

A CORRELATIONAL ANALYSIS INVESTIGATING RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN

GENDER ROLE IDEOLOGY AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS GENDER-BASED

VIOLENCE

By

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DECLARATION

I declare that this is my own unaided work. It is being submitted for a Masters Degree in Clinical Psychology at Rhodes University, Grahamstown. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any other University.

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_____ day of _____, 2018

ABSTRACT

This study forms part of a larger project investigating attitudes towards intimate partner violence, dating violence and other forms of gender-based violence with the Rhodes University context. The primary purpose was to establish a baseline descriptive understanding of participants' attitudes towards and perceptions of gender-based violence. With the aim to generate results that would somehow inform the larger project, the current study sought to investigate whether a relationship exists between gender-role ideology and attitudes towards gender-based violence amongst a university population which was inclusive of registered students and employees of the university (n = 308). Four samples were categorised: student sample, academic staff sample, administrative support staff sample and operational support staff sample. A once-off, cross sectional survey design was used to obtain the data. The results of the study revealed that the participants in the study uphold largely non-traditional gender-role ideologies, are generally intolerant of dating violence and are rejecting of rape myths. As predicted in the literature, the study revealed that demographics such as gender, religion, age, level of education, number of years spent in the institution, race, and student accommodation have an impact on the relationship between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence, as well as on the relationship between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance and the relationship between rape myth acceptance and tolerance towards dating violence. The study contributes to the growing body of knowledge on gender-based violence in institutions of higher learning and could help improve sexual violence prevention programmes in such contexts.

Keywords: Rhodes University; gender-based violence; gender-role ideology; rape myth acceptance; attitudes towards dating violence/intimate partner violence (IPV).

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1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to introduce the study and why it is important. It outlines the research focus, the aims and objectives of the research and the reasons why the researcher chose to conduct this research.

1.1 Introduction and Rationale for the Study

Gender-based violence is a major concern in South Africa (SA) and has led to this country being labelled as the “rape capital” of the world by the Human Rights Watch in 2010. It includes any harm that is perpetrated against a person’s will, and that results from power inequalities that are based on gender roles (Vianello & Hawkesworth, 2016). The most pervasive form of this gender-based violence in South Africa being ‘rape’ (Gqola, 2007; Wood & Jewkes, 2001). A detailed definition of ‘rape’ includes sexual penetration without an individual’s (male or female) consent; penetration in the form of genital organs being forced into the mouth, genitals or anus of the victim. Added to this, the definition can further include the perpetrator’s other body parts, such as a finger or limb, as well as insertion of objects such as sticks, bottles, and more (Boezart, 2009; Shukumisa, 2014).

Victims of rape can be of any age, including children, the disabled, and can either be male or female (Boezart, 2009). However, women continue to represent the majority of victims of sexual violence with men often being perpetrators of such violence (Henry & Powell, 2014). The term ‘Violence Against Women’ (VAW) is often used interchangeably with gender-based violence (Terry & Hoare, 2007; Vianello & Hawkesworth, 2016) as women are often on the receiving end of such violence (Vianello & Hawkesworth, 2016). VAW includes a range of violent acts such as intimate partner violence (IPV), non-partner violence, rape, genital mutilation, human trafficking and so on (WHO, 2013).

IPV is the most common form of violence perpetrated against women globally and has adverse consequences for women and for governments (Ellsberg, Jansen, Heise, Watts, & García-Moreno, 2008). IPV is mostly represented under the banner of Gender-based Violence (GBV) which is a form of gender inequity as it targets women and girls because of their subordinate social status in society (Zain, 2012). GBV is boundless in that, irrespective of age, gender, race, religion and social status it can occur (Zain, 2012). GBV continues to manifest in the South African context and is considered to be rooted in normative gender roles and practices (Shefer, 2014). Thus, in our attempts to understand and address the causes of GBV it is imperative to acknowledge the socio-cultural and historical factors of the particular contexts in which it occurs (Zain, 2012). In the South African context, GBV finds its rooting in the colonial and apartheid regimes which espoused racial and gendered violence.

In recent years there has been an increase in the number of GBV incidences taking place in institutions of higher learning around South Africa. Most of these incidences have been of a sexually violent nature, mostly committed against women in these institutions (Clowes, Shefer, Fouten, Vergnani & Jacobs, 2009; Mayekiso & Bhana, 1997). There is also a growing advocacy against GBV in institutions of higher learning, inclined towards the awareness of the continuing occurrence of GBV and the rape culture surrounding it (Clowes et al., 2009; de Klerk et al, 2011; Hoque, 2011; Mayekiso & Bhana, 1997; van Staden & Badenhost, 2009). Social media has offered a platform for widespread advocacy against the inequalities and structural problems found in institutions of higher learning through the ‘fallism’ movements such as the #RhodesMustFall, #FeesMustFall and #RapeMustFall in South Africa (Du Preez, Simmonds, & Chetty, 2017). More specific to the aim of this research is the emergence of the #RapeMustFall movement which was aimed at engaging with the culture of GBV at institutions of higher learning (Du Preez, Simmonds, & Chetty, 2017).

This advocacy against GBV has taken different forms in some South African universities with the similar aim of bringing awareness to the issue of GBV and making university spaces a safe space for women (Kelly, 2016; Seddon, 2016; Singh, 2016; Tadeppally & Parker, 2016). For example, the university of Cape Town (UCT) held a mass meeting in 2016 against the rape culture at the university, with hash tags such as #UCTSpeaksOut and #EndRapeCulture accompanied by slogans such as “UCT fails survivors” and “Council’s silence = complicity” (Kelly, 2016). An anti-rape protest also took place in Stellenbosch University in 2016, where more than 300 students gathered to speak against GBV in the institution (Singh, 2016). The co-founder of the Stellenbosch University unashamed movement Rochelle Jacobs, pointed out that the university management was not doing enough to address the problem, as she highlighted managements’ installation of cameras and increasing the number of security guards in response to GBV on campus (Singh, 2016).

Within the context of this research, one week of the university calendar referred to as ‘awareness week’ is dedicated towards ‘awareness and advocacy’ regarding gender relations (sex, gender, and sexual orientation) (Awareness & Advocacy, 2017). It is in this awareness week that the scheduled Silent Protest programme takes place, involving the entire university and members from the community (Silent Protest, 2017) takes place. The silent protest programme began in 2007, in an attempt to draw attention to and challenge the culture of silence around sexual violence (Silent Protest, 2017). However, despite the inception of the silent protest, in April 2016, a list with 11 names of male students titled the ‘reference list’ surfaced on social media (Seddon, 2016). A crowd of students had gathered on campus and went to the respective residences of the men on the list, rounding them up and demanding the university to act on these allegations (Seddon, 2016). The #RURferenceList began a series of protests on the Rhodes University campus, with students highlighting the rape culture at the university and the urgent need to act (Parker, 2016). These initiatives driven by students

across the university campuses in South Africa highlight the urgent need to understand the prevalence of GBV in universities and the generation of effective strategies towards its prevention.

There has been some research conducted in the University of KwaZulu Natal (UKZN) by Singh, Mabaso, Mudaly & Singh-Pillay (2016) investigating student perspectives of the sexual assault policy formulation and institutional development which found that 72% of the participants indicated that a sexual assault policy was necessary in UKZN. Furthermore, the study conducted by Collins, Loots, Meyiwa & Mistrey (2009) in an unnamed South African university revealed the pervasive nature of GBV on South African campuses highlighting the urgent need to act against GBV around South African campuses. Within the context of this research, a study was conducted by De Klerk, Klazinga, & McNeil (2011) to investigate the possible shortcomings in policies and methodologies aimed at addressing rape and sexual assault within the university. The findings of the study revealed that the policies were evolving from a macho-sexist point to being inclusive and open to the struggles of female students (De Klerk et al., 2007). Regardless of the evolution of policies, GBV continues to be a serious concern in the university.

Hence, this research project aims to investigate the relationship between GBV and gender-role ideology as this could help in understanding some aspect of the continuing prevalence of GBV in this context. The initial intent of this research was to investigate participants' (first-year students) attitudes towards sexual violence prior to and after the annual Silent Protest. The purpose of the study was to measure whether the silent protest event had any influence on university students' attitudes towards sex, and GBV. However, due to the #RURestroomProtests, the research focus had to change to a once-off cross sectional design study that included the entire university population and was intended to assess the broad attitudes towards gender and GBV within the Rhodes University context.

In order to assess these attitudes, comparative inferential analyses by demographic variables for the four sample groups (academic staff, students, administrative support staff, and operational support staff) were conducted, which were followed by correlational analyses between the observed measures on the various attitude scales in order to examine relationships among the three key study variables: adherence to traditional gender-role ideology, tolerance towards dating violence, and rape myth acceptance.

1.2 Overall Aim of the Research

Research has shown that a relationship exists between Gender-Role Ideology (GRI) and GBV (Strebel, et al., 2006), hence the objective of this study was to extend current literature by examining the potential moderating effect of gender-role ideology on gender-based violence by measuring participants' attitudes towards traditional gender-role ideologies, dating violence and rape myths acceptance.

1.3 Relevance of the Research Study

As highlighted above, Gender-Based Violence (GBV) is a major problem in South Africa. For this study, however, a more pressing matter is the increased prevalence of GBV in institutions of higher learning. This study forms part of a larger study that is investigating attitudes towards and perceptions of GBV in the Rhodes University context, with the intention of using the findings to assess the effectiveness of current programmes targeting GBV in the university. Thus, the results and recommendations of this study will be a stepping stone towards fulfilling the purpose of the larger study, understanding some aspects of sexual violence and perhaps be used to inform the university's sexual violence prevention programmes.

1.4 Statement of the Research Problem

In order to achieve the aims of this study the research was guided by two related questions: do observable relationships exist between gender-role ideology and attitudes supportive of gender-based violence amongst different sectors of the university population? Secondly, if such relationships do exist, what is the strength and direction of these relationships?

1.5 Outline of the Research Study

This section introduces the research topic, its aims and a motivation for this study. In the literature review, there's an exploration of the available literature internationally and within the South African context. This literature pertains to the role of gender-role ideology on gender-based violence, through an exploration of rape myth acceptance and tolerance towards dating violence also known as IPV. The third section outlines the research method implemented to investigate the relationship between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence, the relationship between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance and the relationship between rape myth acceptance and tolerance towards dating violence. Furthermore, this section will also outline the statistical data analysis process. The fourth chapter will articulate the results obtained from the statistical analysis. The fifth chapter will provide a discussion of these findings with reference to the available literature. Then the final chapter will present conclusions on the findings of the study, speaking to some of the identified limitations of the study and providing recommendations for future research.

1.6 Conclusion

In this chapter the researcher aimed to give an introduction into this area of research, and acknowledged the importance of this research. The researcher articulated the main aims of the research study and the relevance of the study. The chapter then concluded with a succinct overview of the entire research study.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

This literature review broadly intends to explore previous research conducted on the topics of gender-role ideology and gender-based violence. Both gender-role ideology and gender-based violence are broad topics that do not exist in isolation of the context in which they emanate, which is why the literature will also shed light on the influence of socio-political and economic factors such as gender inequality. This is necessary in order to aid in contextualising these broader topics within the inimitable and diverse nature of the South African context. The concept of 'gender' will also be explored as it is a foundational determining factor for both gender-based violence and gender-role ideology.

To understand gender, and contextualise it in terms of the concepts of gender-role ideology and gender-based violence, the definition of gender and feminist theory was explored to provide valuable insights in understanding the evolution of both. The literature then reviews the prevalence of sexual violence and rape in SA. Then the literature review expands to the root causes of GBV with a specific focus on what is applicable to the South African context. Keeping in mind that the South African context continues to be characterised by socio-political issues which emanate from colonialism and the apartheid regime, it is important that an exploration of the major socio-political transitions in South Africa, such as the liberation from the apartheid regime and the framing of gender equity in the constitution, is included in the understanding of both gender-role ideology and gender-based violence in the contemporary South African context. To further contextualise GBV in the South African context, literature on the culture of violence, hegemonic masculinities and gender-role ideology was reviewed.

As this study aims to investigate relationships between the three variables, the theoretical relationships between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence, adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance, and

the relationship between rape myth acceptance and tolerance towards dating violence will also be explored. Sociodemographic factors in relation to gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance will be discussed in an attempt to understand the prevalence of gender-based violence. These sociodemographic factors will include individual demographics such as gender, age, and level of education as well social demographics such as culture and religion, and racial salience in relation to sexual violence will also be reviewed as the conceptualisation of sexual violence in South Africa is established along racial lines (Moffett, 2006; Shefer, 2010). Finally, the review will focus on gender-based violence in universities or institutions of higher learning, the Rhodes University context and the prevention of sexual violence.

2.1 Defining Gender

In all human societies, gender has been used to make social distinctions between men and women, often allocating power and higher status to men (Strebel, et al., 2006). For one to adequately define gender one must explain what 'sex' is, as 'sex' has been influential in the conceptualisation of gender (Arnold, 2010) and gender in the conceptualisation of sex (Shefer, 2010). According to Kendal (2012, p. 312), "sex refers to the biological and anatomical differences between females and males and is a prominent differentiating factor between females and males". Barker (1999) adds that, as sex is a substantial biological marker it has been used to embed cultural gender expectations.

On the other hand, "gender refers to the culturally and socially constructed differences between females and males found in the meanings, beliefs, and practices associated with 'femininity' and 'masculinity'" (Kendall, 2012, p. 316). According to Arnold (2010) the role of sex is pivotal in our lives. However, he further suggests that it may be that the role played by gender is equal to, or more pivotal than sex (Arnold, 2010). Thus, the biological differences that set both genders apart are crucial, yet the social-cultural construction of

gender also play a pivotal role in what defines gender differences and the gender-roles expected of 'women' and 'men' (Barker, 1999).

2.2 Feminist Understandings of Gender, and Gender-Based Violence

"The feminist paradigm acknowledges the importance of both nature and learning in the acquisition of gender" (Renzetti & Curran, 1999, p. 10). Biology plays a pivotal role in the acquisition of gender as socialisation begins early in life. However, the social construction of gender may play a more important role in this acquisition (Renzetti & Curran, 1999). Feminist theorists also understand the act of sex as being normatively constructed, as women have no agency in the negotiation of sexual intimacy in relationships (Carmody, 2015).

Feminist approaches to sexual violence, as diverse as they are all share the belief that gender-inequality and gender relations lie at the root of sexual violence (Evans et al., 2009). Feminists view rape as an exertion of power that is used by men to maintain and enforce their domination over women (Chiroro, Bohner, Viki, & Jarvis, 2004). Such an understanding of GBV as rooted in gender inequality and gender relations means that if we want to investigate the social context in which GBV occurs, we must necessarily then pay attention (if we adopt a feminist orientation) to observable indicators of gender inequitable social relations, such as attitudes towards gender and gender roles (as indicators of ideological investment in either equity or inequity), opinions regarding IPV or dating violence (as indicators of tolerance of equitable or inequitable gender relations), and rape myth acceptance (as an indicator of both tolerance for sexual violence as well as how sexual violence is understood and made sense of). This gives a theoretical grounding to the actual design of the instruments used.

2.3 Prevalence of Sexual Violence and Rape in South Africa

The World Health Organisation found that 35% of women worldwide in 2013 had reported an act of sexual violence perpetrated by either an intimate partner or by a stranger (WHO,

2013). “Women’s rights are human rights, we must be treated better because we are human,” said former deputy president of South Africa and current executive director of UN Women, Phumzile Mlambo Ngcuka, at the Beijing Women’s Agenda in 2015 (Ormajee, 2016). Women’s rights throughout history have been placed on the back-burner leading to a blind disregard to the causes of female subordination which continues pervasively throughout the world, irrespective of the context.

The South African Police Services (SAPS) annual crime statistics report has revealed that there has been a significant decrease in the reports of sexual offences between the years 2006 and 2016 (SAPS, 2016). The report also indicates that between 2015 and 2016 the number of reported cases was 51,895 which reveals a 3.2% decrease in the number of reported cases in a ten-year trajectory in the statistics relating to sexual violence. Despite the decrease in reported cases, about 142.2 sexual offences per day take place in South Africa (AfricaCheck, 2016). This is indicative of the severity of the problem regardless of statistical fluctuations.

The reliability of SAPS statistics has been questioned in relation to reliability, as the auditing methods used and time periods from which the statistics are collected might be outdated by the time the report is compiled (BusinessTech, 2016). The 3.2% decrease in sexual offences does not mean that the number of sexual offences has decreased but may instead be indicative of the underreporting of sexual offences (AfricaCheck, 2016). A reported decrease of sexual violence incidences needs to be viewed cautiously, as there are multiple barriers to reporting (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002) meaning that the majority of these cases go unreported (Jewkes & Abrahams 2002; Vetten et al., 2008; Smythe & Waterhouse 2008). Furthermore, underreporting of incidences makes it difficult to determine accurate statistics, as most of these incidences are never brought to the attention of the criminal justice system of South Africa (Gidycz et al., 2002; Jewkes, Sikweyiya, & Dunkle, 2011; Jewkes et al., 2010; Sprengler, 2013; Vetten, 2014).

Nonetheless, in a study conducted by Jewkes et al., (2006) with male participants between the ages of 15 and 26 in the rural Eastern Cape, 21% of respondents disclosed that they had raped before and 16% of the sample disclosed that they had raped strangers. In another study conducted by Jewkes, Sikweyiya, Morrel and Dunkle (2011), it was revealed that 28% to 37% of a sample of 1,737 men aged between 18 and 49 years who participated in a cross-sectional study reported that they had attempted or perpetrated a complete act of rape.

Regardless of the under-reporting of sexual violence incidences and the questioned reliability of SAPS statistics, the reality is that sexual violence remains pervasive in South Africa. Therefore, it is necessary to understand what lies at the root of gender-based violence through the lens of South Africa's historical, political and social context as it continues to play a major role in the country's social issues (Mills, 2010).

2.4 Root Causes of Gender Based Violence

2.4.1 A Culture of Violence

Despite South Africa's peaceful transition from oppression to democracy, the country still experiences high levels of gender-based violence (Mills, 2010). Colonialism and apartheid have played a major role in the social and political spheres in South Africa thus creating a culture of violence that continues to afflict the citizens of this country (Morrel, Jewkes & Lindegger, 2012). The apartheid regime created divisions along racial and class lines which incited violence (Morrel, Jewkes & Lindegger, 2012). A recognition of the injustices of the past is noted within the constitution and an appreciation of the consequential damage, which two decades later, still prevails (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). Violence continues to be used by South African citizens whenever they feel their needs are not being met by resorting to protest action to air their frustrations.

2.4.2 The Political Transition of South Africa and the Constitution

Social processes are influential in the formation of attitudes towards gender-based violence (Flood & Pease, 2009). Post 1994, the South African constitution liberated the women of South Africa, affording them equal opportunities men (Walker, 2005). Hence, the inclusion of women in the public sector is embedded as a cornerstone of South Africa's democracy (Hassim, 2014). However, in as much as legislature paints a perfect picture of equality this has not unwritten the inscriptions of the past which have a patriarchal and authoritarian basis (Walker, 2005).

The transition of the constitution of South Africa has redefined 'gender' and 'sexuality' as it challenges traditional and cultural views of masculinity (Davies & Dreyer, 2014). As the constitution legally enforces equality in the social and economic realms (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002) it is, however, incapable of altering the attitudes of the citizens and forcing them to uphold the revised constitutional values. The intersection of patriarchal domination, and cultural and religious ideologies have subordinated South African women regardless of race or class, as violence is demonstrated in their interpersonal relationships (Albertyn, 2003).

Phumzile Mlambo Ngcuka, in her address in the 2015 Beijing Women's Agenda, mentioned that legislation is "outshined" by prejudices and stereotypes (Ormajee, 2016). Legally, the subordination of women is prohibited, yet, this does not stop it from happening (Walker, 2005). This legislative empowerment of women is faced with contradiction as women are unsafe within their private lives as they are haunted by fears of being raped (Gqola, 2007). Furthermore, rape and GBV statistics in South Africa reveal a major contradiction in relation to the empowerment of South African women within the private sphere (Gqola, 2007).

2.4.3 Hegemonic Masculinities

In studies of gender, the term ‘hegemonic masculinity’ has been used to shed light on masculinity and male behaviour in the South African context (Morrel, Jewkes, & Lindegger, 2012). This term was adopted to make sense of the South African society in understanding how masculinity is formed along racial, class and gendered power relations (Morrel, Jewkes, & Lindegger, 2012). A study by McCormak (2011) investigating masculinity among participants aged 16-18, revealed that power, self-reliance and conforming to heterosexual norms are also associated with hegemonic masculinities. Domination of women is a precondition in hegemonic masculinities as this results in acceptance into a peer group (McCormak, 2011; Wood & Jewkes, 2001). Thus, control and dominance over women claims centrality in gaining support from a particular peer group (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002).

In male social groups, sexual entitlement can be perceived as a way in which one can assert himself as masculine (McCormak, 2011). A study conducted by Petersen, Bhana & McKay (2005) in a semi-rural area located in Kwa Zulu Natal (KZN) involving participants between 13 and 16 years of age, aimed to investigate certain risk influences that make girls vulnerable to sexual violence and boys vulnerable to becoming perpetrators of sexual violence. In this study, Petersen et al., (2005) found peer pressure to have a strong influence on boy’s/men’s inclination to perpetrate sexual violence as being sexually intimate with a girl/woman translates into the assertion of one’s masculinity. In a South African study conducted by Jewkes, Sikweyiya, Morrel, and Dunkle (2010) which aimed to investigate why men rape, the researchers found that sexual entitlement was the main driver of sexual violence perpetration. Furthermore, a demonstration of sexual prowess through coercion often elicits social respect from other men (Walker, 2005). Gqola (2007) speaks to the necessary dismantling of violent masculinities in addressing gender-based violence. She calls to South African men: saying to

combat GBV, it is necessary that they reject ‘violent masculinities’ and challenge what they had been taught regarding gender-role ideologies in relation to women’s bodies.

2.4.4 Gender-Role Ideology

There is a vast amount of literature available on gender-role ideology (see Bolzendahl & Myers 2004; Brown & Gladstone, 2012; Davis & Greenstein, 2009; Denton, 2004; Fan & Marini, 2000; Korabik, McElwin, & Chapell, 2008; Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2007). Gender-role ideology (GRI) is defined as a set of attitudes and beliefs concerning the appropriate roles of women and men within society (Brown & Gladstone, 2012; Korabik, McElwin, & Chapell, 2008). GRI spans on a continuum, ranging from egalitarian to traditional values (Korabik, McElwain, & Chapell, 2008). Those who uphold traditional GRI believe that women’s responsibilities are in relation to the family, while men are responsible for the financial aspect (Denton, 2004).

Previous researchers investigating gender-role ideology have explored some of the demographic characteristics which play an influential role in people’s tendency to adhere to gender-role ideology. Some of those demographics are either social constructs such as socialisation and the social context or individual demographics such as gender, age, religious affiliation, educational attainment and employment.

2.4.4.1 Gender-Role Ideology and Socialisation

According to Myers and Spencer (2006), individuals are socialized into gender roles early in life, through the family institution, which is influenced by culture, socio-economic status, religion, region and race (PAHO, 1994). Kulik, 2002 mentions that attitudes towards gender-role are also formed during the process of socialisation. Mofolo (2010) brings attention to the socialisation that takes place under the African traditional cultures which socialises boys to be leaders and providers for their families while girls are socialised into being caregivers to

their children and husbands. In a study conducted by Khubeka (2008) to investigate 'black adolescents' experiences and perceptions of domestic violence in their homes and own intimate relationships, it was found that ideas of male power and control were present in the participants' socialised gendered notions.

Understanding gender-socialisation is pivotal in the way we make sense of gender-based violence and its pervasiveness and prevention. Jewkes et al., (2010) mentioned that the norm-based socialisation of boys that encourages sexual entitlement might offer insight into the prevalence of sexual violence perpetration. Barker (1999) explains that through the process of socialisation, social gender norms are developed in line with the particular context and society that an individual is in. Thus, it is imperative to understand the process of socialisation specific to the South African context, and aiming our interventions on this process might be foundational in effectively addressing GBV.

2.4.4.2 Individual Demographics Involved in Adherence to Gender-Role Ideology

According to Korabik, McElwain, & Chapell (2008), Individuals upholding traditional or egalitarian GRI can be of either gender. However, there is available research that supports the notion that women tend to uphold more egalitarian gender ideologies compared to men (see Bolzendahl & Myers 2004; Davis & Greenstein, 2009; Fan & Marini, 2000; Sweeting, Bhaskar, Benzveva, Popham & Hunt, 2014). In terms of age, the studies conducted by Burt & Scott (2002) and Carlson & Knoester (2011) suggest that adolescents and young adults have more egalitarian views when compared to their parents. Education provides one with exposure to non-traditional gender-role ideology and counters the acceptance of gender myths and stereotypes (Cassidy & Warren 1996; Sweeting et al., 2014). In the studies conducted by (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004; Cunningham 2005, Fan & Marini 2000) they found that the more educated a person is the more egalitarian they are in their gender-role

ideology. Bryant (2003) reported that both women and men become less traditional after four years of college because of the education they receive at college which seems to affect both genders in a similar way. However, this alone is not enough to claim that an individual that has been in university is non-traditional in their gender-role ideology as some of these ideologies are learnt at an early age and tend to form part of an individual's schema.

2.4.4.3 Gender-Role Ideology and Culture/Tradition

These entrenched scripts of gender relations stem from long-standing traditions such as the institution of marriage and *lobola*. The construction of marriage, be it in terms of the law (Bryson, 2003) or under customary law (Matope, Maruzani, Chauraya, & Bondai, 2013), favours hegemonic forms of masculinities that abide by traditional gender roles. Marriage is also influential in the maintenance of distinction and differences in gender roles between men and women and the ways in which they relate with one another (Cott, 2002).

