are encouraged to be sexually assertive and sexually experienced with women, whereas women are encouraged to be sexually passive with men (Simon & Gagnon, 1969).

Many of these traditional scripts reveal the power differential within heterosexual relationships and sexual victimization, such that men often hold more power than women. Feminist scholars believe the act of men's rape against women is not an act of insatiable male lust, but an act of male dominance and control to keep women in a state of fear (Brownmiller, 1975). Greater acceptance of negative and hostile beliefs toward women and a belief in male dominance are all associated with male sexual aggression (Murnen, Wright, & Kaluzny, 2002), and women have less power than men in societies with higher rates of rape (Sanday, 1981). Furthermore, these scripts can act as a disguise or justification for perpetration of sexual victimization by men (Gavey & Senn, 2014).

This power imbalance interacts with traditional scripts to influence sexual risk-taking, which manifests differently between men and women. Men might be pressured to engage in heterosexual intercourse due to hegemonic masculine sexual scripts, whereas women might be pressured to abstain from sex. For example, women are more likely to perceive sexual behavior (Bell, O'Neal, Feng, & Schoenrock, 1999) and casual sex (Baranowski & Hecht, 2015) as risky, and casual sex is seen as riskier for women, due to social stigma and the potential for physical danger (Rudman, Fetterolf, & Sanchez, 2013). Women are expected to be sexually submissive (Blanc, 2001; Gavey & Senn, 2014; Simon & Gagnon, 1969), often preventing autonomous decision-making. For example, women are at increased HIV risk partly due to men's decision-making power, and are at a disadvantage in negotiating contraceptive use (Amaro, Raj, & Reed, 2001). Furthermore, perceived personal control and self-efficacy in sexual negotiation is more closely related to the use of condoms in adolescent females than males (Pearson, 2006). Thus, it is important to note that women's sexual risk-taking may be due to their inability to prevent the risk-taking behavior. Research has consistently documented the relationship between sexual victimization and sexual risk-taking among women (Biglan, Noell, Ochs, Smolkowski, & Metzler, 1995; Blythe, Fortenberry, Temkit, Tu, & Orr, 2006; Wyatt et al., 2002).

Men's sexual risk-taking also reflects this power imbalance and traditional sexual scripts. Men have more sexual partners than women (Murphy, Rotheram-Borus, & Reid, 1998; Poppen, 1995; Santelli, Lowry, Brener, & Robin, 2000), and they are more likely to have sexual intercourse earlier in their teen years (Abma & Martinez, 2017). Furthermore, the extent of individual adherence to traditional scripts and sexual attitudes is directly related to sexual risk-taking. Shearer, Hosterman, Gillen, and Lefkowitz (2005) found that college men who endorsed traditional masculine ideologies, specifically that men should not behave femininely, were less likely to use condoms. Moreover, participants who believed that men should strive for a high status were more likely to have casual sex. Men with more traditional ideologies, such as male toughness, male hypersexuality, and antifemininity, were more likely to have unprotected vaginal sex (Santana et al., 2006). In a more recent study, Lefkowitz, Shearer, Gillen, and Espinosa-Hernandez (2014) found that men who endorsed sexual double standards (i.e., that men should be allowed more sexual freedom than women) reported a greater number of sexual partners. This double standard is often socially enforced; Kreager, Staff, Gauthier, Lefkowitz, and Feinberg (2016) found that female adolescents experience a decline in peer acceptance after sexual intercourse, whereas males experience an increase.

Sexual Risk Mediating Sexual Attitudes and Sexual Victimization

Few studies have explored the association between sexual attitudes and victimized men, as sexual violence research with men typically explores their perpetration. For example, men with adversarial attitudes toward women are more likely to hold rape myths (e.g., women dressing provocatively are asking to be sexually assaulted), and adhering to these myths is a predictor of sexual and domestic violence perpetration (Ybarra & Mitchell, 2013). Research exploring the relationship between sexual violence and sexual attitudes is more common among victimized women. In one path analysis study, Rinehart, Yeater, Musci, Letourneau, and Lenberg (2014) found that women who were sexually abused as children were more likely to be sexually assaulted as adults if they had more lifetime sexual partners and positive attitudes toward casual sex. Severe sexual victimization was greater for White women than for Latina women, and this relationship was fully mediated by more permissive sexual attitudes. In another study of college women, the relationship between childhood sexual abuse and risky sexual behavior was partially explained by permissive sexual attitudes and adult sexual assault (Randolph & Mosack, 2006). These scholars suggested that women with involuntary sexual experiences in childhood and adolescence may have been socialized to view involuntary sex as typical and acceptable, thus influencing their likelihood to engage in sexually risky behavior.

