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Does Entitlement Mediate the Link Between Masculinity and Rape-Related Variables?

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Previous research has found masculine gender roles to predict rape-related behaviors and attitudes, but there is some ambiguity in the literature regarding the mechanisms of these associations. Further, theoretical literature has suggested repeatedly that men's sense of entitlement to women is crucial in understanding rape-related behaviors and attitudes. On the basis of these 2 bodies of literature, we speculated that men's sense of entitlement may be an important 3rd variable partially driving the relations between masculine gender roles and rape-related variables. The purpose of this study, therefore, was to examine the relations among entitlement, rape-related behaviors and attitudes, and masculine gender roles. More specifically, the authors used path analyses to test a conceptual model whereby entitlement mediated the links between masculine gender roles and 4 rape-related variables. Results revealed that men's sense of general and sexual entitlement completely mediated the relations between masculinity and rape-related attitudes and behaviors in 3 of the 4 models and partially in the 4th.

The *Uniform Crime Reports for the United States, 1997* (Federal Bureau of Investigation, 1998) documented 96,122 rapes in 1997. A study conducted by Russell (1982), however, found that only 8% of rapes are ever reported to the police; therefore, the number of rapes committed in a year may exceed 1,200,000. Because of the prevalence of rape in our society, rape prevention and intervention have become important issues for counseling psychology (e.g., Frazier, Valtinson, & Candell, 1995; M. J. Heppner, Humphrey, Hillenbrand-Gunn, & DeBord, 1995; M. J. Heppner, Neville, Smith, Kivlighan, & Gershuny, 1999). Research on the factors that contribute to sexually assaultive behaviors is key to building a knowledge base for this crucial area.

The relation of masculine gender role socialization with rape-related behaviors and attitudes has been well supported through empirical research. At a between-groups level of analysis, research has shown that men are more likely than women to feel it is acceptable to pressure someone into sex (Margolin, Miller, & Moran, 1989) and to assign responsibility to the victim (Proite, Dannells, & Benton, 1993; Szymanski, Devlin, Chrisler, & Vyse, 1993; Tieger, 1981). At a within-group level, research examining individual differences in masculine gender roles has included several general conceptualizations of masculinity. First, investigations of gender role-related personality characteristics have found that masculine sex-typed men expressed a greater likelihood of committing an acquaintance rape and greater support for rape-supportive attitudes than did more androgynous men (Quackenbush, 1989; Riedel, 1993; Tieger, 1981). Researchers also have explored the "macho personality constellation" (involving callous sexual attitudes, belief in violence as manly, and construal of danger as exciting), whose variability has been shown to overlap substantially with that of previous aggressive sexual behavior (D. L. Mosher & Anderson, 1986) and self-reported likelihood of committing acquaintance and stranger rape (Smeaton & Byrne, 1987). Further, men endorsing traditional masculinity ideology (referring to "individuals' degree of endorsement and internalization of cultural belief systems about masculinity and the masculine gender role"; Good, Wallace, & Borst, 1994, p. 3) also have tended to hold more rape-supportive attitudes (Good, Heppner, Hillenbrand-Gunn, & Wang, 1995) and date rape-supportive attitudes and beliefs (Truman, Tokar, & Fischer, 1996). Finally, scholars have investigated masculine role conflict, which occurs "when rigid, sexist, or restrictive gender roles, learned during socialization, result in the personal restriction, devaluation, or violation of others or self" (Good et al., 1994, p. 3). Greater masculine gender role conflict has been connected empirically with hostility toward women, rape myth acceptance, and sexual aggression (Rando, Rogers, & Brittan-Powell, 1998).

These studies are informative, but there is a lack of attention to what it is, specifically, about masculinity variables that predicts sexually assaultive behaviors and rape-supportive attitudes. For example, masculinity ideology is composed of a number of dimensions. One theoretical model of masculinity ideology, the blueprint for manhood (Brannon, 1976), includes four core dimensions: no sissy stuff (avoidance of stereotypically feminine qualities, such as being vulnerable and weak), the big wheel (success and status), the sturdy oak (confidence and self-reliance), and give 'em hell (aggression and violence). Logically, the only dimension directly linked to sexual aggression is that involving aggression and violence. However, Truman et al. (1996) found the masculinity ideology factor corresponding to the give 'em hell dimension not to

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predict unique variance in sexual assault-related attitudes and behavior in college students, whereas other dimensions did.

As another example, masculine gender role conflict consists of four dimensions: success, power, competition; restrictive emotionality; restrictive affectionate behavior between men; and conflicts between work and family relations (O'Neil, Helms, Gable, David, & Wrightsman, 1986). Feminist literature has long emphasized that power (not sex) is the prime motivation for rape (e.g., Brownmiller, 1975). Therefore, the gender role conflict dimension that includes power and competition logically should relate to rape-supportive attitudes and rape-related behaviors. However, Rando et al. (1998) found only the restrictive affectionate behavior between men dimension of gender-role conflict to be significantly related to sexually aggressive behavior in college men.

Although both Truman et al. (1996) and Rando et al. (1998) speculated about their results, what remains unclear is a theoretical explanation for these patterns of relations. Truman et al. hypothesized that an underlying entitlement may have driven some of the results. They conjectured that because one of the masculinity ideology subscales predicting men's history of sexual aggression

> involves proclamation of self-containment without needing others, then our results are consistent with [L. A.] Gilbert's (1992) conceptualization of some men's entitlement: "Our culture allows men to make their sexual needs explicit because they appear as rights or entitlement divorced from emotional neediness. Women become objects of men's sexual desires. As long as men can experience their sexual needs as simply for physical release [and not for connection or intimacy], they can feel entitled to having women meet their needs" (p. 392). Men feeling such entitlement without intimacy may then be more likely to believe that using force to obtain sexual gratification is acceptable. (Truman et al., 1996, p. 560).

Therefore, it is possible that for some men masculine sense of entitlement is a crucial underlying but untapped corollary of more general masculine gender role socialization in terms of the variance that overlaps with date rape-supportive attitudes and beliefs; this is the primary hypothesis of the current research. Theoretical literature describing general masculine entitlement and sexual entitlement, as well as that exploring the links with masculine gender role socialization and rape-related variables, is reviewed later. A more detailed description of our hypothesized model follows.

Both a general sense of masculine entitlement (i.e., men feeling entitled to have their needs met by women) and a more specific sexual entitlement (i.e., men feeling entitled to have their sexual needs met by women) have been explored in theoretical literature. L. A. Gilbert (1992) defined a more general sense of masculine entitlement as the feeling "that what [men] do or want takes precedence over the needs of women and that [men's] prerogatives should not be questioned" (p. 391). An analogous account comes from Stoltenberg (1989), who theorized that a part of male sexual identity requires the belief that, as a man, "being superior by social definition, one can want whatever one wants and one can expect to get it" (p. 17). Sexual entitlement, on the other hand, refers more specifically to the belief that "[men] have strong sexual needs that must be satisfied . . . that men, in general, are entitled to act out their sexual impulses" (Hanson, Gizzarelli, & Scott, 1994, p. 189).

