Greek students’ attitudes toward rape

AIKATERINI GARI1, GEORGE GEORGULEAS2
ARTEMIS GiotSA3 & ELENI-ANNA STATHOPOULOU4

ABSTRACT

Literature on sexual harassment and violence against women describes a variety of myths and stereotypes regarding partial or total responsibility of rape victims and their “enjoyment” of sexual violence. Rape stigma and rape myths are aspects of generalized attitudes toward victims of rape and rapists, while it seems that sexual violence remains a taboo in today’s western societies. This study explores Greek university students’ attitudes towards rape. A questionnaire created for the purpose of this study was administered to 950 Greek students at the University of Athens and at the University of Ioannina, divided into three groups: a group of students from the Faculty of Law, a group from Departments orientated to Humanistic and Social Sciences and a group of students from other Faculties and Departments of Applied Sciences. Factor analysis revealed four factors: “Rape victim’s responsibility”, “Defining the concept of rape”, “Rape motivation” and “Rapist’s characteristics”. In line with previous research findings, the results indicated that women were less accepting of conservative attitudes towards rape than men; they also seemed to reject attitudes of “blaming the victim” more, and to hold negative views of rapists. Additionally, the results showed that students of rural origin retain more conservative attitudes with respect to the victim’s responsibility and the rapist’s characteristics than students of urban origin. Finally, students in Law Departments seemed to have accepted more moderate attitudes than the other two groups of students; they mostly disagree with conservative attitudes regarding victim’s responsibilities along with the Social Science students, but they agree more with Applied Sciences students in defining rape.

Key words: Rape, Rape attitudes, Rape stereotypes, Rape myths.

1. Introduction

While rape and sexual violence still remain a taboo in the majority of today’s western societies, social researchers have explored attitudes towards rape, perceptions of rape and “rape mythology”. Literature on sexual harassment and violence against women describes a variety of stereotypes regarding the partial or total responsibility of rape victims and the “victim’s enjoyment” of sexual violence.
violence. These beliefs are based on a stereotypical, conservative script concerning sex roles and behavior. One aspect of this script is that women’s role is to resist sexual activity and the other aspect is that men’s role is to disregard women’s protest, because men have to take sexual initiative and persist in their sexual advances (Acock & Ireland, 1983; Calhoun et al., 1981).

Some feminists have claimed that rape is at near epidemic levels in the USA and that official statistics do not reflect this situation because rape is the most under-reported crime (Brickley, 2005; Burt, 2001). Some other theorists have claimed that rape is relatively uncommon and that reporting rates are relatively high (O’Byrne, Rapley, & Hansen, 2006). In general, rape is a word that can strike fear into every citizen, and to members of every society. The way rape is perceived by a society seems to be differentiated across cultures and also within cultures among various groups in regard to race, sex, minorities and political groups in modern western type societies. Thus, while most psychological theories of rape focus on some internal factors of both rapists and their victims, social psychological theories stress social and cultural factors that produce the phenomenon of rape (O’Byrne, Rapley, & Hansen, 2006).

A traditional or “classical” legal definition of rape refers to incidents in which “...a man engages in intercourse with a woman other than his wife by force or threat of force, against her will and without her consent” (Estrich, 1995: 183). Such a definition does not include the majority of rape cases; consequently, criminal justice officials are confronted with situations that deviate from that definition of “classic rape”. This results in complicated explanations of the incident that depend on the victim’s credibility, the interpersonal context of the incident and a variety of stereotypical and prejudicial beliefs toward rape victims (Estrich, 1995; Frohmann, 1995). A research study in Germany revealed that police officers tend to define six kinds of rape situations -“the typical” or the most common type of rape, “the credible”, “the dubious”, “the false rape complaints”, “the particularly hard rape experience” and “the relatively easy for the victim to cope with”- sharing this way some of the widely held rape stereotypes. However, they generally perceive rape as a serious crime with long-term negative consequences for the victim (Krahé, 1991).

Research data from European countries such as Germany, France, Switzerland and Greece (Killias, 1990; Pitsela, 1991; Tsalikoglou, 1989; Tsigris, 1999), as well as from the USA (Berkowitz, 1992; Burt, 2001; Skogan, 1984) verified that the majority of rape crimes are denounced by police agents (Frohmann, 1995). In Switzerland, most rape incidents usually occur in small towns with less than 20,000 inhabitants (Killias, 1990). On the contrary, other research findings verified that they mostly happen in big cities e.g. in Paris and its suburbs (Tsigris, 1999).