For example, many cultures in SA practice '*lobola*' which translates into the brides 'price'. Once *lobola* has been paid a perception of 'owning' or 'being owned' is held by both genders which often means that the women are at the mercy of their husbands and transversely the husbands are in control of their wives (Matope et al., 2013). To some extent, both the institution of marriage and *lobola* provide culturally sanctioned conditions in which men may be enabled to commit sexual or intimate partner violence (Zondi, 2007), as sex is viewed as part of the marriage agreement regardless of whether the wife wants it or not (Lindsey, 2016). Some men tend to misconstrue the tradition of *lobola* for using it to exercise control and dominance over their wives (CSV, 2016; Zondi, 2007) which in some marriages leads to GBV (Ludsin & Vetten, 2005). Boonzaier (2008) and Mofolo (2010) argue that traditional ideas about marriage, gender roles and male power are correlates to elevated levels of IPV.

2.4.4.4 Gender-Role Ideologies and Religion

Research has found that a relationship exists between religious practices and ideologies and gender role attitudes (Abouchedid & Nasser, 2007; Burn & Busso, 2005). Religious institutions tend to encourage the development of various versions of the ideology of separate spheres, with male activity concentrated in the realm of work (defined as public) and women's activity concentrated in the home and church (defined as private) (Cott, 2000). Furthermore, narratives related to the appropriateness of power sharing in heterosexual relationships is influenced by religious affiliation and personal religious beliefs (Davis & Greenstein, 2009).

For example, in Christianity, the husband is expected to be the head of the family and the wife to be dependent on him (Cott, 2000), which is an assertion of patriarchal gender roles and social order. Furthermore, Christian beliefs concerning gender have an impact on the way a woman responds towards gender role conflict as she has to decide between two conflicting roles; either being submissive and obedient, or protecting herself from violence (Lommers-Johnson, 2016). Islam, being the second largest religious institution in the world (Lindsey, 2016), also espouses essentialist notions of gender and patriarchal gender roles. "Men are in charge of women, because God hath made the one of them to excel the other" (Qur'an, 4:34). Since men are considered as superior to women and entrusted as protectors of women, God then gives men authority over women (Lindsey, 2016). Furthermore, conservative Islamic Institutions assert that women should not work outside the home and their work should be limited to women and children (Mayer, 2013) thus impeding on women's economic rights (Richards & Haglund, 2015).

Hinduism also reinforces gender roles which depict women as wives, mothers, homemakers and complete dependents on men who provide them with a sense of security (Lindsey, 2015).

Similar to Christianity, Islam, and Hinduism, Judaism also operates on gendered divisions of both labour and family life (Lindsey, 2016). Men assume responsibility for generating income and teaching children about religion, whilst the women are confined to domestic roles such as homemaking and the carrying out of domesticated religious rituals such as preparing meals (Lindsey, 2016). The traditional African religion is no different from the aforementioned religions as it also thrives on patriarchal domination. Rooted in pre-colonial times where men were the hunters and women were responsible for carrying out the domestic duties, men remain providers that are responsible for protecting and leading the family (CSVR, 2016 & Mofolo, 2010) while women assume a subordinate position to men and are limited to caregiving (Mofolo, 2010).

Regardless of religious affiliation and degree of interaction with like-minded individuals, the intensity with which a person regards his/her religious beliefs has been found to be a correlate of their gender role ideology, where more religious literalism is related with less gender egalitarian ideology (Denton, 2004; Hoffman & Bartkowski, 2008). Furthermore, Siordia (2016) argues that if religious ideologies encourage inequitable gender-role attitudes then it is expected that individuals that exhibit a stronger belief would also hold more traditional gender attitudes. Hence, in the multicultural context of South Africa where all these different religions exist, their influences on gender-role ideologies cannot be disputed in relation to gender-based violence.

2.5 Gender Role Ideology and Tolerance towards Dating Violence

The term 'dating violence' is often used to describe intimate partner violence (IPV) among adolescents and young adults. IPV is a serious public health issue that is associated with numerous harmful physical and psychological health complications (Black et al., 2011; Eshelman & Levendosky, 2012; Exner-Cortens, Eckenrode, & Rothman, 2013; WHO, 2013).

In South Africa IPV has often been associated with elevated rates of HIV/AIDS (Fox et al., 2007). It is apparent that vulnerability to IPV is dependent on certain contextual factors; hence poverty remains a key risk factor for IPV due to increases in conflict about limited financial resources (Jewkes, 2002). While being highly educated and having financial freedom reduces the likelihood of experiencing IPV in intimate relationships (Jewkes, 2002).

As mentioned before, traditional gender roles are the perceptions of how men and women are expected to behave in a society (Brown & Gladstone, 2012; Korabik, McElwin, & Chapell, 2008). Men with traditional gender role ideologies are more likely to report committing sexual coercion and sexual violence in their intimate relationships (Anderson, Simpson-Taylor & Herrmann, 2004; Doss & Hopkins, 1998). There is also a high likelihood for men with traditional gender role ideologies to report sexual infidelity in their relationships, casual sex and other risky sexual behaviours (Bowleg, Lucas, & Tschann, 2004). Boonzaier (2008) argues that culturally embedded constructions of patriarchal ideologies serve to justify male violence against women in abusive relationships.

Hence, violence is frequently used as a disciplinary strategy towards women who do not adhere to their male partners' authority (Boonzaier, 2008; Wood & Jewkes, 2001). This violence exists on a spectrum, from 'lesser' methods such as shouting and slapping to more severe methods such as beating, pushing, punching with fists, hitting with sticks, rape, stabbing and even shooting (Wood & Jewkes, 2001).

2.6 Relationship between Gender-Role Ideology and Rape Myth Acceptance

A link exists between attitudes towards rape and traditional gender-role ideologies that are related to sexual behaviours (Burt, 1980; Johnson et al., 1997 Petersen et al., 2005). Attitudes are central in matters of gender-based violence, as they are influential in the perpetration of GBV, in the responses of victims towards their own victimisation and society's response

(Flood & Pease, 2009). There is a causal relationship between men's adherence to patriarchal gender norms and the perpetration of GBV (Murnen, Wright & Kaluzny, 2002)

Burt (1980) defined rape myths as “prejudicial, stereotyped, or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists” and theorized that they serve to create a climate “hostile to rape victims” (p. 217). Rape myths place blame on the victim, whilst absolving the perpetrator and minimising the impact of the violence (Brownmiller 1975; Burt 1980; Johnson et al., 1997; Lonsway and Fitzgerald 1994). It is assumed that rape myths are learned by men and boys to allow them to perpetrate sexual violence on women when they believe it is necessary (Anderson, Simpson-Taylor, & Herrmann, 2004). Koss et al., 1994, as cited in Buddie & Miller, 2001) assumed that rape myth acceptance occurs on three levels:

- 1.) Victim masochism (assuming the victim wanted or enjoyed the experience);
- 2.) Victim precipitation (assumes that the victim asked for it or deserved it); and
- 3.) Victim fabrication (assuming that the victim is lying).

Common rape myths include “she was asking for it,” “all women want to be raped,” and “if you are going to be raped you might as well relax and enjoy it” as quoted in (Brownmiller, 1975, p. 311). Gqola (2007) also mentions a few prevailing rape myths that are common in South Africa namely: the ‘no’ means ‘yes’ premise that maintains that women do not mean what they say. In this view, ‘girls play hard to get’ and should be pursued regardless of what they say and behaviours such as wearing revealing clothes, or being intoxicated translate into this notion of ‘asking for it’. Rape myths also contribute to the secondary victimization of victims (Burt, 1980). In a rape tolerant culture, victims of sexual violence are often subjected to disbelief and are frequently blamed for the offence (Burt, 1980; Gqola, 2007; Suarez & Gadalla 2010), leading to a silencing of the victim's narrative in order to protect the

perpetrator (Gqola 2007). Johnson et al., (1997) found that the tendency to exonerate the perpetrator was more prevailing than the tendency to blame the victim.

2.7 Antecedents of rape myth acceptance

To further understand rape myths and what maintains them, this section of the literature review will explore the antecedents that have been found to be significant correlates to the acceptance of rape myths. In the study conducted by Field (1978), gender, age, race, and education were found to have a significant impact on participants' attitudes towards rape myths. Klemmack and Klemmack (1976) found education and occupational status to have a significant influence on rape myth acceptance.

2.7.1 Gender and Rape Myth Acceptance

Previous research informs us that men are more likely than women to support rape myths (Burt, 1980; Johnson et al., 1997; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). There is a high likelihood that individuals that conform to rigid gender role stereotypes are more likely to support the domination of women (Burt, 1980). Lonsway & Fitzgerald (1995) believe that rape myths function differently for men and women. For men, they justify their sexual aggression towards women, while women use rape myths to deny their vulnerability. A study by Buddie & Miller (2001) revealed that 66% of the participants (male and female) endorsed rape myths, thus confirming that both men and women uphold rape myths.

Men who uphold rigid stereotypes about women's roles in society and relationships have been found to have higher rape myth acceptance (Kahn, Mathie, & Torgler, 1994). Lonsway & Fitzgerald (1994) noted that men who uphold rape myths are likely to believe that women are inferior to them and thus deserve fewer rights than them. These men are also more likely to believe that women exist to serve men's needs. A study conducted in Zwelibomvu village located in KwaZulu Natal by Zondi (2007) which aimed to investigate women's attitudes

towards the idea of becoming the property of men after marriage, revealed the pervasiveness of rape myths in some traditional contexts in South Africa. In a study with 20 Xhosa men recruited from Mthatha in the Eastern Cape, Sikweyiya, Jewkes, Morrell (2007) found that although all of the men perceived rape to be wrong, the majority strongly believed in rape myths such as: rape could only occur if a man used physical force and if he had visible marks on his skin as a result of the women's protest (Sikweyiya, Jewkes, & Morrell, 2007).

2.7.2 Racial Salience in the Conceptualisation of Rape

This research study does not intend on engaging in an academic discourse on 'race' in relation to sexual violence. However, a discussion could not be completely avoided as race was used as one of the demographic variables in the study. Thus, in the context of the current study 'race' is discussed as a social construct, engineered through patriarchal gender-role ideologies which are rooted in socio-political history making this part of the literature reviews significant bearing on the socio-political history of South Africa.

Race has been identified as a significant demographic variable in multiple studies conducted in the United States investigating rape myths acceptance and sexual violence (see Burt, 1980; Giacopassi and Dull 1986). A study by Owens Patton & July-Snyder (2007) examined the relationship between rape and race in relation to false charges against four black men by a student from the Iowa State University (ISU). They reviewed multiple cases where 'black men' were used as scapegoats for violent crimes that outraged the American society which, in so doing, led to the categorisation of 'black men' as a perpetrator of crimes against 'white people'. In this study Owen Patton and Snyder-July (2007) found that the case of the ISU student and her false accusations against black men lead to the revision of the myth that signified race in relation to sexual violence. They argued that this is as a result of white

hegemonic patriarchal power which categorises black men as ‘violent brutes’ that intend on harming white women.

Jahoda (1999) writes about the historical notions formulated by scholars who visited the African continent around the 13th and 15th centuries which depicted Africans as sexualised savages who appeared as “monstrous” which now lie at the root of the existing myths on dangerous black male sexuality. Jahoda continues to say, these myths formed the basis of the logic of justification for the ‘civilising mission’ of what was perceived as the ‘dark continent’. Naturally, this ‘logic’ and the racist belief in the racial, intellectual and moral superiority of whites that underpinned colonialism and apartheid in South Africa has fed the popular social imagination about sexual violence in SA. Ratele (2013) argues that South Africa’s socio-political history is crucial in understanding black masculinities as under apartheid black masculinity was subordinated to collective, white patriarchal power. As a result, one of the ways in which masculinity could be re-asserted for politically and economically disenfranchised black men is through the articulation of personal patriarchal power in their homes and relationships by dominating their wives and partners and by ascribing to very traditional gender-role ideologies (Ratele, 2013).

Moffett (2006) mentions that the apartheid regime has strongly influenced the conceptualisation of gender-based violence for women in South Africa and continues to do so despite legislative changes. Moffett (2006) adds that rape draws on the principles of apartheid which supported patriarchal domination. Discourses of rape in relation to race in South Africa are also informed by the influence of the apartheid regime which operated on the premise of racial division and the subordination of black people which had a pervasive impact on both the political and social spheres (Coetzee & du Toit, 2017; Moffett, 2006). However, it is necessary to mention that GBV cuts across class and racial lines and occurs in predominantly patriarchal societies, regardless of race (Abrahams, Jewkes & Laubsher, 1999; Moffett,

2006), as it thrives on the power imbalances maintained between men and women (Terry & Hoare, 2007; Moffett, 2006).

2.7.3 Level of Education in Relation to Rape Myths

Research conducted in America reveals that both males in college settings and non-college settings have been said to uphold rape myths (Burt, 1980; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Burt (1980) found that the more educated one is the more liberal they become in terms of their attitudes towards gender-role ideologies and rape myth acceptance. In the study conducted by Jewkes et al., (2010) they found that statistically significant differences in the prevalence of rape by level of educational achievement existed ($p = 0.04$). However, rape perpetration was frequently reported by men in all educational categories. Jewkes, et al., (2010) further found that men who had completed a university degree, or who had attended school without securing matric, were significantly less likely to have raped than those who had not attained a similar level of education.

2.7.4 Occupational Status in Relation to Rape Myths Acceptance

Burt (1980) found that the higher an individual's occupational status the higher the likelihood of upholding more liberal attitudes in relation to gender-role ideology and rape myths. Research investigating antecedents of rape myth acceptance is limited in the South African context, but in some studies conducted on HIV/AIDS and GBV, (see Boonzaier, 2005; Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002) it was found that men who have limited resources and lack opportunities for social advancement often resort to exerting control over women. In the study conducted by Jewkes (2002) the findings revealed that occupational status can be both a protective factor and a risk factor for women, depending on the context and whether her

occupational status is perceived as a threat to male dominance and control over women or not.

2.7.5 Age in Relation to Rape Myth Acceptance

Younger individuals are reported to exhibit less rape myth acceptance (Burt, 1980). Based on Burt's (1980) findings, it is expected that young educated people are less likely to accept rape myths. However, a study conducted by Harvey, Garcia-Moreno & Butchart (2007) found young age to increase the likelihood of accepting rape myths. In a study conducted by Sikweyiya et al., (2007) it was found that the respondents distanced themselves from acts of sexual coercion by attributing the behaviour to a lack of knowledge or immaturity. Thus, to a certain extent being 'young' can be used to diminish one's responsibility, thus distancing the individual from assuming responsibility for their actions.

2.8 GBV in Universities or Institutions of Higher Learning

The prevalent nature of sexual violence as mentioned before does not discriminate and thus exists in all sectors of society. Its pervasiveness has offered no exemption to institutions of higher learning, both internationally (Benson, Gohm, & Gross, 2007; Fisher et al., 2000; Krebs et al., 2007) and in South Africa (Gordons & Collins, 2013; Jewkes, et al., 2012; Mayekiso & Bhana, 1997). The National College of Women's' Sexual Victimization (NWSV), which was a study conducted by Fisher et al., (2000) sampled 4,446 university women and found that 2.8% of them had experienced an attempted and or completed act of sexual violence during the current academic year they had registered for. This study also revealed that between 20 and 25% of women in university will experience an attempted or a completed act of sexual violence while in their university career. Women in institutions of

higher learning are more likely to experience gender-based violence than women that are not enrolled in such institutions (Humphrey & Kahn, 2000).

There is a growing body of literature on gender-based violence in universities or institutions of higher learning in South Africa e.g. (Clowes et al., 2009; de Klerk et al, 2011; Hoque, 2011; Mayekiso & Bhana, 1997; van Staden & Badenhost, 2009). In the study conducted by Mayekiso & Bhana (1997) in the Eastern Cape, on 827 student participants on the former University of Transkei campus to investigate the students' experiences of sexual violence on the campus. They found that 14% of the male participants in the sample and 17% of the female participants had either experienced or observed sexual violence on campus (Mayekiso & Bhana, 1997). They also found that 46% of the female participants and 31% of the male participants had observed or experienced unsolicited sexual advances such as touching and fondling. Additionally, 51% of males and 44% of females in the study had either observed or had been on the receiving end of sexual remarks about their sexual activities, body structure, or way of dressing (Mayekiso & Bhana, 1997). The disparity between the figures of both genders is intriguing as it either meant that the women in the sample had been extensively exposed to sexual violence or that the male participants in the sample minimised the prevalence of sexual violence.

2.8.1 Age as a Risk Factor for Sexual Violence among the University Population

The National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS), which is an extensive study conducted in the United States of America, in 2006, found 191,670 incidents of rape or sexual assault with the highest victimization rate evident for 16 to 19-year-old women (Catalano, 2006). Thus, suggesting that women who are at the common age for enrolling in university are at a higher risk of becoming victims of sexual violence on college campuses in the United States (Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher, & Martin, 2007). This finding is being mentioned tentatively as

not all women between the ages of 16 and 19 years attend university and certainly not all sexual assaults take place within university contexts.

2.8.2 The Residence Culture and Alcohol Consumption as a Risk Factor for Sexual Violence

According to Fisher et al., (2000) and Flack et al., (2008), the first year of university/college is regarded as a 'red zone' as female students are believed to be at the greatest risk for experiencing sexual violence. In the study conducted by van Staden & Badenhost (2009) to explore the interplay of gender and cultural factors on South African students' sexual behaviour, found that age is an influential risk factor for female students, as their cultural backgrounds tend to promote the preference of having sex with older men, which makes the negotiation of safe sex practices difficult.

Ostrander & Schwartz (1994) mention that first-year students are transitioning from the guardianship of their parents to being independent and that they often join fraternities or sororities as cited in Flack et al., (2008). Fraternities are often private spaces on campus residences (with many private rooms) that tend to hold unsupervised parties with exposure to alcohol, and some of these fraternities are known for condoning the act of getting women drunk in order to have sex with them (Sampson, 2002). Furthermore, peer support is often readily available in these fraternities which then encourages sexual violence and legitimises it (Sampson, 2002). Within the context of this study the 'institutional culture' is known for its sexualised practices e.g., 'hunt-the-grunt', 'horse-racing', 'whale-harpooning', 'seal-clubbing', which serve to desensitise students regarding issues concerning gender and sexuality (Sexual Violence Task Team, 2016).

In the South African context, universities tend to have their ritualistic activities (especially in the beginning of the year) to initiate first year students to the different ‘institutionalised cultures’ which sometimes involve abusive power plays exercised by senior students. These differ from university to university but ‘welcoming parties/first year bashes’ are common denominators across the country and often involve the consumption of alcohol. In a study conducted by Clowes et al., (2009) in the University of the Western Cape (UWC) exploring experiences and understandings of young female students on the relationships between violence, coercion and heterosexuality on campus, revealed that alcohol and substance use play a major role in the practice of risky sexual behaviours among first year female students. Considering the general societal perceptions that exist in South Africa (inclusive of the university or institutions of higher learning populations) pertaining to gender-roles ideologies that subscribe to gendered patriarchal ideologies and claim dominance over women, this might act as a causative factor in the perpetration of sexual violence.

Alcohol use is an identifiable risk factor in the perpetration and victimisation of sexual violence (Abbey, 2010; Abbey, 2011; Krebs, Lindquist & Barrick, 2010 Testa, 2002). The involvement of alcohol in the perpetration of sexual violence incidents varies between 30% and 75% (Abbey, 2011). In the study conducted by Jewkes et al., (2010) they found that alcohol had a role to play in some of the incidences of IPV. However, in some studies it has been found that most of the participants committed most acts of sexual violence when they were sober and not when they were intoxicated (see Davis, Schraufnagel, George, & Norris, 2008; Parkhill & Abbey, 2008) which contrasts most of the available literature on the relationship between alcohol consumption and perpetration of sexual violence. This contrast indicates that alcohol is not necessarily a causal factor in the perpetration of sexual violence and that it should not be used as sole basis for explaining the perpetration of sexual violence.

In some experimental studies researchers have found that intoxicated women respond more passively in sexual assault situations than sober women (Davis, George & Norris, 2004; Stoner et al., 2007). However, this finding can be interpreted as suggesting that women are responsible for preventing sexual violence and that by being intoxicated they neglect that responsibility, thus indirectly adhering to the rape myth of victim precipitation (Koss et al., 1994). This explains the findings by Davis et al., (2008) and Parkhill & Abbey, (2008) as most perpetrators are often sober during the act.

Within the context of this research the 'drinking culture' in the university has been identified as an exacerbating factor in the prevalence of sexual violence, as alcohol consumption serves as a background to specific gender and sexual socialisation practices that occur in the University context (Sexual Violence Task Team, 2016). In a study conducted by Idahosa & Vincent (2014) to investigate the experiences of participants whose school performance and, therefore, university 'entry points' were lower than the expected norm at Rhodes University. Among other findings, they found that due to experiences of feeling alienated from the dominant culture and feeling intellectually inferior, most participants engaged in the university 'drinking culture' as a means of gaining acceptance.

Young & de Klerk (2008) investigated the prevalence and distribution of safe, hazardous, harmful and dependent drinking amongst students of Rhodes University and found that student drinking at Rhodes University is a public health concern with a likelihood of resulting in serious health, social and academic problems. They added that, Rhodes University is located in close proximity to establishments that sell alcohol because of the town's geographical size and limited spaces for alternative forms of relieving stress which exacerbates the 'drinking culture'. Young & de Klerk (2008) also found that about half of the participants in the sample exceeded the cut-off score which indicated that these students were at risk of alcohol related harm.

Furthermore, Young & de Klerk (2008) found that about a third of the participants in the sample fell into the hazardous drinking category while the remaining participants were either dependent on alcohol or consumed it harmfully. In another study conducted by Young & Mason (2010) which sought to obtain accurate drinking norms for students living in the Rhodes University residences found that there were no differences between male and female students drinking patterns. In a developing country such as South Africa, such findings are concerning in light of crime and the prevalence of HIV more than they would be in developed countries (Young & Mason, 2010).

Furthermore, developing countries such as South Africa are faced with more complex issues such as poverty that exacerbate the prevalence of GBV in universities or Institutions of Higher Learning. As a result, female students coming from socio-economically disadvantaged backgrounds see transactional sex as a way to uplift their social status (van Staden & Badenhost, 2009). In a study conducted by Hoque (2011) in Mangosuthu Buthelezi University in KwaZulu Natal investigating a sample of undergraduate female participants, found that poverty played a significant role in the practice of risky sexual behaviour. Additionally, the study conducted by Ranganathan et al., (2016) which aimed to investigate whether transactional sex is associated with an increased risk of HIV infection among a sample of young, rural, sexually active South African women engaging in transactional sex, found poverty to be a salient factor in young women's engagement in transactional sex in exchange for money or gifts. Similarly, Clowes et al., (2009) found that first year university students that come from socio-economically disadvantaged rural backgrounds are more vulnerable to transactional sex relationships which are associated with coercive and sometimes even violent sexual practices. These transactional sexual encounters exist within the context of gender power inequalities which makes these young women unable to negotiate safe and equitable sex (Burgard & Kusonoki, 2009; Shefer & Strebel, 2013).

In summary, GBV is a serious issue in universities or institutions of higher learning in South Africa and needs more focused research on what the maintaining factors are. Universities or institutions of higher learning need to be examined within the contexts they are in and not viewed as separate spaces that are unaffected by existing socio-political issues affecting South Africa.

2.9 The Rhodes University Context

Rhodes University is the smallest university in South Africa with about 7000 students (Rhodes University Digest of Statistics, 2015). It is established in the small rural town of Grahamstown in the Eastern Cape. Although small, it is not immune to the affliction of GBV which is currently facing the rest of South Africa.

2.9.1 The Silent Protest

As a result of the prevalent nature of sexual violence in Rhodes University, in 2007, a programme called the Silent Protest was created in an attempt to draw attention to and challenge the culture of silence around sexual violence (Silent Protest, 2017). The Silent Protest began as an initiative between Rhodes University and the one in nine campaign which advocates against sexual violence (Silent Protest, 2017). Since its inception, the Silent Protest has become a scheduled annual event in the university calendar. The Silent Protest begins with a gathering of participants wearing purple t-shirts in scripted with messages that speak against sexual violence and the silence surrounding it. During the protest the protestors have their mouths taped with black gaffer tape, symbolising the silencing that occurs around sexual violence (Silent Protest, 2017).

2.9.2 The #RURferenceList

In April 2016, a list with 11 names titled the ‘reference list’ surfaced on social media from Rhodes University (Seddon, 2016). A crowd of students had gathered on campus and went to the respective residences of the men on the list, rounding them up and demanding the university to act on these allegations (Seddon, 2016). The #RURferenceList gained a considerable amount of media coverage which heightened the university community’s awareness of sexual violence as students demanded the entire university community to join them in solidarity in their plight against sexual violence (Seddon, 2016). During this time the university campus walls were covered in posters advocating against sexual violence and the ‘rape culture’ in the institution. Furthermore, the protesting students demanded a shut-down of the university as they felt that their concerns were ignored by the university as it was tolerant of the ‘rape culture’ on campus (Seddon, 2016). However, as these protests were unplanned and disruptive of the University academic programme, the university administration requested police force and a court interdict to prevent further protesting (Seddon, 2016).

Cantalupo (2014) mentions that violence in institutions of higher learning is subjected to two extremes, one of silencing and the other being sensationalism. Responses from the university are pivotal in the cycle of non-reporting and the continuation of sexual violence on campus (Cantalupo, 2014). One of the reasons for under-reporting by victims of sexual violence was the fear of not being believed by persons in authority (Cantalupo, 2014). This could not hold more credence than it did for the Rhodes University community where students felt for years that their reports of sexual violence on campus were ignored by the university (De Klerk et al., 2011; Seddon, 2016; Tadepally & Parker, 2016).

