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# Great Sexpectations: The Application of Sexual Social Exchange Theory to Date Rape

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GREAT SEXPECTATIONS: THE APPLICATION OF THE SEXUAL SOCIAL  
EXCHANGE THEORY TO DATE RAPE

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THESIS

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of Master of Science in the  
College of Arts and Sciences  
at the University of Kentucky

By

Kellie Rose Lynch

Lexington, Kentucky

Director: Dr. Jonathan M. Golding, Professor of Psychology

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2013

## ABSTRACT OF THESIS

### GREAT SEXPECTATIONS: THE APPLICATION OF THE SEXUAL SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY TO DATE RAPE

In a two-part study, dating sexual expectations will be evaluated and the sexual social exchange theory will be investigated in a date rape trial. In Part 1, participants ( $N = 100$ ) will be presented with one of two fictional date scenarios that will differ only on the cost of the date (i.e., \$30 or \$175). Participants will then indicate what behaviors (sexual and not sexual) are appropriate at the end of a first date and then a fifth date. It is predicted that all participants will expect sexual intercourse more on the fifth date than the first, and that participants in the expensive date scenario will expect sexual intercourse more than participants in the inexpensive date condition. Part II will use the information gathered in Part I to investigate how sexual expectations in a dating scenario may manifest themselves as feelings of reciprocity in the sexual social exchange theory. In Part II participants ( $N = 160$ ) will be presented with one of four trial summaries that differ depending on the cost of the date (i.e., \$30 or \$175) and the date number (i.e., first or fifth). Participants will render a verdict and then rate the defendant and alleged victim on various rating factors (e.g., credibility), in addition to completing the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance scale, short form. It is predicted that there will be fewer guilty verdicts and lower pro-victim judgments for both men and women when the cost of the date was high and when the couple was on their fifth date. It is also predicted that men will render fewer guilty verdicts and report lower pro-victim attitudes than women. Juror rating subscales (e.g., victim credibility) and rape myth acceptance scores are predicted to mediate the effects of the cost of date and date number on verdict. The results will be discussed in terms of how the sexual social exchange theory can explain juror perceptions in a date rape trial.

**KEYWORDS:** Date Rape; Sexual Social Exchange Theory, Sexual Expectations; Jury Decision-Making; Victimization

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GREAT SEXPECTATIONS: THE APPLICATION OF THE SEXUAL SOCIAL  
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## Chapter 1: Introduction

It has been estimated that almost one in five women (18.3%) have been raped at some point in their lives (National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey [NIPSVS], 2010). Consequently, many researchers are interested in factors that precipitate rape and the context in which rape may occur. The latter greatly depends on what type of rape has been committed. Some broad categories of rape include but are not limited to stranger, acquaintance, and intimate partner rape. Acquaintance rape is the second most common form of reported rape in the United States (second to intimate partner rape), and can include rape by a friend, co-worker, date, or any person that the victim may know but is not a person with whom the victim is in an intimate relationship. According to the NIPSVS (2010), 40.8% of female rape victims were raped by an acquaintance at some point in their lives.

Due to the increased awareness of dating violence, date rape has become a widely studied subtype of acquaintance rape. Date rape is any non-consensual (i.e., victim does not or is unable to give consent), forced, or coerced sexual intercourse by a perpetrator on a date (Johnson & Sigler, 2000). Although it may be difficult for sexual assault cases to reach court (e.g., victim not reporting, not believing victim, victim blame), thousands of sexual assault cases actually do proceed to court each year (The Rape Abuse and Incest National Network [RAINN], 2008). However, in acquaintance rape cases, the legal battle is often reduced to a he-said-she-said dispute if the defense argues that the sex was consensual. In these cases when DNA evidence becomes irrelevant, juror perceptions of the context of the rape and characteristics of the perpetrator and alleged victim become very important in understanding juror decision-making. It is therefore important to study

juror perceptions of a date rape trial in a mock trial paradigm to better understand the juror decision-making process.

The goals of the following two-part study are to (a) in Part I investigate how factors such as participant gender, the date number of the couple (e.g., first date versus fifth date), the cost of a date, and the character point of view (i.e., the male or female in the dating scenario) influence expectations of sexual intercourse in a dating scenario; and (b) in Part II to use the results of Part I (i.e., factors that influence sexual expectations) to investigate how the sexual social exchange theory may explain aspects of juror perceptions (e.g., alleged victim blame, defendant credibility) and decision-making in a date rape trial using constructs of reciprocity (i.e., amount spent on the date) while altering the date number of the couple.

It is important to point out that the supporting evidence from the literature and conclusions from the present study are limited to heterosexual relationships. There may be similar patterns in gay and lesbian sexual violence, however there are most likely specific differences that must be considered when drawing research conclusions regarding gay and lesbian relationships.

### **Juror Perceptions of Date Rape**

As mentioned before, rape by an acquaintance is the second most common form of rape. However, less is known specifically about how often date rape occurs. Prevalence rates of date rape vary across studies, but Johnson and Sigler (2000) revealed that 13% of college women surveyed reported that they were forced to have sexual intercourse on a date. Other studies (e.g., Finkelson & Oswald, 1995; Mynatt & Allgeier, 1990) revealed lower rates of date rape (around 6%). Establishing a prevalence rate of

date rape has been difficult for multiple reasons. First, researchers define date rape differently across various studies (e.g., use of physical force only versus physical force and psychological coercion). Consequently, date rape researchers may not be establishing prevalence rates of the same sort of behavior if some studies only include physical force and others include both physical force and psychological coercion.

Another problem with establishing date rape prevalence is that victims of rape may not characterize an incident as rape (Koss, Dinero, Seibel, & Cox, 1988). For example, if a woman is coerced into having sexual intercourse without much use of physical force on a date, she may not characterize this experience as rape. This is problematic with establishing prevalence rates for all types of rape, especially in intimate partner rape and date rape, which are subtypes of rape that elicit social and dating norms. In other words, a woman may comply with having sex if she thinks it is normal to have sex with her partner when she does not want to, or a woman may think that she ought to have sex on a first date even though she does not want to. Neither of these examples necessarily involve physically forced sex, however they do involve unwanted sex, making it difficult for the victim and persons in the criminal justice system to identify the situation as rape. Additionally, Littleton, Tabernik, Canales, and Backstrom (2009) highlighted the perceived ambiguity in possible situations of rape or sexual assault by investigating the qualitative differences between perceptions of rape versus a “bad hook-up” in college students. Littleton et al. found that most college students classified rape as a situation only involving force and violence, and many blurred the line between sexual assault and a “bad hook-up” experience. Additionally, very few college students associated rape or sexual assault with common hook-up behavior.

Finally, determining the guilt of those involved in a date rape is more ambiguous than a stranger rape because victims may feel partially responsible for the event or are afraid that they will be blamed and viewed negatively (Cook & Koss, 2005; Finkelson & Oswalt, 1995; Yescavage, 1999). Consequently, victims may be hesitant to report the rape to authorities. Moreover, even if the crime is reported and eventually prosecuted, problems with victim blame, such as negative juror perception toward the victim, may arise in the courtroom.

When reaching a verdict in a rape trial, jurors use situational factors and factors that are not presented as evidence (i.e., extralegal) to help make their decisions. Defendant and victim characteristics are two extralegal factors that have been demonstrated to affect juror perceptions of date rape. Studies examining defendant characteristics have shown that race (e.g., Feild, 1979; Klein & Creech, 1982), attractiveness (e.g., Bagby, Parker, Rector, & Kalemba, 1994; Erian, Lin, Patel, Neal, & Gieselman, 1998), and socio-economic status (e.g., Black & Gold, 2003; Black & Gold 2008) all influence juror decision-making. Perpetrators who are white, attractive, and of high socio-economic status are judged more positively by jurors compared to non-white, unattractive, and lower socio-economic perpetrators. Furthermore, when a perpetrator is of a relatively high socio-economic status, mock jurors (especially men) have been found to blame the victim more and be less punitive toward the perpetrator (Black & Gold, 2003; Black and Gold, 2008).

With regard to victim characteristics, it has been found that alleged victims who dressed more conservatively were blamed less than those who dressed provocatively at the time of the attack (Cassidy & Hurrell, 1995; Workman & Freeburg, 1999). As well,

victims who did not resist a rape (Ong & Ward, 1999) and victims who resisted later in the man's sexual advances (e.g., resisting intercourse versus touching; Kopper, 1996; Yescavage, 1999) were also blamed more than those who resisted the rape and resisted earlier in the date's sexual advances. Finally, Lynch, Wasarhaley, Golding, & Simcic (in press) found that undergraduate participants used the perceived credibility of the alleged victim as a primary factor when reaching a verdict in a date rape scenario.

The gender of jurors or mock jurors is another extralegal factor that has also been shown to impact decision making in sexual assault cases (e.g. Fischer, 1997; George & Martinez, 2002; Hammock & Richardson, 1997; Hammond, Berry, & Rodriguez, 2011; Jimenez & Abreu, 2003; Lynch et al., in press; Selby, Calhoun, & Brock, 1977; Schutte & Hosch, 1997). For example, women were more likely to judge a date rape scenario as rape than men (Foley, Evancic, Karnik, King, & Parks, 1995), while men were less harsh in their sentences for the perpetrators and assigned more blame to a victim compared to women when presented with a date rape scenario (Bell, Kuriloff, & Lottes, 1994; Langley, Yost, O'Neal, Taylor, Frankel, & Craig, 1991; McDonald & Kline, 2004; Pollard, 1992; Ryckman, Graham, Thorton, Gold, & Linder, 1998). Men were also more likely to endorse rape myths, which in turn justified forced or non-consensual sex (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Juror gender may be of particular importance in an alleged date rape as it involves stereotypical gender roles regarding sexuality (e.g., a woman should engage in sexual activities if a man takes her on date).

### **Rape Myth Acceptance**

Despite the fact that rape is a common form of sexual assault, many people still hold false beliefs and stereotypes regarding rape. The original Rape Myth Acceptance

Scale (RMA: Burt, 1980) was developed to measure the negative attitudes and beliefs that people hold about rape and rape victims. For example, a common rape myth is that women bring rape upon themselves by acting or dressing a certain way. Those who score higher on the RMA scale tend to blame victims of sexual assault, justify acquaintance rape (Johnson, Kuck, & Schander, 1997; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995), and are less likely to convict defendants and recommend shorter sentences to those who are convicted (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Men have also been found to hold higher RMA than women. For example, Hammond et al. (2011) presented undergraduate participants with a date rape scenario and found that men were more likely to endorse rape myths, and consequently assigned less responsibility for the rape to the perpetrator and more responsibility for the rape to the alleged victim. Thus, juror rape myth endorsement is a potential factor that may influence juror perceptions and juror decision-making in rape trials.

### **Dating Sexual Expectations**

Other factors that may influence perceptions and judgments of the persons involved in an alleged rape are social and cultural influences. Many researchers interested in heterosexual dating scripts (i.e., cognitive models that guide individuals' dating interactions) have found that these scripts are very traditional. For example, a man is typically expected to ask a woman on a date and then pay for the date (Bartoli & Clark, 2006; Check & Malamuth, 1983; Metts, 2006; Claire Morr Serewicz & Gale, 2008; Muehlenhard, Friedman & Thomas, 1985; Rose & Frieze, 1989, 1993).

In a series of two studies, Muehlenhard et al. (1985) investigated how situational dating factors impacted how undergraduate participants justified a hypothetical date rape.

They presented participants with a date scenario that differed on date location (movie, a religious function, or the man's apartment), payment options (man paid in full or split cost), and who initiated the date (man or woman). The results for both men and women participants indicated that who initiated the date, who paid, and date location were all factors that influenced how justifiable a date rape was perceived by the participants. Participants justified a rape more when the man and woman went to the man's apartment for the date and if the man paid in full for the date. One explanation for participants justifying a date rape is that there are certain sexual expectations for those on a date based on whether a man pays for the date and when the date occurs in a certain location (i.e., the man's home).

