Developing the Masculine Sexual Entitlement Norms Scale

Christopher R. Raines

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Dissertation proposal committee:

Dr. Stephanie L. Budge, PhD, Associate Professor, Counseling Psychology (co-chair)

Dr. William T. Hoyt, PhD, Professor, Counseling Psychology (co-chair)

Dr. Travis Wright, EdD, Assistant Professor, Counseling Psychology

Dr. Sonya K. Sedivy, PhD, Associate Scientist, Testing and Evaluation Services UW

    Center for Placement Testing

Dr. Simon Goldberg, PhD, Assistant Professor, Counseling Psychology

Acknowledgements

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Statement of the Problem

Masculine sexual entitlement (MSE) has been implicated as a problematic aspect of masculinity and behavior related to sexual violence[1]. Numerous authors (e.g., Bouffard, 2010; Fulu, 2015; Hill & Fischer, 2001; Jewkes, Purna, & Garcia-Moreno, 2002; Schwartz & DeKeseredy, 1997; Travis, 2003) have discussed MSE or aspects of the construct and its relationship to sexual aggression. Despite the considerable amount of research that has referenced MSE, there is a lack of operationalization, definition, or full delineation of MSE throughout the literature. Studies have developed subscales that measure a construct related to MSE called sexual entitlement (SE) (Hurlbert, Apt, Gasar, Wilson, & Murphy, 1994; Widman & McNulty, 2010) as a component of sexual narcissism. While SE has been linked with sexual aggression (Hill & Fischer, 2001; Widman & McNulty, 2010), SE does not adequately capture the aspects of entitlement and masculinity that contribute to sexual violence. To understand how masculinity is linked to sexual entitlement and sexual aggression, it is essential to explore the broader context of sexual aggression, including how it impacts society, who is victimized, who perpetrates this violence, and the factors related to perpetration.

Various forms of sexual violence (e.g., sexual aggression, sexual assault, intimate partner violence, and sexual coercion) have been identified by researchers as a collective public health crisis (Breiding, Black, & Ryan, 2008; Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2007; Smith,

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[1]Sexual assault, sexual aggression, and sexual violence are commonly used as synonyms in the literature to describe non-consensual sexual contact (i.e., kissing or touching), sexual coercion (i.e., prompting someone to engage in contact through pressure), and completed or attempted rape (i.e., penetration of the mouth, anus, or vagina with a finger, penis, or object without the consent of the person who is the recipient of this behavior) (Abbey, 2011; Gray, Hassija, & Steinmetz, 2016; Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987).

Parrott, Swartout, & Tharp, 2015). Several reasons have been identified for this crisis designation, including the high prevalence and incidence of violence experienced by women. While not all victims are women, studies consistently show women are more often victimized than men and that between 20-25% of all women in the United States experience some form of sexual violence (Black et al., 2011; Cantor et al., 2015; Fisher & Cullen, 2000; Krebs et al., 2007; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). Furthermore, survivors of sexual violence have increased risk for physical and mental health concerns (Holmes, Resnick, Kilpatrick, & Best, 1996; Resnick, Kilpatrick, Dansky, Saunders, & Best, 1993) and there are significant public health costs associated with treating those who have been victimized (Miller, Cohen, & Wiersema, 1996). These findings indicate a need to better understand populations that are at a heightened risk for experiencing sexual aggression. Research has focused on victimization rates in one particular population, women in college, because of the higher incidence of violence this group faces relative to the general population.

There is an alarmingly high incidence and prevalence of sexual violence perpetrated against women in university settings (Krebs et al., 2007). Research has found that up to 54% of college women experience some form of sexual aggression (Koss et al., 1987). Scholarship documenting the high rates of sexual assault experienced by this population began in the 1950's (see Kirkpatrick & Kanin, 1957). More recent studies have also found high rates of sexual violence against university women. Cantor et al. (2015), in a survey conducted across 27 public and private universities with 150,072 respondents, found that 23.1% of female undergraduates reported experiencing some form of sexual violence. This evidence clearly suggests that women are vulnerable to victimization of sexual aggression. A component of understanding this violence is better understanding who perpetrates it.

Regardless of the gender of the victim, the majority of sexual violence is committed by men. In their review of the literature, Abbey and McAuslan (2004) found that 6% - 15% of men indicated that they had perpetrated a rape and 22% to 57% of men reported committing some form of sexual assault. In addition to admitting past perpetration, men also disclosed a willingness to commit future sexual violence if they knew they would not be caught. Malamuth (1981) reviewed the literature and found, across multiple samples and conditions, on average 35% of men indicated a likelihood of committing a rape in the future if they knew they would not be caught. Widman and McNulty (2010) found more recently that 20% of men reported some future likelihood of sexual aggression if they were sure they would not get caught. These studies contribute to a consensus in the literature that men are the primary perpetrators of sexual violence and that many will admit to effectuating this aggression. Additionally, the studies indicate a need to better understand what factors contribute to the perpetration of this violence.

Most scholars agree that no one risk factor can account for the many reasons why sexual aggression occurs (Baumeister, Catanese, & Wallace, 2002; Koss, 2003; McDermott, Kilmartin, McKelvey, & Kridel, 2015). Sexual violence has a complex etiology and a full review of all of the risk factors associated with it is beyond the scope of this dissertation, however, numerous summaries of this literature can be found (e.g., Gray, Hassija, & Steinmetz, 2016; McDermott, Kilmartin, McKelvey, & Kridel, 2015; Tharp et al., 2013). Five principle "domains" are consistently identified across the literature related to sexual aggression in college men including: a) childhood experiences of having sexual contact at an early age, experiencing or witnessing violence in the home, and as a youth engaging in delinquent behavior and with peers that support or also engage in this behavior (Abbey & McAuslan, 2004; Malamuth, Sockloskie, Koss, & Tanaka, 1991; Senn, Desmarais, Verberg, & Wood, 2000; White & Smith, 2004); b) alcohol use, hook-up, and party cultures in universities (Armstrong, Hamilton, & Sweeney, 2006; Calhoun,

Edwards, & Mouilso, 2012; Kimmel, 2009; Mazar & Kirkner, 2016); c) sociocultural aspects of masculinity (Brownmiller, 1975; Kilmartin & Berkowitz, 2005; Zurbriggen, 2010); d) holding attitudes that reflect hostility towards women, acceptance of rape myths, adversarial sexual beliefs, endorsing token resistance, and misperceptions of sexual intent (Abbey, McAuslan, & Ross, 1998; Burt, 1980; Farris, Treat, Viken, & McFall, 2008; Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999); and e) psychosocial traits such as psychopathy and narcissism (Kosson, Kelly, & White, 1997; Mouilso & Calhoun, 2012; Zeigler-Hill, Enjaian, & Essa, 2013). Although these domains are complex, they are occasionally combined to understand sexual aggression. For example, Malamuth (et al., 1991) proposed and found evidence for a "confluence model" which argued that early childhood experiences can lead to hostile masculinity and impersonal/promiscuous sex which combine to increase likelihood of sexual violence perpetration. Both of these domains and this model offer indications of the complexity of sexual violence. Perhaps the most underdeveloped construct related to sexual aggression in the relevant literature reflects and informs many of these noted domains and is the focus of this dissertation: masculine sexual entitlement.

Entitlement has been discussed in several studies on sexual aggression. Champion (2003), for example, in a male sample, proposed that entitlement could be assessed via measures on Machiavellianism and narcissistic personality features and explored the extent to which these constructs could be linked to self-reported perpetration of sexual violence. Machiavellianism, he explained, is characterized by limited affect and emphasis on utility over morality in interpersonal relationships, manipulation, deceit, seeing others as objects, and perceiving others as hostile (Champion, 2003). While Champion did not establish a predictive relationship between the proposed "proxies" of entitlement (i.e., Machiavellianism and narcissistic personality traits) and sexual aggression, he did find a trend in the data that those men that exhibited higher levels

of narcissism and Machiavellianism were more likely to have reported engaging in sexual aggression. This study thus appears to have identified potential aspects of entitlement, but was not sufficiently precise in defining it as reflected in using the aforementioned "proxies" rather than offering a more expansive explanation.

Another important line of research related to entitlement has been developed in research with convicted rapists and individuals who have been charged with intimate partner violence. Studies that have explored the cognitions of convicted rapists and those that have committed intimate partner violence have found that these men report feelings of entitlement or entitlement to sex as men (Beech, Ward, & Fisher, 2006; Polaschek & Ward, 2002; Weldon, 2016). The data from these studies have generally been derived from qualitative interviews in which these men often mention feelings of entitlement. However, none of these studies used or developed an instrument to measure entitlement. While there is one study (see Hanson et al., 1994) that did develop a measure that purported to have a sexual entitlement subscale, this instrument had numerous limitations, (see Chapter 2) including a lack of operational definition of sexual entitlement and not adhering to established best practices for measurement development. Collectively, this literature lacks a comprehensive explanation of entitlement, the full complexity of the construct of MSE, or theorization about the subcomponents of it despite the recognition that feelings of entitlement are present in these men.

Entitlement as it relates to sexuality (i.e. sexual entitlement) has largely been explored in studies on sexual narcissism (e.g., Hurlbert et al., 1994; Widman & McNulty, 2010). Nevertheless, this research has not focused principally on entitlement. Widman and McNulty (2010), for example, provided a brief explanation of sexual entitlement and include it as one of four components of sexual narcissism. While Widman and McNulty (2010) found evidence supporting its links to sexual aggression as an aspect of sexual narcissism, neither their five-item

subscale nor their definition appear to capture the full extent of the construct. They described sexual entitlement as "fulfillment of one's sexual desires [as] a personal right" (Widman & McNulty, 2010, p. 929). While this definition is consistent with other explanations of sexual entitlement (discussed further in Chapter 2), it does not express the relationship between masculinity and sexual entitlement that has been identified in other research.

Much of the previously noted literature (i.e., Beech, Ward, & Fischer, 2006; Champion, 2003; Widman and McNulty, 2010) has identified entitlement as related to sexual violence or sexual aggression in male samples. This link has also been suggested in theoretical writings on masculinity. For example, Gilbert (1992) suggested men experience a general sense of entitlement over women and in turn entitlement to sex due to male socialization. Furthermore, sexual objectification of women is identified as a normative function of masculine socialization reflecting men's feelings of entitlement (Jordan, 1987). Gilbert and Jordan contributed to the literature on masculinity and entitlement, but their conclusions were not empirically tested. Other researchers, in turn, have studied aspects of sexual entitlement and offered data-driven contributions to theory.

Empirical studies on sexual entitlement have principally emphasized or implicated masculinity as it relates to sexual entitlement in the context of sexual aggression. Hill and Fischer (2001) found that entitlement mediated the relationships between masculinity variables and norms and attitudes that measured rape-supportive attitudes. Further, Bouffard (2010) found that entitlement could predict sexually aggressive versus non-sexually aggressive men. Other studies have found that men who are incarcerated for incest with children have elevated levels of sexual entitlement relative to men who have not perpetrated this violence (Hanson et al., 1994) and that men report higher levels of sexual entitlement than women (Widman & McNulty, 2010). While these studies have been informative, they leave room for a broader

conceptualization and understanding of MSE. For instance, some of the instruments these authors used measured global entitlement generally or limited measures of sexual entitlement. Consequently, there has been a call in the masculinities literature to develop measures to understand entitlement as it relates to sexual aggression (Schwartz, 2015). Indeed a recent review of the masculinities literature acknowledged a gap in the men and masculinities literature on sexual assault perpetration and noted there is a dearth of studies that use central constructs from the masculinities field to understand sexual violence (McDermott et al., 2015).

Collectively, this literature suggests masculinity, entitlement, and sexual aggression have important links and complexity that warrant further understanding and construct development. The previously cited literature implicates masculinity in sexual entitlement and suggests a relationship between some men feeling as though they have a right to sex and the perpetration of sexual violence. What remains to be seen, however, is a more fully articulated understanding of this MSE, however. An important step, thus, in advancing the literature on MSE as it relates to sexual violence is proposing and validating an instrument of the construct.

Psychological measures can be valuable tools to document, understand, and develop interventions to address phenomena. While the violence prevention literature has validated scales that measure attitudes that have been linked to violence perpetration, scholarship has argued these scales more generally measure hostility towards women and attitudes about female victims of violence instead of understanding perpetrators (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995; McDermott, Kilmartin, McKelvey, & Kridel, 2015). A void in the masculinities literature is a lack of scales that focus on constructs related to perpetrator characteristics. Gaining a better understanding of the characteristics of perpetrators would allow for designing interventions to better address high rates of sexual aggression. The researcher's intent with developing this scale is to advance the literature's understanding of MSE and provide a tentative framework for conceptualizing the

construct anticipating continued refinement with additional scholarly attention (Hoyt, Warbasse, & Chu, 2006). While APA's Division 51 on men and masculinities in public statements and internal discussions has made clear it is committed to addressing and reducing sexual violence, this topic remains understudied in their flagship journal. Beyond academic scholarship, in the context of the widespread recognition of sexual violence and coercion coming to light with the #MeToo movement, the realities of what could be considered masculine sexual entitlement is well-documented in the media (i.e., Harvey Weinstein, Kevin Spacey, Donald Trump, Aziz Ansari, R. Kelly, and Michael Jackson are a handful of public figures facing significant allegations of forms of sexual violence). Ideally this work will be used to inform efforts to address this problematic pattern of masculine sexual behavior and norms. What follows is an operational definition of the construct that informed the development of the subscale themes and items.

Masculine Sexual Entitlement Operational Definition

The definition of MSE provided below was developed based on review of the literature, this author's understanding of sexual violence dynamics through working in the field of violence prevention for three years, and feedback from content experts from different areas of men and masculinities. These experts were recruited and selected because of any of the following criteria: they authored work peer-reviewed published research on entitlement, they are scholars in the field of gender or masculinities, and/or they have expertise in violence prevention. The development of the subscales reflective of the following definition of MSE are discussed in greater depth in Chapter 2.

Masculine Sexual Entitlement Operational Definition: the personal and collective perceived masculine attitudes, socialized norms, and behaviors reflected in men having an

exaggerated belief in their own and other men's deservingness of sex or right to engage in behaviors related to sexual dynamics.

Overview

To refine the construct of masculine sexual entitlement (MSE), this dissertation will evaluate the previously mentioned operational definition of MSE via the MSEN scale which was developed utilizing the test construction process proposed by DeVellis (2017). The aim of this project is to contribute to the literature by elaborating and testing a psychometrically-valid scale that yields reliable measurement of MSE and norms in an emerging adult-male population.

The scale was developed with a male sample because men are consistently identified as the primary perpetrators of sexual violence (Black et al., 2011; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). A literature review contributed to the advancement of six proposed themes that were the basis of the preliminary subscale concepts that influenced the previously noted operational definition of MSE. These subscale concepts were defined and items were developed based on these definitions. Both were then submitted to content experts and revised based on their feedback. The items were then evaluated by focus groups with undergraduate men to assess item clarity, understanding, and evaluate the language so that the wording is congruent with their experience. This yielded the initial iteration of the scale, the MSEN90 which had 90 items.

The MSEN90 was piloted with a sample of undergraduate men. Evaluation of the MSEN90 consisted of item analysis removing poorly performing items followed by exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with items removed based on low item-scale correlations, low factor loadings, or cross loadings. As needed, items were changed or removed during EFA. The revised scale was comprised of 40 items (MSEN40) and was administered to a second sample. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted via structural equation modeling to validate

the factor structure of the scale. During CFA, several fit indices fell outside of the acceptable range and it was decided to remove additional items. This decision was made for two reasons: a) scholars have made calls for "short forms" or measures with few items; and b) as items were removed fit indices consistently improved in desired directions. While this decision does necessitate additional research with further CFA for the development of the scale, it was a helpful step as the MSEN25 demonstrated acceptable fit for several fit indices and has very close to acceptable scores for other fit indices.

Samples are labeled such that respondents in the first study are labeled MSENa (e.g., MSEN90a, MSEN40a, MSEN25a), participants in the second sample are labeled MSENb (e.g., MSEN40b, MSEN25b). Participants from the MSENb sample self-selected to be invited to complete the instrument three months later and are labeled MSENc (e.g., MSEN40b, MSEN25c).

Research Questions

Q1. To what degree can the construct of masculine sexual entitlement (MSE) be reliably measured, via coefficient alpha, by the items in the proposed Masculine Sexual Entitlement Norms scale?

Q2. Do the six proposed subscales of the MSEN scale reflect six distinct factors when evaluated via exploratory factor analysis and will a 6-factor structure be supported in confirmatory factor analysis?

Q3. To what extent does the MSEN demonstrate discriminant validity from the Satisfaction With Life scale (SWL), a theoretically unrelated construct that measures the extent to which someone feels satisfied with their life?

Q4. To what extent will the mean score of the MSEN scale demonstrate convergent validity with two theoretically related scales: a) the Sexual Narcissism Scale (SNS) and b) the Male Role Norms Inventory-Short Form (MRNI-SF)?

Q5. To what extent will the MSEN scale demonstrate strong and weak correlations with constructs with which the MSEN scale should theoretically show positive associations or absence of associations?

Q6. Are there observed group differences in MSEN scores for various group demographics (i.e., race, fraternity affiliation, income, and sexual orientation)?

Q7. To what extent does masculine sexual entitlement scores, as measured by the MSEN, predict self-reported sexual aggression, as measured by the Sexual Experiences Survey (SES-PF) and how is this related to demographic variables of race, fraternity affiliation, sexual orientation, and age of first having had sex?

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

To provide context for the development of the MSE construct, three research areas are reviewed: a) sociocultural aspects of U.S. culture that impact masculinity and gender socialization; b) predominant theories on masculinity linked to sexual violence; and c) relevant literature on entitlement. Following these three reviews, the proposed MSE subscales and theory from which they are derived is presented. Finally, the Chapter concludes with a review of the scale construction literature.

Sociocultural and Gender Socialization Factors Related to Sexual Violence

This section will discuss how sexual violence has been identified as a sociocultural phenomenon starting with a brief review of rape culture. Next, two dominant conceptualizations of masculinity in the U.S., patriarchy and hegemonic masculinity, are included. Following this, Bem's (1983) gender schema theory and Addis, Mansfield, and Syzdek's (2010) gendered social learning theory are considered. Finally, West and Zimmerman's (1998) predominant conceptualization of "doing gender" and gender as a performance is reviewed.

Rape culture. Scholarship has designated U.S. society as a "rape culture," noting that victimization rates for sexual violence are very high among women and efforts to treat this problem are generally ineffective and centered around sending offenders to prison (Buchwald, Fletcher, & Roth, 1993). Rape culture is largely unacknowledged, but researchers note that examples of it can be seen in male social norms: to pressure partners into sex, objectify women, dismiss or ignore the problem of sexual violence, and hold rape myths (Brownmiller, 1975; Buchwald, Fletcher, & Roth, 1993; Schwartz & DeKeseredy, 1997). Sociocultural factors that could contribute to these norms are important to review. One sociocultural factor that is linked to rape culture is patriarchy (Brownmiller, 1975).

Patriarchy. Many authors have noted that Western society is organized in a patriarchal structure (Brownmiller, 1975; A. G. Johnson, 2005). hooks (2013) described patriarchy as comprised of interlocking political and social systems that assert male dominance and superiority. Included in this structure is a view that men have the right to hold power over others and encourages men to assume these privileges as a birthright. Numerous forces contribute to reinforcing these views including religion, education, social systems, and internalized patriarchal values within significant relationships (hooks, 2013). Patriarchy has been identified as a significant contributing factor to sexual aggression because men use rape as a means of demonstrating power and control (Brownmiller, 1975).

Patriarchy has also been recognized as a multifaceted construct with various aspects relating to sexual violence. For example, Dekeseredy and Schwartz (1993) included "social patriarchy" and "courtship patriarchy" in their peer-support model of violence against women. They described social patriarchy in a similar way to hooks (2013), noting the hierarchical structure of society and the power and privilege men have both in social institutions and in relationships. Courtship patriarchy, however, is distinct in that it reflects the assumed norms common in many heterosexual relationships where women are expected to be submissive, faithful, and provide men access to sex (Dekeseredy & Schwartz, 1993). Furthermore, Schwartz and DeKeseredy (1997) discussed one of the norms of courtship patriarchy: men "feel entitled to sex provided by the female" (p. 62) when they are regularly dating or in a long-term relationship. Clearly, patriarchal structures of society and masculine entitlement to sex have been linked in theory. Another system that is often discussed in relation to male social dominance is hegemonic masculinity.

Hegemonic masculinity. Connell and Messerschmidt (2005) described hegemonic masculinity as a pervasive and normative hierarchical ideology whereby an idealized masculinity

that involves power and dominance is established through subordination of women and non-dominant groups. Hegemonic masculinity serves to promote patriarchy while also reinforcing the power of a privileged group of men, typically those of a White-European, middle-class, heterosexual, and Christian background (Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005). Smith et al. (2015) noted that acts of sexual aggression can embody hegemonic masculinity as men demonstrate their dominance and control through sexual violence. They suggested this violence happens when men feel masculine gender role stress (i.e. anxiety related to their masculinity being threatened) and attempt to reassert dominance through sexual aggression (Smith et al., 2015). Hegemonic masculinity is an ideology that emphasizes male dominance and privileges a select group of men. Importantly, not all men have equal access to power in this system, but the construct suggests men should aspire to be in control as a fundamental assumption of their masculine status.

Male dominance and control can be linked to entitlement through gender socialization. Jordan (1987) noted that men and women have distinct socialization patterns that influence different "modes" of being in romantic relationships. Male socialization towards dominance and being in control is contrasted by female submissiveness wherein women are socialized to be accommodating. A byproduct of gender socialization is for men to feel entitled, but particularly entitled to sex (Jordan, 1987). Thus, while the literature has not directly linked entitlement to hegemonic masculinity, the two thus can be connected. Further discussion of gender socialization is warranted to better understand the development of entitlement in men.

Gender socialization. Bem's (1983) gender schema theory (GST) is based on cognitive-developmental theory and social learning. GST suggests that an individual's worlds are often fundamentally organized based on their gender identity. Bem (1983) described this in terms of "sex-typing" or applying different gendered attributes of "maleness" or "femaleness" to aspects

of one's world that are not otherwise a priori gendered. Sex-typing is rooted in a culture's definition of masculinity and femininity. She suggested sex-typing is a constructive process through which a child's cognition mediates information based on these cultural definitions, organizing and encoding information as masculine or feminine. This process is influenced by others as a child is taught what is consistent or inconsistent with an "appropriate" masculine or female gender schema. Consequently, this information is internalized via social and parental feedback so a child acts in a way that is consistent with their gender schema. Bem (1983) proposed that cultural myths about gender become embedded, while self-fulfilling prophesies and sex differences are increasingly exaggerated as other identities, such as racial identities, are minimized.

In linking GST to entitlement, it is important to consider the previously discussed patriarchal structures and those factors that reinforce hegemonic masculinity. If, from an early age, a boy is taught through sex-typing to engage in behaviors or choose toys, clothes, and hobbies that are consistent with power, dominance, and control, it is not difficult to see how a boy's self-schema may develop wherein entitlement is a component of one's self-concept. This link can be seen in that when is then see has a "right" or norm to seek power, control, or dominance. Jordan's (1987) contention is that feelings of entitlement stem from this power and control orientation, but importantly, can manifest in sexual relationships where the feminine partner is seen as the accommodating object with whom a man is entitled to fulfill sexual desires. Thus, one can infer men may come to see, as a component of their masculinity, a general deservingness of sex as a function of how they are socialized.

Addis, Mansfield, and Syzdek's (2010) gendered social learning (GSL) theory incorporated components of social learning theory (i.e., reinforcement, punishment, and modeling) and the importance of context in teaching acceptable behavior for a person of a given

gender. The authors suggested GSL involves encouraging men to "do gender" through enacting defined behaviors in specified contexts. Addis and colleagues' emphasis on gender as a performance is consistent with how other scholars have described the construct. West and Zimmerman (1998) noted, for instance, that gender is an "accomplishment" that involves "managing situated conduct in light of normative conceptions of attitudes and activities appropriate for one's sex category" (p. 105). Thus gender performance is a context-based occurrence that simultaneously reflects and co-creates a socialization process. In groups, masculine gender performance could contribute to sexual entitlement. For example, research has noted engagement in all-male groups can involve sexual objectification of girls and women, bragging about or exaggerating sexual experiences, encouraging peers to have sex, and providing status to peers who appear to demonstrate these behaviors (Flood, 2008; Kimmel, 2009; Schwartz & DeKeseredy, 1997). In these ways, gender performance among groups of men could contribute to men feeling a right to or deservingness of sex, as their engagement with peers may instill or reinforce these notions. The implications for this and the role of peers will be discussed at greater length when the subscales are reviewed later in Chapter 2. These socialization processes can also inform our understanding of predominant theories of masculinity as related to entitlement and sexual violence.

Predominant Theories of Masculinity Related to Sexual Violence

This section begins with a review of the predominant theories of masculinity[2] that can be connected to sexual violence: the Blueprint for Masculinity, Gender Role Conflict and Stress,

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[2] It is important to note, that increasingly, the literature has noted that "masculinity" is an inadequate term as multiple *masculinities* exist that reflect complex values systems, behaviors, and practices among men of many identities (Petersen, 2003). What is described here is a "masculinity" literature base that seems mostly closely conceptually linked to the hegemonic masculinity that has been previously described—generally, a White-European, Christian, Western, and heterosexual masculinity. The term masculinity is used here for simplicity and as consistent with this literature, while recognizing the term is outdated and limitations of its use.

and Masculine Mystique (Zurbriggen, 2010). This section concludes with two theories of masculinity that have been strongly linked to sexual violence: hostile masculinity and hypermasculinity (Murnen et al., 2002).

   Brannon's Blueprint for Masculinity. One of the more influential theories in the study of men and masculinities is Brannon's (1976) blueprint for masculinity. Brannon's blueprint is comprised of four elements: a) "the Big Wheel" which means men should obtain status and achieve at a high level; b) "the Sturdy Oak" which involves men being emotionally inexpressive and independent; c) "No Sissy Stuff," which suggests men should be against anything that could lead to them being perceived as feminine or gay; and d) "Give 'Em Hell" which places a value of being adventurousness and aggressive in men (Brannon, 1976). Aspects of each of these four elements can in some way be linked to problematic aspects of masculinity that could give root to sexual violence. For example, men may competitively pursue sexual experiences, such as those identified by the "Big Wheel," as a means to obtain status with peers (Kimmel, 2009). Additionally, being emotionally restrictive (i.e., like the Sturdy Oak) could include having low empathy for others (Zurbriggen, 2010), which has been associated with sexual aggression (Wheeler, George, & Dahl, 2002). The rule that identifies "No Sissy Stuff," or anti-femininity and homophobia, is similar to hostility against women which is also linked to sexual violence (Malamuth et al., 1991). Lastly, "Give 'Em Hell" emphasizes male aggression, research has found that men who endorse hyper-gender masculine ideology—which includes acceptance of aggression—are more likely to accept of sexual aggression (Warkentin & Gidycz, 2007). Brannon's blueprint for masculinity has been widely adopted in the literature on masculinity and is considered a foundation for other theories of masculinity (Murnen et al., 2002; Zurbriggen, 2010). Another significant theory of masculinity that can be linked to sexual aggression is O'Neil's (1981) theory of Gender Role Conflict and Strain.

Gender Role Conflict and Strain. O'Neil (1981) described Gender Role Conflict and Strain (GRCS) as the negative impact and consequences that come from rigid masculine norms and gender roles. Central to this theory is a "fear of femininity" that includes six patterns: a) restrictive emotionality; b) socialized control, power, and competition; c) homophobia; d) restrictive sexual and affectionate behavior; e) obsession with achievement and success; and f) health care problems (O'Neil, 1981). Connections can be seen between aspects of O'Neil's theory and Brannon's blueprint for masculinity. These include restrictive emotionality and "the Sturdy Oak;" socialized power, control, competition and obsession with achievement and success to the "the Big Wheel;" and homophobia and "No Sissy Stuff" and, in turn, links with sexual aggression. O'Neil (1981) suggested that these six patterns contribute to sexist attitudes and behaviors and can account for the institutional sexism we encounter in society.

A noteworthy component of O'Neil's writing on GRCS is that he discussed how aspects of GRCS create challenges for men and limit their sexuality and expression of affection. This manifests in several problematic norms: a) sex and orgasm are considered as an objective and "conquest" for men rather than a process for connection; b) sex is seen as a means of measuring masculinity; c) sex as an act is isolated from interpersonal intimacy and connection; and d) mutual pleasure in sex is rooted in male control, dominance, and power (O'Neil, 1981). In reviewing these themes, aspects of masculine sexuality can thus be seen to be connected to depersonalization of sexuality, with an emphasis on male control and power in sex, and sex seen as a goal or target rather than a point of connection. Taken to an extreme, sexual aggression is a manifestation of the problems discussed by O'Neil. Furthermore, GRCS has implications for conceptualizing MSE as sex is a depersonalized process that involves male dominance and the objectification of sexual partners.

Masculine Mystique. In addition to the six patterns of GRCS, O'Neil (1981) synthesized the masculinity literature to develop nine assumptions that describe values and attitudes of an "optimal man" by society's standards that he labeled the "Masculine Mystique." These nine assumptions assert that: a) men hold biological superiority to women and more human potential; b) masculinity is more dominant, superior, and more valued by society than femininity; c) proving masculinity involves demonstrations of masculine power, domination, competition, and control; d) signs of femininity are to be avoided, including showing vulnerability, feelings, and emotion; e) rational-logical thought is a superior form of communication as compared to interpersonal communication characterized by emotions and feelings; f) sex is the means by which one proves masculinity; g) feminine behaviors including affection, sensuality and intimacy should be avoided; h) men do not engage in intimacy with other men because one could be taken advantage of and it could imply homosexuality; i) work and careers are measures of masculine success; and j) men are professionally superior to women in professional capacities, therefore men should be breadwinners and women caretakers of household and child-rearing responsibilities. Combined with the fear of femininity, the assumptions of the masculine mystique fundamentally devalue women (O'Neil, 1981). O'Neil (1981) noted that masculine mystique permeates the male socialization process, as overlap can be seen in some of the themes that have been described previously in the review of masculine socialization. Additionally, this emphasis on male biological superiority is relevant to developing a theory on MSE as men may come to see their "deservingness" not only as a function of their higher social status, but also as a presumed function of nature. Two other forms of masculinity have been the focus of literature linked to sexual violence: hostile masculinity and hypermasculinity.

Hostile masculinity and hypermasculinity. Two types of masculinity have been found

to be strongly related to sexual violence: hostile masculinity and hypermasculinity (Murnen et al., 2002). Malamuth et al. (1991) described hostile masculinity as the second pathway of their confluence model for sexual violence perpetration. Hostile masculinity involves aggressive attitudes and personality features that leads to coercive behaviors in sexual and non-sexual behaviors alike. Additionally, it is characterized by the desire to be in control, dominating, and exhibiting a distrustful and defensive stance against women (Malamuth, Linz, Heavey, Barnes, & Acker, 1995; Malamuth, Sockloskie, Koss, & Tanaka, 1991). Hypermasculinity is a conceptually similar construct to hostile masculinity (Murnen et al., 2002). It involves taking on a "macho persona" and can include endorsing attitudes related to sexual callousness, manliness being associated with violence, and finding thrill in danger (Mosher & Anderson, 1986; Mosher & Sirkin, 1984). Murnen, Wright, and Kaluzny (2002) in a meta-analysis using 39 studies with college-age male samples, explored the relationship between 11 measures of masculine ideology and sexual aggression. To measure masculine ideology, they used a range of instruments including measures that involved gender role adherence, attitudes related to violence and dominance, attitudes towards women, and attitudes of violence in relationships. They found the largest effects were almost moderate effect sizes amongst measures of self-reported perpetration of sexual violence and hostile masculinity ($r = .28$) and hypermasculinity ($r = .29$) (Murnen et al., 2002). Collectively, these studies, along with the previously noted theory, provide a backdrop wherein certain types of masculinity continue to be associated with violence, control, and sexual aggression. While hostile masculinity and hypermasculinity have not been connected to entitlement, themes of both (i.e., aggression, dominance, and control) have been discussed previously as potentially connected to MSE in the sections on hegemonic masculinity and gender socialization. Reviewing theory on sexual aggression in men further helps one see the links to entitlement.

Theory on Sexual Aggression in Men

While factors related to sexual aggression in men have been presented previously (see Chapter 1), two theories from feminist and evolutionary psychology that offer explanations for why men perpetrate violence against women are presented here. While neither theory has been tested empirically, both seem to reflect and influence perceptions of masculine sexuality and sexual violence. In addition to these two central theories, another line of research focused on convicted male rapists and those who have committed intimate partner violence is reviewed. While all three contribute to how this dissertation conceptualizes MSE, the literature on those have perpetrated violence is particularly useful as it informs many of the themes for the MSE subscales.

Feminist theory. Feminist theorist Susan Brownmiller's (1975) book *Against Our Will: Men, Women, and Rape* is a seminal feminist work that addressed rape. Brownmiller (1975) noted rape is an act fundamentally about domination and power, not sex, by which men subordinate women and consolidate power in the establishment and maintenance of patriarchy. Through rape, she continued, all men create a context in which women are kept in a constant "state of fear" (Brownmiller, 1975 p. 15). This theory largely rests on the assumption that rape reflects social or "nurture" influences rather than being an inherent part of human nature. Brownmiller's (1975) work discussed numerous instances where sexual violence had occurred across cultures and societies to advance her arguments. While her theory has not been empirically tested, researchers have found that certain cultures that are more hierarchical and have less gender equality are more "rape-prone" than others (Sanday, 1981). Further, Brownmiller's writing has implications for this dissertation's conceptualization of MSE, namely that the construct reflects a socialized process. In contrast to feminist theory on sexual violence, evolutionary psychology proposes a different theory of male rape.

Evolutionary psychology theory. Thornhill and Palmer (2000) offered an evolutionary lens in *A Natural History of Rape* that critiqued Brownmiller's conclusions and asserted that rape by men is motivated by sex not power. Thornhill and Palmer (2000) suggested that the capacity one has for rape reflects either an adaption or is the byproduct of an adaption of evolution. This theory is an extension of sociobiological positions of different reproductive investments and strategies among men and women. Kilmartin (2010) summarized sociobiological theory noting it suggests men seek many sexual partners to procreate with and women are more selective with whom they will mate due to the costs associated with giving birth. Thornhill and Palmer (2000) applied this theory to sexual violence and suggested men whose sexual advances are rejected will rape as an "evolved" reproductive strategy. Thornhill and Palmer's (2000) conclusions have been criticized as an inadequate explanation of sexual violence and founded on limited empirical support (Coyne, 2003; Koss, 2003). This evolutionary conceptualization of rape, however, warrants further consideration. Regardless of critiques, it may, for example, influence the way men view male sexual behaviors as a function of inherent aspects of masculine sexuality and MSE due to perceptions of how men "are programmed." Further, aspects of the sociobiological theory have influenced writings on sexual violence and many believe some aspect of biological and socialization processes are involved in sexual aggression in men (Kilmartin, 2010). Another important line of research has been conducted with men convicted of rape and how they have justified their behaviors.

Theory based on convicted rapists and violent individuals. Research has sought to better understand the thought processes of men that have been convicted of sexual violence and men who engage in aggression. Polaschek and Ward (2002) reviewed research conducted on individuals convicted of rape based on interviews and scales administered with this population. Through these findings, they developed a list of five *implicit theories*—or "cognitive distortions"

or "schemas"—rapists have employed to justify their actions. These implicit theories include: a) women are fundamentally unknowable as a reflection of inherent differences from men; b) women are sex objects; c) men have an inherently uncontrollable sex-drive; d) men are entitled and should have their needs met on demand; and e) women are generally hostile or threatening (Polaschek & Ward, 2002). Polaschek and Ward (2002) wrote more specifically about entitlement and suggested that it involves the following: a) men feel entitled to sex after buying a date a meal; b) men are superior to women; c) men should be entitled to control women's sexuality; and d) men feel a right to determine women's sexual needs. These aspects of entitlement are consistent with other writing on masculine entitlement, and these themes will be discussed at greater length later. A limitation of their theory is they did not subject it to empirical validation, although it did find support in later research.

 Beech, Ward, and Fisher (2006) conducted interviews with 41 men from the United Kingdom convicted of rape and applied their findings to Polaschek and Ward's work. Using thematic analysis to code interviews with their participants, they found evidence to support each of the five previously noted proposed "schemas" and that most participants' responses corresponded with at least one of the themes. In particular, 44% of the participants gave responses that reflected entitlement or masculine entitlement to sex. For example, respondents reported they were "deserving of whatever they wanted" or they were "entitled to sex if they wanted it because they were males" (Beech et al., 2006, p. 1642).

Related to this research base, other studies have found that men convicted of committing intimate partner violence also hold views of entitlement and perceptions of women as objects (Weldon, 2016). Further, Hanson and colleagues (1994) conducted interviews with men that perpetrated sexual violence with children to develop a scale to use with this population. They found sexual entitlement to be a component of the offenders' justification of their actions and

developed a sexual entitlement subscale that will be discussed in greater depth later (Hanson et al., 1994). These studies, are useful to identify aspects of sexual entitlement in men and will be integrated into the discussion of the larger MSEN subscale themes after entitlement more broadly is discussed.

Theory on Entitlement

Twenge and Campbell (2009) noted that, historically, entitlement involved having a social rank and claim to ownership as a reflection of aristocratic wealth in earlier Western societies. Diverse viewpoints have contributed to more recent conceptualizations of entitlement. These lenses include psychoanalytic, social psychology, and studies on narcissism. Certain types of entitlement have been included in the literature as well, including sexual entitlement (as a component of sexual narcissism) and masculine entitlement. These writings and theories on entitlement are helpful to review before the six subscales of MSE are delineated.

Psychoanalytic. Some of the earliest writings on entitlement in psychology are derived from psychoanalytic theory. Freud (1916) described features of entitlement in clients whom he labeled "exceptions." These individuals had previously experienced a past grievance, typically during childhood, and due to this felt entitled to special treatment, privileges, or deserving some reparation for that prior experience of being wronged (Freud, 1916). Horney (1950) also discussed patients with feelings of entitlement who expected special treatment as part of their "neurotic claim." She described these individuals as feeling as though they had a right to special attention and treatment from others, and they believed people should labor to meet these needs or wishes fully even if they were not explicitly stated or articulated (Horney, 1950). Jacobson (1959) built on these prior theories of entitlement and suggested that some individuals feel entitled due to extraordinary talents or being uncommonly physically attractive. These entitled individuals derive a belief they are exempt from the rules that everyone else is expected to

follow, in part because they may be treated by others as special (Jacobson, 1959). From these studies, an important aspect of entitlement evolves: individuals feel a right and deservingness that may or may not correspond with other's perceptions. Another noteworthy conclusion from this literature is that feelings of entitlement can develop based on how one is treated by others and one might learn to believe one is special and thus exempt from the rules. Moving forward over half a century, the next development in entitlement theory emphasized more nuanced degrees of levels of individual entitlement.