In light of the #RURferenceList protests, a Sexual Violence Task Team (SVTT) was assembled to explore how a culture counteracting against rape culture may be implemented at the University (Sexual Violence Task Team, 2016). The task team, in light of the #RURferenceList protests recommended that three overarching goals: a need for retributive justice, mediation and restorative justice, and reparative justice (Sexual Violence Task Team, 2016). One of the recommendations made in the SVTT report under reparative justice was a recommendation to institute the Bystander model of prevention as a means of preventing sexual violence directly as it will train students and university staff to identify and intervene in situations that have the potential to cause harm.

2.10 Prevention of Sexual Violence

The prevention of sexual violence is targeted on three different levels: primary prevention (which has its focus on changing systems/societal norms); secondary prevention (which has its focus on an immediate response after a rape has occurred); and thirdly, tertiary prevention (which has its focus on long term responses following a rape to ameliorate the consequences for the victim) (Centres for Disease Control and Prevention, 2004; Loots, Dartnall, Jewkes, 2011; Topping & Barron, 2009; Townsend & Campbell, 2008).

The bystander model mentioned above is identified as a primary method of prevention, and is gaining popularity on university campuses as the responsibility of prevention is attributed not only to the potential victim but also to the potential perpetrator and to any bystanders (Banyard, Plante, and Moynihan, 2004; McMahon and Banyard, 2012; McMahon, Postmus, and Koenick, 2011; Potter, Moynihan, Stapleton, and Banyard, 2009). This model is not limited to changing individual behaviours; rather, it has a broadened focus that aims to change interactions between peers, the community, norms, and behaviours (Casey & Lindhorst, 2009; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2004; Moynihan, Potter, Banyard, Stapleton, & Mayhew, 2010). The bystander model encompasses all three levels of

prevention as it aims to address the social attitudes and values that enable sexual violence in the first place (primary prevention); develop competencies that increase the likelihood of community members intervening during actual acts of sexual violence (secondary prevention); and providing supportive environments and access to medical and legal services after the sexual violence act (tertiary prevention) (McMahon & Banyard, 2012).

However, since the acceptance of rape myths is common among college students, this has been identified as a barrier to successful implementation of bystander interventions, as potential bystanders attribute less worthiness to the victim and thereby feel less responsible to intervene (Suarez & Gadalla, 2010).

2.11 Conclusion

The literature explored 'gender' as a construct as it crucial in the conceptualisation of both gender-role ideology and gender-based violence. Feminist theory was also explored with regards to gender, and its connection to gender based violence. The literature then went on to shed light on current issues brought about by the transition from apartheid to democracy which caused disequilibrium in the realm of patriarchal ideology which thrives on gender inequality and ultimately leads to the substantial prevalence of GBV. The literature focused on the available literature on gender-role ideology and its relationship to GBV. This focus was also explored through the relationship between gender-role ideology and dating violence and the relationship between gender-role ideology and the acceptance of rape myths.

To provide further understanding of the relationship between gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance, antecedents that have been found as significant correlates to rape myth acceptance were explored. As the study is conducted in a university setting the literature focused on the GBV in University contexts and some of the known causative factors such as being a first-year student, and being part of the institutional culture which often includes

alcohol use. The Rhodes University context was reviewed in relation to the silent protest and the #RURferenceList protest which took place in April 2016. The final part of the literature discussed the prevention of sexual violence as it is significant in the overarching goal of this study.

3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the methodology used in carrying out the aims in addressing the research question. In order to do this, quantitative methodology was employed. “A quantitative research paradigm emphasizes the importance of generalizability and reliability” (Henn, Weinstein & Foard, 2006, p. 16). This approach has been adopted for this study as through statistical inference the results obtained can be generalised to the population represented by the sample (Delice, 2010). Moreover, the quantitative approach allows researchers to either confirm or invalidate known or predicted relationships (Neuman, 2011) which made this approach a better fit for addressing the aim of this study. This chapter will begin by exploring the research question, mention available theoretical predictions, and provide details of the sample population. Thereafter, it will discuss the ethical considerations applicable to this study, provide a detailed exploration of the measures used, their development and adaptation for this context, as well as their validity and reliability. Finally, the data gathering process will be outlined on a step by step basis, followed by the process of statistical analyses conducted in this study.

Since quantitative research methodology was employed, descriptive statistics were used to describe the large amount of numerical data obtained from the study, while inferential analyses were employed to draw conclusions about the variables of interest in relation to the research questions. The design of the study was a once-off cross sectional design that allowed the researcher to observe the different responses provided by the participants in four samples drawn from different sectors of the university community. This design was useful when comparing responses through demographic information in reference to race, gender, home language, age, education level, religion and number of years spent studying or working within the university context.

3.1 Research Questions

The aim of this study was to investigate possible relationships between gender-role ideology and attitudes towards various forms of GBV amongst a university population specifically. This involved a student sample, an academic staff sample, an administrative support staff sample and an operational support staff sample as part of a once-off cross sectional design study. The study employed correlational analyses. A correlational analysis investigates the nature of the relationship between two variables (Bernstein, et al., 2005) and also informs us of the strength and direction of the relationship (Caldwell, 2013) between those two variables.

This study aims to investigate whether a correlation exists between the following variables: gender-role ideology and dating violence, gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance, gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance (across all four samples). The data was generated from three scales that measured attitudes towards traditional gender-role ideology, dating violence and rape myth acceptance. Mean scores from these scales were generated from the data for all four samples. The investigation sought to measure the strength and direction of the linear correlation, if any, across all four samples that were used in this study.

The following questions will guide the investigation:

- i. Does a relationship exist between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology, attitudes towards various forms of violence in intimate / dating relationships and level of rape myth acceptance?
- ii. Are there any specific demographic variables that impact on these correlations?

3.2 Theoretically Expected Relationships

The following statements are the two main expected relationships for this study which were used to interpret the findings of this study:

- i. Adherence to traditional gender-role ideology will correlate positively with rape myth acceptance
- ii. Rape myth acceptance will correlate positively with tolerance towards violence in intimate / dating relationships

3.3 Units of Analysis and Sampling Procedures

The overall sample population for this study was composed of the entire university population which was then divided into four sub-sectors. The largest sample was the student sample which had participants enrolled for undergraduate and postgraduate qualifications. The second sample included members of the academic staff and the third sample was made up of administrative support staff. The fourth sample was made up of members of the operational support staff, specifically from the catering and grounds departments. Further recruiting of operational support staff was disrupted by the #FeesMustFall protests of 2016.

The sampling procedure was non-probability convenience sampling, as volunteer participants were recruited via email, electronic advertisement and by face-to-face recruiting strategies. The research team aimed to get a minimum sample size of 10% of respondents from all four sample populations, which would be 750 students, 45 academic staff members, 43 administrative support staff members and 47 operational support staff members which would add up to an overall sample of 885 participants. According to Lenth (2001) a study sample needs to be of adequate size which is in relation to its goals. However, Baruch (1999) brings attention to the difficulties surrounding what may be considered a good response rate as research is entirely dependent on the target population's decision to either participate or not participate in the study. The actual response rate to the current study was 308 participants which was fairly representative as the academic ($n = 56$) and administrative support staff ($n = 48$) met the 10% benchmark while the operational staff ($n = 39$) fell slightly below and the student sample falling way below the 10% with ($n = 165$) participants.

3.4 Ethical Considerations

This research study received ethical clearance from the Department of Psychology Research Projects and Ethics Review Committee (RPERC) and the relevant ethics tracking number is PSY2016/25. Furthermore, permission from the institution's Director of Human Resources and the division of the Registrar was obtained. An advertisement to recruit participants was created collaboratively by the research team and posted on the RU-Connected platform, which was easily accessible to all students. Academic and administrative support staff were recruited via email where a link to the survey was attached. However, as most of the operational support staff members did not have access to either the RU-Connected platform or computers where they could access emails, a different approach had to be employed. The research team had to arrange a time and place with managers of the respective departments within this division where hard copies of the electronic survey were translated into isiXhosa, printed, and handed out to participants (specifically, those in the catering and grounds and gardening departments).

The survey was administered anonymously and included questions on demographics, but no responses could be used to identify specific individuals. Being under the age of 18 years was the only exclusion criteria for participants in the overall study. Participation in this research study was voluntary, anonymous, and participants were informed that they could at any point withdraw from the study without any penalties. The responses of the participants were kept confidential and have been secured on a computer using a password to prevent anyone except the principal researcher from accessing the information. The research team took into consideration the nature of the research and acknowledged that the research could result in emotional harm, thus arrangements with the counselling centre situated on campus were made in the event that a participant felt overwhelmed by the survey.

3.5 Procedures for Data Collection

Primary data was collected through a survey made up from different scales that measure attitudes towards traditional gender-role ideologies, attitudes towards dating violence, and attitudes towards rape myth acceptance. This survey was sent to the staff and student population via RU-connected, emailing lists, and in the form of a pencil and paper survey (for operational support staff members who had no access to email). The survey was formulated by compiling questions from already established scales such as the Attitudes Towards Women Scale (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1973), the Rape Attitudes and Beliefs Scale (Burgess, 2007), the Attitudes Towards Dating Violence Scale (Price & Byers, 1999), and the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999).

Taking into consideration the target population and the context of the study, the scales were adapted to the South African context by de-gendering the language on some of the items, changing the language and making it more accessible to South Africans, and finally collapsing some of the items wherever there was repetition. It is possible that these alterations might have impacted on the reliability and validity of the scales. In light of this possible limitation, Cronbach's alpha analyses were conducted on the newly adapted scales namely; gender-role ideology scale (GI), dating violence scale (DV) and rape myths acceptance scale (RM) for reliability and validity. Although a more in-depth assessment of the reliability and validity of the current scales were noted as necessary, it fell beyond the scope and capacity of the current study.

3.5.1 Gender-Role Ideology Scale (GI)

The gender-role ideology sub-scale was developed from the Attitudes towards Women Scale (AWS) (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1973), the Gender Role Beliefs Scale (GRBS) (Brown & Gladstone, 2012) and a few items from the Rape Attitudes and Beliefs Scale (RABS)

(Burgess, 2007). Spence, Helmreich and Stapp (1973) developed the Attitudes towards Women Scale (AWS) to assess attitudes towards women in their gender roles and expectations of their behaviours in certain life roles. The scale consists of 25 items on a 4-point Likert scale with responses ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree (Spence, et al, 1973). Brown & Gladstone (2012) identified 10 items from the Gender Role Beliefs Scale (GRBS) to create a short version of the scale. The 10-item GRBS has a Cronbach's alpha value of .81, which attests to the scales' internal consistency and reliability.

For this scale, items were altered in terms of language for example one of the items in the AWS (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1973) states "sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to college than daughters". This was altered to "sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to university than daughters." In South Africa the term 'university' is used to address institutions of higher learning not the term 'college' which is commonly used in the United States of America.

3.5.2 Dating Violence Scale (DV)

This scale was developed using the Attitudes towards Dating Violence Scale (Price & Byers, 1999) which was developed to assess adolescents' attitudes towards physical, psychological and sexual violence in dating relationships. The Attitudes towards Dating Violence Scales consist of three dating violence scales focused on psychological, physical and sexual violence respectively with two parallel versions for male and female respondents (Price & Byers, 1999). For the present study, these scales were de-gendered, thus making no direct reference to either gender. This resulted in the creation of many duplicate items, which were then removed from the final questionnaire. Some of the language was also altered to make it contextually appropriate to the South African context. Some of the items referred to "yelling at" or "shoving" one's partner. These phrases were identified by the research team as being

likely to be unfamiliar in the local South African context and so were subjected to superficial linguistic substitution by words more locally recognisable (e.g. “shouting at” and “pushing”).

The original scales had two parallel versions (one for males and the other for females). The research team’s decision to de-gender the scales was made primarily for two theoretical reasons: 1) the original gendered items reproduced a heteronormative bias in their construction of what constitutes a dating or intimate relationship (i.e. only heterosexual); and 2) the gendered nature of the items potentially reproduces an implicit bias regarding the construction of perpetrator and victim subject positions that excludes and renders invisible the possibility for dating violence to occur in alternate forms of dating or intimate relationships. De-gendering the items thus rendered two parallel forms of the scale unnecessary, hence the removal of duplicate items. Some of the items that were repeated for the purpose of internal consistency were also removed from the scales so as to shorten the length of the questionnaire and to combat participant fatigue.

3.5.3 Rape Myths Acceptance Scale (RM)

For this scale the Rape Attitudes and Beliefs Scale (Burgess, 2007) was used in conjunction with the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance scale (IRMA) (Payne, Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1999) and the updated version of the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance scale (IRMA-U) (McMahon & Farmer, 2011). Burgess (2007) developed the RABS to assess college men’s attitudes and beliefs concerning rape. A factor analysis of the RABS measured a Cronbach alpha of .93 which attests to the RABS internal consistency and reliability (Burgess, 2007). The Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMA) is a 45-item scale which was developed to measure attitudes towards rape myths (Payne, Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1999). The IRMA has a Cronbach alpha value of .93 which attests to its reliability and consistency in its measurement of attitudes towards rape myths (Payne, Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1999).

Like the other two sub-scales, the language on some of the items had to be altered and made more accessible to South Africans. For example, in the IRMA scale, one of the items read “when women are raped, it’s often because the way they said “no” was ambiguous”. This was changed to “when someone gets raped, it’s often because the way they said “no” was unclear” as the term ‘unclear’ was more accessible than the word ‘ambiguous’. This alteration was made considering the diversity of the overall sample in terms of level of education. Items on these scales were also de-gendered, once more to avoid presenting stereotypically gendered roles of ‘perpetrator’ or ‘victim’ of violence, as well as to counteract the implicit heteronormative bias of the original scales. Some of the items on the scales had been removed for their trigger value (e.g. “if a woman is going to be raped, she might as well lie back and enjoy it”). The research team identified this particular item as a potentially highly triggering one and so it was removed from the questionnaire to try avoid adverse consequences to participation in the study. Finally, the research team also merged the IRMA and the IRMA-U items. This was done since the IRMA-U is a shorter and linguistically updated (for the university context) version of the IRMA. There are overlaps in the semantic meaning of some of the items. Where such overlap was identified, the IRMA-U item was preferred.

3.6 Procedures for Data Analysis

Apart from the descriptive statistical analyses of demographic data as well as each sample’s scores on the measures of the three study variables, a Chi-squared analysis was conducted on the data to measure the goodness-of-fit using this formula: $\chi^2 = \frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$. This was done to compare the number of observed cases in the data set with the expected frequencies from the population. The outcomes were measured at $p < 0.05$, for significance to be attained χ^2 it had to be less than 3.85, and the degree of freedom ($df = k-1$) was one. The purpose of the Chi-

Squared analysis was to gauge whether the samples differ significantly from the expected distribution in the population using the Rhodes University Digest of statistics (2015).

As a result of the small sample sizes, Spearman's correlation co-efficient was used as a statistical measure to examine relationships from the collected data. The primary focus of the study was on an analysis of relationships between scores on scales for gender-role ideology, attitudes towards dating violence, and rape myth acceptance and to test for the possible effect of key demographic variables on these relationships.

Regression analysis was considered for this study, however, it was not conducted as the study is a once-off cross sectional design which made it unnecessary to look for predictions of how one value will influence the other. The co-efficient of determination obtained from the correlational analyses was deemed to be sufficient in making sense of the data.

3.7 Demographic Information

A variety of demographic data were collected, including participant's gender identification, religious affiliation, age, home language, level of education, number of years of service, (staff members) or years enrolled with the university (students), department or division in the university (staff), degree or faculty of registration (students), race, citizenship, place of residence and funding.

3.8 Data Analysis

Data was coded and entered into Excel and then transferred into Statistica, a statistical software package (Dell Statistica, 2016) for analysis. Initial data analysis included descriptive statistical analyses which was followed by inferential statistical analyses. Study variables were examined to identify outliers, and to examine missing values.

3.8.1 Data Clean Up

The first step was to clean the data which meant re-categorising the demographic variables with text labels, checking for accurate recording of responses to reverse-scored items in the questionnaire, and calculating means and standard deviations for the overall scores on the measures of traditional gender-role ideology (GI), dating violence (DV) and rape myth acceptance (RM). In terms of re-classifying the text labels, responses to the gender identification item were categorised as ‘woman’, ‘man’, or ‘gender-non-conforming’. Religion was categorised as ‘religious’ or ‘not religious’, and age was categorised as ‘older than’ or ‘younger than’ the mean age for the sample. Education level was categorised differently across all four samples. For example, the student sample ‘undergraduate’ or ‘postgraduate’, whereas the academic staff sample was categorised as level of academic qualification (i.e., PhD, or Master’s degree, etc.). Number of years of service or employment in the university context was categorised as ‘more than’ or ‘less than’ the relevant sample mean.

For the student sample, three more specific categories were created to re-classify the data: population, which was categorised as ‘black’ or ‘white’ or having a ‘preference not to be categorised’; accommodation, which was categorised as ‘residence’ or ‘digs’; and finally, funding was categorised as ‘with funding’ or ‘without funding’. The purpose of re-classifying allowed for developing categories within the data inclusive of greater numbers of respondents, allowing for better statistical comparisons of the participants’ responses in small samples.

Significant demographic variables for investigation were selected based on four related studies that were conducted on the same data where significant differences were found in the measurement scores across all four samples. In the study conducted by Msomi (2016) to

measure Rhodes University operational support staff members' attitudes towards sex and gender-based violence, she found that gender and age were able to predict a significant difference in scores on the three scales. Rudman (2016) found that level of education and religion have a significant impact on scores on the three measures for academic staff members. Naidoo (2016) found religion, gender, population and number of years in the institution to have a significant influence on the student samples' scores on the three scales. Fellows-Smith (2016) found level of education to be a significant demographic variable impacting on administrative support staffs scores on the three scales.

Based on the previous studies that were conducted on the same data, significant differences obtained from the measurement scores revealed demographic variables such as gender, age, language, education level, religion, and number of years spent in the university to be important predictors of differences in the measured scores.

3.8.2 Descriptive Statistics

To describe the data, the Likert scale responses (with responses ranging from strongly disagree (1), to disagree (2), to agree (3), and to strongly agree (4)) were coded numerically by summing up the scores for each case in the four samples. This allowed for the measuring of the central tendency in the distribution of scores using the median and the mean (\bar{x}). The median (M) score was established as the number situated in the middle of the ordered data, which places half of the scores below the middle score and the other half above it (Bernstein, et al., 2005). The mean (\bar{x}) scores of GI Sum, DV Sum, and RM Sum variables were calculated using the following formula: $\bar{x} = \frac{\sum x}{N}$ which describes how the total score is divided by the number of scores (Bernstein, et al., 2005)

3.8.3 Reliability Analysis using Cronbach's Alpha

Reliability refers to the dependability and consistency of a measure, it is suggestive that similar results ought to be yielded by a measure when used under similar conditions (Neuman, 2011). Furthermore, reliability is seen as the degree to which a test is free from measurement errors, since the more measurement errors occur the less reliable the test (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006; Neuman, 2011). Reliability is an important aspect of any measure as it can inform the researcher of the reliability of the measure, hence confirming the validity of the measure used. There are various types of reliability tests that could be performed to assess the reliability of a measure, however, the most common one being the Cronbach's alpha (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Hence, Cronbach's alpha test is employed in this study to measure the internal consistency of the measure. Prior to running Cronbach's alpha analyses, the scales were carefully checked for correct scoring of negatively phrased questions (or reverse scoring). Cronbach's alpha analyses were conducted using the 'Statistical Package for the Social Sciences' (SPSS), on the three subscale measures, namely: Gender Ideology scale (GI), Dating Violence scale (DV) and the Rape Myth Acceptance scale (RM) were analysed for the four samples.

3.8.4 Correlational Analyses

Pairwise correlations by means on the gender-role ideology scale, the dating violence scale, and the rape myth scale were run. This was followed by correlations by heterogeneous subsamples to investigate relationships between the sum of gender role ideology, sum of dating violence, and sum of rape myth acceptance by significant demographic variables. Common demographic factors across all four samples were age, gender, religion, level of education and number of years spent at the institution. Limited to the student population was

accommodation (on campus ‘residence’ or off-campus ‘digs’) and funding (‘with funding’ and ‘without funding’).

Scatterplots were used to reveal how gender role ideology affects dating violence and rape myth acceptance and how rape myth acceptance affects dating violence. Furthermore, on correlations where the relationship was not shown to be significant, further analyses were conducted using the demographic variables to explore possible explanations for the observed results. Following this, the data were assessed to examine whether they met or violated the assumptions of statistical significance. The data violated the assumption of normality and homogeneity of variance which meant the data could not be analysed as parametric. Box-whisker tests were run to establish the assumption of normality which revealed that most of the data violated this assumption meaning that the data could not be analysed using Pearson’s r , which is a parametric statistical test, as these two assumptions were violated. It is possible that these violations were due to the small sample sizes which consisted of randomly selected participants and the possible social desirability bias in the context of the #RURReferenceList protests. Hence the decision to use a non-parametric correlational analysis tool such as Spearman’s rho to analyse the data investigating relationships among the three variables.

Spearman’s correlation coefficient (r_s) was determined to investigate the strength of the relationship and whether the relationship was negative or positive. Once this was done, Spearman’s correlation coefficient (r_s) was transformed into z scores using this formula: Z_{obs}

$$= \frac{Z_1 - Z_2}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{n-3} + \frac{1}{n-3}}}$$

in order to test the statistical significance of the difference between observed

correlation coefficients. To investigate how much variance was shared among two variables, a coefficient of determination (r_s^2) was calculated by squaring Spearman’s (r_s).

To assess whether the data was normally distributed or not, Shapiro-Wilk’s tests for normality were run as Shapiro-Wilk’s tests are appropriate for small samples (Field, 2009).

3.9 Intellectual Property Rights

Permission to make use of the established attitude scales was sought from their respective authors and was granted to the project supervisor.

3.10 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the research methodology of the study and described the research design, sample population, ethical considerations, data-collection instruments, and intellectual property rights. The next chapter will be the results section which will provide an analysis of the data collected.

4 RESULTS

This chapter aims to outline the results of this study. The first section of this study will report the results from the Cronbach's Alpha analyses that were conducted on the scale measures used during the collection of data. This was to establish the reliability of the measure after it was adapted. The second section will report on the demographic information about the entire sample then a breakdown will follow about the four sample populations: student, academic staff, administrative support staff, and operational support staff. The next section will report on the Chi-square goodness-of-fit tests where a comparison of the sample's representativeness is compared to the available statistics from the population from which it was drawn. Next, the chapter will report on the descriptive statistics obtained from the four sample populations. Finally, this chapter will report on the correlational analyses of gender role ideology, dating violence and rape myth acceptance across all four sample populations grouped by the demographic information applicable to each sample.

4.1 Reliability Analysis using Cronbach's Alpha

The reliability of each scale was assessed with Cronbach's coefficient alpha for all four samples. Schumacker & Lomax (2012, p.47) state that "a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of 0.70 or higher is considered "acceptable" in most social science research studies". Field (2018, p.823) further stipulates that "the generally accepted value of 0.8 is appropriate for cognitive tests such as intelligence tests, for ability tests a cut-off of 0.7 is more suitable. When dealing with psychological constructs, values of below 0.7 can, realistically, be expected because of the diversity of the constructs being measured. Some even suggest that in the early stages of research, values as low as 0.5 will suffice." After running the data using SPSS version 22 for windows, it was found that five of the twelve values possessed a high reliability standard ranging between .755 to .890 (see table 1). It was then found that an additional five of the measures possessed an average reliability standard

ranging between .600 and .687 (see table 1). One of the measures out of the twelve possessed a low reliability standard of .510 (see table 1). Only one measure was found to be unreliable as it had a .412 standard (see table 1). Thus 10 of the measures of the 12 are in line with the benchmark that an instrument with coefficient of 0.60 is regarded to have an average reliability while the coefficient of 0.70 and above shows that the instrument has a high reliability standard.

Table 1: Cronbach's Alpha Analyses

Scale	Sample	Cronbach's Alpha	No. of items	Interpretation
Gender Ideology Scale	Students	.755	20	Good
	Academic staff	.510	19	Poor
	Admin support staff	.690	20	Moderate
	Operational support staff	.650	20	Moderate
Dating Violence Scale	Students	.622	15	Moderate
	Academic staff	.412	14	Unacceptable
	Administrative support staff	.687	15	Moderate
	Operational Support staff	.600	15	Moderate
Rape Myth Acceptance Scale	Students	.854	30	Good
	Academic staff	.760	28	Good
	Administrative support staff	.890	30	Good
	Operational Support Staff	.813	30	Good

From the Gender Ideology scale: the student sample had an alpha value of .755 which is above the .7 standard of reliability meaning the scale is reliable. The academic staff sample had a .510 standard of reliability, which is poor when compared to the expected .7 reliability standard. However, according to Field (2018) a reliability standard of .510 is sufficient for reliability in the early stages of a study. The administrative support staff sample and operational support staff sample yielded results that were marginally close to the .7 reliability

standard, with administrative support staff yielding .690 and operational support staff yielding .650.

From the Dating Violence Scale: Cronbach's alpha value for the student sample was .622 which is below the .7 standard of reliability, however indicates that the scale is of average reliability as it is above the .6 standard. For the academic staff sample, Cronbach's alpha was .412 which is well below the .7 standard of reliability meaning this scale was unreliable for this particular sample. For the administrative support staff sample Cronbach's alpha was .687 which is marginally below the .7 standard of reliability, however, as it is above .6 the scale was deemed reliable. Finally for the operational support staff sample, Cronbach's alpha was .6. Although below the .7 standard of reliability, given the already mentioned aspects of both an initial phase of investigation, together with the relatively diverse nature of the psychological constructs that were measured, it is deemed to have an adequate level of reliability.