Muehlenhard et al.'s (1985) work triggered research that focused on sexual expectations in a dating scenario and how these expectations affect how a rape is perceived. For example, Mongeau and Carey (1996) found that men expected sexual intercourse when a woman initiated the first date. Other studies investigated how factors such as the cost of the date and the number of dates a couple has been on influence sexual expectations participants held in a first date scenario. Claire Morr and Mongeau (2004) presented undergraduate participants with various first date scenarios that differed depending on whether the man or the woman initiated the date, whether there was alcohol available on the date or not (i.e., date was at a keg party versus a movie), and whether the couple were friends or acquaintances prior to the date. Participants reported their sexual expectations from both the man and woman characters' points of view by rating on a seven-point scale whether or not they thought each sexual behavior (ranging from hand-holding to sexual intercourse) would occur on the date. Claire Morr and Mongeau found



that men rated more intimate sexual behaviors such as intercourse as likely to happen than women, and that all participants' sexual expectations were higher when alcohol was available on the date.

Similar to Claire Morr and Mongeau (2004), Emmers-Sommer and colleagues (2010) presented undergraduate participants with a first date dating scenario, which differed depending on who asked for the date (i.e., the man or woman), who paid for the date (i.e., the man, woman, or if they split it, and where the date took place (i.e., a restaurant, movie theatre, or apartment). Participants were asked to rate the likelihood of a sexual behavior occurring on a seven-point sexual expectations scale. The sexual behaviors ranged from hand holding to intercourse. The results showed that when the man paid for the date and when the date location was an apartment, men participants reported higher sexual expectations ratings. Additionally, men participants with higher RMA scores yielded higher sexual expectations ratings. This research indicated that there are certain characteristics that influenced the sexual expectations following a date between a man and a woman, and that these expectations impacted how the persons involved were perceived.

All of the above-mentioned research involved first date scenarios. However dating scripts also suggest that men and women are more likely to have sex after more dates (e.g., Knox & Wilson, 1981). This may be due to the fact that men in comparison to women generally expect sexual intercourse after fewer dates (Cohen & Shotland, 1996), but then after more dates men's and women's sexual expectations may meet or become more similar. Cohen and Shotland (1996) investigated undergraduate participant attitudes and perceptions regarding their sexual expectations of the "average man and woman".

Participants were randomly assigned to one of four dating conditions that differed depending on emotional closeness (i.e., the man and woman were or were not emotionally close to one another) and attractiveness (i.e., the man and woman were or were not physically attracted to one another). Participants reported their sexual expectations for each of the four types of relationships (i.e., conditions) based on the combination of emotional closeness and physical attractiveness. Cohen and Shotland found that men expected sexual intercourse after significantly fewer dates than women, and that men were more likely to expect sexual intercourse with women without emotional closeness. Although Cohen and Shotland's study investigated participant sexual expectations in a relationship context (i.e., emotional closeness) while the present study is interested in casual dating, it does provide evidence that men expect sex after fewer dates.

### **Sexual Social Exchange Theory**

It is clear thus far in the date rape literature that factors such as defendant and victim characteristics, as well as juror gender can influence juror decision-making and perceptions in a date rape scenario. However, date rape is a crime that is prone to social influences that involve gender and sex role stereotyping, thus social or situational factors may also be influential on juror perceptions. A heterosexual date in the United States typically involves a man paying for an activity or meal, thus potentially triggering feelings of reciprocity for both parties. In other words, if a man takes a woman out on a date, he, she, or both may feel that she owes him something or should give him something in return. This tendency for reciprocity is essentially a form of the social exchange theory.

Social exchange theory is used in social psychology to explain that in a given social interaction, each person involved gives and receives a quantity of something that has value (Homans, 1958). This theory has been extended to explain sexual interactions and has thus been labeled sexual social exchange theory (Baumeister & Vohs, 2004). According to sexual social exchange theory, in a sexual interaction between a man and woman, female sexuality has value but male sexuality is essentially worthless in Western society. Since female sexuality is a valued resource, sex between a man and woman is not an equally beneficial transaction. In sexual relationships, men are receiving a valued resource from women, however at a cost to men (e.g., money, love and commitment).

The notion of female sexuality as a valuable resource is explained by the “principle of least interest” (Waller & Hill, 1938/1951). According to this principle, the person who is less interested in a connection (between two people) will have more power and control over the relationship because the other more interested person will be more willing to make sacrifices and compromises. In the case of sexual interactions between men and women, men are believed to be the more interested person since they generally express more desire for sex. In other words, men want sex more than women, making sex a valuable female resource. However, it should be noted that the author of the present paper is not suggesting that females do not desire or enjoy sex and there are likely other factors that interact with the principle of least interest (e.g., hormones, aggression, sex and gender roles, self-control). There is nonetheless strong evidence that supports the notion that men, overall, score higher on behavioral indexes of sex drive than women. Baumeister, Catanese, and Vohs (2001) conducted a literature review and found that men think about sex more often, desire sex more often, display greater sexual motivation,

desire more sexual partners, take more risks and expend more resources to obtain sex, initiate more goal directed behavior to get sex, and are less willing to practice celibacy, Thus, using the “principle of least interest”, female sexuality appears to have higher value than male sexuality, as men generally express desire for sex more than women.

If female sexuality is established as a valuable resource, then it is important to investigate the actual cost of female sexuality and if this cost can differ in certain situations. According to sexual social exchange theory, a sexual relationship is more likely to be successful (i.e., sex occurs) if a man can provide something comparable in value to the sex provided by a female. This can range from goods with monetary value to promises of future commitment and security (Baumeister & Vohs, 2004). Thus, using sexual social economics, the more expensive or valuable the services or goods provided by a man, the higher the likelihood the woman will engage in sexual relations with this man if the woman feels she owes a man something of equal value to her resources in return.

Few empirical studies have investigated the role of sexual social exchange theory in an alleged rape scenario. However, a study conducted by Basow and Minieri (2011), manipulated the cost of the date (either “pricey” or “inexpensive”) and who paid (either the man or both the man and his female date) in a date rape context to assess participant views of sexual expectations and attributions. Men and women undergraduate participants were presented with a vignette that described a man and woman’s date that ended in an alleged rape, and were then asked to rate the man and woman on blame, responsibility, sexual expectations, and rape justifiability. Men had higher sexual expectations for both vignette characters and assigned more blame and responsibility to

the female character in comparison to women. RMA was found to be a significant predictor, for both men and women participants, of higher sexual expectations for both characters, more blame toward the woman character, and less blame toward the man character. Last, a significant three-way interaction between cost of the date, who paid, and participant gender was found for sexual expectations of both vignette characters. For men, the highest sexual expectations for both characters occurred in the expensive date and man paid in full condition. However, if the cost of the expensive date was split, men's sexual expectations significantly decreased. When the date was inexpensive, who paid for the date had no effect on sexual interactions. For women, when the date was inexpensive, sexual expectations marginally decreased when the date was split such that sexual expectations were the lowest in the split inexpensive cost condition. When the date was expensive, who paid for the date had no effect on sexual expectations. Thus, the cost of the date and who paid interacted in opposite ways for men and women.

### **The Present Study**

The present two-part study investigated how sexual expectations in a dating scenario influence feelings of reciprocity, thus impacting how a date rape is perceived. Part I measured college students' expectations for sexual intercourse on a date, and investigated how the cost of the date and the date number (i.e., what date number the couple was on in the scenario) impact sexual expectations. It was necessary in Part I to measure if the cost of a date does indeed influenced sexual expectations before investigating how the sexual social exchange theory may be able to explain aspects of juror decision-making in a date rape trial (i.e., Part II).

Part II used the information from Part I regarding how the cost of a date and how the date number impacted sexual expectations in order to test how the social exchange theory influenced juror perceptions and decision-making in a mock date rape trial. The sexual social exchange theory assumes that when something of monetary value is given to a woman (i.e., an expensive date), it is more likely that sex will be expected to occur. Because dating scripts suggest that both men and women's expectations of sexual intercourse increase as the number of dates they go on increases, the date number of a couple was also likely another factor that could explain juror perceptions and decision-making in a date-rape trial.

## Chapter 2: Part I Overview and Hypotheses

### **Part I Overview**

Part I investigated college students' expectations of behavior at the end of a date in order to (a) gather a baseline measure of sexual expectations following a date; and (b) investigate the role of the cost of the date (i.e., \$30 and \$175) and the date number of the couple (i.e., first or fifth) in determining these sexual expectations. The previous research that has examined factors such as cost of the date on sexual expectations has only measured these expectations on the first date (e.g., Emmers-Sommer, 2010; Claire Morr & Mongeau, 2004). Part I built on this research by asking participants to determine what behaviors they believed were appropriate on both a first and fifth date. Participants answered questions about expected dating behaviors from the points of view of a man and woman on a date because it was likely that participants would feel that a man's and a woman's dating expectations (especially sexual behaviors) would differ on each date. Based on prior research and literature, the following hypotheses were proposed:

#### **Hypothesis 1: Cost of Date**

It was predicted that there would be a main effect of cost of the date. Participants should have higher expectation ratings for sexual intercourse (for both the man and woman characters) when participants read the expensive (i.e., \$175) date scenario in comparison to those who read the inexpensive (\$30) scenario. This prediction was based on the sexual social exchange theory and prior research that has investigated the effect of the cost of a date on sexual expectations (e.g., Basow & Minieri, 2011; Claire Morr & Mongeau, 2004; Emmers-Sommer, 2010).

#### **Hypothesis 2: Date Number**

A main effect of date number was predicted such that expectation ratings (for both the man and woman characters) for sexual intercourse would be higher for the fifth date than the first date. This hypothesis is based on dating scripts (e.g., Knox & Wilson, 1981) and supported by Cohen and Shotland's (1996) findings that men and women were more likely to expect sexual intercourse on dates later than the first date.

### **Hypothesis 3: Participant Gender**

It was predicted that men would have higher sexual intercourse expectations (for both the man and woman characters) than women. This hypothesis is consistent with past research regarding participant gender differences of sexual expectations in a dating scenario (e.g., Basow & Minieri, 2011; Claire Morr & Mongeau, 2004; Cohen & Shotland, 1996; Emmers-Sommer, 2010)

### **Hypothesis 4: Character Point of View**

A main effect of character (i.e., Gavin or Kate) point of view was predicted. It was expected that all participants would indicate that the man character (Gavin) would expect sexual intercourse more (i.e., higher sexual expectations) than the woman character (Kate). This is supported by the sexual social exchange theory that suggests that men express a higher desire for sex than women (i.e., the principle of least interest; Baumeister & Vohl, 2004).

### **Hypothesis 5: Cost of Date x Participant Gender**

It is predicted that there would be a significant interaction between the cost of the date and participant gender. The effect of the cost of the date on sexual expectations (of both the man and woman characters) should depend on participant gender such that men were expected to have higher sexual intercourse expectations than women in the



expensive date scenario. However, when the date is inexpensive, men's and women's sexual expectations should not be significantly different, although men's expectations should be slightly higher than women's expectations. This prediction is supported by past research that investigated how both the cost of date and participant gender influence sexual expectations on a date (e.g., Basow & Minieri, 2011; Claire Morr & Mongeau, 2004; Cohen & Shotland, 1996; Emmers-Sommer, 2010).

### **Hypothesis 6: Date Number x Participant Gender**

An interaction between date number and participant gender was predicted. The effect of the date number on sexual expectations should depend on participant gender such that men will have higher expectations for sexual intercourse than women for the fifth date. However, for date one men and women should have similar (low) sexual expectations. This is based on Cohen and Shotland's (1996) findings that men expected sexual intercourse after fewer dates than women.

### **Exploratory Interactions**

Although no specific predictions were made, the following interactions were analyzed in an exploratory manner: the three-way interaction between the cost of the date, participant gender, and date number, as well as all possible interactions between the character's point of view and the cost of the date, participant gender, and date number.

## Chapter 3: Part I Methods

### **Participants**

Participants were 110 undergraduate students recruited from the Psychology undergraduate subject pool at the University of Kentucky. All participants were at least 18 years of age, U.S. citizens, and English-speaking. An a-priori power analysis using G-Power3 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007) was conducted to determine the appropriate sample size using medium effect sizes.

### **Design**

A 2 (participant gender) x 2 (cost of date: \$30 or \$175) x 2 (date number: first or fifth) x 2 (character point-of-view: Gavin or Kate) mixed factors design was employed. Participant gender and cost of date were analyzed as the between-participant variables. Date number and character point-of-view were analyzed as the within-participant variables. Fifty-five participants were randomly assigned to each of the two cost of date conditions.