We found few notable exceptions to the dearth in the literature on the relationship between sexual attitudes and men's victimization or sexual risk-taking. Torres et al. (2012) found that men with high adversarial sexual beliefs (i.e., the assumption that sexual relationships are exploitive in nature) were more likely to experience physical aggression from dating partners. Men with higher adversarial sexual beliefs also reported greater psychological abuse; interestingly this relationship was not found for women. This study focused on psychological and physical aggression and did not explore sexual victimization. Torres et al. (2012) posited

that men who assume relationships are exploitive and adversarial may normalize and tolerate abuse in relationships. In a vignette study assessing hostile and benevolent sexism, college men were more likely to hold hostile sexist evaluations of women who were depicted as promiscuous versus those who were depicted as chaste (Sibley & Wilson, 2004). An interaction effect was found in which this relationship was stronger among men with high sexual self-schemas. The authors suggested that women who defy traditional gender roles may experience more hostile attitudes and that sexually schematic men are more likely to categorize women based on hostile sexist evaluations (Sibley & Wilson, 2004).

In Turchik's (2012) study, men who experienced unwanted sexual contact, sexual coercion, and/or rape showed significantly higher reports of sexual risk-taking with uncommitted partners, impulsive sexual behaviors, and intent to engage in risky sex. Men who have been sexually victimized by women have significantly more lifetime sexual partners than men who have not been victimized (Cook, Morisky, Williams, Ford, & Gee, 2016). Scholars have suggested that sexual assault victims are more likely to engage in sexual behavior to regulate affect, which can in turn relate to more sexual partners and thus greater risk for sexually transmitted infection (STI; Littleton, Grills, & Drum, 2014). Although research has established the respective relationships between sexual risk-taking and both sexual attitudes and sexual victimization, what is less known is how these variables work together and inform one another. Understanding potential mediators of sexual victimization and subsequent sequelae is an important step in prevention and intervention research.

Taking these findings together, it is possible that the relationship between victimization and adversarial attitudes is partially explained by sexual risk-taking. Men who are sexually victimized engage in greater sexual risk-taking (e.g., promiscuity and low condom usage), perhaps to regulate affect as previous studies with women have found (Littleton et al., 2014), and these experiences of victimization and sexual promiscuity in turn reinforce attitudes that relationships are exploitive in nature. Exploring the impact that sexual victimization has on men's attitudes toward relationships, and potential paths explaining this relationship, is important for understanding mechanisms that impede healthy, respectful interpersonal relationships between men and women. Reporting these findings is not to suggest that people with permissive or adversarial attitudes are responsible for their victimization, but that these attitudinal factors may influence the likelihood of victimization and thus offer important information for prevention (Hamby & Grych, 2016). Interestingly, the relationship between physical dating victimization and adversarial sexual beliefs was stronger for Men of Color, though the authors did not include plausible explanations for this finding (Torres et al., 2012). We explore potential reasons for racial differences in the following text.

Racialized Sexual Stereotypes

Sexuality is culturally embedded, and attitudes differ across racial and ethnic groups, due to interconnecting sociopolitical and historical factors. In the United States, Black men and women have historically been stereotyped as hypersexual and deviant, dating back to the transatlantic slave trade and persisting throughout history (Collins, 2005). Latina/o/x men and women are often depicted in the media as sexual and seductive (Keller, 1994), with men often characterized by the cultural value of *machismo* and stereotyped as being hypermasculine and sexually aggressive (DeSouza, Baldwin, Koller, & Narvaz, 2004). East Asian women are often fetishized as being sexually submissive and exotic, whereas East Asian men are stereotyped as effeminate, less masculine, and sexually undesirable (Chou, 2012). These stereotypes are relevant today, as several hundred undergraduate students described common stereotypes of African Americans as hypersexual or promiscuous, Latina/os as sexy or promiscuous, and Asian American men as effeminate and women as submissive (Ghavami & Peplau, 2012). Some studies have suggested internalization of these ideologies as it relates to ethnic and racial identity. A study of community adolescent and adult men showed those with greater ethnic belonging reported higher endorsement of traditional masculinity, including status, antifemininity, and toughness (Abreu, Goodyear, Campos, & Newcomb, 2000). Latinos endorsed higher scores on traditional masculinity than African American or European American men in this study.

Such racially and culturally embedded sexual ideologies have been found to associate with sexual behavior and victimization. In Bryant-Davis, Chung, Tillman, and Belcourt's (2009) review, they cite several factors that impact the sexual assault experiences for Women of Color, including intersections of sexism and racism. A focus group study with 41 Black men found explicit and implicit racialized masculine ideologies encouraging heterosexual promiscuity, constant acceptance of sexual advances, and lack of condom responsibility (Bowleg et al., 2011). Neville, Heppner, Oh, Spanierman, and Clark (2004) found that Black women rape survivors were more likely than their White counterparts to endorse the stereotype of the Jezebel (i.e., historical image of Black women as sexually promiscuous, always desirous of sex, and thus incapable of being raped) in understanding why they were raped. This belief, in turn, mediated the relation between sexual assault and self-esteem. To our knowledge, research has yet to explore the relation between racialized sexual attitudes among men, which could offer important sociocultural attitudinal explanations for the overrepresentation of Men of Color in STI (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2017) and sexual victimization (Smith et al., 2017).

