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SHIFTING VIEWS OF CONSENT: A VIDEO ACTIVITY

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ABSTRACT

Sexual assault is a problem on college campuses. Classroom activities on topics such as sexual assault have been found to improve students' views (Franiuk, 2007). We created a classroom activity that reflected gender differences in the interpretation of sexual intent. We then designed a lesson around this activity to shift students' views of consent. We found partial support for this hypothesis; our lesson shifted the consent views of female, but not male, students. Peck, Stevenson, Lembo, Karg and Pagano (2013) found that women and high empathy men had similar views of consent, while the views of low empathy men differed. Based on this research, we expected that the lesson would have the greatest impact on low empathy men. This hypothesis was not supported by our study. Overall, the data suggested our lesson could support discussions related to sexual assault in a variety of educational settings.

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INTRODUCTION

Sexual assault is a major issue on college campuses and across the nation. In general, one in six women will become the victim of sexual assault (Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). In college, this risk increases to one in five women (Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher & Martin, 2007). As president Barack Obama recently stated, this elevated risk is “totally unacceptable” (Karni, 2014). While popular television shows (e.g., *Law and Order: Special Victims Unit*, season two, episode eight) suggest that most perpetrators of sexual assault hide in bushes or within dark alleys, research shows that 85-90% of college women knew their attacker (DeNoon, Petersen & Fields, 2000; Fisher, Cullen & Turner, 2000). Although the rates of sexual assault on college campuses are high, the reporting rates of such occurrences remain low; research has estimated that only 12% of student victims report their assault (Kilpatrick, Resnick, Ruggiero, Conoscenti & McCauley, 2007).

The effects of sexual assault are both devastating and prolific for victims. According to the World Health Organization (2002), victims of sexual assault are three times more likely to receive a diagnosis of depression, twenty-six times more likely to abuse drugs, and four times more likely to contemplate suicide. Additionally, victims are at an elevated risk of developing post traumatic stress disorder, sleep disorders, eating disorders, self-harming behaviors, and sexually transmitted infections (National Sexual Violence Resource Center, 2010). With such serious consequences, it is important to prevent sexual assaults from occurring on college campuses.

The causes of sexual assaults remain unclear. The large consumption of alcohol within college settings may contribute to this issue. In our society, alcohol is frequently associated with sexuality (Abbey, 1991). However, double standard exists: women who drink alcohol are viewed

less positively than men, and they are also perceived as being promiscuous (Crowe & George, 1989; George, Gournic & McAfee, 1988). Shared alcohol consumption has been found to serve as a sexual interest cue among college students (Corcoran & Thomas, 1991).

Another possible explanation for this issue has to do with gender differences in socialization. Children are socialized differently from a young age, and are constantly reinforced for displaying typical sex-typed behavior (Fagot, 1977). We are taught that boys and girls, and eventually men and women, think and act differently. From nursery rhymes (e.g., What are little boys/girls made of?), to best selling self-help books (e.g., Men are from Mars, Women are from Venus), these differences are presented to us throughout our lives, often in innocuous ways (Anderson, 2001; Crawford, 2004). It is possible that these social differences can lead to misinterpretations, such as misreading sexual availability, that are not so harmless in nature.

Misinterpretations of sexual availability occur when an individual incorrectly infers that another person is experiencing sexual attraction, or incorrectly infers interest in engaging in sexual activity (Abbey, McAuslan & Ross, 1998). Numerous studies, and subsequent replications of varying designs and methods, have suggested that men are prone to interpret a woman's friendly behavior as sexual in nature (Farris et al., 2008). These findings translate into real-life experiences; in a survey of almost 600 Penn State students, female students (72%) were more likely than male students (60%) to report being misperceived when flirting (Abbey, 1987). In a survey administered to almost 4,000 students, 70.5% of females indicated that they felt that their sexual interest had been misinterpreted in the past; 53% of males indicated that they have felt that way (Koss & Oros, 1982). Another study found that no matter who initiated a date, where the date occurred, or who paid for the date, men were always more likely than women to interpret behavior as sexual (Muehlenhard, 1988). Other misinterpretations of sexual availability

cues may be inferred from an individual's clothing. A Penn State study found that students of both genders rated a female character as more sexy, promiscuous, and seductive when she was wearing a revealing outfit. When the female character was dressed in a revealing manner, and she was with a male character, students were more likely to believe that the characters were sexually attracted to each other (Abbey et al., 1987).

Misinterpreting an individual's sexual interest can lead to a sexual assault in several ways. Men who had previously committed a sexual assault while on a date were more likely to feel "led on" by women, when compared to men who had not previously displayed this behavior (Muehlenhard & Linton, 1987). The duration of the misinterpretation matters. The longer a man's misinterpretation goes uncorrected, the more likely he will feel justified in obtaining forced sex, since he believes he has been "led on" (Abbey, Ross, McDuffie & McAuslan, 1996). Disturbingly, research has shown that many men and women believe that it is acceptable to initiate forced sex if a man has been led on (Goodchilds & Zellman, 1984). Interviews with date rapists showed that over half of the perpetrators did not believe their victim when they said "no," thinking they were playing "hard to get" (Kanin, 1984).