### **Measures**

**Date Summary.** Participants read one of two different date summaries (see Appendix A) that differed only in the cost of the date. The summary consisted of a paragraph that described a dating scenario in which a man picked up a woman (both undergraduate college students) and took her to a restaurant and either the movie theatre or a concert (depending on the inexpensive or expensive date conditions, respectively). In the inexpensive date summary the date cost a total of \$30 and in the expensive date summary, the date cost \$175. The costs of the dates in the present study were decided based on the cost of food and local restaurants in the area where the participants attended

university. At the end of the date, the man took the woman back to her apartment and walked her to her door. The summary did not give any details regarding what happened at the end of the night when the date ended.

**Sexual Expectations Assessment.** Participants completed twenty-four behavior expectation rating questions (see Appendix B). Twelve of these expectation questions were answered from Gavin's point of view for a first date and a fifth date. The other 12 expectations questions were answered from Kate's point of view for the first and fifth date. Participants were asked about both their sexual and non-sexual expectations for the end of a first and fifth date so that they did not feel that they were inclined to have and report sexual expectations for the date. This helped avoid priming participants to think only of sex when they may not have explicitly held sexual expectations prior to reading the date summary.

The six behavioral sexual expectations questions for each date were presented in a single order given that there was no theoretical reason to believe the order of questions would significantly affect participants' responses. With regard to Gavin's expectations, participants were initially asked to rate on a ten-point scale (1 = *not at all*, 10 = *definitely*) how much Gavin expected to go inside Kate's apartment, kiss Kate goodnight, have sexual intercourse with Kate, make-out with Kate, sleep over at Kate's without having sex, and engage in oral sex with Kate following their first date. Participants were then asked to answer the same six questions in the same order but following Gavin and Kate's fifth date. Next, with regard to Kate's expectations, participants were asked to rate on a ten-point scale (1 = *not at all*, 10 = *completely*) how much Kate would expect Gavin to come inside her apartment, kiss her goodnight, have sexual intercourse with Gavin,

make-out with Gavin, for Gavin to sleep over without having sex, and engage in oral sex with Gavin following their first date. Last, participants were asked to answer these same questions regarding Kate's expectations for her and Gavin's fifth date. The presentation of the 12 questions from Gavin's point of view was counterbalanced with the presentation of the 12 questions from Kate's point of view to eliminate biases of presentation order. This way, the results were not expected to be affected by asking about Gavin's expectations before Kate's expectations and vice versa.

### **Procedure**

Participants completed an online consent form that directed them to the date summary and sexual expectations questionnaire, which were administered online via SurveyMonkey.com. The instructions informed participants that they were about to read a summary regarding a fictional date between a man and a woman, and would then be required to answer questions about the date. Participants were told that once they moved on to the next page that they could not return to the previous page. The date summary was broken down into sections and presented on separate screens to maximize participant comprehension. Participants then answered two multiple-choice manipulation check questions tested their comprehension of the passage. The two manipulation check questions were, "How much did the date cost?" and, "What did Gavin and Kate do on their date?"

Once participants answered the manipulation check questions, they were told that they were required to answer questions regarding Gavin and Kate's expectations for the end of the date. Participants completed the sexual expectations assessment and provided demographic information (i.e., gender and age). Finally, participants read a short

explanation of the study and were able to print a copy of the consent sheet. Part I took roughly fifteen to twenty minutes to complete.

## Chapter 4: Part I Results

### Data Analysis

Prior to beginning the study, a separate college sample rated the cost of date (i.e., expensive or inexpensive) of the two date scenarios to test the effectiveness of the cost of date manipulation used in Part I and Part II. This separate college sample rated the expensive date scenario (i.e., going to dinner and concert; costing \$175) as significantly more expensive than the inexpensive date scenario (i.e., going to dinner and movie; costing \$30),  $t(21) = 11.85$ ,  $p < .001$ . On a scale of 1 (*inexpensive*) to 10 (*expensive*), the mean rating for the inexpensive date was 2.45 ( $SD = 1.30$ ) and the mean rating for the expensive date was 7.68 ( $SD = 1.84$ ).

Although participant expectations were collected for six different behaviors at the end of a date, only the expectations of both characters for sexual intercourse were used in the analysis of the present study. This is because Part II investigated perceptions of a date rape scenario involving forced sexual intercourse. Thus, the hypothesized factors (i.e., cost of date, date number, participant gender) that influence only sexual intercourse expectations during a date were of direct relevance to Part II. All 110 participants completed both of the manipulation check questions correctly. Mean sexual expectations for each of the characters across experimental conditions are shown in Table 4.1.

In order to make sure that the counterbalancing of the character point of view questions (i.e., if Gavin or Kate's expectations questions were presented first or second) did not affect the results at any point, question order, date number, and character point-of-view (POV) were entered in an analysis of variance (ANOVA). Question order did not significantly affect sexual expectations,  $F(1, 106) = .333$ ,  $p = .565$ ,  $\eta^2 = .003$ .

Additionally, question order did not significantly interact with date number,  $F(1, 106) = .106, p = .746, \eta^2 = .001$ , or character POV,  $F(1, 106) = .109, p = .298, \eta^2 = .010$ . Thus, whether participants were asked to report Gavin's sexual expectations before or after Kate's did not impact sexual expectations ratings of either character at any date.

A mixed factor ANOVA was used to test the hypotheses. Date number and character POV were entered as the within-participant variables, and cost of date and participant gender were entered as the between-participants variables. The ANOVA results are presented in Table 4.2.

### **Hypothesis 1: Cost of Date**

Hypothesis 1 was not supported, as the cost of date had no effect on sexual expectations for either character,  $F(1, 106) = 2.04, p = .124, \eta^2 = .022$ . Participants did not report significantly different sexual expectations for the characters in the expensive ( $M = 4.60, SD = 2.15$ ) date condition versus the inexpensive ( $M = 4.18, SD = 1.99$ ) condition.

### **Hypothesis 2: Date Number**

There was a main effect of date number on sexual expectations,  $F(1, 106) = 53.99, p < .001, \eta^2 = .337$ . Thus, hypothesis two was fully supported, as both characters' expectations for sexual intercourse were greater at date five ( $M = 5.86, SD = 2.35$ ) compared to date one ( $M = 2.92, SD = 1.82$ ).

### **Hypothesis 3: Participant Gender**

Hypothesis 3 was not supported. There was no effect of participant gender on sexual expectations,  $F(1, 106) = .202, p = .654, \eta^2 = .002$ ; men ( $M = 4.47, SD = 2.12$ ) and

women ( $M = 4.32$ ,  $SD = 2.01$ ) did not significantly differ in their sexual expectations for both characters.

#### **Hypothesis 4: Character Point of View**

Hypothesis 4 was supported as participants' sexual expectations for Gavin ( $M = 5.02$ ,  $SD = 2.19$ ) were significantly higher than their expectations for Kate ( $M = 3.75$ ,  $SD = 1.98$ ),  $F(1, 106) = 331.70$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .758$ .

#### **Hypothesis 5: Cost of Date x Participant Gender**

Hypothesis 5 was not supported, as the cost of date x participant gender interaction was not significant,  $F(1, 106) = 2.14$ ,  $p = .147$ ,  $\eta^2 = .020$ .

#### **Hypothesis 6: Date Number x Participant Gender**

Hypothesis 6 was supported as there was a significant date number x participant gender interaction,  $F(1, 106) = 14.55$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .121$ . That is, date number moderated the effect of participant gender on the characters' sexual expectations such that at date five, men ( $M = 6.10$ ,  $SD = 2.33$ ) had significantly higher sexual expectations for the characters than women ( $M = 5.68$ ,  $SD = 2.41$ ). However, at date one, the sexual expectations of men ( $M = 2.84$ ,  $SD = 2.01$ ) and women ( $M = 2.97$ ,  $SD = 1.61$ ) were not significantly different. The date number x participant gender interaction is shown in Figure 4.1.

#### **Exploratory Interactions**

There was a significant character POV x cost of date interaction,  $F(1, 106) = 5.34$ ,  $p = .023$ ,  $\eta^2 = .048$ . Character POV moderated the effect of cost of date on the characters' sexual expectations such that participants' sexual expectations for Gavin were significantly higher in the expensive date condition ( $M = 5.37$ ,  $SD = 2.06$ ) than in the



inexpensive date condition ( $M = 4.69$ ,  $SD = 1.88$ ). However, participants' sexual expectations for Kate did not significantly differ in the expensive ( $M = 3.84$ ,  $SD = 2.06$ ) and inexpensive date ( $M = 3.67$ ,  $SD = 1.88$ ) conditions. The character POV x cost of date interaction is presented in Figure 4.2. No other exploratory interaction reached significance.

Table 4.1: Part I Mean Sexual Expectations for Characters across Experimental Conditions

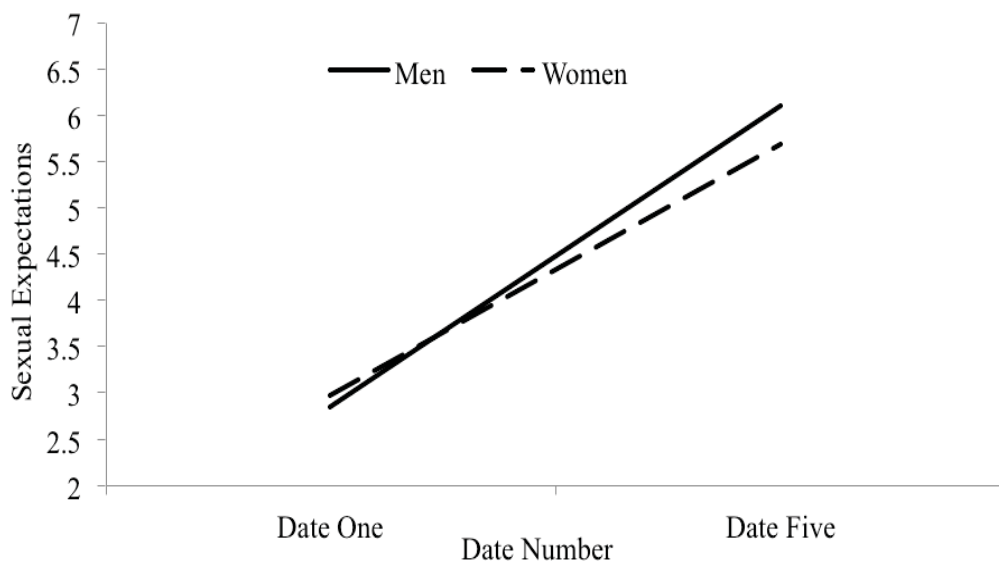
Condition	Gavin	Kate
Inexpensive	4.69 (2.08)	3.67 (1.89)
Expensive	6.37 (2.25)	3.84 (2.21)
Date 1	3.50 (2.04)	2.33 (1.60)
Date 5	6.54 (2.35)	5.17 (2.35)
Men	4.75 (2.16)	4.19 (2.09)
Women	5.21 (2.21)	3.44 (1.82)

*Note.* Standard deviations are in parentheses; sexual expectations ratings were measured on a scale from 1 to 10.

Table 4.2: Part I ANOVA Results

Variable	F	$\eta^2$	<i>p</i>
Cost of date	2.40	.022	.124
Participant gender	.202	.002	.654
Date number	53.99	.337	<.001***
Character POV	331.70	.758	<.001***
Cost of date x participant gender	2.14	.020	.147
Date number x cost of date	2.30	.021	.133
Date number x participant gender	14.55	.121	<.001***
Character POV x cost of date	5.34	.048	.023*
Character POV x participant gender	3.06	.028	.083
Character POV x date number	2.03	.019	.157
Character POV x cost of date x participant gender	3.65	.033	.059
Date number x cost of date x participant gender	.699	.007	.405
Date number x participant gender x character POV	1.22	.011	.271
Date number x cost of date x character POV	.001	.000	.981
Date number x cost of date x participant gender x character POV	.290	.003	.591

*Note.* POV = character point-of-view. \**p* < .05, \*\*\**p* < .001



*Figure 4.1:* Date number x participant gender interaction for the characters' sexual expectations in Part I.