Rationale and Purpose

Research on the sexual assault of men is limited, with few studies exploring nuanced relationships between victimization, psychosocial sequelae, and attitudes. Findings have consistently documented the relationship between sexual victimization and sexual risk-taking, and studies are beginning to explore the connection between sexual victimization and sexual attitudes. It is unclear what explains the relationship between sexual victimization and sexual attitudes. This study aims to fill a gap in the sexual violence literature by investigating men's sexual victimization and mediating role of sexual risk-taking on sexual attitudes. To acknowledge the cultural context of sexuality and its racialized history in the United States, we explored relationships between racially neutral and racially embedded sexual attitudes among a racially diverse sample. We hypothesize that, given the consistent relationship between sexual risk-taking and sexual victimization, risk-taking would partially mediate the relationship between sexual victimization and sexual attitudes. We also hypothesize that

this mediating model would be significant for White participants on the racially neutral measure of sexual stereotypes, but not the racially stereotypic measure. Comparatively, the model would be significant for Men of Color on the racialized sexual attitudes measures and the racially neutral measure.

Method

Participants

Data were collected as part of a larger project on sexual coercion among male and female adolescents. A total of 284 adolescent high school boys (n = 54, 19%) and college men (n = 230, 81%) participated in this study. Ages ranged from 14 to 26 (M = 18.6, SD = 1.3), the majority (85%) were 19 years old or younger. Participants self-identified racially and consisted of 46% White and 54% men of color, including 20% Black, 17% Asian American, 11% Latino, and 5% Bi/Multiracial, with 1% identifying as another race not listed. Of the participants, 44% qualified for free or reduced lunch (high school students) or need-based tuition assistance (college students; Black = 76%; White = 27%; Asian = 45%; Latino = 61%; and Multiracial/Other = 29%). The average grade point average of participants was 3.3 (Black = 3.2; White = 3.2; Latino = 3.3; Asian = 3.4; and Multiracial/Other = 3.1). Sexual orientation data were not collected and is a limitation of the study.

Participants were recruited within one Midwestern state. Two public high schools were recruited from, including one in a small town and another in a large urban city. Recruitment for high school participants occurred through upper-level psychology classrooms for the urban high school, and invitation letters coordinated by the assistant principal in the small-town high school. We also recruited from a large public university. University participants were initially recruited through the registrar's office, such that all second-year undergraduate students were e-mailed an invitation to participate in an electronic version of the study. To increase participation in sensitive research and oversample for racial/ethnic diversity, we sampled in an additional undergraduate educational psychology course and from an undergraduate course in ethnic studies. Our sample was similar to the percentage of Students of Color at the three surveyed schools (51% [small town high school], 70% [urban high school], and 57% [large public university]). Of the total student body at the two participating high schools, 65% and 43% were considered low income in the small town and urban high schools, respectively. Within the participating college, 38% of the student body receive federal loans and 20% receive an income-based federal Pell grant as tuition assistance.

Measures

Childhood sexual abuse. A slightly modified version of the Sexual Abuse subscale of the Childhood Trauma Questionnaire (CTQ; Bernstein & Fink, 1998) was used to assess for a history of childhood sexual abuse, which is often found to increase the likelihood of sexual victimization later in life (Krahè, Scheinberger-Olwig, Waizenhöfer, & Kolpin, 1999; Lodico, Gruber, & DiClemente, 1996). The CTQ Sexual Abuse subscale consists of five items rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*never true*) to 5 (*very often true*). The CTQ items were modified such that we replaced the word "*Someone . . .*" with the words "*An adult . . .*" to provide greater distinction between peer sexual victimization as measured and childhood sexual abuse (e.g., "*An adult* tried to make me do sexual things or watch sexual things"). Descriptive instructions were also provided to clarify adults from peers. Subscale scores ranged from 5–25, with higher scores representing greater childhood trauma. The CTQ has shown reliability estimates ranging from .91 to .94 (Bernstein, Ahluvalia, Pogge, & Handelsman, 1997; Scher, Stein, Asmundson, McCreary, & Forde, 2001) with racially diverse adults and adolescents. Construct validity was supported among a sample of racially diverse adolescent psychiatric patients, consistent with therapists' independent ratings of maltreatment type (Bernstein et al., 1997, 2003). Alpha coefficient estimates for the current sample were acceptable (α = .90).