Solomon and Leven (1975), who considered entitlement an important adaptive psychological process, provided an example that most people in Western societies expect—or feel entitled to have—traffic lights. These lights keep us safe and, were they to disappear, we would feel justified in feeling upset and demand they be replaced (Solomon & Leven, 1975). Their writing on the subject is one of the earlier conceptualizations of entitlement to note that it is both normal and useful for individuals to feel entitled to certain things.

Building on this, Kriegman (1983) conceptualized three levels of entitlement that vary based on person and context. First, he described *normal entitlement* which involves an individual expressing adaptive and realistic expectations for themselves and others. In contrast, a less adaptive form of entitlement is *restricted or non-entitlement* which manifests in an individual who feels as though they have no basic worth, are inadequate, and need to rely on others for approval and acceptance. Lastly, *excessive or exaggerated entitlemen*t involves someone having overstated feelings of deservingness, possessing beliefs that their needs should be catered to, holding notions they have a right to engage in whatever behavior they choose, and exhibiting little concern for how their conduct impacts others (Kriegman, 1983).

Kriegman (1983) described how these levels vary according to context. For example, in an occupational setting one might hold a level of normal entitlement where one has appropriate

expectations and boundaries, whereas in a romantic relationship one might feel exaggerated entitlement that one's needs must be immediately and fully addressed. Furthermore, Kriegman (1983) noted the extent or degree of the level of entitlement is reflected in attitudes imbued by culture. This spectrum is useful in the elucidation of MSE, as MSE is conceptualized in this dissertation to involve, rather than a restricted or normal sense, an exaggerated sense of entitlement. Additionally, MSE is informed by the suggestion that entitlement varies by context (such as sexual relationships) and reflects both social and cultural influences.

Social psychology. Entitlement in social psychology literature is also described in terms of perceptions of deservingness. Major (1987) noted entitlement is often used as a synonym for deservingness or an individual feeling a right or perceived right to a desired outcome. Indeed, Crosby (1982) noted individuals develop a sense of entitlement based on what one has received in the past and what one believes is normal for a given situation. In addition to this concept, entitlement is viewed in terms of in-group comparisons. Individuals may develop feelings of entitlement to something if they perceive individuals with whom they share a group identity receive that benefit (Crosby, 1982; Major, 1987). Thus, feelings of entitlement reflect in-group identifications. The role of peer comparisons is important and discussed at greater length in the MSE subscale on peer norms.

Narcissism. Entitlement has often been discussed as a component of narcissism. Raskin and Terry (1988) noted Freud was influential in the development of the construct of narcissism and suggested that a component of it is "feelings of entitlement involving the expectation of special privileges over others and special exemptions from social demands" (p 890). Murray (1964) further observed, "I find it necessary to repeatedly use the word 'entitlement' to express the concept of narcissism in function and I know of no other term which conveys this essential element" (p. 508). In fact, it is not surprising that one of the most popular measures of

entitlement is Raskin and Terry's (1988) Entitlement subscale (ENT) of their Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI). The authors used the DSM-III to define entitlement as "the expectation of special favors without assuming reciprocal responsibilities" (Raskin & Terry, 1988 p. 891). Despite the ENT's popularity, however, Twenge and Campbell (2009) expressed concerns about the widespread use of this scale, including: a) the ENT subscale has not been adequately validated for use as a stand-alone measure; b) some ENT subscale items lacked face validity; c) the ENT subscale has only six items that have a forced-choice format; and d) the subscale has demonstrated consistently low reliability rates (e.g., $\alpha = .49$). Despite these limitations, the subscale continues to be used in current research to measure entitlement (i.e, see use in Bouffard, 2010). A more recent explanation of entitlement as a reflection of narcissism is derived from the DSM-5 (APA, 2013). Individuals with a "sense of entitlement" in the DSM-5 criteria for narcissistic personality disorder have "unreasonable expectations of especially favorable treatment or automatic compliance with his or her expectations" (APA, 2013, p. 669). Both definitions and explanations of entitlement contribute to an understanding of entitlement as follows: an individual presumes to receive from others without offering reciprocity and assumes others should and will go along with their expectations.

Summarizing Themes of Theory on Entitlement. The central themes derived from this entitlement literature suggest that individuals who feel an excessive entitlement: a) hold a perceived deservingness or expectation of having their needs met; b) believe they can put their own needs first over others; c) use social comparisons with peers as a reference to establish standards of expectations for what they deserve; and d) exhibit an absence of feeling the need to reciprocate favors, support, or received benefits.

Sexual entitlement. A particular type of entitlement, sexual entitlement, has been linked to a specific form of narcissism called sexual narcissism. Three previously published measures of

sexual entitlement are discussed in this section: a) the Index of Sexual Narcissism, b) the Hanson Sex Attitudes Questionnaire, and c) the Sexual Narcissism Scale. Additionally, included are a summary of published and unpublished research that uses these scales including information about the samples, significant correlates, and relevant findings related to the scales. Following each scale summary is a discussion of the limitations of each scale.

Index of Sexual Narcissism. Early work on sexual narcissism was advanced by Hurlbert and Apt (1991) as they examined characteristics differing 50 abusive from 50 non-abusive married military men. These authors found that sexual self-esteem was elevated in the abusive men and theorized this reflected and underlying "sexual narcissism" that involved men viewing their wives as property, not being concerned with their consent in sex, and feeling sexually entitled (Hulbert and Apt, 1991). This work laid the foundation for the Hurlbert Index of Sexual Narcissism scale (ISN) (Hurlbert et al. 1994). The ISN was used to compare scores between 70 military men with and without narcissistic personality disorder. The 35 participants with NPD had elevated ISN scores. Hurlbert et al., (1994) thus continued to build their theory of sexual narcissism to suggest it involves "an egocentric pattern of sexual interaction" (p. 24). Elsewhere they argued that sexual narcissism involves obsession with sex and engaging in sexually compulsive behaviors, heightened belief in one's sexual abilities, and exploitation of partners (Hurlbert & Apt, 1991). Hurlbert et al. (1994) found higher sexual narcissism was associated with lower self-esteem, more traditional gender role-orientations, higher levels of sexual preoccupation and higher sexual self-esteem. A noteworthy aspect of this early conceptualization of sexual narcissism was that it was implicitly related to masculinity as the earliest published papers Hurlbert and Apt (1991) and Hurlbert et al., (1994) authored involved exclusively and male samples. This trend is evident in many of the studies on the construct which will be further discussed throughout this dissertation.

Wryobeck and Wiederman (1999) explored the factor structure of the ISN and administered the measure to 209 male heterosexual introductory psychology students. They found six items loaded on a "sense of entitlement" subscale α = .70. Each of these six items are reviewed here given that the MSEN integrates this prior theory on sexual entitlement. These six items include: 1) "In sex, I like to be the one in charge," 2) "In a close relationship sex is an entitlement," 3) "In certain situations sexually cheating on a partner is justifiable," 4) "In a close relationship I would expect my partner to fulfill my sexual wishes," 5) "In a relationship where I commit myself, sex is a right," and 6) "In order to have a good sexual relationship, at least one partner needs to take charge." One note is that this scale offers an item that discusses justification of cheating, which is a less prevalent theme in other scales on entitlement or sexual entitlement (see Chapter 2 for further discussion on this theme).

Wryobeck and Wiederman (1999) is one of five published studies that used the ISN in addition to the original publishers of the scale. These authors found that ISN scores had statistically significant positive correlations with measures of: emotional distance, sexual preoccupation, sexual self-esteem, and both recent and lifetime number of sexual partners. Further, the scale had a strong (r = .66) positive and statistically significant association with a measure assessing the importance of sex.

Another published study explored sexual narcissism in the context of heterosexual college-aged partnered couples and courtship violence (Ryan, Weikel, & Sprechini, 2008). Ryan and colleagues' (2008) study included 63 couples who completed the ISN, as well as two other measures of narcissism, in addition to a measure of physical assault and sexual coercion. Couples self-identified as being in a "serious relationship" with the average couple dating for nearly 16 months. These authors found that men, relative to women, held elevated levels of sexual narcissism. Unexpectedly, this study did not find that higher scores of sexual narcissism were

associated with men's self-report of sexual coercion, even when matched partner discrepancy scores were calculated to correct for distorted perceptions of aggression. This finding is inconsistent with the theoretical and empirical literature (Baumeister, Catanese, & Wallace, 2002; Widman & McNulty, 2010). An explanation for this finding could be the small sample size (*n* = 63 men). The authors also acknowledged an additional limitation, their advertising indicated participants would be involved in a study focusing on "conflict in serious dating relationships" which have may contributed to under-reporting (Ryan et al., 2008).

A third study published in a non-peer reviewed journal explored sexual narcissism in the context of the development of a scale measuring verbal and non-verbal communication during sex. Brogan, Fiore, and Wrench, (2009) developed their communication scale using two community samples of 158 participants total. Ages ranged from 18-78 with both samples having reported age means near 34 and approximately one third of the sample identifying as gay, lesbian or bisexual. The study found that scores on the ISN were negatively related to one's partner's perception of non-verbal communication. They authors offered the interpretation of this finding that the higher a person is in sexual narcissism the less likely they are to pay attention to their partner's non-verbal communication during sex. Gender and sexual orientation differences on sexual narcissism as well as correlations between ISN scores and other measures were not reported.

Another published study considered sexual narcissism scores on the ISN based on participants having viewed pornography (Kasper, Short, & Milam, 2015). The authors found in their majority White, female, and heterosexual community sample ages 18-61 (*M* = 29, *SD* = 9.28) of 257 individuals, that those who had recently or ever viewed porn had higher ISN scores relative to those who had not viewed porn. No comparisons were reported between groups based on race/ethnicity, gender, or sexual orientation for ISN scores.

A final published study used five items from the ISN to explore its relationship to sexual aggression with other entitlement measures. Bouffard (2010) found in a heterosexual sample, of majority White, 325 undergraduate men (ages ranging from 18-43 $M = 20.4$) that ISN scores correlated negatively with self-control and egalitarian sex roles and positively with hostility towards woman, number of sexual partners, use of pornography, adversarial heterosexual sexual beliefs and rape myth acceptance. Further, ISN scores were associated with greater likelihood of perpetrating sexual coercion. Paired with general entitlement and patriarchal entitlement, ISN scores in an SEM model predicted self-reported sexual aggression. Also, the five ISN items demonstrated the following internal consistency $\alpha = .73$. Bouffard (2010) used five of the six items Wryobeck and Wiederman (1999) used with factor loadings ranging from .52 - .78. Bouffard did not explain why the item "in certain situations sexually cheating on a partner is justifiable" was omitted.

Four additional studies that were unpublished used either the full ISN (three studies) or part of the ISN (one study) in masters or doctoral research. For their doctoral dissertation, Eugene (1998) used the ISN in a sample of 106 Black men to understand how sexual narcissism related to classifying participants into one of four categories (e.g., player, serious player, quasi-player, and monogamous) who were placed based on their self-reported relational behaviors. The behaviors included engagement in multiple concurrent relationships, assuring one or more partners of monogamy, and being deceitful in the relationship. Eugene found ISN scores levels were higher in individuals placed in the categories of "player", "serious player" and "quasi-player" relative to that of some identified as "monogamous."

Another unpublished study considered the role of sexual narcissism as moderator of the relationship between sexual arousal and sexual coercion. Roy (2014) in their Master's Thesis study with a sample of 156 undergraduate majority White heterosexual men (M age = 19.3, $SD =$

1.43) found that ISN scores had a significant association with sexual coercion. Further, the authors found sexual narcissism scores moderated the relationships between sexual arousal and self-reported sexual coercion. Finally, they found that the relationship between ISN scores and sexual coercion was partially mediated by misattribution of partner interest.

An additional unpublished Master's thesis explored the relationship of sexual narcissism in predicting sexual assault. Johnson's (2009) study included a majority White sample of 163 undergraduate heterosexual college men with ages ranging from 18-35 ($M = 19.85$, SD 2.22). Her study used a composite sexual entitlement score derived from Widman and McNulty's Sexual Narcissism Scale and ISN scores and found the score was significantly related to past sexual aggression and future likelihood of sexual aggression. The author reported the composite sexual entitlement score, accordingly, ISN and SNS scores were not independently reported in the study.

Finally, an unpublished Master's thesis explored the relationship between sexual narcissism and pathological personality traits. Kasowski (2017) used five items from the ISN and eight items from the Hanson Sex Attitude Questionnaire (Hanson, Gizzarelli, & Scott, 1994) to create a composite sexual entitlement scale score. The five ISN items were chosen based on previously having been used in Bouffard's (2010) study on sexual entitlement. Kasowski (2017) found in a majority White heterosexual sample of 196 men, (ages 19-75 $M = 36.86$) recruited through mTurk that the sexual entitlement composite score (ISN and HSAQ combined) was associated with the pathological personality domain trait of antagonism (i.e., lack of concern for others and tendency to use others for self-gains). Additionally, the composite score was also associated with two facets of antagonism (deceitfulness and grandiosity). Unfortunately, the ISN score was not reported independently in the study from the HSAQ score.

Numerous shortcomings of the Hurlbert Index of Sexual Narcissism have been identified. One limitation of the subscale is that entitlement is not defined aside from being a component of sexual narcissism. Widman and McNulty (2010) suggested another limitation is that it was developed for clinical use with abusive military husbands which poses a threat to external validity. In addition, Wryobeck and Wiederman (1999) noted both psychometric and conceptual limitations of the ISN. Of the 25 items in the initial ISN, nine were excluded from their analysis because they did not load on the full scale. Conceptually, they found the scale inadequate in its content validity and in its coverage of sexual narcissism (e.g., the scale lacks items that cover compulsiveness, exploiting others, sexual boredom, decreased empathy, and diminished emotional intimacy) (Wryobeck & Wiederman, 1999). Additionally, several common test construction practices (DeVellis, 2017) do not appear to have been applied in the development of the measure. There is no discussion of content experts, minimal consideration of construct validation (e.g., discriminant or convergent validity), and no discussion of exploratory or confirmatory factor analysis.

While criticisms are mostly levied against the entire scale for its inadequate construct validity for sexual narcissism, some of these limitations also appear applicable to the entitlement subscale, in particular related to content validity. For example, sexual entitlement in the scale seems to mostly reflect prioritizing one's own sexual needs, instead of other aspects of sexual entitlement that have been identified in the literature (e.g., objectification of others, role of peers, and assumptions about the innate nature of masculine sexuality). In addition to this, almost all of the items reference a partnered or long-term relationship. An increasingly prominent form of sexual relationship is engaging in non-committed one-time sexual hook-ups (Kimmel, 2009). Given that five out of six subscale items mention a relationship this scale may not reflect this common sexual relationship pattern between non-committed sexual partners, in particular, in

university samples. Another scale constructed around the same time also explored sexual entitlement.

Hanson Sex Attitude Questionnaire. Hanson, Gizzaerlli, and Scott (1994) reported they demonstrated the first empirical evidence for sexual entitlement in their nine-item sexual entitlement subscale of the Hanson Sex Attitude Questionnaire (HSAQ). The Hanson sexual entitlement subscale hereafter will be referred to as the HSE9. The full HSAQ was developed based on interviews with sex offenders who molested children to measure "male sexual entitlement and the necessity of fulfilling sexual urges" (Hanson et al., 1994, p. 191). The items of the HSE9 offer further insight into how researchers conceptualized "male" sexual entitlement. For example, many of the HSE9 items emphasized the attitudes and experiences of heterosexual men, for example: "Women should oblige men's sexual needs." Other items provided a comparison between men and women: "A man who is denied sex suffers more than a woman who has sex when she does not want it." and "Men need sex more than women." These items reflections of assumed sexual differences between men and women with an emphasis on men's needs. Additionally, another subscale item involved sex-drive: "I have a higher sex-drive than most people." This spoke to sexual entitlement potentially reflecting an inherent function of biology, rather than social learning or cultural influences. Collectively, these items influenced the development of the MSEN scale.

The HSE9 has been used in numerous studies as a stand-alone instrument or in conjunction with other measures to make a sexual entitlement composite score (see above, Kasowski, 2017). Hill and Fisher (2001) explored the relationship between masculine gender roles, the HSE9 and other measures of entitlement, and sexually coercive attitudes and behaviors. Their study included a sample with 114 college men, the majority of whom were White (83%) and also the majority of whom (94%) reported their sexual orientation as "completely

heterosexual". The HSE9 was found to have moderate correlations with two masculinity composite variables of "status" and "restrictive emotionality". These composite scores were derived via principle components analysis that reduced eight subscales from two well-validated masculinity measures (i.e., Male Role Norms Scale, Thompson and Pleck, 1986 and Gender Role Conflict Scale, O'Neil et al., 1986) to the two composite variables. Additionally, the HSE9 was shown to be associated with date rape myth acceptance, future likelihood of raping, coercive sexual behaviors, and victim blaming. Finally, in a path model, general entitlement and sexual entitlement mediated the relationship between the masculinity composites scores (e.g., "status" and "restrictive emotionality") and rape related attitudes and behaviors (Hill & Fischer, 2001).

Much of the published research with the HSE9 has focused on individuals who have been incarcerated or involved in the criminal justice system. For example, in a published study using the HSE9, with an all-male sample of 120 incarcerated Italian sex offenders, D'Urso, Petruccelli, Costantino, Zappulla, and Pace, (2018) found that individuals with a past history of physical and sexual trauma had higher levels of sexual entitlement compared with individuals who did not have this violence in their history. These authors found moral disengagement—or the ability to characterize a destructive behavior as acceptable—to be a predictor of sexual entitlement in this sample (D'Urso et al., 2018).

In another study with a Canadian sample of 47 convicted male sex offenders, Jung and Gulayets (2011) used the HSE9 as one of several indicators to assess behavioral and attitude change after completing a 20-week group-based treatment program for sex offenders. While there was a pre-test post-test change in scores related to accepting personal responsibility for actions and personal control of actions (constructs not measured by the HSE9), the authors found no change in HSE9 scores from pre-test to post-test. These authors noted, that HSE9 pre-test scores were similar to scores of non-offenders from prior research which they suggested could

explain the absence of change. Given that several of their measures did not demonstrate significant change, the authors noted the limitations of the instruments they used for program evaluation. They commented that in order for a measure to be useful in program evaluation the variable must have the "potential to change as result of treatment rather than [being] a static personality construct" (p. 11). While they do not explicitly discuss sexual entitlement as a static personality construct, this comment is noteworthy as it can be inferred they are suggesting this construct could have such a quality.

Price and Hanson (2007) used the HSE9 in a sample with 60 White incarcerated men from Canada and an additional 15 individuals from a community sample. Participants who were incarcerated were categorized based on crimes they committed into 4 groups as: rapists ($n = 15$), child molesters ($n = 15$), violent offenders ($n = 15$), non-violent non-sexual offenders ($n = 15$). Surprisingly, community members and non-violent offenders had higher sexual entitlement scores than the other three groups. The authors acknowledged that these results were unexpected but not inconsistent with the finding that in forensic settings individuals may be subject to response sets (Price & Hanson, 2007).

Two studies used the HSE9 in unpublished dissertation research. The first study was conducted by Lee (2015) and included the HSE9 in their dissertation research with a sample of 175 incarcerated men from Hong Kong, China who were incarcerated for rape ($n = 36$) and violent offenses ($n = 139$). Lee (2015) also used a modified early version of the Sexual Experiences Survey (SES; Koss & Oros, 1982) including only items that assessed actual rape removing items that assessed "less serious sexual aggressive behavior" (p.87). Sixty-one participants (i.e. all of those incarcerated for rape and 25 additional individuals) reported engaging in at least one rape behavior. Participants were then divided into groups based on this self-reported behavior. Individuals who reported a rape had higher HSE9 scores relative to those

who did not. Additionally, in the full sample, HSE9 scores were shown to be strongly correlated with measures related to attitudes: minimizing the harm rape victims experience, seeing women as sexual objects, sexual compulsion, sexual dominance, using sex as coping, adversarial-dismissive intimacy (i.e., viewing intimacy impersonally and instrumentally) and moderately associated with measures of SES scores, social isolation, hostility towards women, and pornography use. Sexual entitlement was found to be one of component of a "sexual masculinity" factor included in a 3-factor model in Lee's (2015) Developmental Sexual-Aggressive Model of Rape Behavior that predicted self-reported rape behavior. One important consideration, is that the author created their own unvalidated scales for the dissertation (e.g. sex as coping, adversarial-dismissive intimacy, and pornography). Additionally, data on sexual orientation was not gathered. Further, all of the items on the scale assessing sexual violence perpetration were heteronormative. Although this is consistent with other studies on violence perpetration, not assessing sexual orientation of participants poses as a potential limitation to the study as participants may have performed sexual violence against someone that does not identify as a woman.

In another dissertation that used the HSE9, Silva (2004) included the scale to explore the relationship between sexual entitlement, self-reported sexual aggression via a modified 10-item version of the Sexual Experiences Survey (Koss et al., 1987), and attitudes associated with sexual aggression. Their study included 97 graduate and undergraduate college men (42% where White). There was one screening question that the author noted all participants "had engaged in a consenting heterosexual relationship at least once" (p. 70). Silva noted they added 11 author-generated items to the HSE9 to strengthen internal consistency. They reported that four of the initial nine HSE9 items "did not contribute to the scales' overall reliability" (p. 74) and they removed the four items individually until obtaining a reliability coefficient $\alpha = .90$ yielding a 16-

item sexual entitlement scale (HSE16). Silva (2004) found moderate to strong correlations between the HSE16 and the following: adversarial sexual beliefs, acceptance of rape attitudes, misperception of sexual interest. However, this study did not find a statistically significant correlation between sexual entitlement and sexual coercion as measured by the Sexual Experiences Survey. However, in a t-test for equality of means Silva found that those higher in sexual entitlement were more likely than individuals low in sexual entitlement to have engaged in sexual coercion. Additionally, in a stepwise regression they found that sexual entitlement contributed to 2.7 percent of the variance and general entitlement did not contribute any unique variance to the model. An important limitation of this study is that the author-generated items were included without significant explanation, ostensibly suggesting they were not reviewed by content experts, or subject to other best practices for test construction. This important limitation needs to be considered when comparing this study with other research on the HSE9.

There are important limitations of the HSE9 instrument itself. Notably, the original study on the HSE9 provides no definition of sexual entitlement or explanation of the construct aside from the subscale items. In scale development, an important step is defining the construct (DeVellis, 2017) which is notably absent from this study. Additionally, there is no discussion of construct validity. Also as noted, an unpublished dissertation (Silva, 2004) reported concerns about the HSE9, to the extent that the author developed additional items to ensure sufficient internal consistency of the scale and removed four items from the original HSE9 given the item's low factor loading. Further, the scale focuses on heteronormative sexual entitlement thus providing a limited view of masculine sexuality. Additionally, one item appears to have limited face validity for sexual entitlement within the construct (i.e., "I am bothered by thoughts of having sex.") This item is not identified as a reverse-coded item and seems inconsistent with the deservingness and right to sex discussed in the prevailing literature related to sexual entitlement.

Another consideration is that subscale was not subject to evaluation by independent content experts, which is a recommended best practice in scale development nor was there any discussion of exploratory or confirmatory factor analysis (DeVellis, 2017). While this scale offers insight into men that have been convicted of sexual violence, it also does not appear to express the complexity of the construct of MSE. Recently, another scale on sexual narcissism has been developed that further contributes to conceptualizing MSE, however, unlike prior research, included women in the sample.

Sexual Narcissism Scale. Widman and McNulty (2010) included sexual entitlement as one of four components of their Sexual Narcissism Scale (SNS; the other three components are sexual exploitation, low sexual empathy, and grandiose sense of sexual skill). As previously noted, they described sexual entitlement as the "fulfillment of one's sexual desires [as] a personal right" (Widman & McNulty, 2010, p. 929). This subscale included the following five items: 1) "I feel I deserve sexual activity when I am in the mood for it," 2) "I am entitled to sex on a regular basis," 3) "I should be permitted to have sex when I want it," 4) "I would be irritated if a dating partner said no to sex," and 5) "I expect sexual activity if I go out with someone on an expensive date." Each of these items is listed as they inform the broader conceptualization of MSE. More specifically, SE involves exaggerated sexual expectations and perceived rights related to sexual opportunities.

Widman and McNulty (2010) developed the scale with two samples. The first sample was of 299 majority heterosexual (96%) college men ($n = 152$) and women ($n = 147$). With this sample they conducted CFA—the study makes no mention of EFA—to remove poor fitting items to reduce the SNS from 40 items to 20 items. The resulting SNS had adequate reliability for the both the full scale $\alpha = .85$ and the sexual entitlement subscale (SNSE) $\alpha = .80$. The first study found that men, relative to women, had higher SNSE scores and men who had had sex had

higher SNSE scores than men who had not previously had sex. Additionally, they found positive correlations between SNS total scores and lifetime number of sexual intercourse partners and number of intercourse partners in the last year (SNSE correlations were not reported; Widman & McNulty, 2010). Lastly, SNS total scores were negatively correlated with age of first having had sex, suggesting the earlier someone first had sex, the higher their sexual narcissism scores would be (Widman & McNulty, 2010).

The second study sample included 378 majority (97%) heterosexual college men. In this study, the authors used the SNS, a general measure of narcissism, a self-report measure of past sexual aggression (SES, Abbey, Parkhill, & Koss, 2005) and measure of future likelihood of perpetrating sexual aggression if one would could be assured they would not be caught. These authors found SNSE scores to be associated with frequency of sexual aggression and future likelihood of sexual aggression. Further through regression analysis, these authors found that when the overlapping variance between the general narcissism measure and SNS were controlled for, the SNS scores accounted for variance beyond general narcissism, and general narcissism was no longer a significant predictor in the model.

The SNS has also been used in 3 additional published studies and 2 unpublished studies. Two of the published studies using the SNS were published by the scales' original authors. McNulty and Widman (2013) explored longitudinally the relationship between self and partner sexual and marital satisfaction in 120 new heterosexual marriages. The majority (90%) of participants were White and drawn for two regionally separate U.S.-based samples. Mean age of men was 25.4 ($SD = 2.65$). Participants completed measures up to 8 times over the course of 5 years. Of note, the SNS was adjusted to include language of "spouse" instead of "partner" and labeled the SNS-M. An interesting finding was that in these married couples while SNS-M scores were higher in men, SNSE scores did not have a statistically significant difference in this

sample. This is inconsistent with prior findings that SNSE were higher in men over women (Widman & McNulty, 2010). The authors found in these couples SNS-M scores were associated with declines in relationship and sexual satisfaction as the relationship progressed. Further, over time, higher SNSE in self or partner was shown to be associated with steeper declines in sexual satisfaction and marriage satisfaction scores regardless of gender (McNulty and Widman, 2013).

Another study conducted by McNulty and Widman (2014) used the same 2 samples of 123 married couples from the previously discussed study to explore SNS-M scores and infidelity (with 3 couples added who had not completed all the measures from the earlier study). Spouses reported if they or their partner had had a romantic affair/infidelity in the past 6 months. The authors found a statistically significant moderate ($r = .30$) correlation between self and partner reported infidelity. They found that individuals higher in sexual narcissism are more likely to engage in infidelity than those with lower SNS-M scores regardless of gender. Interestingly, the study also found that each of the facets of sexual narcissism (sexual exploitation, sexual entitlement, low sexual empathy, and sexual skill) predicted infidelity. However, when data was analyzed by sample (as divided by region), these relationships were inconsistent. In one study sample sexual entitlement was associated with infidelity, but not the other. Interestingly, in the other study when partners reported their partners were high on sexual entitlement they were more likely to be unfaithful. These findings provide preliminary evidence to suggest sexual entitlement can be associated with infidelity but would require further exploration (McNulty & Widman, 2014).

One additional published study (Imhoff, Bergmann, Banse, & Schmidt, 2013) used a translated version of the SNS in a convenience sample of 82 heterosexual male ($n = 41$) and female ($n = 41$) German participants to explore underlying risk factors to perpetration of aggressive behavior through completing a reaction time task. Participants were recruited at the

university but it was not reported if they were students (*M* age = 26.74, *SD* = 6.74). Participants were divided into two conditions, one was a priming condition with a mildly sexual word, the other condition had a neutral word. The task was to have a faster reaction time competing against an alleged "opponent" (i.e., there was in fact no opponent) in determining if a presented stimulus was a word or a non-word. Participants randomly lost half the trials and received a noise blast when they "lost". Participants prior to each trial would set a noise blast level against their opponent if their opponent lost (i.e., if they responded slower/incorrectly on the task). This blast level was used to measure aggression. Other measures were completed after participating in the experimental condition. There were no demonstrated SNS differences between men and women and sexual narcissism scores were not associated with aggression. However, men with higher sexual narcissism scores, who were primed with a sex word, were more likely to exhibit more aggression than men lower in sexual narcissism. This pattern was not demonstrated in female participants (Imhoff et al., 2013).

An unpublished dissertation (Day, 2017) looked at associations in relationship satisfaction, social comparisons, and sexual narcissism. Day (2017) conducted 7 studies exploring these constructs. Overall Day's (2017) studies used 7 samples with men and women in relationships. They recruited participants mostly through Mturk (one sample was a Toronto community-based sample). Across studies she found people make comparisons between their own sex lives and that of other people. Further she found those higher in sexual narcissism make more downward comparisons (i.e., they compare themselves to those who have less sexual experience than themselves) than those lower in sexual narcissism. This downward comparison among those high in sexual narcissism is associated with higher sexual and relationship satisfaction for individuals higher in sexual narcissism. Additionally, Day found when individuals have higher levels of sexual narcissism when presented information regarding

individuals with more sexual experience they report decreased levels of sexual and relationship satisfaction. Two interesting finding were related to the effects of gender on SNS scores. In the first study, gender moderated SNS scores and sexual comparisons for women such that women higher in sexual narcissism reported lower sexual and relationship satisfaction relative to that of women lower in sexual narcissism. The sixth study in the dissertation found a different trend with men. Those who were higher in SNS scores did not report lower relationship or sexual satisfaction scores than men low in sexual narcissism. However, it was replicated that women high in SNS reported lower relationship and sexual satisfaction than those lower in sexual narcissism in this study. Day suggested that SNS levels in men may not be related to sexual comparisons or relationship and sexual satisfaction. Gender differences in SNS was not otherwise reported unfortunately. Additionally, none of the studies presented subscale data beyond basic descriptive statistics (i.e., mean and alphas) or reported analysis with the SNSE subscale (Day, 2017).

Another unpublished study was Long's (2018) Master's thesis that included the SNS among other measures associated with sexual assault in a sample of 74 undergraduate heterosexual majority (68.9%) White men. Participants were divided evenly into either an empathy-priming or objective-priming condition and then read a passage with a date-rape scenario vignette. Groups completed the SNS prior to the manipulation and no group differences were found. Positive correlations were found between the SNS and a rape-myth acceptance measure and hostility towards women measure. Additionally, the SNSE subscale was the only subscale of the four SNS subscales that was a significant predictor of rape myth scores. Unfortunately only SNS total score correlations were reported (Long, 2018).

There are important limitations to the SNS. Widman and McNulty (2010) noted they developed the Sexual Narcissism Scale with the primary goal of creating a short, reliable

measure to use for research on sexual narcissism. That said, the items do not fully elucidate the construct of sexual entitlement and that is not the stated intention of the subscale. Additionally, they did not report subjecting the scale to some of the best practices suggested for scale development including using outside content experts for item/subscale feedback, delineating their exploratory factor analysis process (or indicating they undertook one), and limited attention to discussion of construct validation (DeVellis, 2017; Hoyt et al., 2006; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). Further, the SNSE subscale only included five items and lacks items that more broadly conceptualize MSE. Additionally, sexual entitlement as it relates to sexual violence in particular, has been argued to be a gendered problem related to men (Bouffard, 2010; Hill & Fischer, 2001). This does not appear to have been a consideration in the development of their scale or informed their development of the construct. Importantly, Widman and McNulty's (2010) research found men hold higher levels of sexual entitlement than woman. This study thus contributes to a rationale underpinning the importance of better understanding and developing the construct of MSE.

A related construct to the literature on sexual entitlement is masculine entitlement. What follows is a review of the literature on masculine entitlement and discussion of the distinction between the concepts.

Masculine entitlement. Numerous authors have discussed masculine entitlement. Gilbert (1992) noted that entitlement in men involves social norms that allow men to: a) express their sexual needs in absence of intimacy; b) use women's bodies as objects to fulfill needs; and c) feel a right to access women's bodies. Clearly, masculine entitlement can be closely linked to sexual entitlement. Hill and Fischer (2001) were influenced by Gilbert's writing and suggested male entitlement broadly involves two components: men feel the right to have their needs met by women and believing women are obliged to satisfy men's sexual needs. Here, male entitlement is

again rooted in heteronormative sexuality, but also considerably more connected to gender and power dynamics than simple attitudes of deservingness and expectation of special treatment as discussed in other explanations of entitlement. Bouffard (2010) linked male entitlement to patriarchal entitlement and suggested male entitlement involves a man's sexual needs and desires taking precedence over a woman's. Polascheck and Ward (2002) noted similar themes in their delineation of masculine entitlement: a) men feel entitled to sex after buying a date a meal; b) men are superior to women; c) men should be entitled to control women's sexuality; and d) men feel a right to determine women's sexual needs.) These explanations of masculine entitlement involve men feeling a right to do what they wish in order to obtain sex. It also is worth restating this explanation of male entitlement holds assumptions of heterosexual relationships and offers a limited view of masculinity based on heteronormative male sexuality. Evidently, these discussions in the literature of masculine entitlement overlap and also deviate from with other discussions of entitlement and provide further justification for the development of a scale to measure MSE.

  Distinguishing masculine entitlement and sexual entitlement. Components of masculine entitlement and sexual entitlement have been documented, although upon closer review the two constructs share considerable overlap such that the two appear to have been conflated in the literature. This could be attributed to the earliest research on the construct (Hanson et al., 1994; Hurlbert & Apt, 1991; Hurlbert et al., 1994) focusing exclusively on using all-male samples to understand sexual entitlement. Widman and McNulty (2010) appear to provide a more nuanced explanation of sexual entitlement as the personal right or sense of deservingness a person perceives to fulfill their sexual aspirations present in both men and women. What emerges from the other literature on sexual entitlement and masculine sexual entitlement are the nascent themes that begin to represent the construct of MSE. These themes

include: a) men's perceived right to objectify women and have their needs met first; b) men's belief they have a high sex-drive as a function of entitlement; c) men's assumed expectations of sex and the right to have their needs met by women; and d) men's right to obtain sex from women. This review of the entitlement literature, bolstered by the masculinity literature and theory on sexual violence provides the basis for the forthcoming proposed themes of MSE.

Themes of Masculine Sexual Entitlement

The previously noted literature provides the basis for six themes that this dissertation presented as a preliminary conceptualization of MSE. These themes operate with an assumption of MSE as an "exaggerated" or "excessive" form of entitlement (Kriegman, 1983). The six themes of the construct that will be discussed in depth include: a) prioritizing sexual needs of self; b) objectification of others; c) peer norms; d) essentialist gender attitudes about men in relationships and men's sexuality; e) sexual deception and pressure; and f) minimizing or dismissing engagement in problematic behavior. This section reviews each of these themes, many of which have been covered in the earlier literature review, although some of which are supplemented below with additional theory.

Prioritizing sexual needs of self. Possibly the strongest theme across the literature on entitlement has been the focus on the rights and perceived deservingness of the self. Theory on entitlement has demonstrated that those that feel entitled feel as though they deserve what they want and others should accommodate their needs (Horney, 1950; Jacobson, 1959; Major, 1987). Furthermore, a component of entitlement has been identified wherein one believes one should not be expected to reciprocate favors and expects automatic compliance with one's expectations (American Psychiatric Association, 2013; Raskin & Terry, 1988). A theme across the sexual entitlement literature base has been that individuals that feel sexually entitled will prioritize their own sexual needs over others, expect a partner to fulfill their own desires, and, in a close

relationship, believe that sex is a right (Hurlbert & Apt, 1991; Widman & McNulty, 2010). Building on this and incorporating masculine theory is the assumption that men feel a right to have their needs met, and that men feel those they are attracted to are obliged to fulfill these sexual needs (Beech, Ward, & Fisher, 2006; Bouffard, 2010; Hill & Fischer, 2001).

To incorporate these themes, this subscale is thus operationally defined as: Prioritizing one's personal sexual needs at the expense of others or holding feelings of deservingness or a right to sex.

Objectification of others. The objectification of women has been a theme across the entitlement literature and has been seen as a key aspect of sexual violence. Kilmartin and Berkowitz (2005) noted, for example, that men are socialized to see women as objects and they hypothesized this is a factor related to men feeling entitled to sex. Importantly, they noted broader cultural factors had a role in this, including traditional marriage practices that historically have involved women being viewed as property (Kilmartin & Berkowitz, 2005). Dekeseredy and Schwartz (1993) suggested patriarchy is one building block of male sexual possessiveness (i.e., viewing women as possessions). This theme is elaborated and linked to entitlement when Schwartz and DeKeseredy (1997), describing patriarchal courtship, noted men feel entitled to view romantic partners as sexual objects. Dekeseredy and Schwartz (1993) also discussed male sexuality, emphasizing sex as a depersonalized experience that involves objectification of women, with a focus on a personal orgasm instead of intimacy.

In addition, men are taught to believe their masculinity is tied to their sexual experience. Boys are taught that they are not men until they have sex (O'Neil, 1981). Jordan (1987) described how girls are seen as the means to becoming men and in this way, boys learn to see girls as objects. Further, Jordan (1987) linked masculine socialization of dominance and control to an "entitlement" boys and men have to hold power over women and the belief women's bodies

exist to serve male needs and desires. Research on convicted rapists has demonstrated that those who commit sexual violence objectify their partners (Beech et al., 2006; Polaschek & Ward, 2002). It seems important to state, however, that the aforementioned scales on entitlement have not included items that measure objectification of others. Indeed, this represents a new area of exploration as it relates to theory on measuring sexual entitlement.

Based on the previously noted literature, this subscale is operationally defined as: engaging in attitudes or behaviors that objectify, dehumanize, limit, or degrade others one is attracted to or sexually involved with.

Peer norms. Research has noted that attitudes linked to sexual violence tend to be higher in all-male groups such as athletes and fraternity members (Murnen & Kohlman, 2007). Additionally, research has found that involvement in certain groups, such as fraternities, can lead to heightened pressure from male friends to have sex (Franklin, Bouffard, & Pratt, 2012). Consequently, understanding the role of peers is an important component of MSE.