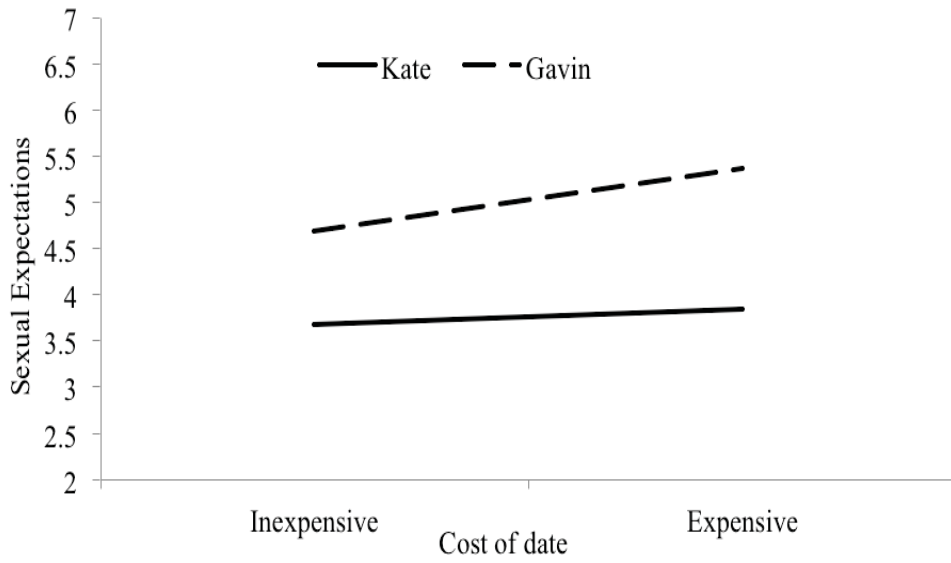


Figure 4.2: Character POV x cost of date interaction for the characters' sexual expectations in Part I.

## Chapter 5: Part I Discussion

### **Overview of Results**

Part I was designed to investigate how factors related to the sexual social exchange theory, such as cost of date, date number, and participant gender, influenced the perceived sexual expectations male and female characters in a dating scenario. Overall, participants perceived sexual expectations of both characters to be higher at date five than date one. The results also revealed that men and women participants' sexual expectations only differed from one another for the characters' fifth date. At date one, men and women had generally low sexual expectations for both characters, however at date five men reported higher sexual expectations for the character than women. With regard to the cost of date, the results revealed that an expensive date (versus an inexpensive date) increased participants' perceived sexual expectations of the male character only. The cost of the date had no effect on participants' perceived sexual expectations of the female character. These results indicate that the formation of perceived sexual expectations depend not only on money spent on the date (i.e., cost of date) but also situational (i.e., date number) and dispositional (e.g., gender) factors. When using the sexual social exchange theory to evaluate a date scenario, sexual expectations do not appear to be formulated using a simple cost of date and sex transaction. Rather, these expectations appear to be constructed by evaluating various date characteristics, and these expectations differ depending whether one is evaluating the point of view of the man or woman in the dating scenario.

### **Implications for Part II**

The results from Part I were used to investigate how mock jurors use factors that influence perceived sexual expectations to render a verdict when faced with a situation in

which the consensuality of the sex is questioned (i.e., date rape). Increased sexual expectations when the date is expensive may lead to a lower conviction rate if participants believe that it is likely both the man and woman on the date were expecting to have sexual intercourse. However, increased sexual expectations may also increase the conviction rate if participants question the defendant's motives and perceive the defendant to expect sex in return for spending money on a date. Part II addressed this research question.

## Chapter 6: Part II Overview and Hypotheses

### **Part II Overview**

Part II investigated the role of the sexual social exchange theory in influencing juror perceptions in a date rape trial. Participants read one of four fictional trial summaries involving a date rape that differed with regard to the cost of the date and the date number. Similar to Part 1, the two costs of the dates were either \$30 or \$175, and the couple was either on their first or fifth date. Participants were asked to render their verdict, explain what led to their verdict (i.e., verdict reason), and then rate the case (e.g., strength of the defense's case) and the defendant and alleged victim on various questions (e.g., credibility and blame). Participants also completed a rape myth acceptance (RMA) measure. No previous study has investigated how the sexual social exchange theory may be used to explain juror perceptions and decision-making in a mock rape trial. As well, there is very little research indicating how attitudes and juror perceptions change depending on the date number of the alleged victim and defendant. Part II had the following hypotheses based on the results of Part I and prior research:

#### **Hypothesis 1: Cost of Date**

It was predicted that when the cost of the date is expensive (i.e., \$175), there would be fewer guilty verdicts compared to the inexpensive (i.e., \$30) date condition. This result would be consistent with the sexual social exchange theory and Basow and Minieri's (2011) results regarding the effect of the cost of the date on increased sexual expectations, victim blame, and responsibility. If the cost of the date predicted verdict, it was expected that this relationship should be mediated by relatively high pro-defendant judgments (i.e., high sympathy, low blame) and relatively low pro-victim judgments



toward the alleged victim (e.g., high blame credibility, low credibility). With regard to the verdict reason data, it was predicted that participants in the expensive condition should mention the high cost of the date most often when rendering not-guilty verdicts.

### **Hypothesis 2: Date number**

There would be more guilty verdicts when the couple was on their first date in comparison to their fifth date. This is based on dating script theory (e.g., Knox & Wilson, 1981) and Cohen and Shotland's (1996) finding of participants being more likely to expect sexual behavior after the first date. If this main effect was significant, it was expected that positive judgments about the alleged victim and negative attributions regarding the defendant would mediate the relationship between date number and verdict. When the couple was on their first date versus their fifth date, participants should make more positive judgments regarding the alleged victim (i.e., low blame, high sympathy) and negative judgments regarding the defendant (i.e., high blame, low credibility), leading to more guilty verdicts. With regard to the verdict reason data, it was predicted that participants in the date five condition who render not guilty would mention most often that the couple had been on previous other dates.

### **Hypothesis 3: Participant Gender**

It was predicted that men would be less likely than women to render guilty verdicts. This is based on prior research demonstrating that juror and mock juror gender is a strong predictor of verdict and juror perceptions in sexual assault trials (e.g. Fischer, 1997; George & Martinez, 2002; Hammock & Richardson, 1997; Hammond et al., 2011; Jimenez & Abreu, 2003; Lynch et al., in press; Schutte & Hosch, 1997; Selby et al., 1977). It was also predicted that negative feelings toward the victim (i.e., low credibility)

and positive feelings toward the defendant (i.e., high credibility, low blame), should mediate the main effect of participant gender on verdict. Men, in comparison to women, should view the alleged victim more negatively and the defendant more positively, leading to fewer guilty verdicts.

#### **Hypothesis 4: Rape Myth Acceptance (RMA)**

It was predicted that RMA scores would predict verdict such that participants with higher RMA scores would be less likely to render guilty verdicts. It was also predicted that victim blame and positive attributions regarding the defendant would mediate the relationship between RMA scores and verdict. That is, participants high in RMA beliefs will blame the victim more and think more positively about the defendant (i.e., low blame, high sympathy) compared to those low in RMA beliefs, and consequently will be less likely to convict the defendant. This prediction is based on prior research that suggests individuals with higher RMA attitudes blame victims more and place less responsibility on the defendant in cases of rape (e.g., Basow & Minieri, 2011; Hammond et al., 2011)

#### **Hypothesis 5: Cost of Date x Participant Gender**

It was predicted that men, compared to women, would render fewer guilty verdicts for the more expensive date compared to the inexpensive date. However, the cost of the date should have little or no effect on women's verdicts. This prediction was based on the interaction in Basow and Minieri's (2011) study in which men's judgments of a rape were affected by a date condition described as "pricey", but women's judgments were not.

#### **Exploratory Interactions**

Although there were no specific hypotheses, all remaining possible two- and three-way interactions between participant gender, cost of date, and date number were analyzed in an exploratory manner.

## Chapter 7: Part II Methods

### **Participants**

Participants were 170 undergraduate students recruited from the Psychology undergraduate subject pool at the University of Kentucky. An a-priori power analysis using G-Power3 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007) was conducted to determine the appropriate sample size using medium effect sizes. Eight participants were removed from the analysis due to randomly missing data and five participants were removed because they failed one of the two manipulation check questions, leaving a final sample of 157 participants (87 females). All participants were American citizens, at least 18 years of age, and English-speaking (i.e., jury-eligible). No participant from Part I was a participant in Part II.

### **Design**

A 2 (participant gender) x 2 (cost of date: \$30 or \$175) x 2 (date number: first or fifth) between-participants design was employed. Each condition contained between 19 and 21 participants. Participant gender, cost of date, and date number were all analyzed as between-participant variables.

### **Materials**

**Criminal Trial Summary.** The trial summary (see Appendix C) described a first-degree rape trial in which the defendant allegedly engaged in forcible and non-consensual sexual intercourse with the alleged victim. The alleged victim and defendant were both college students who were on a date after meeting at a coffee shop near a university campus. In half of the trial summaries they were on an expensive date that consisted of dinner and a concert (cost: \$175). In the other half of the summaries they were on an

inexpensive date in which they went to dinner and a movie (cost: \$30). In Basow and Minieri's (2010) study the cost of the date was not explicitly stated but rather the dates were referred to as "pricey" and "inexpensive". As mentioned before in Part I, the \$175 date scenario was rated as significantly more expensive than the \$30 date scenario using a separate undergraduate sample. Additionally, in half of the trial summaries the defendant and alleged victim were on their first date and in the other half they were on their fifth date. Thus, male and female participants read one of four different trial summaries.

The trial summary contained a general description of the trial, the prosecution's case, the defense's case, and the judge's instructions to the jurors. In each condition, the trial summary contained the same general information and varied only on what was necessary to manipulate the independent variables (i.e., cost of the date and date number of the couple). After the date was described in the trial summary, all participants in all conditions were told that the alleged victim claimed that after the date was over, she invited the defendant inside her apartment. Participants were told that she did this in order to say goodnight in a private location, away from her neighbor who was in the hallway of the apartment building. Participants were then told that the defendant forced the alleged victim to have sexual intercourse with him. However, the defendant claimed that he engaged in consensual intercourse with the alleged victim.

The trial summary consisted of both direct- and cross-examinations of witnesses for the prosecution and the defense. The prosecution's case included testimony from the alleged victim and a police officer who interviewed the alleged victim at the police station. The defense's case included testimony from the defendant and the alleged victim's neighbor who saw the alleged victim invite the defendant into her apartment.

Finally, the trial summary presented judge's instructions, taken from Cooper (1999), that informed participants of the necessary criteria to find the defendant guilty of First-Degree Rape in concordance with Kentucky Revised Statutes (KRS 510.010, 2010).

**Trial Questionnaire.** Participants answered various questions concerning the mock rape trial (see Appendix D). They received the questions in a single order given that there was no theoretical reason to believe the order of questions would significantly affect participants' responses. First, participants rendered a verdict (i.e., guilty or not guilty) followed by an indication of how guilty they believed the defendant to be on a 10-point scale (1 = *not at all* and 10 = *completely*). Participants were also asked to explain what led them to their verdict in the format of an open-ended question. For all rating questions, only the endpoints of each scale were labeled. Participants indicated how difficult it was to render their verdict (1 = *not difficult at all* and 10 = *extremely difficult*).

Next, participants were asked to rate on a ten-point scale the overall strength of the prosecution's case (1 = *not at all strong* and 10 = *very strong*) and the credibility of the prosecution's witness (i.e., the police officer; 1 = *not at all* and 10 = *completely*). Participants then rated the alleged victim on several different factors. Using a 10-point scale (1 = *not at all* and 10 = *completely*), participants indicated the credibility of the alleged victim, the perceived honesty of the alleged victim, the believability of the alleged victim, and the responsibility of the alleged victim for the incident. Next, participants rated on a 10-point scale (1 = *not at all* and 10 = *a lot*) how much sympathy and how much anger they felt toward the alleged victim. Last, participants rated the reliability of the alleged victim's memory for the alleged incident on a 10-point scale (1 = *not reliable at all* and 10 = *extremely reliable*).

Participants evaluated the defense's case using the same question order and scale format as for the prosecution's case. The first question directed participants to rate the overall strength of the defense's case and the credibility of the alleged victim's neighbor. Next, participants rated the credibility of the defendant. Participants then rated the honesty, believability, and responsibility of the defendant, followed by how much sympathy and anger they felt toward the defendant. Last, participants rated the reliability of the defendant's memory for the alleged incident. Before asking for demographic information (i.e., age and gender) at the end of the study, participants were asked (as manipulation checks) to state the cost of the date and the date number.