For the Rape Myth Acceptance Scale: Cronbach's alpha value for the student sample was .854 which is above the .7 standard of reliability, meaning the scale is reliable. For the academic staff sample, Cronbach's alpha was .760 which is above the .7 standard of reliability which means the scale is reliable. Cronbach's alpha for the administrative support staff was .890 which is above the .7 standard of reliability, meaning the scale is reliable. Finally for the operational support staff sample, Cronbach's alpha was .813 which is above the .7 standard of reliability, meaning the scale is reliable.

4.1.1 Item-total statistics

A further item-total analysis of the Cronbach's alpha results revealed that the Cronbach's alpha values were not overly affected by deletion of suggested items from the analysis for the five analyses where alpha values on the scales for the respective samples were above the .7

standard of reliability. However, for the analyses that revealed alpha values that were below .7, deletion of some items resulted in an increase in the alpha value, sometimes to above .7. However, one item was consistently identified for deletion in this way across the scales for all four samples with minimal changes: item 10 of the GI scale with a question that read “the first move in sexual relationships should come from a woman”. In the GI scale for the student sample, Cronbach’s alpha was .775 then the Cronbach alpha after an item was deleted it was .778. In the academic staff sample Cronbach’s alpha was .510 for the GI scale then when an item was deleted the alpha increased to .556. In the admin support staff sample, the Cronbach alpha was .690 for the GI scale then when an item was deleted the alpha increased to .730. Finally, for the operational support staff sample, Cronbach’s alpha was .650 for the GI scale but increased to .711 after an item had been deleted. These results reveal that item 10 in the GI scale needs to be removed. Furthermore, a range of other items were identified inconsistently across scales and samples thus revealing that further reliability testing is needed in order to establish precisely which items would best impact on reliability by removing them.

4.2 Demographic Information

A sample of (n = 308) Rhodes University participants was used in this study: (n = 165) participants were from the student population, (n = 56) from academic staff, (n = 48) from administrative support staff and finally, (n = 39) participants from operational support staff. According to Rhodes University digest of statistics (2015), Rhodes University has 7519 students, 450 academic staff members, 429 members of administrative support staff and 472 operational support staff member

4.3 Student Sample Demographic Information

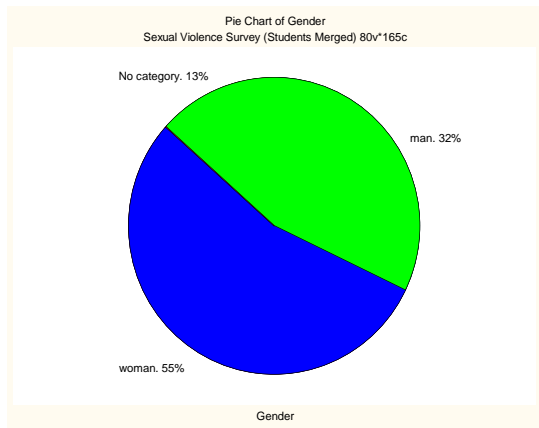


Figure 1: Pie chart of gender demographic for student sample

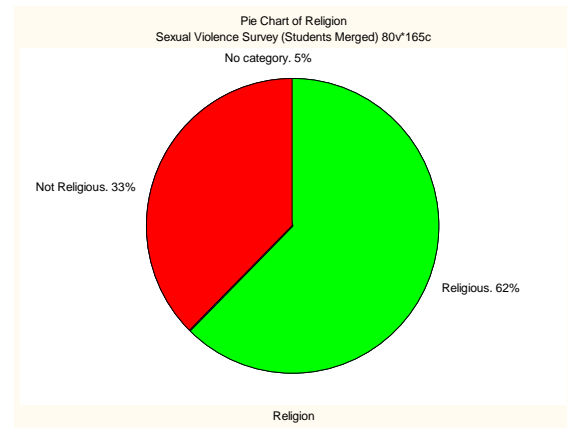


Figure 2: Pie chart of religion demographic for student sample

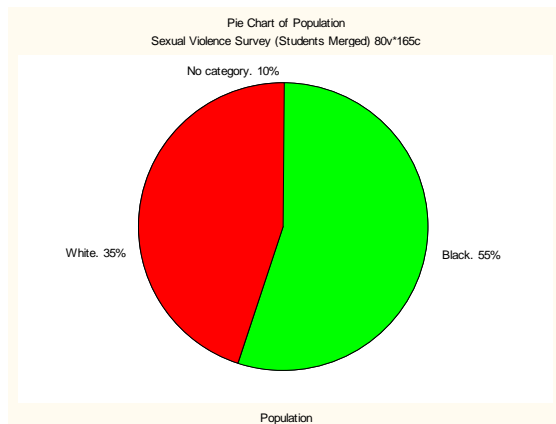


Figure 3: Pie chart of population demographic for student sample

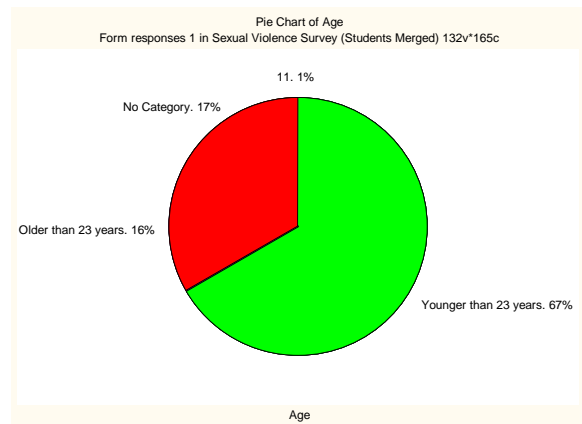


Figure 4: Pie chart of age demographic for student sample

Of the 165 students that participated in the study, 55% ($n = 90$) identified as women, 32% ($n = 53$) identified as men and 13% ($n = 22$) identified as either gender non-conforming or had a preference not to be categorised (see *Figure 1*). According to the Rhodes University digest of statistics (2015), 59% of the student population is female while 41% is male. One missing variable was identified in the data. 62% ($n = 103$) of the student participants identified as

religious, 33% (n = 54) of participants identified as not religious and the remaining 5% (n = 8) did not select an option (see *Figure 2*).

The sample had a minimum age of 18 years with a maximum of 50 years, and the mean age was established to be 23 with a standard deviation (SD) of 12.3. The sample was categorised as less than or more than the mean age. 67% (n = 111) of the sample was younger than 23 years, with 16% (n = 26) being older than 23 years and 11% (n = 28) of the sample preferred not to state their age (see *figure 3*). In terms of population, the sample was categorised as either being black or white; black being used in terms of the employment equity, act no.75 of 1977 which in its definition of black is inclusive of Africans, Coloureds and Indians (Government Gazette, 1998) to accommodate the small sample sizes. 55% (n = 91) of the sample identified as black, 35% (n = 57) of the sample identified as white and 10% (n = 17) of the sample preferred not to be categorised (see *figure 4*). According to Rhodes University digest of statistics (2015), in 2014 Rhodes University student population was 69% black (inclusive of African, Coloured and Indian) and 31% white. According to the chi-square tests both sub-samples revealed that in terms of this demographic the sample is representative of the student population.

87% (n = 143) of the sample is enrolled for undergraduate courses and 13% (n = 21) is enrolled for postgraduate courses and (n=1) was considered a missing variable (see *figure 5*). According to the Rhodes University digest of statistics (2015), 69% of students are enrolled for undergraduate courses while 31% are enrolled for postgraduate courses. 78% (n = 129) of the sample has been in Rhodes University for less than three years while 22% (n = 36) of the sample has been in Rhodes University for more than three years. 62% (n = 101) of the sample reside on campus residences while 38% (n = 63) form part of the student Oppidan community residing in digs. 72% (n = 122) of the sample do not have specific funding while 28% (n =

42) of the participants are funded for their studies, and one missing variable was observed from the data.

4.4 Academic Staff Demographic Information

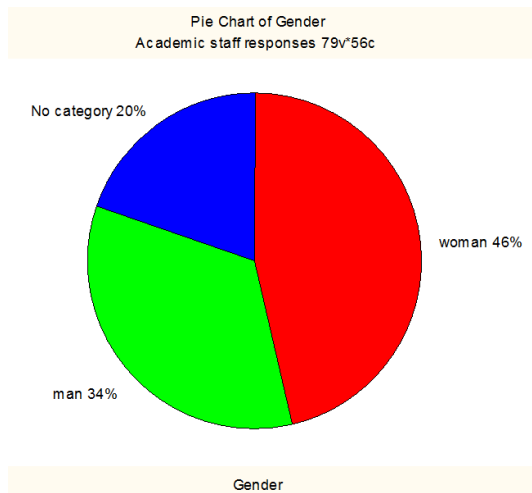


Figure 5: Pie chart of gender demographic for academic staff sample

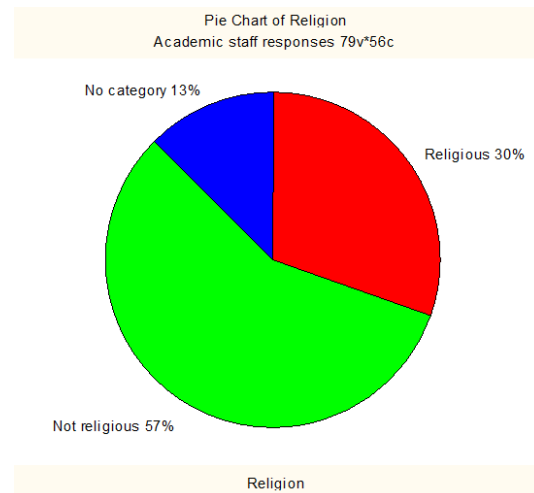


Figure 6: Pie chart of religion demographic for academic staff sample

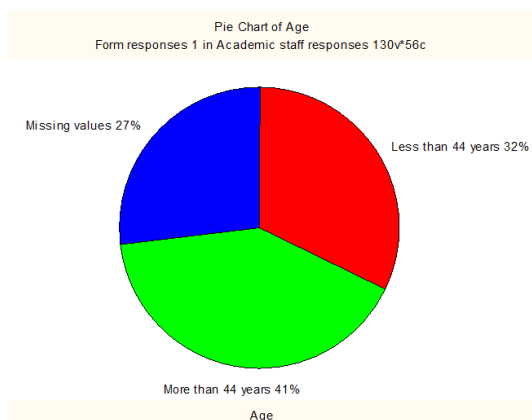


Figure 7: Pie chart of age demographic for academic staff sample

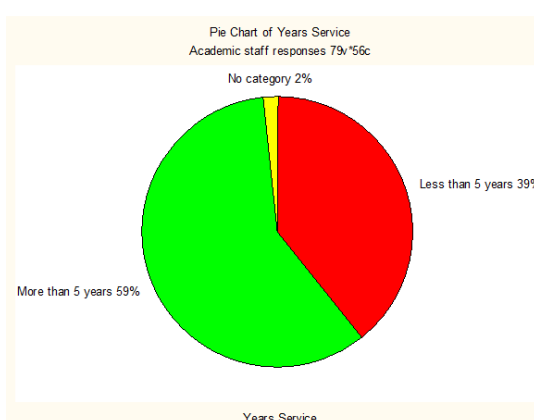


Figure 8: Pie chart of level of education demographic for academic staff sample

Of the 56 academic staff that participated in the study, 46% (n= 26) identified as women and 34% (n = 19) identified as men and the remaining 11% (n = 11) was made up of participants that were gender non-conforming (see figure 6). According to the Rhodes University digest statistics (2015), academic staff makes up 51% of staff members in Rhodes University. In 2014, 47% of the academic staff was made up of women with 53% being men. 57% (n = 32)

of the participants identified as not religious, 30% (n = 17) of participants identified as religious and the remaining 13% (n = 7) did not select an option (see *figure 7*).

The sample had a minimum age of 22 years with a maximum of 59 years, and the mean age was established to be 44 with a SD of 9.77). The sample was categorised as less than or more than the mean age. 41% (n = 23) of the sample was older than 44 years, with 32% (n = 18) being younger than 44 years and 27% (n = 15) of the sample preferred not to disclose their age (see *figure 8*). Level of education was categorised as either ‘having’ (with a PhD) or ‘not having’ (without a PhD). 57% (n = 30) of the participants had PhD’s and 46% (n = 26) did not have PhD’s. In terms of years of service, 59% (n = 33) had been in service in the university for more than five years, 39% (n = 22) had been employed by the university for less than five years and only one person in the sample did not state the amount of years they had been in service at the university (see *figure 9*).

4.5 Administrative Support Staff Demographic Information

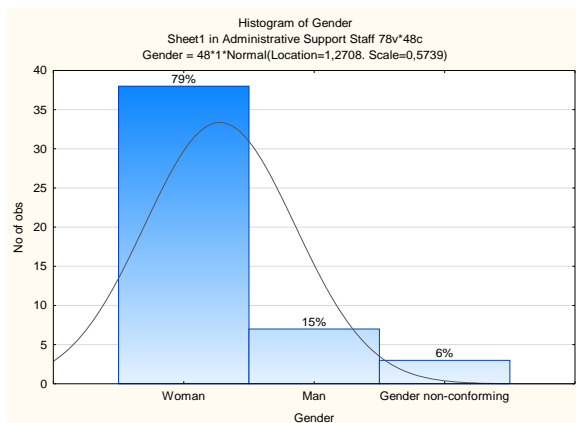


Figure 9: Histogram of gender demographic for the administrative support staff sample

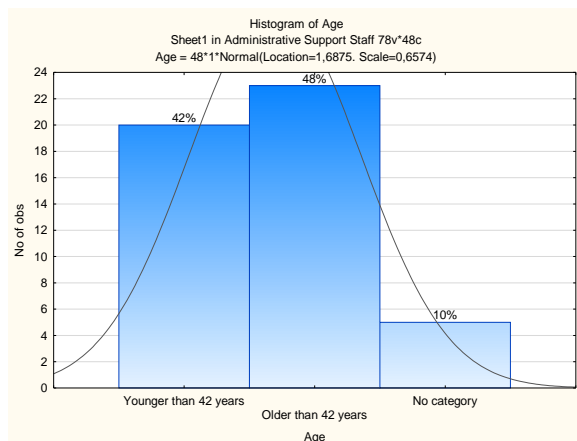


Figure 10: Histogram of religion demographic for administrative support staff sample

Of the 48 administrative support staff members that participated, 79% (n =38) identified as women, 15% (n = 7) identified as men and the remaining 6% (n = 3) was made up of

participants that preferred not to be classified according to gender (see figure 9). 62% (n = 31) of the sample identified as being religious and 38% (n = 14) identified as not religious and (N=3) were missing cases. The mean age of the sample was 42 with a SD = 10) with the minimum age being 24 with a maximum age of 62. 48% (n = 23) were older than the mean, 42% (n = 20) were younger and 10% (n =5) did not disclose their age (see figure 10).

The level of education for this sample was categorised as having a post matric qualification combined with undergraduate qualifications and having a postgraduate qualification. 54% (n = 26) of the participants in the sample had, a matric certificate, a diploma or a bachelors degree (BA) and 46% (n = 22) had postgraduate qualifications an honours degree, masters or a doctorate (PhD). 63% (n = 30) of the sample indicated that they had been employed in Rhodes University for more than five years and 37% (n = 18) had been employed for less than five years.

4.6 Operational support staff demographic information

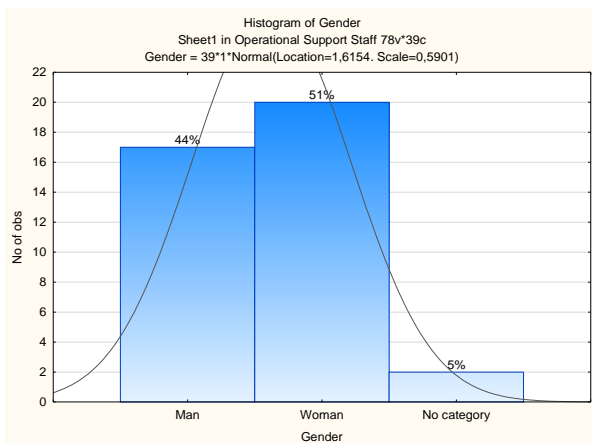


Figure 11: Histogram of gender demographic for the operational support staff sample

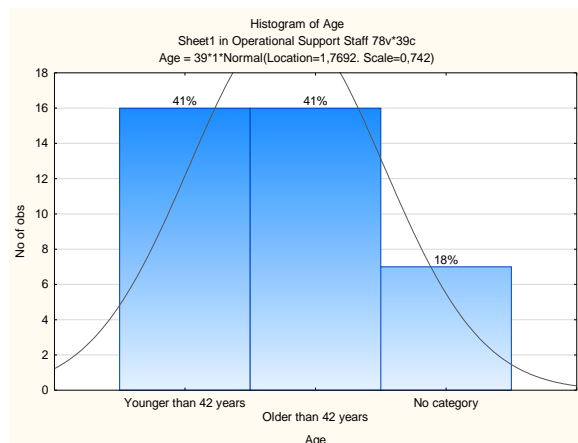


Figure 12: Histogram of age demographic for administrative support staff sample

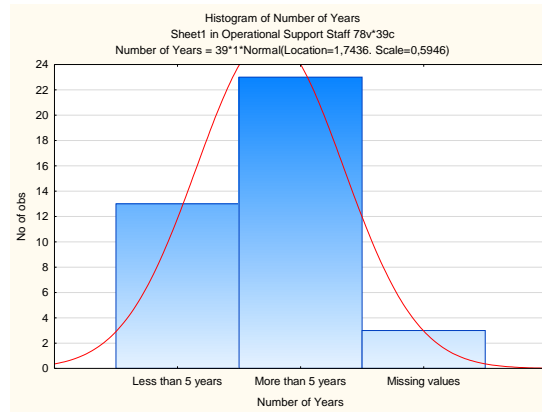


Figure 13: Histogram of number of years demographic for the operational support staff sample

Of the 39 operational support staff members that participated, 51% (n = 20) identified women, 44% (n = 17) identified as men and 5% (n = 2) of the participants were gender non-conforming (see *figure 11*). 85% (n = 33) identified as religious, 13% (n = 5) identified as not religious and only one participant did not select a choice (see *figure 12*). The mean age of the sample was 42 with a SD of 9.43) with the minimum age being 22 and the maximum being 59. 41% (n = 16) of the participants were older than 42, 41% (n = 16) were less than 42 years and 18% (n = 7) did not disclose their age (see *figure 13*).

The level of education was categorised as ‘with matric’ for participants who completed their Grade 12 and those who also obtained further education and ‘without matric’ for those participants that had not obtained Grade 12. 56% (n = 22) of the sample had obtained a Grade 12 qualification, 26% (n = 10) did not possess a Grade 12 qualification and 18% (n = 7) did not disclose their level of education (see *figure 14*). 59% (n=23) of the sample indicated that they had been employed in Rhodes University for more than five years, 33% (n = 13) had been employed for less than five years and 8% (n = 3) did not state the number of years they had been employed by Rhodes University (see *figure 15*).

4.7 Chi-Square Goodness-of-Fit-Tests

As mentioned in the methodology, these tests were run to investigate whether the observed distribution of selected demographic characteristics amongst the four samples differed significantly from the expected frequency distributions in the University population. Population data was obtained from the Rhodes University Digest of Statistics (2015), which provides an annual descriptive statistical analysis of enrolment and employment figures for the university. The 2015 Digest of Statistics reports on the university figures for the 2014 Academic year. At the time of conducting this research, this was the latest edition of the Digest of Statistics that was available for comparative purposes. Not all the demographics could be cross-referenced for representation as they were not available in the Rhodes University Digest of Statistics. Gender was used for all sample groups, whereas race and level of education were included for the student sample. The student sample in this study ($n = 165$) constitutes only 2.19% of the student population at Rhodes University. The null hypothesis (H_0) for this test is that there is no difference between observed and expected values; Alternative hypothesis (H_a): there is a difference between observed and expected values (Neuman, 2011).

Three Chi-square goodness-of-fit tests (χ^2) were run for the student sample for the race, gender, and education level demographics. For black students, $\chi^2(\text{df: } 1) = 2.018$; $p < 0.05$ which meant that in terms of sample size, the number of black students represented in the sample was significant when compared to the student population at Rhodes university as the χ^2 was less than the expected value of 3.85 supporting the null hypothesis (H_0) and rejecting the alternative hypothesis (H_a). A similar finding supporting the null hypothesis (H_0) and rejecting the alternative hypothesis (H_a) was observed for white students in the sample: ($\text{df: } 1) = 0.669$; $p < 0.05$. In terms of gender, $\chi^2(\text{df: } 1) = 0.006$; $p < 0.05$, the χ^2 value was attained for the women, which meant that the number of women represented in the sample

was significant when compared to the number of women in the student population at Rhodes University, supporting the null hypothesis (Ho) and rejecting the alternative hypothesis (Ha). The sample for men, however, presented an opposite result as the value of $\chi^2(\text{df: } 1) = 13,57$; $p < 0.05$ was greater than the expected value of 3.85 which meant that the number of men in the sample was not significant when compared to the number of men in the student population, rejecting the null hypothesis (Ho) and supporting the alternative hypothesis (Ha). The $\chi^2(\text{df: } 1) = 0,002$; $p < 0.05$ value for students enrolled for undergraduate studies and the $\chi^2(\text{df: } 1) = 0,009$; $p < 0.05$ postgraduate studies were both less than the expected value of 3.85 which revealed that the number of undergraduate and postgraduate students represented in the sample was significant when compared to the number of undergraduate and postgraduate students in the Rhodes University student population, supporting the null hypothesis (Ho) and rejecting the alternative hypothesis (Ha).

For the Rhodes University staff samples the Chi-square test of goodness-of-fit was run using the gender demographic variable. The academic staff sample ($n = 56$) is representative of 12.44% of the academic staff population, the administrative support staff sample makes up 11.18% of the population, and the operational support staff sample makes up 8.26% of the population when compared to the Rhodes University Digest of Statistics (2015). The Chi-square for the gender demographic for the academic staff sample yielded $\chi^2(\text{df: } 1) = 32.80$; $p < 0.05$ value for the women and $\chi^2(\text{df: } 1) = 24.53$; $p < 0.05$ for the men which is greater than the value of 3.85. This revealed that the number of women and men in this sample was not significant when compared to the number of women and men in the academic staff population, rejecting the null hypothesis (Ho) and supporting the alternative hypothesis (Ha). For the administrative support staff sample the test revealed that $\chi^2(\text{df: } 1) = 0.768$; $p < 0.05$ for the women, which meant that the number of women represented in the sample was significant when compared to the women in the administrative support staff population at

Rhodes university as the χ^2 was less than the expected value of 3.85, supporting the null hypothesis (Ho) and rejecting the alternative hypothesis (Ha). The sample for men, however, presented an opposite result as the value of $\chi^2(df: 1) = 23.70$; $p < 0.05$ revealed that the number of men represented in the sample was not significant when compared to the number of men in the administrative support staff population, rejecting the null hypothesis (Ho) and supporting the alternative hypothesis (Ha).

It was not possible to conduct the chi-square goodness of fit test for the operational support staff sample as data were only collected from two sections of this population. Efforts to organise dates for data collection with other departments within this division proved to be a difficult task at the time due to the disruptive #FeesMustFall protest action on campus.

4.8 Descriptive Statistics of the Gender-Role Ideology (GI Sum), Dating Violence (DV Sum), and Rape Myth Acceptance (RM Sum) Scales

4.8.1 Student Sample

Table 2: Descriptive statistics of the GI, DV, and RM scales for student sample

Variable	Valid N	Median (M)	Mean (\bar{x})	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Dev
GI Sum	165	50	34	20	80	6.8
DV Sum	165	37.5	20	15	60	4.0
RM Sum	165	80	43	40	120	10.0

As mentioned in the methodology section, central tendency was measured using the mean (\bar{x}). *Table 2* indicates that the mean(\bar{x}) for the gender-role ideology (GI) scale which is a score of 34 out of a possible 80. 80 is the possible maximum score (i.e., responses scoring four on all 20 items on the scale) and 20 (i.e., responses scoring one on all twenty items on the scale) which is the possible minimum score (barring missing values). The Likert scale was coded with responses ranging from (strongly disagree (1), to disagree (2), to agree (3), and to strongly agree (4)). The median (M) score for GI Sum was calculated as follows: (20+

$(80-20)/2 = 50$). The student sample mean (\bar{x}) score on the measure of traditional gender-role ideology lies more than two full standard deviations below the possible scale median. This means the sample mean (\bar{x}) is quite low and the spread of scores is skewed positively indicating that the sample does not hold traditional gender-role ideology.

As shown in *table 2*, the mean (\bar{x}) for the Dating Violence (DV) scale is a score of 20 out of a possible 60. 60 is the possible maximum score (i.e., responses scoring four on all 15 items on the scale) and 15 (i.e., responses scoring one on all 15 items on the scale) is the possible minimum score (barring missing values). The median (M) score for DV Sum was calculated as follows: $(15 + (60-15)/2 = 37.5)$. The mean (\bar{x}) score lies more than four full standard deviations below the possible scale median (M), meaning that the sample mean is quite low and the spread of scores is skewed positively indicating that the sample is intolerant of dating violence.

As shown in *table 2*, the mean (\bar{x}) for the Rape Myths Acceptance scale (RM) scale is a score of 43 out of a possible 120. 120 is the possible maximum score (i.e., responses scoring four on all 40 items on the scale) and 40 (i.e., responses scoring one on all 40 items on the scale) which is the possible minimum score (barring missing values). The median (M) score for DV Sum was calculated as follows: $(40 + (120-40)/2 = 80)$. The mean (\bar{x}) score lies more than three full standard deviations below the possible scale median, which means the sample mean is quite low and the spread of scores is skewed positively indicating that the sample is rejecting of rape myths.