Sexual coercion. To assess participants' experience with sexually coercive incidents, a modified version of the Sexual Coercion Inventory (SCI; Waldner, Vaden-Goad, & Sikka, 1999) was used. The scale was modified to assess for attempted intercourse and includes additional items on voluntary and involuntary substance use. The revised SCI is a 17-item instrument that asks participants whether or not they experienced various types of sexual victimization from any sexual partner through the use of tactics such as verbal coercion (e.g., "A sexual partner threatened to stop seeing me"), alcohol or drug facilitation (e.g., "A sexual partner encouraged me to drink alcohol and then took advantage of me."), and physical coercion (e.g., "A sexual partner threatened to use or did use a weapon"). Participants were asked to provide information for the most significant experience and indicate the gender of the perpetrator. Explicit instructions were included to distinguish from childhood sexual abuse. Specifically, instructions read as follows:

> Sometimes in a relationship, one partner wants to become more sexually involved than the other does. For the following list, indicate whether you have ever been pressured by a peer to engage in sexual behaviors (meaning vaginal, oral, or anal intercourse) even though you did NOT want to participate. For this survey, only refer to sexual experiences with a non-relative peer (such as a boyfriend/girlfriend, friend, acquaintance, etc. but *do not* include potential sexual experiences with a family member).

Scores for the present study were summed and weighted by severity (i.e., *kissing/fondling* = 1, *attempted intercourse* = 2, *completed intercourse* = 3), creating a 4-point Likert scale. Reliability estimates for the total SCI were acceptable, α = .81. Validity was supported through correlations between subscales on the SCI and the widely used Sexual Experiences Survey (Koss & Oros, 1982), r = .38, $p < .01$.

Sexual risk-taking. The Scale of Sexual Risk Taking (SSRT; Metzler, Noell, & Biglan, 1992) was used to assess participants' engagement in risky sexual behavior and its connection to sexual victimization. The 13-item SSRT assesses sexual risk-taking including the frequency of sex with nonmonogamous partners, number of sexual partners in the past year, condom use, use of prostitution, and history of STIs or pregnancy. Response formats included *yes–no*, Likert-type, and frequencies, depending on the item. The scale consists of "high risk" (e.g., sex with partners not well known) and "moderate risk" (e.g., nonvirgin status) items. The scores are converted to z scores and summed for greater consistency in scoring. Higher scores represent greater sexual

risk-taking. Reliability coefficients have ranged from .75 to .90 among a sample of racially diverse adolescents (Biglan et al., 1995). The SSRT has demonstrated convergent validity with the Scale of AIDS Risk and showed relations to adolescent problem behaviors (Metzler et al., 1992). Reliability was acceptable with the current sample, $\alpha = .84$.

Sexual attitudes.

General. The shortened Sexual Stereotypes (Ward, Hansbrough, & Walker, 2005) subscale of the Attitudes Toward Dating and Relationship measure assesses stereotypical themes about sex and sexual relationships common in the larger culture. The scale was selected for this study because of its inclusion of sexual attitudes represented in the media and previous validation with racially diverse adolescents. The Sexual Stereotypes scale measures the belief that men are sex-driven creatures, women are sexual objects, and dating is a recreational sport in which status and looks dominate (e.g., "Using her body is the best way for a woman to attract a man."). The scale consists of 14 items rated on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*; higher scores represent greater endorsement of sexual stereotypes. This scale has shown acceptable reliability estimates with African American adolescents ($\alpha = .83$; Ward et al., 2005), and subscale reliability ranged from .67 to .77 in a predominantly White sample of adolescents (Ward & Friedman, 2006). Reliability was acceptable with the current sample, $\alpha = .87$.

Racialized. A slightly modified version of the Jezebel subscale of the Stereotypic Roles of Black Women Scale (Thomas, Witherspoon, & Speight, 2004) was used to measure sexual stereotypes of women based on race. The scale was modified to be racially neutral for the mixed-race sample and selected given the pervasive ways women of color have historically been hypersexualized in the United States (Bryant-Davis et al., 2009). The subscale consists of eight items that assess endorsement of the Jezebel stereotype (e.g., "Women of my race will use sex to get what they want"). Items are rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Higher scores represent greater agreement with the stereotyped images. Reliability was acceptable with the current sample, $\alpha = .80$. We also tested the reliability across racial groups, given that the scale was originally conceptualized and constructed to assess stereotypes of Black women. Reliability was acceptable across racial groups: Black $\alpha = .77$, White, $\alpha = .76$, Asian $\alpha = .78$, Latino $\alpha = .81$.

Procedures

Institutional Review Board Human Subject approval was received before data collection. Because of diverse recruiting methods to maximize racial diversity, participations completed the survey in various ways. University participants completed the survey in one of the three ways including an online electronic format at their own convenience ($n = 107$), paper-and-pencil format either in a classroom setting ($n = 85$), or paper-and-pencil format in private, returning the completed survey to researchers 1 to 2 weeks later ($n = 57$). All of the high school participants completed a paper-and-pencil survey in a large classroom setting during regular school hours. Investigators remained present during data collection for all high school participants in case questions or concerns arose. Participants completing paper-and-pencil surveys were provided with opaque sheets of paper to cover their answers for greater anonymity.