**Rape Myth Acceptance Scale.** Participants completed the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance, short form (see Appendix E; Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999). This scale consisted of twenty questions (including 3 filler questions) from seven rape myth subscales which include *she asked for it, it wasn't really rape, he didn't mean to, she wanted it, she lied, rape is a trivial event, and rape is a deviant event*. Participants answered each question on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 = *not at all agree* and 5 = *very much agree*. This short form of the RMA Scale has strong reliability, as the Chronbach's alpha is .87. RMA scores were calculated by summing participants' responses on each of the nineteen (i.e., 22 minus the three fillers) RMA questions.

### **Procedure**

Participants completed an online consent form that directed them to the trial summary, trial questionnaire, and the RMA scale, which was administered online via SurveyMonkey.com. The presentation of these materials were counterbalanced such that half of the participants completed the RMA scale and then read the trial summary and

completed the trial questionnaire. The other half of the participants were first presented with the trial summary and questionnaire, and then completed the RMA. The presentation of the RMA and trial summary/trial questionnaire was counterbalanced so that the results cannot be attributed to presentation order biases.

When the trial summary was presented first, the instructions for the trial summary informed participants that they were about to read a trial summary regarding an alleged rape case and were required to answer questions about the trial. Once participants moved on to the next page of the study they could not return to any of the previous pages. The trial summary was designed so that the direct- and cross-examination of each witness were presented on separate webpages. After reading each part of the trial, participants answered a multiple-choice question with three alternatives concerning the material they just read to ensure their comprehension of the trial material (e.g., The date cost \_\_\_ dollars.; The defendant and alleged victim were their \_\_\_\_\_ date.). If participants answered a question incorrectly, a warning message appeared on the screen prompting them to pay closer attention to the material. The survey did not have a time limit, therefore, the participants could advance at their own rate. After reading the trial summary, participants then completed the trial questionnaire. Next participants were presented with the RMA scale. When the RMA was presented first, the procedure remained the exact same except for the presentation order and that the initial instructions told participants that they would be asked to rate the following statements regarding their personal attitudes. Last, participants provided demographic information and indicated whether or not they had ever served on a jury. Finally, participants read a short



explanation of the study and were able to print a copy of the consent sheet. The study took roughly 30 minutes to complete.

## Chapter 8: Part II Results

### Data Analysis

The overall conviction rate was 61%. The percentages of guilty and not-guilty verdicts in the experimental conditions are presented in Table 8.1. In order to test if the presentation order of the criminal trial and rape myth acceptance scale affected verdict, a logistic regression was run with presentation order as the independent measure and verdict as the dependent variable. Presentation order of the RMA scale and trial summary/questionnaire did not predict verdict,  $OR = .961, p = .909$ , thus it can be concluded that presentation order did not significantly impact verdict.

Although participants were asked to rate the case and those involved in the case on a variety of rating measures, only measures of theoretical importance were used in the present in the analyses. Four subscales were created by combining related rating measures: (1) victim credibility subscale (victim credibility, victim honesty, and victim believability; Chronbach's alpha = .93); (2) victim blame subscale (victim blame, victim responsibility, and anger toward the victim; Chronbach's alpha = .72); (3) defendant credibility subscale (defendant credibility, defendant honesty, and defendant believability; Chronbach's alpha = .89); and (4) defendant blame (defendant blame, defendant responsibility, and anger toward the defendant; Chronbach's alpha = .87). A subscale with a Chronbach's alpha of .70 or higher is considered to be reliable (Nunnally, 1978), thus all of the rating subscales used in the present analyses were reliable measures. Sympathy toward the victim and sympathy toward the defendant were also each used as predictive measures. Thus, six rating measures were used in the analyses.

A hierarchical logistic regression was used to investigate the effect of the predictors on verdict. Gender was entered at step 1, followed by cost of the date, date number, and RMA score at step 2, the two-way interaction terms of the independent variables at step 3 (gender x cost, gender x date number, date number x cost of date), and the three-way interaction of gender x date number x cost of date was entered at step 4. The results of the hierarchical logistic regression are presented in Table 8.2.

The rating measures were tested as potential mediators of any significant main effects found in the logistic regression using Barron and Kenny's (1986) bootstrapping analysis. They suggested that full mediation is demonstrated when each of the following is found: (a) a significant relationship between an independent variable (e.g., gender) and the dependent variable (i.e., verdict); (b) a significant relationship between the independent variable and the mediator variable (e.g., victim blame); and (c) there is a significant relationship between the mediator and dependent variable while the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is no longer significant. Partial mediation occurs when the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable remains significant when the mediator is significantly associated with the dependent variable. The significance of the confidence intervals of any potential mediators was tested using a bootstrapping procedure, which tests whether or not the indirect pathway from the abuse allegation condition, to the mediator, to verdict, is significantly different from zero (Preacher and Hayes, 2004).

Two separate parties coded and scored all the reason for verdict data (both scored all the data), and one party was naive to the study's hypotheses. The coders had 90% agreement and the author of the present paper settled any disagreement between the two

parties. The responses were presented as percentages of the responses for guilty or not guilty verdicts for each condition. Only descriptive data were presented because the data resulted in empty cells or cells with very few data points (i.e., not everyone will give similar reasons for their verdicts).

### **Hypothesis 1: Cost of Date**

The logistic regression was significant at step 2,  $\chi^2(3) = 20.48, p < .001$ . Cost of date was a significant predictor of verdict,  $OR = 11.56, p = .038$ , however not in the predicted direction. The OR indicates that participants in the expensive date conditions were almost 12 times more likely than participants in the inexpensive date conditions to render guilty verdicts. Contrary to the prediction, participants in the expensive date conditions were significantly more likely than those in the inexpensive conditions to render guilty verdicts.

Although the direction of the relationship between cost of date and verdict was contrary to Hypothesis 1, mediational analyses were conducted to detect if there was an indirect effect of any of the six rating variables on this relationship. All six rating measures were tested as potential mediators. However, none of these rating measures significantly predicted verdict, thus no significant mediators of the relationship between cost of date and verdict were found.

With regard to the verdict reason data, participants in the expensive date scenarios most often mentioned the cost of the date (30%) and the defendant's expectations for sexual intercourse (39%) when rendering guilty verdicts. Furthermore, of the participants who mentioned the cost of date and/or defendant's sexual expectations in the expensive condition, over 85% of them were male participants. Female participants in the expensive

condition did not often mention the cost of date in their reason data (15%). These results run counter to Hypothesis 1. Nevertheless, the reason for verdict data for guilty verdicts provided strong evidence of the effect of the social sexual exchange theory had on perceptions of a date rape trial. That is, the verdict reason data for Hypothesis 1 supported the notion that a higher cost of date increases sexual expectations. However, this increase in sexual expectations resulted in participants questioning the defendant's motives, and as a result they were more likely to render guilty verdicts. Several examples of reasons for guilty verdicts in the expensive conditions in which the cost of date and sexual expectations were mentioned include:

*“It seems that the high amount of money he spent means that he could have possibly wanted something in return”* (participant 12)

*“...pointing out that he had paid \$175 for the date. As if justifying that she owed him sex”* (participant 23)

*“...the fact that he spent upward of \$175 he seemed to feel entitled to have such sex”* (participant 32)

*“When Gavin mentioned he spent \$175 on the date it sounded as if he was saying he deserved to have sexual intercourse”* (participant 37)

*“It seems to me that Mr. Ross expected sex because of the time and money he invested in the date”* (participant 142)

In the inexpensive conditions, participants most commonly stated that one or more witness' testimonies (i.e., the detective, the alleged victim's neighbor, and the alleged victim) were convincing (57%), and this led to a guilty verdict.

With regard to not-guilty verdicts, the most common reason for verdict decisions in both the expensive (93%) and inexpensive conditions (83%) was the lack of hard (e.g., medical, eye-witness) evidence or inability to prove beyond a reasonable doubt.

### **Hypothesis 2: Date Number**

Contrary to Hypothesis 2, date number did not predict verdict,  $OR = 1.03, p = .978$ . That is, participants in the date one conditions were not significantly more likely to render guilty verdicts than those in the date five conditions.

With regard to the verdict reason data, Hypothesis 2 was not supported. Participants in the date five conditions did not mention date number more often than those in the date one condition. Participants who rendered guilty verdicts in both the date one (56%) and date five conditions (61%) most often mentioned the believability of the witness' testimonies. With regard to not-guilty verdicts, participants most often mentioned the lack of hard evidence or inability to be proven beyond a reasonable doubt when rendering not-guilty verdicts in the date one (90%) and date five (85%) conditions.

### **Hypothesis 3: Participant Gender**

The logistic regression was significant at step 1,  $\chi^2(1) = 15.57, p < .001$ . Confirming Hypothesis 3, participant gender significantly predicted verdict such that men were about a third less likely to render guilty verdicts than women,  $OR = .315, p = .003$ . Because participant gender was a significant predictor of verdict, mediation analyses were conducted to investigate if the six rating measures were potential mediators of the relationship between participant gender and verdict. Victim credibility ( $OR = .711, p < .001$ ), victim sympathy ( $OR = .459, p < .001$ ), and defendant blame ( $OR = -.664, p < .001$ ) were revealed as potential mediators as they were the only three measures that

significantly predicted verdict. Participant gender was still significantly associated with verdict when taking the effect of the victim credibility subscale and victim sympathy into account, suggesting that these measures were potential partial (versus full) mediators. However, the defendant blame subscale was revealed as potential full mediator as the association between participant gender and verdict was no longer significant when taking defendant blame into account.

Next, using a bootstrapping procedure as described above (Preacher and Hayes, 2004), the significance of the potential mediators was tested. Significant mediation occurs when the upper and lower limits of the 95% confidence interval (CI) do not cross zero. The victim credibility subscale was a significant partial mediator (CI: -1.39 to -.144) such that men viewed the victim as less credible ( $B = -1.01, p = .002$ ) and thus were less likely to render guilty verdicts. Next, the victim sympathy subscale was also a significant partial mediator (CI: -1.15 to -.258); men were less sympathetic toward the victim ( $B = -1.70, p = .001$ ) and were consequently less likely to render guilty verdicts. Last, the defendant blame subscale was revealed as a significant partial mediator such that men blamed the defendant less ( $B = -1.69, p < .001$ ) and as a result were less likely to render guilty verdicts.

#### **Hypothesis 4: Rape Myth Acceptance**

As predicted, RMA score significantly predicted verdict,  $OR = .958, p = .048$ , such that participants with higher RMA scores were less likely to render guilty verdicts than those with lower RMA scores. Mediation analyses were then conducted to detect if any of the six rating measures had an indirect effect on the relationship between RMA and verdict. The victim blame subscale ( $OR = .741, p < .001$ ), victim credibility subscale

(OR = .741,  $p < .001$ ), defendant blame subscale (OR = .990,  $p < .001$ ), and defendant sympathy (OR = -.555,  $p < .001$ ) predicted verdict, thus were identified as potential mediators. In addition, because the relationship between RMA and verdict was no longer significant when taking each of these rating measures into account, each measure was identified as a potential full mediator.

Next, using a bootstrapping procedure, the significance of the potential mediators was tested. The victim blame subscale (CI: -.065 to -.017) and victim credibility subscale (CI: -.102 to -.031) significantly mediated the relationship between RMA and verdict, as participant with higher RMA scores blamed the victim more ( $B = .101, p < .001$ ) and viewed the victim as less credible ( $B = -.087, p < .001$ ), leading to guilty verdicts. The defendant blame subscale (CI: -.176 to -.067) and defendant sympathy (CI: -.088 to -.027) were also significant mediators such that participants with higher RMA scores blamed the defendant less ( $B = -.115, p < .001$ ) and were more sympathetic toward the defendant ( $B = .094, p < .001$ ), resulting in fewer guilty verdicts.

### **Hypothesis 5: Cost of Date X Participant Gender**

Confirming Hypothesis 5, the logistic regression model described above was significant at step 3,  $\chi^2(3) = 24.317, p = .001$ , and the interaction between cost of date and participant gender was marginally significant, OR = .250,  $p = .052$ . However, the interaction was significant in the opposite direction as predicted. Gender moderated the effect of cost of date such that men in the inexpensive condition rendered more not guilty verdicts than men in the expensive condition. Cost of date, however, had no effect for women. The interaction between cost of date and participant gender is shown in Figure 8.1.