One way to combat misunderstanding of sexual availability is through education, however it is not easy to design lessons that are effective. Some educational programs for college students have included audio-taped recordings of a rape survivor describing her experience. These programs have increased rape-supportive behaviors, especially among males (Bachar & Koss, 2001; Breitenbecher, 2001). Research has been inconclusive on the efficacy of educational programs that included films with discussions afterwards, or interactive theater (Yeater & O'Donohue, 1999; Lonsway, 1996). Previous research has produced promising findings for educational programs that include classroom activities that address topics such as sexual

harassment and sexual assault (Madson & Shoda, 2002; Franiuk, 2007). Madson and Shoda (2002) administered a sexual harassment classroom activity in which students determined if scenarios included a form of sexual harassment. This activity received positive feedback, led to fruitful discussions, and improved students' views of sexual harassment. In her classroom activity on sexual assault, Franiuk (2007) had students read ambiguous scenarios, and then decide if a sexual assault had occurred. She found that students were better able to define sexual assault following participation. She also found that students rated the activity as both informative and enjoyable.

In this thesis, we wanted to design and evaluate a classroom activity that educators could use to support discussions about misinterpretations of sexual availability and sexual assault. In our first study, we created a video activity that captured the gender differences in perceptions of sexual intentions and investigated to see if the activity produced trends found in the literature. In our second study, we used the same video activity, and added information about the gender differences in the interpretation of the activity to see if we could shift views of consent and reduce misinterpretations of sexual availability.

Study One

Our first goal was to create and evaluate an educational activity that captures gender differences in the interpretation of sexual availability. We found and modified a video clip that included both alcohol and dress cues. The activity included two video clips. The first clip occurred in a bar, where a provocatively-dressed female and a male character consumed alcohol together. The second clip showed the two characters stumbling home together, providing an ambiguous cue about the female character's sexual intentions. Participants were asked to judge the intentions of the male and female characters after each clip. This video was selected because it included alcohol and dress cues believed to influence students' perspectives of sexual availability (Corcoran & Thomas, 1991; Abbey et al., 1987).

Consistent with trends in the literature, we hypothesized that male participants would believe that the male character would be likely to think about sex, and that male participants would also believe that these cues are indicative of the female character's interest in sex. Previous research has shown that women are less likely to view friendly behavior as sexual in nature (Abbey, 1982). Thus, we hypothesized that fewer female participants would view the female character as likely to think about sex. Since research indicates that females believe their intentions are often misperceived as sexual, we hypothesized that female participants would believe the male character is interested in sex.

Study One Methods

Participants

Two hundred and eighty-eight Introductory Psychology students (168 female) at Penn State participated in the study in return for course credit. While demographic data was not collected, most students were between 18 and 22 and represented a reasonable sample of Penn State university students. Consistent with ethnic demographics at Penn State, roughly 5% of students were Hispanic, 5% of students were Asian, 4% of students were Black, 72% of students were White, and 14% had other ethnic backgrounds (“Enrollment by Race/Ethnicity”, 2013).

Procedural Overview and Materials

In the activity, two segments of a YouTube video entitled “Rape. Sexual Assault. Let’s stop blaming the victim” were shown without sound; the actors in the video have thick Welsh accents that we believed would distract the students (Welshgovernment, 2010). The first video segment was ten seconds long, and showed a young man and a provocatively-dressed woman flirting as they consumed alcohol in a bar setting; for the purpose of this paper, this video clip will be referred to as the “bar scene.” The second video segment was 15 seconds long, and showed the female character stumbling home with the male character’s help, after which she invited him inside; for the purpose of this paper, this video clip will be referred to as the “take home” scene. After each video segment, the male participants were asked to write down what they believed the male character in the video was thinking, and the female participants were asked to write down what they believed the female character was thinking. Participants were also asked to consider what the opposite-gendered character was thinking after the take home scene.

After reviewing the participants’ responses, we developed a scheme to code the most common types of responses. The data was coded by three undergraduate students, none of whom

were enrolled in the Introductory Psychology course (see Appendix A, Table 1 for the categories used). The inter-rater reliabilities were checked (α s > .90), and disagreements were resolved through discussion.

Study One Results and Discussion

We hypothesized that male participants would believe that the male character would be likely to think about sex. The data supported this hypothesis. After the bar scene, the top male responses were “wants sex” (28%), “wants to manipulate the woman” (23%), and “wants to drink alcohol” (22%). After the take home scene, over three quarters (80%) of the male participants believed that the male character wanted sex. Disturbingly, 100% of the men who believed that the male character wanted to manipulate the woman during the bar scene believed the male character wanted sex after the take home scene, suggesting that males who manipulate females have sexual intentions (For the response percentages of each coding category, refer to Appendix B, tables three and four).

We hypothesized that fewer females would believe the female character was thinking about sex. The data supported this hypothesis. After the bar scene, only 4.9% of female participants thought that the female character wanted sex. The top female responses were “wants to be liked” (46%), “wants to drink alcohol” (24%), and “wants to have fun” (17%). After the take home scene, female participants’ top responses were “wants sex” (31%), “wants to be liked” (19%), and “wants non-sexual contact” (19%), showing that taking the male character home served as a cue for both males and females that the female character was interested in sex, although the cue was stronger for male participants (For the response percentages of each coding category, refer to Appendix B, tables three and four).