Participants under 18 years of age were required to provide active parental consent for participation as well as youth assent at the time of the survey. High school students 18 years of age or older were allowed to participate if they provided written consent. All university participants were required to be 18 years of age or older and provided written informed consent to participate. Survey participants received remuneration in the amount of a $5.00 gift certificate and participating high schools and teachers received minor compensation as a token of appreciation.

Data Analyses

To investigate potential effects of data collection format, an analysis of variance was tested with format as the independent variable with all other variables as the outcomes. The format of the survey significantly related to sexual risk-taking, $F(2, 246) = 11.15$, $p < .001$; alcohol use, $F(2, 244) = 10.42$, $p < .001$; and verbal coercion, $F(2, 244) = 3.91$, $p < .05$. Post hoc Tukey analyses showed that participants completing the survey online reported greater sexual risk-taking and alcohol use than those completing the survey in a take-home or in-class paper-and-pencil version, and reported higher verbal coercion compared with participants completing the in-class version. Given the significant mean differences, survey format was treated as a covariate in the main analyses.

To test the mediation model, we used SEM. SEM has a number of strengths. It allows researchers to specify latent variable models that provide separate estimates of relations among latent constructs and their manifest indicators (i.e., the measurement model) and of the relations among constructs (i.e., the structural model). In other words, it is easier for the researcher to estimate relations among constructs that are corrected for possible biases attributable to random error or construct-irrelevant variance. Moreover, SEM provides measures of global fit, which can provide a summary evaluation of complex models that involve a large number of linear equations, such as the multigroup analyses conducted in the present study. Multigroup analyses across racial groups (i.e., men of color and White) were performed in the present study, as there were racial differences found in the major variables such as sexual risk-taking, and we explored general and racialized sexual attitudes.

Results

Rates of Sexual Victimization

Forty-three percent of the sample ($n = 120$) experienced some form of sexual victimization. The most widely experienced tactic was verbal coercion ($n = 86$, 30%), followed by physical force ($n = 26$, 9%) and alcohol or drug facilitation ($n = 19$, 7%). Among those who reported sexual victimization, the vast majority (83%, $n = 99$) indicated women were the perpetrators of at least one incident; comparatively only 4% ($n = 5$) reported men were the perpetrators of at least one incident. There were no differences between White men and Men of Color on sexual victimization experiences.

Bivariate Analysis

Pearson's product-moment correlation results are reported in Table 1. Sexual victimization was significantly positively related to all other variables including childhood sexual abuse, $r = .18$, $p < .01$, sexual risk-taking, $r = .37$, $p < .01$, general sexual attitudes, $r = .22$, $p < .01$, and racialized sexual stereotypes, $r = .21$, $p < .01$. Race showed a low but significant correlation with sexual risk-taking and racialized attitudes, such that White men showed greater sexual risk-taking, $r = .13$, $p > .05$, and higher endorsement of the racialized sexual stereotype, $r = .14$, $p < .05$.

Multigroup Mediation Analysis With General Sexual Attitudes

Configural and metric invariance models. The configural invariance model tests whether the basic factor structure is equivalent across the different group samples. This level of invariance imposes minimal constraint on factorial invariance, such that there are the same numbers of factors with the same items associated with each factor across the samples (Meredith, 1993). This is to establish a baseline model with which to compare the more restrictive models. Results indicate that the fit of the configural invariance model was satisfactory (see Table 2).

Given the satisfactory fit of the configural invariance model, we proceeded to test the metric invariance model. The metric invariance model tests whether the factor loadings are equal across the samples. As shown in Table 2, the metric invariance model was found to be a good fit to the data. The Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) difference between the configural invariance model and the metric invariance model was .001, indicating that the constraints of equal factor loadings across the samples did not degrade the model fit (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Little, 1997) and that all the factor loadings could be considered equal across the samples.

Mediation model between group comparison. Based on the measurement invariance result, we proceeded to compare the two groups (i.e., Men of Color and White men), and their fit with the mediation model. As shown in Table 3, Men of Color (Sobel test = 2.43, $p < .05$) and White men (Sobel test = 2.63, $p < .05$) conformed to the full mediation model. Hence, it could be suggested that regardless of the race, men's experience of sexual victimization indirectly affects general sexual attitudes, through sexual risk-taking behavior. In other words, sexual victimization heightened the level of sexual risk-taking behavior, which then led to a heightened level of sexualized attitudes toward dating.