### **Exploratory Interactions**

The exploratory two-way interactions between gender and date number,  $OR = .836, p = .801$ , and cost of date and date number,  $OR = 1.02, p = .982$ , were not significant. Additionally, the three-way interaction between cost of date, date number, and participant gender,  $OR = 1.91, p = .655$ , was not significant.

Table 8.1: Part II percentage of guilty and not-guilty verdicts in conditions (N = 157)

Condition	<i>n</i>	Guilty	Not Guilty
Inexpensive	82	57%	43%
Expensive	75	64%	36%
Date 1	78	62%	38%
Date 5	79	58%	42%
Men	70	41%	59%
Women	87	76%	34%

Table 8.2: Part II logistic regression results for independent variables on verdict.

	Wald Test	Odds Ratio	CI for Odds Ratio	<i>p</i>
Gender	9.12**	.315	.156 - .637	.003
Cost of date	4.25*	11.56	1.13 - 118	.038
Date number	.001	1.03	.104 - 10.3	.978
RMA score	3.94*	.958	.917 - .999	.048
Gender x cost of date	3.78*	.250	.062 - 1.01	.052
Gender x date number	.064	.836	.297 - 3.37	.801
Cost of date x date number	.000	1.02	.251 - 4.12	.982
Gender x cost of date x date number	.200	1.91	.113 - 32.2	.655

*Note.* Gender was entered on step 1, cost of date, date number, and RMA score were entered on step 2, all of the two way-interactions between gender, cost of date, and date number were entered on step 3, and the three way-interaction between gender, cost of date, and date number was entered on step 4. Verdict entered as the dependent variable (i.e., manslaughter or murder); CI= confidence interval; RMA = rape myth acceptance; \**p* < .055; \*\**p* < .01.

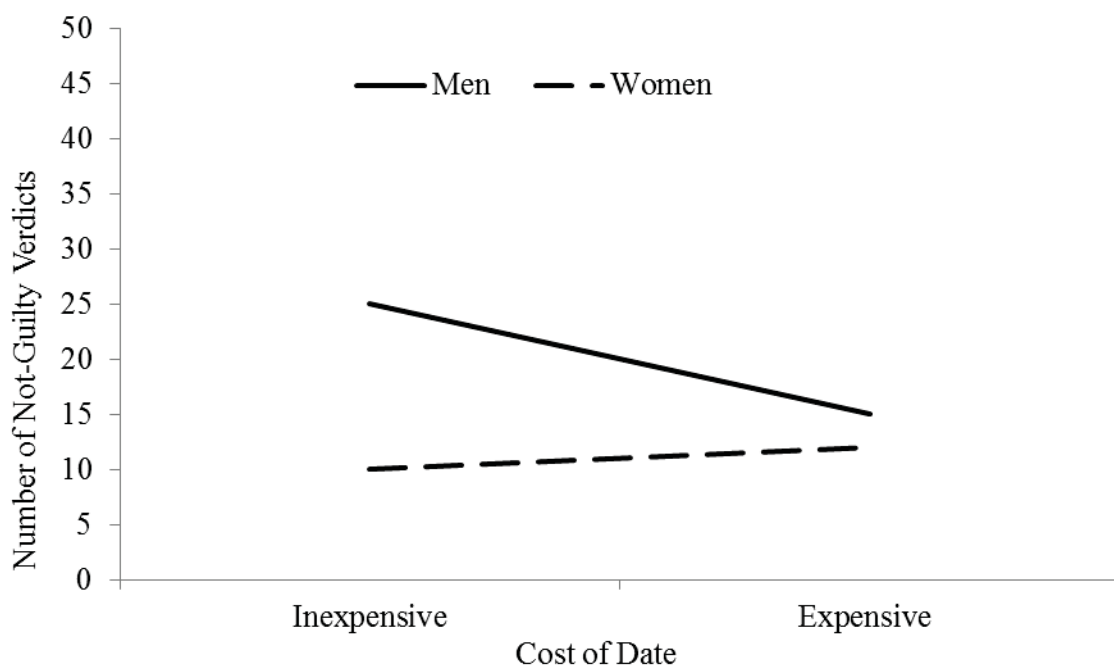


Figure 8.1: Gender x cost of date two-way interaction in Part II.

## Chapter 9: Part II Discussion

### **Overview of Results**

The purpose of Part II was to investigate how factors related to the sexual social exchange theory (i.e., cost of date, date number, and participant gender) impacted perceived sexual expectations of an alleged victim and defendant in a date rape trial, and as a result influenced juror decision-making. The results from Part II revealed that cost of date, participant gender, and RMA were significantly associated with verdict. However, the cost of date had an effect in the opposite direction as predicted, as men in the expensive condition were more likely to render guilty verdicts than men in the inexpensive condition. The cost of date, however, had no significant effect on women's verdicts. This finding was supported by the verdict reason data as men viewed the defendant's sexual expectations to be high as a result of the amount of money he spent on the date; as a result, men felt that these expectations served as a motive to justify the rape the alleged victim.

## Chapter 10: General Discussion

### **Overview of Findings**

The present study investigated the application of the sexual social exchange theory in a date rape case. Specifically, the present study aimed to provide information regarding (a) how factors related to the sexual social exchange theory, such as cost of date and date number, influenced the perceived sexual expectations of a man and a woman in a dating scenario (Part I); and (b) how perceived sexual expectations of an alleged victim and defendant impacted juror decision-making in a date rape trial (Part II). Although this study was conducted in two parts, the results are intended to be interpreted as a whole. It was necessary for participants to differentiate their expectations of the male and female character in Part I because as seen in Part II, mock jurors perceived the expectations of the defendant to be independent of the alleged victim, rather than holding an overall expectation for sexual intercourse to occur during the date. Thus, it was important for jurors to differentiate between a man versus a woman's sexual expectations when evaluating the characteristics (e.g., credibility) of the defendant and alleged victim, and when making attributions regarding why the defendant would commit the crime in question.

When integrating the results from Parts I and II, it can be inferred that when a male spends more money on a date, participants perceive him—and not the female—to have higher sexual expectations for the date. In a courtroom context, these perceived heightened sexual expectations of the defendant elicit feelings of distrust in mock jurors. As a result, mock jurors attribute the defendant's motivation for taking the alleged victim on an expensive date as the reason for the defendant committing the rape. The results

have implications for applied psychosocial theory in legal contexts (e.g., how factors influencing sexual expectations on a date impact deservingness of sex), and at a broader level, understanding how victims and defendants in date rape cases are perceived in court based on perceived sexual expectations.

The significance of several interactions (rather than main effects) in Part I revealed new information about important moderating factors related to the sexual social exchange theory. First, participant gender interacted with date number such that at date five, men had significantly higher sexual expectations for the characters than women. However, at date one, the sexual expectations of men and women were generally low and not significantly different. Second, cost of date was significantly moderated by the point-of-view (POV) of the character, such that participants' sexual expectations for the male character were significantly higher in the expensive date condition than in the inexpensive date condition. However, participants' sexual expectations for the female character did not significantly differ in the expensive and inexpensive date conditions. As a result, the application of the sexual social exchange theory to perceived sexual expectations in a dating scenario suggests that dating does not involve straightforward cost-benefit transactions, but rather interacting situational (e.g., date number, cost of date), dispositional (e.g., gender), and cognitive factors (e.g., point of view).

The results of Part I provided support that factors related to the sexual social exchange theory interact to influence sexual expectations. These results were used in Part II to examine how sexual expectations influence perceptions of a date rape, in which the consentuality of the intercourse was ambiguous. The most notable finding in Part II was the cost of date x participant gender interaction that ran counter to the predicted results. It

was predicted that an expensive date would elicit overall higher sexual expectations of the couple, and as a result participants would render fewer guilty verdicts because they expected consensual sex to occur. However, the results revealed that a more expensive date increased the likelihood of guilty convictions for men, but for women the cost of the date did not impact the number of convictions. Thus, high expectations for sexual intercourse elicited distrust of the defendant by men who tend to judge victims more negatively than women (e.g., Bell et al., 1994; Langley et al., 1991; McDonald & Kline, 2004; Pollard, 1992; Ryckman et al. 1998). Furthermore, the effect of the cost of date was supported by the verdict reason data, as more men than women in the expensive date condition, versus the inexpensive condition, perceived the defendant to have higher sexual expectations as a result of his “investment” in the date. Consequently, more men than women questioned the defendant’s intentions, and attributed the defendant’s motive for committing the rape to the defendant’s higher sexual expectations.

The present results run counter to Basow and Minieri (2011) who found that participants (especially men) judged an alleged rape victim more harshly when the defendant took her on an expensive, versus inexpensive, date. The present study may have found an opposite cost of date effect from Basow and Minieri’s results due to differences in manipulations and methodologies. With regard to manipulation differences, the date scenario in Basow and Minieri’s study involved the couple going on a date in another city (i.e., New York City), and as a result participants’ sexual expectations may have been increased due to the travel aspect of the date and not the cost of the date. In other words, even though the vignette couple did not stay overnight out of town, participants may have expected consensual intercourse to occur because the couple



travelled 75 miles to a big city for their expensive date and not because the actual cost of date. Also, participants may not have believed the woman on the date would agree to travel with a man she did not trust enough to engage in intercourse with. Relatedly, participants in Basow and Minieri's study were not explicitly told the cost of the date; the expensive date was described as dinner at a "pricey" restaurant and a show on Broadway (versus an "inexpensive" dinner and a movie in the inexpensive condition). However, participants were explicitly told the cost of date in the present study, which is a more accurate measure of sexual economics (i.e., the observations of sexual expectations in specific monetary values). Furthermore, the expensive date condition in Basow and Minieri's study was an extravagant date for college students and if a date is extravagant enough, participants will likely become very hesitant to believe rape occurred. Although similar methodologies were used, this difference in manipulation makes the results of the two studies more difficult to directly compare, as it seems Basow and Minieri manipulated extravagance and the present study manipulated the cost of the date. The present study provided a much more realistic expensive date condition for the participants in the sample (i.e., college students), and thus is a more accurate depiction of how sexual expectations are manipulated by the cost of date.

With regard to methodological differences, the present study used a mock juror paradigm in which participants rendered verdicts. However, in Basow and Minieri's study, participants were presented with a vignette and asked to rate the dating couple on various factors including responsibility and blame for the rape. Thus, the primary dependent measures of the two studies were not the same. This may have contributed to differences in perceptions of the alleged victim and defendant because participants in

Basow and Minieri's study were presented with a hypothetical rape scenario but were not presented with a rape trial, which stated that the defendant was formally charged with rape in the first-degree (as in the present study). Thus, participants in Basow and Minieri's study may not have taken the rape allegations as serious or may have viewed the defendant more positively because he was not on trial for rape.

Although the present study's results ran counter to the predictions based on Basow and Minieri's (2011) study, the present findings regarding the effect of the cost of date are supported by Lynch et al.'s (in press) work related to juror perceptions of date rape. Lynch et al. found that mock jurors judged a defendant of a rape trial more negatively and convicted more often when he bought the alleged victim drinks at a concert—regardless of whether or not the drinks were alcoholic. Lynch et al.'s findings support the notion that when money is spent on a woman, mock jurors perceive the defendant to hold some sort of sexual reciprocity belief and that he is owed something (i.e., sexual) in return. This belief that the defendant should expect sex in return for spending money on the alleged victim results in jurors attributing the defendant as a distrustful person with ulterior motives. Such negative attributions toward the defendant regarding sexual reciprocity were found in the verdict reason data in both Lynch et al.'s and the present study, while Basow and Minieri provided no such qualitative data that explained participants' decision-making. Thus it appears that when applying the sexual social exchange theory to date rape, perceived sexual expectations of the defendant actually help—not hurt—the alleged victim's case when the defendant spent money on her.

The results of Part II also showed the impact of participant gender and rape myth acceptance (RMA). Men and participants with higher RMA scores were less likely to convict the defendant, which is consistent with past mock juror research (Fischer, 1997; George & Martinez, 2002; Hammock & Richardson, 1997; Hammond et al., 2011; Jimenez & Abreu, 2003; Lynch et al., in press; Schutte & Hosch, 1997; Selby et al., 1977). The mediation analyses for each of these effects also revealed that men in comparison to women rated the alleged victim as less credible, the defendant as more credible, and blamed the defendant less, resulting in fewer convictions. Contributing to the lower conviction rate for participants with higher RMA scores, those who scored higher in RMA blamed the defendant less, blamed the victim more, and were more sympathetic to the defendant. Thus, dispositional factors (i.e., gender and RMA), situational factors (i.e., cost of date), and cognitive (the point-of-view taken) that impact sexual expectations are important in how the alleged victim and defendant are perceived in a date rape trial.