Consistent with research that show that females are aware of being misinterpreted, after the take home scene, female and male participants had similar perceptions of the male character’s intentions, with $\chi^2(6, N= 275) = 6.376, p = .271$. Consistent with research that showed that men often misinterpret females’ intentions, males and females had different

perceptions of the female character's intentions, with $\chi^2(6, N = 249) = 15.693, p = .015$. Post hoc analyses showed that male and female participants had different perceptions of the female character's interest in non-sexual contact (males 4% versus females 19%; $p < .05$) (For a list of the percentages for the opposite gendered responses, see Appendix B, table five). Overall, these findings replicate trends found in previous research on men's misperceptions of a woman's friendliness and sexual interest, and show that these misperceptions are still current (Abbey, 1982).

Study Two

The results of study one show that we successfully created an activity that replicates trends in the scientific literature. In study two, we tested to see if a lesson based on that activity could be used to shift perceptions of sexual availability by testing understandings of sexual consent. Defining sexual consent is both confusing and complex. Most published research on sexual consent does not explicitly define the term. Instead, the authors assume that the audience shares an understanding of the concept (Beres, 2007). Research has shown that without explicit refusal, such as physical resistance, college students have difficulty labeling situations as sexual assaults (Franiuk, 2005; Goodchilds et al., 1988). Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999) have recommended the definition of, “the freely given verbal or nonverbal communication of a feeling of willingness.” There is empirical support that people use this definition. Hall (1995) found that 60% of college students indicated sexual consent both verbally and nonverbally, 28% consented only nonverbally, and 11% only verbally.

Peck et al. (2013) studied Penn State students’ understandings of consent. Participants read vignettes in which characters responded to the sexual advances of opposite-gendered characters using one of nine types of consent and refusal responses. These response categories came from materials designed by Penn State University’s Office of Student Affairs, and are used to train members of the university’s conduct board. Consent and refusal responses ranged from verbal and nonverbal consent to physical resistance and self-defense (See Appendix C). On a seven-point Likert scale, participants in Peck et al.’s study indicated the extent to which the character in the vignette indicated consent for sexual activities. The pattern of responses generally showed greater ratings of consent when the character had indicated consent, and lower ratings of consent when the character demonstrated explicit refusal. This replicated the research

by showing that participants had less difficulty understanding consent when explicit refusal was present, and extended research by showing little misunderstanding with explicit consent (Franiuk, 2005; Goodchilds et al., 1988). Participants indicated more moderate ratings of consent for vignettes in which consent responses were ambiguous (e.g., lack of consent, shutting off the lights after a kiss). Females and high empathy males responded similarly, suggesting similar interpretations of consent or refusal. Comparatively, low empathy males showed more moderate interpretations. These results start to suggest that interventions should target situations in which sexual consent or refusal is unclear, and might benefit low empathy males more.

In our second study, we sought to replicate and extend these results. Some participants in this study were shown the video clips from study one, and then were presented with a lesson on study one's findings. We believed that the presentation of findings that indicate a misinterpretation occurring in ambiguous scenarios would cause participants to use more caution when interpreting unclear vignettes. We expected similar findings to those of previous classroom activities on similar topics, such as sexual assault and harassment. These classroom activities have shown positive shifts in students' opinions, as well as high ratings that reflect students' enjoyment (Franiuk, 2007; Madson & Shoda, 2002). Specifically, we hypothesized that participating in the lesson would result in more conservative consent responses to vignettes with ambiguous consent (nonverbal ambiguous consent, absence of consent), or refusal responses (verbal ambiguous refusal). We also hypothesized that the lesson would alter low empathy males' perceptions of consent, making their views more similar to those of high empathy males.

Study Two Methods

Participants

One hundred and eighty-seven participants (113 female) from introductory psychology courses participated in return for course credit. The average age of our sample was 18 years. 74.2% of the participants identified themselves as White, 2.7% as Black/African American, 15.1% as Asian, and 8.1% had other ethnic backgrounds.

Procedural Overview and Materials

Following an informed consent procedure, participants were randomly assigned to a control or experimental group. Participants in the experimental group received the lesson, which included the video segments and questions used in study one. After the lesson, participants saw a brief PowerPoint presentation that summarized the results from study one. They shared their opinions about the value of the activity using a seven-point Likert scale (See Appendix D for the full questionnaire). Since this lesson is designed to be a classroom activity, it would be best if students enjoyed it and were engaged.

All participants read 27 vignettes in a random order, which were similar to those used by Peck et al. (2013). Each vignette described a first-date scenario and contained one of nine types of consent or refusal responses (see Appendix C for a description of the different types of consent and refusal used). Three vignettes were designed for each type of consent and refusal. After reading each vignette, participants were asked to indicate, on a seven-point Likert scale, the magnitude of the female's sexual consent. Next, participants completed an empathy questionnaire that used a five-point Likert scale (Caruso & Mayer, 1998). Lastly, students answered demographic questions.

Study Two Results and Discussion

We wanted to determine if the responses provided by the experimental group replicated the trends observed in study one. Since the main focus of this study was not on the open-ended responses, we used a simplified version of study one's coding scheme. In the new coding system, sex and manipulation were coded together, and several coding categories which proved less important were combined together under an "other" category (see Appendix A, Table 2 for the specific codes used). Using the new coding scheme, three trained undergraduate students coded the responses. Inter-rater reliabilities were checked ($\alpha_s > .83$), and disagreements were resolved through discussion.