Theoretically, rape is associated with gender stereotypes, generalizations about rapists’ and victims’ behavior based on biopsychological assumptions and schemas about masculinity and femininity; in these schemas masculine attributes such as dominance and self-reliance are associated with men and feminine attributes such as nurturance and warmth are associated with women (Powell, 1993). Attitudes towards sexual violence and rape are based on the attitude theory in the area of social psychology. Attitudes are internal, enduring predispositions that encompass cognitive and affective elements and may have an important influence on individuals’ behavior (Bohner & Wänke, 2002; Petty & Cacioppo, 1981, Petty, Wegener, & Fabrigar, 1997). They function as a procedure of categorizing the environment and handling the complexity and ambiguity of the world, along with a process of achieving rewards and avoiding punishment within a utilitarian view of the social environment (Abelson & Prentice, 1989; Katz, 1960, Shavitt, 1989). Of course the same attitude may serve different functions for the same person at different times and most attitudes may be multifunctional, thus they do serve more than a
single function (Bohner & Wänke, 2002). For example, for a woman, an attitude towards rape victims may be based on an instrumental aspect that might be helpful to her own everyday behavior as well as on a value-expressive aspect such as supporting the rejection of any kind of violence against women.

Some sets of attitudes toward victims of sexual rape and rapists incorporate aspects of rape stigma and rape myths, according to which female’s “nature” is thought to be “masochistic”, so that every woman subconsciously wants to be raped. Additionally, male’s nature is sexually so strong that men cannot remain sexually unsatisfied and cannot suppress their sexual urge/desire; consequently, sexual harassment corresponds to a biological need (Burt, 2001; Doherty & Anderson, 2004). In regard to rape victims, rape myths argue that they can avoid sexual harassment if they resist strongly, but in most of the cases victims “urge rape” through their appearance and attitude (Doherty & Anderson, 2004). Although rape myths also assume that victims and rapists do not know each other, research findings in the USA and in Greece revealed that more than 55% of rape crimes were committed from relatives and individuals in close contact with the victim, such as a neighbor or an acquaintance. In addition, although a rape is thought to be mainly committed in public, remote, dark places during the night, research data revealed that rape crimes are mostly committed by the victim’s or the rapist’s house during the day (Burt, 2001; Tsigris, 1999). The bystanders/eyewitnesses who have generally appeared to be seeking for some rationale or some justification for blaming the victim, seem to follow a just-world-belief, whereby people get what they deserve and deserve what they get (Lerner, 1980; Muehlenhard et al., 1992; Whatley & Riggio, 1993). It has been found that these attitudes are mostly influenced by the mass media through sexually aggressive films and less by the pornographic or sexually explicit contexts (Weisz & Earls, 1995). In general, rape mythology, sexual aggression attitudes and sexual stereotypes are highly correlated with attitudes that somehow accept violence against women and less control of sexuality for them (Caron & Carter, 1997; Koss & Dinero, 1988).

Individuals differ in respect to the extent in which they endorse such a stereotypical form of thinking and in the extent they utilize this stereotypical form when they make judgements about oneself and others. Sex-typed individuals have been socialized to accept society’s traditional prescriptions regarding gender-roles. Specifically, sex-typed men rely mostly on gender schemas regarding men’s and women’s performance, social behavior, various occupations and career choices (Perry, Davis-Blake, & Kulik, 1994), as well as individuals’ sexual behavior (Korabik, 1997). Career choices along with individuals’ study orientation are also associated with sex-role attitudes and sexual behavior, in the extent to which selecting one’s studies and career is oriented mostly either towards traditionally male-dominated occupations such as medicine, mathematics, physics, business management, law etc. or towards traditionally female-dominated occupations such as teaching, nursing and clerical work (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987).

In respect to differences between men and women in their attitudes towards rape incidents, it seems that males incorporate the above attitudes toward rape and rape myths more easily than females. Specifically, men and women differ in their perception of rape and their acceptance of rape mythology in terms of blaming the victim or holding the victim partially accountable for the attack (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Researchers have demonstrated that women are more likely to accept negative views of the rapist, compared to men (Jenkins & Dambrot, 1987; Malamuth, Haber, & Feshbach, 1980; Margolin, Miller, & Moran, 1989). Compared to females, males seem more likely to hold victims of rape somehow responsible for the incident, “a myth” that seems to be correlated positively with self-reported rape proclivity (Bohner et al., 1998). Additionally, males tend to blame the victim more than females and
this tendency holds true even when the rape victim is male. Men also appear to be more sensitive to the introduction of a rationale for blaming the victim than are women when assigning blame to a male rape victim (Burt, 1980; Whatley & Riggio, 1992, 1993). Age seems to be highly correlated with rape attitudes as older women tend to accept more rape myths compared to younger women (Kalra et al., 1998). In respect to sex roles beliefs and tolerance of rape, it was found that there is strong correlation between the acceptance of traditional social roles for men and women and tolerance of rape (Fischer, 1986). Individuals with traditional gender roles, sex stereotypes and more conservative sexual values tend to accept more rape mythology (Check & Malamuth, 1983; Shotland, 1985; Weidner & Griffitt, 1983).