Theorists have suggested that masculine entitlement may result from gender role socialization and that it is a part of men's power over women in a patriarchal society (Funk, 1993; L. A. Gilbert, 1992; Kaschak, 1992; Pharr, 1988). For example, Kaschak (1992) proposed that, within the patriarchal United States society, boys typically learn that women's roles involve gratifying men's needs. Further, "a sense of entitlement to women . . . is extended to all men in a patriarchal society, who have the right to view and evaluate, to sexualize any woman who falls within the range of their sight" (p. 62). It should be noted that some men might not feel entitled with respect to race, class, or other societal dimensions; however, the focus here is on men's entitlement *as men* vis-à-vis women. Despite the theoretical links, no empirical research has been conducted relating masculine gender role socialization to this hypothesized masculine sense of entitlement. However, Nadkarni and Malone (1989) found men to score more highly than women on a measure of entitlement, as did Tschanz, Morf, and Turner (1998) with a different measure. Therefore, one goal of this research is to investigate the link between masculine gender roles and both general and sexual entitlement in men.

In another body of theoretical literature, sexual entitlement has been linked directly to rape, especially acquaintance rape (Cummings, Marchell, & Hofher, 1994; L. A. Gilbert, 1992; Kaschak, 1992; Levant, 1995; Pharr, 1988; Sheffield, 1995). For example, Funk (1993) theorized,

> In acquaintance rape situations, which make up the vast majority of rapes, it appears that men rape as a result of feelings of entitlement. . . . Men tend to assume, for any number of reasons, that we are entitled to have our sexual desires met, that men are entitled to share sexually with people we are attracted to, and that we are entitled to a "payback" for taking someone out. (p. 60)

Again, despite numerous theoretical links between entitlement and sexual assault, no empirical studies investigating this proposed association have been conducted. Therefore, another purpose of this research is to determine whether there is indeed a link between entitlement (both general and sexual) and rape-related behaviors and attitudes.

On the basis of the theoretical literature reviewed previously, we hypothesized significant associations among masculine gender roles, general and sexual entitlement, and rape-related variables. More specifically, we hypothesized that general and sexual entitlement would mediate the links between masculinity- and rape-related variables. In other words, we predicted that masculine gender roles represent distal variables having indirect effects on rape-related variables through the more proximal variables, general masculine entitlement and sexual entitlement (with sexual entitlement being a more proximal predictor than general entitlement).

Method

Participants and Procedures

Participants were 114 men ranging in age from 17 to 43 years (M = 22.7 years, SD = 5.31 years). The majority of the participants were undergraduate students in psychology classes at a large public midwestern university who received extra credit points for participation in the study (80%; 10% were from business/fire protection technology classes, and 10% were from military science classes). Three percent of the participants were from another public midwestern university. The participants were distributed across year in college (35% freshman, 18% sophomore, 18% junior, 21% senior, 4% graduate students/other, 4% did not report). The majority of the

participants were White (83%; 7% African-American, 1% Hispanic/Latino, 2% Native American, 1% Asian/Pacific Islander, 2% international students, 4% multiracial) and reported being completely heterosexual (94%), whereas 4% reported being mostly heterosexual, and 2% did not report. The majority of the participants reported growing up in a middle-class socioeconomic status (49%; 4% upper class, 29% upper-middle class, 17% working class, 1% lower class).

Questionnaires were administered to groups of 2 to 11 participants (with the occasional single participant) by male experimenters, who used a prepared script to introduce the research. The sensitive nature of the research was emphasized to the participants before they were asked to participate. To offset possible ordering effects, two different forms of the questionnaire (with instruments presented in differing sequences) were used. The questionnaire was completely anonymous and was accompanied by a cover sheet that contained all the elements of informed consent, which also was read out loud to them. Because of the sensitive nature of some of the items in the questionnaires, extra precautions were taken to further ensure confidentiality; signatures were not collected. Participants placed their completed questionnaires in an envelope containing other completed questionnaires to ensure anonymity. These procedures were used to increase confidence in the validity of the conclusions drawn from the data.

Instruments

Entitlement Attitudes Scale (EAS; Nadkarni & Malone, 1989). Men's level of general entitlement was assessed with the EAS, a 27-item scale addressing expectations of having one's needs or desires met. Participants rate their level of agreement on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree,* 7 = *strongly agree*) with statements such as "When I don't get what I feel is rightfully mine it makes me angry" (Nadkarni, 1994, p. 193). Item scores were averaged; higher scores reflect a greater sense of entitlement. Nadkarni reported an internal consistency estimate of .85 (current α = .76). Items on the EAS were derived primarily from the psychoanalytic, psychiatric, and social–psychological literature on entitlement. Then they were evaluated for clarity and face validity by a group of psychologists and doctoral students in clinical psychology and pilot tested on a group of undergraduate and graduate students. Validity evidence for the EAS has been reported by Nadkarni and Malone, who found that the EAS was positively related to assertiveness and self-esteem. Nadkarni and Malone also found that men scored higher on entitlement than did women. Sense of entitlement was found to be positively related to masculine and negatively related to feminine sex-typed personality traits (Nadkarni, 1994).

Hanson Sex Attitude Questionnaire (HSAQ; Hanson et al., 1994). Men's level of sexual entitlement was assessed with the 9-item Sexual Entitlement subscale of the HSAQ, addressing expectations of having one's sexual urges fulfilled. Participants rate their level of agreement on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *completely disagree,* 5 = *completely agree*) with statements such as "Women should oblige men's sexual needs" (Hanson et al., 1994, p. 199). Item scores were averaged; higher scores reflect a greater sense of entitlement. Hanson et al. reported an internal consistency estimate of .81 for the Sexual Entitlement subscale (current α = .70). Validity evidence for the Sexual Entitlement subscale of the HSAQ has been reported by Hanson et al., who found male incest offenders to have significantly higher scores than a control group of men.

Male Role Norms Scale (MRNS; Thompson & Pleck, 1986). The MRNS is a 26-item scale developed to measure men's endorsement of traditional male gender role norms (i.e., men's expected or prescribed behavior). The items were taken from the Brannon Masculinity Scale (Brannon & Juni, 1984) and include statements such as "A man always deserves the respect of his wife and children" (Thompson & Pleck, 1986, p. 537). Participants respond using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree,* 7 = *strongly agree*). Item scores were averaged; higher scores reflect more traditional attitudes toward masculine roles. Typically, the MRNS is scored using three subscales derived through factor analysis performed by Thompson and Pleck: Status, Toughness, and Antifemininity. Fischer, Tokar, Good, and Snell (1998) conducted a series of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses and found that a four-factor solution provided a better fit in two independent samples. Therefore, in the present study, the data were scored using the four subscales described in that study: (a) Status/Rationality (importance of being respected and thinking things out logically), (b) Violent Toughness (supporting the occurrence of fist fighting), (c) Antifemininity (disavowal of anything perceived as feminine), and (d) Tough Image (importance of portraying an image of toughness and independence). Internal consistency estimates for these four subscales ranged from .70 to .91 (Fischer et al., 1998). The total internal consistency estimate for the current sample was .88; subscale αs ranged from .73 to .78, with one exception: Because of a typographical error in one of the Violent Toughness items (which thus was deleted from the subscale), the remaining two items had an α of only .51. (In subsequent analyses, we used factor scores based on a principal-components analysis of both masculine gender role instruments' subscales; thus, the low internal consistency was cause for much less concern than if this subscale were to be used in isolation.) Regarding validity, three of the four revised MRNS subscales were related to gender role egalitarianism (Fischer & Good, 1998).