Male responses about the male character replicated the pattern we saw in study one. When asked what the male character was thinking after the bar scene, male responses were "the man wants sex or to manipulate" (48.6%), "alcohol-related" (18.9%), "the man wants non-sex physical contact" (8.8%), and "other" (e.g., "I'm having fun") (29.7%). When asked what the male character was thinking after the take home scene, male responses were that "the man wants sex or to manipulate" (75.7%), "the man wants non-sex physical contact" (8.1%), "alcohol-related" (0%), and "other" (16.2%).

Female responses about the female character replicated the pattern we saw in study one. When women were asked what the female character was thinking during the bar scene, female responses were "alcohol-related" (21.1%), "the woman wants sex or to manipulate" (15.8%), "the woman wants non-sex physical contact" (8.8%), and "other" (e.g., "My feet are killing me!") (54.4%). We believe that collapsing several of the coding categories is the reason why the "other" response percentage is so high. When women were asked what the female character was thinking during the take home scene, the female responses were that "the woman wants sex or to

manipulate” (47.3%), “the woman wants non-sex physical contact” (18.2%), “alcohol-related” (1.8%), “other” (32.7%).

Consistent with findings from study one, we found a marginally significant trend that showed that males and females had different perceptions of the female characters’ intentions, with $\chi^2(3, N= 92) = 7.02, p = .07$. When asked about the intentions of the opposite-gendered character, the male responses were “the woman wants sex or to manipulate” (45.9%), “the woman wants non-sex physical contact” (2.7%), “alcohol-related” (0%), and “other” (e.g., “I am so tired.”) (51.4%). Also consistent with findings from study one, we found that males and females had similar perceptions of the male character’s intentions, with $\chi^2(2, N = 92) = 1.45, p = .484$. The female responses for the opposite-gendered character were that “the man wants sex or to manipulate” (85.2%), “the man wants non-sex physical contact” (3.7%), “alcohol-related” (0%), “other” (e.g., “I like her outfit”) (11.1%). Collapsing sex and manipulation, as well as removing several of the original coding categories may have weakened our ability to differentiate between intentions.

To investigate the effects of empathy, we divided participants of each gender into three empathy groups: a high empathy group, a middle empathy group, and a low empathy group. To better study high and low empathy individuals, we removed the participants in the middle empathy group from analyses. Low empathy scores for females ranged from 3.1 to 3.73, while the range for males was 2.77 to 3.33. High empathy scores for females ranged from 4.17 to 4.87, while the range for males was 3.67 to 4.33.

We ran a repeated measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on consent and refusal responses with gender, empathy group, vignette type, and lesson condition as factors. There was a significant main effect of vignette type, $F(1, 8) = 834.81, p = .000$, gender, $F(1, 2) = 5.692$,

$p = .018$ and empathy group, $F(2, 2) = 10.08$, $p = .000$. There was not a significant main effect of lesson condition. There was a significant two-way interaction of vignette type and empathy group $F(2, 8) = 3.79$, $p = .00$. There were significant three-way interactions of vignette type, lesson condition, and gender, $F(1, 8) = 2.17$, $p = .028$, and vignette type, gender, and empathy group, $F(1, 8) = 2.82$, $p = .004$.

We hypothesized that the lesson would positively shift the views of low empathy men, but we did not find an interaction of empathy with lesson condition. Because of this, we removed empathy, and included all participants in the following analyses. We ran a repeated measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on consent responses with gender, vignette type, and lesson condition as factors. There were significant two-way interactions of vignette type and gender $F(1, 8) = 2.455$, $p = .012$, and lesson condition and gender $F(1,8) = 4.083$, $p = .045$. There was not a significant two-way interaction of vignette and lesson condition. There was a marginally significant three-way interaction of vignette type, lesson condition and gender, $F(1, 8) = 1.814$, $p = .07$.

To investigate this three-way interaction, post hoc analyses were run. Post hoc analyses showed that females' consent responses in the experimental group ($M = 2.42$, $SD = .08$) were significantly more conservative than females' consent responses in the control group ($M = 2.645$, $SD = .08$), $F(1, 8) = 4.08$, $p = .045$. For explicit nonverbal consent vignettes, the responses of females in the lesson condition ($M = 4.31$, $SD = 1.77$) were significantly more conservative than the response of females in the control group ($M = 4.99$, $SD = 1.73$), $F(1, 1) = 4.28$, $p = .041$. This difference in responses suggests that the lesson made females question if nonverbal consent is a clear indicator of sexual interest. It is possible that exposure to the lesson made females' responses more conservative for situations that did not include verbal consent. Similar trends

were found for ambiguous nonverbal consent vignettes, ($M = 3.30$, $SD = 1.51$) versus ($M = 3.95$, $SD = 1.56$), $F(1, 1) = 4.96$, $p = .028$, and for ambiguous verbal refusal vignettes, ($M = 1.46$, $SD = .82$) versus ($M = 1.80$, $SD = .90$), $F(1, 1) = 4.455$, $p = .037$. Post-hoc analyses showed that for absence of consent vignettes, the responses of females in the lesson condition ($M = 1.68$, $SD = 1.01$) were marginally more conservative than the responses of the control group ($M = 2.02$, $SD = 1.09$), $F(1, 1) = 2.831$, $p = .095$. There were no significant differences in males' responses by group.