Other research studies that explored the predictors of attitudes toward rape and rape myths found that one of the strongest predictors is the individual’s sex (Barnett & Field, 1977; Hendrick et al., 1985; Margolin, Miller, & Moran, 1989), along with the individual’s race, despite the fact that 90% of rape incidents are committed between persons of the same race. On the other hand, in 18 states of the USA, it has been found that only black men who raped white women were sentenced to death, while white rapists have remained to prison (Burt, 2001; Estrich, 1995; Griffin, 2005; Tsigris, 1999).

Stereotypes about the two sexes and sex-role attitudes vary across cultures and cultural groups according to economic and social parameters, along with the sex role ideology. The extent to which the women’s social status is perceived as less strong, in comparison to the status of men, seems to influence the higher acceptance of sex stereotypes against women (Williams & Best, 1989). The ideology of sexual equality seems to be more acceptable in highly developed western countries and a few non-Western nations such as Malaysia, Nigeria and Peru (Williams & Best, 1982), in Christian societies or groups rather than in Moslem ones (Williams & Best, 1989) and among female university students rather than male students (Kalin, Heusser, & Edmonds, 1982; Williams & Best, 1989). In Reiss’ sociological cross-cultural studies (1986), all social groups accept patterns of sexual activity and sexual behaviors closely linked to cultural context, along with the kinship system related to the two sexes, power structure favoring men and/or women and the relative sex-role ideological beliefs. The greater the social power possessed by each sex, the greater the probability for this sex to control sexuality and define sexual scripts; consequently, when women’s kinship ties are strong, female power is greater and women experience less sexual abuse. Broude also proved, by coding data from 201 societies (1983), that the higher masculinity in the male sex-role ideology, the greater the sexual hostility, repressive attitudes toward female sexuality and husband-wife aloofness, and less sexual intimacy.

Rural areas in western societies are more often characterized by less modern attitudes towards women’s social roles regarding entering the workforce, entering male-dominated occupations, participating in political procedures, having civil equality and not being mostly responsible for taking care of the household. In rural areas of the U.K., due to their residents’ traditional obedience to husbands and the attitude accepted that family problems should be kept within family, it seems that most cases of domestic violence remain un-reported (Anderson, 1997). The perceived lack of anonymity and the consequent worry of confidentiality in rural areas lead to fear for seeking help and lack of reporting male violence and abuse in most of the cases (Marshall & Johnson, 2005). Some research studies highlight the stronger articulation of patriarchal values, attitudes and beliefs in rural areas, which are underpinned by religious beliefs, community cohesion and conformity; these specific features of rural life have been identified as impacting on woman abuse (Websdale, 1995, 1998; Websdale & Alvarez, 1998). Studies in the USA and Australia argue that rural cultural features tend to close-knit, self-contained, conservative and unlikely to
turn to “other people” for assistance, and that these features result in low rates of reporting sexual violence, limited opportunities for victim services and difficulties for service providers (Anderson, 1999; Lees & Gregory, 1996; Lewis, 2003; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Malamuth, Haber, & Feshbach, 1980; Neame & Heenan 2004; Weidner & Griffitt, 1983). Studies conducted in Greece also argue that rural environment residents are more conservative towards rape victim’s responsibility and victim’s proclivity towards being raped, than the urban areas residents; and in the vast majority of cases rape victims are women (Tsalikoglou, 1989; Tsigris, 1999).

Researchers in Greece have paid little attention to the issue of rape through a rather timid and unsystematic fashion, so it seems to be of importance to explore young people’s attitudes towards rape in depth and from a social psychological perspective. It is also important to note that, as recently as 2006, the Greek government instituted the law 3488/2006, «Enforcement of the principle concerning the equal treatment of men and women in education, in vocational education and development, in rules and conditions of employment». This law establishes a criminal/penal offence for every action which constitutes sexual abuse, which is defined as “every verbal, non verbal and corporal conduct with sexual substance, which abuses the human dignity and creates a threatening, hostile, humiliating and aggressive environment”.