Schwartz and DeKeseredy (1997), in their male peer-support model, argued that in heterosexual relationships men encounter stress and rely on peers for help in managing feelings. However, due to factors such as normative alcohol abuse, narrow conceptions of masculinity, and patriarchal social structures, men "under certain conditions encourage and justify the physical, psychological, and emotional abuse of women" (Schwartz and DeKeseredy, 1997, p. 45) in their peer groups. Kimell (2009) further discussed these themes as he outlined his three cultures of "guyland"—or, as he described, the culture of emerging adolescent heterosexual White American college educated males—as promoting entitlement, protection, and silence in face of problematic behavior among other men. Specifically, he argued adolescent boys as a reflection of the "culture of entitlement" feel a right to do whatever they want and believe their friends do as well. The "culture of protection" he suggested is that men will strive to defend their

friends even when accused of problematic behavior, such as sexual violence, and the "culture of

silence" where young men will not disclose or report information about peer deviant behavior

even when asked by those in positions of authority. This theme is elaborated in another subscale

(See minimizing and dismissing problematic behavior below). Kimell[3] (2009) theorized that

these cultures are part of what has allowed so many instances of sexual violence to happen across

high school and college campuses. Consequently, peers can be seen to play an important role in

potentially promoting sexual violence, and also entitlement among their peers.

      Entitlement scholarship emphasizes that individuals will perceive a right to something

they believe others that are like them have or regularly obtain (Crosby, 1982; Major, 1987).

Research related to men's perceptions of the sexual experiences of their male peers is an

important consideration. Kimmel (2009) found that most college men reported they believed

most other men college men were having sex on any given weekend, even though statistically

this is not the case. This perception, however, may feed into men feeling as though they have a

right to sex because they mistakenly perceive that other men are more often having sex than they

actually are. This could be exacerbated by social norms in male peer groups. Flood (2008) found

that men, in all-male groups, engage in storytelling with each other and many exaggerate,

compete, or attempt to "one up" each other in narratives they share related to sex. These

masculine norms may promote men's feeling an entitlement to sex as men perceive that their

peers are regularly having sex, but, also, peers engaging in a gender performance where their

masculinity is demonstrated by sharing their sexual experiences with their peers. Scholars also

have noted that men bestow status on peers that have had or have more sex, and men in groups

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[3] Michael Kimmel has been accused of sexual harassment and inappropriate behavior by graduate students, despite also being considered "the world's most prominent anti-sexist man" and his writings having influenced some of the theory that contributes to this dissertation's conceptualization of MSE.

often objectify or even humiliate women as a form of bonding (Flood, 2008; Kilmartin & Berkowitz, 2005). The practice of objectifying others has been previously discussed, and indicates that peers may play a role in promoting MSE. Taken together, it seems male peer relationships form a component of MSE.

This subscale is operationally defined as: engaging with peers or friends in ways that reinforce or perpetuate behaviors that promote MSE or attitudinal norms that reinforce such behavior.

Essentialist gender attitudes about men in relationships and sexuality. Popular media, such as the pop psychology book Gray's (1993) *Men are from Mars, Women are from Venus,* have contributed to widespread beliefs of fundamental biological differences that exist between men and women. Individuals that endorse gender essentialist attitudes suggest differences between genders are rooted in biology and nature (Crompton & Lyonette, 2005). Although there is evidence to the contrary—e.g., Hyde's (2005) gender similarities hypothesis—gender essentialist attitudes persist in literature, namely in the form that Crompton and Lyonette's (2005) described: "[d]ifferences between men and women are extensive, undeniable, and persisting" (p. 601).

Gender essentialist attitudes are well-documented throughout the masculinity literature as well. For example, one aspect of O'Neil's (1981) Masculine Mystique is that men are perceived to hold superiority to women as a function of biology and nature. Moreover, Addis, Mansfield, and Syzdek (2010) noted the way masculinity itself has been conceptualized lends itself to essentialist thinking about gender. In fact, Baumeister, Catanese, and Vohs (2001) found, across the several studies they reviewed, evidence that lead them to report: "we conclude that the male sex-drive is stronger than the female sex-drive" (p. 242). In addition, research related to sexual violence has found essentialist views of masculinity could be related to aggression. Convicted

rapists have been found to justify their deviance by arguing that they or that men inherently have a high sex-drive (Beech et al., 2006; Polaschek & Ward, 2002). Researchers arguing from the evolutionary biology perspective suggest that rape may reflect an adaptive sexual behavior that emerged through evolution (Thornhill & Palmer, 2000). Considering these views in the context of entitlement, one can see how men may hold a sense of sexual entitlement due to the widely circulated beliefs that men: have a high sex-drive, are fundamentally different from women and biologically superior to women, and that these differences are a function of nature.

Taken together, these views form the operational definition of this subscale: holding attitudes suggesting that men engagement in sexual behaviors (e.g., initiating sex, being promiscuous, or sexually dominant) as a function of biology, nature, or genetics.

Sexual deception and pressure. Sexual deception and pressure have been identified as common tactics in men in sexual relationships and can be linked to entitlement. Research has documented that men are more likely than women to feel more comfortable with pressuring and manipulating a partner to have sex (Hendrick, Hendrick, Slapion-Foote, & Foote, 1985). Malamuth et al. (1991) suggested a component of sexual violence is hostile masculinity, which can include engaging in aggressive tactics to pressure a partner into sex. Pressuring a partner into sex has also been linked with a construct with considerable overlap with entitlement, narcissism. Men with higher levels of narcissism have reported using pressure and arguments to force a women into having sex (Kosson et al., 1997). Additionally, entitlement has been linked to manipulative behavior in sexual violence. Widman and McNulty (2010) found men report higher levels of sexual exploitation than women, and sexual exploitation and sexual entitlement are highly correlated. Lastly, Champion's (2003) conceptualization of entitlement represented the construct of Machiavellianism which involved manipulation and deceit as a means of obtaining sex. While Champion (2003) did not establish a predictive relationship between these proposed

"proxies" of entitlement and sexual aggression, he did find a trend in the data among men that those that held higher levels of narcissism and Machiavellianism were more likely to have reported engaging in sexual aggression. Thus, engaging in sexual pressure and deception are conceptualized to be features of MSE.

Accordingly, this subscale is operationally defined as: supporting attitudes or engaging in behaviors that involve deception, pressure or manipulation in sexual relationships.

Minimizing or dismissing problematic behavior related to MSE. It is not uncommon to hear phrases such as "boys will be boys" or "they were just 'horsing around'" to justify violent or inappropriate male behavior. Even the literature uses these this language to discuss dynamics in sexual aggression in men as evidenced by Murnen et al.'s (2002) article entitled: "If 'Boys Will Be Boys,' Then Girls Will Be Victims?" and Kilmartin's (2010) chapter on male sexual aggression: "Boys Will be Boys: Men and Violence." A challenging component of the sexual violence literature is masculine entitlement and the protection of male perpetrators as a reflection of male privilege (Kimmel, 2009; Schwartz, 2015). This can be seen in sexually violent comments, such as those made by United States president Donald Trump that garnered national media attention, that are defended by female media figures as normative male "locker room talk" (Godden, 2016). This is one of just many examples, although public features from a range of identities and experiences have been identified from #MeToo movement, the vast majority are men. It now has become relatively common to hear about powerful or influential men accused of sexual violence or improper behavior.

Anecdotally, these behaviors are often dismissed, met with criticism but relative impunity, and generally result in minimal or no commensurate legal accountability against the perpetrators for their actions (e.g., Michael Jackson, Bill Cosby, Bill Clinton, Dennis Hastert, Kobe Bryant, O.J. Simpson, and Catholic priests accused of sexual violence against children).

This trend has begun to shift in response to the #MeToo movement, with major figures such as Kevin Spacey, Louis C,K., and Matt Lauer to name a few losing their jobs or diminishing their reputations. The previous lack of accountability could be attributed, in part, to widespread phenomena where victims, in charges of sexual violence, are blamed for their role in the assault (Belknap, 2010). Additionally, claims of "false accusations" against men charged with sexual violence are well-documented, despite the fact that research has found rates of false accusation of sexual violence are no higher than any other crime (Lisak, Gardinier, Nicksa, & Cote, 2010). These factors could impact victims and their willingness to report, or the extent to which they report, experiences of sexual violence. One study found, for example, that sexual assault victims understated the violence they experienced due to the taboo and shame associated with reporting and being victimized (Trinch, 2001). These phenomena all seem to serve the benefit of those that perpetrate sexual violence at the cost of those who are victimized. One explanation for the absence of accountability for perpetrators could be the widespread acceptance of rape myths.

Rape myth acceptance is a well-documented occurrence as it relates to sexual violence. Burt (1980) described rape myth acceptance (RMA) as the extent to which stereotypical beliefs and prejudices that reflect false but widely held attitudes about rapes and victims of sexual violence are accepted (e.g., "women ask for it," "only bad girls get raped," and "women 'cry rape' only when they've been jilted or have something to cover up," p. 217). Acceptance of rape myths has been established in college populations and has been associated with sexual violence (Murnen & Kohlman, 2007; Payne et al., 1999; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). Rape myth scales, however, have often emphasized false assumptions about victims (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995). Advocates for sexual violence survivors have described a need to re-direct focus to perpetrators instead of victims (Gwinn, 2014). The emphasis on victims, further, is problematic as it, again,

deflects blame from the perpetrators (Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). Understanding how perpetrators may escape accountability is an essential area of inquiry.

Research that explores the minimization of sexual violence conducted by perpetrators is underdeveloped. Lucas and Fyke's (2014) study is an exception in that it documented how euphemisms in the sexual abuse scandal with Penn State assistant football coach Jerry Sandusky protected him from prosecution for well over a decade after his initial transgressions were uncovered. The authors found, in the preliminary reporting of sexual violence and later investigations by university authorities, a pattern wherein the extent of his violence was understated, euphemized, or minimized by his colleagues and subordinates. In retrospect, it appears obvious he was shielded by those in power who did not react to initial reports of his sexual impropriety (Lucas & Fyke, 2014). While his influence and privilege as a college football assistant coach undoubtedly protected him, it appears as though this protection is widespread as other prominent figures have also engaged in sexual violence for decades with impunity (e.g., Larry Nassar) and it is hypothesized to be a component of masculine culture (Kimmel, 2009). While not the focus of their study, Murnen and Kohlman (2007) documented numerous instances of news coverage of sexual violence in fraternities and athletics departments, in which many levels of leadership "looked the other way" when such violence was reported. Taken together this literature suggests that MSE may involve minimizing or dismissal of the importance of this issue.

A related concept is the justification of sexual violence. A prior measure of sexual entitlement included an item that reflects this theme. Hurlbert and Apt's (1994) item: "In certain situations sexually cheating on a partner is justifiable" indicates a component of sexual entitlement can involve dismissing or minimizing a problematic behavior. This is noteworthy, in that only one of the three previously noted sexual entitlement subscales used an item with this

sort of language. This item suggests this concept could potentially be a component of MSE that warrants evaluation.

Another example of how minimizing or dismissing problematic behavior has been documented is through the narratives of survivors. Dormitz's (2005) *Voices of Courage: Inspiration from Survivors of Sexual Assault* is an anthology of survivors' experiences. One narrative includes the story of how one college sexual assault victim reported that, despite following the appropriate channels and offering clear and convincing evidence that she was victimized, university administrators did not respond adequately to her report of sexual violence. She noted her perpetrator received "social probation" and was allowed to continue to participate in activities and continue as an athlete at her university. He was also allowed to continue living on-campus and was not otherwise punished. When the survivor pursued other recourse, the university officials were dismissive and voiced assurances he was not a risk to the community (Domitrz, 2005). This university narrative is consistent with descriptions in the literature of the "second rape" that occurs to victims in medical and legal settings of not being believed and supported by systems (Campbell, Wasco, Ahrens, Sefl, & Barnes, 2001).

Taken together these studies suggest that perpetrators' actions are minimized or dismissed, problematic behavior is justified, and there is a need to better understand the protections provided them against accountability.

This subscale involves an operational definition where attitudes or behaviors that are problematic related to sexual violence are viewed as less harmful than they actually are or are minimized and dismissed as a reflection of MSE.

Scale Construction Background

While it is essential to ground any scale in development in the literature about the construct, it is also important to incorporate scale construction theory. What follows is a brief

overview of scale development, Classical Test Theory, steps for designing a scale, methods for evaluation, data analysis, and, finally, instrument validation.

Since many psychological phenomena are not directly observable, scales are used as a proxy to capture a latent variable (DeVellis, 2017). A scale includes a variety of items that are organized and typically added to obtain a sum scale score (Dawis, 1987). The combination of two or more subtest scores, to form a total score, is also known as a composite (Crocker & Algina, 2008). Scales can also utilize subscale scores and means to capture components of factors of a scale (DeVellis, 2017). A widespread model for establishing the reliability and validity of psychological scales is Classical Test Theory.

Classical Test Theory (CTT). Crocker and Algina (2008) noted that in CTT an individual's *observed score* reflects a combination of the individual's *true score* and *error*. The observed score, in CTT, is the realization of a random variable, or a score obtained by a given person, at a given time, based on a set of probabilities. Given that one's score represents a random probability of potential scores, were one to take a measure repeatedly an infinite number of times, the mean score of the many actualized observed scores would be the true score. Error is the difference between one's observed score and their true score. There are three principles connected to these tenants of CTT: a) error means of a population are zero; b) true scores and error scores have a correlation of zero; and c) distinct measures have an error score correlation of zero (Crocker & Algina, 2008).

Steps for designing a scale. There are numerous models and proposed steps for designing a scale, but a prominent model that has been proposed by DeVellis (2017) considerably overlaps with others (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). DeVellis (2017) provided an extensive manual for the scale construction process in which he identified eight steps to use as guidelines in scale construction which are discussed below.

Step 1: Identify focal construct of interest. DeVellis (2017) noted when developing a scale, one needs to have a clear idea of what one hopes to measure, boundaries of the construct, and the purpose of the measure being developed. Further, one must conduct a thorough literature review to identify key behaviors and components of the latent construct. It may become necessary to develop a tentative theoretical model to guide the development process if one does not already exist (DeVellis, 2017). In addition to a review of research, Crocker and Algina (2008) suggested scale developers can utilize *direct observations* of phenomena to inform the explanation of a construct. Further, one can use expert judgment to refine or verify the construct to be measured (Crocker & Algina, 2008). Finally, in this step it is important to consider how this construct is different from other constructs and explore where overlap may occur (DeVellis, 2017).

Step 2: Generate an item pool. DeVellis (2017) proposed that items be generated based on the purpose of the scale to capture the latent construct. As items are generated a level of redundancy can be expected as one aspires to capture a construct in multiple forms. Redundancy in the specific content or form of items, however, is less desirable than conceptual redundancy. The initial item pool will likely be considerably larger than those included in the final measure and an aim of this stage is to generate a large pool of items. DeVellis (2017) proposed that strong items must be unambiguous, concise, without double negatives, and written at an appropriate reading level. In addition, strong items are not worded in a double-barrel format, have clear pronoun references, do not have misplaced modifiers, and use noun forms instead of adjective forms (DeVellis, 2017).

Step 3: Determine the format for measurement. Researchers should consider which format of measurement will reflect the nature of the latent construct. This step occurs alongside this item generation process so that the measurement is consistent with the format of items.

Likert scales are among the most common forms of scoring items and use a statement followed by an array of response choices indicating the degree of agreement or disagreement with the statement (DeVellis, 2017).

   Step 4: Content experts evaluate item pool. DeVellis (2017) suggested that item review by content experts promotes content validity of the scale. This step involves having content experts evaluate your definition of the construct, rate the relevance of items to the construct, evaluate individual items for relevance and clearness, and consider aspects of the phenomena that are not included in the initial pool of items. The test developer should make a final evaluation of the items after careful evaluation of expert feedback (DeVellis, 2017).

   Step 5: Consider including validation items. DeVellis (2017) discussed including two types of items that can increase the validity of a scale. One type of which is social desirability items. These items are worded such that respondents may answer in a way they perceive would be looked upon positively by others in society (e.g., "I always practice what I preach") (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972). Consequently, items with a high correlation to a social desirability scale should be considered for removal. Additionally, one might include a scale of another construct to see how the initial scale performs against the others (DeVellis, 2017), although there is no general consensus on this step. Worthington and Whittaker (2006) for example, discouraged using validation items at this stage to keep surveys shorter, and because including an additional measure may influence responses to the focal instrument being evaluated. Common practice addresses Worthington and Whittaker's concerns by using shorter validation measures and ordering the measures so that the instrument under development is administered first (S. Sedivy, personal communication, June 21, 2017).

   Step 6: Administer items to a development sample. DeVellis (2017) observed there is

not a consistent standard for the number of participants required for a developmental pool.

Crocker and Algina (2008) suggested many item analyses can be completed with a sample pool

of 200. Another suggestion is to have 5 to 10 times as many participants as a scale has items

(Nunnally, 1967 in Crocker & Algina, 2008). While DeVellis (2017) noted 300 participants has

often been cited as the target number for participants, he reported: "practical experience suggests

that scales have been successfully developed with smaller samples" (p. 137). DeVellis, however,

does not specify how much smaller of a sample. DeVellis (2017) pointed out two concerns with

using too small of a sample size: it can result in unstable covariation patterns on items and may

not adequately represent the target population. Reise, Waller, and Comrey (2000) summarized

the literature on sample sizes and concluded that no standardized rule for sample size has been

established. Instead, they indicated that the literature suggests the adequacy of the sample size

depends on items' communalities or the extent to which items share variance with each other

(DeVellis, 2017; Reise, Waller, & Comrey, 2000). When items have higher communalities and

strongly defined factors—represented by higher factor loadings—smaller samples, with as low as

100 participants, can be adequate. When items have lower communalities and lower factor

loadings, sample sizes as large as 500 can be inadequate (Reise et al., 2000). Additionally, Reise

et al. (2000) noted the importance of having a heterogeneous sample so that a spectrum of levels

of the focal trait being captured is reflected by the sample.

　　　　Step 7: Evaluate the items. DeVellis (2017) recommended that item evaluation involve

analyses to better understand the interrelationship of items, variances, and means. An item's

correlation with other items is established with an item-total correlation. An aim in the test

construction process is to obtain a set of scale items that is highly intercorrelated. Additionally,

scales ideally will have a high level of variance to improve discrimination between individuals.

Furthermore, items that have mean scores close to center scores of a range are desirable, as items

that have mean scores that cluster around one side of a scale tend to have lower variance (DeVellis, 2017). DeVellis (2017) noted the following important analyses: a) a reliability analysis using alpha to determine what proportion of variance of a scale score can be credited to the true score, and, b) a factor analysis to assess a scale's unidimensionality.

Reliability. Crocker and Algina (2008) described reliability as consistency in test scores across administrations or parallel forms of a measurement. They noted that most measures are in some ways unreliable and discussed two forms of measurement error that stymie reliability: systematic measurement error and random measurement error. *Systematic measurement error* is a consistent aspect of a test or a person that impacts a person-test score, but is unrelated to the construct being measured. While this type of error may not yield inconsistent scores, it can reduce the accuracy of findings. *Random measurement error* involves a participant's score being impacted by unanticipated events or by chance (i.e., respondent guessing, changes in respondent behavior, environmental distractions, inaccurate scoring). Random error can make scores both inconsistent and unreliable (Crocker & Algina, 2008). Test creators must take into account random and systematic measure error in developing measures and, in turn, need to demonstrate scale reliability evidence (Crocker & Algina, 2008).

Crocker and Algina (2008) proposed using coefficient alpha to estimate a reliability coefficient (i.e., the correlation between scores on parallel measurements). *Coefficient alpha* is a common method for assessing the extent to which the proportion of variance of a scale score is accounted for by a true score (DeVellis, 2017). In addition to this, DeVellis (2017) recommends assessing the temporal stability of a measure across time in the same sample using a test re-test process.

Factor analysis. DeVellis (2017) noted factor analysis is a method of understanding the

underlying structure of a given item set. Worthington and Whittaker (2006) described two forms of factor analysis commonly used in scale development. The first is exploratory factor analysis (EFA) which reveals: a) how many factors a given scale has; b) which factors are related to which items; and c) the extent to which items are correlated or not. EFA allows one to identify evidence of construct validity, determine which items do not measure an intended factor, and assess for multiple factors (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). Worthington and Whittaker (2006) noted common factor analysis (FA) (i.e., instead of principle components analysis) is typically employed in scale development as it is used to understand latent constructs and measure the shared variance among items. There are several techniques for factor analysis, but principal-axis factoring (PAF), which analyzes the common variance among variables, is recommended for use as it is the most commonly used procedure (Kahn, 2006).

Extraction. Kahn (2006) noted that while it is possible to extract as many factors as there are variables, the purpose of factor analysis is to reduce the data set and make it more parsimonious. One method to determine the number of factors to retain is based on theory (Kahn, 2006). This was the basis for the proposed 6-factor model of MSE presented in this study.

Scholarship has discussed three methods for identifying the number of factors to retain (DeVellis, 2017; Kahn, 2006; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). A common noted means for identifying the number of factors to retain is to determine the number of eigenvalues greater than one. This method has been criticized (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999) and the two other common methods will be given more attention. The first of which is review of the scree plot. For this method the scree plot is examined to see where the slope changes or there is a break or "elbow" in the size of eigenvalues to determine the number of factors to extract. The second method is conducting a parallel analysis, where a randomly generated data set based on the same number of variables and sample size is produced

and eigenvalues of that data set will be compared against the initial data set (DeVellis, 2017;

Fabrigar et al., 1999; Kahn, 2006; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006).

Worthington and Whittaker (2006) noted another way to evaluate factor retention is to

approximate simple structure. This involves evaluating the extent to which items load on one

factor, and that items have a correlation of zero or a small correlation with other factors in the

solution. Items that do not meet this criteria are "complex" which is not desirable as SEM

methods assume a simple structure (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006).

     Rotation. After determining the number of factors to retain, factor rotation is performed

(Kahn, 2006). Orthogonal rotation occurs when factors are not assumed to be correlated and an

oblique rotation occurs when factors are suspected to be correlated (Worthington & Whittaker,

2006). Kahn (2006) recommended the Promax technique as it starts with an orthogonal rotation

and then completes the solution with an oblique rotation. Next, structure coefficients are

reviewed and used to name the factors (Kahn, 2006).

     Worthington and Whittaker (2006) explained that confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)

typically occurs after EFA and evaluates the extent to which a measurement's model is replicated

in an additional sample. CFA allows for greater control of both items and factors when analyzing

a hypothetical model and utilizes structural equation modeling (SEM) to examine competing

models to explain the extent to which a model fits the data better than a hypothesized alternative

model (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). Kline (2011) noted SEM has the goal of making a

model that corresponds with theory, is parsimonious, and is reasonably represented by the data.

SEM involves a combination of factor analysis and path analysis for measurement and structural

models (Westen & Gore, 2006). Hypothesized factors in a CFA measurement model are called

latent variables and the procedure assesses the extent to which the indicators or measured

variables combine to identify these underlying constructs. One important consideration with

SEM, as with factor analysis generally, is the need to have a large sample (Kline, 2011). Kline

(2011) does not provide a precise number of participants required, but noted that most SEM

models are validated on samples of 200 participants and that more complex models require larger

samples.

    Step 8: Optimize scale length. DeVellis (2017) noted this stage is used to ensure a scale

is sufficiently long enough, as demonstrated by sufficient reliability, while not too long to burden

participants. Worthington and Whittaker (2006) noted that instruments longer than 15-30

minutes can be problematic as participants may lose motivation. They provided suggestions for

deleting items including removing items with factor loadings below .32 or cross-loadings with a

difference of .15 less than the item's highest factor loading. Additionally, they suggested

cautiously considering deleting items at a certain absolute value (they suggest .32) that contain

cross-loadings on two more or factors. Worthington and Whittaker (2006) recommended caution,

however, in deleting cross-loading items as one should not delete items until a final factor

solution is established. They suggested the following deliberations for deleting items: a) items

with the lowest factor loadings, b) items with the highest cross-loadings, c) items that offer the

least to a measure's internal consistency, and d) items that have the lowest conceptual links with

the other items of the scale. Finally, they suggest using a system for tracking eliminated items

and why (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006).

    Instrument validation. A central consideration with instrument validation is construct

validity. The literature has offered a modern perspective of construct validity that updates the

earlier seminal writing on the process of construct validation proposed by Cronbach and Meehl

(1955). Hoyt, Warbasse, andd Chu (2006) noted that construct validation is an ongoing and

complex process that historically has not received sufficient attention in the counseling

psychology literature although this critique can reasonably be levied against the previously

discussed measures of sexual narcissism and sexual entitlement as well. Summarizing Messick's (1989) classic text on the topic, they argued it is an incomplete perspective to suggest a measure is "valid." Rather, validity is related to the inferences and actions taken based on the empirical evidence (i.e., score of measure) in the application of theory and context of integrating understanding from other related underlying constructs (Hoyt et al., 2006). These authors offered suggestions for gathering validity evidence that overlaps with and informs DeVellis' recommendations.

DeVellis (2017) identified three types of validity evidence that scale developers should collect: content, criterion-related, and construct validity. *Content validity* is the degree to which items developed reflect the domain that is being attempted to be captured (DeVellis, 2017). Hoyt et al., (2006) also noted test developers should assess the "relevance" and "representativeness" of items in their discussion of content validity. *Criterion-related validity* involves establishing an empirical association with the scale in development and a criterion or a putative "gold standard" (DeVellis, 2017). This form of validity can also be understood more widely to involve associations in future performance measures as well as correlations with concurrently observed theoretically-related constructs (Hoyt et al., 2006). *Construct validity* is the extent to which an instrument yields consistent scores with measures that are intended to capture the same construct (DeVellis, 2017). Hoyt el al. (2006) provided a more expansive definition of the construct validation:

> The process of construct validation, then, is an ongoing, theory-guided inquiry into systematic determinants of test scores (often called the test's factor structure, or internal structure), correlates of test scores (external structure), and the variables (e.g., testing conditions; population under investigation) on which these structures are contingent. (Hoyt et al., 2006, p. 77-78)

In describing the process of validation, they noted it involves looking at both the internal and external structure of a measure while also taking into account the testing context. Ultimately

construct validation involves an "accumulation of validity evidence" (Hoyt et al., 2006, p. 777).

Further, Hoyt et al., (2006) noted there is a consensus in the literature for a "unified"

conceptualization of construct validity such that it is the principle validation process; content and

criterion validity comprises sources of construct validity evidence rather than distinct entities.

Two additional sources of construct validity are convergent and divergent/discriminant

validity (DeVellis, 2017). *Convergent validity* involves having moderate or strong correlations

between the measurement that is being developed with an instrument or instruments that are

theoretically related or have been validated on a similar or related construct (DeVellis, 2017;

Hoyt et al., 2017). Conversely *divergent or discriminant validity* measures have no or a small

correlation with the focal instrument (DeVellis, 2017; Hoyt, 2006).

An additional means for assessing construct validity was proposed by (Westen &

Rosenthal, 2003). These authors noted that typically researchers present findings of correlations

between measures that are presumed to have associations as a preliminary means of

demonstrating construct validity. This involves documenting associations between a measure

being developed with other instruments that theoretically should have positive correlations (i.e.,

convergent validity) or negative/low correlations (i.e., discriminant validity). Westen and

Rosenthal (2003) documented a procedure where one could assess the strength of the magnitude

of predicted correlations with observed correlations as an effect size summary index which they

term "$r_{alerting-cv}$". The $r_{alerting-cv}$ can serve as a summary of construct validity analysis offering a

quantitative index of the accuracy of construct validity predictions (see Chapters 3 and 4).

Study Hypotheses

H1. Masculine sexual entitlement (MSE) will be reliably measured, via coefficient alpha, in the Masculine Sexual Entitlement Norms scale (MSEN[4]).

H2a. An underlying 6-factor structure will be demonstrated when exploratory factor analysis is performed on the MSEN.

H2b. When confirmatory factor analysis is conducted via structural equation modeling, the final MSEN scale items will demonstrate acceptable fit (i.e., based on the χ^2, TLI, CFI, SRMR, RMSEA and AIC) with a second order (i.e., with a higher order MSEN factor), 6-factor structure demonstrating strongest fit when compared with alternate models.

H3. The MSEN scale mean score will demonstrate a small or minimal correlation with the Satisfaction With Life scale (SWL) which will provide evidence for discriminant validity.

H4a. The MSEN scale mean score will have a low to moderate positive correlation with the following theoretically distinct but related constructs: a) the Sexual Narcissism Scale (SNS) and b) the Male Role Norms Inventory-Short Form (MRNI-SF).

H4b. The Prioritizing Own Sexual Needs (PRIO) subscale on the MSEN will have the strongest correlation of all the MSEN subscales with the Sexual Entitlement (SNSE) subscale on the Sexual Narcissism Scale (SNS).

H4c. The PRIO, Peer Norms, Essentialist Attitudes, and Minimizing and Dismissing MSEN subscales will all correlate more strongly with the SNSE subscale compared with the other SNS subscales.

H4d. The Objectification of Others and Sexual Deception and Pressure MSEN subscales will correlate more strongly with the SNS Sexual Exploitation subscale than the other SNS subscales.

H4e. The Importance of Sex subscale of the Male Role Norms Inventory-Short Form (MRNI-SF) will correlate more strongly with the MSEN total score and subscales overall than the other subscales of the MRNI-SF.

H4f. When using Westen and Rosenthal's (2003), $r_{alerting-CV}$ procedures for predicting strong and weak correlations, a positive correlation will be found reflecting accurate predictions of the strength of the correlation between the MSEN and related constructs

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[4] The scale was optimized to reduce down from the initial 90 items. Items were removed based on item analysis to optimize scale length. In this document the scale is referred to as the "MSEN" generally. The other components of the scale's nomenclature reflects the following: first the label "MSEN" is listed followed by the number of items (e.g., 90, 40, or 25) and then ending with the sample grouping (e.g., the first sample "a", the second sample "b", or the subset of the 3-month re-test second sample "c").

(e.g., Sexual Narcissism Scale subscales, Male Role Norms Inventory-Short Form subscales, Sexual Experiences-Perpetrator Form sum score) and absence of correlation with unrelated constructs (e.g., Satisfaction with Life Scale and Social Desirability Scale). Specific predictions are listed in the results section.

H5. Individuals from more privileged groups: White, heterosexual, higher socio-economic status, and fraternity-affiliated men will have higher MSEN total scores than individuals from groups that are not from historically considered privileged groups including races other than White, sexual minorities, lower socio-economic status, and non-fraternity affiliated.

H6. The MSEN scale will predict self-reported sexual aggression as measured by the Sexual Experiences Survey (SES-PF). Individual factors (e.g., race, sexual orientation, age of first sex) would be contributing factors to predatory behavior such that more privileged identities and having had sex earlier will be more predictive of predatory behaviors.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Study 1 (MSENa) Participant Demographics

   The first study sample consisted of 281 participants. The vast majority of respondents were undergraduate students (one student was a graduate student) from a large mid-Western university. The sample included 276 individuals that were assigned a male sex at birth (four other participants were assigned a female sex, and one participant preferred not to report sex assigned at birth). Age was assessed categorically; see Table 3.1 for demographic information related to age. Most participants (80.8%) identified exclusively as White/European American. Two hundred forty-four (86.8%) reported they exclusively identified as heterosexual and 222 (79%) selected only "woman" as the preferred gender identity of sexual partners. The majority of the sample (78.6%, $n = 221$) reported they had previously had sex. Over 87% ($n = 194$) of those who had previously had had sex reported they were 18 years old or younger when they first had sex. The lifetime number of reported sexual partners of the sample ranged from $0 - 90$. The mean number of lifetime sexual partners was 5.64 ($SD = 8.81$). Of those who had previously had sex, the mean number of sexual partners in the last year was 2.02 ($SD = 2.01$). Nearly 50% of the sample reported their annual household income as $100,001 or more. More specific and additional demographic information is listed in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1
Sample demographics for MSENa ($N = 281$)

Demographic	n	%
Sex Assigned at Birth		
Female	4	1.4
Male	276	98.2
Prefer Not to Say	1	0.4
Age		
18	54	19.2
19	77	27.4
20	40	14.2
21	59	21.0
22+	50	17.8

Prefer not to say	1	0.4
Sexual orientation		
Asexual	1	0.4
Bisexual	9	3.2
Gay	14	5
Heterosexual	244	86.8
Multiple Sexual Orientations Selected	10	3.6
Non-monosexual	1	0.4
Queer	2	0.7
Preferred Gender Identity of Partners		
Man	40	14.2
Multiple gender identities selected	18	6.4
Woman	222	79
Prefer not to say	1	0.4
Sexual Experience		
Has had sex	221	78.6
Has not had sex	53	18.9
Prefer not to say	7	2.5
Age of first having sex		
13 or younger	1	0.4
14	11	3.9
15	25	8.9
16	36	12.8
17	69	24.6
18	52	18.5
19	14	5.0
20	6	2.1
21	6	2.1
22+	0	0
Prefer not to say	1	0.4
Missing	60	21.4
Race/Ethnicity		
Asian/Pacific Islander/Asian American	19	6.8
Black/African American/African	3	1.1
Hispanic/Latinx	4	1.4
Multiple Identities Selected	23	8.2
Native American/American Indian/Alaska Native	2	0.7
White/European American	227	80.8
Write In	1	0.4
Prefer not to say	2	0.7
Relationship Status		
Casually dating	22	7.8
Engaged	5	1.8
In a dating relationship (6 months or less)	34	12.1
In a dating relationship (longer than 6 months)	85	30.2

Single	132	47
Write In	1	0.4
Prefer not to say	2	0.7
Annual Household Income		
$10,000 or less	6	2.1
$10,001-$20,000	7	2.5
$20,001-$30,000	10	3.6
$30,001-$40,000	5	1.8
$40,001-$50,000	4	1.4
$50,001-$60,000	8	2.8
$60,001-$70,000	13	4.6
$70,001-$80,000	16	5.7
$80,001-$90,000	17	6.0
$90,001-$100,000	30	10.7
$100,001 or more	139	49.5
Prefer not to say	26	9.3
Fraternity Affiliation		
Fraternity Member	35	12.5
Non-Fraternity Member	243	86.5
Prefer not to say	3	1.1
Division 1 Athlete		
Athlete	16	5.7
Non-Athlete	265	94.3
Number of years in College		
1 year (or in first year)	86	30.6
2 years (or in second year)	56	19.9
3 years (or in third year)	52	18.5
4 years (or in fourth year)	62	22.1
5 years (or in fifth year)	20	7.1
6 or more years (in 6th year or more)	3	1.1
Graduate student	1	0.4
Prefer not to say	1	0.4
Number of Violence Prevention Workshops Attended		
0	21	2.5
1	123	43.8
2	104	37.0
3	24	8.5
4	7	2.5
5	2	0.7

Procedure

The steps for developing and validating the MSEN are provided below, based on DeVellis' (2017) recommendations.

Step 1: Identify focal construct of interest. Masculine sexual entitlement is the focal construct as hypothesized to be measured by MSEN. The operational definition of MSE was provided at the end of Chapter 1. The subscales and items of this construct were developed through a literature review and author-identified instances of MSE and were evaluated by content experts (see Step 4 below). The construct is in some ways overlaps with sexual narcissism (previously discussed in Chapter 2). Specifically, there is conceptual overlap in subscales of the sexual narcissism scale in particular with the sexual entitlement subscale and sexual exploitation subscale, and to a lesser extent the low sexual empathy subscale. The MSEN more broadly conceptualizes sexual entitlement from a masculine perspective, however. The sexual exploitation subscale is generally similar to MSEN's the sexual deception and pressure subscale although the new subscale offers more items and a broader exploration of the concept. Low sexual empathy is not a specific subscale in the MSEN, but aspects of having low sexual empathy can be seen in the prioritizing sexual needs of self subscale and sexual deception and pressure subscale. Four of the subscales (i.e., objectification of others, peer norms, essentialist gender attitudes, and minimizing or dismissing), however, are conceptually distinct from the SNS. The final subscales and their definitions include:

1. **Prioritizing sexual needs of self.** Prioritizing one's personal sexual needs at the expense of others or holding feelings of deservingness or a right to sex (Bouffard, 2010; Hill & Fischer, 2001; Hurlbert & Apt, 1991; Widman & McNulty, 2010).

2. **Objectification of others.** Engaging in attitudes or behaviors that objectify, dehumanize, limit, or degrade others one is attracted to or sexually involved with (Jordan, 1987; Kilmartin & Berkowitz, 2005; O'Neil, 1981; Schwartz & DeKeseredy, 1997).

3. **Peer norms.** Engaging with peers or friends in ways that reinforce or perpetuate behaviors that promote MSE or attitudinal norms that reinforce such behavior (Dekeseredy & Schwartz, 1993; Flood, 2008; Kimmel, 2009; Murnen & Kohlman, 2007).

4. **Essentialist gender attitudes about men in relationships and sexuality.** Holding attitudes suggesting that men engagement in sexual behaviors (e.g., initiating sex, being promiscuous, or sexually dominant) as a function of biology, nature, or genetics (Addis et al., 2010; Baumeister et al., 2001; Beech et al., 2006; Polaschek & Ward, 2002).

5. **Sexual deception and pressure.** Supporting attitudes or engaging in behaviors that involve deception, pressure or manipulation in sexual relationships. (Champion, 2003; Hendrick et al., 1985; Malamuth et al., 1991; Widman & McNulty, 2010).

6. **Minimizing and dismissing problematic behavior.** Holding attitudes or supporting behaviors that are problematic related to sexual violence, and minimizing or dismissing them as a reflection of MSE (Domitrz, 2005; Hurlbert, Apt, Gasar, Wilson, & Murphy, 1994; Kimmel, 2009; Lucas & Fyke, 2014).

Step 2: Generate an item pool. The initial item pool was developed by the author of this dissertation based on the above listed subscales. Each subscale was identified, defined, and items that reflect the construct were initially author-generated. A few items were revised or added based on feedback from the focus group (discussed later). Items were written to conform with DeVellis' (2017) suggestions for developing effective items.

Step 3: Determine the format for measurement. Items are listed as statements that respondents answer on a 5-point item Likert scale (i.e., 1 = *strongly disagree*, 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *neither agree or disagree*, 4 = *agree*, 5 = *strongly agree*) such that higher scores indicate stronger demonstration of the construct. The measure yields subscale total scores (created by calculating the mean based on all items from the subscale) and a MSEN full scale total score (created by calculating the mean based on all items from the scale).

Step 4: Content experts evaluate item pool. Emails were distributed on two listservs

requesting author-identified experts in masculinity and entitlement to review the scale. The first listserv was for violence prevention experts and the second was the American Psychological Association Men and Masculinities Division 51 listserv. In addition, individuals from a range of academic backgrounds were recruited via personal email requests by the scale's author. Care was taken to identify individuals from diverse fields, including criminology, masculinities studies, gender and women's studies, psychology, sexual violence prevention, and individuals with published research on entitlement. In total, eight content experts reviewed the scale and provided written feedback. One additional reviewer (Sonya Sedivy, PhD, a member of the proposal committee) is an expert in test construction and she reviewed and provided feedback on the items for item structure, phrasing, and content. All other reviewers were asked to review items for clarity, content validity, accuracy of definitions, fit of items within subscales, missing content in all six proposed subscales, and any other general feedback.