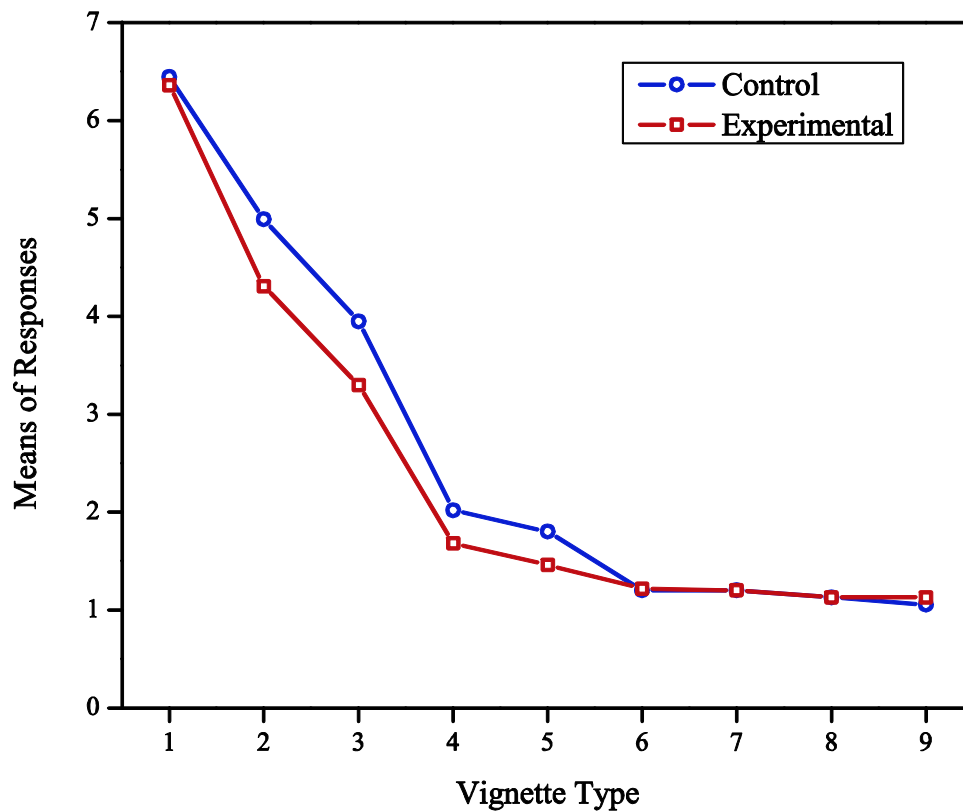


Figure 1. The significant interaction of lesson condition and vignette type for females. The responses of females in the lesson condition were significantly different than the responses of females in the control group.

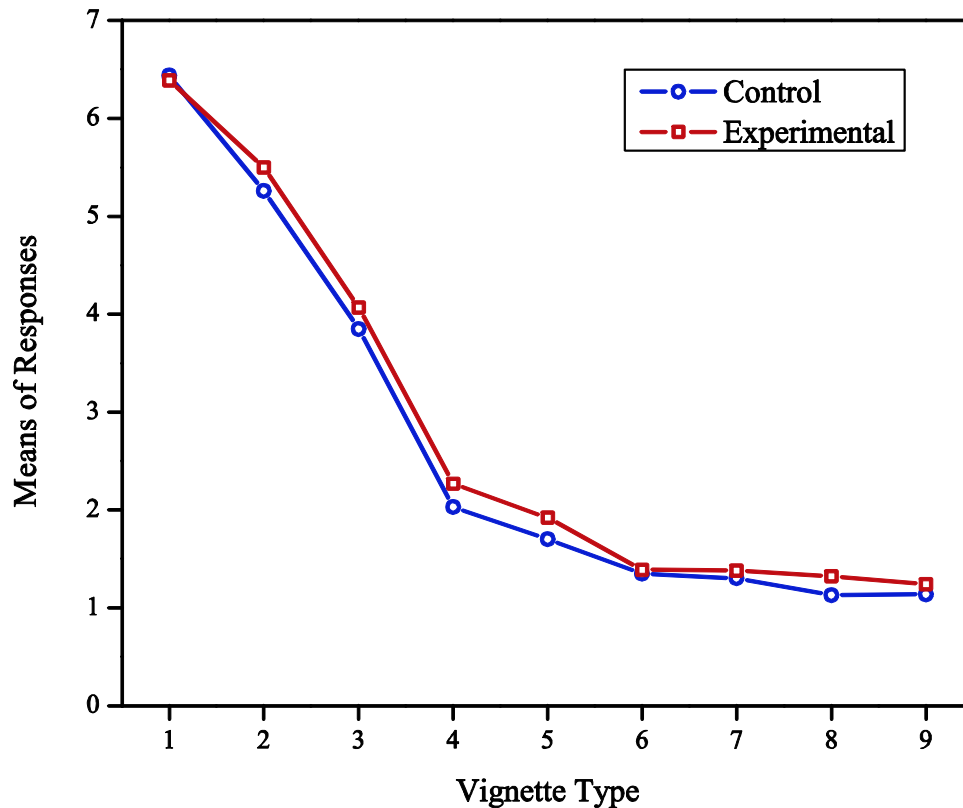


Figure 2. The insignificant interaction of lesson condition and vignette type for males. The lesson did not significantly change males' responses.