The present study is an effort to investigate the Greek university student’s attitudes towards rape by exploring the relationship of their attitudes with the variables of participants’ sex, place of permanent residence (urban/rural) and orientation of studies. One of the research questions of this study was to examine whether there are differences in students’ attitudes between men and women, and then between students in urban and rural places of permanent residence and finally, between different orientations in their studies; the latter, in relation to the grade their studies represent a traditionally male-dominated or female-dominated occupation and career. Another research question examined which subgroups of the students’ sample accept more conservative attitudes towards rape based on “myths” and stereotypes. The question was whether men, students of rural origin and students from departments of Applied Sciences (i.e., Biology, Physics, Mathematics, Mechanics etc) would have mostly incorporated more conservative attitudes towards rape, in comparison with women, students of urban origin and students from faculties of Social Sciences and Humanities such as Psychology, Archaeology, Philology and Education. Law studies and Applied Sciences, although they are both mostly considered male-dominated studies, they are currently investigated as separate dimensions due to the specific association of the phenomenon of rape with criminality and violence legislation.

2. Method

Sample and research procedure

The participants in the study were 950 Greek university students of the University of Athens (601 students, 63.3%) and the University of Ioannina (349 students, 36.7%). Their mean age was 21.7 years (SD=1.90); 318 were males (33.5%) and 632 were females (66.5%).

Despite the convenience sampling procedure employed, we tried to secure a sampling procedure as unbiased as possible and to have in the data as much variability of the variable “place of permanent residence” as possible. Therefore, one question regarding student’s place of permanent residence was added, asking for their family’s permanent residence prior to their commencement of their studies (at the age of 18). This was done in an effort to clarify that the students’ place of study should not be confused with their place of permanent residence. We initially formed four groups of students according to their permanent place of residence: Athens and
Thessaloniki (1), big cities such as Patras, Volos, Larissa, Heracleon, Chania, Ioannina (2), small cities (semi-urban areas) such as Preveza, Kavala, Agrinion, Chalkida, with population greater than 50,000 inhabitants (3), and towns, villages and islands (4). Finally, we reclassified all the urban and semi-urban areas with a population greater than 20,000 inhabitants as “urban” (1) and the small towns, villages and islands with population less than 20,000 inhabitants as “rural” (2).

According to the orientation of the participants’ studies, the participants, students in the Athens and Ioannina universities, were divided into three groups: (a) Humanities and Social Sciences departments (the Department of Psychology, the Schools of Philosophy and their Departments of Pedagogy and Philology, the Departments of Archaeology and English Literature, Schools of Teachers Education and the Departments of Sociology and Social Work), (b) Faculty of Law, University of Athens, and (c) Applied Sciences (Polytechnic School Departments, Schools of Economics, Faculties of Physics, Biology and Mathematics, School of Agriculture).

**Questionnaire**

The questionnaire we employed was created for the purpose of this study. In previous studies, researchers employed the following methods: (a) the description of a fictional account of a reported rape in combination with a questionnaire created for the specific purposes of their study (Whatley & Riggio, 1992, 1993), (b) movie rating questionnaires in combination with the employment of specific films and tests such as the Rape Myth Acceptance Scale and the Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence Scale in an experimental design (Burt, 1980), (c) a test i.e., the Attraction to Sexual Aggression Scale (Malamuth, 1989), and (d) a combination of more than two instruments (Weisz & Earls, 1995).

Based on the above tests and questionnaires and on the relevant literature for rape in Greece (Tsalkoglou, 1989; Tsigris, 1999), we first created a semi-structured questionnaire consisting of seven dimensions of the rape phenomenon: the extent to which the rape incident is denounced by police agents and legal authorities, the victim characteristics, the rapist’s characteristics, myths about the victim, myths about the rapist, sex-roles and sex violence in Greece and sexual behavior of the two sexes in Greece. Twelve semi-structured interviews with 41 students of the University of Athens, organized in small groups of 3-4 participants, were performed as the next step of the procedure for the development of the questionnaire. These interviews provided an initial pool of 76 statements. Finally, we retained 50 statements which clearly expressed either a conservative or a non-conservative attitude about rape.