Rape myth acceptance has been used both as a mediator (Hammond et al., 2011) and predictor (Basow & Minieri, 2011; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994) in past research involving perceptions of rape. In the present study, RMA was used as a predictor of verdict because (1) little mock jury research has used RMA as a dispositional predictor of rape, and (2) it was logical that participants' perceptions (i.e., rating measures), such as victim blame, in the present rape case would have an indirect effect on the relationship between RMA and verdict. Future research should use more complex models (e.g., using structural equation modeling) to provide a better understanding of the relationship between RMA, rating measures of the defendant and alleged victim, and verdict.

Although the present results provided consistent information regarding the effect of the sexual social exchange theory on sexual expectations and perceptions of date rape, the absence of an effect of date number in Part II should be noted. In Part I, participants, especially men, reported higher perceived sexual expectations for the characters at date five than at date one. However, in Part II, date number had no effect on verdict. One possible explanation for this may be that participants in Part II perceived the sexual expectations for both the defendant and alleged victim to be generally low across date number conditions because they did not know how long the couple had been dating for in the date five condition. The only information about the couple's relationship given to participants in the date five condition was that they met at a coffee shop near campus and went on five dates; no information was given regarding how the five dates were distributed over time. Therefore, although date number impacts sexual expectations, it may not be a critical factor for jurors evaluating a rape case when they are trying to determine how well or long the alleged victim and defendant knew each other. However, using closeness of relationship or length of time knowing one another may be more of an effective manipulation in future date rape research. That is, there may be variability in how jurors view the development of the relationship between two people after five dates (i.e., high, medium, or low closeness) and explicitly stating the closeness between the couple may be a more sensitive measure of emotional investment in the relationship. Because no timeline was given, there may have been variability in evaluating how long the couple knew each other as some participants may have thought five dates would be distributed over one to two weeks while others may have thought three to four weeks. Thus, participants in the present study may not have interpreted the couple to have known

each other for very long even though they had been on five dates, thus did not have higher sexual expectations for the couple at date five versus date one.

### **Future Research Suggestions**

The present study produced novel results with regard to the date rape literature and provided support for the application of the sexual social exchange theory to date rape. However, future research is needed to build a better knowledge of the applications of the sexual social exchange theory to dating scenarios and date rape. First and with regard to the sexual social exchange theory itself, future research should investigate the possible differences between expectations for and deservingness of sexual intercourse. For example, Feather (2003) investigated the distinction between entitlement and deservingness of resources by measuring how undergraduates perceived the justification of the distribution of money left to friends and family after a death. Feather found that participants rated deservingness as different from entitlement to the money, and that factors (e.g., effort and helpfulness of the people to the dead individual) influenced this distinction. The application of this distinction is important to the sexual social exchange theory because sexual expectations are viewed as a transaction of resources (i.e., money and sex as resources). The present study focused only on participants' perceived sexual expectations of a man and woman on a date. However, the perceived expectedness for sexual intercourse to occur may be different from participants' perceived deservingness for the intercourse to occur. In other words, participants may perceive a man to hold high sexual expectations (i.e., entitlement to sex) on a date because men generally show more overt desires for sex than women, while not simultaneously holding the belief the man deserves sex or that the woman should be open to sex after the date.

At an applied level, this distinction between expectations and deservingness may be of particular importance when evaluating rape scenarios as the distinction may have a large impact on verdict. For example, if mock jurors rate the sexual expectations of the defendant as high, but the deservingness as low, they will likely convict him—seeing the intercourse as something the defendant “took” from the alleged victim. However, if they believe the defendant had high sexual expectations and that the deservingness for intercourse was also high (i.e., the alleged victim should have “given” the defendant sex after the date), they would be less likely to convict. Thus, future research should focus on determining if and how deservingness may differ from expectations for sexual intercourse at a theoretical level, and how this may apply to juror decision-making research.

Second, other factors that may influence sexual expectations should be investigated. The present study revealed that participant gender, date number, and the amount of money all influence sexual expectations. However, other variables such as perceived mate value (i.e., the summed characteristics of a potential mate) of the male or female in the dating couple may impact the perceived sexual expectations and deservingness of intercourse. From an evolutionary perspective, men and women seek ideal mates who have certain valuable qualities (e.g., intelligent and attractive). When selecting a potential mate they evaluate this person’s mate value, which assesses how many of such desirable qualities he or she possesses (Buss & Barnes, 1986). For example, a man with high mate value is said to be attractive, successful, and trustworthy (e.g., Buss & Barnes), and participants evaluating a dating scenario involving a man with such qualities (i.e., high mate value) may hold higher sexual expectations for both the

man and woman in the dating pair (as opposed to the man only as seen in the present study). Furthermore, perceived mate value has important implications for how rape is perceived in court as past jury research has shown that an attractive male with a high income (i.e., high mate value) was judged more leniently in court than an unattractive man with a low income (e.g., Bagby et al., 1994; Black & Gold, 2003; Black & Gold 2008; Erian et al. 1998).

Third, the results from Part I revealed that the POV taken in the dating pair played a large role in how participants evaluated sexual expectations. However, in Part II, the manipulation of cost of date largely had an effect on the expectations of the male (i.e., defendant); little was known about the perceived expectations of the female (i.e., alleged victim). Further understanding of the perceived sexual expectations of women is important at a theoretical level for the sexual social exchange theory (i.e., sexual economics; Baumeister & Vohs, 2004) and in courtroom research, as these perceived expectations may influence if an alleged victim is believed or not. For example, if mock jurors perceive the alleged victim to have expected sexual intercourse to occur (e.g., by inviting the defendant back to her home), they would be less willing to believe the intercourse was non-consensual. This information may be of high value in research involving perceptions of date rape in court where the case is a he-said-she-said battle and perceived believability becomes very important. Future research should investigate how factors related to the sexual social exchange theory, such as age and mate value, may specifically influence perceived expectations of the female in the dating pair.

### **Limitations**

Although the present study revealed significant findings for the application of the sexual social exchange theory to rape, some methodological concerns must be addressed. First, the study was conducted using an online methodology without juror deliberation, reducing the ecological validity. Diamond (1997) has argued that the decisions of individual jurors without deliberation generally predict jury outcomes. Because the present work is an early study in this area, the need for greater control and examination of the variables of interest necessitated this methodology. Investigating how the sexual social exchange theory impacts individual perceptions of a date rape case must be understood before applying it to group processes (i.e., a jury). This approach is a crucial first step before examining the variables of interest in more ecologically valid contexts, which may include mock juries with deliberation (Haegerich & Bottoms, 2000). However, a future study using a mock jury with deliberation will help researchers better understand how the drinking context influences juror perceptions and attitudes as a group (i.e., a jury) in a rape case.

Next and with regard to the online methodology used in the present study, Bornstein (1999) noted few differences between studies whose samples have comprised different populations and used different presentation media (i.e., written versus audio). Furthermore, Gosling, Vazire, Srivastava and John (2004) evaluated concerns regarding web-based studies and the current study attempted to address potential concerns associated with using this type of methodology. For example, the present study was designed in a way to identify non-serious and repeat responders by requiring participants to enter their university identification numbers. If the same identification number had already been used the participant was unable to complete the study. It should be noted



that asking participants to provide their University ID's may have caused participants to be concerned about their anonymity, however, all necessary precautions in accordance with the university Institutional Review Board were taken in the present study to ensure participant anonymity.

A further potential limitation to the present study is that the sample consisted of undergraduate students who completed the experiment for course credit. As well, using such an undergraduate sample raises questions regarding the motivation of the participants and the representativeness of the sample. This is a limitation to many studies in the social sciences and must be kept in mind when interpreting the results of the present study. Although these participants were jury eligible and the content of the study is of high relevance to college students (i.e., dating violence, sexual expectations), it would be beneficial to include a community sample that contained participants with more life experience (e.g., experience with sexual assault or sexual assault victims), a wider age range, and more racial/ethnic diversity. Last, it should be noted that the present study used self-reported data and this may have led participants to respond in a biased way to appear more positive (e.g., less accepting of sexual behavior). Nevertheless, the results still make an important contribution to the social psychology and law literature, as well as the juror decision-making literature.

## **Conclusions**

The present study provided support that the perceived sexual expectations of those involved in a date rape case is an important mitigating factor that impact juror perceptions and decision-making. Although past research (e.g., Basow & Minieri, 2011) suggested that increased sexual expectations hinder how victims of rape are perceived,

the present results coupled with Lynch et al.'s (in press) findings provide evidence that higher sexual expectations of a defendant actually help a victim's case. More research is needed to investigate the sexual social exchange theory at a theoretical level, and future research must continue to study the role of sexual expectations in perceptions of date rape. Further understanding of these ideas will benefit scholars, legal professionals, and victim advocates alike.

## APPENDIX A

### Part I Example Date Scenario

Gavin and Kate are two undergraduate university students who met at a coffee shop near the university they attend. They casually talked twice while at the coffee shop and after the second time chatting, Gavin asked Kate to go on a date. Kate agreed to go on a date with Gavin on the following night. Gavin picked Kate up at 5:30pm and he took her to a restaurant and then a [*movie* or *concert*]. The date cost a total of [*\$30* or *\$175*]. After the date, Gavin walked Kate to her apartment door at approximately 10:30pm.









Not at all

Definitely

24. On a scale of 1 to 10, please rate how much Kate would expect to engage in oral sex with Gavin after their fifth date:

1  
Not at all

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

Definitely



## APPENDIX C

### Part II Sample Trial Summary

#### **The Commonwealth of Kentucky V. Gavin Ross (Defendant) KRS 510.040 Rape in the First-Degree**

The following is a summary of a criminal trial regarding the alleged rape of Ms. Kate Moore by the defendant, Mr. Gavin Ross. It was alleged that Mr. Ross engaged in forcible and non-consensual sexual intercourse with Ms. Moore in her apartment on April 15<sup>th</sup>, 2012. At the time of the alleged rape, Mr. Ross and Ms. Moore were on their [*first or fifth*] date.

The State charged Mr. Ross with Rape in the First-Degree, a Class B Felony. The State provided evidence that Mr. Ross used physical force to partake in non-consensual sexual intercourse with Ms. Moore. The State called two witnesses for the prosecution: Ms. Kate Moore (the alleged victim) and Officer Rebecca Marshall (police officer that took Ms. Moore's statement).

Mr. Ross denied that he raped Ms. Moore and pled not guilty to the charge of Rape in the First-Degree. The Defense provided evidence that Mr. Ross is a respectful man and has never engaged in non-consensual sexual intercourse with any woman. The Defense called two witnesses: Mr. Gavin Ross (the defendant) and Mr. Jared Phillips (Ms. Moore's neighbor).

#### **Prosecution's Case**

Witness no 1: Kate Moore (Alleged Victim)

Direct Examination:

Ms. Moore is an undergraduate student at a local university. She testified that she was raped by Mr. Ross on the night of April 15<sup>th</sup>, 2012. Ms. Moore said that she and Mr. Ross met a week prior to the alleged incident at a coffee shop near the university that she attended. After seeing each other twice at this coffee shop, Ms. Moore said that she agreed to go on a date with him. On the night of the alleged incident, they were going on their [*first or fifth*] date. Ms. Moore said that Mr. Ross picked her up from her apartment at 6:00 pm. She said that they then continued to go to a restaurant downtown for dinner. After their meal, at approximately 7:30, she stated that they left the restaurant and went to [*a movie at the local movie theatre or a concert*]. Ms. Moore said that they arrived back at her apartment at approximately 10:30 that night and Mr. Ross walked her to her door. Ms. Moore said that her neighbor, Mr. Phillips, was in the hallway outside her door so she asked Mr. Ross to come in for some privacy to say goodnight. Ms. Moore said that once inside she thanked Mr. Ross for a good evening and then they kissed goodnight. Mr. Ross then, allegedly, did not stop kissing her when she tried to pull away, and then started inappropriately touching her breasts. When Ms. Moore continued to resist, he told

her that he knew that she wanted to have sex all night and had been leading him on throughout the entire date. Ms. Moore stated that she told him that she had a great time but did not want to have sex. She said she tried to push Mr. Ross away but he grabbed her and pulled her to her couch. Ms. Moore then said that Mr. Ross held her down on her couch and engaged in forced sexual intercourse. Ms. Moore said she screamed at him to stop but he did not. After Mr. Ross was finished, Ms. Moore said he got up from the couch, used the bathroom, and left her apartment. Ms. Moore said that she was too scared and shocked to move from the living room and stayed awake all night. The following morning, Ms. Moore said that she went directly to the police station to report the incident. She stated that she was fearful to go home that evening so she went to stay at her friend's house.