Expert feedback was reviewed by creating a "master feedback" document which contained all of the items, scales, and responses. The feedback was reviewed with an independent reviewer (the dissertation chair), the critiques were integrated, and the scales and items revised where appropriate. To further clarify how feedback was evaluated examples below present how responses were integrated or a rationale for why they were not used.

One reviewer requested a specific definition of masculine sexual entitlement, instead of employing six subscales to define the construct. This feedback helped inform the operational definition that can be found in Chapter 1.

One reviewer suggested the third scale, concerning peer influence, to be more of a correlate than an actual component of MSE. Notably, this was the only reviewer to provide this feedback on this subscale. In consultation with the chair, this critique was considered but not

integrated, given the research base supporting the role of peers in sexual violence (e.g., Dekeseredy & Schwartz, 1993).

Feedback was provided about the fifth subscale as well. A few reviewers commented that the name of the fifth subscale, initially entitled "Machiavellianism," was distinct in some ways from what was being measured in the items and should be changed. Based on one reviewer's suggestion, the subscale was renamed "sexual deception and pressure." One reviewer had other critiques for the fifth subscale. This reviewer noted placing sexual behaviors on a continuum of "non-coercive" to "assaultive" introduces "tautology." They further commented that since MSE could be used to be predict sexual violence that including "non-coercive" items may be a concern. Items were reviewed to confirm that items demonstrated conceptual redundancy but not content redundancy which is suggested as best practice for scale construction by DeVellis (2017) to address concerns related to tautology. Additionally, all items in this subscale were reviewed to ensure there was an element of deception, coercion, or pressure. While some items are more explicit in deception, coercion, and pressure than others, all items include an element of these characteristics. While some items may be more closely connected to sexual violence, it is understandable that a scale seeking to capture MSE as a continuous variable would have items that indicate higher levels of sexual coercion and lower levels of the construct. This reviewer did not identify any specific items of concern and was the only reviewer to provide this feedback so no action was taken beyond this review of the items. In contrast to this critique, another reviewer indicated they thought the fifth subscale was: "a great and important variable that has not been sufficiently studied in relation to the others." In fact, none of the other reviewers voiced concerns about the scale aside from nomenclature.

In addition, the sixth subscale title was changed to include "minimizing" in the title instead of "euphemizing" as per several reviewer's suggestions.

One reviewer critiqued the scale's use of gender-neutral pronouns and not specifically using the term "women" in the MSEN items. This author's feedback is noteworthy in that most often scales concerning sexual violence or related attitudes involve male perpetrators and female victims (Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987; McDermott, Kilmartin, McKelvey, & Kridel, 2015; Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999). Further, theory of sexual entitlement emphasizes masculinity as a component of the construct (e.g., Hill and Fischer, 2001), and scales of sexual entitlement have previously measured the construct by using male and female pronouns that reflect men as initiators of sex and women as the recipients of sex (e.g., Hanson et al., 1994). Instead, the MSEN generally uses non-heterosexist that does not specify the gender identity of who one is engaging in sexual behaviors with instead of using "women" as is more common in comparable scales. This decision was intentionally made for the following reasons: a) the subscales and items were developed based on a review of the masculinities literature and demonstrate the desired content without labeling gender pronoun; b) prior scales emphasis specifically on men and women appear to limit the scales' generalizability beyond heterosexual populations; and c) use of heterosexist scales has been identified as limitation of other scales in the field of sexual violence (Koss et al., 2007; McDermott, Kilmartin, McKelvey, & Kridel, 2015). Since only one reviewer provided this comment, while considered, it was not incorporated to the final subscales or items (see Appendix A). In addition to content experts, focus groups were used to review the survey.

Focus groups. Survey development does not require IRB approval at UW Madison, and focus groups were convened in Spring 2017 and Fall 2017 to evaluate the revised item pool (i.e., after feedback had been incorporated by content experts) prior to IRB approval of the project. Nassar-McMillan and Borders (2002) noted focus groups can be useful for wording items consistent with how a target population uses language. Further, these authors proposed focus

groups can help identify new ideas or insights about a construct. They also emphasized the role

of the moderator is to *gather*, not *provide* information. Additionally, they suggested an ideal size

for focus groups is four to six participants (Nassar-McMillan & Borders, 2002). Other

researchers have outlined further considerations for conducting effective focus groups. Krueger

and Casey (2015) recommended identifying a specific targeted population for membership,

sharing with participants a clear purpose for the group, and developing specific questions for the

sample. Further, they offered numerous suggestions to improve the flow of meetings, including

announcing after informed consent that the session will be audio-recorded instead of asking

participants if they are comfortable being recorded, and reminding people they may discontinue

participation at any time for any reason after the audio recording announcement (Krueger &

Casey, 2015). These suggestions were integrated into the format and process of the focus groups.

Three focus groups of men ($N = 9$) were held to evaluate the items. Participants were

recruited from a general counseling psychology class for extra credit and a club for men involved

in violence prevention on campus. Participants were asked to review items for clarity,

understanding, and double meanings. Six to seven randomized items were presented per slide,

via powerpoint, for the whole group to provide feedback until all items were evaluated. Feedback

groups were audio-recorded after participants consented to being taped. The groups were told the

survey was going to study MSE and were presented with the subscales and operational

definition.

Participants provided content and clarifying feedback on items. For example, there were

instances where language could be shortened to improve items: "I seek out sexual experiences so

I can brag about it to my friends" was changed to: "I seek out sexual experiences to brag about to

my friends." Another participant noted the redundant language of "genetics," "biology," and

"nature" in the sentence stems of subscale four's items and suggested different language could

include "hormones" and "testosterone." Items in subscale four were changed so that each item did not repeat a term reflecting "genetics" or "biology" that was previously used in the sentence stems. Participants also provided more substantive feedback. One participant commented, for instance, on an item from the third subscale involving peers that states: "My friends and I describe having sex with someone as 'scoring.'" This participant commented that as a person from the African American community, he did not imagine any of his friends would use this language. This item and others where similar feedback was provided about unusual language were reviewed in the second round of focus groups in Fall 2017. Participants were solicited for synonyms they would use to represent language such as "scoring" and for four other items. Participants were invited to suggest changes or provide different terms. Where appropriate changes were made, although when the group could not find a stronger term the original term was preserved. For example, no one could propose an alternative term for "scoring" and the initial man that provided this feedback could not generate another term that felt like it captured the concept so "scoring" was used in the MSEN90. Four additional items were added to the initial 86 based on focus group members comments. Group members suggested that masculinity is often tied to sex and that friends might tease someone who chooses to not pursue a sexual opportunity. Four items were generated that reflected these ideas. The final scale had 90 items.

MSEN90 Scale. Focus group and content expert feedback was incorporated to yield the MSEN90 scale. The MSEN90 included the following six subscales with 90 items (see Appendix A). The following items are reverse-coded: 6,16, 20, 24, 27, 37. Twenty-one items constituted the prioritizing sexual needs of self subscale (subscale 1), 13 items were included in the objectification of others subscale (subscale 2), 18 items comprised the peer norms subscale (subscale 3), 17 items made up the essentialist gender attitudes about men in relationships and sexuality subscale (subscale 4), 12 items formed the sexual deception and pressure subscale

(subscale 5), and, finally, 9 items accounted for the minimizing and dismissing problematic behavior scale (subscale 6).

Step 5: Consider including validation items. Construct validation scales were not included for the first sample that completed the MSEN90, per the suggestion of the dissertation committee. Validation items were included with the second sample and are discussed in the context of that sample.

Measures. Data collection was divided between three studies. Participants in all studies completed measures online. The first study sample completed the full MSEN90 and demographics survey. The MSEN90 items were randomized using the random function in excel such that participants saw them in a random order in Qualtrics (see Appendix A for final and original order of items). The second study sample completed the revised and shortened MSEN40, demographics then the following measures: a) the Sexual Narcissism Scale (SNS); b) the Male Role Norms Inventory-Short Form (MRNI-SF); c) the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS); d) the Social Desirability Scale-16 (SDS-16); and e) Sexual Experiences Survey (SES-PF) as a measure of criterion validity. Where possible, shortened forms were used to reduce attrition and participant fatigue. The third study sample was participants from the second sample who retook the MSEN40 three months after they first completed the measure to assess for the temporal stability of the measure to assess test-retest reliability. No other measures were completed by the MSENc sample.

Demographic information. Before starting the scales, participants completed the consent form which confirms they are over the age of 18 and identify as men. Participants who were not 18 or older or did not identify as men were redirected to another screen thanking them for their time and interest, but noting they were not the focus population for this study and their responses were not recorded. The following demographic information was collected: sex

assigned at birth, sexual orientation, gender identity of preferred sexual partners, age, racial/ethnic identities, parent's socioeconomic status, personal SES, current relationship status, experience with sex, number of sexual partners, first age of sex, fraternity affiliation, university-based sports team affiliation, and number of years in college.

Sexual Narcissism Scale (SNS; Widman & McNulty, 2010). The Sexual Narcissism Scale is a 20-item scale that was developed to assess the extent to which an individual holds views that are sexually narcissistic (see Appendix B). The scale is measured on a five-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 5 = *strongly agree*) where higher scores represent higher sexual narcissism. The scale is comprised of four subscales: a) sexual exploitation; b) sexual entitlement; c) low sexual empathy; and d) sexual skill. Sample items include: "If I ruled the world for one day, I would have sex with anyone I choose," "I am entitled to sex on a regular basis," and "I do not usually care how my sexual partner feels after sex." In a sample of 415 undergraduate men, the SES has been shown to have a statistically significant moderate positive relationship ($r = .44, p <.001$) with a related measure, the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI, Raskin & Terry, 1988). Additionally, the scale has been shown to have a statistically significant moderate positive correlation ($r = .40, p <.001$) with self-reported sexual aggression (Sexual Experiences Scale) (Abbey et al., 2005). Another noteworthy finding is that men reported higher levels of sexual entitlement than women $F(1, 295) = 20.12, p < .001, d = .52$. The full scale $\alpha = .84$. The subscales demonstrate acceptable internal consistency: sexual exploitation $\alpha = .78$; sexual entitlement $\alpha = .84$; low sexual empathy $\alpha = .79$; sexual skill $\alpha = .89$) (Widman & McNulty, 2010). The scale is scored by obtaining a mean total score for the entire scale and mean score for each subscale. See Chapter 2 for a summary of correlates and studies that have used this scale.

Male Role Norms Inventory-Short Form (MRNI-SF; Levant, Hall, & Rankin, 2013).

The 21-item Male Role Norms Inventory-Short Form (MRNI-SF) is used to measure norms for

the male sex role (see Appendix C). Levant, Hirsch, Celentano, and Cozza (1992) noted a child's

internalized sex role is derived from prescriptive gender stereotypes and norms that are instilled

into the child by society and early significant relationships and this understanding was the basis

for the earliest iterations of the MRNI. The MRNI-SF was derived from the 39-item MRNI-R

(Levant, Rankin, Williams, Hasan, & Smalley, 2010) which itself was developed based on the

57-item MRNI (Levant et al., 1992). The MRNI scale was based on Brannon's (1976) previously

discussed (see Chapter 2) masculinity norms and used to measure internalized male role norms

of masculine ideology (Levant, Hirsch, Celentano, & Cozza, 1992; Levant, Rankin, Williams,

Hasan, & Smalley, 2010) . The MRNI-R has a seven-factor structure: a) avoidance of femininity;

b) negativity towards sexual minorities; c) self-reliance through mechanical skills; d) toughness;

e) dominance; f) importance of sex; and g) restrictive emotionality (Levant, Rankin, Williams,

Hasan, & Smalley, 2010). In a sample of 593 undergraduates (341 men and 251 women), the

MRNI-R has been shown to have a statistically significant moderate positive relationship (r =

.51, p <.01) with a related measure, the Male Role Attitude Scale (MRAS) (Pleck, Sonenstein, &

Ku, 1994), and demonstrated an absence of a correlations with a theoretically unrelated measure

(r = -.02, *ns*), the Personal Attributes Questionnaire-Masculinity Scale (PAQ-MS, Spence &

Helmreich, 1979). The MRNI-R has a total scale α = .96 and the range of subscales α = .75 -

.92 (Levant et al., 2010).

The MRNI-SF took the three highest loading items from each latent variable of the

MRNI-R. The measure is scored on a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1 = *strongly disagree*

to 5 = *strongly agree*) with higher scores indicating higher endorsement of traditional masculine

role norms. The MRNI-SF has a bi-factor model: a general traditional masculinity factor and a

specific factor that corresponds to each of the 7 MRNI-R factors. Sample items include: "A man should not turn down sex," "Men should have home improvement skills," and "Boys should prefer to play with trucks rather than dolls."   In a sample of 549 undergraduate men, the MRNI-SF full scale α = .92. Alphas for the subscales ranged from .79 - .90 (Levant, Hall, & Rankin, 2013). The scale is scored by obtaining a mean total score for the entire scale and mean score for each subscale.

   Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). The Satisfaction With Life Scale is a five-item scale developed to measure global life satisfaction and positive affect (see Appendix D). The measure is scored on a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*) with higher scores indicating higher levels of life satisfaction. Sample items include: "in most ways my life is close to my ideal," "I am satisfied with my life," and "If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing." In a sample of 176 undergraduates, the scale showed adequate reliability with α = .87 and test-retest correlation of .82 (76 of the original participants completed the scale two months after initial administration). In a different sample of 163 undergraduates, the scale demonstrated no correlation (r = .02, p not reported) with the Marlowe-Crowne Scale of social desirability. In both samples there were moderately strong correlations between the SWLS and with 8 out of 9 subjective well-being scales with correlations ranging r = .47 - .75. The only measure the SWLS correlated with in these samples was an affect intensity measure (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). The scale is scored by summing all responses and then correlating the total score with the items being developed.

   Social Desirability Scale (SDS-16; Stöber, 2001). The Social Desirability Scale is a 16-item scale developed to provide an updated measure for social desirability. Social desirability involves responding to questions in a way one believes others perceive as socially acceptable or

favorable (see Appendix E). At the time of publication of the SDS-16, Marlowe and Crowne's

social desirability measure was the among the most widely used measures for that purpose, but it

stemmed from the 1960's, and Stöber (Stöber 1999, in Stöber 2001) argued that it had outdated

language. Stöber offered their scale as a way to assess social desirability with more

contemporary language. Respondents answer either "*true*" or "*false*" to a statement in reference

to themselves. Six items are reverse coded and higher scores indicate a higher level of social

desirability. Sample items include: "I sometimes litter," "I always eat a healthy diet," and "I

never hesitate to help someone in case of emergency." Notably, the final scale has 16 items

(despite the original name being SDS-17), as one item was excluded from the final analyses. The

scale showed adequate reliability with $\alpha = .72$ and test-retest correlation of .83 in a German

sample. Further, the scale had a strong correlation ($r = .74$, $p < .001$) with a previously well-

established measure of social desirability, the Marlowe-Crowne Scale, in a German sample.

Finally, a sample of college students rated the Marlowe-Crowe and the SDS-16 on social

desirability and the SDS-16 was reported to have a higher level of social desirability than the

Marlowe-Crowe (Cohen's $d = .64$) (Stöber 1999, in Stöber 2001). Blake, Valdiserri, Neuendorf,

and Nemeth (2006) found with a US-based university sample ($N = 800$) the SDS-16 correlated

with the Marlowe-Crowne across three studies, ($r = .80$, .91, and .84 respectively, $p < .001$) and

in 6 of 7 conditions had an adequate internal consistency as measured by alpha $\geq .70$ with

internal consistency scores between .70 - .92. This led Blake et al. (2006) to suggest the

instrument is a valid measure of social desirability in U.S. samples. The scale is scored by

summing all responses and then correlating the total score with the individual items in the

instrument being developed.

Sexual Experiences Scale (SES-PF; Abbey et al., 2005; Koss et al., 1987; Koss et al,

2007). The Sexual Experiences Scale-Perpetrator Form (SES-PF) is a 35-item scale that was developed to assess the extent to which an individual self-reports perpetrating some form of sexual violence (see Appendix F). The scale and derivatives of this scale are among the most widespread used to assess sexual violence perpetration (Abbey, Parkhill, & Koss, 2005; Koss et al., 2007). The scale measures *seven tactics*: a) arguments/pressure, b) lies/promises, c) guilt/anger, d) giving alcohol, e) giving drugs, f) taking advantage of an incapacitated person, or g) using physical force; used to engage in *five behaviors*: a) fondling, kissing, b) attempted sex, c) oral sex, d) sexual intercourse, or e) anal sex/insertion of objects. Items all start with a sentence stem that includes a tactic: "Since the age of 14, have you ever overwhelmed someone who you were sexually attracted to with continual arguments and pressure, although they indicated they didn't want to, in order to…" and then is followed by a list of one of the five sexual behaviors: "fondle, kiss, or sexually touch them without their consent?" The scale is measured with respondents indicating a "yes" or "no" to having engaged in a given behavior. A noted limitation of the scale is its heterosexist bias (Koss et al., 2007). Wording of SES-PF items was thus changed from the technically inaccurate phrase of "the opposite sex" to "someone who you are sexually attracted to" in the present study. Another limitation of the scale is that most research with the SES has used the victimization form, and few studies publish reliability or internal consistency for the SES-PF. Koss et al., (2007) noted generally internal consistency scores for Cronbach's alpha have been low for the victimization version of scale (alphas typically in low .70s). This is related to the fact that victimization may not reflect an unidimensional construct which would suggest Cronbach's alpha would be an inappropriate statistic to assess the scale (Koss et al., 2007). These authors noted, however, that sexual aggression perpetration could reflect a unidimensional latent construct and thus Cronbach's alpha could appropriately be used for the SES-PF (Koss et al., 2007). Studies have found internal

consistency evidence to be below acceptable levels. For example, one study reported a

Cronbach's alpha = .65 in a sample of 798 men at a commuter university (Abbey et al., 1998).

Koss and Gidycz (1985), however, found, in a sample of 448 undergraduate students ($n = 143$

men), the perpetrator scale was shown to have adequate internal consistency, $\alpha = .89$. In the

same study, the SES-PF, in another sample of 67 undergraduate men, had a 93% one week test-

retest reliability (Koss & Gidycz, 1985). While the evidence is mixed and limited (McDermott et

al., 2015), the SES-PF is still the most widely used short instrument to measure self-reported

sexual violence perpetration. The scale is scored in such a way that a "*yes*" response would be a

"1" and a "*no*" response is a "0." Scores range from 0-35 and higher scores indicate engagement

in more sexually coercive behavior. The scale is being used as a criterion validity measure to

assess if MSEN scores predict SES-PF scores. For the present study, scores were dummy-coded

for analysis such that if an individual endorsed any items they coded a "1" and if they did not

endorse any item they were coded a "0".

Step 6: Administer items to a development sample. The developmental sample was all

men from a large public university in the in the Midwest. A second sample of individual whom

also identified as men were invited to participate in the revised and shortened MSEN40 online

and completed the previously noted validation surveys. They were all informed participation was

voluntary and there was no penalty related to not completing the surveys. There was strict

confidentiality for all participants as there was no way of connecting responses to their names.

Recruitment strategy. The following recruitment strategy was developed based on a

September 1st, 2017 conversation with the assistant director of the UW-Madison Survey Center

John Stevenson. The university registrar's office was contacted and provided a list that had the

names and email addresses of all undergraduate students that were in the publicly releasable

directory ($N = 28,688$). While this list did not include every enrolled undergraduate student ($N =$

29,931; Registrar's Office, 2017), as some students choose to not be listed in the directory, it does include the vast majority of undergraduates. The registrar's list was re-organized by the researcher first using the "random" and then "sort" functions in excel. Each participant was assigned a random number between 0 and 1. These numbers were sorted from small to large into a random order. The first 12000 names were split into two groups. The first group of 6000 names listed comprised the first study recruitment pool sample and the second 6000 were the second recruitment pool sample. The number was set at 6000, as approximately half (3000) could be presumed to identify as men given enrollment is roughly evenly divided between men and women in the enrollment statistics (Registrar's Office, 2017). Stevenson noted the project likely will have somewhere between 10-20% participation based on his experience (personal communication, September 1, 2017). The minimum sample suggested for item analysis and SEM is 200 participants and thus the researcher expected to exceed this number by contacting 6000 students.

Stevenson reported participation among men is improved when there are few very large prizes instead of many small prizes. Based on this recommendation, participants from each study were provided an incentive that they would be included in a drawing with a chance to win a $150 gift card from Amazon for their participation. Stevenson noted he is on the IRB board and believes this incentive is not coercive.

After institutional IRB approval, participants were contacted via email in four rounds of email "blasts" for each study. All participants who completed the second study were given the opportunity in Qualtrics to add their email address to a list, unconnected to their survey responses, to be invited to participate in the third study. This was the only means for recruitment for study three. Three-month test re-test reliability was planned to be conducted with the third study to assess the temporal stability of the measure, although this ultimately was not performed

as responses were completely anonymous and it was discovered it was not possible to match participants from MSENb to MSENc.

Data Analysis: Study 1 (MSENa)

  Data screening for study 1. Survey responses were downloaded from Qualtrics and uploaded to SPSS v. 24 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). Study 1 had initially 379 responses of which 75 cases were incomplete. Of these 75, only two had completed at least 90% of the MSEN90. While initially it was planned to address missing data through a mean imputation process, after consultation with members of dissertation committee, it was decided to delete all 75 incomplete cases list-wise from the data set, given the small number who had completed at least 90% of the surveys. The median time for completion was 955 seconds with a mean completion time of 2100 seconds. The author completed the survey intentionally responding very quickly to items in 555 seconds (i.e., 9 minutes in 15 seconds) and determined it would be difficult to accurately complete the survey in less time. Eleven remaining responses were identified to have unusually quick completion rates (i.e., faster than 555 second, or 9 minutes and 15 seconds) and were deleted from the dataset. This cleaning yielded 293 complete observations. During the course of further data analysis, an additional 10 respondents did not complete the MSEN survey and were also removed from the data set bringing the total to 283 complete responses. The 21 cases were reviewed to see if these respondent's demographics were generally different from the that of the overall group and trends in the data. These deleted participants followed the trends in the data (i.e., mostly White, heterosexual, middle or upper middle class, and a range of ages). The six items which were written in the negative direction (6, 18, 21, 24, 39, and 50) were reverse-coded prior to running any analyses.

  After the data screening and exploratory factor analyses were completed, during more intensive analysis on the demographics, two additional participants were flagged for removal.

One participant wrote "10000" for lifetime number of sexual partners and selected "4" for the last 20 items of their responses. After consulting with a dissertation co-chair (Dr. Budge) this participant was removed based on these unusual response patterns. An additional participant appeared to have completed the measure twice. For the question asking about preferred gender identity of sexual partners, "Anime Girls" was written twice. In reviewing the two cases side by side, the responses were near identical for their responses on the MSEN40a as well as for demographics. The second score was deleted (as this would have been the second time the person completed the scale). This brought the total number of participants for analysis to 281.

Step 7: Evaluate the items. Preliminary item evaluation was based on item-total correlations. Additionally, factor analysis was conducted, with principle axis factoring, and promax rotation. Factor analysis also included other best practices: review of the scree plot, conducting a parallel analysis, and assessing model fit using fit indices (e.g. Worthington & Whittaker, 2006).

Step 8: Optimize scale length. To optimize scale length, items were identified, evaluated, and removed in iterations based first on inspection of the pattern matrix for factor and cross loadings > .3. Additionally, items were reviewed for theoretical consistency with the subscale. Preliminary factor analysis was conducted in SPSS with a potential 5 and 6 factor solution. See results for discussion. This item analysis was conducted on participants from the MSEN90a sample. Finally, items were removed to obtain a consistent number of items per subscale. Following each item or set of items being removed a new factor analysis was conducted in SPSS and each subscale was re-evaluated based on this information.

Study 2 (MSENb) Participant Demographics

The second study sample consisted of 210 participants. All were undergraduate students from a large Midwestern university. The sample included 203 individuals that were assigned a male sex at birth (five other participants were assigned a female sex, one participant wrote in an

additional sex assigned at birth and one participant preferred not to report sex assigned at birth).

Age was assessed categorically; see Table 3.2 for demographic information related to age. Most

participants (79.5%) identified exclusively as White/European American. One hundred sixty-

seven (79.5%) reported they exclusively identified as heterosexual and 158 (75.2%) selected

only "woman" as the preferred gender identity of sexual partners. The majority of the sample (*n*

= 161) reported they had previously had sex. Approximately 71% (*n* = 114) of those who had

previously had had sex reported they were 18 years old or younger when they first had sex. The

lifetime number of reported sexual partners of the sample ranged from 0 – 85. The mean number

of lifetime sexual partners was 5.47 (*SD* = 10.48). Of those who had previously had sex, the

mean number of sexual partners in the last year was 2.21 (*SD* = 4.18). Over 50% of the sample

reported their annual household income as $100,001 or more. More specific and additional

demographic information is listed in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2
Sample demographics for MSENb (N = 210)

Demographic	*n*	%
Sex Assigned at Birth		
Female	5	2.4
Male	203	96.7
Write In	1	.5
Prefer Not to Say	1	.5
Age		
18	18	8.6
19	40	19
20	48	22.9
21	54	25.7
22+	50	23.8
Sexual orientation		
Asexual	1	0.5
Bisexual	17	8.1
Gay	15	7.1
Heterosexual	167	79.5
Multiple Sexual Orientations Selected	8	3.8
Write In	1	0.5
Prefer not to say	1	0.5
Preferred Gender Identity of Partners		

Man	35	16.7
Multiple gender identities selected	13	6.2
Non-binary	2	1
Woman	158	75.2
Prefer not to say	2	1
Sexual Experience		
Has had sex	161	76.7
Has not had sex	44	21.0
Prefer not to say	5	2.4
Age of first having sex		
13 or younger	1	0.5
14	3	1.4
15	13	6.2
16	23	11
17	29	13.8
18	45	21.4
19	24	11.4
20	16	7.6
21	3	1.4
22+	4	1.9
Missing/Prefer not to say	49	23.3
Race/Ethnicity		
Asian/Pacific Islander/Asian American	23	11
Black/African American/African	1	0.5
Hispanic/Latinx	4	1.9
Multiple Identities Selected	12	5.7
Native American/American Indian/Alaska Native	1	0.5
White/European American	167	79.5
Write In	2	1
Relationship Status		
Casually dating	21	10
In a dating relationship (6 months or less)	19	9
In a dating relationship (longer than 6 months)	65	31
Married	1	0.5
Single	102	48.6
Write In	2	1
Annual Household Income		
$10,000 or less	5	2.4
$10,001-$20,000	5	2.4
$20,001-$30,000	4	1.9
$30,001-$40,000	8	3.8
$40,001-$50,000	7	3.3
$50,001-$60,000	4	1.9
$60,001-$70,000	10	4.8
$70,001-$80,000	16	7.6

$80,001-$90,000	12	5.7
$90,001-$100,000	16	7.6
$100,001 or more	106	50.2
Prefer not to say/Missing	17	8.1
Fraternity Affiliation		
Fraternity Member	28	13.3
Non-Fraternity Member	181	86.2
Prefer not to say	1	0.5
Division 1 Athlete		
Athlete	8	3.8
Non-Athlete	202	96.2
Number of years in College		
1 year (or in first year)	41	19.5
2 years (or in second year)	42	20
3 years (or in third year)	51	24.3
4 years (or in fourth year)	57	27.1
5 years (or in fifth year)	16	7.6
6 or more years (in 6th year or more)	2	1
Prefer not to say	1	0.5
Number of Violence Prevention Workshops Attended		
0	12	5.7
1	114	54.3
2	62	29.5
3	18	8.6
4	3	1.4
5	1	0.5

Data Analysis: Study 2 (MSENb)

Data screening for study 2. Survey responses were downloaded from Qualtrics and uploaded to SPSS v. 24 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) for data screening. Three hundred and twenty-three responses were downloaded from Qualtrics. Two cases were test data and one person marked "no" for consenting to participate in the study. All three of these cases were removed from the data set bringing the response count to 321. Seventy-two participants completed less than 95% of all surveys and were removed from the data set. The two test cases completed the surveys responding quickly, in approximately 15 minutes each (912 and 889 seconds respectively). Based on this it was determined respondents who completed the survey

more quickly than 750 seconds would have been responding too quickly. Thirty respondents who completed the surveys more quickly than 750 seconds were removed. This yielded a sample with 218 cases. Two users did not respond to any of the SES questions and were removed from the data set yielding 216 participants. Data was also screened for outliers by computing a Mahalanobis distance variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Data was sorted in descending order by this new variable and 5 respondents exceeded the cut off of 73.41 number. This number was derived from consulting the Chi Square table with alpha set at $p = .001$. These 5 respondents were determined to be outliers and were removed from the data set bringing the number of participants to 211. During analysis, it was discovered one participant did not respond to one question, this participant was excluded from analysis bringing the total number of participants to 210. Two SNS items (12 and 13) were reverse coded. All other items were already reversed coded in Qualtrics and did not need to be recoded in SPSS.

Following the guidelines suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) responses to the MSEN40b data were screened to assure it met the four assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity. To assess normality the P-Plot was reviewed and the observed data conformed with the predicted values lines as expected. Homoscedasticity was assessed by plotting predicted values and residuals on a scatter plot. The scatter plot was reviewed and roughly formed a circle pattern suggesting this assumption was met. Linearity assumption was met given the residuals were normally distributed and homoscedastic. Multivariate normality, or the extent to which variables are normally distributed, was assessed in the second sample by assessing skewness and kurtosis. Skewness and kurtosis were assessed to assure that all items were below an absolute value of 3. This was true for all items with the exception of item (item 12 had a kurtosis value = 4.18) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

Cleaning demographic variables for study 1 (MSENa) and study 2 (MSENb).

Several demographic items were cleaned for analysis. An identical process was used on both data sets for cleaning the data so the process is only described once here despite happening identically on both data sets for MSENa and MSENb.

There were two processes for coding. The initial coding process was for multiselect variables to ensure individuals that selected multiple identities were only counted once, but their intersection of identities was recorded for frequencies. The original data set as output from Qualtrics registered all responses coded as "1". For example, originally "heterosexual" was coded as "1" as was "gay" and "bisexual" and all other sexual orientation identities. Items were recoded such that "heterosexual" was coded as "1" gay was coded as "2" and bisexual as "3" etc. with all responses getting a unique number. This number coding process was performed on all multiselect variables.

The second process was dummy-coding variables for other analysis. Individuals were re-coded such that those from more privileged groups were coded as "1" and those from a less privileged group were coded as "0". For example, individuals that self-identified as exclusively heterosexual were coded as "1" where individuals who chose a sexual orientation other than heterosexual or chose heterosexual and an additional sexual orientation were coded as "0". Stated another way, individuals who are exclusively heterosexual are considered to have privilege relative to those who do not share this identity. This was done across several demographic variables see below for explanations.

Question 2 recorded sexual orientation and was "multi-select." Raw scores were recoded such that each response category had a unique number. Items were recoded such that "heterosexual" was coded as "1" gay was coded as "2" and bisexual as "3" etc. with all responses getting a unique number. This number coding process was performed on all multiselect variables. Responses were coded such that if an individual selected more than one

sexual orientation identity their response was coded as "9" with the label "multiple identities selected" in a new data column with the other recoded multiselect choices also included. Dummy coding was used such that individuals who identified exclusively as heterosexual were assigned a "1" individuals who were any sexual orientation other than exclusively heterosexual were coded as "0". Individuals that selected multiple sexual orientations were also coded as "0".

Question 3 was about gender identity of preferred sexual partners and was also multi-select and the previously noted coding process was performed. Responses were coded such that if an individual selected more than one gender orientation identity of partners their response was coded as "6" with the label "multiple identities selected."

Question 4 asked individuals if they previously had had sex. If they responded "no" or "prefer not to say" they did not see questions 5, 6, and 7 that were follow-up questions related to sexual history. Question 5 asked the number of sexual partners in the person's life time and question number 6 was the number of sexual partners in the last year. If someone selected "no" to a question, their responses to questions 5 and 6 were coded as "0." Responses were not recoded for question 7 as this question asked what was the age at which you first had sex.

Question 9 concerned racial/ethnic identity and was recoded using the previously discussed multiselect process with people selecting multiple identities recoded as "8." This question was also recoded into a new variable with responses dummy coded for data analysis such that individuals whom identified as White were coded "1" and individuals that responded to this statement with multiple racial ethnic identities or identities other than that White were coded as "0".

Question 13 looked at parental income levels. While researchers have identified limitations in the literature on researching social class (Liu et al., 2004) the current study explored if there were differences in MSEN scores based on parental income. The U.S. Census

Bureau (2018) reported that 2017 median household income in the U.S. was $61,372. Using

thing as an anchor amount, students who reported coming from households with incomes greater

than $80,000 were identified as "privileged" and dummy coded to be "1". Student with incomes

lower than amount were coded as "0".

Question 20 asked individuals to report the number of violence prevention programs they

have attended. Zero was not listed as an option so anyone that did not select an option was coded

as "0." Number of workshops attended was then summed for analysis.

Study 3 (MSENc) Data and Screening Demographics

Study 3 involved participants that completed the MSEN previously for the Study 2 and

opted in to be recruited to complete the survey later. Study participants for MSENc were invited

to complete the MSEN40 three months after the last participant completed the MSEN for Study

2. After four waves of recruitment emails, 84 participants completed the and compromise the

MSENc sample. Participants that completed < 95% of items were removed from the data leaving

76 cases remaining.

Participant demographics were compared between the MSENb and MSENc samples

across demographic variables. Participants demographics in MSENc were comparable with

MSENb participants across most variables (e.g., sex assigned at birth, age, race and ethnicity,

annual household income). There was a noticeable difference in number of respondents based on

sexual orientation as individuals with identities other than heterosexual constitute a higher

percentage of the MSENc sample (34%) when compared with the MSENb sample (20%).

Descriptive statistics are available upon request.

Coding self-reported sexual violence. Preliminary review of the Sexual Experiences

Survey – Perpetrator Form (SES-PF), the measure being used as a criterion to assess self-

reported perpetration of sexual aggression, indicated the data had a positive skew and a floor

effect. Accordingly, responses were dummy-coded for analysis such that if an individual endorsed any perpetration of sexual aggression items they were coded as a "1" and if they did not endorse any item they were coded a "0".

Study hypotheses. Study hypotheses were evaluated via coefficient alpha (see Results) to assess internal consistency and t-tests to explore differences in subscale scores based on sexual orientation, race, socioeconomic status, sexual experiences, gender and other demographic variables reported in SPSS. A regression was used to assess if MSEN scores predicted SES-PF scores.

Construct validity testing. Following the instructions outlined by Westen and Rosenthal (2003), an $r_{alerting\text{-}CV}$ was calculated. First, prior to calculating correlations of obtained data for the MSEN, subscales were identified that were hypothesized to have a relationship with the MSEN mean score. The following subscales were used: all four SNS subscale mean scores, SWL mean score, SES sum score, SDS mean score, and four of the seven MRNI subscales (Anti-femininity, Impersonal Sex, Dominance, and Toughness). Each subscale was conceptually evaluated for a predicted correlation with the MSEN. The predicted subscales were reviewed with a member of the dissertation committee (Dr. Hoyt) for audit, feedback, and evaluation. After this review, the subscale predicted correlations with the MSEN as well as the obtained subscale correlations were loaded into the program "r" and converted into z scores (see Results section for findings).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis. After EFA and scale length optimization, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using SEM in R with the "lavaan" package (Rosseel, 2012). Westen and Gore (2006) summarized the literature and outline six steps that were used for SEM: a) model specification, b) identification, c) data preparation and screening, d) estimation, e) evaluation, and f) modification. Additionally, they noted the importance of evaluating the

extent to which a model fits the data. Two noted conceptualizations for model fit Westen and Gore note include that: a) a model must exactly replicate the observed data, or b) a model should approximate the observed data. In addition, they pointed out that the literature does not offer a consensus on which conceptualization to use. Instead they offer several fit indices to assess model fit (discussed below, Westen & Gore, 2006).

Absolute fit indices. Westen and Gore (2006) indicated a commonly reported statistic to assess absolute model fit is χ^2 and the degrees of freedom. χ^2 is a test of model misspecification and a statistically significant χ^2 suggests a model does not fit the data. A limitation of the χ^2 statistic, however, is that it tests whether a model exactly fits the data which occurs rarely and so in practice rarely will one find a non-significant χ^2 (Westen & Gore, 2006).

Incremental fit indices. Researchers have recommended four indices to assess model fit that will be used: a) Comparative Fit Index (CFI), b) the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), c) Root Mean Square Error Approximation (RMSEA) with a 90% confident interval, and d) Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) (Kahn, 2006; Westen & Gore, 2006; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006) . CFI is used to assess the improvement of the researcher's model fit with that of a restricted "null" or "independence" model (which posits there is no relationship among the variables). This statistic is bound between 0 and 1 and values .95 or higher suggest a good model fit with an acceptable CFI above .90 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kahn, 2006). Related to the CFI is the TLI, which also assesses the improvement of a hypothesized model over a null model, and TLI values .95 or higher represent a good fit (Kahn, 2006). RMSEA is used to correct for a model's complexity and when two models that equally account for the data are offered, the simpler one will have a better RMSEA score. An RMSEA of .00 has an exact fit to the data and an RMSEA below .10 is acceptable (Kahn, 2006). The SRMR index

explains the degree of difference found between the model and observed data. An SRMR of .00

represents a perfect fit, a value less than .08 is considered a good fit, and an SRMR below .10 is

considered acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kahn, 2006).

   Comparing alternative models. An alternative model was proposed and evaluated based

on Akaike Information Criterion values. Smaller AIC values indicate a better model fit among

compared models (Burnham & Anderson, 2004; Westen & Gore, 2006).

Chapter 4 Results

The results are organized such that first initial testing and refinement of the MSEN is presented (i.e., preliminary item evaluation). Following this, the hypotheses are presented, generally, in order. Given that a central aim of this project was exploratory factor analysis, these results are presented first. The testing hypotheses sections includes the process by which the scale was reduced from 90, to 40 to a final 25 items. The first hypothesis discusses reliability analysis conducted via Cronbach's alpha for the MSEN full scale and subscales scales. The second hypotheses, as noted, were related to exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. Many of the additional hypotheses involved predicted relationships between MSEN scores and the additional measures included as evidence of construct validity. Accordingly, following this is a brief discussion of the $r_{alerting-CV}$ findings, a process by which the predicted and obtained scores are compared via correlation analysis. Another set of hypotheses discussed anticipated group differences on MSEN scores. The final hypothesis explored how the MSEN predicts scores on a self-reported measure of perpetration of sexual aggression via the SES-PF measure and the influence of demographic variables.