We hypothesized that participating in the lesson would result in more conservative consent responses to vignettes with ambiguous consent or refusal responses. Our results showed a lesson condition, vignettes, and gender interaction, indicating partial support for this prediction; our findings showed that this activity made only the responses of females significantly more conservative, but had no effect on males' responses.

Though not formally hypothesized, we were interested in determining if there were gender differences in the responses provided by vignette. While responses in the control

condition did not vary by gender, responses in the experimental condition did. Post hoc analyses showed that females' responses to explicit nonverbal consent vignettes ($M = 4.31, SD = 1.77$) were significantly more conservative than males' responses to explicit nonverbal consent vignettes ($M = 5.5, SD = 1.55$), $F(1, 1) = 11.07, p < .001$. This finding supports previous research by Hall (1995), which showed that only 28% of females indicated sexual consent in a non-verbal way. Even when consent is explicit, females are less likely to believe that a woman provides sexual consent nonverbally. Post hoc analyses showed that females' responses to ambiguous nonverbal consent vignettes ($M = 3.3, SD = 1.51$) were significantly more conservative than males' responses to ambiguous nonverbal consent vignettes ($M = 4.07, SD = 1.58$), $F(1, 1) = 5.59, p < .02$. This significant difference was not surprising; if females responded more conservatively to explicit nonverbal consent, they should also respond more conservatively when the situation becomes more ambiguous. Post hoc analyses showed that females' responses to vignettes where consent was absent ($M = 1.68, SD = 1.01$) were significantly more conservative than males' responses to vignettes where consent was absent ($M = 2.27, SD = 1.28$), $F(1, 1) = 6.06, p < .016$. Post hoc analyses showed that females' responses to ambiguous verbal refusal vignettes ($M = 1.46, SD = .82$) were significantly more conservative than males' responses to ambiguous verbal refusal vignettes ($M = 1.92, SD = .97$), $F(1, 1) = 6.076, p < .016$. Research has shown that females are expected to object when a male's sexual interest exceeds their own (Dripps, Fairstein, West & Denno, 1994). This expectation, paired with exposure to the lesson, may explain why females responded more conservatively to this type of refusal. There were no significant differences in responses to explicit refusal, physical resistance, and fighting back in self-defense vignettes. This finding supports research on college students' ability to

easily label a sexual assault when clear refusal, such as physical resistance, is present (Franiuk, 2005; Goodchilds et al., 1988).

Based on Franiuk's (2007) and Madson and Shoda's (2002) findings that students enjoyed their classroom activity, we wanted to determine how participants in the experimental group felt about the activity. On the seven-point Likert scale, the participant's average activity rating was a 4.08, with a standard deviation of .124, indicating a slightly positive opinion. The activity questionnaire was reliable by calculating Cronbach's Alpha, $\alpha > .85$. To see if ratings varied by gender and empathy level, we ran a univariate Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on activity ratings with gender and empathy group as factors. There was a significant two-way interaction, $F(1, 1) = 4.96, p = .03$. Post hoc analyses showed that low empathy females' activity ratings ($M = 3.56, SD = 1.3$) were significantly lower than high empathy females' activity ratings ($M = 4.56, SD = 1.12$), $F(1,1) = 6.80, p = .013$. It may be that high empathy females' perceptions were reinforced within the lesson, increasing their overall enjoyment of the activity. Post hoc analyses also showed that high empathy males' activity ratings ($M = 3.9, SD = 1.12$) were significantly lower than high empathy females' activity rating ($M = 4.56, SD = 1.12$), $F(1, 1) = 3.139, p = .086$. Perhaps high empathy males felt as though they were different than average men, causing them to feel isolated, and decreasing their enjoyment of the activity. The differences between high and low empathy males, and low empathy females and low empathy males were not statistically significant.

General Discussion

To summarize, in study one we succeeded in creating a video activity that captured gender differences in the interpretation of sexual interest. In study two we replicated the same patterns and tested to see if a lesson, based on study one's video activity, could be used to modify perceptions of consent. We found that our lesson was effective in shifting females' sexual consent views, but only in situations that involved ambiguous forms of consent and refusal. Research has shown that the longer a man's misinterpretation goes uncorrected, the more likely he will feel justified in obtaining forced sex, since he believes he has been "led on" (Abbey, Ross, McDuffie & McAuslan, 1996). If women are made aware that this is happening on college campuses, they can take measures to better protect themselves by recognizing situations in which consent or refusal is unclear.

Based on Peck et al. (2013), we hypothesized that the lesson would alter low empathy males' perceptions of consent, making their views more similar to those of high empathy males. Our analyses did not support our prediction that low empathy men would be more affected by the lesson than females and high empathy males. There are several differences between Peck et al.'s consent study and the current study. In Peck et al.'s (2013) study, participants were asked to answer consent questions about both male and female targets. In study two, participants were only asked about male aggressors and female targets. It might be that participants were influenced by mixed-gender vignettes differently than single-gender vignettes; the presence of a female perpetrator could have altered typical response patterns. Also in Peck et al.'s (2013) study, researchers examined the moderating effect of vignettes' relationship type on consent responses. In our vignettes, we only included first date scenarios. Although Peck et al. found no significant effect of relationship type on consent responses, it may be that mixed-relationship vignettes

influenced participants' mindsets. For example, perhaps a vignette's characters being involved in a romantic relationship influenced responses more than if the characters were on their first date.