Cross-Examination:

Ms. Moore acknowledged that she was attracted to Mr. Ross and had a very good time on their date. She also admitted that she inviting him into her apartment may have indicated to Mr. Ross that she wanted to have sex, however she denied that she intended to indeed have sex with him.

Witness no. 2: Officer Rebecca Marshall

Direct Examination:

Officer Marshall testified that Ms. Moore came into the police station at approximately 8:40am and said that she needed to speak with a police officer about a rape. Officer Marshall said Ms. Moore was sent to an office to speak about the alleged incident from the previous night. She stated that Ms. Moore seemed shaken-up and fearful. Officer Marshall said that Ms. Moore told her that she had been raped by Mr. Ross on the previous night. Officer Marshall said that Ms. Moore explained in detail what had happened and was shaking and crying throughout the report. After filing the report, Officer Marshall made arrangements for Ms. Moore to get a medical examination at a nearby hospital and called Ms. Moore's friend to meet her at the hospital. Officer Marshall said she then followed protocol and went to Mr. Ross' home to bring him in for questioning. Officer Marshall said that Mr. Ross seemed shocked and angry by the accusations but was compliant with the officers. Officer Marshall said that Mr. Ross was cooperative during his police interview but became angry when confronted with Ms. Moore's accusations and denied all of the allegations.

Cross Examination:

Although Officer Marshall was not an eye witness to the crime, she said that she had been specializing in sexual assault cases for 12 years. She said that Ms. Moore was visibly upset and frightened, but wasn't in the position to say what exactly led to her appearing this way.

**Defense's Case**

Witness no. 1: Gavin Ross (Defendant)

Direct Examination:

Mr. Ross is an undergraduate student at a local university. He stated that he was a good student and not a violent person. He testified that he had met Ms. Moore twice at a local coffee shop near the university campus and engaged her in conversation both times. During the second time he saw Ms. Moore there, he asked her to go on a date and she agreed. Mr. Ross said that he arrived at Ms. Moore's apartment at approximately 6:00pm on the night of April 15<sup>th</sup>, 2012, to pick her up for their date. This was their [*first or fifth*] date. Mr. Ross said that they proceeded to a local restaurant downtown for dinner. After their meal, at approximately 7:30, he said that they left the restaurant and he took her to [*a movie at the local movie theatre or a concert*]. Mr. Ross said that he paid a total of [*\$30 or \$175*] for their date. Mr. Ross said that he took Ms. Moore home and walked her to her apartment door. He said that she then asked him to come inside. Mr. Ross said that he kissed Ms. Moore and then engaged in consensual sexual intercourse with her. After this, Mr. Ross said he went to the bathroom and then went home. He said that he was shocked and taken aback when two police officers showed up at his apartment the next morning and told him he was being questioned for Ms. Moore's allegations. Mr. Ross said he denied all of the claims because he was innocent and cooperated with the police.

Cross-Examination:

Mr. Ross admitted that he had intended to have sex with Ms. Moore since the beginning of the date. He also admitted that it was a bit odd that he left her apartment right after engaging in sexual intercourse.

Witness no. 2: Jared Phillips (Ms. Moore's neighbor)

Direct Examination:

Mr. Phillips testified that he lived in the apartment beside Ms. Moore for the two years she had lived there. Mr. Phillips stated that he saw Mr. Ross and Ms. Moore arrive at her apartment door at approximately 10:30pm on April. 15<sup>th</sup>, 2012. He also said that they were smiling at one another and that she invited Mr. Ross inside her apartment.

Cross Examination:

Mr. Phillips admitted that he heard raised voices coming from Ms. Moore's apartment on the night of the alleged incident. However, he could not make out what was being said. Mr. Phillips also said he saw Ms. Moore leave her apartment and go to her car the next morning and that she seemed to be in a hurry.

**Closing Arguments:**

The prosecution concluded that Mr. Ross should be found guilty and convicted of Rape in the First-Degree. The law says that a person is guilty of first-degree rape when he engages in sexual intercourse with another person by forcible compulsion. The prosecution argued that it is irrelevant that the alleged victim invited Mr. Ross in to say goodnight and that this does not mean she wanted to have sexual intercourse with him. The prosecution also argued that this incident has caused the alleged victim a lot of distress since she trusted the defendant enough to go on a date with him. The prosecution asked the jury to consider how hard it must have been to report this crime against a man whom she enjoyed a date with, but she felt that she was fearful for her life after being raped.

The defense argued that there was no evidence other than Ms. Moore's allegations to convict Mr. Ross of Rape in the First-Degree. The defense noted that this crime must be proven beyond reasonable doubt, and there is more than reasonable doubt that the intercourse in which Mr. Ross and Ms. Moore engaged in was non-consensual and forcible. The defense argued that Mr. Ross is a trustworthy and good student and would never harm Ms. Moore because he respected her as a woman. Furthermore, the defense said that Ms. Moore would not have invited Mr. Ross in if she did not want to become intimate with him and that she is trying to sabotage the defendant.

### **Instructions to Jurors**

First-degree rape; forcible compulsion  
Instruction No. 1

You will find the Defendant guilty of the First-Degree Rape under this Instruction if, and only if, you believe the following:

- A. That in this country on or about April 15<sup>th</sup>, 2012 and before the finding of the Indictment herein, he engaged in sexual intercourse with Kate Moore;

AND

- B. That he did so by forcible compulsion.



7. How credible was the alleged victim?

1      2      3      4      5      6      7      8      9      10

Not at all  
credible

Extremely

8. How honest was the alleged victim?

1      2      3      4      5      6      7      8      9      10

Not at all  
honest

Extremely  
honest

9. How believable was the alleged victim?

1      2      3      4      5      6      7      8      9      10

Not at all  
believable

Extremely  
believable

10. How responsible was the alleged victim for the incident?

1      2      3      4      5      6      7      8      9      10

Not at all  
responsible

Extremely  
responsible

11. How sympathetic were you toward the alleged victim?

1      2      3      4      5      6      7      8      9      10

Not at all  
sympathetic

Extremely  
sympathetic

12. How much anger did you feel toward the alleged victim?

1      2      3      4      5      6      7      8      9      10

Not at all  
Angry

Completely  
angry

13. How would you rate the alleged victim's ability to remember and report the crime in question?



20. How sympathetic were you toward the defendant?

1      2      3      4      5      6      7      8      9      10

Not at all  
sympathetic

Extremely  
sympathetic

21. How much anger did you feel toward the defendant?

1      2      3      4      5      6      7      8      9      10

Not at all  
angry

Extremely  
angry

22. How would you rate the defendant's ability to remember and report the crime in question?

1      2      3      4      5      6      7      8      9      10

Very poor

Extremely good

23. How would you rate the price of the defendant and alleged victim's date?

1      2      3      4      5      6      7      8      9      10

Inexpensive

Expensive

24. Please fill in the correct price: The date cost \_\_\_\_\_ dollars.

25. Please fill in the correct date number: On the night of the alleged incident, the defendant and alleged victim were on their \_\_\_\_\_ date.











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# Kellie Rose Lynch

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## Education

**Bachelor of Arts:** Major: Psychology (Honours); Minor: English  
*Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, NL* (Sept 2007— May 2011)

**High School Diploma** (Honours)  
*Mount Pearl Senior High, Mount Pearl, NL* (Sept 2004— June 2007)

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## Selected Achievements and Awards

- SSHRC Joseph-Armand Bombardier Master's Award** (May 2011)  
Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada, Ottawa ON
  - A research grant (an award analogous to an NSF grant) to conduct research at a Master's level (\$17,500)
  
- MUN Psychology Society Award** (April 2011)  
Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, NL
  - An undergraduate award to a student who is involved in the community, psychological research, and maintains a high GPA (\$500)
  
- NSERC URSA Research Award** (May 2010—August 2010)  
Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada, Ottawa, ON
  - An undergraduate research grant (an award analogous to an undergraduate NSF grant) to conduct research under a faculty member for one summer (\$5000)
  
- Bachelor of Arts Deans List** (September 2009—September 2011)  
Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, NL
  
- Millennium Excellence Award** (September 2009—September 2010)  
Millennium Excellence, Montreal, QB
  - A prestigious National (Canadian) scholarship awarded to students who are involved in the community and maintain a high GPA (\$18, 000)
  
- Sobeys Scholarship** (September 2007— September 2010)  
Sobeys Inc., Dartmouth, NS
  - A scholarship awarded to a student who at one point worked at a Sobeys store with a high GPA (\$4000)
  
- Memorial University Entrance Scholarship** (September 2007)  
Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, NL

- An entrance scholarship based solely on a student's GPA (\$4000)
- 

## **Publications**

Hodell, E.C., Wasarhaley, N.E., Golding, J.M., & Lynch, K.R. (In Press). Mock juror gender biases and perceptions of self-defense claims in intimate partner homicide. *Journal of Family Violence*.

Lynch, K. R., Golding, J. G., Wasarhaley, N. E., & Simcic, T. A. (In Press). Who bought the drinks? Juror perceptions of alleged victim intoxication in a rape trial.

Wasarhaley, N. E., Golding, J.M., Lynch, K. R., & Keller, P. S. (2012). The impact of abuse allegations in perceiving patricide in the courtroom. *Psychology, Crime, and Law*.

## **Academic Presentations**

Lynch, K.R., Eastwood, J., Snook, B. (June 2011) *Comprehension of the right-to-legal-counsel caution in a mock investigative interview*. Poster presented at the 2<sup>nd</sup> North American Correctional and Criminal Justice Conference, Canadian Psychological Association: Criminal Justice Psychology Section, Toronto, ON.

Wasarhaley, N. E., Golding, J. M., Dunlap, E. E., & Lynch, K. R. (2012, January). *An investigation of attributions associated with gender differences in mock jury deliberations of stalking*. Poster to be presented at the 13<sup>th</sup> Annual Meeting of The Society for Personality and Social Psychology, Social Psychology and Law Pre-Conference, San Diego, CA.

Lynch, K. R., Golding, J.M., Wasarhaley, N.E., & Simic, T.A. (2012, March). *Juror perceptions of intoxication and defendant responsibility as factors in a rape trial*. Annual American Psychology-Law Society Conference, San Juan, Puerto Rico.

Lynch, K.R., Wasarhaley N. E., & Golding, J.M. (2012, July). *Perceptions of marital rape and physical assault in the courtroom*. International Family Violence and Child Victimization Research Conference, Portsmouth, New Hampshire.

Lynch, K.R., Wasarhaley N. E., & Golding, J.M. (2013, March). *The effect of repressed abuse in a parricide case*. Annual American Psychology-Law Society Conference, Portland, Oregon.

Wasarhaley N. E., Golding, J.M., & Lynch, K.R (2013, March). *Anti-fat attitudes and motivation to respond without prejudice in court*. Annual American Psychology-Law Society Conference, Portland, Oregon.

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## **Research Experience**

### **Center for Drug and Alcohol Research (Department of Behavioral Science)**

University of Kentucky, KY (January 2012—Present)

Work under: Dr. T.K. Logan

### **Psychology and Law Laboratory**

University of Kentucky, KY (August 2011—Present)

Work under: Dr. Jonathan Golding

### **NSERC Undergraduate Student Research Award (Cognitive Aging and Memory Lab)**

Memorial University, NL (May 2010—August 2010)

Work under: Dr. Aimee Surprenant

### **Research Assistant (Bounded Rationality and Law Lab)**

Memorial University, NL (Sept 2009—April 2011)

Work under: Dr. Brent Snook

### **Research Assistant (Memorial Counselling Centre)**

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Work under: Dr. Mike Doyle

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## **Professional Work Experience**

### **Program Co-Evaluator**

Kentucky Domestic Violence Association, Lexington, KY (May 2012-August 2011)

### **Teaching Assistant**

University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY (August 2011—Present)