Initial Testing and Refinement of MSEN

The preliminary procedures for the development of the MSEN is discussed in chapter 3 including initial item screening, participant elimination procedures, etc. Below is a discussion of preliminary item analysis. Further scale refinement is discussed later in the exploratory factor analysis section.

      Preliminary item evaluation for MSEN84. Preliminary item evaluation of the MSEN90 was based on item-total correlations. Six items (21r, 24r, 77, 82, 39r, and 40) had item-total correlations < .3 and were removed yielding the MSEN84 (see Table 4.1). The MSEN84 had an $\alpha = .96$. Additional item analysis is discussed in the scale optimization section that follows.

Table 4.1

Items, Original Subscale, Item Total Correlation, Cronbach's Alpha if deleted, Means, Standard Deviations, Minimum and Maximum Score for MSEN90a from Study 1 Sample (N = 283)

Item	Orig. Scale	Corr. Item-total r	α if deleted	M	SD	Min	Max
1 When someone says "no" to sex it means I need to try harder.	DEC	.46	.96	1.51	0.75	1	5
2 I am usually more focused on a partner's looks than their character.	OBJ	.45	.96	2.49	0.88	1	5
3 Men need to be in control in sexual relationships because that is how men are made.	ESS	.59	.96	1.97	0.94	1	5
4 When I am in a relationship, I expect regular opportunities for sex.	PRIO	.44	.96	3.14	1.06	1	5
5 I would be teased by my friends if I did not pursue sexual experiences.	PEER	.32	.96	2.69	1.21	1	5
6 It's not ok to talk about people I'm attracted to only in terms of their looks. (R)	OBJ	.37	.96	3.11	1.09	1	5
7 I admire other men who have had many sexual experiences.	PEER	.36	.96	2.43	0.95	1	5
8 I see no problem with rating other's attractiveness on a 1-10 scale.	OBJ	.56	.96	3.36	1.12	1	5
9 Encouraging a potential sexual partner to consume alcohol is an effective way to increase one's chances of having sex.	DEC	.43	.96	2.40	1.23	1	5
10 Men are born to always have sex on their minds.	ESS	.43	.96	2.36	1.09	1	5
11 Sometimes I guilt-trip a partner if they do not agree to have sex with me.	PRIO	.35	.96	1.48	0.72	1	4
12 I would defend a friend if he was accused of sexually assaulting someone, even if there is evidence he may be guilty.	PEER	.44	.96	2.16	1	1	5
13 If a woman dresses provocatively, it is understandable that men will stare at her.	MIN	.58	.96	3.39	1.07	1	5
14 Friends should help their buddies get opportunities for sex.	PEER	.58	.96	3.01	1.01	1	5
15 Men are inherently sexually dominant.	ESS	.55	.96	2.63	1.09	1	5
16 I encourage male friends to have sex.	PEER	.51	.96	3.02	1.10	1	5
17 I should get sex when I want it.	PRIO	.43	.96	1.87	0.77	1	4
18 I do not think it is appropriate for someone to make comments to a	OBJ	.42	.96	2.52	1.18	1	5

stranger they find sexually attractive about how they look. (R)

Item							
19 It takes some time to a work a "yes" out of a potential sexual partner.	DEC	.32	.96	2.90	1.11	1	5
20 It is okay for a man to lie if it increases his chances of having sex.	DEC	.61	.96	1.87	0.85	1	5
21 I prefer a sexual relationship where my partner and I tend to each other's sexual needs. (R)	PRIO	0	.96	1.67	0.70	1	5
22 When it comes to having sex, boys will be boys.	ESS	.58	.96	2.28	1.02	1	5
23 I keep track of my sexual conquests.	OBJ	.38	.96	2.71	1.17	1	5
24 I put the sexual needs of my partner first. (R)	PRIO	.11	.96	2.06	0.82	1	5
25 If I see someone I am sexually attracted to, I won't be shy about checking them out.	OBJ	.41	.96	2.82	1.05	1	5
26 It's not necessarily rape if there is sex without consent.	MIN	.43	.96	1.49	0.75	1	5
27 A man is not entirely at fault if a woman has had too much to drink and he sexually assaults her.	MIN	.49	.96	1.61	0.83	1	5
28 I would lie for my friend so he could cheat on his partner.	PEER	.50	.96	1.83	1.03	1	5
29 My friends would make me feel like less of a man if I were to pass on an opportunity to have sex.	PEER	.40	.96	2.40	1.14	1	5
30 When I offer someone a drink and they accept, I expect an opportunity for sexual contact.	DEC	.54	.96	1.48	0.68	1	4
31 Men are primarily motivated to have sex because of testosterone.	ESS	.46	.96	2.96	1.01	1	5
32 I prefer to be in charge when it comes to sex.	PRIO	.40	.96	3.07	0.87	1	5
33 I think deception is a common part of convincing someone to have sex with you.	DEC	.44	.96	1.70	0.96	1	5
34 Men initiate sex due to genetics.	ESS	.45	.96	2.46	0.96	1	5
35 If I like a part of someone's body, I will stare at it.	OBJ	.47	.96	2.64	0.99	1	5
36 It is okay to lie in order to hide infidelities from one's partner.	MIN	.48	.96	1.59	0.75	1	5
37 Often when others claim sexual harassment, they are being too sensitive.	MIN	.55	.96	2.02	0.95	1	5
38 If someone has a nice body, I tell them.	OBJ	.41	.96	2.23	0.94	1	5

39 Sex is only enjoyable if my partner and I are both satisfied. (R)	PRIO	.24	.96	1.89	0.93	1	5
40 When I sexually fantasize, I only think about another's specific body part or parts.	OBJ	.25	.96	2.61	1.14	1	5
41 I'll have sex with someone just to tell my friends about it.	PEER	.56	.96	1.67	0.89	1	4
42 A woman may say "no" to sex at first, even though she wants to have sex.	DEC	.60	.96	2.42	1.15	1	5
43 Someone may claim sexual assault when really the other person was just messing around.	MIN	.57	.96	2.46	1.12	1	5
44 An important part of being a man is having sex.	ESS	.55	.96	2.25	1.02	1	5
45 When someone cheats on his partner, the cheater's buddies should keep it a secret.	PEER	.52	.96	2.17	1.06	1	5
46 I would have sex with someone to impress my friends.	PEER	.61	.96	2.05	1.13	1	5
47 I have a right to have my sexual needs met first.	PRIO	.44	.96	1.94	0.80	1	5
48 It is unlikely I would "cock block" a friend who is pursuing an opportunity for sex.	PEER	.34	.96	3.53	1.10	1	5
49 If someone invites me back to their place, I expect we are likely going to have sex.	PRIO	.48	.96	2.84	1.06	1	5
50 I feel uncomfortable pressuring someone into having sex with one of my friends. (R)	PEER	.36	.96	1.75	0.98	1	5
51 It is okay for me to ask a partner for sex a few times in the same night, even if they say no at first.	PRIO	.49	.96	2.27	0.98	1	5
52 It is not a big deal to catcall someone I find good-looking.	OBJ	.50	.96	1.83	0.94	1	5
53 My partner should cater to my sexual needs.	PRIO	.36	.96	2.89	0.98	1	5
54 I have a right to ask for sexual favors I do not intend to return.	PRIO	.45	.96	2.32	1	1	5
55 My friends and I talk about doing something sexual to someone for our own fun.	PEER	.54	.96	2.42	1.23	1	5
56 Men are sometimes unable to control their sexual desires.	ESS	.41	.96	2.35	1.19	1	5
57 I help my friends get opportunities to have sex.	PEER	.53	.96	2.78	1.17	1	5
58 It is acceptable for a man to take advantage of a chance to sleep with	DEC	.64	.96	1.59	0.82	1	5

someone when that person lets their guard down.

59 Men cheat on their partners because it is in their nature to be promiscuous.	ESS	.51	.96	1.68	0.88	1	5
60 I seek out sexual experiences so I can brag about it to my friends.	PEER	.57	.96	1.63	0.81	1	4
61 An ideal partner would make my sexual needs a priority over theirs.	PRIO	.49	.96	2.52	1	1	5
62 If a potential sexual partner played hard to get, I would get frustrated.	PRIO	.39	.96	2.75	1.03	1	5
63 When I see someone who is sexually attractive it is okay to let them know what I think.	OBJ	.47	.96	2.89	0.95	1	5
64 When I check someone out, I only focus on a part of their body.	OBJ	.36	.96	2.36	0.92	1	5
65 I expect someone to sleep with me if we have previously had sex.	PRIO	.50	.96	2.21	0.94	1	5
66 My sexual needs are more important that my partner's.	PRIO	.55	.96	1.75	0.75	1	5
67 Men pursue many sexual partners because of their biology.	ESS	.54	.96	2.30	1.08	1	5
68 Sexual assault is not as big of a problem as people say it is.	MIN	.51	.96	1.70	0.91	1	5
69 It is okay for me to ask a partner for sex a few times in the same night, even if they say no at first.	PRIO	.53	.96	2.01	0.87	1	5
70 When a potential sexual partner says "no" to my invitation for sex, it means it's time to change tactics.	DEC	.63	.96	1.90	0.87	1	5
71 It is okay for a man to say whatever he needs to convince someone to sleep with him.	DEC	.64	.96	1.57	0.79	1	5
72 Others are there to fulfill my sexual needs.	PRIO	.52	.96	1.52	0.79	1	5
73 Men are inherently sexually promiscuous.	ESS	.55	.96	2.20	1.06	1	5
74 Men are born with a high sex-drive.	ESS	.51	.96	2.89	1.14	1	5
75 It is okay to use alcohol so others have their guard down and are more open to sex.	DEC	.66	.96	1.61	0.80	1	5
76 Orgasming is my only focus during sex.	PRIO	.43	.96	1.93	0.83	1	5
77 It is harder for men to be denied sex than for women.	ESS	.17	.96	2.37	1.11	1	5
78 My friends and I describe having sex with someone as "scoring."	PEER	.49	.96	2.13	1.09	1	5
79 My friends and I compete to see who can have sex more frequently.	PEER	.53	.96	1.56	0.75	1	4

80 Men who pass opportunities for sex are not masculine.	ESS	.54	.96	1.73	0.83	1	5
81 I would tell someone "I love you," even if it was not true, to increase my chances of having sex.	DEC	.54	.96	1.57	0.79	1	5
82 My friends and I have watched porn together.	PEER	.22	.96	2.26	1.40	1	5
83 My sexual wishes take priority.	PRIO	.55	.96	1.84	0.80	1	5
84 I deserve to be sexually gratified by my partner.	PRIO	.40	.96	2.74	1.09	1	5
85 Locker room talk is usually harmless.	MIN	.59	.96	2.85	1.22	1	5
86 Men have sexual needs that have to be fulfilled.	ESS	.52	.96	2.82	1.06	1	5
87 Politicians, athletes, and celebrities are often falsely accused by victims with ulterior motives.	MIN	.56	.96	2.57	1.14	1	5
88 Men pursue many sexual experiences because that's how they are programmed.	ESS	.56	.96	2.39	1.01	1	5
89 I have exaggerated to my friends how many people I have had sex with.	PEER	.43	.96	1.89	1.06	1	5
90 Because of a man's hormones, his primary objective in social settings is to obtain a sexual partner.	ESS	.55	.96	2.04	0.89	1	4

Note. (R) means reverse coded; Bolded items had corrected-item total correlations < .30 and were the first flagged for removal; ESS = Essentialist Gender Attitudes Subscale; Minimizing and Dismissing; DEC = Sexual Deception and Pressure Subscale; PEER = Peer Norms Subscale; PRIO = Prioritizing Own Sexual Needs Subscale; OBJ = Objectification of Others Subscale

Testing Hypotheses

Exploratory Factor Analysis.

Hypothesis 2a. An underlying 6-factor structure will be demonstrated when factor analysis is performed on the MSEN scale.

Consistent with guidelines proposed by Worthington and Whittaker (2006), exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted prior to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Worthington and Whittaker (2006) suggested using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy to assess factorability. The MSEN84 scale KMO values was .91 well above the .60

suggested for factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). EFA was conducted using SPSS to identify the initial the number of factors on the MSEN84a as 6 preliminary items demonstrated poor item-total correlations < .3 (see Chapter 3).

Factors were extracted based on eigenvalues greater than one using a principle axis factoring technique for extraction with a Promax rotation. With this method 20 factors had eigenvalues greater than 1. Given the limitations of using eigenvalues greater than 1 to determine the number of factors to extract, (Fabrigar et al., 1999) two other methods were used to assess the factors to extract: review of the scree plot and parallel analysis. Examining the scree plot, there was an elbow between 5 and 6 factors suggesting either could be adequate for the number of factors (see Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1
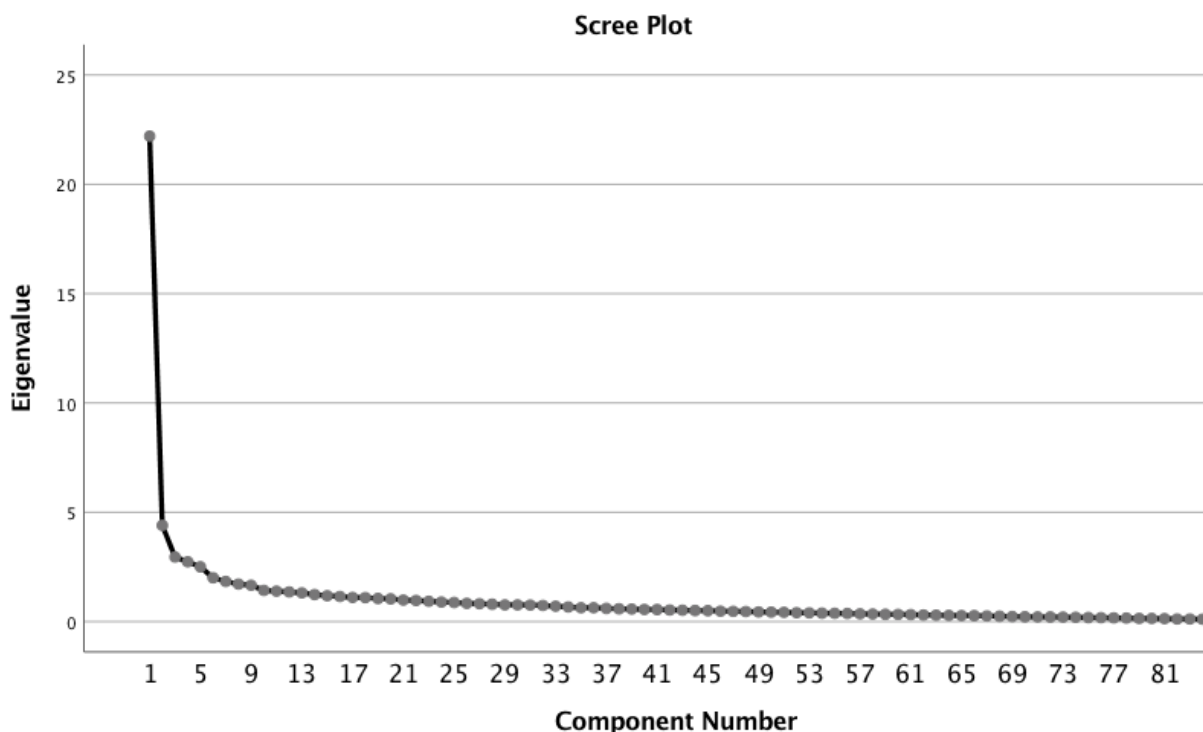
The Dinno (2012) "paran" package in r was used to perform a parallel analysis. With the 84 items, and 283 observations loaded, the r package based on 5,000 iterations suggested no more than 6 factors be retained.

Determining number of factors to retain.

It was a critical decision as to whether the MSEN should retain 5 or 6 factors as it was initially hypothesized MSEN would include 6 factors. Items were developed with 6 factors in mind and accordingly it was anticipated this would be represented in the data. In reviewing the scree plot and parallel analysis a 5 or 6 factor solution appeared possible. Given that both were possible, conducting further analysis with the data seemed essential in determining the number of factors to retain.

In SPSS, with principal axis factoring, and promax rotation, two factor extraction procedures were performed restricting the number of factors to extract to 6 and 5, respectively. Careful examination of the data from both procedures was performed.

SPSS noted a rotation failed to converge with a 6-factor solution for a pattern matrix with 25 iterations. This was not the case for a 5-factor solution (see Table 4.2). When iterations were changed to 50, the 6-factor solution yielded a pattern matrix that had 2 factors with approximately 20 items each with factor loadings >.30, and 3 other factors with 6 items, 7 items, and 8 items loading on a different factor >.30 (See Appendix B). This was strikingly different from the initial intended subscales as items were created to be significantly more evenly distributed across the factors. Additionally, items generally did not conform to their original intended factors with the 6-factor solution.

When reviewing the 5-factor solution the items were more broadly distributed between the factors, but also when reviewing individual items, they loaded more consistently with their intended factors than with the 6-factor solution. Thus the 5-factor solution appeared better

supported by the data and was adopted. This finding suggests that the hypothesis that the MSEN

would have a 6-factor structure was not supported as EFA suggested a 5-factor solution.

Table 4.2
Preliminary Factors Loadings MSEN84a with 5-Factor solution

	Sample (N = 283)				
	Factors				
Item	1	2	3	4	5
57. I help my friends get opportunities to have sex.	**.68**	.12			.14
16. I encourage male friends to have sex.	**.65**				.21
46. I would have sex with someone to impress my friends.	**.61**	-.10	.31		
5. I would be teased by my friends if I did not pursue sexual experiences.	**.58**				-.15
29. My friends would make me feel like less of a man if I were to pass on an opportunity to have sex.	**.56**	-.11		.15	
6. I seek out sexual experiences so I can brag about it to my friends.	**.53**	-.20	.37		
41. I'll have sex with someone just to tell my friends about it.	**.53**		.35		
14. Friends should help their buddies get opportunities for sex.	**.52**	.26	-.10		.21
89. I have exaggerated to my friends how many people I have had sex with.	**.50**	-.27	.40	.11	-.13
55. My friends and I talk about doing something sexual to someone for our own fun.	**.50**	.23			
7. I admire other men who have had many sexual experiences.	**.48**				.19
78. My friends and I describe having sex with someone as "scoring."	**.45**	.12	.22		-.21
45. When someone cheats on his partner, the cheater's buddies should keep it a secret.	**.40**	.16	.28		
23. I keep track of my sexual conquests.	**.38**			.11	
28. I would lie for my friend so he could cheat on his partner.	**.35**	.21	.31	-.13	
48. It is unlikely I would "cock block" a friend who is pursuing an opportunity for sex.	**.33**	.17	-.32	.18	.13

Item	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am usually more focused on a partner's looks than their character.	**.28**	.10	.22		
38. If someone has a nice body, I tell them.	**.27**	.25			
25. If I see someone I am sexually attracted to, I won't be shy about checking them out.	**.27**	.25			.17
5r. I feel uncomfortable pressuring someone with friends	**.20**		.17		.18
85. Locker room talk is usually harmless.	.15	**.69**	-.11	.13	-.12
37. Often when others claim sexual harassment, they are being too sensitive.	-.11	**.68**		.13	
69. Sexual assault is not as big of a problem as people say it is.	-.20	**.65**	.22		
18. I do not think it is appropriate for someone to make comments to a stranger they find sexually attractive about how they look. (RC)	.24	**.63**	-.18	-.19	
52. It is not a big deal to catcall someone I find good-looking.		**.62**			
87. Politicians, athletes, and celebrities are often falsely accused by victims with ulterior motives.		**.58**		.29	-.11
8. I see no problem with rating other's attractiveness on a 1-10 scale.	.20	**.55**			
27. A man is not entirely at fault if a woman has had too much to drink and he sexually assaults her.	-.16	**.55**	.20		
43. Someone may claim sexual assault when really the other person was just messing around.	-.13	**.54**	.14		
63. When I see someone who is sexually attractive it is okay to let them know what I think.	.18	**.53**	-.16		.12
13. If a woman dresses provocatively, it is understandable that men will stare at her.		**.51**		.24	
12. I would defend a friend if he was accused of sexually assaulting someone, even if there is evidence he may be guilty.		**.48**			-.12
42. A woman may say "no" to sex at first, even though she wants to have sex.	-.12	**.42**	.22	.10	.15
6r. It's not ok to talk about people I'm attracted to only in terms of their looks.		**.40**	-.16		.22

51. It is okay for me to ask a partner for sex a few times in the same night, even if they say no at first.	-.16	**.38**	.28		.19
9. Encouraging a potential sexual partner to consume alcohol is an effective way to increase one's chances of having sex.	.12	**.32**	.12	.10	-.11
26. It's not necessarily rape if there is sex without consent.	-.10	**.29**	.14		.14
35. If I like a part of someone's body, I will stare at it.		**.27**		.11	.24
54. I have a right to ask for sexual favors I do not intend to return.		**.24**	.18		.18
72. Others are there to fulfill my sexual needs.			**.65**		.20
81. I would tell someone "I love you," even if it was not true, to increase my chances of having sex.	.20		**.65**		
36. It is okay to lie in order to hide infidelities from one's partner.	.13		**.63**	-.15	
71. It is okay for a man to say whatever he needs to convince someone to sleep with him.	.10	.18	**.62**		
33. I think deception is a common part of convincing someone to have sex with you.			**.53**	.11	-.13
20. It is okay for a man to lie if it increases his chances of having sex.	.20	.22	**.52**	-.15	
75. It is okay to use alcohol so others have their guard down and are more open to sex.		.36	**.51**		
79. My friends and I compete to see who can have sex more frequently.	.44	-.15	**.46**		
58. It is acceptable for a man to take advantage of a chance to sleep with someone when that person lets their guard down.		.36	**.46**	-.10	
1. When someone says "no" to sex it means I need to try harder.	-.20	.24	**.45**		.12
66. My sexual needs are more important that my partner's.			**.45**	.12	.29
30. When I offer someone a drink and they accept, I expect an opportunity for sexual contact.	.11		**.44**		.14
70. When a potential sexual partner says "no" to my invitation for sex, it means it's time to change tactics.		.33	**.43**		

76. Orgasming is my only focus during sex.		-.15	**.43**		.20
69. It is okay for me to ask a partner for sex a few times in the same night, even if they say no at fir			**.41**		.30
11. Sometimes I guilt-trip a partner if they do not agree to have sex with me.			**.30**		
80. Men who pass opportunities for sex are not masculine.	.26		**.30**	.24	
19. It takes some time to a work a "yes" out of a potential sexual partner.	-.10	.15	**.23**	.16	
88. Men pursue many sexual experiences because that's how they are programmed.				**.76**	
74. Men are born with a high sex-drive.				**.73**	
67. Men pursue many sexual partners because of their biology.				**.70**	
73. Men are inherently sexually promiscuous.			.11	**.66**	
34. Men initiate sex due to genetics.	-.11	.11		**.61**	
10. Men are born to always have sex on their minds.	.18			**.59**	
31. Men are primarily motivated to have sex because of testosterone.		.11	-.20	**.58**	
15. Men are inherently sexually dominant.		.16		**.56**	
90. Because of a man's hormones, his primary objective in social settings is to obtain a sexual partner.			.13	**.50**	.13
59. Men cheat on their partners because it is in their nature to be promiscuous.			.31	**.37**	
56. Men are sometimes unable to control their sexual desires.	-.13		.23	**.35**	
3. Men need to be in control in sexual relationships because that is how men are made.		.29	.17	**.34**	
22. When it comes to having sex, boys will be boys.		.24	.21	**.32**	
64. When I check someone out, I only focus on a part of their body.				**.18**	.15
84. I deserve to be sexually gratified by my partner.		-.13			**.78**
47. I have a right to have my sexual needs met first.		-.15	.25		**.61**
17. I should get sex when I want it.			.14		**.53**

Item					
86. Men have sexual needs that have to be fulfilled.	.10			.15	**.49**
53. My partner should cater to my sexual needs.					**.45**
4. When I am in a relationship, I expect regular opportunities for sex.	.23	.11			**.44**
83. My sexual wishes take priority.		-.14	.42		**.44**
62. If a potential sexual partner played hard to get, I would get frustrated.				.13	**.39**
49. If someone invites me back to their place, I expect we are likely going to have sex.	.35				**.36**
61. An ideal partner would make my sexual needs a priority over theirs.		.13		.15	**.33**
65. I expect someone to sleep with me if we have previously had sex.			.29		**.33**
44. An important part of being a man is having sex.	.11	.10	.16		**.32**
32. I prefer to be in charge when it comes to sex.				.27	**.28**

Note. Bolded scores are the factor loadings. Extraction method: Principle Axis Factoring, Promax rotation. A rotation converged in 13 iterations.

Following initial EFA, structure coefficients were reviewed and used to label the factors. The five factors included: Peer Norms Subscale (PEER); Minimizing and Dismissing Subscale (MIN); Sexual Deception and Pressure Subscale (DEC); Essentialist Gender Attitudes Subscale (ESS); Prioritizing Own Sexual Needs Subscale (PRIO). Notably, the items that did not load consistently together where from the objectification of others subscale. Reasons for this, and considerations for addressing this, are explored in greater depth in the Discussion. During a review of the data after EFA was performed, two participants were identified as having unusual response patterns and were removed from the data set to bring the total to 281 (see Methodology for more information on this decision).

Optimize scale length.

Optimizing scale length from the MSEN90 to MSEN40 using MSENa data. To optimize

scale length, items were identified, evaluated, and removed in iterations based first on inspection

of the pattern matrix for factor and cross loadings > .3. Additionally, items were reviewed for

theoretical consistency with the subscale.   Preliminary factor analysis was conducted in SPSS

with a potential 5 and 6 factor solution. This item analysis was conducted on participants from

the MSEN90a sample. Finally, items were removed to obtain a consistent number of items per

subscale. Following each item or set of items being removed a new factor analysis was

conducted in SPSS and each subscale was re-evaluated based on this information.

Initial factor loadings for the MSEN84 were assessed by reviewing the pattern matrix to

identify items with factor loadings < .3. Twelve items (2, 38, 25, 50r, 26, 35, 54, 11, 80, 19, 64,

and 32) were identified with factor loadings below this threshold and removed. Removing these

items yielded the MSEN72.

The MSEN72 had no items with factor loadings < .3. Eleven items (3, 41, 49, 58, 60, 69,

70, 75, 79, 83, and 89), however, had cross-loadings with other subscales ≥ .3 and were removed

to create the MSEN61. In reviewing the MSEN61, two items (9 and 61) now loaded < .3 on their

factors and were removed to create the MSEN59. The MSEN59 had four items flagged for

removal (42, 6r, 28, and 45). Items 42 and 6r did not fit theoretically with the subscale on which

they were loading and were removed; items 28 and 45 had cross-loadings > .3. These changes

yielded the MSEN55. The MSEN55 had one item (48) that no longer loaded > .3 on any factor

and was removed creating the MSEN54. Item 22 was loading on two factors >. 3 and removed

from the MSEN54 to create the MSEN53. The MSEN53's first factor (MIN) was the largest of

all 5 factors with thirteen items (the next largest subscale, ESS, had 11 items and the smallest

subscale, PRIO, had 9). Item 51 was identified as the lowest loading item on MIN in the

MSEN53 and removed to create the MSEN52. The MSEN 52's MIN subscale was still too long with 12 items and item 63 was cross- loading on two subscales; it was removed to yield the MSEN51. Item 59 was cross-loading > .3 and removed to create the MSEN50. The MSEN50 had two items there flagged, item 44 was loading on a scale it was not intended to (loading on the PRIO scale when it was designed to load on the ESS scale) and did not fit theoretically with the subscale. Item 14 was cross-loading >.3 and was removed. Removal of both items yielded the MSEN48. Three items (66, 76, and 23) were identified as not loading with the initial subscale they were designed for and also did not fit theoretically with their factor and were removed to create the MSEN45. At this point it was decided to have each of the 5 subscales have 8 items, given the level of Cronbach's alpha (α = .94) and desire to make the measure more parsimonious. Three items (69, 18r, and 56) with lower factor loadings or higher cross-loadings were identified for removal on the two factors that had more than 8 items yielding the MSEN42. Finally, two remaining subscales has 9 items, so the lowest loading factor on each of these scales (31 and 12) were removed yielding the MSEN40a (α = .93) see Table 4.3.

The Dinno (2012) "paran" package in r was used to perform a second parallel analysis for the MSEN40a. With the 40 items, and 283 observations loaded, the r package based on 5,000 iterations suggested no more than 5 factors be retained. As noted previously, during a review of the data, after EFA was performed, two participants were identified as having unusual response patterns and were removed from the data set to bring the total to 281. All of the analyses after parallel analysis was performed used 281 participants (see Methodology for more information).

Table 4.3

Items, Original Subscale, Factor Loadings, Mean, Standard Deviation, and Item Total correlation MSEN40a.

					Sample (N = 281)				
Item	Orig. SS	ESS	MINI	DEC	PEER	PRIO	*M*	*SD*	*IT-r*
88. Men pursue many sexual experiences because that's how they are programmed.	ESS	**.84**	-.01	.02	-.02	-.03	2.38	1.01	.56
67. Men pursue many sexual partners because of their biology.	ESS	**.79**	-.04	-.01	-.04	.09	2.30	1.08	.55
73. Men are inherently sexually promiscuous.	ESS	**.73**	-.18	.18	.07	-.01	2.19	1.06	.54
74. Men are born with a high sex-drive.	ESS	**.60**	.12	-.06	.08	.01	2.89	1.14	.53
34. Men initiate sex due to genetics.	ESS	**.54**	.21	-.07	-.12	.05	2.45	0.96	.45
10. Men are born to always have sex on their minds.	ESS	**.53**	.06	-.07	.19	-.05	2.36	1.09	.46
15. Men are inherently sexually dominant.	ESS	**.51**	.20	.04	.05	-.05	2.63	1.09	.54
90. Because of a man's hormones, his primary objective in social settings is to obtain a sexual partner.	ESS	**.47**	.07	.19	-.10	.12	2.04	0.88	.54
85. Locker room talk is usually harmless.	MINI	0	**.79**	-.11	.13	-.07	2.84	1.22	.58
37. Often when others claim sexual harassment, they are being too sensitive.	MINI	.03	**.76**	-.02	-.10	.03	2.01	0.95	.55
87. Politicians, athletes, and celebrities are often falsely accused by victims with ulterior motives.	MINI	.17	**.65**	-.09	.05	-.05	2.56	1.14	.56
13. If a woman dresses provocatively, it is understandable that men will stare at her.	MINI	.11	**.64**	-.11	.03	.06	3.39	1.07	.57
43. Someone may claim sexual assault when really the other person was just messing around.	MINI	.00	**.60**	.10	-.12	.13	2.45	1.12	.56
27. A man is not entirely at fault if a woman has had too much to drink and he sexually assaults her.	MINI	.01	**.54**	.13	-.10	.00	1.59	0.82	.47

52. It is not a big deal to catcall someone I find good-looking.	OBJ	.05	**.53**	.15	-.04	-.04	1.81	0.93	.45
8. I see no problem with rating other's attractiveness on a 1-10 scale.	OBJ	.01	**.52**	.07	.19	-.09	3.36	1.12	.54
71. It is okay for a man to say whatever he needs to convince someone to sleep with him.	DEC	.10	.03	**.74**	.02	-.08	1.56	0.78	.60
20. It is okay for a man to lie if it increases his chances of having sex.	DEC	.05	.07	**.68**	.10	-.01	1.87	0.85	.59
72. Others are there to fulfill my sexual needs.	PRIO	.10	-.12	**.66**	-.10	.13	1.51	0.78	.49
81. I would tell someone "I love you," even if it was not true, to increase my chances of having sex.	DEC	.05	-.03	**.65**	.17	-.05	1.56	0.78	.51
36. It is okay to lie in order to hide infidelities from one's partner.	DEC	.04	-.01	**.64**	.05	-.04	1.58	0.73	.44
33. I think deception is a common part of convincing someone to have sex with you.	DEC	.13	-.04	**.56**	.01	-.11	1.69	0.96	.41
1. When someone says "no" to sex it means I need to try harder.	DEC	.03	.21	**.40**	-.16	.17	1.51	0.74	.46
30. When I offer someone a drink and they accept, I expect an opportunity for sexual contact.	DEC	.09	.14	**.38**	.06	.18	1.48	0.68	.51
5. I would be teased by my friends if I did not pursue sexual experiences.	PEER	.05	-.02	-.03	**.71**	-.17	2.70	1.21	.35
29. My friends would make me feel like less of a man if I were to pass on an opportunity to have sex.	PEER	.05	-.03	.09	**.65**	-.14	2.40	1.14	.42
16. I encourage male friends to have sex.	PEER	.03	-.03	-.04	**.62**	.25	3.02	1.10	.51
57. I help my friends get opportunities to have sex.	PEER	.08	.06	-.03	**.62**	.21	2.78	1.17	.52
46. I would have sex with someone to impress my friends.	PEER	.01	-.06	.23	**.52**	.12	2.04	1.13	.56
7. I admire other men who have had many sexual experiences.	PEER	.12	-.20	-.12	**.49**	.26	2.43	0.95	.35

55. My friends and I talk about doing something sexual to someone for our own fun.	PEER	.02	.18	.04	**.47**	.08	2.42	1.23	.53
78. My friends and I describe having sex with someone as "scoring."	PEER	-.04	.25	.17	**.44**	-.16	2.13	1.09	.48
84. I deserve to be sexually gratified by my partner.	PRIO	.04	-.12	-.07	-.03	**.79**	2.73	1.09	.40
86. Men have sexual needs that have to be fulfilled.	ESS	.12	.07	-.03	.05	**.53**	2.81	1.06	.51
4. When I am in a relationship, I expect regular opportunities for sex.	PRIO	.11	.13	-.05	.18	**.52**	3.15	1.06	.47
17. I should get sex when I want it.	PRIO	.02	-.03	.14	-.02	**.51**	1.86	0.77	.41
47. I have a right to have my sexual needs met first.	PRIO	.05	-.07	.20	.00	**.51**	1.93	0.80	.41
53. My partner should cater to my sexual needs.	PRIO	.03	-.01	-.12	.11	**.50**	2.88	0.98	.34
62. If a potential sexual partner played hard to get, I would get frustrated.	PRIO	.10	.10	-.05	-.10	**.49**	2.74	1.03	.39
65. I expect someone to sleep with me if we have previously had sex.	PRIO	.06	.16	.29	-.11	**.36**	2.20	0.94	.48

Note. Bolded scores are the factor loadings; ESS = Essentialist Gender Attitudes; MINI= Minimizing and Dismissing Subscale; DEC = Sexual Deception and Pressure Subscale; PEER = Peer Norms Subscale; PRIO = Prioritizing Own Sexual Needs Subscale. *IT-r = Item-Total r*

Optimizing scale length from MSEN40 to MSEN25 using MSENb data.

While initially it was planned to sustain all 40 items with both samples, when performing the CFA (discussed below) with the MSEN40b sample, it was discovered several fit indices were outside acceptable ranges. It was hypothesized removing items might improve fit indices. This decision was also made taking into consideration shorter scales have more utility for researchers and masculinities scholars have made the call in the field for new measures to be short. This procedure is not typical in the CFA phase and is included here in the EFA section reflecting where ideally this process would have occurred. To clarify, CFA should not be a data-drive

process as was what occurred here. See Discussion for further notation of this as a limitation of the present study.

In identifying items for removal, first each item was reviewed to ensure it was conceptually congruent with the subscale and overall MSE operational definitions. Additionally, factor loadings based on the MSEN40a data, were reviewed for cross-loadings and difference scores > .15. Following this initial flagging for potentially problematic items, MSEN40b data was using to review low r^2, low factor loadings, cross loadings, and item form overlap/redundancy between items, and items flagged with modification indices. There were three rounds of item removal, in each round one item (i.e., 5 items were removed per round) was removed from each subscale. Full scale and subscale Cronbach's alphas were reviewed across each iteration of item removal (see Table 4.5). A summary follows identifying each item which was removed with rationale for removal.

MSEN35. Five items were removed during this round for cross loadings (e.g., item 27); low r^2 relative to other items and high cross loadings (e.g., item 1); conceptual redundancy with another item (e.g. items 13 and 39); and low factor loadings and low r^2 relative to other items (e.g., item 12). This process yielded the MSEN35.

MSEN30. Five items were removed during this round for cross loadings (e.g., items 22 and 17); low r^2 relative to other items (e.g., item 26); cross loading and low r^2 relative to other items (e.g., item 4); and low factor loadings and imprecise wording (e.g., item 40). This process yielded the MSEN30.

MSEN25. Five items were removed during this final round for low r^2 relative to other items (e.g., items 2 and 3); cross loading and low r^2 relative to other items (e.g., item 4); low factor loading (e.g., item 15) and low factor loadings and conceptual redundancy with another item (e.g., items 8 and 19). This process yielded the MSEN25 (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.4
Factor loadings, item statistics for MSEN25b

Item	ESS	PRIO	PEER	MINI	DEC	M	SD	Item total r
28 Men pursue many sexual partners because of their biology.	**0.81**					2.53	1.17	0.52
16 Men initiate sex due to genetics.	**0.78**		-0.15			2.37	1.14	0.56
6 Men are born to always have sex on their minds.	**0.78**					2.30	1.05	0.41
31 Men are inherently sexually promiscuous.	**0.73**					2.30	1.05	0.56
32 Men are born with a high sex-drive.	**0.71**					2.93	1.11	0.48
35 I deserve to be sexually gratified by my partner.		**0.88**	0.14		-0.17	2.70	1.13	0.48
23 My partner should cater to my sexual needs.		**0.78**			-0.12	2.67	1.03	0.50
37 Men have sexual needs that have to be fulfilled.	-0.12	**0.72**				2.89	1.07	0.47
21 I have a right to have my sexual needs met first.	0.12	**0.56**		-0.13	0.23	1.76	0.73	0.52
10 I should get sex when I want it.		**0.53**	-0.10		0.34	1.81	0.78	0.56
25 I help my friends get opportunities to have sex.			**0.87**		-0.11	2.92	1.16	0.44
9 I encourage male friends to have sex.		0.11	**0.71**			3.00	1.06	0.49
24 My friends and I talk about doing something sexual to someone for our own fun.			**0.69**	0.12	0.15	2.46	1.18	0.50
20 I would have sex with someone to impress my friends.			**0.65**	-0.10	0.21	2.25	1.17	0.49
33 My friends and I describe having sex with someone as "scoring."	0.11	0.22	**0.45**			2.25	1.08	0.43
38 Politicians, athletes, and celebrities are often falsely accused by victims with ulterior motives.				**0.80**		2.55	1.14	0.49
18 Often when others claim sexual harassment, they are being too sensitive.	-0.10	0.25		**0.74**	-0.11	1.88	0.88	0.45
36 Locker room talk is usually harmless.		-0.14		**0.73**	0.15	2.87	1.15	0.44
5 I see no problem with rating other's attractiveness on a 1-10 scale.		-0.17	0.24	**0.69**		3.29	1.00	0.47
7 If a woman dresses provocatively, it is understandable that men will stare at her.	0.22		0.11	**0.63**	-0.23	3.23	1.14	0.46
29 It is okay for a man to say whatever he needs to convince someone to sleep with him.		-0.10	-0.12		**0.88**	1.48	0.66	0.40
11 It is okay for a man to lie if it increases his chances of having sex.		-0.12	0.29		**0.71**	1.69	0.69	0.46
34 I would tell someone "I love you," even if it was not true, to increase my chances of having sex.			0.13		**0.54**	1.50	0.67	0.41
14 When I offer someone a drink and they accept, I expect an opportunity for sexual contact.		0.30	-0.10	0.10	**0.51**	1.49	0.63	0.48
30 Others are there to fulfill my sexual needs.		0.25		0.14	**0.44**	1.50	0.77	0.47

Note. N = 210; Bolded items are factor loadings, PRIO = Prioritizing Own Needs subscale of the MSEN, α = .80; DEC = Sexual Deception and Pressure subscale of the MSEN α = .71; PEER = Peer Support subscale of the MSEN α = .78; ESS = Essentialist Gender Attitudes subscale of the MSEN α = .87; MIN = Minimizing and Dismissing subscale of the MSEN α = .79. MSEN 25b total score α = .89. Total scores are means.