The final questionnaire of 50 questions incorporated four dimensions of meaning: attitudes towards denouncing the fact of rape to police agents and legal authorities (Part A), attitudes towards the victim characteristics (Part B), the rapist’s characteristics (Part C), attitudes towards gender stereotypes and sexual conduct (Part D). Cronbach’s α indices are reported in Table 1. Additionally, a set of demographic questions was also included that referred to gender, students’ faculty, department and year of studies, place of permanent residence and parents’ education and profession. A Likert five point scale was employed with (5) meaning “agree”, (3) “neither agree nor disagree” and (1) “disagree”. The 1-5 poles of the questions were inverted according to their conservative and stereotypical content of each item versus the less conservative and non-mythical content, in a way that (1) was the non-conservative pole and (5) was the conservative pole of responses; In all, 9 questions were recoded.

The questionnaire was administered to students in the university amphitheatres and classes for approximately 50 minutes before the beginning of their lectures. To counter-balance sequencing effects, approximately half of the
questionnaires (485) were administered under A, B, C and D order and the remaining questionnaires (465) were administered under D, C, B, A order. Additionally, the set of demographic questions was placed at the beginning of the questionnaire for the first group of the questionnaires and at the end for the other group of questionnaires.

3. Results

An exploratory Factor analysis with principal components analysis and orthogonal rotation solution testing for the presence of some factors in the data revealed four factors: Factor 1 “Rape victim’s responsibility”, Factor 2 “Defining the concept of rape”, Factor 3 “Rape motivation”, and Factor 4 “Rapist’s characteristics” (see Table 1).

By employing analyses of Student's t-test (two tailed, for independent samples), we compared the four factor means first in respect to the respondents’ gender and then to their place of permanent residence. Additionally we employed one-way ANOVAs analyses for comparing the participants answers regarding their faculty orientation.

Regarding students’ gender (Table 2), for Factor 1 “victim’s responsibility for the rape”, men (M=2.45) accepted more conservative attitudes than women (M=1.87) at a statistically significant level. Also in Factor 2 “definition of the concept of rape”, men (M=2.04) seemed to accept more conservative attitudes than women (M=1.68) in a statistically significant level. No statistically significant differences were found for Factor 3 “rape motivation” (Murban=3.19 and Mrural=3.12) nor for Factor 4 “rapist’s characteristics” (Mmen=2.74 and Mwomen=2.66).

Differences between students’ attitudes in respect to place of residence (see Table 3) were statistically significant for Factor 1 and Factor 4. In Factor 1 “rape victim’s responsibility” students from rural areas (M=2.14) seemed to accept more conservative attitudes as compared with students from urban areas (M=2.02). In Factor 4 “Rapist’s characteristics”, students of rural origin (M=2.69) seemed to have more conservative attitudes than students of urban origin (M=2.55).

For Factor 2 “defining the concept of rape” between students of urban and rural origin (Murban=1.83 and Mrural 1.76) and for Factor 3 “rape motivation” (Murban=3.16 and Mrural=3.10) no statistically significant differences were found.

Finally, in respect to Factor 1 and according to analysis of variance results and post-hoc Scheffé tests (Table 4), “rape victim’s responsibility” the Social Sciences students’ and the Law students’ attitudes differ from the Applied Sciences. Additionally, for Factor 2, “definition of the concept of rape”, attitudes stated by Social Sciences students differ from the other two groups. In general, the Applied Sciences students seem to have more conservative attitudes in comparison to Humanistic and Social Sciences students in respect to victim’s responsibility, but Law and Applied Sciences students seem to have more conservative attitudes than the Social Sciences students in defining rape. No statistically significant differences were found for Factors 3 and 4.

4. Discussion

Gender differences, in line with previous research findings, seem to be supported by the results of the study (Caron & Carter, 1997; Koss & Dinero, 1988; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Margolin, Miller, & Moran, 1989). The women of the sample, in comparison with the men, seem to be less conservative in all their attitudes about the content of rape and the victim’s and rapist’s responsibility in the case of marital rape as well as in the relationships between genders. Women seem to be less likely to view every case of rape as the victim’s fault and more likely to express negative views of the rapist. They are also inclined to reject attitudes promoting the idea that women “enjoy” rape to some extent as well as attitudes that exclude forcible sexual contact in
### Factor 1

“Rape victim’s responsibility” explaining 14.92% of the total variance ($\alpha=0.89$)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Loadings</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.64</td>
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<tr>
<td>0.64</td>
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<tr>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.62</td>
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<tr>
<td>0.61</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