Gender Role Conflict Scale (GRCS; O'Neil et al., 1986). Men's gender role traditionality also was assessed using the GRCS, a 37-item scale that measures the negative conflict men personally experience as they attempt to adhere to prescribed gender roles. Men with greater gender role conflict are those personally striving to meet standards of traditional masculinity. The GRCS contains four factors, or subscales, which have been supported by exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses (Good, Robertson, et al., 1995; O'Neil et al., 1986): Success, Power, and Competition ("I worry about failing and how it affects my doing well as a man"), Restrictive Emotionality ("I do not like to show my emotions to other people"), Restrictive Affectionate Behavior Between Men ("Men who touch other men make me uncomfortable"), and Conflict Between Work and Family Relations ("Finding time to relax is difficult for me"). Participants respond using a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly agree,* 6 = *strongly disagree*). Higher scores represent greater gender role conflict. Coefficient αs were .92 for the total scale and ranged from .79 to .93 for the subscales (Good, Robertson, et al., 1995; current αs were .93 for the total scale and ranged from .83 to .90 for the subscales). Positive correlations were demonstrated between the GRCS and the Brannon Masculinity Scale (Brannon & Juni, 1984), which measures men's attitudes about masculinity (Good, Robertson, et al., 1995).

Date Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (DRMA; Truman et al., 1996). Attitudes toward sexual violence were assessed using the DRMA, a 19-item scale adapted from the Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (RMA; Burt, 1980). The RMA was developed to measure "prejudicial, stereotyped, or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists" (Burt, 1980). The RMA consists of 11 items addressing situations in which rape might be viewed as justifiable (e.g., "A woman who goes to the home or apartment of a man on their first date implies that she is willing to have sex") and 8 items addressing the extent to which claims of rape are believable (e.g., "What percentage of women who report a rape would you say are lying because they are angry and want to get back at the man they accuse?"). Participants indicate their level of agreement to the first 11 items using a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree.* The final 8 items are 5-point Likert-type scales describing frequency or percentages (*almost all* to *almost none* and *always* to *never*). Item scores were summed; higher total scores indicate higher levels of rape myth acceptance (some items are reverse scored). Internal consistency reliability estimates for RMA ranged from .87 to .89, including Burt's (1980) report of .88 (Kowalski, 1993; Margolin et al., 1989). The revised DRMA includes modified items to refer specifically to rape occurring within a dating situation (Truman et al., 1996). The internal consistency estimate for the DRMA was .86 in Truman et al. and .85 in the current sample. Construct

validity of the revised DRMA is demonstrated through significant positive associations with attitudes toward feminism and with homophobia (Truman et al., 1996).

Coercive Sexuality Scale (CSS; Rapaport & Burkhart, 1984). Men's self-reported sexually coercive behaviors were assessed with the CSS, a 19-item scale addressing a continuum of coercive sexual behaviors. Participants indicate how often they have engaged in the behaviors (e.g., "Placed hand on a woman's breast against her will") by using a 4-point Likert-type scale (1 = *never,* 4 = *often*). Item scores were averaged; higher scores reflect a greater frequency of sexually coercive behaviors. Nagayama Hall and Hirschman (1994) reported an internal consistency estimate of .96. The internal consistency estimate in the present sample was .84. Regarding validity, Rapaport and Burkhart (1984) found the CSS to be significantly correlated in college men with measures of adversarial sexual beliefs and acceptance of interpersonal violence.

Date Rape Vignette (Quackenbush, 1989). Likelihood of committing a rape also was assessed using participants' responses to a rape vignette adapted from Shotland and Goodstein's (1983) presentation of an acquaintance rape scenario (Quackenbush, 1989). Following the vignette is a single item asking how likely the participant would be to behave like the man (i.e., the rapist) in the vignette if he were assured of not being caught. The responses range from 1 (*not likely at all*) to 5 (*very likely*). A great deal of consistency has been found among similar assessments of likelihood of raping; percentages of men reporting any likelihood at all of raping range from 30% (Check & Malamuth, 1983) to 35% (see Malamuth, 1981; 35% in the current sample). These various assessments of likelihood of raping have been found to be positively correlated with sexual arousal to rape (Malamuth & Check, 1980; Malamuth, Heim, & Feshbach, 1980), acceptance of rape myths (Margolin et al., 1989; Tieger, 1981), a reported anger and desire to hurt women after being rejected (see Malamuth, 1981), perception of rape as a sexual act that women enjoy and desire (Malamuth et al., 1980; Tieger, 1981), and men's reports of having used force against women in a sexual situation (Malamuth & Ceniti, 1986; Malamuth, Check, & Briere, 1986).

Victim Blaming Attitudes. Victim blaming attitudes were measured with four questions after the date rape vignette. The questions were modeled after those used by Kopper (1996) and Simonson and Subich (1999). The first two questions assessed the perceived responsibility of the two individuals (Diane and Jim) portrayed in the vignette. The second two questions assessed the perceived right of Diane to stop the sexual activity after voluntarily engaging in sex play and the right of Jim to continue the sexual activity after Diane's request to stop. Participants responded using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *not at all responsible* or *no right at all;* 5 = *very responsible* or *very much of a right*). Some items were reverse scored and the responses were averaged; higher scores represent greater victim blaming attitudes. The internal consistency of this set of items for the current sample was .57. (Application of the Spearman-Brown formula [Anastasi & Urbina, 1997] suggested that if the number of items were doubled, the α coefficient would be approximately .73). No validity data are available for this specific set of questions; however, Simonson and Subich (1999) found their similar set of victim blame items negatively related to gender role egalitarianism, as predicted. We were concerned about the low reliability for this variable but chose to include it in subsequent analyses for exploratory purposes, given its good face validity and close resemblance to similar indexes that have demonstrated good construct validity (Simonson & Subich, 1999).

Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR; Paulhus, 1994). Social desirability was measured using the BIDR, a 40-item measure of the tendency to give socially desirable responses on self-reports. The inventory is divided into two relatively independent subscales: Self-Deceptive Enhancement (SDE) and Impression Management (IM). The SDE scale measures the tendency to deceive oneself, with items such as "It's all right with me if some people happen to dislike me." The IM scale measures the tendency to lie to others about oneself with items such as "I never take things that don't belong to me." Participants respond using a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *not true;* 5 = *very true*). Item scores were averaged; higher scores reflect more socially desirable responding. Coefficient αs ranged from .70 to .82 for the SDE subscale and from .80 to .86 for the IM subscale (Paulhus, 1994). The internal consistency estimates for the current sample were .62 and .80 for the SDE and IM subscales, respectively. Validity of the IM subscale was demonstrated through positive correlations with lie scales (e.g., Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory Lie scale, Eysenck Personality Inventory Lie scale; Paulhus, 1994). Validity of the SDE subscale was supported by positive correlations with overclaiming, the claiming of knowledge of nonexistent items (Paulhus, 1994).

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Data screening. Several participants had missing data points, so we used a subscale-mean substitution procedure for those with at least 80% complete data on a given subscale; those with more than 20% missing data were dropped from the study. We screened the data for multivariate outliers; 2 participants with large Mahalanobis distances were identified and dropped (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996), resulting in a final sample size of 114.