Also, for logistical reason, study two used a different empathy scale.

Implications, Limitations, and Future Directions

The data showed that our lesson can be used successfully in classrooms. We found that this activity can positively shift female students' views of sexual consent. Although men may not have benefited from our lesson, it did not hurt their views. Our results show that this activity received slightly positive ratings, especially from high empathy women and low empathy men. The activity is not time-consuming, nor does it require extensive training or resources to properly implement. The lesson can be applied to a variety of discussions (e.g., nonverbal communication, consent cues, rape myth, role of alcohol, and attraction), and within a wide variety of classrooms (i.e. social psychology, human sexual, women's studies classes). Research has shown that freshman, female college students are at the highest risk of being sexually assaulted at school (Smith, White & Holland, 2003). Thus, this lesson may be especially beneficial in freshman orientations and sororities.

Our second study had several limitations. First, generalizability might be a concern in an artificial classroom setting. Demand characteristics might be different in a more familiar classroom setting. Additionally, the lesson was led by two female, White undergraduate students. Students may have responded differently to a male student, someone older, or someone of a different race. Also, students may find the activity more meaningful when administered by a professor. Perhaps they would find the lesson more informative if presented by an individual with a higher education. We collected data on a Saturday afternoon and a Thursday evening. Some students may have had classes prior to participating on Thursday evening, and students are

often tired on Saturday afternoons. It is possible that running the experiment during the weekend was seen as an inconvenience, affecting participants' ratings of the activity. Finally, it is possible that the shift in female participants' views of sexual consent was temporary. Future research should focus on the lasting impact of the change. If it is found that our lesson only has a temporary effect, it might be beneficial to examine how this shift can be sustained. Future research should also investigate why our lesson did not improve males' perceptions of consent

Conclusion

The education of college students on topics such as misperceptions in sexual availability is a crucial first step in addressing the problem of sexual assaults on college campuses. Without an accurate view of sexual consent, it is difficult for college students to properly comprehend an ambiguous sexual situation, or prevent themselves from unintentionally perpetrating a sexual assault. Not only were we able to replicate our classroom activity's original findings, but we were also able to positively shift female students' views of consent. While further research is needed, our finding is a step towards making campuses a safer environment.

Appendix A

Coding Systems with Examples of Responses

Table 1 Coding System Used in Study One		
Category	Example Response	Code
Sex	S/he wants to have sex	1
Non-Sexual Physical Contact	S/he wants to cuddle	2
Likeability (appearance, flirt, hope they like me, interest)	S/he hopes that s/he likes her	3
Drinking	S/he wants to get drunk	4
Manipulate/Degrade Other	S/he wants to get him/her drunk so that s/he can have sex	5
Have Fun	S/he wants to have a good time	6
Unsure What is Next	S/he doesn't know what will happen	7
Uncodeable	Woot!	8

Table 2 Coding System Used in Study Two		
Category	Example Response	Code
Sex	S/he wants to have sex	1
Non-Sexual Physical Contact	S/he wants to cuddle	2
Drinking/Manipulating	S/he wants to get drunk	3
Other	She wants to have a good time; she doesn't know what will happen	4

Appendix B
Responses From Study One

Table 3 Responses by Gender for “Bar Scene”: What is the same sex person thinking?		
	Women	Men
Sex	4.88%	28.45%
Non-sexual physical contact	1.83%	0.0%
Likeability (appearance, flirt, hope they like me, interest)	45.73%	16.38%
Drinking	24.39%	22.41%
Manipulate/degrade other	3.05%	23.28%
Have fun	17.07%	6.89%
Unsure what is next	3.05%	2.59%

Table 4 Responses by gender for “Take Home Scene”: What is the same sex person thinking?		
	Women	Men
Sex	31.29%	80.18%
Non-sexual physical contact	19.05%	1.8%
Likeability (appearance, flirt, hope they like me, interest)	19.05%	8.11%
Drinking	12.24%	0.0%
Manipulate/degrade other	2.04%	3.6%
Have fun	6.81%	4.51%
Unsure what is next	9.52%	1.8%

	Women	Men
Sex	84.15%	38.24%
Non-sexual physical contact	1.83%	3.92%
Likeability (appearance, flirt, hope they like me, interest)	3.05%	25.49%
Drinking	0.0%	8.82%
Manipulate/degrade other	6.71%	0.98%
Have fun	1.83%	6.86%
Unsure what is next	2.43%	15.69%