Scale reliability.

Hypothesis 1. Masculine sexual entitlement (MSE) will be reliably measured, via coefficient alpha, in the Masculine Sexual Entitlement Norms scale (MSEN).

Reliability analyses were conducted in SPSS to assess coefficient alpha across each of the three samples. In the first sample, reliability was assessed with the MSEN90a, MSEN40a, MSEN25a. With the second sample reliability was assessed with the MSEN40b and MSEN25b. Finally, some participants from the MSENb sample completed the measure again three months later as then MSENc sample (e.g. MSEN40c and MSEN25c). The MSENc sample was not able to be matched with the MSENb sample (as was intended), but offers an additional assessment of internal reliability.

With the first sample, the MSEN90a, MSEN40a, and MSEN25a showed high reliability ($\alpha = .96$, $\alpha = .93$, and $\alpha = .90$ respectively). These results indicate that there was a strong degree of internal consistency in this sample suggesting that the items are tapping a similar construct and that the items have a strong degree of relatedness. Cronbach's alpha decreased slightly between the MSEN90a, MSEN40a, and MSEN25a, but given that the survey went from the 90 to 25 items, with 65 items being removed, it suggests, in this sample, a high level of internal consistency on these items with the items that were retained. In the second sample, the reliabilities were documented at a similar level: MSEN40b $\alpha = .92$ and MSEN25b $\alpha = .89$. The high reliability with the second sample suggests that the MSEN40 and MSEN25 has high internal consistency across two samples. Finally, in the third sample, reliability was calculated for the MSEN40c at $\alpha = .93$ and MSEN25c at $\alpha = .92$.

See Tables 4.5 and 4.6 below for correlations between scales Cronbach's alpha for each

scale, as well as Cronbach's alpha for each subscale's reliability (reported for the MSEN40a,

MSEN 25a, MSEN40b, and MSEN25b).

Table 4.5
Internal consistency for scale and subscales MSEN40a and MSEN40b

	MSEN 40 TS (a/b)	ESS (a/b)	MIN (a/b)	DEC (a/b)	PEER (a/b)	PRIOR (a/b)
	Sample MSENa (*N* = 281) and MSENb (*N* = 210)					
Factor *M*	2.26 / 2.29	2.40 / 2.45	2.50 / 2.49	1.59 / 1.53	2.49 / 2.54	2.54 / 2.48
Factor *SD*	.47 / .49	.76 / .78	.74 / .66	.54 / .44	.77 / .73	.61 / .63
Factor α	.93 / .92	.87 / .87	.86 / .82	.84 / .76	.83 / .81	.79 / .80
MSEN40 TS IC	--	.78***	.76***	.71***	.75***	.76***
ESS IC	.73***	--	.58***	.45***	.38***	.40***
MIN IC	.79***	.59***	--	.42***	.35***	.45**
DEC IC	.78***	.47***	.54***	--	.47***	.49***
PEER IC	.73***	.37***	.46***	.51***	--	.56***
PRIO IC	.71***	.43***	.43***	.52***	.48**	--

Note. * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, *** *p* < .001. MSEN40a scores are below the diagonal, MSEN40b scores are above the diagonal, MSEN40 TS= Masculine Sexual Entitlement Norms 40 Total score; PRIO = Prioritizing Own Needs subscale of the MSEN; DEC = Sexual Deception and Pressure subscale of the MSEN; PEER = Peer Norms subscale of the MSEN; ESS = Essentialist Gender Attitudes subscale of the MSEN; MIN = Minimizing and Dismissing subscale of the MSEN. Total scores are means. Interfactor Correlations (IC).

Table 4.6
Internal consistency for scale and subscales MSEN25a and MSEN25b

	MSEN25 TS (a/b)	ESS (a/b)	MIN (a/b)	DEC (a/b)	PEER (a/b)	PRIO (a/b)
	Sample MSENa (*N* = 281) and MSENb (*N* = 210)					
Factor *M*	2.36 / 2.35	2.44 / 2.49	2.83 / 2.76	1.60 / 1.53	2.48 / 2.58	2.44 / 2.37
Factor *SD*	.57 / .53	.80 / .86	.84 / .78	.58 / .47	.85 / .83	.65 / .72
Factor α	.90 / .89	.80 / .83	.82 / .79	.80 / .71	.79 / .78	.72 / .80
MSEN25 TS IC	--	.73***	.71***	.71***	.73***	.74***
ESS IC	.73***	--	.49***	.40***	.33***	.32***
MIN IC	.79***	.54***	--	.36***	.30***	.37***
DEC IC	.75***	.41***	.48***	--	.48***	.54***
PEER IC	.78***	.36***	.50***	.56***	--	.50***
PRIO IC	.67***	.38***	.32***	.46***	.45***	--

Note. * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, *** *p* < .001. MSEN25a scores are below the diagonal, MSEN 25b scores are above the diagonal. MSEN25TS = Masculine Sexual Entitlement Norms 25 Total score; PRIO = Prioritizing Own Needs subscale of the MSEN; DEC = Sexual Deception and Pressure subscale of the MSEN; PEER = Peer Norms subscale of the MSEN; ESS = Essentialist Gender Attitudes subscale of the MSEN; MIN = Minimizing and Dismissing subscale of the MSEN. Total scores are means. Interfactor Correlations (IC).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

H2b. When confirmatory factor analysis is conducted via structural equation modeling, the final MSEN scale items will demonstrate acceptable fit (i.e., based on the χ^2, TLI, CFI, SRMR, RMSEA and AIC) with a second order (i.e., with a higher order MSEN factor), 6-factor structure demonstrating strongest fit when compared with alternate models.

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted via SEM in r using the Rosseel (2012) "lavaan" package. While it was initially hypothesized there would be a 6-factor model, following EFA, this theory of a 6-factor model was discarded. The reader might note that hypotheses include this 6-factor language, as that was what was originally hypothesized. All analyses, following EFA, used the the 5-factor structure found in EFA. CFA used the revised 5-factor structure for analyses.

Initial assessment of MSEN40 models based on fit indices.

Three preliminary models were tested, a 5-factor model, a 2-factor model, and unidimensional factor model using the MSEN40b data. The 5-factor model postulated items would loaded on their previously established factors that had been identified during EFA. The 2-factor model was a theoretical alternate model that hypothesized items from the essentialist attitudes and peer norms scale would load on one factor and items from the deception, minimization, and prior subscales would load on another factor. The unidimensional factor hypothesized that all items would load under one MSE factor. All three models converged and demonstrated mixed fit (see Table 4.7). The 5-factor model demonstrated the strongest fit, χ^2 [730] =1295.09, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .06 [90% CI of .055, .066], SRMR =.07, CFI = .81, TLI = .80, AIC = 20595.987. However, the CFI and TLI were outside of the acceptable range for the 5-factor model. The 2-factor and unidimensional models demonstrated worse fit across the fit indices respectively. The 2-factor model fit demonstrated mixed fit, χ^2 [739] =1862.700, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .085 [90% CI of .080, .090], SRMR =.093, CFI = .62, TLI = .60, AIC = 21145.596. The unidimensional model also demonstrated mixed fit χ^2 [740] =1991.721, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .09 [90% CI of .085, .095], SRMR =.09, CFI = .58, TLI = .56, AIC = 21272.616.

Table 4.7
MSEN40b fit indices based on 5 factor, 2 factor, and 1 factor models

Index	Factors		
	5 factor	2 factor	1 factor
Chi-square (df)	1295.091 (730)	1862.700 (739)	1991.721 (740)
RMSEA	.061 90% CI [.055, .066]	.085 90% CI [.080, .090]	.090 90% CI [.085, .095]
SRMR	.072	.093	.092
CFI	.810	.623	.580
TLI	.797	.602	.5587
AIC	20595.987	21145.596	21272.616
Note. N = 281.			

Comparing two 2 factor models with MSEN40 based on fit indices.

To assess if there was a better fitting 2-factor model, correlations between the MSEN subscales were reviewed. Stronger correlations were demonstrated generally between the essentialist and minimization subscales as compared with the peer norms, deception, and prioritization subscales.   These models (2-factor based on theory and 2-factor based on correlations) were compared (see Table 4.8). The 2-factor model based on theory, as previously noted, demonstrated mixed fit, χ^2 [739] =1862.700, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .085 [90% CI of .080, .090], SRMR =.093, CFI = .62, TLI = .60, AIC = 21145.596. The 2-factor based on correlations demonstrated mixed fit, but had better fit than the model based on theory, χ^2 [780] =1637.618, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .076 [90% CI of .071, .081], SRMR =.078, CFI = .69, TLI = .68, AIC = 20920.514. The 2-factor model based on correlations was used hereafter as an alternative model.

Table 4.8
MSEN40b fit indices based on 2 factor (theory-based) and 2 factor (correlation-based)

Index	Factors	
	2 Factor (Theory)	2 Factor (Correlations)
Chi-square (df)	1862.700 (739)	1637.618 (780)
RMSEA	.085 90% CI [.080, .090]	.076 90% CI [.071, .081]
SRMR	.093	.078
CFI	.623	.699
TLI	.602	.682
AIC	21145.596	20920.514
Note. N = 281.		

Comparing fit indices of a second order model with other MSEN40 models.

The hypothesized MSEN model presumes a second order model, with an overarching MSE factor with five sub-factors. This model was compared against, the 5-factor model, and 2-factor model. The 5-factor model demonstrated the strongest fit, χ^2 [730] =1295.09, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .06 [90% CI of .055, .066], SRMR =.07, CFI = .81, TLI = .8, AIC = 20595.987. The second order model demonstrated mixed fit, χ^2 [735] =1323.109, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .06 [90% CI of .056, .067], SRMR =.08, CFI = .8, TLI = .8, AIC = 20614.005. The 2-factor based on correlations demonstrated mixed, fit as well, χ^2 [780] =1637.618, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .076 [90% CI of .071, .081], SRMR =.078, CFI = .69, TLI = .68, AIC = 20920.514. While the 5-factor model demonstrated the best fit, the second order model demonstrated generally strong fit as well. In all models the CFI and TLI were not in acceptable ranges. Modification indices were reviewed and it was hypothesized with a shorter measure model fits may improve (see Table 4.9). The process by which items were removed to establish shorter based on the MSENb data is discussed earlier in this chapter (see Optimizing scale length from MSEN40 to MSEN25 using MSENb data).

Table 4.9
MSEN40b fit indices based on 5 factor, Second Order (5 Factor) and 2 factor (correlation-based)

Index	Factor		
	5 Factor	Second Order (5 Factor)	2 Factor
Chi-square (df)	1295.091 (730)	1323.109 (735)	1637.618 (780)
RMSEA	.061 90% CI [.055, .066]	.062 90% CI [.056, .067]	.076 90% CI [.071, .081]
SRMR	.072	.077	.078
CFI	.810	.803	.699
TLI	.797	.791	.682
AIC	20595.987	20614.005	20920.514

Note. N = 281.

Comparing the MSEN35 models.

To further assess model fit, the 5-factor model was compared against the second order and two factor model for the MSEN35. Each model of the MSEN35 demonstrated improved fit compared with each respective model of the MSEN40. The 5-factor model again demonstrated the strongest fit, χ^2 [550] =939.972, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .06 [90% CI of .052, .064], SRMR =.073, CFI = .84, TLI = .83, AIC = 18359.935. The second order model again demonstrated mixed fit, χ^2 [555] = 968.763, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .06 [90% CI of .053, .066], SRMR =.08, CFI = .83, TLI = .82, AIC = 18378.726. The 2-factor model demonstrated mixed, fit as well, χ^2 [559] =1264.324, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .078 [90% CI of .072, .083], SRMR =.08, CFI = .71, TLI = .69, AIC = 18666.288. While the 5-factor model demonstrated the best fit, the second order model demonstrated strong fit as well. Both continued to have CFI and TLI fit indices that were in the unacceptable range. Modification indices were again reviewed and it was hypothesized with a shorter measure model fit may improve (see Table 4.10).

Table 4.10
MSEN35b fit indices based on 5 factor, Second Order (5 Factor) and 2 factor (correlation-based)

	Factor		
Index	Five Factor	Second Order (5 Factor)	Two Factor
Chi-square (df)	939.972 (550)	968.763 (555)	1264.324 (559)
RMSEA	0.058 90% CI [.052, .064]	.060 90% CI [.053, .066]	.078 90% CI [.072, .083]
SRMR	.073	.078	.080
CFI	.843	.834	.717
TLI	.830	.822	.698
AIC	18359.935	18378.726	18666.288
Note. N = 281.			

Comparing the MSEN30 models.

To further assess model fit, the 5-factor model was compared against the second order and two factor model based on MSEN30 items. The 5-factor and second order models of the MSEN30 demonstrated improved fit compared with their respective models of the MSEN35. The 2-factor model of the MSEN30 demonstrated worse fit on some fit indices and improvement on others relative to the 2-factor model of the MSEN35. The 5-factor model again demonstrated the strongest fit, χ^2 [395] = 652.905, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .06 [90% CI of .048, .063], SRMR =.067, CFI = .88, TLI = .86, AIC = 15784.404. The second order model again demonstrated mixed fit, χ^2 [400] = 677.347, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .06 [90% CI of .05, .065], SRMR =.07, CFI = .87, TLI = .86, AIC = 15798.846. The 2-factor demonstrated mixed, fit as well, χ^2 [404] = 944.828, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .08 [90% CI of .073, .086], SRMR =.08, CFI = .74, TLI = .72, AIC = 16058.327. While the 5-factor model demonstrated the best fit, the second order model continued to demonstrate strong fit as well. Both continued to have unacceptable CFI and TLI fit indices, however. Modification indices were again reviewed and it was hypothesized with a shorter measure may improve model fit (see Table 4.11).

Table 4.11
MSEN30b fit indices based on 5 factor, Second Order (5 Factor) and 2 factor (correlation-based)

	Factor		
Index	Five Factor	Second Order (5 Factor)	Two Factor
Chi-square (df)	652.905 (395)	677.347 (400)	944.828 (404)
RMSEA	.056 90% CI [.048, .063]	.057 90% CI [.05, .065]	.080 90% CI [.073, .086]
SRMR	.067	.073	.077
CFI	.877	.867	.741
TLI	.864	.856	.722
AIC	15784.404	15798.846	16058.327

Note. N = 281.

Comparing the MSEN25 models.

To further assess model fit, the 5-factor model was compared against the second order

and two factor model based on MSEN25 items. The 5-factor and second order models of the

MSEN25 demonstrated improved fit compared with their respective models of the MSEN30.

The 2-factor model of the MSEN25 demonstrated worse fit on some fit indices and improvement

on others, relative to the 2-factor model of the MSEN30. The 5-factor model again demonstrated

the strongest fit, χ^2 [265] = 435.134, p < .001; RMSEA = .06 [90% CI of .046, .064], SRMR

=.061, CFI = .90, TLI = .89, AIC = 12985.461. The second order model again demonstrated

mixed fit, χ^2 [270] = 458.035, p < .001; RMSEA = .06 [90% CI of .048, .067], SRMR =.07, CFI

= .89, TLI = .88, AIC = 12998.362. The 2-factor demonstrated mixed, fit as well, χ^2 [274] =

695.920, p < .001; RMSEA = .09 [90% CI of .078, .094], SRMR =.08, CFI = .76, TLI = .74, AIC

= 13228.246. See Table 4.12.

Table 4.12
MSEN25b fit indices based on 5 factor, Second Order (5 Factor) and 2 factor (correlation-based)

	Factors		
Index	Five Factor	Second Order (5 Factor)	Two Factor
Chi-square (df)	435.134 (265)	458.035 (270)	695.920 (274)
RMSEA	.055 90% CI [.046, .064]	.058 90% CI [.048, .067]	.086 90% CI [.078, .094]
SRMR	.061	.069	.078
CFI	.903	.893	.761
TLI	.891	.881	.738
AIC	12985.461	12998.362	13228.246
Note. N = 281.			

Findings from CFA. Taken together these findings suggest that as items were removed from the MSEN40b to the MSEN25b fit indices improved. Generally, the 5-factor model was better supported than alternative models based on theory and data across each iteration. The shortest iteration of the scale was the MSEN25.

CFA conducted with the MSEN25b suggested the 5-factor model demonstrated the best fit. However, the second order model with, an overarching MSE factor, continued to demonstrate strong fit as well with the MSEN25 data. The 5-factor demonstrated acceptable fit for the CFI. Both the five factor and the second order models had TLI fit indices in the unacceptable range, however. The second order model warrants further empirical evaluation and will be adopted. This finding also suggests that the hypothesis that the MSEN would have a 6-factor structure was not supported as CFA suggested a 5-factor model with a second order MSE factor be adopted. See Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2
Second Order Model based on MSEN25b Data
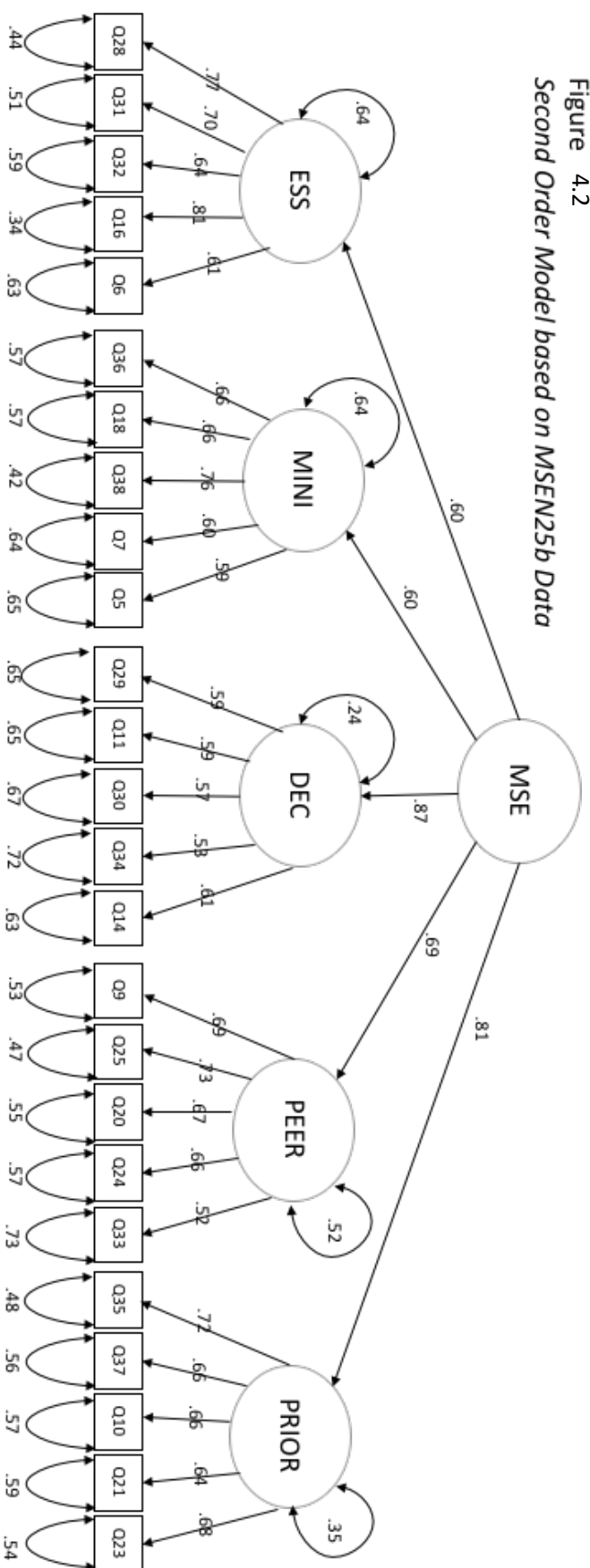
Note. N =210, MSE = Masculine Sexual Entitlement. ESS = Essentialist Gender Attitudes; MINI= Minimizing and Dismissing Subscale; DEC = Sexual Deception and Pressure Subscale; PEER = Peer Support Subscale; PRIO = Prioritizing Own Sexual Needs Subscale.

Construct Validity.

Hypothesis 3. The MSEN scale total score correlations will demonstrate a small or minimal correlation with the Satisfaction With Life scale (SWL) which will provide evidence for discriminant validity.

An analysis was conducted assessing the correlation between the MSEN40b total score and the SWL. A non-statistically significant correlation was found between the MSEN40b and the SWL ($r = -.05$).

An additional analysis was conducted assessing the correlation between the MSEN25b total score and the SWL. A non-statistically significant correlation was found between the MSEN25b and the SWL ($r = -.001$). The absence of a statistically significant relationships suggests this hypothesis was supported indicating that the MSEN represents a conceptually distinct construct from satisfaction with life as measured by the SWL scale.

Hypothesis 4a. MSEN scale total scores will have a low to moderate positive correlations with the following theoretically distinct but related constructs: a) the Sexual Narcissism Scale (SNS) and b) the Male Role Norms Inventory-Short Form (MRNI-SF).

A bivariate correlation was conducted assessing the association between the MSEN40b total score and the SNS. A statistically significant strong correlation was found between the MSEN40b and the SNS ($p < .001$, $r = .71$). A bivariate correlation was also conducted assessing the association between the MSEN25b total score and the SNS. A statistically significant strong correlation was found between the MSEN25b and the SNS ($p < .001$, $r = .71$). The statistically significant and strong relationships suggest this hypothesis was technically supported, however the relationships were stronger than anticipated.

A bivariate correlation was conducted assessing the association between the MSEN40b total score and the MRNI. A statistically significant strong correlation was found between the MSEN40b and the MRNI ($p < .001$, $r = .66$). A bivariate correlation was conducted assessing the association between the MSEN25b total score and the MRNI. A statistically significant strong

correlation was found between the MSEN25b and the MRNI ($p < .001$, $r = .66$). The findings suggest that this hypothesis was technically supported, however the relationships were stronger than anticipated.

> Hypothesis 4b. The Prioritizing Own Sexual Needs (PRIO) subscale of the MSEN will have the strongest correlation of all the MSEN subscales with the Sexual Entitlement (SNSE) subscale on the Sexual Narcissism Scale (SNS).

A bivariate correlation analysis was conducted assessing the association between all of the MSEN40b subscales and each of the SNS 4 subscales. A statistically significant strong correlation was found between the PRIO and the SNSE ($p < .001$, $r = .73$). This was the strongest correlation, (i.e., the association between the PRIO and SNSE) of all the correlations between the MSEN and the SNS subscales. See Table 4.13 outlining the correlations between the PRIO and SNS subscales for MSEN40b data. As hypothesized the relationship between the PRIO and SNSE was the strongest statistically significant relationship between the subscales.

A bivariate correlation analysis was also conducted assessing the associations between the MSEN25b subscales and each of the SNS 4 subscales. A statistically significant strong correlation was found between the PRIO and the SNSE ($p < .001$, $r = .67$). This was the strongest correlation, (i.e., the association between the PRIO and SNSE) of all the correlations between the MSEN and the SNS subscales. See Table 4.14 outlining the correlations between the PRIO and SNS subscales for MSEN25b data. As hypothesized the relationship between the PRIO and SNSE was the strongest statistically significant relationship between the subscales in both iterations of the MSEN (i.e. MSEN 40 and MSEN25).

Table 4.13

Correlations between MSEN40b Subscales and Sexual Narcissism Scale subscales

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.MSEN40	—									
2. PRIO	.76***	—								
3. DEC	.71***	.49***	—							
4. PEER	.75***	.56***	.47***	—						
5. ESS	.78***	.40***	.45***	.39***	—					
6. MIN	.76***	.45***	.42***	.35***	.58***	—				
7. SNEXP	.65***	.58***	.62***	.59***	.38***	.34***	—			
8. SNSE	.70***	.73***	.55***	.54***	.41***	.44***	.66***	—		
9. SNLE	.34**	.18**	.49***	.34**	.14*	.19**	.32***	.21**	—	
10.SNSK	.16*	.23**	-.109	.16*	.13	.13	.13	.19**	-.27**	—

Note. $N = 210$. $* p < .05$, $** p < .01$, $*** p < .001$. MSEN40 = Masculine Sexual Entitlement Norms 40 Total score; PRIO = Prioritizing Own Needs subscale of the MSEN; DEC = Sexual Deception and Pressure subscale of the MSEN; PEER = Peer Norms subscale of the MSEN; ESS = Essentialist Gender Attitudes subscale of the MSEN; MIN = Minimizing and Dismissing subscale of the MSEN; SNEXP = Sexual Narcissism Scale (SNS) Sexual Exploitation subscale; SNSE= SNS Scale Sexual Entitlement subscale; SNLE = SNS Low Empathy subscale; SNSK = SNS Sexual Skill subscale; All reported subscale scores are mean scores.

Table 4.14

Correlations between MSEN25b Subscales and Sexual Narcissism Scale subscales

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.MSEN 25	--									
2. PRIO	.74***	--								
3. DEC	.71***	.54***	--							
4. PEER	.73***	.50***	.48***	--						
5. ESS	.73***	.32***	.40***	.33***	--					
6. MIN	.71***	.37***	.36***	.30***	.49***	--				
7. SNEXP	.63***	.53***	.65***	.56***	.33***	.31***	--			
8. SNSE	.67***	.67***	.58***	.50***	.36***	.40***	.66***	--		
9. SNLE	.31***	.18**	.50***	.32***	.10	.13	.32***	.21**	--	
10.SNSK	.22**	.26***	-.03	.22**	.14	.15*	.13	.19**	-.27***	--

Note. N = 210. * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, *** *p* < .001. MSEN25 = Masculine Sexual Entitlement Norms 25 Total score; PRIO = Prioritizing Own Needs subscale of the MSEN; DEC = Sexual Deception and Pressure subscale of the MSEN; PEER = Peer Norms subscale of the MSEN; ESS = Essentialist Gender Attitudes subscale of the MSEN; MIN = Minimizing and Dismissing subscale of the MSEN; SNEXP = Sexual Narcissism Scale (SNS) Sexual Exploitation subscale; SNSE= SNS Scale Sexual Entitlement subscale; SNLE = SNS Low Empathy subscale; SNSK = SNS Sexual Skill subscale.; All reported subscale scores are mean scores.

Hypothesis 4c. The Peer Norms (PEER), Essentialist Attitudes (ESS), and Minimizing and Dismissing (MIN) MSEN subscales will all correlate more strongly with the SNSE subscale when compared with the other SNS subscales.

Bivariate correlation analyses were conducted assessing the association between the PEER, ESS, and MIN subscales of the MSEN40b and MSEN25b and each of the SNS 4 subscales. See Table 4.15 for all correlations between MSEN and SNS subscales.

PEER subscale. A statistically significant strong correlation was found between the MSEN40b PEER subscale and the SNSE ($p < .001$, $r = .54$), however, a stronger association was found between the MSEN40b PEER subscale and SNEXP subscale ($p < .001$, $r = .59$). A statistically significant strong correlation was also found between the MSEN25b PEER subscale and the SNSE ($p < .001$, $r = .50$). Similarly, a stronger correlation was found between the MSEN25b PEER subscale and SNEXP subscale ($p < .001$, $r = .56$). This indicates the hypothesis that the PEER subscale would be most strongly associated with the SNSE scale of the SNS scales was not supported with either the MSEN40b or MSEN25b data.

ESS subscale. A moderate-to-strong statistically significant correlation was found between the MSEN40b ESS subscale and the SNSE ($p < .001$, $r = .41$). This was the strongest association between the MSEN40b ESS subscale and any of the SNS subscales. A statistically significant moderate correlation was also found between the MSEN25b subscale ESS and the SNSE ($p < .001$, $r = .36$). This was the strongest correlation between the MSEN25b ESS subscale and any of the SNS subscales. This indicates the hypothesis that the ESS subscale would be most strongly associated with the SNSE scale, relative to the other SNS subscales, was supported.

MIN subscale. A statistically significant moderate-to-strong correlation was found between the MSEN40b MIN subscale and the SNSE ($p < .01$, $r = .44$). This was the strongest association between the MSEN40b MIN subscale and any of the SNS subscales. A statistically

significant moderate-to-strong correlation was found between the MSEN25b MIN subscale and the SNSE ($p < .001$, $r = .40$). This was the strongest association between the MIN and any of the SNS subscales. This indicates the hypothesis that the MSEN25b MIN subscale would be most strongly associated with the SNSE scale, relative to the other SNS subscales, was supported. This indicates the hypothesis that the MIN subscale would be most strongly associated with the SNSE scale, relative to the other SNS subscales, was supported.

Table 4.15

Correlations between PEER, ESS, MIN, DEC and SNS subscales in MSEN40b and MSEN25b data

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. PEER	—	.33***	.30***	.48***	.56***	.50***	.32***	.22***
2. ESS	.39***	—	.49***	.40***	.33***	.36***	.10	.16
3. MIN	.35***	.58***	—	.36***	.31***	.40***	.13	.15*
4. DEC	.47***	.45***	.42***	—	.65***	.58***	.50***	-.03
5. SNEXP	.59***	.38***	.34***	.62***	—	.66***	.32***	.13
6. SNSE	.54***	.41***	.44***	.55***	.66***	—	.21**	.19**
7. SNLE	.34***	.14*	.18**	.49***	.32***	.21**	—	-.27***
8. SNSK	.16*	.13	.13	-.11	.13	.19**	-.27**	—

Note. $N = 210$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. MSEN40b data is below the diagonal. MSEN25b data is above the diagonal. PEER = Peer Norms subscale of the Masculine Sexual Entitlement Norms (MSEN); ESS = Essentialist Gender Attitudes subscale of the MSEN; MIN = Minimizing and Dismissing subscale of the MSEN; DEC = Sexual Deception and Pressure subscale of the Masculine Sexual Entitlement Norms (MSEN); SNEXP = Sexual Narcissism Scale (SNS) Sexual Exploitation subscale; SNSE= SNS Scale Sexual Entitlement subscale; SNLE = SNS Low Empathy subscale; SNSK = SNS Sexual Skill subscale. All reported subscale scores are mean scores.

Hypothesis 4d. The Objectification of Others and Sexual Deception and Pressure (DEC) MSEN subscales will correlate more strongly with the SNS Sexual Exploitation (SNEXP) subscale than the other SNS subscales.

The Objectification of Others subscale did not load with the other factors and items from this subscale were subsumed into the other scales. Accordingly, no analysis was conducted with this subscale and this component of the hypothesis was not supported.

A bivariate correlation analysis was conducted assessing the association between the MSEN40b DEC subscale and each of the SNS 4 subscales. A statistically significant strong correlation was found between the DEC and the SNEXP ($p < .001$, $r = .62$). This was the strongest correlation, (i.e., the association between the DEC and SNEXP) of all the correlations between the MSEN40b DEC subscale and the SNS subscales. See Table 4.15 outlining the correlations between the MSEN40b DEC subscale and SNS subscales.

A bivariate correlation analysis was conducted assessing the association between the MSEN25b DEC subscale and each of the SNS 4 subscales. A statistically significant strong correlation was found between the DEC and the SNEXP ($p < .001$, $r = .65$). This was the strongest correlation, (i.e., the association between the DEC and SNEXP) of all the correlations between the MSEN25b DEC subscale and the SNS subscales. See Table 4.15 outlining the correlations between the MSEN25b DEC subscale and SNS subscales. The statistically significant strong relationships suggest this hypothesis was supported.

Hypothesis 4e. The Importance of Sex subscale (MRIMP) of the Male Role Norms Inventory-Short Form (MRNI-SF) will correlate more strongly with the MSEN total scores overall and the MSEN subscales more than the other subscales of the MRNI-SF.

A bivariate correlation analysis was conducted assessing the association between the MSEN40b, MSEN25b subscales and each of the MRNI-SF subscales. A statistically significant strong correlation was found between the MSEN40 total score and the MRIMP subscale ($p <$ .001, $r =$ .64). This was the strongest correlation, (i.e., the association between the MSEN40 total score and MRIMP) of all the correlations between the MRIMP and the MSEN40 total score or MSEN40 subscales. See Table 4.16 outlining the correlations between the MRIMP and MSEN40 subscales. When comparing the strength of the associations between the MRIMP, MSEN40 subscales, and the other MRNI-SF subscales, the associations were generally strongest between the MRIMP and MSEN subscales relative to that of the MRNI-SF subscales as hypothesized with one exception. The MIN subscale had a stronger correlation with both the MRDO (dominance; $p <$ .001, $r =$ .57) and MRTOU (toughness; $p <$ .001, $r =$ .55) subscales than importance of sex ($p <$ .001, $r =$ .51). See Table 4.16 for correlations.

A bivariate correlation analysis was also conducted assessing the association between the MSEN25b, MSEN25b subscales and each of the MRNI-SF subscales. A statistically significant strong correlation was found between the MSEN25b and the MRIMP subscales ($p <$ .001, $r =$ .64). This was the strongest correlation, (i.e., the association between the MSEN40b and MRIMP) of all the correlations between the MRIMP and the MSEN25b or MSEN25b subscales. See Table 4.16 outlining the correlations between the MRIMP and MSEN25b subscales. When comparing the strength of the association between the MRIMP, MSEN25b subscales, and the other MRNI-SF subscales, the associations were again generally strongest between the MRIMP and MSEN subscales relative to that of the MRNI-SF subscales as hypothesized again with the

MIN scale having a different pattern. Again, the MIN had stronger correlations with other MRNI subscales than the MRIMP subscale. The MIN subscale had a stronger correlation with the MRRE (restrictive emotionality; $p < .001$, $r = .46$), MRDO (dominance; $p < .001$, $r = .51$), and MRTOU (toughness; $p < .001$, $r = .52$) subscales than importance of sex subscale ($p < .001$, $r = .45$). Taken together generally MSEN total score and subscales generally had strongest associations with the importance of sex subscale as hypothesized. The exception across both iterations of the MSEN, was the MIN subscale which had stronger associations with several other MRNI subscales and this aspect of the hypothesis was not supported. See Table 4.17 for correlations.

Table 4.16

Correlations between MSEN40 Total Score and subscales and Male Role Norms Inventory SF subscales in MSEN40b sample

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1.MSEN40	-												
2. PRIO	.76***	-											
3. DEC	.71***	.49***	-										
4. PEER	.75***	.56***	.47***	-									
5. ESS	.78***	.40***	.45***	.39***	-								
6. MIN	.76***	.45***	.42***	.35***	.58***	-							
7. MRIMP	.64***	.44***	.47***	.43***	.54**	.51***	-						
8. MRRE	.52***	.30***	.43***	.36***	.39***	.50***	.46***	-					
9. MRSR	.33***	.23*	.22***	.19**	.24**	.35***	.26***	.23***	-				
10.MRNS	.27***	.08	.25***	.08	.21**	.40***	.27***	.29***	.23***	-			
11. MRAF	.48***	.27***	.33**	.29***	.39***	.50***	.58***	.47***	.30***	.48***	-		
12. MRDO	.49***	.29***	.45***	.24**	.35***	.57***	.48***	.41***	.25***	.61***	.59***	-	
13. MRTO	.52***	.37***	.21**	.39***	.40***	.55***	.48***	.41***	.47***	.30***	.47***	.36***	-

Note. $N = 210$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. MSEN40 = Masculine Sexual Entitlement Norms 40 Total score; PRIO = Prioritizing Own Needs subscale of the MSEN; DEC = Sexual Deception and Pressure subscale of the MSEN; PEER = Peer Norms subscale of the MSEN; ESS = Essentialist Gender Attitudes subscale of the MSEN; MIN = Minimizing and Dismissing subscale of the MSEN; MRIMP = Male Role Norms Inventory Short Form (MRNI-SF) Importance of Sex subscale; MRRE = MRNI-SF Restrictive Emotionality subscale; MRSR = MRNI-SF Self-Reliance Through Mechanical Skills subscale; MRNS = MRNI-SF Negativity toward Sexual Minority subscale; MRAF = MRNI-SF Avoidance of Femininity; MRDO = MRNI-SF Dominance subscale; MRTO = MRNI-SF Toughness subscale; All reported subscale scores are mean scores.

Table 4.17

Correlations between MSEN25 Total Score and subscales and Male Role Norms Inventory SF subscales in MSEN25b sample

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1.MSEN25	-												
2. PRIO	.74***	-											
3. DEC	.71***	.54***	-										
4. PEER	.73***	.50***	.48***	-									
5. ESS	.73***	.32***	.40***	.33***	-								
6. MIN	.71***	.37***	.36***	.30***	.49***	-							
7. MRIMP	.64***	.43***	.52***	.41***	.30***	.45***	-						
8. MRRE	.51***	.29***	.44***	.31***	.36***	.46***	.46***	-					
9. MRSR	.34***	.26***	.23**	.21**	.19**	.33***	.26***	.23**	-				
10. MRNS	.27***	.14*	.25***	.09	.16*	.38***	.27***	.29***	.23**	-			
11. MRAF	.48***	.29***	.35***	.30***	.34***	.47***	.58***	.47***	.30***	.48***	-		
12. MRDO	.48***	.30***	.46***	.22**	.30***	.51***	.48***	.42***	.25***	.61***	.59***	-	
13. MRTO	.52***	.36***	.23**	.35***	.37***	.52***	.48***	.41***	.47***	.30***	.47***	.36***	-

Note. N = 210. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. MSEN25 = Masculine Sexual Entitlement Norms 25 Total score; PRIO = Prioritizing Own Needs subscale of the MSEN; DEC = Sexual Deception and Pressure subscale of the MSEN; PEER = Peer Norms subscale of the MSEN; ESS = Essentialist Gender Attitudes subscale of the MSEN; MIN = Minimizing and Dismissing subscale of the MSEN; MRIMP = Male Role Norms Inventory Short Form (MRNI-SF) Importance of Sex subscale; MRRE = MRNI-SF Restrictive Emotionality subscale; MRSR = MRNI-SF Self-Reliance Through Mechanical Skills subscale; MRNS = MRNI-SF Negativity toward Sexual Minority subscale; MRAF = MRNI-SF Avoidance of Femininity; MRDO = MRNI-SF Dominance subscale; MRTO = MRNI-SF Toughness subscale; All reported subscale scores are mean scores.