Data reduction. Because we had a large number of masculinity-related variables (i.e., a total of eight subscales from the GRCS and MRNS), we first conducted a principal-components analysis to reduce the masculine gender role data to a manageable set of variables reflecting the dimensions underlying the data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Common sample size guidelines range from 5 to 10 cases per variable analyzed or 40 to 80 cases for 8 variables (e.g., Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987); thus, our sample of 114 was more than sufficient. We used an oblique (oblimin) rotation because two factors retained were substantially correlated (r = .48). Conventional criteria were used to assess appropriateness of possible solutions (i.e., eigenvalues $\geq$ 1; Cattell's scree test; interpretability; and proportions of variance explained). Three factors had eigenvalues of 1 or greater, but the third factor would have had only one variable with a substantial loading; further, examination of the scree plot suggested a two-component solution. For these reasons, the third factor was ruled out (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). The two-factor solution accounted for 59% of the total variance, was easily interpretable, and was retained.

The first component accounted for 45% of the total variance before rotation and involved high pattern-matrix loadings for MRNS Status/Rationality (.93), MRNS Tough Image (.88), and GRCS Success, Power, Competition (.67); a moderate loading for MRNS Antifemininity (.36); and a smaller loading for Violent Toughness (.26). This component was, therefore, labeled Status. The second component (accounting for 14% of total variance before rotation) demonstrated high loadings for GRCS Restrictive Emotionality (.90), GRCS Restricted Affectionate Behavior Between Men (.79), GRCS Conflict Between Work and Family (.68), and MRNS Antifemininity (.50) and a smaller loading for GRCS Success, Power, and Competition (.23). Thus, this component was labeled Restriction. We computed factor scores for these two components and used them in subsequent analyses.

Exploring and controlling for response set. Next, we explored the role of socially desirable responding in our data. We were primarily concerned with IM, given that it is considered to reflect situation-specific demands for self-presentation or "conscious pre-

Table 1
Primary Variables' Correlations With Aspects of Socially Desirable Responding (N = 114)

Variable	BIDR self-deceptive enhancement	BIDR impression management
Status (current study)	−.03	−.27**
Restriction (current study)	−.22*	−.36**
EAS general entitlement	−.20*	−.27**
HSAQ Sexual Entitlement	−.04	−.23*
DRMA	−.19*	.02
Likelihood of raping[a]	−.10	−.22*
CSS rape-related behaviors	−.21*	−.39**
Victim Blame[b]	−.19*	−.07

Note. BIDR = Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (Paulhus, 1994); EAS = Entitlement Attitudes Scale (Nadkarni & Malone, 1989); HSAQ = Hanson Sex Attitude Questionnaire (Hanson, Gizzarelli, & Scott, 1994); DRMA = Date Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (modified by Truman et al., 1996); CSS = Coercive Sexuality Scale (Rapaport & Burkhart, 1984).
[a] Represents scores on item accompanying date rape vignette (Quackenbush, 1989). [b] Represents composite index created in the current study.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

sentation of a false front" (Zerbe & Paulhus, 1987, p. 253) and thus involves variance we would like to control. In contrast, SDE is likely to reflect a genuine lack of insight and may be considered a more substantive individual difference variable, whose variance may be meaningful in the context of this research (e.g., SDE has been linked to psychological adjustment; see Paulhus, 1994). Inspection of the correlations between each primary variable and both subscales of the BIDR (Table 1) revealed a number of statistically significant relations, with IM generally yielding relations of greater magnitude than SDE. Therefore, on the basis of both these theoretical and empirical considerations, we controlled for IM in all subsequent analyses.

Links Among Masculinity, Entitlement, and Rape-Related Variables

Next, we examined the links among the primary variables of interest by calculating partial correlation coefficients, holding IM scores constant (see Table 2, which also includes descriptive statistics). For those variables used in previous research, the current samples' mean scores were comparable (i.e., within a small fraction of a standard deviation) to sample means presented in (or able to be calculated from data in) several other studies (i.e., Check & Malamuth, 1983; Hanson et al., 1994; Nagayama Hall & Hirschman, 1994; Truman et al., 1996). Results of partial correlation analyses generally were consistent with hypotheses; notably both masculinity factors were linked to both general and sexual entitlement. Entitlement variables, in turn, predicted the array of rape-related attitudes and behaviors. Both masculinity factors were related to rape-related attitudes (DRMA and Victim Blame, despite Victim Blame's low internal consistency), but relations with rape-related behaviors (CSS) were nonsignificant; only Restriction's link to likelihood of raping was statistically significant.

Path Analyses

Finally, we performed a series of path analyses to test directly our hypothesized model (i.e., that links between masculinity and rape-related variables are mediated by general and sexual entitlement). We conducted one analysis for each rape-related criterion variable of interest. We chose to model each rape-related variable in a separate analysis (vs. creating a latent variable indicated by the

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics for and Partial Correlations Among Major Variables, Controlling for BIDR Impression Management (N = 114)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Masculine gender role								
1. Status (current study)	—							
2. Restriction (current study)	.42**	—						
Entitlement								
3. EAS General entitlement	.48**	.58**	—					
4. HSAQ Sexual Entitlement	.59**	.38**	.49**	—				
Rape-related attitudes and behaviors								
5. DRMA	.40**	.25**	.29**	.50**	—			
6. Likelihood of raping[a]	.16	.24*	.23*	.44**	.37**	—		
7. CSS rape-related behaviors	.08	.15	.09	.26**	.21*	.30**	—	
8. Victim Blame[b]	.32**	.24*	.13	.35**	.57**	.37**	.31**	—
M	0.00	0.00	3.96	2.66	49.32	1.65	1.14	1.83
SD	1.00	1.00	0.59	0.72	13.79	1.12	0.19	0.70
Range	−3.33–2.12	−2.24–2.19	2.52–5.74	1.22–4.56	25.00–86.00	1.00–5.00	1.00–1.95	1.00–4.25

Note. BIDR = Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (Paulhus, 1994); EAS = Entitlement Attitudes Scale (Nadkarni & Malone, 1989); HSAQ = Hanson Sex Attitude Questionnaire (Hanson, Gizzarelli, & Scott, 1994); DRMA = Date Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (modified by Truman et al., 1996); CSS = Coercive Sexuality Scale (Rapaport & Burkhart, 1984).
[a] Represents scores on item accompanying date rape vignette (Quackenbush, 1989). [b] Represents composite index created in the current study.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

combination of rape-related variables) because of the uniqueness of the rape-related constructs assessed (i.e., many men hold rape-supportive attitudes, but fewer of them would indicate a likelihood of raping; fewer still may actually report having raped). In each case, we included direct paths from IM to all other variables in the model, which is equivalent to partialing IM's effects from all other path coefficients. Each path analysis was conducted with LISREL (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993), with covariance matrices as input, converted from raw data by PRELIS (a part of the LISREL program). Standardized path coefficients (beta weights) and z values are presented in Table 3.

Model 1: Date rape myth acceptance. Figure 1 reflects results from Model 1, in which masculinity was hypothesized to predict DRMA indirectly, through general entitlement and sexual entitlement. Standardized path coefficients, whose significance levels are tested against z values, are indicated in Figure 1. As predicted, both Status and Restriction predicted general entitlement, which predicted sexual entitlement, which predicted DRMA. Multiplication of the indirect path coefficients (Cohen & Cohen, 1983) revealed that the indirect paths from Status ($.29 \times .47 \times .25 = .03$; $z = 1.99$) and Restriction ($.49 \times .47 \times .25 = .06$; $z = 2.20$) both were statistically significant ($ps < .05$). The direct paths from Restriction and Status to DRMA were nonsignificant, indicating that entitlement variables completely mediated those bivariate links. In this model and in the three remaining, results indicated significant paths from IM only to both masculinity components but not to any other variables.