4.8.2 Academic Staff Sample

Table 3: Descriptive statistics of the GI, DV, and RM scales for the academic staff sample

Variable	Valid N	Median (M)	Mean(\bar{x})	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Dev
GI Sum	56	50	30	20	80	3.9
DV Sum	56	37.5	20	15	60	3.0
RM Sum	56	80	40	40	120	6.8

Table 3 indicates that the mean(\bar{x}) for the gender-ideology (GI) scale which is a score of 30 out of a possible 80. 80 is the possible maximum score (i.e., responses scoring four on all 20 items on the scale) and 20 (i.e., responses scoring one on all twenty items on the scale) which is the possible minimum score (barring missing values). The median (M) score for GI Sum was calculated as follows: $(20 + (80 - 20) / 2 = 50)$. The mean (\bar{x}) score lies more than five full standard deviations below the possible scale median, meaning that the sample mean(\bar{x}) is quite low and the spread of scores is skewed positively indicating that the sample does not hold traditional gender-role ideology.

As shown in table 3, the mean(\bar{x}) for the Dating Violence (DV) scale is a score of 20 out of a possible 60. 60 is the possible maximum score (i.e., responses scoring four on all 15 items on the scale) and 15 (i.e., responses scoring one on all 15 items on the scale) which is the possible minimum score (barring missing values). The median (M) score for DV Sum was calculated as follows: $(15 + (60 - 15) / 2 = 37.5)$. The mean (\bar{x}) score lies more than five full standard deviations below the possible scale median, meaning that the sample mean (\bar{x}) is quite low and the spread of scores is skewed positively indicating that the sample is intolerant of dating violence.

As shown in table 3, the mean (\bar{x}) for the Rape Myths Acceptance scale (RM) scale is a score of 40 out of a possible 120. 120 is the possible maximum score (i.e., responses scoring four

on all 40 items on the scale) and 40 (i.e., responses scoring one on all 40 items on the scale) which is the possible minimum score (barring missing values). The median score for DV Sum was calculated as follows: $(40+(120-40)/2 = 80)$. The mean (\bar{x})score lies more than five full standard deviation distances below the possible scale median, which means the sample mean (\bar{x})is quite low and the spread of scores is skewed positively indicating that the sample is rejecting of rape myths.

4.8.3 Administrative Support Staff

Table 4: Descriptive statistics of the GI, DV, and RM scales for the administrative support staff sample

Variable	Valid N	Median (M)	Mean(\bar{x})	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Dev
GI Sum	48	50	43	20	80	5.4
DV Sum	48	37.5	38	15	60	2.7
RM Sum	48	80	55	40	120	9.3

Table 4 indicates that the mean(\bar{x})for the gender-ideology (GI) scale, which is a score of 43 out of a possible 80. 80 is the possible maximum score (i.e., responses scoring four on all 20 items on the scale) and 20 (i.e., responses scoring one on all 20 items on the scale) which is the possible minimum score (barring missing values). The median score for GI Sum was calculated as follows: $(20+ (80-20)/2 = 50)$. The mean (\bar{x})score lies more than one full standard deviation below the possible scale median. Here the sample mean lies just below the median, yet this still reveals that the spread of scores is skewed positively, indicating that the sample does not adhere to traditional gender-role ideology.

As shown in table 4, the mean (\bar{x})for the Dating Violence (DV) scale is a score of 38 out of a possible 60. 60 is the possible maximum score (i.e., responses scoring four on all 15 items on the scale) and 15 (i.e., responses scoring one on all 15 items on the scale) which is the possible minimum score (barring missing values). The median (M) score for DV Sum was

calculated as follows: $(15 + (60 - 15) / 2 = 37.5)$. The mean (\bar{x}) score lies less than one standard deviation above the possible scale median (M), which means the sample mean (\bar{x}) is high and the spread of scores is skewed negatively, indicating that the sample is somewhat tolerant of dating violence.

As shown in *table 4*, the mean (\bar{x}) for the Rape Myths Acceptance scale (RM) scale is a score of 55 out of a possible 120. 120 is the possible maximum score (i.e., responses scoring four on all 40 items on the scale) and 40 (i.e., responses scoring one on all 40 items on the scale) which is the possible minimum score (barring missing values). The median (M) score for DV Sum was calculated as follows: $(40 + (120 - 40) / 2 = 80)$. The mean (\bar{x}) score lies more than two full standard deviations below the possible scale median (M), which means the sample mean (\bar{x}) is quite low and the spread of scores is skewed positively, indicating that the sample is rejecting of rape myths.

4.8.4 Operational Support Staff

Table 5: Descriptive statistics of the GI, DV, and RM scales for operational support staff

Variable	Valid N	Median (M)	Mean (\bar{x})	Minimum	Maximum	Std. Dev
GI Sum	48	50	43	20	80	5.4
DV Sum	48	37.5	38	15	60	2.7
RM Sum	48	80	55	40	120	9.3

Table 5 indicates that the mean (\bar{x}) for the gender-ideology (GI) scale which is a score of 43 out of a possible 80. 80 is the possible maximum score (i.e., responses scoring four on all 20 items on the scale) and 20 (i.e. responses scoring one on all 20 items on the scale) which is the possible minimum score (barring missing values). The median (M) score for GI Sum was calculated as follows: $(20 + (80 - 20) / 2 = 50)$. The mean (\bar{x}) score lies more than one full standard deviation below the possible scale median. Here, the sample mean lies just below

the median, yet this still reveals that the spread of scores is skewed positively indicating that the sample does not hold traditional gender-role ideology.

As shown in *table 5*, the mean(\bar{x}) for the Dating Violence (DV) scale is a score of 38 out of a possible 60. 60 is the possible maximum score (i.e., responses scoring four on all 15 items on the scale) and 15 (i.e., responses scoring one on all 15 items on the scale) which is the possible minimum score (barring missing values). The median (M) score for DV Sum was calculated as follows: $(15 + (60-15))/2 = 37.5$. The mean (\bar{x}) score lies less than one standard deviation above the possible scale median (M), which means the sample mean (\bar{x}) is high and the spread of scores is skewed negatively, indicating that the sample is somewhat tolerant of dating violence.

As shown in *table 5*, the mean(\bar{x}) for the Rape Myths Acceptance scale (RM) scale is a score of 55 out of a 120. 120 is the possible maximum score (i.e., responses scoring four on all 40 items on the scale) and 40 (i.e., responses scoring one on all 40 items on the scale) which is the possible minimum score (barring missing values). The median (M) score for DV Sum was calculated as follows: $(40 + (120-40))/2 = 80$. The mean (\bar{x}) score lies more than two full standard deviations below the possible scale median (M), which means the sample mean (\bar{x}) is quite low and the spread of scores is skewed positively, indicating that the sample is rejecting of rape myths.

4.9 Exploring Assumptions

Table 6: Shapiro-Wilk's Tests conducted on GI, DV, and RM sums scales for all four samples

Sample	GI	DV	RM
Student	SW-W = 0.892	SW-W = 0.9033	SW-W = 0.921
	P = 0.00000	P = 0.00000	P = 0.00000
Academic Staff	SW-W = 0,923	SW-W = 0,9804	SW-W = 0.9524
	P = 0.0016	P = 0.4950	P = 0.0272
Administrative Support Staff	SW-W = 0.953	SW-W = 0.9405	SW-W = 0.9352
	P = 0.0530	P = 0.0169	P = 0.0107
Operational Support Staff	SW-W = 0.9581	SW-W = 0.4715	SW-W = 0.9729
	P = 0.1543	P = 0.4177	P = 0.4592

Shapiro-Wilk's tests for normality were run since the sample sizes were small as shown in table 6, the SW-W values across all four samples lie between zero and one, which according to Razali & Yap (2011) indicate that the data is not normally distributed. It is possible that the non-normal distribution of scores for the student sample were due to sample size limitations and the sample being highly conscientised on issues of gender-based violence or might have been caused by social desirability bias. For the academic staff, administrative support staff and operational support samples the small sample sizes might have also played a major role with a possibility of social desirability bias.

4.10 Correlational Analyses

As the majority of the data violated the parametric assumption of normality, Spearman's rho (r_s) was used to conduct non-parametric correlational analyses (Field, 2009) among the three subscales across all four sample populations. The correlation analyses were conducted to determine the strength of the relationship between the measured variables. Cohen's standard was used to evaluate the strength of the relationships, according to Cohen (1998, pp. 79-81):

if $r = .10$ to $.29$ it means there is a small strength (weak) correlation between the measured variables, if $r = .30$ to $.49$ there is a medium strength (moderate) correlation between the variables and, finally, if $r = .50$ to 1.0 the strength of the correlation is considered to be large (strong). These only refer to the strength of the correlation regardless of whether the result is negative or positive (Cohen, 1998). For the purpose of this study the strengths of the correlations will be categorised as weak, moderate and strong.

These correlations were followed by heterogeneous sub-sample correlations grouped by the significant demographic variables applicable for each sample. Furthermore, the coefficient of determination (R_s^2) was calculated to measure how much of the variance in the distribution is accounted for by the variance in the other variable (Field, 2009) for all the correlational analyses to measure the amount of variance among the variables. Testing of the statistical significance between the two correlation coefficients was done by converting the r_s values into z scores to look for significant differences between the strength of the correlation coefficients. To determine whether the value is statistically significant or not, values that lie within the parameters of -1.96 and $+1.96$ are considered as insignificant thus rejecting the null hypothesis and inversely those that lie outside of the parameters are considered to be significant (Field, 2009).

4.10.1 Correlational Analysis Using Spearman's Rho (r_s) Between GI and DV for the Student Sample

The correlation between the sum of gender role ideology (GI Sum) and sum of dating violence (DV Sum) revealed a weak positive correlation between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence, which was statistically significant $n = 165$; $r_s = .22$; $p = 0.003$ which suggests a weak relationship between gender-role ideology and dating violence (see *figure 14* of a scatterplot diagram of the participants

responses). Spearman's coefficient of determination (R_s^2) for the value of r_s , revealed that only 4.84% of the variance in rape myth acceptance can be attributed to an increase in the likelihood of being tolerant towards dating violence.

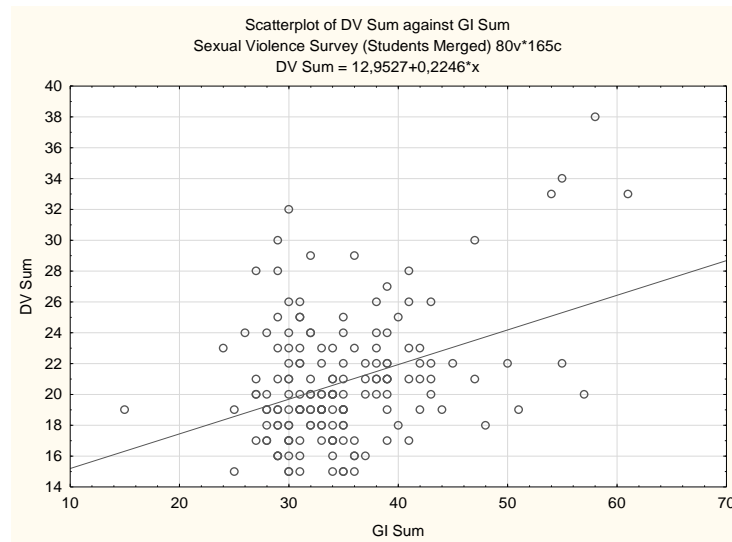


Figure 14: Scatterplot diagram illustrating the correlation between GI Sum and DV Sum for student sample

4.10.1.1 Heterogeneous Subsample Correlations Between GI Sum and DV Sum for the Student Sample

Table 7: GI vs. DV Student sample

Variables	Demographic		n	p < 0.05	r _s	R _s ²	Zobs	Difference
GI vs. DV	Gender	Women	90	p = 0.375	.094	5.19%	-0.238	Non-significant
		Men	53	p = 0.366	.126			
	Religion	Religious	103	p = 0.000	.326		1.47	Non-significant
		Not religious	54	p = 0.065	.065			
	Age	Younger than 23 years	111	p = 0.010	.241		1.00	Non-significant
		Older than 23 years	26	p = 0.940	-.015			
	Population	Black	91	p = 0.000	.335		-1.676	Non-significant
		White	57	p = 0.690	.053			
	Education	Undergraduate	143	p = 0.000	.288		-0.387	Non-significant
		Postgraduate	21	p = 0.105	-.363			
	Years	Less than 3 years	129	p = 0.002	.267		0.083	Non-significant
		More than 3 years	36	p = 0.748	.055			
	Accommodation	Residence	101	p = 0.020	.229		0.099	Non-significant
		Digs	63	p = 0.087	.217			
	Funding	Without funding	122	p = 0.000	.319		1.83	Non-significant
		With funding	42	p = 0.987	.002			

As shown in *table 7*, the correlation was significant at the 0.05 level which suggests that as adherence to traditional gender-role ideology increases so does the likelihood of being tolerant towards dating violence. The heterogeneous sub-sample correlations that were run between the two variables yielded some significant and some insignificant results for the correlation when grouped by demographic variables.

4.10.2 Correlational Analysis Using Spearman's Rho (r_s) Between GI and RM for the Student Sample

The correlation between the sum of gender role ideology (GI Sum) and sum of rape myths (RM Sum) revealed a strong positive correlation between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and tolerance towards rape myth acceptance, which was statistically significant, $n = 165; r_s = .524; p = 0.000$ which suggests a strong relationship between adherence to traditional

gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance (see *figure 15* of a scatterplot diagram of the participants responses).

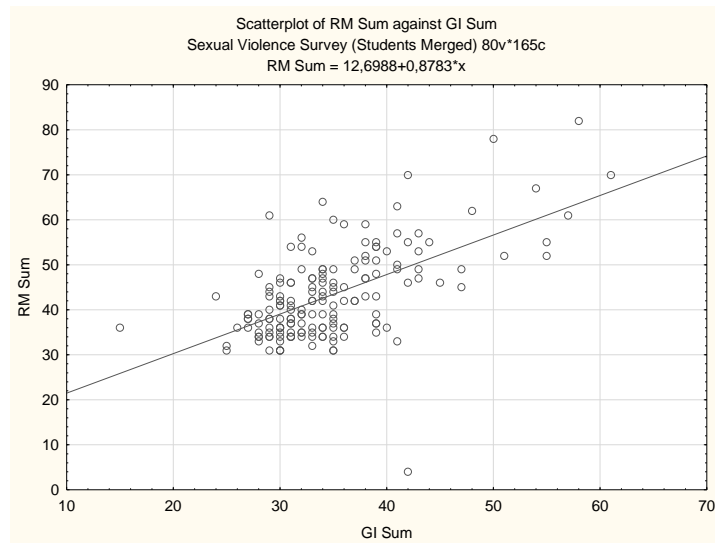


Figure 15: Scatterplot diagram illustrating correlation between GI Sum and RM Sum for the student sample

4.10.2.1 Heterogeneous subsample correlations between GI Sum and RM Sum for the student sample

Table 8: GI vs. RM Student sample

Variables	Demographic	n	p < 0.05	r _s	Rs ²	Zobs	Difference	
GI vs. RM	Gender	Women	90	p = 0.000	.367	27.4%	-2.20	Significant
		Men	53	p = 0.000	.586			
	Religion	Religious	103	p = 0.000	.550		0.594	Non-significant
		Not religious	54	p = 0.000	.473			
	Age	Younger than 23 years	111	p = 0.000	.518		0.320	Non-significant
		Older than 23 years	26	p = 0.018	.459			
	Population	Black	91	p = 0.000	.571		-0.4	Non-significant
		White	57	p = 0.001	.401			
	Education	Undergraduate	143	p = 0.000	.559		1.465	Non-significant
		Postgraduate	21	p = 0.105	.283			
	Years	Less than 3 years	129	p = 0.000	.564		1.57	Non-significant
		More than 3 years	36	p = 0.053	.324			
	Accommodation	Residence	101	p = 0.000	.531		0.33	Non-significant
		Digs	63	p = 0.000	.491			
Funding	Without funding	122	p = 0.000	.519	-0.116	Non-significant		
	With funding	42	p = 0.000	.535				

Table 8 outlines the results of the study obtained from a correlational analysis between GI Sum and RM Sum grouped by demographic variables. Spearman's coefficient of determination (R_s^2) was established to be 27.4% which meant that the amount of variance between the adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and tolerance for rape myth acceptance was 27%. A statistically significant Zobs value of -2.20 was found between the women and men in this student sample. The heterogeneous sub-sample correlations revealed significant findings for most of the demographic variables specific to the sample. Students that were enrolled for postgraduate studies and had been in the Rhodes University context for more than three years had insignificant findings. A statistically significant Zobs value of -2.20 at $p < 0.05$ which lies outside the specific bounds of -1.96 and + 1.96 was observed between GI and DV grouped by gender.

4.10.3 Correlational Analysis Using Spearman's Rho (r_s) Between RM and DV for the Student Sample

The correlation between the sum of rape myth acceptance (RM Sum) and dating violence (DV Sum) also revealed a moderate positive correlation between the two variables, which was statistically significant $n = 165$, $r_s = 0.469$, $p = 0.000$ (see *figure 16* of a scatterplot diagram of the participants responses).

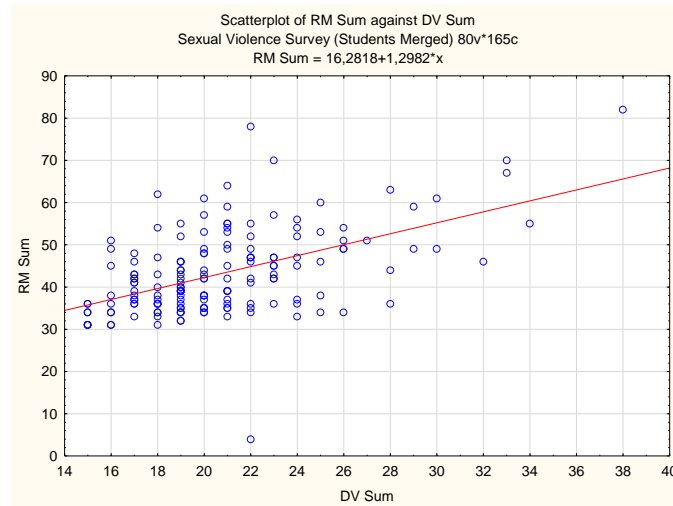


Figure 16: Scatterplot diagram illustrating correlation between RM Sum and DV Sum for the Student Sample

4.10.3.1 Heterogeneous Subsample Correlations Between RM Sum and DV Sum for the Student Sample

Table 9: RM vs. DV Student sample

Variables	Demographic		n	p < 0.05	r _s	Rs ²	Z _{obs}	Difference
RM vs. DV	Gender	Women	90	p = 0.000	.406	22%	-0.230	Non-significant
		Men	53	p = 0.000	.428			
	Religion	Religious	103	p = 0.000	.814		-2.515	Significant
		Not religious	54	p = 0.002	.494			
	Age	Younger than 23 years	111	p = 0.000	.450		-0.552	Non-significant
		Older than 23 years	26	p = 0.004	.544			
	Population	Black	91	p = 0.000	.478		-0.111	Non-significant
		White	57	p = 0.000	.488			
	Education	Undergraduate	143	p = 0.000	.466		-0.112	Non-significant
		Postgraduate	21	p = 0.027	.481			
	Years	Less than 3 years	129	p = 0.000	.467		-0.343	Non-significant
		More than 3 years	36	p = 0.000	.516			
	Accommodation	Residence	101	p = 0.000	.531		0.33	Non-significant
		Digs	63	p = 0.000	.491			
Funding	Without funding	122	p = 0.000	.479	0.314	Non-significant		
	With funding	42	p = 0.004	.433				

Table 9 outlines the results of the study obtained from a correlational analysis between RM Sum and DV Sum grouped by demographic variables. Spearman's coefficient of

determination (R_s^2) was established to be 22% which meant the amount of variance between the two variables was 22%. The analysis revealed a statistically significant Z_{obs} value of -2.515 between religious and not religious participants. The heterogeneous sub-sample correlations grouped by demographic variables revealed significant findings for all the sub-sample correlations. Moreover, the coefficient correlations ranged between moderate and strong and were all significant at the 0.05 level which further confirms that as rape myth acceptance increases so does the likelihood of being tolerant towards dating violence. A statistically significant Z_{obs} value of -2.515 at $p < 0.05$ which lies outside the specific bounds of -1.96 and + 1.96 was observed between GI and DV grouped by religion.

4.10.4 Correlational Analysis Using Spearman's Rho (r_s) Between GI and DV for the Academic Staff Sample

The correlation between the adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and tolerance for dating violence revealed a moderate positive correlation, which was statistically significant $n = 56$; $r_s = .4529$; and $p = 0.000$ (see *figure 17* for a scatterplot diagram of the participants responses). The coefficient of determination (R_s^2) was established to be 20.4% which means that 20% of variance in gender-role ideology has an impact on the participants' likelihood to be tolerant of dating violence.

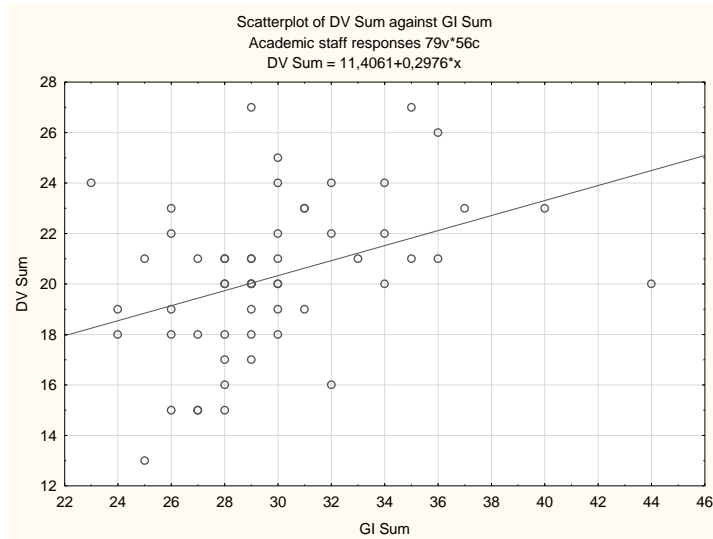


Figure 17: Scatterplot diagram illustrating correlation between GI Sum and DV Sum for academic staff sample

4.10.4.1 Heterogeneous Subsample Correlations Between GI Sum and DV Sum for the Academic Staff Sample

Table 10: GI vs. DV for academic staff sample

Variables	Demographic	n	p < 0.05	r _s	Rs ²	Zobs	Difference	
GI vs. DV	Gender	Women	26	p = 0.004	.539	20.4%	0.367	Non-significant
		Men	19	p = 0.224	.291			
	Religion	Religious	17	p = 0.058	.466		-1.44	Non-significant
		Not religious	32	p = 0.062	.332			
	Age	Older than 40 years	29	p = 0.044	.375		-1.47	Non-significant
		Younger than 40 years	12	p = 0.005	.746			
	Education	With a PhD	30	p = 0.293	.196		-2.088	Significant
		Without a PhD	26	p = 0.000	.757			
Years	More than 5 years	33	p = 0.506	.335	-0.77	Non-significant		
	Less than 5 years	22	p = 0.001	.636				

Table 10 outlines the results of the study obtained from a correlational analysis between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence grouped by demographic variables. As shown in table 10, participants that identified as women, that were both older and younger than 40 years, without a PhD qualification and who had been in service at Rhodes University for less than five years yielded significant results. A statistically

significant Zobs value of -2.088 at $p < 0.05$ which lies outside the specific bounds of -1.96 and + 1.96 was observed between GI and DV grouped by education.

4.10.5 Correlational Analysis Using Spearman's Rho (r_s) Between GI Sum and RM Sum for the Academic Staff Sample

The correlation between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance revealed a moderate correlation, which was statistically significant $n = 56$; $r_s = 0.3374$; $p = 0.010$ (see *figure 18* of a scatterplot diagram of the participants responses. The coefficient of determination (R_s^2) was established to be 20, 4% which means that the amount of variance between the adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance for this sample is 20%.

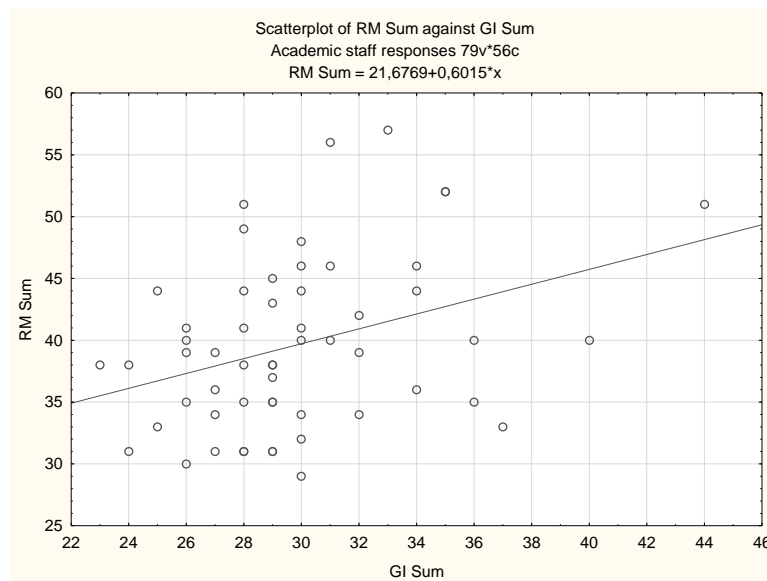


Figure 18: Scatterplot diagram illustrating correlation between GI Sum and RM Sum for academic staff

4.10.5.1 Heterogeneous Subsample Correlations Between GI Sum and RM Sum for the Academic Staff Sample

Table 11: GI vs. RM for academic staff sample

Variables	Demographic	n	p < 0.05	r _s	Rs ²	Zobs	Difference	
GI vs. RM	Gender	Women	26	p = 0.130	.304	20,4%	-0.225	Non-significant
		Men	19	p = 0.118	.370			
	Religion	Religious	17	p = 0.222	.312		-0.253	Non-significant
		Not religious	32	p = 0.190	.237			
	Age	Older than 40 years	29	p = 0.005	.501		1.409	Non-significant
		Younger than 40 years	12	p = 0.978	.008			
	Education	With a PhD	30	p = 0.149	.269		0.021	Non-significant
		Without a PhD	26	p = 0.192	.397			
	Years	More than 5 years	33	p = 0.022	.335		-0.329	Non-significant
		Less than 5 years	22	p = 0.145	.320			

As shown in *table 11*, the heterogeneous sub-sample correlations between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance revealed a statistically significant relationship for participants that had been in the university context for more than five years and were older than 40 years. The majority of the sub-sample correlation coefficients were moderate in strength thus revealing that as adherence to traditional gender-role ideology increases so does the likelihood of accepting rape myths.