1. If victims have been raped in the past, they more than likely provoked the rape in some way.
2. Women who fall victims of rape are usually sexually provocative.
3. In the case of rape, when the victim and the rapist know each other beforehand, then, it is likely that the former has provoked the latter.
4. A large percentage of accusations of rape are unfounded because, when most women say "No" they actually mean "Yes".
5. Most women at some point in their lives, in an attempt to satisfy their unfulfilled ambition, provoke, through their attitude, situations entailing the danger of rape.
6. Most women at some point in their lives, in an attempt to attract the attention of men, provoke, through their attitude, situations entailing the danger of rape.
7. A woman who hesitates to report an incident of rape does so because she basically knows that she herself, through her attitude, provoked the incident.
8. When a person claims to have been raped and delays reporting the incident, it is more likely that they are lying.
9. When a victim of rape feels guilty of what has happened, this is indicative of a certain level of responsibility for the rape.
10. It is common for a woman to unjustly accuse a man of rape because she regrets getting sexually involved with him.
11. In some cases of rape, the victim “deserved” what happened to them to a certain extent.
12. Victims usually “enjoy” being raped to a certain extent.
13. A woman who initially reports a rape but then withdraws the accusation does so because the initial accusation was false as she has ulterior motives.
14. Most accusations of rape are unjustified.
15. Women often accuse men of rape even though they are not guilty.
16. Women who usually fall victims of rape are easily led-naive.
17. Women who go out alone at night are basically “looking for trouble” as far as rape is concerned.
18. All women have a deep-rooted desire to be raped and because of this, the accusation of rape against a man is meaningless.

Eigenvalue = 7.62
Table 1 (continues)

Factor analysis of the 50 items of attitudes towards rape

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor 2</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Defining the concept of rape” explaining 5.40% of the total variance (α=0.62)</td>
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<tr>
<td><em>Eigenvalue</em> = 2.79</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>– When a husband forces his wife through physical violence to come into sexual contact with him, it cannot be considered as rape.</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– When a husband forces his wife through psychological violence to come into sexual contact with him, it cannot be considered as rape.</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– A man who forces, through violence, an unknown woman to have sexual contact with him, is more to blame than a husband who forces his spouse in the same way.</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Rape is quite rare.</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Rape is a crime that can only threaten women.</td>
<td>0.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor 3</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Rape motivation” explaining 5.03% of the total variance (α=0.51)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Eigenvalue</em> = 2.74</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>– The rapist’s main motive is to fulfill his sexual desire.</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Many rapists are sexually starved and this leads to the act of rape, in order to release the pressure they feel.</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Rape is a spontaneous act, which is carried out due to impulsive sexual desire.</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– During a rape case female judges/juries identify more with the victim, while male judges/juries identify more with the rapist.</td>
<td>0.34</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor 4</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Rape characteristics” explaining 4.46% of the total variance (α=0.64)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Eigenvalue</em> = 2.71</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Serial rapists are usually people of low socio-economic level.</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Serial rapists are usually people of low educational level.</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– For someone who is accused of rape and who has a past history with the law, excluding a sexual crime, is more likely to be guilty</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2
Means, SDs and Student’s t-tests for the four factors means by students’ gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th>df</th>
<th>&lt;p&gt; &lt;/p&gt;</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Women</td>
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<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape victim’s responsibility</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>13.95</td>
<td>935</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defining the concept of rape</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>7.28</td>
<td>942</td>
<td>&lt;0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape motivation</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>944</td>
<td>&gt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapist’s characteristics</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>947</td>
<td>&gt;0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3
Means, SDs and Student’s t-tests for the four factors means by students’ permanent residence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Students’ residence</th>
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<th>df</th>
<th>&lt;p&gt; &lt;/p&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Urban areas</td>
<td>Rural areas</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape victim’s responsibility</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>-2.49</td>
<td>935</td>
<td>&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defining the concept of rape</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>942</td>
<td>&gt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape motivation</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>944</td>
<td>&gt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapist’s characteristics</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>-2.45</td>
<td>945</td>
<td>&lt;0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4
One-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs) on the four factors means by students’ faculty orientation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>df</th>
<th>&lt;p&gt; &lt;/p&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social sciences</td>
<td>Law Sciences</td>
<td>Applied</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape victim’s responsibility</td>
<td>1.96&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>1.98&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>2.28&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>24.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defining the concept of rape</td>
<td>1.71&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>1.86&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>1.91&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>7.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape motivation</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapist’s characteristics</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Post-hoc comparisons (Scheffé) were performed across groups and are denoted in superscript. For the “responsibility” factor the applied sciences differ from the other two groups and for the “concept” factor the social sciences differ from the other two groups at the 0.05 level.