Hypothesis 4f. When using Westen and Rosenthal's (2003), $r_{alerting-CV}$ procedures for predicting strong and weak correlations, a positive correlation will be found reflecting accurate predictions of the strength of the correlation between the MSEN and related constructs (e.g., Sexual Narcissism Scale subscales, Male Role Norms Inventory-Short Form subscales, Sexual Experiences-Perpetrator Form sum score) and absence of correlation with unrelated constructs (e.g., Satisfaction with Life Scale and Social Desirability Scale). See below for specific predictions.

Construct validity testing using $r_{alerting-CV}$. An additional indicator of construct validity was the $r_{alerting-CV}$. Following the procedure recommended by Westen and Rosenthal (2003), predicted correlations were created based on theory and then compared with obtained correlations. The two columns were then correlated to assess the strength of the associations. The association between the predicted and obtained correlation was a statistically significant strong positive correlation $p = .001$, $r = .84$ for the MSEN40b data. The process was repeated again for the MSEN25b data and the association between the predicted and obtained correlations was also a statistically significant strong positive correlation $p = .001$, $r = .82$. See Tables 4.18 and 4.19 for predicted, obtained, and differences between predicted and obtained scores for MSEN40b and MSEN25b. Together these two findings suggest the hypothesis was supported.

Table 4.18

Predicted and obtained scores between identified subscales and MSEN40b for $r_{alerting-CV}$

Subscales	Predicted r	Obtained r	Difference (predicted – obtained)
SNSE	.40	.70***	-.30
SNEXP	.35	.65***	-.30
SNLE	.20	.34***	-.14
SNSK	.15	.16*	-.01
SWL	.10	-.05	.15
SES	.30	.14*	.16
SDS	-.10	-.10	0
MRAF	.25	.47***	-.22
MRIMP	.30	.63***	-.33
MRDO	.35	.48***	-.13
MRTOU	.25	.52***	-.27

Correlation	r	95% Lower Bound CI	95% Upper Bound CI
$r_{alerting-CV}$	.84**	.48	.96

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < 001$; SNEXP = Sexual Narcissism Scale (SNS) Sexual Exploitation subscale; SNSE= SNS Scale Sexual Entitlement subscale; SNLE = SNS Low Empathy subscale; SNSK = SNS Sexual Skill subscale; Satisfaction With Life scale; SES = Sexual Experiences Survey; SDS = Social Desirability Scale; MRAF = Male Role Norms Inventory Short-Form (MRNI-SF) Avoidance of Femininity subscale; MRIMP MRNI-SF Importance of subscale; MRDO = MRNI-SF Dominance subscale; MRTOU = MRNI-SF Toughness subscale; all scores are mean scores with the exception being the Sexual Experience Survey which is a sum score of all reported acts of sexual aggression.

Table 4.19

Predicted and obtained scores between identified subscales and MSEN25b for $r_{alerting-CV}$

Subscales	Predicted r	Obtained r	Difference (predicted – obtained)
SNSE	.40	.67***	-0.27
SNEXP	.35	.63***	-0.28
SNLE	.20	.31***	-0.11
SNSK	.15	.22**	-0.07
SWL	.10	-.01	0.11
SES	.30	.11	0.19
SDS	-.10	-.09	-0.01
MRAF	.25	.48***	-0.23
MRIMP	.30	.64***	-0.34
MRDO	.35	.48***	-0.13
MRTOU	.25	.52***	-0.27

Correlation	r	95% Lower Bound CI	95% Upper Bound CI
$r_{alerting-CV}$	.82**	.44	.95

Note. * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, *** *p* < 001*;* SNEXP = Sexual Narcissism Scale (SNS) Sexual Exploitation subscale; SNSE= SNS Scale Sexual Entitlement subscale; SNLE = SNS Low Empathy subscale; SNSK = SNS Sexual Skill subscale; Satisfaction With Life scale; SES = Sexual Experiences Survey; SDS = Social Desirability Scale; MRAF = Male Role Norms Inventory Short-Form (MRNI-SF) Avoidance of Femininity subscale; MRIMP MRNI-SF Importance of subscale; MRDO = MRNI-SF Dominance subscale; MRTOU = MRNI-SF Toughness subscale; all scores are mean scores with the exception being the Sexual Experience Survey which is a sum score of all reported acts of sexual aggression.

Hypothesis 5. Individuals from more privileged groups: White, heterosexual, higher socio-economic status, and fraternity-affiliated men will have higher MSEN scale scores than individuals from groups that are not from historically privileged groups including: multiple races or races and ethnicities other than White, sexual minorities, lower socio-economic status, and non-fraternity affiliated.

To test the hypothesis that individuals from more privileged groups would have higher MSEN scores relative to individuals from groups that historically are less privileged, participants were coded into dummy variables such that if they were in a more privileged group (e.g. White) they were given a "1" and if they were from a less privileged group (e.g., races others other than White or multi-racial) they were coded as a "0". See Chapter 2 for more extensive explanation of how these and all participants were dummy-coded by group.

Race and MSEN40. An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare MSEN total scores in individuals who identify as White and individuals that identify as an ethnicity or race other than White or multiracial in the MSEN40a sample. No statistically significant difference was found between individuals who identified as White ($M = 2.25$, $SD = .46$) and those whom hold multiracial identities or had racial identities and/or ethnicities other than White ($M = 2.26$, $SD = .5$). An independent samples t-test was also conducted comparing the same groups in the MSEN40b sample. Similarly, MSEN scores for individuals who identify as White in this sample ($M = 2.28$, $SD = .49$) were shown to have no difference with individuals from other racial ethnic identities or whom were multiracial ($M = 2.33$, $SD = .47$).

Race and MSEN25. An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare MSEN total scores in individuals who identify as White and individuals that identify as an ethnicity or race other than White or multiracial in the MSEN25a sample. No statistically significant difference was found between individuals who identified as White ($M = 2.37$, $SD = .55$) and those who have racial identities or ethnicities other than White ($M = 2.3$, $SD = .58$). An independent samples t-test was also conducted comparing the same groups in the MSEN25b

sample. Similarly, MSEN scores for individuals who identify as White in the MSEN25b

sample ($M = 2.34$, $SD = .53$) were shown to have no difference with individuals from other

racial ethnic identities or whom were multiracial ($M = 2.37$, $SD = .53$). These findings together

suggest the hypothesis that individuals from racially privileged identities will hold higher

levels of MSE was not supported. See Table 4.20 for descriptive statistics and findings.

Table 4.20
Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for MSEN40 and MSEN25 total score by race and ethnicity

	Race and Ethnicity								
	White			Race other than White or multi-racial			95% CI for Mean Difference	*t*	*df*
	M	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*			
MSEN40a total score	2.25	.46	227	2.26	.50	52	-.15, .14	-.09	277
MSEN40b total score	2.28	.49	167	2.33	.47	43	-.21, .12	-.53	208
MSEN25a total score	2.37	.55	227	2.30	.58	52	-.10, .23	.77	277
MSEN25b total score	2.34	.53	167	2.37	.53	43	-.21, .14	-.40	208

Note. * $p < .05$. MSEN total scores is mean score of all responses.

Sexual orientation and MSEN40. An independent samples t-test was conducted to

compare MSEN total scores in individuals who identify as exclusively heterosexual and

individuals that do not exclusively identify as heterosexual in the MSEN40a sample.

Exclusively heterosexual students had a statistically significantly higher MSEN score ($M =$

2.29, $SD = .48$) than individuals that did not identify as exclusively heterosexual ($M = 2.04$, SD

= .34); t (279) = 3.07, p = .002, Cohen's d = .61[5]. An independent samples t-test was also

conducted comparing the same groups in the MSEN40b sample. Exclusively heterosexual

students in this sample also had a statistically significant higher MSEN score (M = 2.36, SD =

.46) than individuals than individuals that did not identify as exclusively heterosexual (M =

2.01, SD = .51); t (207) = 4.41, p < .001, Cohen's d = .74.

    Sexual orientation and MSEN25. An independent samples t-test was conducted to

compare MSEN total scores in individuals who identify as exclusively heterosexual and

individuals that do not exclusively identify as heterosexual in the MSEN25a sample.

Exclusively heterosexual students had a statistically significantly higher MSEN score (M =

2.40, SD = .56) than individuals than individuals that did not identify as exclusively

heterosexual (M = 2.05, SD = .38); t (279) = 3.729, p < .001, Cohen's d = .75. An independent

samples t-test was also conducted comparing the same groups in the MSEN25b sample.

Exclusively heterosexual students in this sample also had a statistically significant higher

MSEN score (M = 2.43, SD = .5) than individuals than individuals that did not identify as

exclusively heterosexual (M = 2.02, SD = .54); t (207) = 4.63, p < .001, Cohen's d = .80. These

findings together suggest the hypothesis that heterosexual individuals reported higher levels of

MSE was supported. See Table 4.21 for descriptive statistics and findings.

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[5] Effect sizes were calculated using the following formula (Cohen, 1988): Cohen's d = (M_2 - M_1)$/SD_{pooled}$. Where SD_{pooled} = $\sqrt{((SD_1{}^2 + SD_2{}^2)/2)}$.

Table 4.21
Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for MSEN40 and MSEN25 total score by sexual orientation

| | Sexual Orientation | | | | | | 95% CI for Mean Difference | | |
| | Heterosexual | | | Individuals who are not exclusively heterosexual | | | | | |
	M	SD	n	M	SD	n		t	df
MSEN40a	2.29	.48	244	2.04	.36	37	.09, .41	3.07**	279
MSEN40b	2.36	.46	167	2.01	.51	42	.20, .52	4.41**	207
MSEN25a	2.40	.56	244	2.05	.38	37	.17, .55	3.73***	279
MSEN25b	2.43	.50	167	2.02	.54	42	.23, .58	4.63***	207

Note. ***p <.001, **p <.01, * p < .05, MSEN total scores is mean score of all responses.

Income and MSEN40. An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare MSEN total scores in individuals who reported a household and/or parental income above $80,000 (i.e., labeled here as "higher income") with those who reported their household and/or parental income was at or below $80,000 (i.e., labeled here has "lower income") in the MSEN40a sample. (for a discussion about why this income level was selected see Methodology). No statistically significant difference was found between individuals labeled "higher income" (*M* = 2.30, *SD* = .47) and those who were labeled "lower income" (*M* = 2.17, *SD* = .45) in the MSEN40a sample. An independent samples t-test was also conducted comparing groups that were divided in the same manner in the MSEN40b sample. Similarly, MSEN scores for individuals who were labeled as higher income (*M* = 2.32, *SD* = .49). had no difference between individuals from other who were "lower income" (*M* = 2.24, *SD* = .45) in the MSEN40b sample.

Income and MSEN25. An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare MSEN total scores in individuals who reported a household parental income above $80,000 (i.e., labeled here as "higher income") with those who reported their house parental income was at

or below $80,000 (i.e., labeled here has "lower income") in the MSEN25a sample. No

statistically significant difference was found between individuals labeled "higher income" (*M* =

2.40, *SD* = .56) and those who were labeled "lower income" (*M* = 2.27, *SD* = .54) in the

MSEN25a sample. An independent samples t-test was also conducted comparing groups that

were divided in the same manner in the MSEN25b sample. Similarly, MSEN scores for

individuals who were labeled as higher income (*M* = 2.38, *SD* = .53). had no difference

between individuals from the lower income category (*M* = 2.28, *SD* = .51) in the MSEN25b

sample. These findings together suggest the hypothesis that individuals from higher income

will hold higher levels of MSE was not supported. See Table 4.22 for descriptive statistics and

findings.

Table 4.22
Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for MSEN40 and MSEN25 total score by income

| | Income | | | | | | | | |
| | Higher Income | | | Lower Income | | | 95% CI for Mean Difference | *t* | *df* |
	M	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*			
MSEN40a	2.30	.47	186	2.17	.45	69	-.01, .25	1.91	253
MSEN40b	2.32	.49	134	2.24	.46	59	-.08, .22	.96	191
MSEN25a	2.40	.56	186	2.27	.54	69	-.02, .29	1.76	253
MSEN25b	2.38	.53	134	2.28	.51	59	-.06, .26	1.21	191

Note. ***p <.001, **p <.01, * p < .05; Higher income participants reported annual parental household income > $80,000, lower income participants reported parental household income < $80,000 (if they identified as a "dependent" for tax purposes), participants reported parental income. MSEN total scores is mean score of all responses.

Fraternity affiliation and MSEN40. An independent samples t-test was conducted to

compare MSEN total scores in individuals who reported membership in a fraternity with those

who had not pledged to a fraternity in the MSEN40a sample. No statistically significant

difference was found between fraternity-affiliated men (*M* = 2.36, *SD* = .53) and those who

were not affiliated with a fraternity (*M* = 2.24, *SD* = .46) in the MSEN40a sample. An

independent samples t-test was also conducted comparing groups that were divided in the same manner in the MSEN40b sample. In contrast, in this sample, MSEN scores for individuals who were affiliated with a fraternity ($M = 2.47$, $SD = .38$) were higher than individuals who were not affiliated with a fraternity ($M = 2.26$, $SD = .49$) $p = .036$ in the MSEN40b sample. These findings provide inconsistent support for the hypothesis that individuals affiliated with a fraternity will hold higher levels of MSE. The MSEN40a sample data did not support the hypothesis, but the MSEN40b sample data did support the hypothesis that fraternity affiliated men will hold higher levels of MSE. See Table 4.23 for descriptive statistics and findings.

Fraternity affiliation and MSEN25. An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare MSEN total scores in individuals who reported membership in a fraternity with those who had not pledged to a fraternity in the MSEN25a sample. No statistically significant difference was found between fraternity-affiliated men ($M = 2.40$, $SD = .56$) and those who were not affiliated in a fraternity ($M = 2.27$, $SD = .54$) in the MSEN25a sample. An independent samples t-test was also conducted comparing groups that were divided in the same manner in the MSEN25b sample. MSEN25b scores for individuals who were affiliated with a fraternity ($M = 2.52$, $SD = .39$) were not higher than individuals who were not affiliated with a fraternity ($M = 2.32$, $SD = .54$) $p = .057$.

Taken together across samples, these findings provide inconsistent support for the hypothesis that individuals affiliated with a fraternity will hold higher levels of MSE. The MSEN40a, MSEN25a, and MSEN25b data did not support this hypothesis, but the MSEN40b data did support the hypothesis that fraternity-affiliated men will hold higher levels of MSE. See Table 4.23 for descriptive statistics and findings.

Table 4.23

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for MSEN40 and MSEN25 total score by
fraternity affiliation

| | Fraternity Affiliation | | | | | | | | |
| | Fraternity Affiliation | | | No Fraternity Affiliation | | | 95% CI for Mean | | |
	M	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	Difference	*t*	*df*
MSEN40a	2.36	.53	35	2.24	.46	243	-.05, .29	1.42	276
MSEN40b	2.47	.38	28	2.26	.50	181	.01, .40	2.11*	207
MSEN25a	2.51	.66	35	2.33	.54	243	-.02, .38	1.791	276
MSEN25b	2.52	.39	28	2.32	.54	181	-.01, .41	1.916	207

Note. ***$p <.001$, ** $p <.01$, * $p < .05$; MSEN total scores is mean score of all responses.

Hypothesis 6. The MSEN scale will predict self-reported sexual aggression as measured by the Sexual Experiences Survey (SES-PF). Individual factors (e.g., race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, age of first sex) would be contributing factors to predatory behavior such that more privileged identities and having had sex earlier will be more predictive of predatory behaviors.

A two-step multiple regression analysis was conducted to assess the degree to which higher scores on the MSEN40b predicted self-reported sexually aggressive behavior as measured by the Sexual Experiences Survey-Perpetrator Form (SES-PF). The first step of the model included age of first having had sex, sexual orientation, and racial/ethnic identity. The second step added the MSEN40b and the Male Role Norms Inventory Short Form (MRNI-SF). The first overall regression was not statistically significant, $F (3, 157) = 1.67$, $p = .175$ $R^2 = .03$ and no predictors were significant. The second step of the model was statistically significant, $F (2, 155) = 3.06$, $p = .01$ $R^2 = .09$. For step 2, the MSEN40 ($\beta = .32$, $t = 3.02$, $p = .003$) was the strongest predictor. The only other significant predictor was race/ethnicity ($\beta = .16$, $t = 2.03$, $p = .044$; see Table 4.24).

Table 4.24

Summary of Multiple Regression for demographic, MSEN40, and MRNI-SF scores predicting SES-PF scores

Variable	B	SE B	β	r^2	Δr^2	p
Step 1				.03	.03	.18
Sexual orientation (dummy)	.09	.08	.08			.31
Race (dummy)	.16	.09	.15			.06
Age of first sex	-.007	.02	-.03			.72
Step 2				.09	.06	.01
Sexual orientation (dummy)	.04	.09	.04			.67
Race (dummy)	.17	.08	.16*			.04
Age of first sex	.00	.02	-.002			.98
MSEN40	.28	.09	.32*			.003
MRNI-SF	-.12	.08	-.16			.15

Note. N = 210, Sexual orientation and racial identity were dummy coded such that respondents with privileged identities (e.g., exclusively heterosexual and exclusively White) were coded as "1". If an individual reported multiple identities or another identity they were coded as "0". MSEN40 = Masculine Sexual Entitlement Norms Scale 40, MRNI-SF = Male Role Norms Inventory-Short Form, Step 1 = F (3, 157) = 1.67, p = .175 R^2 = .03; Step 2 = F (2, 155) = 3.06, p = .01 R^2 = .09. * p < .05

A two-step multiple regression analysis was conducted to assess the degree to which higher scores on the MSEN25 predicted self-reported sexually aggressive behavior as measured by the Sexual Experiences Survey-Perpetrator Form (SES-PF). The first step of the model included age of first having had sex, dummy-coded sexual orientation, and dummy-coded racial/ethnic identity. The second step added the MSEN25 and the Male Role Norms Inventory Short Form (MRNI-SF). The first overall regression was not statistically significant, F (3, 157) = 1.67, p = .175 R^2 = .03 and no predictors were significant. The second step of the model was statistically significant, F (2, 155) = 3.06, p = .05 R^2 = .04. For step 2, the MSEN25 (β = .26, t = 2.41, p = .017) was the strongest predictor. The only other significant predictor was race (β = .16, t = 2.01, p = .046; see Table 4.25).

Table 4.25

Variable	B	$SE\ B$	β	r^2	$\Delta\ r^2$	p
Summary of Multiple Regression for demographic, MSEN25, and MRNI-SF scores predicting SES-PF scores						
Step 1				.03	.03	.18
Sexual orientation (dummy)	.09	.08	.08			.31
Race (dummy)	.16	.09	.15			.06
Age of first sex	-.01	.02	-.03			.72
Step 2				.07	.04	.05
Sexual orientation (dummy)	.04	.09	.04			.67
Race (dummy)	.17	.08	.16*			.05
Age of first sex	.01	.02	.01			.97
MSEN25	.21	.09	.26*			.02
MRNI-SF	- .09	.08	-.12			.29

Note. N = 210, Sexual orientation and racial identity were dummy coded such that respondents with privileged identities (e.g., exclusively heterosexual and exclusively White) were coded as "1". If an individual reported multiple identities or another identity they were coded as "0". MSEN25 = Masculine Sexual Entitlement Norms Scale 25, MRNI-SF = Male Role Norms Inventory-Short Form, Step 1 = $F\ (3, 157) = 1.67$, $p = .175$ $R^2 = .03$; Step 2 = $F\ (2, 155) = 3.06$, $p = .05$ $R^2 = .04$. * $p < .05$

Chapter 5 Discussion

Masculine Sexual Entitlement represents an important yet relatively understudied construct in the literature. While researchers have enhanced our understanding of masculinity and sexual entitlement (e.g., Bouffard, 2010; Hill & Fisher, 2001) scholars within the field of Men and Masculinities have made a recent call to better understand the role of sexual entitlement as it relates to masculinities and violence prevention (Schwartz, 2015). The significance of this construct is highlighted here as scholarship (McDermott et al., 2015) continues to reveal how problematic aspects of masculine socialization contribute to widespread sexualized violence, largely against women, mostly perpetrated by men (e.g., Black et al., 2011). The present study sought to better articulate MSE through the development of a survey.

This instrument was designed based on an author-generated operational definition that informed the development of 6 subscales that were hypothesized to conceptualize MSE. The development of the Masculine Sexual Entitlement Norms scale (MSEN), and the MSE construct, items, and subscales involved evaluation by content experts and feedback from focus groups of undergraduate emerging adult men. Initially the MSEN had 90 items (i.e., the MSEN90) that were administered to a preliminary sample. Items analysis was conducted and items were removed based on best practices suggested by DeVellis (2017). This yielded a 40-item survey (i.e., the MSEN40) that was administered to a second sample along with other instruments to assess construct validity. Several hypotheses were explored to assess the internal reliability, construct validity, explore within and between group differences of scores on the MSEN, and the instrument's ability to predict self-reported violent behaviors. Exploratory factor analysis suggested the items and the construct overall reflected 5 factors, not 6. The MSEN40 was administered again, three months later, to a sub-sample of participants derived

from the second sample. During confirmatory factor analysis, review of fit indices of the MSEN40 with a 5-factor structure, suggested the model was not a good fit to the data. Items were removed, despite this not being typically done in the confirmatory factor analysis phase, and it was discovered that fit indices improved with each successively shorter iteration of the instrument. Preliminary support was found for a second order, 5-factor scale with 25 items (i.e., the MSEN25). While the MSEN25 is the instrument the author will prioritize publishing and conducting research with (i.e., given calls from scholars to have shorter instruments) analysis of and inclusion of the MSEN40 in this document appeared indicated as a few differences were found between the MSEN40 and MSEN25 that the author wanted to ensure were acknowledged.

While further validation on the instrument is warranted, the author's hypotheses generally were supported and suggest this scale holds promise in developing the construct of masculine sexual entitlement. In addition to a review of the hypotheses in the study, limitations, and future directions are discussed.

Hypothesis 1. The first hypothesis was that masculine sexual entitlement (MSE) would be reliably measured, via coefficient alpha, in the Masculine Sexual Entitlement Norms scale (MSEN). It was found that across iterations of the MSEN that both the full scale and subscales demonstrated strong to adequate reliability. These findings are consistent with other studies on related constructs that have demonstrated high internal consistency (e.g. Widman & McNulty's 2010 Sexual Narcissism Scale) on related measures. The MSEN25 demonstrated improved internal reliability relative to other measures of related constructs (i. e., sexual entitlement as measured by the Hanson Sexual Attitudes Questionnaire; Hill & Fisher, 2001). When comparing MSEN subscales with other shorter subscales the MSEN subscales demonstrate

comparable reliability (i.e., the Index of Sexual Narcissism; Wryobeck & Wiederman, 1999, and Bouffard, 2010).

This study's unique contribution to the literature is that it offers a measure for a construct that previously has been inadequately operationalized and articulated. No prior published research has integrated the masculinities literature into a conceptualization of sexual entitlement and described it as masculine sexual entitlement. No prior study has included these five subscales and found empirical support for them to be related and unified under this overarching construct. This study lends preliminary evidence to suggest the items and subscales that were hypothesized to represent masculine sexual entitlement are related and provide tentative support for the conceptual model of MSE as articulated by the subscales.

Hypothesis 2. The second hypothesis had two components. The first component was an underlying 6-factor structure would be demonstrated when exploratory factor analysis was performed on the MSEN. This hypothesis was not supported. Exploratory factor analysis suggested the scale was best represented by a 5-factor structure. Items generally loaded on their intended factors for five of the six factor suggesting items represented their intended constructs. Factors were derived from a thorough literature review in which each factor could theoretically be linked to an aspect of MSE.

However, one of the six subscales, objectification of others, did not represent a unique factor in the data with this pool of items when evaluated via factor analysis. This finding is inconsistent with theoretical writing on sexual entitlement in men (e.g., Jordan, 1987; Kilmartin & Berkowitz, 2005; O'Neil, 1981; Schwartz & DeKeseredy, 1997). A possible explanation for this finding could be these items were written to not specify objectification of women. Much of the theoretical writing on objectification as a component of masculine entitlement is specific to objectification of women (Gilbert, 1992 and Jordan, 1987). Because

items on the MSEN were not gendered this could account for this factor not representing a component of MSE. Additionally, another explanation is that the items were all-author generated. Future research would likely benefit from exploration of developing items more closely based on an already validated measures of objectification (e.g., (Kozee, Tylka, Augustus-Horvath, & Denchik, 2007; Matteson & Moradi, 2005). Matteson and Moradi's (2005) Schedule of Sexist Events measure includes a subscale on sexist degradation ($\alpha = .87$) and could be used to inform the development of items that might better represent MSE. Additionally, Kozee's Interpersonal Sexual Objectification Scale includes two factors Body Evaluation ($\alpha = .91$) and Unwanted Explicit Sexual Advances ($\alpha = .78$) which too could provide helpful themes for items. Another important consideration is that objectification of others, as conceptualized in this dissertation, may not be a component of MSE. Future research should explore this further before objectification of others is completely excluded from the construct.

The second component of hypothesis 2 postulated when confirmatory factor analysis was conducted via structural equation modeling, the final MSEN scale items and six-factor structure would demonstrate acceptable fit (i.e., based on the $\chi 2$, TLI, CFI, SRMR, RMSEA and AIC) and show stronger fit with a second order model (i.e., with a higher order MSE factor), when compared with alternate models. While the hypothesis that the structure would have six factors was not supported, the hypothesis that the MSEN would have acceptable fit in a 5-factor model was generally supported. The MSEN25 with a second order model, with an MSE overarching factor, demonstrated adequate fit for the SRMR and RMSEA and close to adequate fit for the TLI and CFI. When compared with a two-factor model, the model with a second order MSE factor demonstrated to be a better fit based on the AIC. While $\chi 2$ was

significant, across all models with the MSEN, it is rare to have non-significant χ2 (Westen &

Gore, 2006).

These findings are consistent with other research (Widman and McNulty, 2010) that

have demonstrated comparable constructs demonstrate adequate fit what evaluated via CFA.

Others who have developed scales on related constructs such as sexual entitlement (i.e.,

Hanson' Sexual Attitudes Questionnaire) or sexual narcissism (i.e., Hurtlbert's Index of Sexual

Narcissism), however, have not used SEM or CFA in the development of their measures. The

unique contribution of this study is that the measure of MSE was evaluated using best practices

as outlined by Worthington and Whittaker, (2006) which includes performing EFA and CFA

via SEM. Although further validation and additional CFA is indicated (as it is unconventional

to systematically remove several items during CFA) ultimately the MSEN25 did demonstrate

adequate and close to adequate fit across several fit indices with a second order 5-factor model.

Hypothesis 3. The third hypothesis that the MSEN would demonstrate small or

minimal correlation with the Satisfaction with Life Scale was supported. The MSEN across

several iterations of the scale and two samples demonstrated a non-significant correlation with

the SWL. This finding is important given that other often cited studies of related constructs—

i.e., Widman and McNulty's (2010) Sexual Narcissism Scale and Hurlbert and Apt's (1991)

Index of Sexual Narcissism)—did not report evidence of discriminant validity. Another related

construct Hanson's (1994) Sexual Attitudes Questionnaire, did report that the Marlowe-

Crowne's Social Desirability Scale did not have a statistically significant relationship with the

sexual entitlement subscale but did not discuss this as evidence of discriminant validity. This

scale's demonstrated evidence of discriminant validity is thus a noted contribution of the

present study in line with best practices for scale development as suggested by DeVellis

(2017).

Hypothesis 4. The fourth hypothesis had six components related to construct validity. Specific predictions were made about the strength of the relationship between MSEN subscales and other measures. Components of the hypothesis are discussed here briefly and discussed in the context of research more broadly as relevant.

First, it was hypothesized the MSEN mean score would have a low to moderate positive correlation with the following theoretically distinct but related constructs: a) the Sexual Narcissism Scale (SNS) and b) the Male Role Norms Inventory-Short Form (MRNI-SF). This hypothesis underestimated the strength of the relationships and it was found associations were stronger than predicted. Together these findings suggest the MSE is related to sexual narcissism and masculinity. The association between masculinity, sexual entitlement, and constructs related to sexual violence has been previously explored (e.g. Hill & Fisher, 2001). Hill and Fisher (2001) found associations between sexual entitlement and composite masculine gender scores of masculinity variables of "restriction" and "status". In their findings they used a measure of entitlement (i.e., the Hanson Sexual Attitudes Questionnaire) that has noted limitations (see Chapter 2). The present research more fully explores factors of masculine sexual entitlement—or the related construct of sexual narcissism and masculinity—which represents a unique contribution of the current study.

Several hypotheses were generated related about the relationship of subscales of the MSEN with other measures. The Prioritizing Own Sexual Needs (PRIO) subscale on the MSEN was anticipated to have the strongest correlation of all the MSEN subscales with the Sexual Entitlement (SNSE) subscale on the Sexual Narcissism Scale (SNS). This finding was supported with both iterations of the measure. This finding is not surprising given from the high level of conceptual overlap between MSE and items/subscales on Widman and McNulty's (2010) measure on sexual narcissism.

Third, it was hypothesized the Peer Norms (PEER), Essentialist Attitudes (ESS), and Minimizing and Dismissing (MIN) MSEN subscales would all correlate more strongly with the SNSE subscale compared with the other SNS subscales. This hypothesis was supported for both the ESS and MIN subscales. However, for the PEER subscale it was found in both the MSEN40 and MSEN25 iterations that the relationship was stronger with the SNEXP (Exploitation) subscale. Although the strength of the relationship was marginally stronger than with the SNSE scale it is still noteworthy. Given the high conceptual overlap between sexual entitlement and sexual exploitation this finding should be interpreted with caution and it would be beneficial to see if future studies replicate this finding.

Fourth, it was hypothesized the Objectification of Others and Sexual Deception and Pressure (DEC) MSEN subscales would demonstrate stronger relationships with the SNS Sexual Exploitation subscale than the other SNS subscales. Given the Objectification of Others subscale was not demonstrated to be a unique factor in the MSEN no analysis was conducted on this aspect of the hypothesis (see discussion on this earlier in Results under Hypothesis 2). The DEC subscale did demonstrate the strongest association with the SNEXP subscale of all the SNS subscales. This finding is also not surprising as items of the DEC subscale focused on deception, coercion, and pressure, and have considerable conceptual overlap with the SNEXP subscale items which focus on sexual exploitation and was defined by Widman and McNulty (2010) to measure: "the ability and willingness to manipulate a person to gain sexual access" (p. 929). While the DEC subscale had a broader operational definition: "supporting attitudes or engaging in behaviors that involve deception, pressure, or manipulation in sexual relationships" it is not unexpected that these scales would be strongly related. The unique contribution of the DEC subscale of the MSEN may be in the emphasis on behaviors, such as using alcohol or lying, that is not represented in the SNEXP subscale. This emphasis on

behaviors stems from the author becoming familiar with these red flag behaviors through working in the field of violence prevention for the last three years. These potentially under-represented concepts reflect what Crocker and Algina (2008) described as "direct observations" and are not yet well-captured in studies on sexual entitlement and represent a unique contribution to research that has not had strong prior empirical evaluation.

Fifth, it was hypothesized the Importance of Sex subscale of the Male Role Norms Inventory-Short Form (MRNI-SF) would correlate more strongly with the MSEN total score and subscales overall than the other subscales of the MRNI-SF. This hypothesis was generally supported. This hypothesis was based in part, by prior research having established a strong association between the related construct of sexual narcissism and importance of sex (Wryobeck & Wiederman, 1999). Further, given the focus of MSEN scales items on sex and sexuality it logically follows that these subscales would have stronger relationships with the MRNI-SF subscale focusing on the importance of sex. The exception to this trend was the MIN subscale which had higher correlations with MRNI-SF subscales on: dominance and toughness in the MSEN40 analysis. In the MSEN25 analysis, the MIN subscale had higher associations with MRNI-SF subscales on restrictive emotionality, avoidance of femininity, dominance, and toughness than the importance of sex subscale. Caution should be taken here, however, as the difference of the correlation between the MIN ($r = .45$) and importance of sex is comparatively small relative to the four other previously noted MRNI subscales with correlations ranging between .46 - .52 with the MIN. Given this was the only subscale which demonstrated this trend, it is explored further here. The MIN subscale may represent a unique aspect of MSE as it relates to masculinity in the context of sexuality. This dissertation is the first to propose minimization as an aspect of MSE of any studies on sexual entitlement and narcissism (although Hurlbert et al., 1994 were influential in the development of the MIN subscale). This

link is otherwise absent in other writing on sexual entitlement (e.g., Gilbert, 1992 and Jordan, 1997). Future research may benefit from seeing if similar trends emerge with the longer form of the MRNI but also exploring if the MIN demonstrates a similar trend when explored with other masculinities scales (e.g., Gender Role Conflict Scale, Conforming to Masculine Norms Inventory etc.).

Sixth, it was hypothesized when using Westen and Rosenthal's (2003), $r_{alerting-CV}$ procedures for predicting strong and weak correlations, a positive correlation would be found reflecting accurate predictions of the strength of the correlation between the MSEN and related constructs (e.g., Sexual Narcissism Scale subscales, Male Role Norms Inventory-Short Form subscales, Sexual Experiences-Perpetrator Form sum score) and absence of correlation with unrelated constructs (e.g., Satisfaction with Life Scale and Social Desirability Scale). This hypothesis was supported. Generally, this finding provides additional evidence for the construct validity of the MSEN given the anticipated relationships of published measures were consistent with the author's predictions. The correlations of the $r_{alerting-CV}$ as a construct validity index were higher than anticipated as were the observed correlations. This suggests there is a higher degree of overlap in the constructs than expected. While construct validity is dependent on sample and use of a given instrument (Hoyt, Warbasse, & Chu 2006) the present study offers promising preliminary evidence to the literature and suggests further study on this instrument is warranted. Additionally, few studies have used Westen and Rosenthal's procedures as a means of demonstrating construct validity. This dissertation's use of this process is an example as a way in which researchers can use this relatively simple procedure to predict relationships and a priori assess the strength of their predictions.

Hypothesis 5. It was hypothesized men from more privileged groups (i.e., those who identify as: exclusively White, exclusively heterosexual, report higher family or personal

income, and fraternity-affiliated) would have higher MSEN total scores than individuals from groups that are not historically considered privileged (i.e., those who identify: as a race or ethnicity other than exclusively White, sexual minorities, lower reported personal or family income, and non-fraternity affiliated). This hypothesis reflects a general trend in sociological research on masculinity and violence prevention (e.g. Kimmel, 2009) that suggests male entitlement more broadly is connected to privileged identities.

The present study postulated that the broader experience of privilege would be associated with higher levels of MSE, but this hypothesis generally not supported. There were two notable exceptions, however. First, those who identified as a sexual orientation other than exclusively heterosexual had lower MSEN total scores than individuals who identified exclusively as heterosexual. This finding is relatively novel as historically sexual entitlement or the related construct of sexual narcissism has only been measured in straight samples of men and women (Widman & McNulty, 2010) or all-male samples in which sexual orientation was not reported (Hanson et al., 1994; Hurlbert et al. 1991; Wyrobeck & Wiederman, 1999). This difference in elevated levels of sexual entitlement in heterosexual men warrants further consideration. Drawing from the masculinities literature might help contextualize this finding. For example, Levant and Richmond (2007) in their summary on the MRNI reported that gay men, across studies, tended to be less likely to endorse traditional masculine norms. Given endorsement of MSE was shown in the present study to be connected to traditional masculine norms, it is not surprising that men who do not identify exclusively as heterosexual may have lower MSEN scores. Other research in the form of a qualitative study of 18 graduate students, found that being from an oppressed group, including being gay, contributed to individuals reporting having more empathy for individuals from other oppressed groups (Croteau, Talbot, Lance, & Evans, 2002). This finding has been bolstered by other research that has found sexual

minority men demonstrate more empathy than heterosexual men (Kleiman, Spanierman, & Smith, 2015). This trend in research could provide some context for the findings of the current study and it appears plausible sexual minorities hold lower levels of MSE as they might be more empathic with partners. Further research should continue to explore MSE in the context of sexual orientation.

The second finding, in which MSE levels were different based on a social identity was the inconsistent difference in MSEN scores between fraternity and non-fraternity affiliated men. In one sample, in one iteration of the MSEN (i.e., the MSEN40) MSE scores were elevated in fraternity-affiliated relative to non-affiliated men. This hypothesis reflected the relatively stable finding that related constructs (e.g., Rape Myth Acceptance and Hyper Masculinity) are elevated in fraternity men relative to non-fraternity men (Murnen & Kohlman, 2007). The absence of consistent findings in the present study could reflect the relatively small sample of fraternity-affiliated men in both samples. This difference warrants exploration with larger samples of fraternity and non-fraternity men.

Noticeably there was no difference in sexual entitlement scores based on race and ethnicity or income. This absence of difference warrants further consideration. Studies on sexual narcissism have used only White samples (Hanson et al., 1994), have not explored differences based on race or ethnicity (Widman & McNulty, 2010), or not found differences based on race or ethnicity when studied (Hurlbert & Apt, 1994). This last finding is consistent with the current findings of this study. It was hypothesized there would be a difference as research has found that race or ethnicity can impact awareness of gender inequality. For example, Harnois (2017) found that ethnic minorities hold greater awareness of gender inequality. While awareness of gender inequality and sexual entitlement are different constructs, it seemed reasonable to surmise a similar trend might be found in the present study

where racial and ethnic minorities would have lower MSEN score. Contrasting this finding, however, Levant and Richmond (2007) noted a trend in African American college men to endorse traditional masculinity at the same or higher levels than European American men. Thus, the findings that MSEN scores do not vary across racial ethnic groups could be similar to some trends already found in the masculinities literature related to traditional masculinity. The absence of difference in MSE could thus reflect there is indeed no difference based on these identity markers. One important consideration, however, is that these studies had a relatively small number of participants who were not White. Race and ethnicity should be further studied as it relates to MSEN scores.

Additionally, there was no difference found in MSEN scores based on reported income. Although it was hypothesized that individuals who come from a more privileged background might hold higher levels of MSE, this was not supported. Research has found individuals from lower social class backgrounds report higher levels of traditional masculinity (Levant & Richmond, 2007). While it is important to not conflate income and social class, as the two represent related but distinct constructs, no other studies on sexual narcissism or sexual entitlement reported findings related to income or social class so this area represents a gap in the literature that current study begins to address. Further exploration too here would be beneficial.