4.10.6 Correlational Analysis Using Spearman's Rho (r_s) Between RM Sum and DV Sum for the Academic Staff Sample

The correlation between rape myth acceptance and tolerance towards dating violence also revealed a weak positive correlation, which was statistically significant $n = 56$; $r_s = 0.279$; $p = 0.037$ (see *figure 19* of a scatterplot diagram showing the participants responses). The coefficient of determination (R_s^2) was established to be 7, 78% which meant the amount of variance between the two variables was close to 8%. Heterogeneous sub-sample correlations

yielded insignificant results for all the sub-samples which meant that the weak correlation could not be explained by demographic variables and was probably due to other factors.

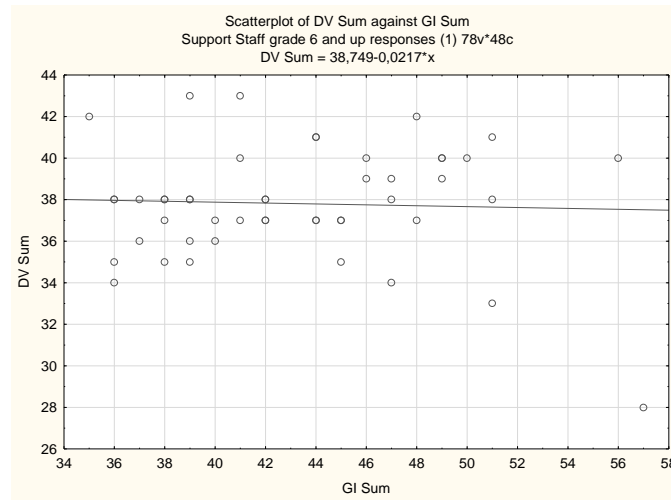


Figure 19: Scatterplot diagram illustrating correlation between GI Sum and DV Sum for the administrative support staff sample

4.10.7 Correlational Analysis Using Spearman’s Rho (r_s) Between GI Sum and DV Sum for the Administrative Support Staff Sample

The correlation between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence revealed a weak positive correlation, which was statistically insignificant $r_s = 0.173$; $n = 48$; and $p = 0.237$ (see *figure 20* for a scatterplot diagram of the participants responses). The insignificant weak positive correlation indicates that there is a weak relationship between adherence to gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence and provides an explanation for the insignificant findings that were yielded from the sub-sample correlations grouped by demographic variables. The coefficient of determination (R_s^2) was established to be 2,8% which meant the amount of variance between the two variables was close to 3%.

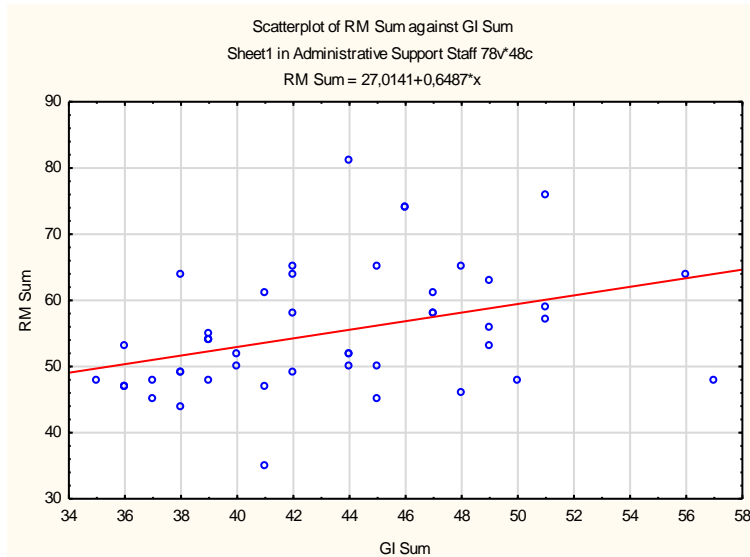


Figure 20: Scatterplot diagram illustrating correlation between GI Sum and RM Sum for the administrative support staff sample

4.10.8 Correlational Analysis Using Spearman’s Rho (r_s) Between GI sum and RM sum for the administrative support staff sample

The correlation between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance revealed a moderate positive correlation, which was statistically significant $n = 48$; $r_s = 0.448$; and $p = 0.001$ (see *figure 21* for a scatterplot diagram of the participants responses). The coefficient of determination (R_s^2) was established to be 20% which meant the amount of variance between the two variables was 20%.

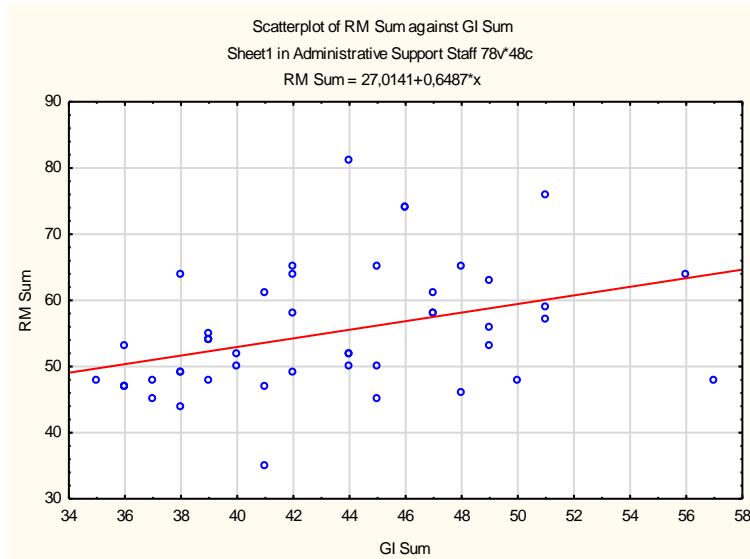


Figure 21: Scatterplot diagram illustrating correlation between GI Sum and RM Sum for the administrative support staff sample

4.10.8.1 Heterogeneous Subsample Correlations Between GI Sum and RM Sum for the Administrative Support Staff Sample

Table 12: GI vs. RM for administrative support staff sample

Variables	Demographic		n	p < 0.05	r _s	Rs ²	Zobs	Difference
GI vs. RM	Gender	Women	38	p = 0.000	.544	20%	.203	Non-significant
		Men	7	p = 0.293	-.464			
	Religion	Religious	31	p = 0.023	.404		-.167	Non-significant
		Not religious	14	p = 0.211	.355			
	Age	Older than 41 years	21	p = 0.002	.598		.276	Non-significant
		Younger than 41 years	18	p = 0.014	.589			
	Education	BA/Post-Matric Dip	26	p = 0.005	.431		.558	Non-significant
		Postgraduate degree	22	p = 0.070	.554			
Years	More than 5 years	30	p = 0.013	.443	-.320	Non-significant		
	Less than 5 years	18	p = 0.035	.497				

From the heterogeneous sub-sample correlations, as outlined in *table 12*, significant findings were found among participants that identified as women, had a religious affiliation, who were both younger and older than 41 years, who did not have a postgraduate qualification, and both those that had been in service in Rhodes University for more and less than five years.

4.10.9 Correlational Analysis Using Spearman's Rho (r_s) Between RM Sum and DV Sum for the Administrative Support Staff Sample

The correlation between rape myth acceptance and dating violence revealed a weak positive correlation, which was statistically non-significant $n = 48$; $r_s = .270$ and $p = 0.062$ (see *figure 22* for a scatterplot diagram of the participants responses). The coefficient of determination was established to be 7,29% which means the amount of variance between these two variables was 7%. All the heterogeneous sub-sample correlations revealed insignificant results which meant that the demographical variables are not responsible for the weak correlation.

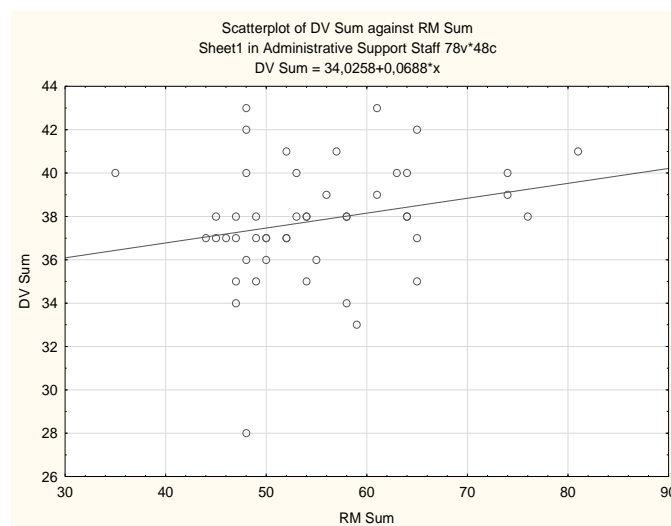


Figure 22: Scatterplot diagram illustrating correlation between RM Sum and DV Sum for administrative support staff

4.10.9.1 Correlational Analysis Using Spearman's Rho (r_s) Between GI Sum and DV Sum for the Operational Support Staff Sample

The correlation between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence revealed a weak positive correlation, which was statistically insignificant $n = 39$; $r_s = 0.213$ and $p = 0.190$ (see *figure 23* for a scatterplot diagram of the participants responses). The coefficient of determination R_s^2 was established to be 4,53% which means

the amount of variance between the two variables was close to 5%. All the heterogeneous sub-sample correlations yielded insignificant results which also meant the demographic variables could not be used to explain the weak insignificant correlation between the two variables in this sample.

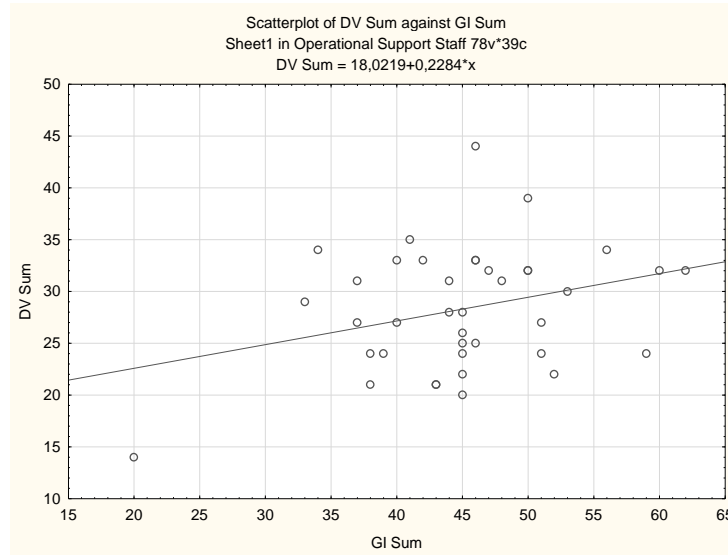


Figure 23: Scatterplot diagram illustrating correlation between GI Sum and DV Sum for operational support staff

4.10.10 Correlational Analysis Using Spearman’s Rho (r_s) Between GI Sum and RM Sum for the Operational Support Staff Sample

The correlation between the adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance revealed a moderate positive correlation, which was statistically significant $n = 39$; $r_s = 0.377$ and $p = 0.017$ (see figure 24 for a scatterplot diagram of the participants responses. The coefficient of determination (R_s^2) for the value of r_s , only 14,2% of the variance in adherence to traditional gender-role ideology can be attributed to an increase of the likelihood of being accepting of dating violence.

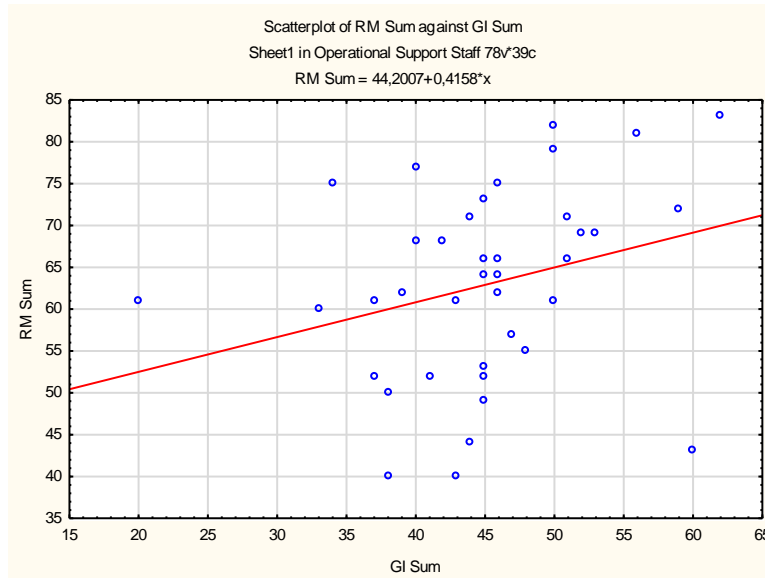


Figure 24: Scatterplot diagram illustrating correlation between GI Sum and RM Sum for the operational support staff sample

4.10.11 Heterogeneous Subsample Correlations between GI Sum and RM Sum for the Operational Support Staff Sample

Table 13: GI vs. RM for the operational support staff

Variables	Demographic	n	p < 0.05	r _s	Rs ²	Zobs	Difference	
GI vs. RM	Gender	Women	20	p = 0.993	.001	2.89%	2.183	Significant
		Men	17	p = 0.004	.654			
	Religion	Religious	31	p 0.009	.444		1.00	Non-significant
	Age	Older than 42 years	16	p = 0.403	.537			
		Younger than 42 years	15	p = 0.031	.224			
	Education	With a Grade 12	22	p = 0.001	.635		0.021	Non-significant
		Without a Grade 12	10	p = 0.400	.299			
	Years	More than 5 years	23	p = 0.232	.281		-1.45	Non-significant
Less than 5 years		13	p = 0.010	-.029				

From the heterogeneous sub-sample correlations, as outlined in *table 13*, significant findings were found among participants that identified as men, had a religious affiliation, who were younger than 42 years, had a Grade 12 qualification and had been in service in the Rhodes

University context for less than five years. A statistically significant Zobs value of 2.183 at $p < 0.05$ which lies outside the specific bounds of -1.96 and + 1.96 was observed between GI and DV grouped by gender.

4.10.12 Correlational Analysis Using Spearman's Rho (r_s) Between RM Sum and DV

Sum for the Operational Support Staff Sample

The correlation between rape myth acceptance and tolerance towards dating violence revealed a moderate positive correlation, $n = 39$; $r_s = .375$ and $p = 0.018$ (see figure 25 for a scatterplot diagram of the participants responses). Spearman's coefficient of determination (R_s^2) for the value of r_s , revealed that only 14% of the variance in rape myth acceptance can be attributed to an increase in the likelihood of being tolerant towards dating violence.

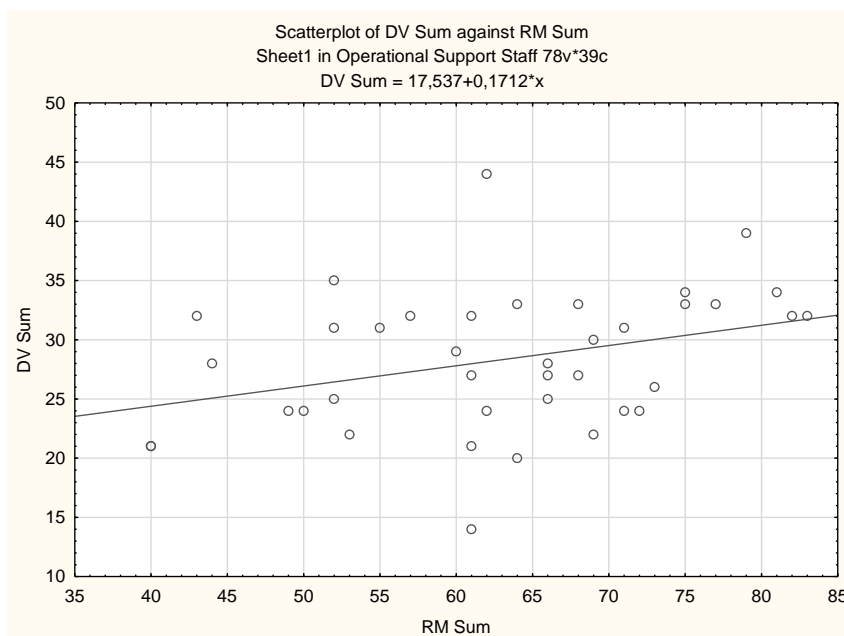


Figure 25: Scatterplot diagram illustrating correlation between RM Sum and DV Sum for operational support staff

4.10.12.1 Heterogeneous Subsample Correlations Between RM Sum and DV Sum for the Operational Support Staff Sample

Table 14: RM vs. DV for the operational support staff

Variables	Demographic	n	p < 0.05	r _s	Rs ²	Zobs	Difference	
RM vs. DV	Gender	Women	20	p = 0.054	.436	14%	-.849	Non-significant
		Men	17	p = 0.534	.162			
	Religion	Religious	31	p = 0.007	.455		-.465	Non-significant
		Age	Younger than 42 years	16	p = 0.027			
	Education	Older than 42 years	15	p = 0.005	.662		.504	Non-significant
		With a Grade 12	22	p = 0.073	.635			
	Years	Without a Grade 12	10	p = 0.090	.299		.266	Non-significant
		More than 5 years	23	p = 0.021	.477			
		Less than 5 years	13	p = 0.122	.455			

From the heterogeneous sub-sample correlations, as outlined in *table 14*, significant findings were found among participants that had a religious affiliation, who were both younger and older than 42 years and those that had been in service at Rhodes University for more than five years.

5 DISCUSSION

This section of the paper will present a discussion of the key findings of the current research study and refer to arguments developed in the literature review. The results of reliability analysis will be discussed first. Then a discussion of the descriptive statistics from the three sub-scales namely: gender-role ideology (GI), dating violence (DV) and rape myths acceptance (RM) will be discussed first. This will be followed by a discussion on the correlational analyses conducted among these three sub-scales for all four sample populations. This will then be followed by a discussion on the examination of how certain demographic variables significant for each sample affected the participants' responses.

5.1 A discussion of Cronbach's reliability Analyses

This study has concentrated on Cronbach's alpha to measure reliability. The results revealed that five of the twelve values had a high reliability standard as Cronbach's alpha for these items was greater than .7 ranging between .755 and .890. These values were obtained from the GI scale of the student sample (.755), the RM scale of the student sample (.854), the RM scale of the academic staff sample (.760), the RM scale of the administrative support staff sample (.890) and the RM scale of the operational support staff sample. Cronbach's alpha of reliability is expected at .7 to confirm the reliability of a measure (Field, 2018). Thus, these findings reveal good reliability of these scales. Furthermore, the results revealed that a further five out of the twelve values had moderate reliability as the values were above the .6 standard of reliability, with values ranging between .600 and .690. These values were obtained from the GI scale of the student sample (.622), the GI scale of the administrative support staff (.693), the DV scale of the administrative support staff (.687), the GI scale of the operational support staff (.650) and the DV scale of the operational support staff (.600). Although these values were less than the expected .7 standard of reliability, according to Field (2018) values

below .7 can be expected and according to Manerikar & Manerikar (2015) these values are acceptable. The results showed that two values were obtained had a Cronbach's alpha that was less than .6. The GI scale of the academic staff sample obtained a Cronbach's alpha value of .510, which according to Field (2018), although low, can be sufficient in the early stages of research. The second scale that obtained a Cronbach's alpha less than .6 was the DV scale of the academic staff sample which had .412 standard of reliability. According to (Manerikar & Manerikar, 2015) values less than .5 are 'unacceptable' which means the DV scale for the academic staff sample is unreliable. Hence this result remains the focus of further investigations of the reliability of the DV scale for the larger research project.

Since we have, firstly, measured psychological constructs of multiple factors which were attested by the original research articles with regards to the development of the adapted scales used in this study. It is also important to remember that this research is an initial use of the adapted scales used in an entirely different context. Thus, Cronbach's alpha values that were greater than the .5 standard of reliability were regarded as acceptable indicators of moderate scale reliability. To further attest to the reliability of the scales, the results on the scales were carefully assessed for any reverse scoring prior to running the analyses. The sample sizes of the four samples were generally small: the student sample had 165 participants, the academic staff had 56 participants, the administrative support staff sample had 48 participants and the operational support staff sample had only 39 participants. This increases the likelihood that sample size might have affected the reliability of the scales and should sample size have been larger the results of the reliability analyses may well have been different.

Also related to the issue of sample size, is the fact that the respondents to the questionnaire were recruited voluntarily using convenience sampling procedures which lacked randomisation. Consequently, the samples may well not be normally distributed as shown in the results for the Shapiro-Wilk's tests for normality (as shown in *table 5*, in the results

chapter). The values found across all four samples were between zero and one, which according to Razali & Yap (2011) indicate that the data is not normally distributed. It is thus expected that findings based on samples that are not normally distributed would reflect lower values on measures of reliability.

Considering the small sample sizes and that respondents had been voluntarily recruited through the use of convenience sampling, it is likely that the low alpha values obtained are a reflection of sample characteristics affecting the reliability of the measurements obtained and not reflections of the particular measures used in data collection. Additionally, the degree of variation in alpha values for each scale across the different samples suggests, perhaps, also that sample characteristics had an impact on reliability. Finally, this study is reporting on the first round of data collection in an on-going broader research project. The aim of the study was not to measure the validity and reliability of the measures used, but rather to investigate possible relationships between gender-role ideology, attitudes towards dating violence and rape myth acceptance. As such, an analysis of the psychometric properties, validity and reliability of the scales (although important and worthwhile) falls beyond the scope and focus of this specific study but remains an on-going investigation in the larger project.

5.2 A Discussion of the Measurement Results for Gender-Role Ideology, Dating Violence and Rape Myth Acceptance for All Four Samples

From all three subscales it was revealed that the overall sample upholds non-traditional gender-role ideology, is intolerant of dating violence and is rejecting of rape myths.

5.2.1 Gender-Role Ideology

Since those approached to participate in the research were diverse in a range of demographics such as involvement with the university (students or employees), number of years in the university, age, gender, religion, and level of education, the sample was expected to be as

diverse in their responses. Even so, it was expected that the sample would moderately adhere to traditional gender-role ideology considering the pervasive nature of gender-based violence in South Africa. For the student sample, the results suggested low levels of adherence to traditional gender-role ideology as the mean (\bar{x}) score of 34 was more than two full standard deviations below the established median (M) score of 50. This low score revealed that the student sample upholds egalitarian gender-role ideology. For the academic staff sample, the results also revealed that the sample has low levels of gender-role ideology as the mean (\bar{x}) score of 30 was more than five full standard deviations from the established median (M) of 50. This score also indicated that the academic staff sample upholds egalitarian gender-role ideology. This finding was expected from the academic staff, since literature notes that those with high levels of education tend to uphold a less traditional gender-role ideology (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004; Burt, 1980; Cunningham, 2005, Fan & Marini 2000; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Low levels of adherence to traditional gender-role ideology were revealed in the administrative support staff sample as the mean (\bar{x}) score of 43 fell more than one standard deviation from the established median (M) of 50. The operational support staff sample revealed a similar finding as the mean (\bar{x}) score of 45 fell more than one standard deviation away from the median (M) of 50. The scores for these two sample revealed that the participants uphold a less traditional gender-role ideology.

5.2.2 Dating Violence

For the student sample, the results suggested an intolerant stance towards dating violence as the mean (\bar{x}) score of 20 was more than four full standard deviations below the established median (M) score of 37.5. This low score revealed that the student sample is intolerant of dating violence. This was expected from the student sample as prior to data collection the University saw a spike in protest action as a result of the # RUPreferenceList student led

protest which was protesting against the institutional culture that was perceived as permissive of sexual violence (Tadepally & Parker, 2016; Seddon, 2016). For the academic staff sample, the results also revealed that the sample is intolerant of dating violence as the mean score of 20 was more than five full standard deviations from the established median (M) of 37.5. This was also expected from the academic staff as some members of the academic staff joined the student led protests in solidarity with the students (Tadepally & Parker, 2016). For the administrative support staff sample, the mean (\bar{x}) score attained was 38, which was less than one standard deviations below the established median (M) score of 37.5. For the operational support staff sample, the results suggested an intolerant stance towards dating violence as the mean score of 38 was more than one full standard deviation above the established median (M) score of 37.5.

5.2.3 Rape Myths Acceptance

For the student sample, the results suggested low levels of rape myths acceptance as the mean score of 43 was more than two full standard deviations below the established median (M) score of 80. This low score revealed that the student sample is rejecting of rape myths. This was no surprise, however, as the student led # RUPreferenceList protest led to more advocacy on campus regarding sexual violence through the use posters which were placed on certain walls throughout the campus. For the academic staff sample, the results also revealed that the sample is rejecting of rape myths as the mean (\bar{x}) score of 40 was more than five full standard deviations below the established median (M) of 80. This finding was expected from the academic staff, as literature informs us that the more educated one is the more liberal they become in their attitudes towards rape myth acceptance (Burt, 1980). Low levels of gender-role ideology were revealed in the administrative support staff sample as the mean (\bar{x}) score of 55 fell more than two standard deviations below the established median (M) of 80. The

operational support staff sample revealed a similar finding as the mean (\bar{x}) score of 62 fell more than one standard deviation below the established median (M) of 80.