Model 2: Victim blame. Model 2 (Figure 2) is similar to Model 1, except that the rape-related criterion variable is the Victim Blame composite. Exactly as hypothesized, entitlement completely mediated the links between both masculinity variables and Victim Blame. The indirect path coefficient products both were statistically significant, and the direct path coefficients were not significant.

Model 3: Likelihood of raping. Model 3 is depicted in Figure 3 and used participants' self-reported likelihood of raping as the rape-related criterion variable. As predicted, results indicated that both Status and Restriction predicted general entitlement, which predicted sexual entitlement, which predicted DRMA (both indirect path coefficient products were significant). However, the mediation of the Status-LOR link was partial, as indicated by the statistical significance of the direct path between these variables. Contrary to expectations, this path coefficient was negative.

Model 4: CSS rape-related behaviors. The final model (Figure 4) predicted rape-related behaviors (CSS scores). As with the other three models, mediation was indicated by the significance of both masculinity components' indirect path coefficient products and the nonsignificance of direct paths from Status and Restriction to CSS scores.

Summary of Results

Overall, results from partial correlations and path analyses (all holding IM constant) were quite consistent with our hypotheses. In general, the masculine gender role components predicted general entitlement, which in turn predicted sexual entitlement, which then predicted the rape-related criterion variables; direct links between masculinity components and rape-related variables were generally not significant. In other words, general and sexual entitlement completely or partially mediated the links between masculinity and rape-related variables, as predicted.

Discussion

Previous research has found masculine gender role socialization to be associated with rape-related behaviors and attitudes, but there is some ambiguity in the literature regarding what specifically about masculine gender role socialization predicts these variables.

Table 3
Standardized Path Coefficients and z Values for Path Models (N = 114)

	Model 1: DRMA		Model 2: Victim blame[a]		Model 3: Likelihood of raping[b]		Model 4: CSS rape-related behaviors	
Path	β	z	β	z	β	z	β	z
Status to EAS general entitlement	.29	3.73*	.29	3.73*	.29	3.73*	.29	3.73*
Restriction to EAS general entitlement	.49	6.10*	.49	6.10*	.49	6.10*	.49	6.10*
General entitlement to HSAQ Sexual Entitlement	.47	5.45*	.47	5.45*	.47	5.45*	.47	5.45*
Sexual entitlement to rape-related variable	.25	2.62*	.29	3.10*	.52	6.46*	.41	4.81*
Indirect path (product) from status to rape-related variable	.03	1.99*	.04	2.18*	.07	2.78*	.06	2.59*
Indirect path (product) from restriction to rape-related variable	.06	2.20*	.07	2.46*	.12	3.44*	.09	3.10*
Direct path from status to rape-related variable	.12	1.32	.16	1.76	−.20	−2.49*	−.07	−0.78
Direct path from restriction to rape-related variable	.01	0.08	.13	1.31	.14	1.62	.10	1.14
Direct path from IM to status	−.24	−2.61*	−.24	−2.61*	−.24	−2.61*	−.24	−2.61*
Direct path from IM to restriction	−.35	−3.98*	−.35	−3.98*	−.35	−3.98*	−.35	−3.98*
Direct path from IM to EAS general entitlement	−.05	−0.57	−.05	−0.57	−.05	−0.57	−.05	−0.57
Direct path from IM to HSAQ Sexual Entitlement	−.06	−0.73	−.06	−0.73	−.06	−0.73	−.06	−0.73
Direct path from IM to rape-related variable	.10	1.02	.10	1.09	−.09	−1.08	−.17	−1.93

Note. DRMA = Date Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (modified by Truman et al., 1996); CSS = Coercive Sexuality Scale (Rapaport & Burkhart, 1984); EAS = Entitlement Attitudes Scale (Nadkarni & Malone, 1989); HSAQ = Hanson Sex Attitude Questionnaire (Hanson, Gizzarelli, & Scott, 1994); status and restriction = factor scores for masculine gender role components derived in the current study; IM = Impression Management subscale from the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (Paulhus, 1994).
[a] Represents composite index created in the current study. [b] Represents scores on item accompanying date rape vignette (Quackenbush, 1989).
* $p < .05$.