Hypothesis 6. It was hypothesized the MSEN total score would predict self-reported sexual aggression as measured by the Sexual Experiences Survey (SES-PF). Individual factors (e.g., race, sexual orientation, age of first sex) were hypothesized to be contributing factors to predatory behavior such that more privileged identities and having had sex earlier will be more predictive of predatory behaviors. For both the MSEN25 and MSEN40, MSEN scores were significant predictors of self-reported sexual aggression, when included in a model with sexual

orientation, race, and age of first having had sex, and the MRNI. However, MSEN scores and race were the only significant predictors in the models.

A noteworthy finding as well, for this study, was that age of first having had sex had no bearing on predicting sexual violence perpetration. This is highlighted here, as one of the more highly regarded theories of sexual aggression, Malamuth et al.'s (1991) confluence model includes early sexual experiences has an important component of their sexual promiscuity pathway that is a predictor of later sexual aggression. This trend has been found in other related measures (i.e., Widman and McNulty's 2010 Sexual Narcissism scale). This pathway not being a significant predictor was unexpected and could reflect limitations how this variable was measured.

Perhaps most importantly, MSE was found to be linked to self-reported behaviors of sexual aggression. This finding is consistent with other research on the related construct of sexual narcissism being linked to sexual aggression (Widman & McNulty, 2010). Additionally, it is consistent with other research that has found entitlement to mediate the link between masculinity variables and rape-related attitudes (Hill & Fischer, 2001). Additionally, it is consistent with prior research that has found entitlement can predict individuals who will be sexually aggressive (Bouffard, 2010). The unique contribution of this study is that MSE, as a new construct, captured by five not previously organized or unified subscales significantly predicts sexual violence. This scale thus builds on an emerging literature that is helping to identify factors related to perpetration of sexual violence.

Limitations

There are several important limitations to consider to this study. One limitation is that the construct of MSE and the subscales thereof, were largely developed by one person, the author of this dissertation. The MSEN scale and items were developed through a thorough

literature review and the professional experiences of the author working in a violence prevention office for three years, teaching a seminar-style sexual violence prevention course to undergraduate fraternity men, and completion of several professional trainings on violence prevention. It is possible, however, aspects of MSE as conceptualized by this author, may not be adequately or fully captured due to unintended biases. One way to address this limitation is that undergraduate men reviewed and provided feedback on the scale and items in focus groups. Additionally, the items and subscales were submitted to a diverse segment of content experts for feedback to promote content validity. Further, an independent reviewer (the chair of this dissertation) co-evaluated the combined feedback from content experts to control for bias. While eight content experts provided feedback and general support (see methodology for review) for the content validity of the subscales and items, six additional individuals who were sent the scale for feedback did not provide substantive feedback on the scales or items. Of the six, two reported they did not have sufficient time to review the measure. Additionally, another reviewer provided general feedback about the test construction process and considerations for getting the measure published after the dissertation is completed instead of substantive feedback on the items or scales. It is possible the other individuals elected not to provide feedback due to a disagreement about the construct, items, or subscale definitions, although they did not give an indication of this, with one exception.

One person, of the fourteen reviewers, provided feedback that was significantly critical of the conceptual perspective of the scale and the items. They reported in an email that they believe sexual assault is not likely connected to feelings of deservingness as proposed by MSE. they noted: "When you say sexual entitlement it suggests something psychological, like a deep sense of deservingness. I realized that I'm not sure that that drives sexual assault. It seems more intuitive to me that a statement of deservingness would be more of a defense against

something else." Further they noted concerns about the items, "the items on the scale don't really tap into that psychological construct, they're more about behavior." While this person does appear to have some expertise in masculinities, as they have published a study linking shame to aggression, their feedback was considered but not integrated for a few reasons. First, there is an emerging theoretical and empirical base suggesting a link between sexual aggression and entitlement (e.g., Widman & McNulty, 2010). Also, their comment suggesting most of the items are behaviors is actually inaccurate, although some items are related to behaviors and are included in the scale as they represent an aspect of MSE. This generalization suggests this reviewer may have briefly reviewed the scale without critical consideration of all the items. Additionally, this person was a "self-identified" respondent, whom is a graduate student and who contacted the writer based on a general request for feedback from the Division 51 Men and Masculinities listserv. This was the only person who contacted that writer based on this recruitment call. Lastly, while this person has published research on a relevant topic, and their research's emphasis on the role of shame as it relates to aggression does appear to have important merit, it may represent one of many explanations that could account for violence. As previously noted, scholars (e.g., Baumeister, 2002; Koss, 2003; McDermott et al., 2015) agree no one factor can account for sexual violence. Even still, there is certainly room for refinement and continued development of this construct and this dissertation represents an early effort to organize the literature on MSE.

There are limitations in this study related to the sample. A sensitivity to the intersectional nature of identity is an important consideration. In the present study, for example it is possible there could have been a conflation of sexual orientation and gender identity. This represents a need within the field of psychology to better address this nuance in future research. As it relates to the present study it is possible there could be greater within than

between group difference as it relates to sexual orientation. Additionally, there are concerns as it relates to generalizability of this study's findings. All participants were self-identified men, from a large, highly competitive R1 Midwestern university. In reviewing the participants demographics, they were mostly White, came from families that made more than $100,000, and were mostly exclusively heterosexual. The shared aspects of identity, in particular as it relates to the entire sample coming from a highly educated and young background is an important consideration as it relates to this sample. This further could explain some of the null findings (i.e., as it relates to income and race). Caution should be taken in interpreting the findings beyond this demographic group or to other regions. Further studies also should replicate the preliminary findings of the present study.

A final set of limitations is related to self-report data in sexual violence perpetration research. Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, and Martin, (2007) noted four limitations to self-report data related to perpetration of sexual violence in men. First, some men may dishonestly respond to survey questions. Also, some men may not endorse perpetration of behaviors, when in fact they did engage in sexual violence, but did not perceive their actions as sexually violent. Further, men that are willing to complete the instrument, may be less likely to perpetrate sexual assault. Finally, they noted that relatively few men perpetrate sexual violence, but those that do perpetrate, assault multiple people which is not captured by instruments intended to measure perpetration (Krebs et al., 2007). This final limitation may be an issue if perpetrators self-select to not to participate. One benefit to the SES-PF is that it is a behavioral report that does not use language that may inhibit endorsement (i.e. the SES-PF does not use the term "rape" or "sexual assault.") While the SES-PF is the most widespread measure used to capture self-reported perpetration behavior for sexual violence, these are important limitations to note. There was a

floor effect with many participants not reporting perpetrating any form of violence as compared with other studies that have used this measure (Widman & McNulty, 2010).

Future directions.

There are several additional directions that could offer substantive and meaningful contributions in the development of construct of MSE and the MSEN scale. As noted previously, including additional items from validated measures related to objectification of others could be administered and used to assess if this should be included as a component of MSE. Additionally, it would be useful to administer this measure in a female sample to assess if the construct is tapping something uniquely related to men. Given research has established that strong between group differences based on gender are not common and small on most psychological constructs (Hyde, 2005) it would be useful to see if the construct of MSE is measured at comparable levels between men and women.

Another future direction for the scale would be to have a sample assess for temporal stability of the instrument via test-retest reliability. It was not possible to match respondents as participants anonymously completed the measure due to the sensitive nature of self-reported perpetration of violence with the SES-PF. Future research could allow for participants to be matched and not complete the measure anonymously without asking about this behavior. Additionally, the MSEN has only been completed among university men. It would be beneficial to administer the measure in a community sample (with more potential for more diverse identities including socio-economic, race and ethnicity, age, and education) or using a program such a mTurk to recruit targeted groups that were underrepresented in the present study (e.g., sexual minorities, fraternity men). Additionally, administering in different geographic regions, across different types of school (e.g. community college, vocational, and

small private) could provide additional external validity for use of this scale in other university samples.

As noted previously, future research should conduct CFA via SEM to further assess the 5-factor model with a second order overarching MSE construct. As noted throughout the discussion, it is not standard procedure to reduce items during the CFA phase and use fit indices simultaneously. This limitation necessitates that MSEN25 be administered to another sample to have a valid CFA procedure to assess model fit and evaluate the proposed structure of the instrument. Given the relatively promising fit indices demonstrate, it seems reasonable to postulate with a degree of confidence that in an additional sample the MSEN25 could demonstrate adequate fit in future studies.

Additionally, there is room for continuing to develop the construct validity of the instrument through further studies exploring the relationship of the scale with other related constructs. For example, future research could explore the relationship of MSE with other well-validated measures such as the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale, self-reported future likelihood sexual assault, measures of token resistance, misperception of sexual intent, adversarial sexual beliefs, and other measures of masculinity such as the Gender Role Conflict Scale and Conformity to Masculine Norms Inventory.

Future research could explore criterion-related validity through the identification or development of a criterion that could serve as a putative gold standard from violence prevention work. No putative gold standard was found or available for the present when this dissertation project was in development. Additionally, further research could also see how the MSEN compares against other global measures of entitlement such as the Psychological Entitlement Scale in predicting self-reported violence. Widman and McNulty (2010) found that their Sexual Narcissism Scale could better predict self-reported acts of sexual aggression than

global measures of narcissism and it would be a potentially worthwhile to see if this trend occurs with the MSEN and another measure of global entitlement.

Future applications for this research are widespread. Increasingly as men are becoming aware of problematic dynamics in their romantic relationships, and presenting to counseling centers to address issues in their relationships, counselors might benefit from familiarity with this dissertation's conceptualization of MSE. Further clinicians could consider ways in which their client's behaviors (reflecting sexually entitled attitudes) as a function of masculine socialization practices are incongruent with client's values. This could prove fruitful in clinical work. This survey thus may be useful for clinicians working in college counseling centers for identifying domains or areas of exploration for clinical work with undergraduate men. Prevention professionals might find the domains presented offer topics for discussion with undergraduate men with whom they are developing interventions. Lastly, this survey, with further validation, could serve as pre-test post assessment for courses that are targeted at men to change problematic attitudes and behaviors related to sexual violence.

Conclusion

Sexual violence is a significant societal problem that is getting increased attention in the context of the resurgence of the #MeToo movement. As noted, the vast majority of sexual aggression is perpetrated by men. This area represents a critical area of inquiry for developing tools to enhance our understanding and means for addressing this problematic behavior. While scholars agree no one factor accounts for this violence, generating theory as to causes represents an important endeavor. The present study attempted to develop such a theory by constructing an operational definition and subscales of an instruments designed to measure Masculine Sexual Entitlement. When assessed and evaluated a 25 and 40 item version of the scale demonstrated adequate internal consistency as assessed by Cronbach's alpha.

Additionally, evidence supporting the construct validity of the use of the scale with undergraduate men was provided. Further, the underlying 5-factor structure with an overarching MSE second order factor demonstrated adequate fit across most fit indices for the 25-item version of the scale, although validation on an additional sample is indicated. When used to predict self-reported sexual aggression, the scale was a better predictor of sexual violence than a widely used scale measuring male role norms. The implications for this study indicate the importance of addressing masculine sexual entitlement in prevention efforts rather than masculinity more broadly. MSE is an understudied construct and the literature will benefit from a stronger understanding of its relationship with traditional masculinity, sexual behaviors, and sexual aggression to extend these preliminary findings.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Masculine Sexual Entitlement Norms (MSEN90) scale.

Please circle the response which best corresponds with your level of agreement with each statement. Items with (RC) are reversed coded. Items are scored 1= Strong Disagree to 5 Strongly agree

MSEN90 Items, Qualtrics order, subscale number and names

Item # (Qualtrics)	Item Content	Original Subscale #	Subscale Name
1 (53)	My partner should cater to my sexual needs.	1	PRIO
2 (47)	I have a right to have my sexual needs met first.	1	PRIO
3 (4)	When I am in a relationship, I expect regular opportunities for sex.	1	PRIO
4 (66)	My sexual needs are more important that my partner's.	1	PRIO
5 (61)	An ideal partner would make my sexual needs a priority over theirs.	1	PRIO
6 (24)	I put the sexual needs of my partner first. (RC)	1	PRIO
7 (84)	I deserve to be sexually gratified by my partner.	1	PRIO
8 (69)	I will initiate sex even when a partner is not in the mood.	1	PRIO
9 (65)	I expect someone to sleep with me if we have previously had sex.	1	PRIO
10 (62)	If a potential sexual partner played hard to get, I would get frustrated.	1	PRIO
11 (76)	Orgasming is my only focus during sex.	1	PRIO
12 (51)	It is okay for me to ask a partner for sex a few times in the same night, even if they say no at first.	1	PRIO
13 (54)	I have a right to ask for sexual favors I do not intend to return.	1	PRIO
14 (83)	My sexual wishes take priority.	1	PRIO
15 (11)	Sometimes I guilt-trip a partner if they do not agree to have sex with me.	1	PRIO
16 (21)	I prefer a sexual relationship where we tend to each other's sexual needs. (RC)	1	PRIO
17 (49)	If someone invites me back to their place, I expect we are likely going to have sex.	1	PRIO
18 (32)	I prefer to be in charge when it comes to sex.	1	PRIO
19 (17)	I should get sex when I want it.	1	PRIO

20 (39)	Sex is only enjoyable if my partner and I are both satisfied. (RC)	1	PRIO
21 (72)	Others are there to fulfill my sexual needs.	1	PRIO
22 (52)	It is not a big deal to catcall someone I find good-looking.	2	OBJ
23 (63)	When I see someone I find sexually attractive it is okay to let them know what I think.	2	OBJ
24 (18)	I do not think it is appropriate for someone to make comments to a stranger they find sexually attractive about how they look. (RC)	2	OBJ
25 (8)	I see no problem with rating other's attractiveness on a 1-10 scale.	2	OBJ
26 (2)	I am usually more focused on a partner's looks than their character.	2	OBJ
27 (6)	It's not ok to talk about people I'm attracted to only in terms of their looks. (RC)	2	OBJ
28 (25)	If I see someone I am sexually attracted to, I won't be shy about checking them out.	2	OBJ
29 (23)	I keep track of my sexual conquests.	2	OBJ
30 (64)	When I check someone out, I only focus on a part of their body.	2	OBJ
31 (40)	When I sexually fantasize, I only think about another's specific body part or parts.	2	OBJ
32 (41)	I'll have sex with someone just to tell my friends about it.	2	OBJ
33 (38)	If someone has a nice body, I tell them.	2	OBJ
34 (35)	If I like a part of someone's body, I will stare at it.	2	OBJ
35 (57)	I help my friends get opportunities to have sex.	3	PEER
36 (79)	My friends and I compete to see who can have sex more frequently.	3	PEER
37 (50)	I feel uncomfortable pressuring someone into having sex with one of my friends. (RC)	3	PEER
38 (14)	Friends should help their buddies get opportunities for sex.	3	PEER
39 (45)	When someone cheats on his partner, the cheater's friends should keep it a secret.	3	PEER
40 (12)	I would defend a friend if he was accused of sexually assaulting someone, even if there is evidence he may be guilty.	3	PEER
41 (48)	It is unlikely I would "cock block" a friend who is pursuing an opportunity for sex.	3	PEER

42 (28)	I would lie for my friend so he could cheat on his partner.	3	PEER
43 (7)	I admire other men who have had many sexual experiences.	3	PEER
44 (60)	I seek out sexual experiences so I can brag about it to my friends.	3	PEER
45 (82)	My friends and I have watched porn together.	3	PEER
46 (89)	I have exaggerated to my friends how many people I have had sex with.	3	PEER
47 (16)	I often encourage male friends to have sex.	3	PEER
48 (78)	My friends and I describe having sex with someone as "scoring."	3	PEER
49 (55)	My friends and I talk about doing something sexual to someone for our own fun.	3	PEER
50 (46)	I would have sex with someone to impress my friends.	3	PEER
51 (5)	I would be teased by my friends if I did not pursue sexual experiences.**	3	PEER
52 (29)	My friends would make me feel like less of a man if I were to pass an opportunity to have sex.**	3	PEER
53 (73)	Men are inherently sexually promiscuous.	4	ESS
54 (74)	Men are born with a high sex-drive.	4	ESS
55 (59)	Men cheat on their partners because it is in their nature to be promiscuous.	4	ESS
56 (34)	Men are the initiators of sex due to genetics.	4	ESS
57 (88)	Men pursue many sexual experiences because that's how they are programmed.	4	ESS
58 (67)	Men pursue many sexual partners because of their biology.	4	ESS
59 (10)	Men are born to always have sex on their minds.	4	ESS
60 (31)	Men are primarily motivated to have sex because of testosterone.	4	ESS
61 (90)	Because of a man's hormones, his primary objective in social settings is to obtain a sexual partner.	4	ESS
62 (22)	When it comes to having sex, boys will be boys.	4	ESS
63 (3)	Men need to be in control in sexual relationships because that is how men are made.	4	ESS
64 (86)	Men have sexual needs that have to be fulfilled.	4	ESS

65 (56)	Men are sometimes unable to control their sexual desires.	4	ESS
66 (15)	Men are inherently sexually dominant.	4	ESS
67 (77)	It is harder for men to be denied sex than for women.	4	ESS
68 (80)	Men who pass opportunities for sex are not masculine.**	4	ESS
69 (44)	An important part of being a man is having sex.**	4	ESS
70 (71)	It is okay for a man to say whatever he needs to, to convince someone to sleep with him.	5	DEC
71 (58)	It is acceptable for a man to take advantage of a chance to sleep with someone when that person lets their guard down.	5	DEC
72 (20)	It is okay for a man to lie if it increases his chances of having sex.	5	DEC
73 (9)	Encouraging a potential sexual partner to consume alcohol is an effective way to increase one's chances of having sex.	5	DEC
74 (30)	When I offer someone a drink and they accept, I expect an opportunity for sexual contact.	5	DEC
75 (1)	When someone says "no" to sex it means I need to try harder.	5	DEC
76 (75)	It is okay to use alcohol so others have their guard down and are more likely to have sex.	5	DEC
77 (70)	When a potential sexual partner says "no" to my invitation for sex, it means it's time to change tactics.	5	DEC
78 (81)	I would tell someone "I love you," even if was not true, to increase my chances of having sex.	5	DEC
79 (33)	I think deception is a common part of convincing someone to have sex with you.	5	DEC
80 (19)	It takes some time to a work a "yes" out of a potential sexual partner.	5	DEC
81 (42)	A woman may say "no" to sex at first, even though she wants to have sex.	5	DEC
82 (68)	Sexual assault is not as big of a problem as people say it is.	6	MIN
83 (36)	It is okay to lie in order to hide infidelities from one's partner.	6	MIN
84 (26)	It's not necessarily rape to have sex without consent.	6	MIN

85 (43)	Someone may claim sexual assault when really the other person was just messing around.	6	MIN
86 (37)	Often when others claim sexual harassment, they are being too sensitive.	6	MIN
87 (85)	Locker room talk is usually harmless.	6	MIN
88 (87)	Politicians, athletes, and celebrities are often falsely accused by victims with ulterior motives.	6	MIN
89 (27)	A man is not entirely at fault if a woman has had too much to drink and he sexually assaults her.	6	MIN
90 (13)	If a woman dresses provocatively, it is understandable that men will stare at her.	6	MIN

Note. Items with "**" were added based on focus group suggestions. Note items are listed by subscales but were presented to participants randomly. ESS = Essentialist Gender Attitudes; MINI= Minimizing and Dismissing Subscale; DEC = Sexual Deception and Pressure Subscale; PEER = Peer Norms Subscale; PRIO = Prioritizing Own Sexual Needs Subscale; OBJ = Objectification of Others Subscale

Appendix B: Masculine Sexual Entitlement Norms (MSEN84a) 6-factor solution.

Preliminary Factors Loadings MSEN84a
with 6-Factor solution

	Sample ($N = 283$)					
	Factors					
Items	1	2	3	4	5	6
69. Sexual assault is not as big of a problem as people say it is.	**.67**	-.19				.23
75. It is okay to use alcohol so others have their guard down and are more open to sex.	**.63**	.15				
51. It is okay for me to ask a partner for sex a few times in the same night, even if they say no at first.	**.61**	-.13			.21	
37. Often when others claim sexual harassment, they are being too sensitive.	**.59**	-.13	.15	-.15		.26
70. When a potential sexual partner says "no" to my invitation for sex, it means it's time to change tactics.	**.58**			.10		
42. A woman may say "no" to sex at first, even though she wants to have sex.	**.58**	-.11	.13		.18	
1. When someone says "no" to sex it means I need to try harder.	**.58**	-.12		.15		
27. A man is not entirely at fault if a woman has had too much to drink and he sexually assaults her.	**.56**	-.16				.21
58. It is acceptable for a man to take advantage of a chance to sleep with someone when that person lets their guard down.	**.55**	.12	-.10	.15		.13
36. It is okay to lie in order to hide infidelities from one's partner.	**.54**	.30	-.15			-.13
43. Someone may claim sexual assault when really the other person was just messing around.	**.53**	-.16			.10	.20
20. It is okay for a man to lie if it increases his chances of having sex.	**.53**	.31	-.15			
71. It is okay for a man to say whatever he needs to convince someone to sleep with him.	**.47**	.23		.25	-.13	
9. Encouraging a potential sexual partner to consume alcohol is an effective way to increase one's chances of having sex.	**.41**	.16	.14	-.23		
26. It's not necessarily rape if there is sex without consent.	**.39**	-.10			.15	

Item						
12. I would defend a friend if he was accused of sexually assaulting someone, even if there is evidence he may be guilty.	**.39**					.24
69. It is okay for me to ask a partner for sex a few times in the same night, even if they say no at fir	**.38**			.24	.24	-.12
13. If a woman dresses provocatively, it is understandable that men will stare at her.	**.37**		.26	-.15		.21
33. I think deception is a common part of convincing someone to have sex with you.	**.33**	.19	.10	.18	-.18	
30. When I offer someone a drink and they accept, I expect an opportunity for sexual contact.	**.30**	.19		.23		
54. I have a right to ask for sexual favors I do not intend to return.	**.30**			.12	.14	
65. I expect someone to sleep with me if we have previously had sex.	**.27**			.25	.24	
19. It takes some time to a work a "yes" out of a potential sexual partner.	**.25**		.15	.12		
11. Sometimes I guilt-trip a partner if they do not agree to have sex with me.	**.22**	.16				-.13
46. I would have sex with someone to impress my friends.		**.70**			.13	
89. I have exaggerated to my friends how many people I have had sex with.		**.65**	.11			-.21
60. I seek out sexual experiences so I can brag about it to my friends.		**.63**		.14		
57. I help my friends get opportunities to have sex.		**.63**			.23	.21
41. I'll have sex with someone just to tell my friends about it.	.16	**.62**				
16. I encourage male friends to have sex.	-.19	**.60**			.28	.14
5. I would be teased by my friends if I did not pursue sexual experiences.	-.21	**.59**				.14
29. My friends would make me feel like less of a man if I were to pass on an opportunity to have sex.	-.26	**.58**	.13			.15
79. My friends and I compete to see who can have sex more frequently.		**.55**		.25	-.16	
78. My friends and I describe having sex with someone as "scoring."		**.50**			-.21	.22
45. When someone cheats on his partner, the cheater's buddies should keep it a secret.	.29	**.49**			-.11	

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6
55. My friends and I talk about doing something sexual to someone for our own fun.		**.46**				.27
14. Friends should help their buddies get opportunities for sex.	.11	**.46**		-.18	.36	.15
28. I would lie for my friend so he could cheat on his partner.	.42	**.45**	-.10	-.17		
7. I admire other men who have had many sexual experiences.	-.14	**.45**			.28	
23. I keep track of my sexual conquests.	-.10	**.37**	.12		.12	
81. I would tell someone "I love you," even if it was not true, to increase my chances of having sex.	.33	**.37**		.25		-.12
2. I am usually more focused on a partner's looks than their character.	.22	**.32**			.13	
80. Men who pass opportunities for sex are not masculine.		**.31**	.22	.28	-.10	
48. It is unlikely I would "cock block" a friend who is pursuing an opportunity for sex.	-.17	**.22**	.20	-.12	.20	.22
88. Men pursue many sexual experiences because that's how they are programmed.			**.79**	-.10		-.12
74. Men are born with a high sex-drive.			**.75**			
67. Men pursue many sexual partners because of their biology.			**.74**		.14	-.15
73. Men are inherently sexually promiscuous.		.14	**.70**			-.22
34. Men initiate sex due to genetics.	.12	-.11	**.63**			
10. Men are born to always have sex on their minds.		.18	**.61**			
31. Men are primarily motivated to have sex because of testosterone.	-.16		**.59**			.17
15. Men are inherently sexually dominant.			**.57**			.14
90. Because of a man's hormones, his primary objective in social settings is to obtain a sexual partner.	.15		**.53**		.11	-.13
59. Men cheat on their partners because it is in their nature to be promiscuous.	.35		**.40**			-.17
56. Men are sometimes unable to control their sexual desires.	.20		**.35**	.16		
3. Men need to be in control in sexual relationships because that is how men are made.	.19		**.33**	.15	-.14	.23
22. When it comes to having sex, boys will be boys.	.24		**.32**	.12		.14

32. I prefer to be in charge when it comes to sex.	-.13		**.26**	.24	.17	
64. When I check someone out, I only focus on a part of their body.			**.18**	.17		
83. My sexual wishes take priority.				**.68**	.15	
47. I have a right to have my sexual needs met first.				**.62**	.34	
66. My sexual needs are more important that my partner's.	.10			**.59**		
72. Others are there to fulfill my sexual needs.	.29			**.54**		
76. Orgasming is my only focus during sex.		.12		**.44**		
61. An ideal partner would make my sexual needs a priority over theirs.			.13	**.31**	.18	.17
50r. I feel uncomfortable pressuring someone with friends		.19		**.22**		.11
84. I deserve to be sexually gratified by my partner.		-.11		.40	**.61**	
4. When I am in a relationship, I expect regular opportunities for sex.	.17	.17			**.55**	
49. If someone invites me back to their place, I expect we are likely going to have sex.		.30	.10		**.43**	
62. If a potential sexual partner played hard to get, I would get frustrated.	.21		.16		**.43**	-.16
86. Men have sexual needs that have to be fulfilled.			.16	.21	**.42**	
53. My partner should cater to my sexual needs.				.12	**.42**	
17. I should get sex when I want it.				.37	**.38**	
6r. It's not ok to talk about people I'm attracted to only in terms of their looks.	.21				.22	**.28**
44. An important part of being a man is having sex.	.18			.18		**.27**
18. I do not think it is appropriate for someone to make comments to a stranger they find sexually attractive about how they look. (RC)	.13		-.22			**.64**
63. When I see someone who is sexually attractive it is okay to let them know what I think.				.11		**.60**
38. If someone has a nice body, I tell them.	-.17	.17		.28		**.54**
85. Locker room talk is usually harmless.	.31		.14	-.13		**.48**

52. It is not a big deal to catcall someone I find good-looking.	.40					**.45**
8. I see no problem with rating other's attractiveness on a 1-10 scale.	.28	.15				**.43**
87. Politicians, athletes, and celebrities are often falsely accused by victims with ulterior motives.	.25		.29		-.11	**.43**
25. If I see someone I am sexually attracted to, I won't be shy about checking them out.		.18		.13	.12	**.35**
35. If I like a part of someone's body, I will stare at it.	.11		.11	.14	.17	**.24**

Note. Bolded scores are the factor loadings. Extraction method: Principle Axis Factoring, Promax rotation. A rotation converged in 36 iterations.

Appendix C: Sexual Narcissism Scale (SNS)

(Widman and McNulty, 2010)

Please circle the response which best corresponds with your level of agree with each statement. Strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neither disagree or agree = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5. Note – Items 12 and 13 are (r) reverse coded.

Items	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1. If I ruled the world for one day, I would have sex with anyone I choose.	1	2	3	4	5
2. One way to get a person in bed with me is to tell them what they want to hear.	1	2	3	4	5
3. When I want to have sex, I will do whatever it takes.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I could easily convince an unwilling person to have sex with me.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I would be willing to trick a person to get them to have sex with me.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I feel I deserve sexual activity when I am in the mood for it.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I am entitled to sex on a regular basis.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I should be permitted to have sex whenever I want it.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I would be irritated if a dating partner said no to sex.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I expect sexual activity if I go out with someone on an expensive date.	1	2	3	4	5
11. When I sleep with someone, I rarely know what they are thinking or feeling.	1	2	3	4	5
12. It is important for me to know what my sexual partner is feeling when we make love. (r)	1	2	3	4	5
13. I enjoy sex more when I feel I really know a person. (r)	1	2	3	4	5
14. The feelings of my sexual partners don't usually concern me.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I do not usually care how my sexual partner feels after sex.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I am an exceptional sexual partner.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My sexual partners think I am fantastic in bed.	1	2	3	4	5

18. I really know how to please a partner sexually.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I have been very successful in my sexual relationships.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Others have told me I am very sexually skilled.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix D: Male Role Norms Inventory-SF (MRNI-SF)

(Levant, Hall, and Rankin, 2013)
Please circle the response which best corresponds with your level of agree with each statement.
Strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neither disagree or agree = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5.
Note – No items are reverse coded.

Items	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1. A man should never admit when others hurt his feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Men should be detached in emotionally charged situations.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Men should not be too quick to tell others that they care about them.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Men should have home improvement skills.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Men should be able to fix most things around the house.	1	2	3	4	5
6. A man should know how to repair his car if it should break down.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Homosexuals should never marry.	1	2	3	4	5
8. All homosexual bars should be closed down.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Homosexuals should never kiss in public.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Men should watch football games instead of soap operas.	1	2	3	4	5
11. A man should prefer watching action movies to reading romantic novels.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Boys should prefer to play with trucks rather than dolls.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Men should always like to have sex.	1	2	3	4	5
14. A man should not turn down sex.	1	2	3	4	5
15. A man should always be ready for sex.	1	2	3	4	5
16. The President of the U.S. should always be a man.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Men should be the leader in any group.	1	2	3	4	5
18. A man should always be the boss.	1	2	3	4	5
19. It is important for a man to take risks, even if he might get hurt.	1	2	3	4	5
20. When the going gets tough, men should get tough.	1	2	3	4	5

21. I think a young man should try to be physically tough, even if he's not big.   1   2   3   4   5

Appendix E: Satisfaction With Life Scale

(SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffin, 1985)
Please circle the response which best corresponds with your level of agree with each statement. Strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neither disagree or agree = 3, agree = 4, strongly agree = 5. Note – No items are reverse coded.

Items	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree
1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The conditions of my life are excellent.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am satisfied with my life.	1	2	3	4	5
4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.	1	2	3	4	5
5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix F: The Social Desirability Scale-16 (SDS-16)

Instructions

Below you will find a list of statements. Please read each statement carefully and decide if that statement describes you or not. If it describes you, circle the word "true"; if not, circle the word "false".

1. I sometimes litter.	True	False
2. I always admit my mistakes openly and face the potential negative consequences.	True	False
3. In traffic I am always polite and considerate of others.	True	False
4. I always accept others' opinions, even when they don't agree with my own.	True	False
5. I take out my bad moods on others now and then.	True	False
6. There has been an occasion when I took advantage of someone else.	True	False
7. In conversations I always listen attentively and let others finish their sentences.	True	False
8. I never hesitate to help someone in case of emergency.	True	False
9. When I have made a promise, I keep it--no ifs, ands or buts.	True	False
10. I occasionally speak badly of others behind their back.	True	False
11. I would never live off other people.	True	False
12. I always stay friendly and courteous with other people, even when I am stressed out.	True	False
13. During arguments I always stay objective and matter-of-fact.	True	False
14. There has been at least one occasion when I failed to return an item that I borrowed.	True	False
15. I always eat a healthy diet.	True	False
16. Sometimes I only help because I expect something in return.	True	False

Note

Answer categories are "true" (1) and "false" (0). Items 1, 5, 6, 7, 10, 14, and 16 are reverse keyed. One item was deleted from the final version of the SDS-16 and not included in validation studies so that there are only 16 items.

Appendix G: Sexual Experiences Survey; Perpetrator Form (SES-PF)

(Abbey, Parkhill, and Koss , 2005)

The following questions concern your sexual experiences since the age of 14. These are personal questions, but we hope that you will be willing to answer them honestly. All of your answers will be kept confidential.

1) Since the age of 14, have you ever overwhelmed someone who you were sexually attracted to with continual arguments and pressure, although they indicated they didn't want to, in order to…

fondle, kiss, or sexually touch them without their consent?	Yes	No
attempt to make them have sexual intercourse with you, but for some reason intercourse did not happen?	Yes	No
make them have oral sex with you?	Yes	No
make them have sexual intercourse with you?	Yes	No
make them have anal sex with you?	Yes	No

2) Since the age of 14, have you ever told lies or made promises to someone who you were sexually attracted to that you knew were untrue in order to…

fondle, kiss, or sexually touch them without their consent?	Yes	No
attempt to make them have sexual intercourse with you, but for some reason intercourse did not happen?	Yes	No
make them have oral sex with you?	Yes	No
make them have sexual intercourse with you?	Yes	No
make them have anal sex with you?	Yes	No

3) Since the age of 14, have you ever shown your displeasure by making someone who you were sexually attracted to feel guilty, swearing, sulking, or getting angry in order to…

fondle, kiss, or sexually touch them without their consent?	Yes	No
attempt to make them have sexual intercourse with you,	Yes	No

but for some reason intercourse did not happen?

make them have oral sex with you?	Yes	No

make them have sexual intercourse with you?	Yes	No

make them have anal sex with you?	Yes	No

4) Since the age of 14, have you ever given to someone who you were sexually attracted alcohol without their knowledge or consent in order to…

fondle, kiss, or sexually touch them without their consent?	Yes	No

attempt to make them have sexual intercourse with you, but for some reason intercourse did not happen?	Yes	No

make them have oral sex with you?	Yes	No

make them have sexual intercourse with you?	Yes	No

make them have anal sex with you?	Yes	No

5) Since the age of 14, have you ever given to someone who you were sexually attracted drugs without their knowledge or consent in order to…

fondle, kiss, or sexually touch them without their consent?	Yes	No

attempt to make them have sexual intercourse with you, but for some reason intercourse did not happen?	Yes	No

make them have oral sex with you?	Yes	No

make them have sexual intercourse with you?	Yes	No

make them have anal sex with you?	Yes	No

6) Since the age of 14, when someone who you were sexually attracted to was passed out or too intoxicated to give consent or stop what was happening, have you ever…

fondled, kissed, or sexually touched them without their consent?	Yes	No

attempted to make them have sexual intercourse with you, but for some reason intercourse did not happen?	Yes	No

made them have oral sex with you?	Yes	No

made them have sexual intercourse with you?   Yes   No

made them have anal sex with you?   Yes   No

7) Since the age of 14, have you ever threatened to use or used some degree of physical force with someone who you were sexually attracted to (twisting their arm, holding them down, etc.) or in any other way restrained or physically hurt them in order to…

fondle, kiss, or sexually touch them without their consent?   Yes   No

attempt to make them have sexual intercourse with you,   Yes   No
but for some reason intercourse did not happen?

make them have oral sex with you?   Yes   No

make them have sexual intercourse with you?   Yes   No

make them have anal sex with you?   Yes   No

Appendix H: Demographic Questions

Subjects will answer this question before starting the survey.

Screening question.

What is your age?
17 or younger
18 or older

Subjects will complete this after completing the MSEN.

1. What is your current gender identity?
Man
Woman
Non-binary
> If you would like to add an additional label to your gender identity, please include it
> here (Fill in):

2. What sex were you assigned at birth?
Male
Female
Intersex

3a. What is your sexual orientation?
Heterosexual
Gay
Bisexual
Queer
Asexual
Prefer not to say
Non-monosexual (e.g., pansexual, demisexual, omnisexual)
> If you would like to add an additional label to your sexual orientation, please include it
> here (Fill in):

**3b. What is the gender identity of people you prefer to have sex with or would
prefer to have sex with if you were sexually active (select all that apply)?**
Man
Woman
Non-binary
> If you would like to add an additional label to describe the gender identity of
> individual(s) who you prefer to have sex with or would prefer to have sex with if you
> were sexually active, please include it here (Fill in):

4. Have you ever had sex (sex is how you define it for yourself)?

Yes
No
Prefer not to say.

> **Skip Logic (if yes) What is the lifetime number of sexual partners you have had (enter a whole number)?**

____

> **Skip Logic (if yes) How many people have you had sex with in the last year (enter a whole number)?**

____

Skip Logic (if yes) What was your age when you first had sex?
13 or younger
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22+

5. Select your age.
18
19
20
21
22+

6. What is your race/ethnicity (check all that apply)?
White/European American
Black/African American
Native American
Asian/Pacific Islander/Asian American
Hispanic/Latinx
Prefer not to say
> If you would like to add an additional label to your racial/ethnic identity, please include it here (Fill in):

> **7. Relationship status**
Single
Casually dating
In a dating relationship (6 months or less)

In a dating relationship longer than 6 months
Engaged
Married
Divorced
Prefer not to say
> If you would like to add an additional label to your relationship status, please include it here (Fill in):

8. Do you identify your relationship orientation as any of the following? (Skip logic if they select: casually dating, in a dating relationship (6 months or longer), engaged, married)

Monogamous
Polyamorous
> If you would like to add an additional label to your relationship orientation please include it here (Fill in):

9. Select your parental socioeconomic status.
Working Class
Middle Class
Upper Class
Don't Know
Prefer not to say
> If you would like to add an additional label to your parent's socio-economic status, please include it here (Fill in):

10. Annual household income (if you are dependent for tax purposes please select your parent's income, if you are an independent for tax purposes please select your own income).
> $10,000 or less

$10,001-$20,000
$20,001-$30,000
$30,001-$40,000
$40,001-$50,000
$50,001-$60,000
$60,001-$70,000
$70,001-$80,000
$80,001-$90,000
$90,001-$100,000
$100,000 or more

11. Have you ever been formally involved (pledged/joined) in a fraternity?
Yes
No
Prefer not to say

Skip logic (if yes) specify type:
Academic

Social

Skip logic (if Social) which council is your fraternity affiliated with?
Interfraternity
Multicultural Greek Council
National Pan-Hellenic

> **12. Have you ever been involved in division 1 athletics as a part of a university-sponsored sports team?**

Yes
No
Prefer not to say

13. Select number of years in college
1 year (or in first year)
2 years (or in second year)
3 years (or in third year)
4 years (or in fourth year)
5 years (or in fifth year)
6 or more years (in 6th year or more)
Graduate student

14. Please write in your major(s) and certificate(s) if not declared or unsure write in (not declared). If you are a graduate student include your field of study where it says "Major":
> Major 1:
> Major 2:
> Major 3:
> Major 4:
> Certificate:
> Certificate:
> Certificate:
> **15. Please select any university sponsored violence prevention training programs you have completed (select all you have completed).**
> > Tonight (online violence prevention training program active years Fall 2012 – Spring 2017)
> > U Got This! (online violence prevention training program introduced Fall 2017)
> > Green Dot Bystander Intervention Training
> Sex Signals
> > One of the in-person GetWIse Series programs (ListenWIse, SexWIse, DatingWIse)
> Graduate Student Program for Preventing Sexual Violence at UW Madison
> Another violence prevention training program sponsored by the university (fill in)