Social desirability bias could not be ruled out to have possibly influenced the samples' responses, considering what was happening in the context at the time. For the academic staff sample, it is possible that social desirability was quite influential in the participant's responses. As students perceive academic staff as authority figures within the university context, and at the time of the #RURferenceList protests, student activists demanded the entire university community to join them in solidarity in their fight against sexual violence as the students felt that the Rhodes University context was tolerant of the rape culture and was not acting against it (Seddon, 2016). Thus, there is a strong possibility that the responses provided by participants were based on social desirability considerations.

The results of the operational support staff sample were no different to those obtained from the student, academic staff and administrative support staff samples which revealed that the sample upholds non-traditional gender-role ideology, is intolerant of dating violence and is rejecting of rape myths.

Sample size was a major concern for this sample as only two departments were sampled into the study due to time constraints and practical disruptions from the #FeesMustFall protests that made it impossible to sample all the departments within this division. Even so, social desirability bias cannot be excluded in attempts to make sense of the sample's low scores. Moreover, for this group of participants the questionnaire was paper-based as they did not have access to the online website where they could submit the questionnaires online. It is possible that these participants were more conscious of their responses as they had to hand in their questionnaire after completing it.

An argument exists in the literature that computerised survey questionnaires provide participants with more privacy and confidentiality than paper-based questionnaires. For example, in a study conducted by Brenner et al., (2006) which aimed to investigate the differences in self-reporting practices of paper-based methods versus computerised methods it was found that students provided more honest reports through the computerised survey. However, a study conducted by Van De Looiji and De Wilde (2008) which compared web-based and paper-based survey questionnaires, found no significant differences that would have indicated that the web-based survey offered the participants a significant sense of privacy and confidentiality over the paper-based version. Nonetheless, it was considered that this might have influenced the participants' responses on the survey questionnaire, specifically because the survey questionnaire was investigating attitudes towards dating violence and the acceptance of rape myths (topics which are assumed to promote responses which aim to increase one's social desirability).

Taken at face value, however, and bearing considerations of social desirability bias in mind, these results revealed that overall the samples drawn from the university community uphold non-traditional gender-role ideology, are intolerant of dating violence and generally reject rape myths. Considering the high levels of gender-based violence in South Africa, and the increasing prevalence of sexual violence in institutions of higher learning (specifically highlighted within the context of this study by student protests in 2016), there was an expectation, based on available literature, that the participants might score relatively high on all three sub-scales. The low levels of agreement with traditional gender-role ideology, tolerance of dating violence and rape myth acceptance observed might be due to an interplay of different factors such as: small sample sizes, social desirability bias, provision of censored responses on the survey questionnaire, contextual influences that occurred concurrently with the research data collection period and the sexual violence prevention campaigns that took

place within the university context which heightened the participants' awareness of gender-based violence making them highly conscientised.

It should also be noted that, although universities form part of the broader social environment they often embody different norms and values than this broader context. As mentioned in the literature, educational attainment bodes well with non-adherence to gender-role ideology (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004; Cunningham 2005, Fan & Marini 2000) and rejection of rape myths (Burt, 1980; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995), which can lead to an intolerance towards dating violence (Jewkes et al., 2010). Furthermore, the finding by Byrant (2003) that after four years of being in university people become less traditional allows for the safe assumption that the university context exposes people to more liberal ideas with regards to issues of gender relations. In the case of the Rhodes University context, the scheduled awareness week which aims to bring awareness to multiple issues such as sex, gender, and sexual orientation might have significantly impacted on participants attitudes towards GBV.

Having examined the descriptive statistics yielded from the four samples, the discussion will now move on to discussing the relationships found between the three sub-scales through correlational analyses among the four samples.

5.3 Correlational Analyses Between GI Sum and DV Sum, GI Sum and RM Sum, and RM Sum and DV Sum

5.3.1 Correlational Analysis Between Gender Role Ideology and Dating Violence

It was expected that a relationship would exist between adherence to traditional gender role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence as stipulated in the literature as confirmed by the findings from the student and academic staff samples (Anderson, Simpson-Taylor

&Herrmann, 2004; Doss & Hopkins, 1998). The results revealed that for the student sample the correlation was weak yet statistically significant ($r_s = .22$; $p = 0.003$). For the academic staff sample the correlation was moderate yet statistically significant ($r_s = .4579$; $p = 0.000$). For the administrative support staff sample the correlation was weak and statistically non-significant ($r_s = .173$; $p = 0.237$) and then finally the operational support staff sample also yielded a weak correlation which was statistically non-significant ($r_s = .213$; $p = 0.190$). The results reveal that for the both the student sample and the academic staff sample a significant relationship does exist between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence, meaning as adherence to gender-role ideology increases so does the likelihood of being tolerant of dating violence for these two samples. However, for the administrative support staff and operational support staff samples the results revealed weak statistically non-significant findings, meaning that for these two samples a non-significant relationship exists between traditional gender-role ideology and dating violence. Although the student and academic staff samples yielded significant results in support of the literature these findings should be viewed cautiously, as small sample size tends to increase the likelihood of assuming that a false result is true (Faber & Fonseca, 2014).

5.3.2 Correlational Analysis between Gender-Role Ideology and Rape Myth

Acceptance

As confirmed in the literature, the results revealed that a relationship exists between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance for all samples (Burt, 1980; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995; Johnson et al., 1997 Petersen et al., 2005). All four samples, student ($r_s = .337$; $p = 0.000$) academic staff ($r_s = .337$; $p = 0.010$) administrative support staff ($r_s = .448$; $p = 0.001$); and operational support staff ($r_s = .377$; $p = 0.017$), revealed a statistically significant moderate relationship between adherence to traditional

gender-role ideology and rape myths acceptance. As much as these findings are in support of the literature, it should be noted that the small sample sizes might have influenced this outcome and perhaps if the study had received a good response rate these results would be different.

5.3.3 Correlational Analyses between Rape Myth Acceptance and Dating Violence

As predicted in the literature, a relationship exists between rape myth acceptance and dating violence (Boonzaier, 2008; Flood & Pease, 2009; Jewkes, et al., 2010; Wood & Jewkes, 2001). The student ($r_s = .375$; $p = 0.000$) and operational support staff ($r_s = .375$; $p = 0.018$) samples revealed a statistically significant moderate positive correlation between rape myth acceptance and tolerance towards dating violence. The academic staff sample ($r_s = .279$; $p = 0.037$) yielded a statistically significant weak positive correlation between rape myth acceptance and tolerance towards dating violence. Finally, the administrative support ($r_s = .270$; $p = 0.062$) sample yielded a statistically non-significant weak positive correlation among the two variables. As mentioned before sample size might be responsible for the findings across all four samples. It is also possible that over the years these participants might have been exposed to issues of gender relations through the university's 'awareness and advocacy' initiatives and, as a result, are rejecting of rape myths and are intolerant of dating violence. It is also possible that social desirability bias might have played a role in the outcome.

The following aspect of the discussion will be based on the heterogeneous sub-sample correlations that were run on the correlations between gender-role ideology and dating violence, gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance and rape myth acceptance and dating violence.

5.4 Heterogeneous Sub-Sample Correlations Grouped by Significant Demographic Variables

Given the weak to moderate strengths of the correlations regarding gender-role ideology and dating violence, gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance and rape myth acceptance and dating violence, a decision to investigate whether demographic variables had any influence on the outcomes of the analysis was made. Moreover, previous research studies conducted by fellow researchers on the same samples revealed that demographic variables such as gender (Msomi, 2016; Naidoo, 2016), religion (Rudman, 2016; Naidoo, 2016), age (Msomi, 2016), level of education (Smith, 2016; Rudman, 2016), number of years in the institution (Naidoo, 2016) and population group for the student sample (Naidoo, 2016) had a significant impact on adherence to traditional gender-role ideology, tolerance towards dating violence and rape myth acceptance.

Additionally, for the student sample, a few more demographic variables were added. These included population, accommodation (res/digs) and funding. The additional demographic variables were examined to determine whether they had any impact on the sample's results. From the current analysis, three demographic variables were found to be related to significant differences between results of the sub-scale correlations:

- 1.) Gender, for the relationship between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance for the student sample and the operational support staff sample;
- 2.) Religion, for the relationship between rape myth acceptance and tolerance of dating violence for the student sample;
- 3.) and lastly, Education, for the relationship between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence for the academic staff sample.

Even though most of the heterogeneous sub-sample correlations were insignificant, it was felt that it would be enlightening to discuss the statistically significant p-value ($p < 0.05$) to further make sense of the findings. Each of these findings will be discussed in turn starting with the significant demographic variables: gender, religion, education, which will be followed by a discussion of age, number of years in the institution, population, accommodation, and funding.

5.5 The Relationship Between Gender-Role Ideology and Dating Violence Grouped by Demographic Variables

5.5.1 Gender

For the academic staff sample population, gender was found to be a significant factor for the women in the sample ($r_s = .539$; $p = 0.004$) when compared to the men in the sample ($r_s = .291$; $p = 0.224$). This finding reveals that for the women in this sample a relationship exists between their adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence compared to the men in the sample. This finding should be viewed in light of the number of years the majority of the men in this sample might have spent at Rhodes University which might have increased their educational attainment and chances of exposure to sexual violence prevention strategies. This may have heightened their awareness to gender-related forms of violence more than the women in the sample. This finding further affirms the findings found by a number of other researchers (see Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004; Cunningham 2005, Fan & Marini 2000). Specifically, these aforementioned researchers found that the more educated one is the more egalitarian they are in their gender-role ideology. As mentioned before, social desirability bias cannot be excluded when exploring possible reasons for this result. It is also worth mentioning that this finding is seemingly incongruent to the literature which reports that men are more likely to uphold gender-role

ideologies thus being more tolerant of dating violence than women (Bolzendahl & Myers 2004; Davis & Greenstein, 2009; Fan & Marini, 2000).

5.5.2 Religion

For the student sample, religion yielded a significant result for participants that were religiously affiliated ($r_s = .326$; $p = 0.000$) compared to non-religious participants ($r_s = .065$; $p = 0.065$). These results reveal that a relationship exists between adherence to gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence for participants that have a religious affiliation compared to those that do not. This finding like the student sample finding supports the available literature that states that religious people are more likely than non-religious people to uphold traditional gender-role ideologies (Denton, 2004; Hoffman & Bartkowski, 2008).

5.5.3 Education

From the student sample, participants that were enrolled for undergraduate courses had a significant result ($r_s = .288$; $p = 0.000$) as compared to the participants enrolled for postgraduate courses ($r_s = -.363$; $p = 0.105$). This finding reveals that a relationship between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence exists for participants enrolled for undergraduate studies than those registered for postgraduate studies. This finding needs to be understood in light of the fact that most of the participants enrolled for postgraduate studies have also been in Rhodes University for more than three years, which increases the possibility that they have attained higher education levels and had been exposed to sexual violence prevention strategies over the years thus providing them an advantage over participants enrolled for undergraduate courses.

Similarly, the academic staff sample revealed a significant finding for participants that do not have PhD qualifications ($r_s = .757$; $p = 0.000$) as compared to participants that have a PhD ($r_s = .196$; $p = 0.293$). It was also found that the majority of participants with a PhD had been in service within the Rhodes University context for more than five years yielding an insignificant result ($r_s = .196$; $p = 0.056$), suggesting that they had been exposed to sexual violence prevention programmes more than the participants without PhD's who had been in the university context for less than 5 years, which yielded a significant result of ($r_s = .757$; $p = 0.001$). These findings confirm that the university context plays a significant role in lessening gender-role ideology, thus, supporting the findings by Bryant (2003).

5.5.4 Age

For the student sample, participants that were younger than 23 years yielded a significant result ($r_s = .241$; $p = 0.010$) compared to participants that were older than 23 years ($r_s = -.015$; $p = 0.940$). These findings reveal that for participants that are younger than 23 years a relationship exists between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence as opposed to participants that are older than 23 years. For the academic staff sample, both participants younger and older than 40 years yielded significant results. Participants that were younger than 40 years yielded a moderate relationship ($r_s = 0.375$; $p = 0.005$) while older participants yielded a strong relationship ($r_s = .746$; $p = 0.044$). For this sample, no differences were found when the correlation was controlled by the age group except for the strength of the relationship between the two sub-samples.

5.5.5 Number of years in the Rhodes University context

For the student sample, participants that have been in the university context for less than three years ($r_s = .267$; $p = 0.002$) yielded a significant result compared to participants that had been in the university context for more than three years ($r_s = .055$; $p = 0.748$). For the academic

staff sample, a similar pattern was observed with participants that have been working in the university for less than five years ($r_s = .636$; $p = 0.001$) yielding a significant result while those that have been employed in the university for more than five years ($r_s = .335$; $p = 0.056$) yielded an insignificant result. Both sub-sample correlation outcomes are in support of the arguments made earlier in terms of understanding the outcomes in the demographics of age and level of education. In that, the length of time that participants have spent in the university has had an influence on their responses as, over the years, they had been gradually exposed to sexual violence prevention strategies that might have altered their attitudes towards sexual violence.

5.5.6 Race

In terms of race, participants categorised as black yielded a significant result ($r_s = .757$; $p = 0.000$) which reveals that for this group of participants a relationship exists between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence as opposed to participants that were categorised as white that yielded a non-significant result ($r_s = .053$; $p = 0.690$). The reason for this disparity might be due to patriarchal gender norms that most South Africans are socialised under (Mofolo, 2010) and the extensive culture of violence that exists in South Africa as an inherited product of colonization and the apartheid regime (Moffett, 2006). However, as it was mentioned in the literature review, a racial salience exists surrounding sexual violence in South Africa (Moffett, 2006). Thus, this finding is by no means being used to conclude that this group of participants upholds traditional gender-role ideologies that facilitates their tolerance towards dating violence.

It should also be noted that the overall mean scores of gender-role ideology = 34 and dating violence = 20 for the sample were indicative of the sample's egalitarian gender-role ideologies and intolerance towards dating violence.

5.5.7 Accommodation

In terms of accommodation, participants residing on-campus residences yielded a significant result ($r_s = .229$; $p = 0.020$) compared to those residing in digs ($r_s = .217$; $p = 0.087$) that yielded a non-significant result which indicates that accommodation is a significant factor for participants that reside on on-campus accommodation. However, it should be noted that participants residing in residence made up 62% of the sample while those residing in digs made up the remaining 38%. So, it is possible that this disparity is due to sample size limitations.

5.5.8 Funding

The two funding categories: (with funding = unable to afford university without assistance, therefore from lower socio-economic or less advantaged backgrounds and without funding = able to afford university without assistance, therefore from higher socio-economic/advantaged backgrounds. Participants which had no funding yielded a significant result ($r_s = .319$; $p = 0.000$) suggesting that a relationship does exist between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence for these participants when compared to participants that are recipients of funding which yielded an insignificant outcome ($r_s = .002$; $p = 0.987$). It is possible that sample size is responsible for these findings as participants with funding made up 26% of the sample while those without funding made up about 74%.

5.6 The Relationship Between Gender Role Ideology and Rape Myth Acceptance Grouped by Demographic Variables

5.6.1 Gender

For the student sample, gender was found to be a significant factor for both the women ($r_s = .291$; $p = 0.000$) and the men in the sample ($r_s = .539$; $p = 0.000$). For the academic staff sample, both the women ($r_s = .304$; $p = 0.130$) and the men ($r_s = 0.370$; $p = 0.118$) in the sample yielded a non-significant result. Thus, revealing that a non-significant relationship exists between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance for both the men and women in the sample.

Similarly, the administrative support staff sample which yielded a strong statistically significant outcome ($r_s = .544$; $p = 0.000$). This meant a relationship exists between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance as opposed to the men in the sample who yielded a non-significant result ($r_s = -.464$; $p = 0.293$). However, the number of men in the sample ($n=7$), by default, revealed no correlation between the two sub-samples. The interpretation of this result needs to be taken tentatively as it is unfair to conclude anything about this correlation considering the unequal number of participants in the sub-samples. However, if the sample sizes were larger and the results obtained from the correlation were similar then this finding would be an interesting one as it is incongruent to the literature that stipulates that men are more likely than women to accept rape myths (Burt, 1980; Johnson et al., 1997; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010).

For the operational support staff sample, the men in the sample had a significant result ($r_s = .654$; $p = 0.004$) as compared to the women who yielded a non-significant result ($r_s = .001$; $p = 0.993$). This finding is congruent with the literature which reports that men are more likely

to accept rape myths than women (Burt, 1980; Johnson et al., 1997; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). Even so, this finding needs to be viewed cautiously in light of the sample size limitations.

5.6.2 Religion

For the student sample, both the religious participants ($r_s = 0.312$; $p = 0.000$) and the non-religious participants ($r_s = 0.237$; $p = 0.000$) yielded significant outcomes which suggests that a relationship exists between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance for both sub-sample populations. In the administrative support staff sample, religious participants yielded a significant result ($r_s = .404$; $p = 0.023$) compared to the non-religious participants in the sample ($r_s = 0.355$; $p = 0.211$). Religious participants in the operational support staff sample, which constituted the majority of the sample yielded a significant result ($r_s = 0.444$; $p = 0.009$). These results from the administrative support staff sample and the operational support staff sample suggest that religious affiliation has an influence on adherence to traditional gender-role ideologies as stated in the literature (Abouchedid & Nasser, 2007; Burn & Busso, 2005), however, should not be understood as being causative.

5.6.3 Education

Participants enrolled for undergraduate courses yielded a significant result ($r_s = .559$; $p = 0.000$), revealing that for these participants a relationship exists between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance compared to participants enrolled for postgraduate course who yielded an insignificant result ($r_s = .283$; $p = 0.212$). For the academic staff sample, both participants with a PhD ($r_s = .269$; $p = 0.149$) and without a PhD ($r_s = .397$; $p = 0.192$) yielded a non-significant result suggesting that an insignificant relationship exists between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance for these participants. For the administrative support staff sample, the result was

significant for participants with a BA/post-matric diploma ($r_s = 0.431$; $p = 0.005$) when compared to participants with a postgraduate qualification ($r_s = 0.554$; $p = 0.070$) who yielded a non-significant result. The results from these three samples are congruent with the literature that states that higher education reduces the likelihood of being accepting of rape myths (see Abeid et al., 2015). Unlike the other three samples, in the operational support staff sample, participants with a Grade 12 qualification yielded a significant result ($r_s = .635$; $p = 0.001$) compared to participants without a Grade 12 qualification that yielded a non-significant result ($r_s = .299$; $p = 0.400$). There is a possibility that these findings are due to the sample size limitations.

5.6.4 Age

For the student sample both participants younger than 23 years ($r_s = .518$; $p = 0.000$) and older than 23 years ($r_s = 0.459$; $p = 0.018$) yielded significant results, with the younger participant revealing a stronger relationship between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance than the older participants. These results reveal that for both participants younger and older than 23 years a relationship exists between these variables. The academic staff sample revealed that participants that are older than 40 years ($r_s = .501$; $p = 0.05$) had a significant result compared to participants aged less than 40 years ($r_s = .008$; $p = 0.978$), revealing that for the participants older than 40 years a relationship exists between these two variables. Sample size was influential in this finding as the two sub-samples are not equally distributed between the ($n = 29$) older participants and ($n = 12$) younger participants.

5.6.5 Years

The student sample revealed a significant finding for participants that have been in the university for less than three years ($r_s = 0.564$; $p = 0.000$) as compared to participants that had been in the university context for more than three years ($r_s = 0.324$; $p = 0.212$). These results

support the earlier argument on the altering of attitudes towards sexual violence that takes place the longer one is within the university context. For the academic staff sample, participants who had been in the university context for less than five years yielded a non-significant result ($r_s = .320$; $p = 0.145$) when compared to participants who have been in the university context for more than five years ($r_s = .397$; $p = 0.022$) who yielded a significant result. This finding is different from the other findings that are suggestive that the longer one is in the university context the less traditional they become.

For the administrative support staff sample, both sub-sample correlations revealed significant results with participants who have been in the university for less than five years ($r_s = 0.497$; $p = 0.035$) revealing a slightly stronger correlation than the participants that have been in the university for more than five years ($r_s = 0.443$; $p = 0.013$). This slightly stronger correlation supports the argument made for the student sample. For the operational support staff sample, participants who had been in the university context for less than five years yielded significant results ($r_s = .682$; $p = 0.010$) as compared to participants that had been in the university context for more than five years ($r_s = .281$; $p = 0.232$), also supporting the argument made for the student and administrative support staff sample populations.

5.6.6 Population

The results were significant for both the participants categorised as black ($r_s = 0.571$; $p = 0.001$) and those categorised as white ($r_s = 0.401$; $p = 0.000$) which suggests that a relationship exists between adherence to gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance for both sub-sample populations.

5.6.7 Accommodation

The results revealed significant results for both the participants that reside on on-campus residence ($r_s = 0.531$; $p = 0.000$) and those that reside in digs ($r_s = 0.491$; $p = 0.000$). This finding reveals that a relationship exists between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance for all participants, irrespective of where they reside.

5.6.8 Funding

The results revealed significant results for both the participants that indicated they were recipients of funding ($r_s = 0.535$; $p = 0.000$) and participants that were not recipients of funding ($r_s = 0.519$; $p = 0.000$), meaning a relationship exists between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance for both participants that are recipients of funding and those that do not have funding.

5.7 The Relationship Between Rape Myth Acceptance and Dating Violence Grouped by Demographic Variables

For the student sample, the results were significant across all the demographic variables thus revealing that all demographic factors had an impact on the overall significant correlation between rape myth acceptance and tolerance towards dating violence. The academic staff and administrative support staff samples yielded an opposite result to the student sample as the results were non-significant across all demographic variables which means that demographic variables do not account for the overall non-significant correlation between rape myth acceptance and dating violence. However, the operational support staff sample revealed some significant results which will be discussed below by exploring the significant demographics.

5.7.1 Religion

Religious participants had a significant result ($r_s = 0.455$; $p = 0.007$) which suggests that for these participants a relationship exists between rape myths acceptance and tolerance towards dating violence. This finding is not surprising considering that in the available literature religiosity is associated with the acceptance of rape myths (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). However, this finding could not be correlated against participants that are non-religious as 85% of the sample was religious.

5.7.2 Age

Significant results were yielded for both participants younger than 42 years ($r_s = .548$; $p = 0.027$) and older than 42 years ($r_s = 0.635$; $p = 0.005$). For these participants a relationship exists between rape myths acceptance and tolerance towards dating violence regardless of age.

5.7.3 Years

Participants that had been working for the university for less than five years had an insignificant result ($r_s = .455$; $p = 0.122$), suggesting that for these participants a non-significant relationship exists between rape myth acceptance and tolerance towards dating violence. A possibility exists that this group of participants has not had the same level of exposure to sexual violence prevention programmes compared to participants that have been working for the university for more than five years ($r_s = .477$; $p = 0.021$). Furthermore, unlike the other three samples where participants had a high level of educational attainment, most of the participants from this sample had relatively low levels of education attainment. As mentioned in the literature, people with high educational attainment often have liberal views on rape myths acceptance (Abeid et al., 2015; Burt, 1980).

5.8 Implication of the Research Findings

The study adds to the understanding of Gender-Based Violence within the Rhodes University context which might also assist other institutions of higher learning in South Africa by contributing to theory and practical implications for university management concerned with the prevention of sexual violence. The implications will be discussed under theoretical implications and practical implications.

5.8.1 Theoretical implications

This study aimed to contribute to gender-based violence literature which seeks to gain greater insight about understanding the prevalence of gender-based violence and this was achieved. If we can better understand how gender-based violence is understood in the Rhodes University context then we can think about ways of challenging and changing those perceptions and hopefully affecting social change. This study extends the literature by demonstrating that gender-role ideology contributes to ones attitudes towards gender-based violence. This study may form part of the growing body of literature in the South African context, investigating the relationship between gender-role ideology and gender-based violence in an institution of higher learning. Furthermore, its focus on the examination of relationships between gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence, gender-role ideology and rape myths acceptance and tolerance towards dating violence and rape myths acceptance will add further value towards the expansion of literature on GBV, gender-role ideology, dating violence, and rape myth acceptance.

A vast amount of literature exists in international contexts about these relationships, although significant, findings from these studies cannot be generalised to different contexts such as the multicultural context of South Africa. Hence, the results of this study which report significant relationships between the variables will add value to current literature even in light of the

sample size and reliability limitations. Furthermore, for researchers interested in understanding the relationship between gender-role ideology and gender-based violence in institutions of higher learning in South Africa, these results might be able to offer some direction.

5.8.2 Implications at an individual level

At the individual level these results reveal that the participants in the study uphold less traditional gender-role ideologies, are intolerant of dating violence and are rejecting of rape myths. This reveals that these participants used the forum of this research to think about their gender-role ideologies, their views regarding dating violence and rape myths. These individuals can use these results to further reflect on and develop an understanding of the roles they want to play in contributing to the prevention of gender-based violence in Rhodes University.

5.8.3 Practical Implications for Rhodes University

Gender-role ideology is a central part in the socialisation of human beings. With a sample as culturally diverse as the one in this study, it is possible that due to their socialisation that some might uphold traditional gender-role ideology and some might uphold egalitarian gender-role ideologies. The results of this study revealed that there is a relationship between gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence, gender-role ideology and rape myths acceptance and tolerance towards dating violence and rape myths acceptance for all four samples. Furthermore, the results revealed significant demographic variables such as gender, age, religiosity, level of education and number of years spent in Rhodes University. All these demographic variables being equally significant in the way an individual makes sense of the world they live in and inform their decision making on various social issues as they play a significant role during an individual's socialisation (Kulik, 2002). For example,

age, research indicates that the younger a person is the more egalitarian their gender-role ideology (Burt 1980; Burt & Scott, 2002; Sweeting et al., 2014), accounting for societal changes and the increase in cultural flexibility. Younger persons see the world differently than older persons due to different factors (Sweeting et al., 2014). Thus the university needs to be aware of the changes in gender-role ideologies, understanding that each generation is different from the previous one. This of course, offers the university an advantage as these younger staff members and students are more egalitarian in their gender-role ideologies meaning they can critique certain practices and reflect on their own attitudes towards those practices. Thus meaning, the university's prevention strategies that invite young people might be met with less resistance but an eagerness for social change. Furthermore, the level of education and number of years that a person had spent in the university were significant in the findings, revealing that the current existing prevention strategies have been quite influential on the participants' attitudes.