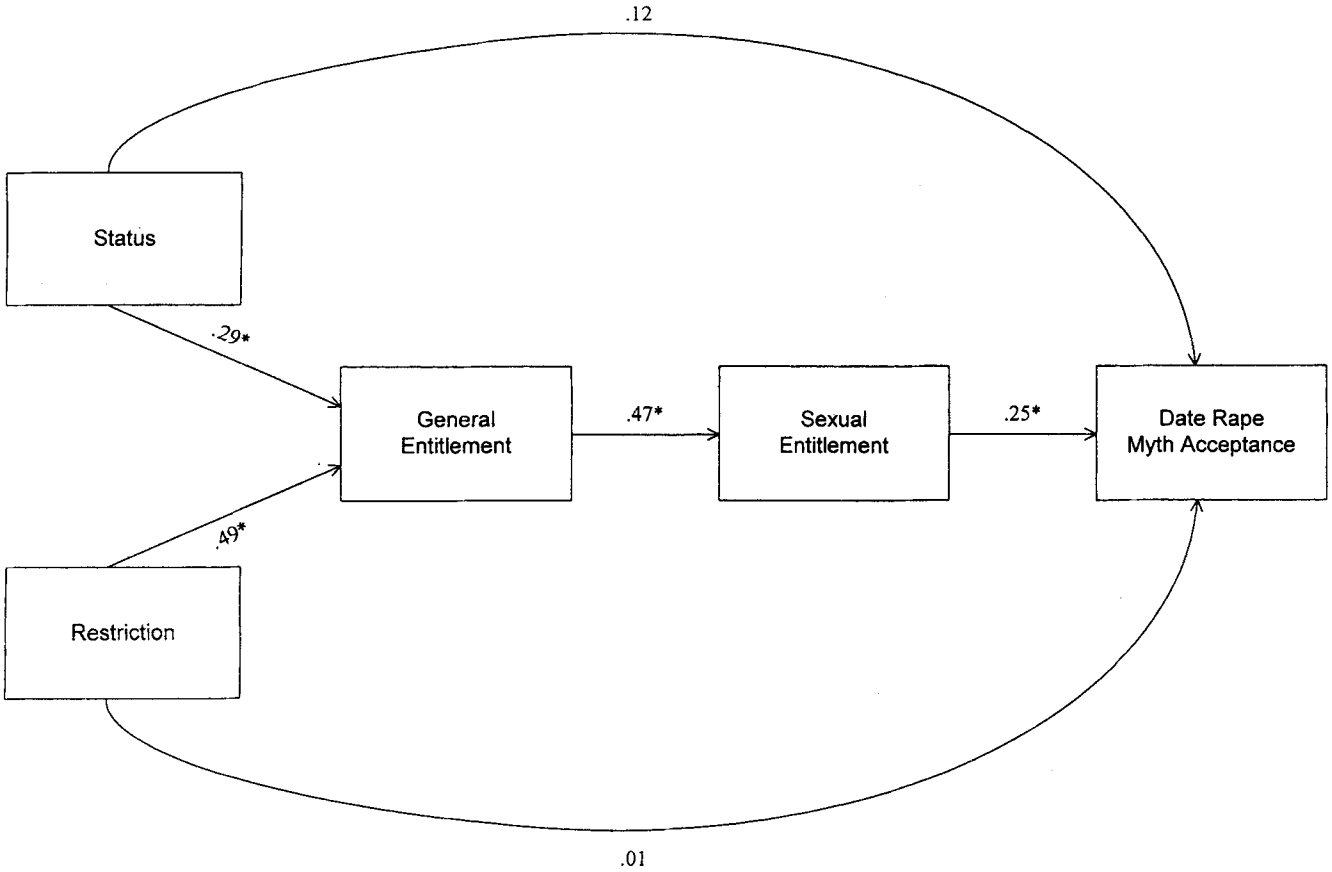

Figure 1. Model 1: Path model testing entitlement's mediational role in the link between masculinity and Date Rape Myth Acceptance scores, with the effects of impression management controlled. * $p < .05$

One speculation was that an underlying entitlement may be part of the relationship. Theoretical literature in counseling psychology (e.g., L. A. Gilbert, 1992) and elsewhere has suggested repeatedly that men's sense of entitlement to women is crucial in understanding rape-related behaviors and attitudes, yet this proposition had never been tested empirically. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the relations among entitlement, rape-related behaviors and attitudes, and masculine gender role socialization. More specifically, we used path analyses to test a conceptual model whereby entitlement mediated the links between masculine gender roles and rape-related variables. This conceptual model was supported strongly in the current study; path analyses revealed that general and sexual entitlement completely or partially mediated the links between masculinity and four rape-related variables. Masculinity factors were found to predict both men's general and sexual entitlement, and both general and sexual entitlement, in turn, predicted an array of rape-related attitudes and behaviors.

These preliminary empirical results parallel theoretical notions in the rape literature that entitlement is central to rape-related behaviors and attitudes (e.g., Funk, 1993; L. A. Gilbert, 1992; Kaschak, 1992; Levant, 1995; Pharr, 1988; Sheffield, 1995; Stoltenberg, 1989). As suggested in the theoretical literature, both a general sense of entitlement to women and a more specific entitlement to having sexual needs met were found to be significantly related to rape-related attitudes and behaviors in our sample. Current results support previous empirical findings that masculinity ideology and gender role conflict are associated with rape-related attitudes (Good, Heppner, et al., 1995; Rando et al., 1998; Truman et al., 1996), but this study also makes the nature of these relations clearer. Consistent with the theoretical literature, and as hypothesized, masculinity predicted general and sexual entitlement. In other words, our data revealed that masculine gender roles went hand in hand with general and sexual entitlement. Such links have been hypothesized in the conceptual literature (e.g., L. A. Gilbert, 1992) but never tested empirically. Considering all variables together, most interestingly, path modeling revealed that the power of masculinity in predicting rape-related attitudes and behaviors can be attributed largely to the mediational role of entitlement. Controlling for the effects of men's IM response set, path analyses indicated that entitlement completely accounted for masculinity's links with three of the four rape-related variables (and partially accounted for the links with the fourth). Although these results are consistent with theory, it should be noted that they could be accounted for by a third, unmeasured, variable.

In line with counseling psychology's commitment to prevention and psychoeducation (Ivey, 1976; R. L. Mosher & Sprinthall, 1971; Whiteley, 1984), these initial findings have the potential to inform rape prevention, education, and intervention programs.

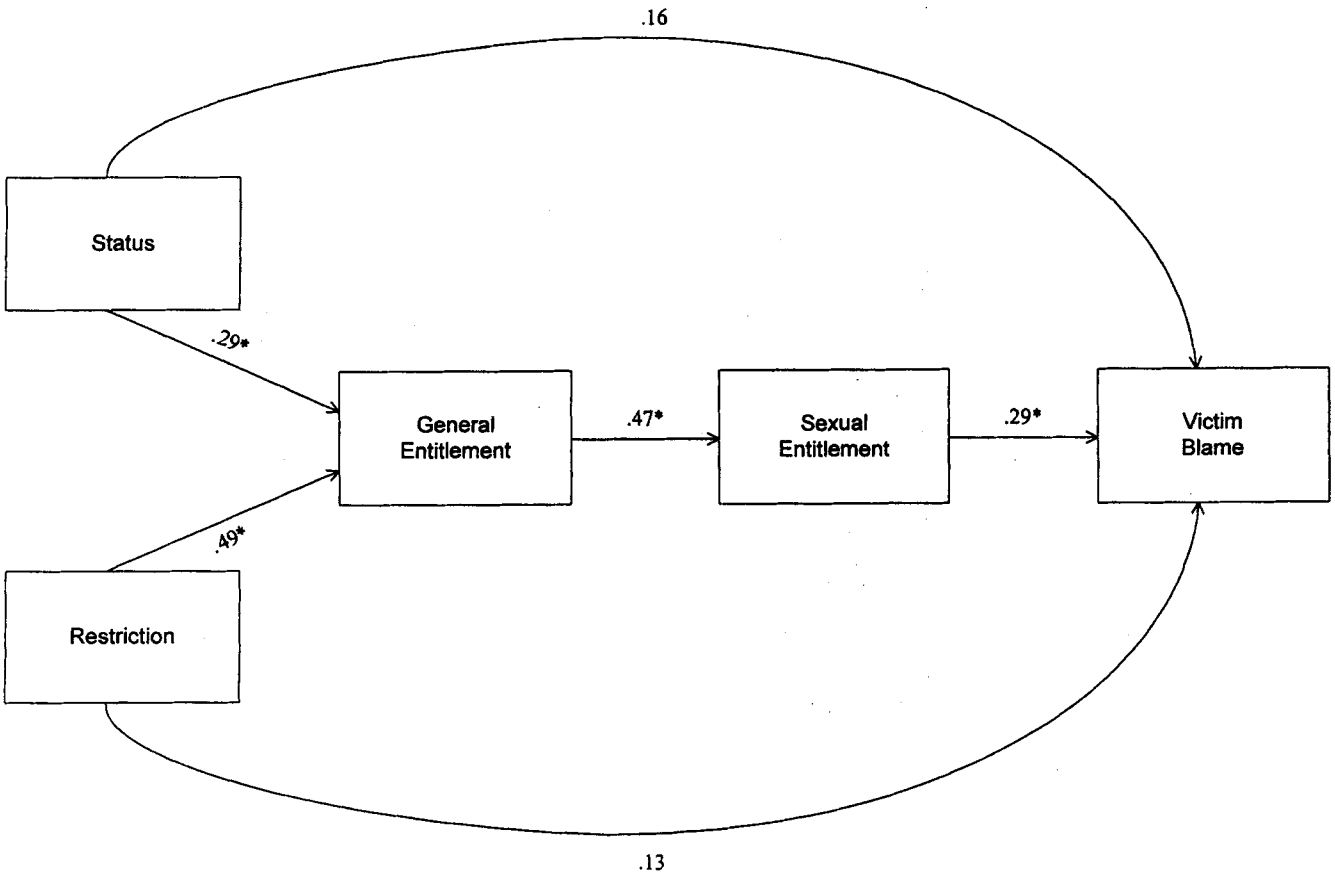

Figure 2. Model 2: Path model testing entitlement's mediational role in the link between masculinity and victim blame (composite index), with the effects of impression management controlled. * $p < .05$