These results may support the idea that female students mostly identify with rape victims, who, in most of the cases, are women, and this interpretation is in line with relevant research conclusions (Barnett et al., 1986; Caron & Carter, 1997). They also suggest that Greek students tend to accept conservative attitudes regarding males’ and females’ sex roles and specific modes of conduct regarding their sex, mostly based on stereotypes and myths about the two sexes, even in rape, a socially undesirable incident that strikes fear and anxiety to every human being. However, since the ’90s, Greek students seemed to reject values based on the traditional family roles with respect to the two sexes, e.g. they rejected the role of the father as “pater familias” or to absolutely trade the household expenses, and the role of the mother as someone who is submissive and obedient to father (Georgas, 1989; Georgas et al., 1996). It seems that, although recent societal changes urging women to participate more and more in labor force have served to redefine the genders’ family roles and young people’s family values, they have not served effectively to transform the young people’s attitudes towards men and women’s sex roles and behaviors.

Additionally, and in line with previous studies, our results show that students from rural areas are more conservative with respect to attitudes of accountability for rape, than the urban area students (Anderson, 1997, 1999; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Malamuth, Habor, & Feshbach, 1980; Tsalikoglou, 1989; Tsigris, 1999; Weidner & Griffitt, 1983). More so than students from the larger cities, students whose families live permanently in small Greek towns and villages seemed to have incorporated the following attitudes: Rape victims — mostly women — “deserve” what happened to them because they somehow provoke the rape incident which justifies their feeling of guilt after it has taken place; they do not report the incident to authorities, or delay reporting it; and a woman might accuse a man of rape out of regret for having got sexually involved with him. It is a set of attitudes that maintains the myth that victims usually “enjoy” being raped to a certain extent. This finding is not in line with specific previous findings of the ’80s, that Greek students and adults’ values and beliefs regarding interpersonal relationships within family and community life are consistent across urban and rural areas of Greece, with no significant differentiation (Georgas, 1989; Kiountouzi, 1985).

Applied sciences students of the sample, men by a majority, and oriented towards traditionally male occupations, seem to have accepted more conservative attitudes on the rape victim’s responsibility, but Law and Applied Sciences students seem to have accepted more conservative attitudes on the definition of the concept of rape. Such a difference may highlight, once more, that the students’ gender is the most important parameter that differentiates attitudes towards rape. Additionally, it underlines the idea that the Humanities and Social Sciences students, mostly oriented towards traditionally “female” occupations, may provide a more fertile ground for less conservative ideas towards rape and a more sensitive approach to rape incidents, without stereotypical elements and rape myths (Schlegel & Barry, 1986; Segall et al., 1990). Students in Law departments seemed to have accepted more moderate attitudes than the other two groups of students, mostly disagreeing with conservative attitudes regarding victim’s responsibilities, but agreeing more with Applied Sciences students in respect to defining rape. These initial results regarding studies orientation need further exploration, as they constitute a first effort to associate attitudes towards rape with the content of studies and the relevant occupation.

More research is needed in the area of age differences of the adult population that may significantly differentiate rape attitudes (Raymond, 2000). In addition, as in Greece the legal definition of sexual violence has recently changed to
incorporate a wider field of actions against others, it would be interesting to investigate the extent to which students’ attitudes towards rape myths and stereotypes might have been changed, by conducting a longitudinal study.

Despite the restrictions of this study due to convenience sampling, as samples were derived from two Greek universities, and due to always lurking social desirability effects, the research findings seem to be important as a first systematic description of young adults’ attitudes towards rape in Greece. In the international literature, rape is a really under-researched social issue by psychology, and specifically by social psychology, and this holds true for the Greek academic research community as well. However, there is a variety of research studies which mainly describes rape incidents unsystematically, mostly based on police reports and archives and without any theoretical focus.

The international literature explores rape phenomenon and sexual violence either in western countries and countries under development or in non-western type cultural groups, with respect to their specific economic, political and socio-cultural features. Therefore, an interesting question might be whether there are differences in attitudes towards rape among western type countries, correlated with the extent to which their members accept traditional family values and social norms and in which occupations are mainly divided in terms of sex (Schlegel & Barry, 1986; Segall et al., 1990). For a cross-cultural perspective on the exploration of students’ rape attitudes, an attempt to investigate the issue in other European countries is already underway.