Appendix C

The response continuum with example vignettes

1. Explicit verbal consent: Saying “Yes” to a specific sexual activity. Both the language and the exact sexual activity are clear and specific.
Example vignette: Kevin and Jillian were watching a television show together on their first date, when Kevin leans in to kiss Jillian. Kevin says, “So, do you want to have sex tonight?” Jillian responds with a yes.
2. Explicit nonverbal consent: Reciprocating a sexual activity or initiating a more intimate sexual activity, such as kissing someone in return or taking off the partner’s clothes. When appropriate to the context and “in sync” with the partner’s behavior, such nonverbal communication can be almost as clear as a verbal expression of consent.
Example vignette: John and Trish were watching television on their first date, when John leans in and passionately kisses Trish. In response, Trish begins to take off John’s pants.
3. Ambiguous nonverbal consent: Expressing some sort of consent in actions, but not clearly tied to a sexual activity. For example, getting up to turn off the lights after reciprocating a kiss. The ambiguity leaves the interpretation of the behavior particularly vulnerable to misunderstanding based on the other person’s assumptions and attitudes.
Example vignette: Mike and Kristen were on their first date. After watching a movie, Mike turns to Kristen, and says “Let’s spend the night together.” Kristen gets up to turn off the lights.
4. Absence of consent, acquiescence: Expressing little or no consent or refusal. For example, acting passive and quiet.
Example vignette: Kate and Colin were on their first date. Colin leans his head on Kate’s shoulder, puts his hand on the inside of Kate’s thigh and says, “I want you.” Kate does not respond.
5. Ambiguous verbal refusal: Expressing vague reluctance or discomfort, such as “I’m not sure this is such a good idea”. Again, this ambiguous communication is particularly vulnerable to misunderstanding.
Example vignette: Carla and Greg were on their first date, and decided to cook a meal together. During the meal, Greg puts his arm around Carla, leans in to kiss her and unbuttons her pants. Carla says, “I don’t this is a good idea.”
6. Explicit nonverbal refusal: Actively interrupting a specific sexual activity, such as pushing a partner’s hand away, or getting up and getting dressed.
Example vignette: Jesse and Lily were on their first date. After sharing a kiss, Jesse starts to unbutton Lily’s pants. Lily pushes his hand away and re-buttons her pants.

7. Explicit verbal refusal: Clearly saying “No” to a specific sexual activity, such as: “Stop touching me there...” or “I don’t want to have sex with you”.
Example vignette: Rich and Maria were on their first date. Rich pulls Maria in close to him and says, “Why don’t we leave and go have fun at my place?” Maria responds, “No, I don’t want to go back to your place, I want to stay here.”
8. Physical resistance: Actively struggling to stop all physical contact or get away. Screaming or calling for help.
Example vignette: Charles and Laura were on their first date. Charles pushes Laura’s back against a wall and moves in to kiss her. Laura struggles to get away, but Charles holds her there.
9. Fighting back in self-defense: Actively punching, kicking, etc. to protect oneself by injuring the assailant. In the extreme, this would include “Justifiable homicide” in self-defense.
Example vignette: Joe and Vicky were on their first date. While watching a movie, Joe kisses Vicky’s neck and starts to take her shirt off. Vicky pushes him away, but Joe continues to try to take off her shirt as she punches and kicks him.

Appendix D
The Questionnaire Completed by the Experimental Group

Activity Questionnaire

Please rate your agreement with the following statements using the scale below:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please circle the answer choice that best matches your opinion.

1. I thought this activity was very informative about sexual intentions. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. I thought this activity was very useful for learning about sexual intentions. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. I learned things about sexual intentions that I did not previously know. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. I think this activity will influence my views on sexual intentions. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. I thought this activity was a waste of time. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. I think this activity should be used in classrooms. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

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ACADEMIC VITA

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Education

The Pennsylvania State University, State College, PA May 2014
 Bachelor of Arts in Psychology
 Minor: Human Development and Family Studies
 Research Proposal: "Efficacy of Treatment Methods in ADHD"
 Literature Review: "Asperger's Syndrome"

Relevant Course Work:

Developmental Psychology, Interventions, Research Methods, Psychological Intervention in Childhood, Statistics, Mental Health Practicum with Children, Developmental Psychopathology, Child Psychopathology

Computer Skills:

SPSS, Interact, Microsoft Office

Research Experience

Research Assistant- PRISM September 2012- May 2014
 Worked with Dr. Andrew Peck
 Designed an educational toolkit on sexual assault for instructors
 Researched gender differences in the interpretation of sexual advances
 Performed statistical analyses on data collected in a survey

Research Assistant- Child Development Center September 2011- December 2013
 Worked under Dr. Lynn Liben
 Researched gender differences in spatial skills
 Evaluated videos by transcribing and utilizing a coding system
 Recruited families to participate in studies

Teaching Experience

Lecture Teaching Assistant Spring 2013
 Aided the professor in a introductory psychology course that contained over 300 students
 Developed and designed a social media page for the students to exchange notes, receive clarification, and to become more informed
 Administered review sessions prior to exams

Group Leader October 2012- February 2013
 Implemented an intervention for boys aged 9-11 with ADHD and autism spectrum disorders
 Aided the children in developing friendship skills and improving upon their social deficits

Teaching Assistant September 2012 – May 2013
 Assisted Dr. Andrew Peck in developing a sexual assault toolkit for professors
 Designed questions to be used within a psychology course's reading quizzes
 Created a poster that was displayed at the Eastern Psychological Association conference

Lecture Teaching Assistant Spring 2011
 Assisted students excel in Gender Roles in Communication– a 400 level communication arts and sciences course
 Produced a comprehensive study guide
 Recorded grades received on exams

Work Experience

Intern June 2013- December 2013
 Worked at the Evidence Based Prevention and Intervention Service Center
 Evaluated the performance of spreadsheets on Microsoft Excel
 Updated implementation manuals for communities to utilize

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 Administered exams within the psychology department
 Enforced Penn State's academic integrity policy
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 Volunteered as a counselor, group leader, and bus monitor for a program designed to assist children with various mental disorder
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Awards

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