Several current rape prevention and education programs address masculine socialization as one factor in contributing to rape-supportive attitudes and rape-related behaviors (e.g., B. J. Gilbert, Heesacker, & Gannon, 1991; M. J. Heppner et al., 1995; Ring & Kilmartin, 1992; Rosenthal, Heesacker, & Neimeyer, 1995). The current research, although preliminary, suggests that focusing on masculine gender role socialization broadly may not be enough and that entitlement may be an important aspect of the attitudes that support rape-related behaviors. In this vein, theorists such as Funk (1993) suggested that, to prevent rape, "these underlying attitudes of entitlement must be challenged . . . We [men] need to examine, man-to-man, why we think we should 'get what we want when we want it,' and why that is applied to other human beings" (p. 61). Kaschak (1992) described a range of entitlement-related attitudes and behaviors, from subtle (e.g., everyday body language) to overt (e.g., rape), which men in prevention workshops could discuss and perhaps explore experientially.

Recognizing the link found between entitlement and masculine gender roles also may be important for counseling psychologists working with men clients and students. It might be valuable for some men to explore this entitlement in the context of masculine gender role socialization as well as the consequences such beliefs could have for them and for people around them. Counseling psychologists may want to help men confront and challenge a possible sense of entitlement in their own lives as well as to explore the ways "unearned privileges," (McIntosh, 1995) may shape men's experiences and perceptions relative to women.

Directions for Future Research

Because this is the first study to examine the relations among masculinity, entitlement, and rape-related attitudes and behaviors, we encourage additional research using more diverse samples, instrumentation, and/or methodologies. A surprising finding was the small negative direct path between Status and likelihood of raping, which counters both the theoretical literature as well as related empirical research. It is possible that the unique combination of scores making up the factorially derived Status variable or a peculiarity of our sample contributed to these findings, which we encourage researchers to continue exploring.

A common issue encountered in this type of research is the inherent difficulty in collecting self-reports of sexually aggressive behavior. Because of problems in previous research with such self-reports, additional precautions were taken in data collection (having all data collected by men, obtaining verbal rather than written informed consent, and other assurances of anonymity). Even with these more stringent procedures, some of the CSS items still had no variance. Not only is it possible that social desirability

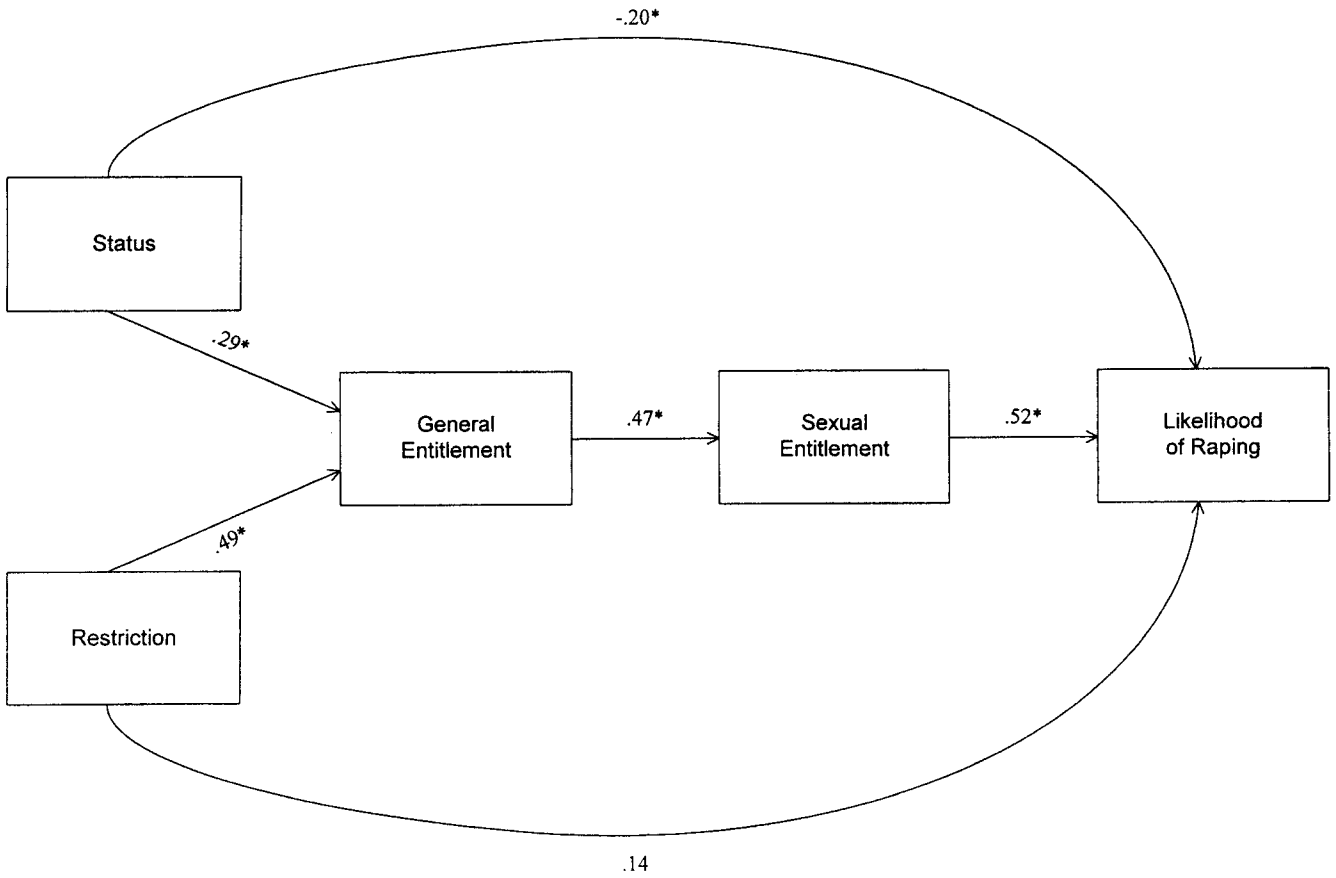

Figure 3. Model 3: Path model testing entitlement's mediational role in the link between masculinity and likelihood of raping, with the effects of impression management controlled. * $p < .05$

plays a role in men's reporting sexually aggressive behavior, but it is also possible that some men "fail to perceive accurately the degree of force and coerciveness that was involved in a particular sexual encounter or to interpret correctly a woman's nonconsent and resistance" (Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987, p. 169). Future researchers might consider using additional measures (e.g., non-self-report) of sexually assaultive or coercive behavior. In contrast, analysis of individual CSS items indicated that 4% of respondents reported engaging in behaviors that met the legal definition of rape. The rate for engaging in rape-related behaviors, as reported on the CSS, is similar to previous research using other methods of self-report (Koss et al., 1987; Koss & Oros, 1982).