As the comparison of the two groups was shown to have similar results (i.e., full mediation), a mediation model with the total sample was analyzed. The result showed a good model fit ($\chi^2 = 30.57$, $df = 24$; TLI = .988; comparative fit index = .994; root mean square error of approximation = .031). As shown in Table 3 and Figures 1 and 2, all three directions were significant, including the direct relationship from sexual victimization to sexual attitudes. These results suggest that when different race groups are combined, the model shows a partial mediation effect of sexual risk-taking behavior on the relationship between sexual victimization with general sexual attitudes.

Multigroup Analysis With Racialized Sexual Attitudes

Configural and metric invariance models. To explore the significance of race and cultural variables, mediation models were also examined with racially specific sexual attitudes. A configural invariance model was examined to establish a baseline model with which to compare the more restrictive models. Results indicate that the fit of the model was satisfactory (see Table 4).

Given the satisfactory fit of the configural invariance model, we proceeded to test the metric invariance model. As shown in Table 4, the metric invariance model was found to be a good fit to the data. The TLI difference between the configural invariance model and the metric invariance model was .01, indicating that the constraints of equal factor loadings across the samples did not degrade the model fit (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Little, 1997) and that all the factor loadings could be considered equal across the samples.

Table 1
Correlations, Means, and Standard Deviations

Variables	Race	CTQ	SCI	SSRT	ATDR	Jezebel	*M*	*SD*
Race[a]	1						N/A	N/A
CTQ	−.05	1					5.35	1.67
SCI	−.01	.18**	1				1.08	1.92
SSRT	.13*	.13*	.37**	1			12.59	13.04
ATDR	−.04	0	.22**	.36**	1		46.02	11.57
Jezebel	.14*	.03	.21**	.30**	.43**	1	22.25	5.43

Note. CTQ = Childhood Trauma Questionnaire; SCI = Sexual Coercion Inventory; SSRT = Scale of Sexual Risk Taking; ATDR = Attitudes Toward Dating Relationship; N/A = not applicable.
[a] 1 = Men of Color, 2 = White men.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 2
Fit Indices of Measurement Invariance With General Sexual Attitudes

Model	χ^2 (*df*)	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	90% CI
Configural invariance	76.69 (48)	.947	.972	.046	[.025, .065]
Metric invariance	87.15 (54)	.946	.967	.047	[.027, .064]

Note. TLI = Tucker–Lewis index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CI = confidence interval.

Table 3
Tests for Mediation on Predicting General Sexual Attitudes

Sample	IV	MV	DV	*B* (*SE*)	β
Men of Color	SCI →	SSRT		2.17 (.36)	.57***
(*N* = 154)		SSRT →	ATDR	.24 (.09)	.30**
	SCI →		ATDR	.58 (.37)	.19
White	SCI →	SSRT		2.51 (.68)	.41***
(*N* = 130)		SSRT →	ATDR	.30 (.08)	.44***
	SCI →		ATDR	.22 (.48)	.05
Total	SCI →	SSRT		2.33 (.35)	.51***
(*N* = 284)		SSRT →	ATDR	.25 (.06)	.33***
	SCI →		ATDR	.58 (.29)	.17*

Note. IV = independent variable; MV = mediating variable; DV = dependent variable; SCI = Sexual Coercion Inventory; SSRT = Scale of Sexual Risk Taking; ATDR = Attitudes Toward Dating Relationship.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

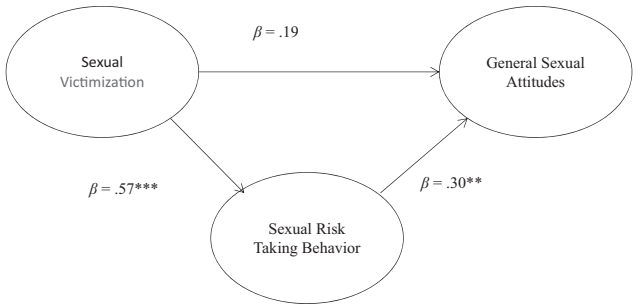

Figure 1. Mediation on predicting General Sexual Attitudes, Men of Color. $N = 154$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Mediation model between group comparison. Based on the measurement invariance result, we were able to proceed to compare the two groups (i.e., Men of Color and White men) and whether they conform to the same mediation model. As shown in Table 5 and Figures 3 and 4, Men of Color conformed to the full mediation model (Sobel test = 2.23, $p < .05$), whereas White men did not. Hence, for the men of color, the relationship between sexual victimization and racialized sexual stereotypes was explained through sexual risk-taking behavior.

Discussion

This study offers new findings in understanding the relation between sexual victimization and psychosocial variables among men. We were interested in exploring potential consequences of sexual victimization, not to imply that men's behavior or attitudes are a responsible for their victimization. Our results show that the relationship between sexual victimization and sexual attitudes is partially or fully mediated by engagement in sexual risk-taking behavior. For men in this sample, the more sexually victimized they were, the more they engaged in sexual risk-taking and in turn, the more they held stereotypical gender attitudes about dating and sex. These findings support and extend previous victimization research that shows women who've been sexually victimized show permissive sexual attitudes and sexual risk-taking (Randolph & Mosack, 2006) and that men with adversarial sexual beliefs experience greater risk for physical aggression from partners (Torres et al., 2012). However, because this is a secondary analysis of cross-sectional data, we cannot determine a causal relationship between the variables.