References


Βιασμός: στάσεις φοιτητών στην Ελλάδα

ΑΙΚΑΤΕΡΙΝΗ ΓΚΑΡΗ¹, ΓΙΩΡΓΟΣ ΓΕΩΡΓΟΥΛΕΑΣ², ΑΡΤΕΜΙΣ ΓΙΩΤΣΑ³ & ΕΛΕΝΗ-ΑΝΝΑ ΣΤΑΘΟΠΟΥΛΟΥ⁴

Η διεθνής βιβλιογραφία σχετικά με τη σεξουαλική παρενόχληση και βία εναντίον των γυναικών περιγράφει μια ποικιλία από μίθους και στερεοτυπικές αντλήσεις σχετικά με το βαθμό ευθύνης — ολικό ή μερικό — που φέρει το θύμα του βιασμού και το βαθμό που «απολαμβάνει» τη σεξουαλική βία. Καθώς φαίνεται ότι η έκφραση σεξουαλικής βίας παραμένει ταμπού για τις σύγχρονες δυτικές κοινωνίες, το στίγμα και οι μύθοι του βιασμού αποτελούν μέρος των στάσεων σχετικά τόσο με το θύμα, όσο και με το θύτη του βιασμού. Η παρουσία μελέτη διερευνά τις στάσεις Ελλήνων φοιτητών σχετικά με το βιασμό με τη χρήση ερωτηματολογίου που κατασκευάστηκε για τους σκοπούς της παρούσας έρευνας. Το ερωτηματολόγιο χορηγήθηκε σε 950 Έλληνες φοιτήτριες του Πανεπιστημίου Αθηνών και του Πανεπιστημίου Ιωαννίνων, κατηγοριοποιημένους σε τρεις ομάδες: φοιτήτριες Νομικής, φοιτήτριες Ανθρωπιστικών και Κοινωνικών Σπουδών και φοιτήτριες Θετικών Επιστημών. Με τη χρήση της ανάλυσης παραγόντων αναδείχθηκαν τέσσερις παράγοντες: «Ευθύνη του θύματος», «Ορισμός της έννοιας του βιασμού», «Κίνητρα του βιασμού» και «Χαρακτηριστικά του θύτη». Σε συμφωνία με προηγούμενα ευρήματα, τα αποτελέσματα δείχνουν ότι οι γυναίκες έχουν λιγότερο συντηρητικές στάσεις σχετικά με το βιασμό και απορρίπτουν στάσεις που «κατηγορούν το θύμα» και αποδέχονται στάσεις που χαρακτηρίζουν αρνητικά το βιαστή. Επιπρόσθετα, οι φοιτήτριες που διατηρούν μόνιμη κατοχή σε επαρχιακές περιοχές, συγκριτικά με αυτούς που κατοικούν σε μεγάλα αστικά κέντρα, φαίνεται να διατηρούν περισσότερο συντηρητικές στάσεις σχετικά με την ευθύνη του θύματος και τον ορισμό για το τη σημαίνει βιασμός. Τέλος, οι φοιτήτριες Θετικών Επιστημών φαίνεται να αποδέχονται περισσότερο συντηρητικές στάσεις σχετικά με την ευθύνη του θύματος, συγκριτικά με τις δύο άλλες ομάδες φοιτητών, αλλά να συμφωνούν περισσότερο με τους φοιτητές Νομικής υιοθετώντας πιο συντηρητικές στάσεις σχετικά με τον ορισμό του βιασμού.

Λέξεις-κλειδί: Βιασμός, Στάσεις, Στερεοτυπικές αντλήσεις, Μύθοι σχετικά με το βιασμό.

1. Διεύθυνση: Τομέας Ψυχολογίας, Τμήμα Φιλοσοφίας, Παιδαγωγικής και Ψυχολογίας, Φιλοσοφική Σχολή, Πανεπιστήμιο Αθηνών, Πανεπιστημιώτικη Ιλίσα, 157 84, Αθήνα. E-mail: agari@psych.uoa.gr
2. Διεύθυνση: Τομέας Ψυχολογίας, Τμήμα Φιλοσοφίας, Παιδαγωγικής και Ψυχολογίας, Φιλοσοφική Σχολή, Πανεπιστήμιο Αθηνών, Πανεπιστημιώτικη Ιλίσα, 157 84, Αθήνα. E-mail: georgoul@psych.uoa.gr
3. Διεύθυνση: Παιδαγωγικό Τμήμα Νηπιαγωγών, Πανεπιστήμιο Ιωαννίνων. e-mail: agiotsa@uoi.gr
4. Διεύθυνση: Πανεπιστήμιο Αθηνών. e-mail: eleana78@hotmail.com