Future research also could examine more closely how entitlement relates to different types of rape (e.g., marital rape, date rape, stranger rape) and possibly to other forms of violence against women. L. A. Gilbert (1992) suggested that men's sense of entitlement is crucial in understanding rape when the victim knows her assailant:

> Simple rape (the legal term for a sexual assault in which the victim knows her assailant and no weapon or overt physical violence is used) embodies a fundamental belief of men in their absolute right to have sex with women they know: their wives, girlfriends, coworkers, or any woman with whom they can claim a prior "socially appropriate" relationship, however brief. (p. 393)

Future research could investigate the relative contributions of entitlement to prediction of incidences of date rape, marital rape, and rape in which the victim does not know her assailant.

Many theorists also suggested that men's sense of entitlement is part of the larger patriarchal system in the United States (Kaschak, 1992; Sheffield, 1995). More specifically, Sheffield (1995) discussed four types of sexual terrorism that occur within the patriarchal system: rape, wife abuse, sexual abuse of children, and sexual harassment. Entitlement has been posited as a contributor to the occurrence of incestuous abuse and has been found to be a key factor in interviews with incest offenders (Russell, 1995; Wash & Knudson-Martin, 1994). Future research might want to explore quantitatively the contribution of entitlement to predicting incest perpetration as well as other forms of sexual terrorism, such as wife battering and sexual harassment.

Although this study focused solely on men's sense of entitlement, future research could examine variability in women's sense of entitlement (or lack of it, e.g., to their own bodies) as well as how this might be part of women's gender role socialization. If women are socialized to believe that men have a right to women's bodies, they might not perceive certain actions as rape. Sandberg, Jackson, and Petretic-Jackson (1987) found that women who do not perceive a man's actions as rape are less likely to resist those

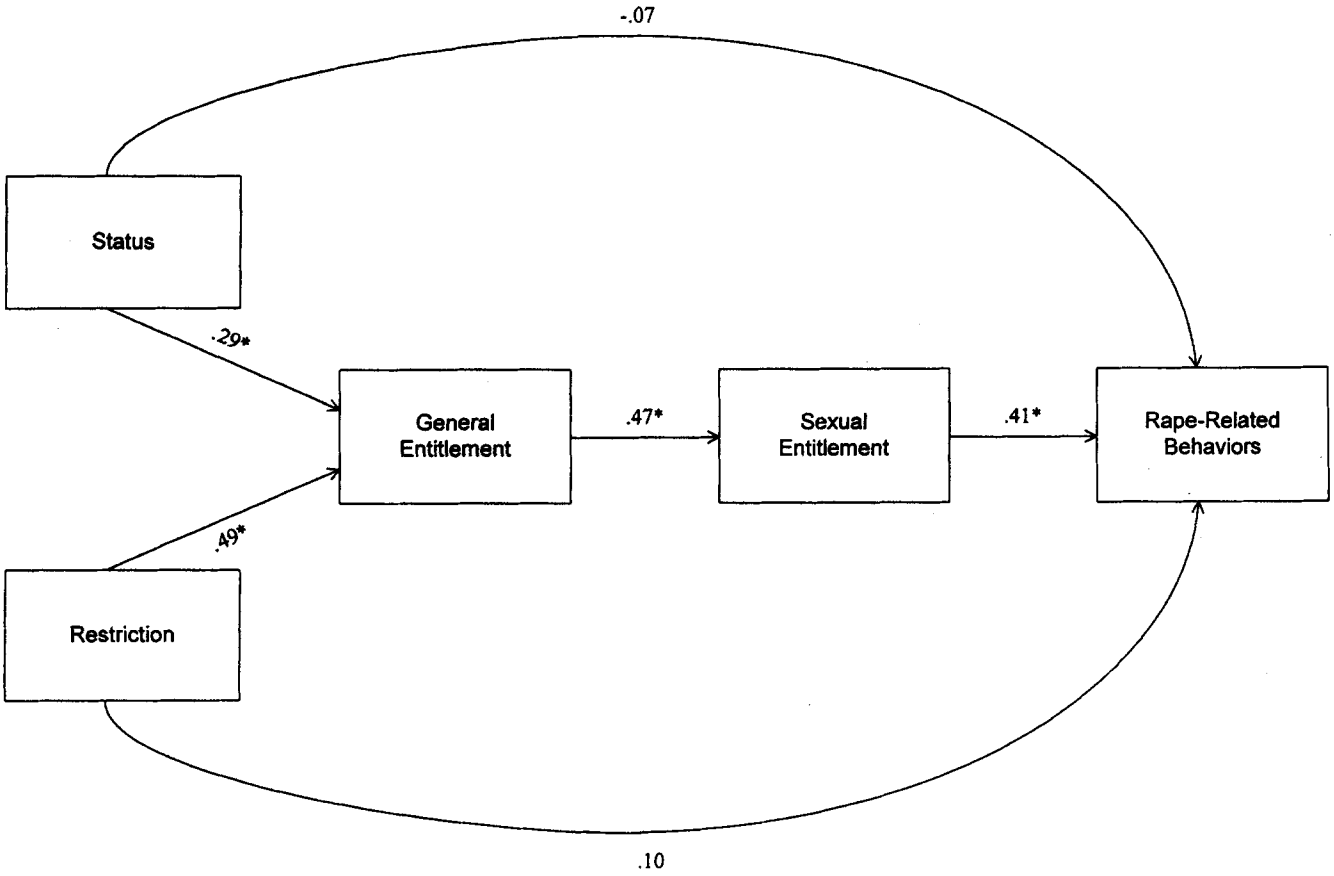

Figure 4. Model 4: Path model testing entitlement's mediational role in the link between masculinity and rape-related behaviors (Coercive Sexuality Scale scores), with the effects of impression management controlled.
* $p < .05$

actions. Therefore, it is important to study women's experiences with entitlement as well as men's.

Further, the entitlement that we are conceptualizing as "masculine" may be, more simply, generic entitlement, with rape-related attitudes and behaviors as one gender-laden context for its expression. This possibility raises an additional note for future research, involving the finding that, in general, masculinity variables predicted rape-related variables only through the mediation of entitlement. These results parallel those of Tokar, Fischer, Schaub, and Moradi (2000), who found that the large majority of previously established relations of masculine role conflict variables with several counseling psychology-related variables (e.g., mental health) were partially or completely mediated by personality. Entitlement may be conceptualized as a personality variable as well (e.g., Kohut, 1977). Of particular interest in the personality literature is the notion that some types of early personality injury may give rise to a defensive sense of entitlement and accompanying displays of power (e.g., sexual aggression), which Patton and Robbins (1982) discussed in the counseling literature. Together, then, this small body of empirical research hints at the possibility that a substantial portion of masculine gender role variables' predictive power in the counseling psychology literature lies in their links with personality. We encourage additional research on the nature of relations among masculinity, personality, and rape-related variables.

Conclusion

Strong support was demonstrated for a conceptual model in which men's sense of entitlement mediated relations between masculinity and rape-related variables. Not only do the current findings support previous theoretical literature on entitlement's link with both masculinity and rape, but they also extend the masculinity literature by assessing masculine gender role variables' contributions to these counseling psychology-related variables (i.e., rape-related attitudes and behaviors) in the context of other important predictors (P. P. Heppner, 1995). We encourage counseling psychologists to continue prevention, intervention, and education efforts geared toward eradicating rape and to explore the possible roles of entitlement in the lives of men and women.

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