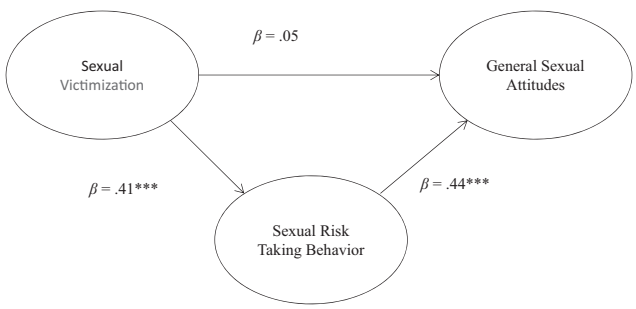

Figure 2. Mediation on predicting General Sexual Attitudes, White men. $N = 130$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 4
Fit Indices of Measurement Invariance With Racialized Sexual Attitudes

Model	χ^2 (*df*)	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	90% CI
Configural invariance	83.09 (48)	.934	.965	.051	[.032, .069]
Metric invariance	87.32 (54)	.944	.967	.047	[.028, .064]

Note. TLI = Tucker–Lewis index; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CI = confidence interval.

Our findings are also unique in exploring the potential impact that men's victimization has on subsequent behaviors and attitudes. Consistent with existing research (Turchik, 2012), being sexually victimized for men impacts the likelihood to engage in sexual risk-taking. Our study extended this research to demonstrate the mediating role of sexual behavior in relationship attitudes. It's plausible that being victimized by women, influenced and/or reinforced existing attitudes toward dating, specifically that women are sexual objects who use their body to attract men and that dating is a sexual game in which men and women try to manipulate each other.

The relationship between sexual victimization and sexual attitudes is explained by sexual risk-taking, including promiscuity and unprotected sex. Men's sexual victimization by women may increase sexual risk-taking for a few reasons. It increases their exposure to sexual advances and thus the potential for sexual victimization. Men may internalize explicit and implicit messages to be hypersexual due to masculine ideologies (Elder, Brooks, & Morrow, 2012) that may be reinforced by women's sexual victimization of them. Their ability to negotiate condom use could be lowered as a result of sexual victimization, which has been found for women survivors of sexual assault (Fair & Vanyur, 2011; Gakumo, Moneyham, Enah, & Childs, 2012). Finally, men may not feel able to reject sexual advances given the fear of being perceived as gay or nonmasculine (Clements-Schreiber & Rempel, 1995).

We also found interesting intersecting results related to race and gender. For Men of Color, the mediating relationship between sexual victimization, sexual risk, and sexual attitudes was significant for racialized sexual stereotypes; however, this finding was not significant for White men. Thus, men who were sexually

Table 5
Tests for Mediation on Predicting Racialized Sexual Stereotypes

Sample	IV	MV	DV	*B* (*SE*)	β
Men of Color	SCI →	SSRT		2.03 (.34)	.56***
(*N* = 154)		SSRT →	Jezebel	.12 (.05)	.27*
	SCI →		Jezebel	.31 (.20)	.19
White	SCI →	SSRT		2.38 (.63)	.41***
(*N* = 130)		SSRT →	Jezebel	.08 (.04)	.22
	SCI →		Jezebel	.29 (.26)	.14
Total	SCI →	SSRT		2.21 (.34)	.50***
(*N* = 284)		SSRT →	Jezebel	.11 (.04)	.26*
	SCI →		Jezebel	.28 (.17)	.15

Note. IV = independent variable; MV = mediating variable; DV = dependent variable; SCI = Sexual Coercion Inventory; SSRT = Scale of Sexual Risk Taking.
* $p < .05$. *** $p < .001$.

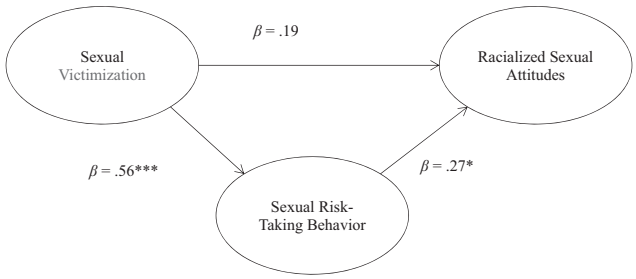

Figure 3. Mediation on predicting Racialized Sexual Stereotypes, Men of Color. $N = 154$. * $p < .05$. *** $p < .001$.

victimized were more likely to engage in sexual risk-taking and were, in turn, more likely to endorse stereotypes of hypersexuality about women in their racial group. Black, Latina, and Asian women have all been stereotyped, in different racialized ways, as sexual and exotic. Black women as hypersexual "jezebels" (Collins, 2005), Latina women as hot seductress (Keller, 1994), and Asian women as docile sexual servants (Allen, 2015). White women have certainly experienced sexual objectification, but have not been historically defined by sexual stereotypes as a product of their race in the ways that women of color have been (Stoler, 1989). Thus, White men may not generalize these hypersexual attitudes toward White women like Men of Color might for women in their racial group. For Men of Color who were victimized, they not only showed greater general sexual attitudes but also appeared to internalize stereotypes of Women of Color. We did not collect data on the race of the perpetrator, but it is possible that these attitudes were reinforced when men were victimized by women in their same racial group, thus reinforcing the hypersexual stereotype. Future research is needed to better understand potential racial and cultural dynamics of Men of Color's sexual victimization.

Limitations

Though this study offers important findings related to men's sexual victimization and related attitudes, it is not without limitations. Given the difficulty in recruiting adolescent participants for a study on sexual behaviors and abiding by the policies of various sites, our study used multiple data collection methods and a cross-sectional design, which potentially impacted the validity of the data. Specifically, college students who completed the survey online reported greater sexual risk-taking and victimization than participants completing the survey in person (high school and college students) or at home via paper-and-pencil (college students). This could suggest that participants were more forthright in disclosing experiences when there was greater anonymity (i.e., online) and that participants underreported with less perceived anonymity (i.e., in person), perhaps resulting in social desirability bias. All high school student participants completed the survey in-class, which could also suggest that younger participants were less likely to report experience with sex in general (including victimization and risk-taking). Although offering different survey completion options to college students may have improved the response rate within that sample, this was not possible for high school students. Combining the results from the two samples may have affected the internal validity of the data. We used a cross-sectional research design, so the mediation model cannot determine cause and effect. Statisticians have encouraged mediation models be used with longitudinal data to explore predictive relationships between variables (MacKinnon & Fairchild, 2009).

The construct of racialized attitudes toward women was measured with a scale intended to assess the "jezebel" stereotype of Black women. Though modified to assess sexual stereotypes of any race, culturally specific attitudes toward Latina and Asian American women were not assessed. Given the small sample sizes for racial groups, we were only able to explore White men compared with Men of Color, which has limitations in exploring nuances within and between racial and ethnic groups. We did not assess sexual orientation and thus results lack a nuanced consideration of sexual identity, and although we collected data on gender of the perpetrator, men may have been less likely to be forthright in reporting sexual experiences with other men. Finally, results cannot be generalized to men outside of the settings in which the sample was recruited, namely, high school and college-aged men in a Midwestern state. However, the sample was demographically comparable with the sites it was recruited from.

Implications

Despite these limitations, the study offers important implications for research and practice. Much of the limited research on men's sexual victimization has focused on male victims of male perpetrators or childhood sexual abuse. The findings that men were victimized predominantly by women have implications for understanding how men respond to sexual victimization by women. Previous research suggests men are not as affected by victimization when women are the perpetrators (Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1994), though the findings from this study suggest there are still important ways men are affected when victimized by women. Findings from this study challenge this assumption and suggest that there are important ways men are in fact impacted by women's victimization. Clinicians can intervene by working with men to acknowledging and heal sexual trauma, particularly challenging masculine ideologies of male sexual drive and the expectations of sexual desire. Clinicians can also offer a space for men to process their experiences with women's victimization, so not to internalize the experience and thus engage in risky sexual behavior or have negative, superficial, and hypersexual perspectives on relationships.

Several implications for future research arise from this study. First, causal relationships between sexual victimization, attitudes,

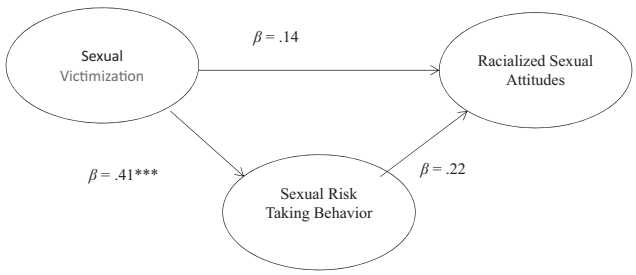

Figure 4. Mediation on predicting Racialized Sexual Stereotypes, White men. $N = 130$. *** $p < .001$.

and risk-taking should be explored using longitudinal data. Underlying mechanisms that might explain these relationships, such as emotional responses to women's sexual victimization and masculine ideologies, are also necessary to understand the process by which men's victimization informs their attitudes and behavior. Finally, intersectional research exploring race, gender, sexuality, and class (Cole, 2009) within and between racial and ethnic groups can further our understanding of men's sexual victimization and related sequelae.

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