The prevention of gender-based violence in institutions of higher learning requires more than simply educating students on the lawful definitions of rape, sexual harassment or any other forms of gender-based violence. The results of this study suggest that prevention programs should engage students in critical analysis of their understanding of gender, and encourage students to challenge dominant ideas about masculinity and femininity. In addition, education and training programs should encourage all three levels of staff (academic, administrative support and operational support) to examine their own attitudes towards hegemonic masculinities and gender-based violence given that they are important role players in the university and sometimes happen to be first line responders to reports of GBV incidents within the university context. Thus making certain that staff members are as aware of these issues is significant as most incidents of GBV go unreported due to victim blaming or the fear

of not being believed (Jewkes & Abrahams 2002; Vetten et al., 2008; Smythe & Waterhouse 2008).

6 CONCLUSIONS AND REFLECTIONS

The aim of the study was to investigate the relationship between gender-role ideology and gender-based violence. This work adds another dimension to an even bigger project that aims to investigate the influence of attitudes on gender-based violence within the Rhodes University context. There is growing interest to investigate the causes of 'sexual violence' so as to better inform sexual violence prevention strategies. This section will integrate the findings discussed in relation to the aims of the research, and the research questions and will include an overall summary of the key findings. This will be followed by a section on limitations that were identified in the current study. Then finally, a section on recommendations for future research is included.

As the main aim of this research study was to investigate whether a relationship exists between gender-role ideology and gender-based violence, this research question was addressed by investigating relationships between gender role ideology and dating violence, gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance, and rape myth acceptance and dating violence for the student, academic staff, administrative support staff and operational support staff samples.

In terms of the descriptive statistics, the study revealed that the student sample, academic staff sample, administrative support staff sample and operational support staff sample hold non-traditional gender-role ideologies, are intolerant of dating violence and are rejecting of rape myths. There was an expectation that the samples would obtain moderate or high scores on the measures based on the pervasiveness of gender-based violence in South Africa. Nonetheless, these findings are invigorating as they reveal the sample is generally intolerant of gender-based violence.

With regards to the relationship between adherence to gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence, the investigation revealed that for the student sample, a weak statistically significant relationship exists. A similar finding was observed for the academic staff as a moderate statistically significant relationship between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and a tolerance towards dating violence was found from the correlational analyses. The findings from these two samples are congruent with findings from (Anderson et al., 2004; Doss & Hopkins, 1986; Boonzaier, 2008). However, for the administrative and operational support staff samples the results revealed that the relationship between adherence to gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence was statistically insignificant.

With regards to the relationship between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance, moderate statistically significant relationships were found across all four samples as predicted in the literature (Burt, 1980).

With regards to the relationship between rape myth acceptance and a tolerance towards dating violence, the investigation revealed that for the student sample, a moderate statistically significant relationship exists between rape myth acceptance and a tolerance of dating violence. A similar finding was observed for the operational support staff sample as a moderate statistically significant relationship between rape myth acceptance and a tolerance towards dating violence was found from the correlational analysis. The investigation revealed that for the academic staff sample, a weak statistically significant relationship exists between rape myth acceptance and a tolerance towards dating violence. Unlike the students, academic staff and operational support staff samples, the investigation revealed that for the administrative support staff sample, a weak statistically insignificant relationship exists between rape myth acceptance and dating violence. The findings from the student sample, the academic staff sample and the operational support staff sample conform to the predictions in

literature as found in the study conducted by (Anderson, Simpson-Taylor, & Herrmann, 2004).

Lastly, interesting findings were revealed by the heterogeneous sub-sample correlations between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence grouped by demographic variables across all four samples. From the student sample, it was revealed that a relationship exists between adherence to gender-role ideology and a tolerance towards dating violence for participants that are religiously affiliated, younger than 23 years, categorised as black, enrolled for undergraduate studies, have been in the university context for less than three years, residing on on-campus residences, and without funding. For the academic staff sample the findings revealed that for participants that identify as women, both older and younger than 40 years, without a PhD and who have been employed in the university for less than five years, a stronger relationship between adherence to gender-role ideology and tolerance towards dating violence exists.

The heterogeneous sub-sample correlational analysis between adherence to traditional gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance revealed that for the student sample a relationship between these two variables exists for all the controlled variables (except for participants that are enrolled for postgraduate studies and had been in the university context for more than three years). For the academic staff sample, the findings revealed that for participants that are older than 40 years and those who have been employed in the university for more than five years a relationship between adherence to gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance exists. For the administrative support staff sample, the results revealed that a relationship between adherence to gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance exists for participants that identify as women, those who are religious, both older and younger than 41 years, that do not have a postgraduate qualification and both those who have been in the university for more and less than five years. For the operational support staff sample, the

results revealed that a relationship exists between adherence to gender-role ideology and rape myth acceptance for participants that identify as men, those who are religious, younger than 42 years, have attained matric, and had been employed in the university for less than five years.

The heterogeneous sub-sample correlation between rape myth acceptance and a tolerance towards dating violence revealed that a relationship between the two variables exists for all the demographic variables in the student sample. For the academic staff sample, the results revealed that a statistically insignificant relationship exists between rape myth acceptance and tolerance towards dating violence across all the controlled variables. A similar finding was revealed for the administrative support staff sample, as the heterogeneous sub-sample correlations revealed an insignificant relationship between rape myth acceptance and tolerance towards dating violence across all controlled demographic variables. For the operational support staff, the results revealed that a relationship exists between rape myth acceptance and tolerance towards dating violence for participants that are religious, who are both older and younger than 42 years and those who have been employed in the university for more than five years.

6.1 Limitations of the Study

These findings need to be understood considering the limitations that were posed to this research study. Such limitations are inclusive of the research instrument design, the sample sizes and the contextual influences that existed concurrently with the research data collection process.

6.1.1 Limitations in the Research Instrument Design

Considering that the research instrument was adapted from pre-existing measures that aim to measure certain views and attitudes, it was anticipated that a measure adapted from these

scales would be met with the challenge of reliability and validity. Cronbach's alpha analyses revealed that 10 out of the 12 measurements (three scales measured across four samples) met an adequate standard of reliability as the alpha value was above .6. However, results for one measurement (out of the 12 measurements obtained) was low, but nevertheless above the .5 standard of reliability, which according to Field (2018) can suffice in the early stages of a research. One measurement was found to be unreliable as the Cronbach's alpha was below the .5 standard of reliability. Although most of the scales meet the requirements for an adequate standard of reliability, the two scales that were below the .6 level are concerning for the research team as it raises questions about the reliability and validity of the measurements and scales in question and the conclusions drawn from these results must be treated with circumspection and a healthy dose of reservation.

6.1.2 Sample Size Limitations

The sample sizes were a limiting factor to this research study as the hope of a large number of participants might have improved the generalisability of the research findings. It is possible that the nature of the research study and the contextual factors might have impacted on the sample sizes. As a result, the sample sizes were fairly homogeneous, in that, the samples diversity in terms of demographic information was unequally distributed. Furthermore, this limitation became more apparent in the heterogeneous subsample correlations. The number of people that took interest in the study fell below what was initially expected. Nonetheless, the data collected provided meaningful information about the samples despite this limitation. As a result of this limitation the data obtained from the four samples cannot be generalised to the general population from which the samples were drawn.

6.1.3 Limiting Contextual Influences

Social desirability, a tendency for individuals to present themselves in a more positive light, might have distorted the results of the study Brenner and DeLamater (2016). The participants' response style might have been impacted on by this bias as this research was conducted at a time when the Rhodes University community had become aware of the #RURferenceList saga which was followed by a mass demonstration protest against sexual violence (Parker & Tadeppally, 2016; Seddon, 2016). This might explain the insignificant results obtained from some of the correlational analyses. The #RURferenceList gained a considerable amount of media coverage which heightened awareness for the entire university population (Seddon, 2016). Following this, the Rhodes University community was exposed to different forms of sexual violence prevention strategies, hence there is a possibility that the participants' responses on the survey might have been censored to portray the participants as upholding egalitarian gender-role ideologies, intolerant of dating violence and rejecting of rape myths.

A possibility exists, that had this research study been conducted at a different time within this context the findings would be different from the current ones. However, whether this is the case or not remains speculative as this can only be proven or disproved by future studies. Nonetheless, anonymity and confidentiality formed the cornerstone of this research study to encourage participants to respond freely and honestly on the survey questionnaire, which could mean that the participants' responses were uncensored and perhaps were a true reflection of their perceptions. Therefore, it is believed that the results hold credence and provide insight to the research questions regardless of this overarching limitation.

6.2 Recommendations

Replication of this study within university contexts is very important considering the increased incidences of sexual violence in South Africa (specifically in university contexts). This might provide valuable information on the relationship between gender-role ideology and gender-based violence in the diverse South African context. The Cronbach's alpha values that were below the .7 standard of reliability reveal that there is a need for further scale development which should be validated prior to being utilised. It is recommended that a factor analysis be employed to determine the dimensionality of the scales, as such an analysis is beyond the scope of this paper.

Due to the limited timeframe of the study a regression analysis could not be conducted. Thus, it is recommended that a regression analysis be conducted on the study to investigate the impact of the findings. A regression analysis might investigate the nature of the relationships between the variables and establish how a difference in one variable can account for a change in the other variable. Furthermore, such research might provide insight on the endorsement of rape myths and the impact of such endorsement on the perpetration of gender-based violence which remains a major concern within the Rhodes University context. It could also be useful to include alcohol and other illicit substance use in the survey as the role substances play on the perpetration of gender-based violence cannot be minimised. With a larger sample it would be important to investigate the influence of the main demographic variables that revealed significant differences across all four samples.

In conclusion, the information obtained from this study will help Rhodes University in better understanding the occurrence of gender-based violence on their campus and can be used to inform sexual violence prevention programmes aimed at the entire university community. The results will also inform the larger study's direction towards its general aims, how to better address them in light of the limitations so as to produce quality research.

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APPENDIX A: ADVERTISEMENT FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS TO BE POSTED ON RUCONNECTED AND STUDENTZONE.

The information provided below is an outline only of the electronic recruiting advertisement that will be posted on RUconnected and Studentzone. The final recruiting advert will be developed collaboratively with honours student co-researchers and will be submitted for review to the RPERC at the 06 April meeting. Only after this review has taken place and permission from relevant institutional authorities has been obtained will the recruiting advertisement be posted on the abovementioned online site. The advertisement will comply with the Rhodes University Department of Psychology's guidelines for recruiting human participants, and therefore will include the following information:

- The topic or focus of study
- The names and surnames of the researchers
- The degree being completed by the researchers, and that they are studying at the Department of Psychology at Rhodes University
- The title of the research project
- The name and title of the research supervisor
- The sample demographics
- A concise, yet, full and transparent description of the purpose of the study
- The nature of the participation required, including that the study is envisaged as encompassing two stage of data collection and that participants will be contacted again later in the year.
- The time commitment required from participants
- The nature of confidentiality and anonymity procedures for the study, the risk involved in the study, and the right to withdraw from the study. Specifically, the advertisement will draw attention to the possibility of some questionnaire items providing a trigger for traumatic recollections and routes for referral if this should occur. Secondly, the advertisement will emphasise that participation is voluntary and that completion of the questionnaire will be interpreted as informed consent to participate since the signing of consent forms will undermine the maintenance of participant anonymity.

- That the advertisement has been approved by the Department of Psychology's **Research Project and Ethics Review Committee** and, if appropriate, the Rhodes University **Ethical Standards Committee**
- That the necessary permission has been obtained to conduct the research on the institutional premises
- Where researchers may be contacted and the closing date

Additionally, the recruiting advertisement will include details regarding who will have access to the data; how the collected data will be stored; for how long it will be stored; how it will be disposed of after this time period; and how and to whom the analysis will be distributed.

APPENDIX B: LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO RECRUIT STUDENT PARTICIPANTS FOR RESEARCH PURPOSES

Dear Dr Vassiliou / Dr Fourie

Letter requesting permission to conduct survey research using new-entry students at Rhodes University

“Measuring first-year student attitudes towards and perceptions of sex- and gender-based violence.”

The purpose of this study is to survey existing attitudes towards intimate partner violence, dating violence and other forms of gender-based violence amongst first-year Rhodes University students, together with assessing the patterns of attribution of responsibility / blame for this violence amongst this sample. The chief purpose of this survey is to establish a baseline descriptive understanding of students’ attitudes towards and perceptions of gender-based violence upon entry into the University context, and to assess whether this baseline is impacted in any way by various awareness-raising and activism events (such as the programme of events leading up to and culminating in the Silent Protest) that occur on campus throughout the academic year. Such an assessment may assist to track the effectiveness of awareness-raising activities and to suggest avenues for further engagement.

A composite survey instrument will be compiled from various measures that have been utilised internationally to survey university population and young peoples’ attitudes towards various forms of gender-based violence (Burman & Cartmel, 2005; Burt, 1980; 2004; Fox & Gadd, 2012; Petretic-Jackson, Sandberg & Jackson, 1994; Price, Byers & the Dating Violence Research Team, 1999). This instrument will be administered electronically to student volunteers via the RUconnected and Studentzone websites.

Newly-enrolled students with a “g16” student number will be invited to participate in the completion of a survey questionnaire early in the second term. Participation in the survey will be anonymous and is entirely voluntary. Although respondents may be required to state their student numbers in the survey, this is purely to facilitate contact with participants via their university email addresses in the follow-up measurement to be conducted later in the academic year. Only the principal researcher for this study – Mr. Werner Bohmke – an academic staff member in the Department of Psychology will have access to this identifying information. No pairing of student numbers with names / identifying information will be

undertaken as part of the analysis. Respondents will be issued a tracking number in place of their student numbers in the data sets made available to the postgraduate student co-researchers who will undertake the data analysis in order to further anonymize the data and to prevent responses being linked to particular respondents during the data analysis process.

A second measurement will be carried out later in the year, making use of only participants who responded to the first survey. Participants will be invited to participate in the second measurement via a generic email sent to their university email addresses which, since these email addresses are based on student numbers and not on names will protect the identities of the participants. Once more, only the principal researcher will have access to participant student numbers for the purposes of sending out these email invitations.

The second measurement will use alternate / equivalent forms of the survey instrument and incorporate additional items concerning the various awareness-raising activities concerning sexual and gender- based violence that take place throughout the year. This is for comparison purposes. Since the data sets will be anonymized, responses on the two measurements will only be paired according to participant tracking numbers and not by any identifying information. Furthermore, the purposes of the analyses will not be to track individual responses on a case by case basis, but will instead focus on the overall trends within the entire cohort of respondents.

Participants are to be drawn from the population of newly-enrolled students entering study at Rhodes University in 2016. Postgraduate or Undergraduate status, faculty in which students are registered and degree programme for which they are registered are not exclusion criteria for participation. The chief criterion for participant selection is therefore only possession of a “g16” student number, since the researchers are interested in the attitudes towards and perceptions of various forms of interpersonal and gender-based violence that new students bring with them into the university context, and how these may shift over time as a potential result of various awareness-raising and activism activities on campus. Participant age is a secondary criterion for inclusion / exclusion. Advertisements for participation will request that potential participants under the age of 18 years voluntarily exclude themselves from the sample. Demographic questions will ask participants to state their age. Any respondents under the age of 18 years will be removed from the sample and their responses will not be included in the data set for analysis.

Potentially, all newly-enrolled students could participate. A maximum sample size estimate, based on enrolment figures for first-year students, of approximately 1000 to 1500 students is anticipated. Response rate estimates would suggest an actual sample size of anywhere between 300 to 800 respondents. A minimum sample size of approximately 100 is required for statistical data analyses to be performed successfully.

There is some risk that the topic of the survey and some of the items may cause distress or trigger traumatic reactions for participants who may have experienced interpersonal or sexual violence in intimate relationships. The sensitive nature of some of the survey items will be mentioned in the recruiting advertisements and potential participants will be advised to not participate in the study should they feel that the topic of the study is likely to cause them any distress. Routes for referral for any participants who may be triggered by participation in the study will be set up and details of these will be provided in the recruiting information. Specifically, participants will be advised to contact Ms. Nomangwane Mrwetyana at the Student Counselling Centre should participation in the study elicit any strong emotional reactions or trauma.

No direct feedback concerning the results of the study will be given to individual participants. However, an executive summary of the main findings may be made available on request. The full results of the study will be made available to the Directorate of Student Affairs as the information that may result from the analyses conducted are deemed to be directly relevant to informing current and potential future awareness-raising, activism and student engagement initiatives on campus with regards to various forms of gender-based violence.

This research study has been approved by the Psychology Department's Research Projects and Ethics Review Committee (RPERC) and is being supervised by Mr Werner Bohmke, a lecturer in the Psychology Department. Should you have any queries or concerns regarding the research project outlined above, please do not hesitate to contact him via email (w.r.bohmke@ru.ac.za) or telephone (046) 603 8508.

Sincerely,

Mr W. R. Bohmke (Principal researcher)

(Student co-researcher)

APPENDIX C: STUDY ETHICAL CLEARANCE



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RESEARCH PROJECTS AND ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

11 July 2016

Werner Böhmke
Department of Psychology
RHODES UNIVERSITY
6140

Dear Werner

ETHICAL CLEARANCE OF PROJECT PSY2016/25

This letter confirms your research proposal with the following students as co researchers Siposetu Krutani, Abby Fellows-Smith, Nqobile Msomi, Divena Naidoo, Melissa Rudman and Urda Witte with tracking number PSY2016/25 and title, 'Measuring attitudes towards and perceptions of sex- and gender-based violence', served at the Research Projects and Ethics Review Committee (RPERC) of the Psychology Department of Rhodes University on 22 June 2016. The project has been given ethics clearance.

Please ensure that the RPERC is notified should any substantive change(s) be made, for whatever reason, during the research process. This includes changes in investigators.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Jacqui Marx'.

Dr Jacqui Marx
CHAIRPERSON OF THE RPERC

APPENDIX D: STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographic Information (Academic & Support Staff 1)

- Age?
- Home Language?
- Gender?
- Race?
- Educational level?
- Citizenship?
- Religious Affiliation?
- Academic / Support?
 - If Academic, Department & Faculty?
 - If Support, Department / Division?
- How many years at Rhodes?

Demographic Information (Support Staff 2)

- Age?
- Home Language?
- Gender?
- Race?
- Education Level?
- Citizenship?
- Religious Affiliation?
- Department / Division?
- How many years at Rhodes?

Demographic Information (Students)

- Age?
 - Home Language?
 - Gender?
 - Race?
 - Degree / Faculty of registration?
 - Year of study at Rhodes?
 - Citizenship?
 - Religious Affiliation?
 - Residence / Oppidan?
 - Fully / Partially funded studies?
-

Subscale 1: General Attitudes towards gender and gender roles

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
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Gender Ideology & Behaviour

1. *A woman should be entitled to the same freedom from regulation and control as a man
2. Swearing and obscenity is more repulsive in the speech of a woman than a man
3. It is unwise for men to show their emotions (GI)
4. I don't particularly like men who act in ways I consider feminine (GI)
5. For men in university, there is a constant pressure or expectation to have sex (GI)
6. It is of utmost importance that men be knowledgeable and experienced in sexual matters (GI)
7. A man who is sexually active has a better reputation, and is more popular with peers, than a man who is not sexually active (GI)
8. I don't like a lot of what the feminist movement is trying to do (GI)
9. The intellectual leadership of a community should largely be in the hands of men

Dating

10. *The first move in sexual relationships should come from a woman
11. *Women should have as much sexual freedom as men (GI)
12. A man should never allow a woman to pay for the costs of a date

Families

13. *Men should share responsibility for childcare and housework
14. Men should be head of the household
15. Fathers should have greater authority than mothers in bringing up children

Careers

16. Women should be concerned with their duties of childrearing and house-tending, rather than with the desires for professional and business careers
17. *Women should assume their rightful place in business and all the professions along with men.
18. *Job appointments and promotions should be based on merit and not on sex / gender
19. It is more appropriate for men (rather than women) to hold jobs such as manager, CEO, or president of a company
20. Sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to university than daughters
21. We are interested in your concept of an ideal man / woman. This is not about particular men / women, but about behaviour you generally find good in men / women. How do you find it when a man / woman does the following:
 - a. Interrupts his/her career for a year to care for his/her child
 - b. Joins the armed forces and becomes a professional soldier

- c. Provides for the family while his/her partner cares for the household
- d. Cries when something has hurt his/her feelings very much
- e. Pretends to be self-confident even if s/he is insecure

Subscale 3: Attitudes towards Intimate Partner Violence

Often	Sometimes	Never
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Something that just happens in relationships	A form of violence or abuse
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Has a right to hit	Good reason to hit	Can understand why	Should not hit
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Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
-------------------	----------	-------	----------------

22. *How seriously do you view the following types of violence (CV)
- a. Sexual assault / rape
 - b. Fights in the home between husband and wife
 - c. Racially motivated violence
 - d. Violence between members of different faiths / religions
 - e. Fights between girlfriend and boyfriend (in a dating relationship)
 - f. Public fights between adults
 - g. Punch-ups / fights between boys
 - h. Punch-ups / fights between girls
 - i. Physical fights between brothers / sisters

Not Serious	Quite Serious	Very Serious
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23. *How frequently do you think that people provoke violence by their partners by:
- a. Pushing their partners too far in arguments / confrontation
 - b. Nagging / not stopping arguing
 - c. Not treating their partners with respect
 - d. Cheating on their partners
 - e. Flirting with other people / making their partners jealous
 - f. Dressing provocatively
24. *What do you think of the following behaviours in a relationship?
- a. Not talking to a partner for a long time
 - b. Not showing any love or affection to a partner
 - c. Constant shouting at a partner
 - d. Constant humiliation of a partner (publically and privately)

- e. Not letting a partner see their family / friends
 - f. Not allowing a partner to have money for their own use
 - g. Not letting a partner leave the house
 - h. Threatening to hit a partner
 - i. Threatening to harm a partner's family
 - j. Throwing things at a partner
 - k. Slapping / punching a partner on one or two occasions
 - l. Slapping / punching a partner regularly
 - m. Forcing a partner to have sex
25. *In each of the situations listed below, some people may hit their partner. In your opinion, how justifiable is this behaviour in each case:
- a. Their partner argues with them / refuses to do what they say
 - b. Their partner keeps nagging them
 - c. Their partner threatens or tries to leave them
 - d. Their partner hits them
 - e. Their partner throws something at them
 - f. Their partner admits to having sex with another person
 - g. Their partner accuses them of being unfaithful, when they aren't
 - h. Their partner refuses to have sex with them
 - i. Their partner humiliates them in front of their friends
26. *A person should not tell their partner what to do (psy)
27. It is understandable when someone gets so angry that they shout at their partner (psy)
28. If a person shouts and screams at their partner, it does not really hurt them seriously (psy)
29. A person should ask their partner first, before going out with their friends (psy)
30. When a guy pays on a date, it is acceptable for him to pressure his girlfriend for sex (psy / sex)
31. *A person should break up with their partner if they are hit by them (Phys)
32. *There is no good reason for a person to slap their partner (phys)
33. It is no big deal if someone shoves their partner (Phys)
34. Sometimes love makes a person so crazy that they hit their partner (phys)
35. It is ok for a person to hit their partner if they say that they are sorry after (phys)
36. *A person should not touch their partner unless they want to be touched (sex)
37. It is alright for someone to force their partner to kiss them (sex)
38. There is nothing wrong with someone changing their mind about having sex (sex)
39. *People should never lie to their partners to get them to have sex (sex)
40. *Having sex should not be used as a way for people to prove their love (sex)

Subscale 4: Attitudes towards Rape Myths

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
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She Asked For It (SA)

41. When girls go to parties wearing low cut tops or short skirts, they are asking for trouble (SA 2)
42. Women who commonly frequent “sex atmospheres” – such as bars or digs parties – are seemingly advertising their sexual availability (SA)
43. If a girl is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of control (SA 3)
44. A woman who goes to the home or apartment of a man on the first date is implying that she wants to have sex (SA 7)
45. A woman who sexually “teases” men deserves anything that might happen (SA 5)
46. When a girl gets raped, it’s often because the way they said “no” was unclear (SA 8)
47. If a woman allows a man to pick up all the expenses for a date, she is probably willing to have sex with him (SA)
48. The judicial system is too harsh on men in cases of alleged sexual assault, and they do not look enough at women’s behaviour or responsibility (SA)

Not Really Rape (NR)

49. If a girl doesn’t physically fight back, you can’t really say it was rape (NR 1)
50. If the accused “rapist” doesn’t have a weapon, you can’t really call it rape (NR 3)
51. If a woman claims to have been raped but has no bruises or scrapes, she probably shouldn’t be taken too seriously (NR 4)

He Didn’t Mean To (MT)

52. Guys don’t usually intend to force sex on a girl, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away (MT 1)
53. Rapists are usually sexually frustrated individuals (MT 5)
54. It shouldn’t be considered rape if a guy is drunk and didn’t realize what he was doing (MT 6)
55. It is okay for a drunk man to have sex with a female acquaintance who is drunk (AL)(from alcohol questions)

She Wanted It (WI)

56. Some women prefer to have sex forced on them so they don’t have to feel guilty about it (WI 2)
57. Many women actually enjoy sex after the guy uses a little force (WI 3)
58. Although most women wouldn’t admit it, they generally find being physically forced into sex a real “turn-on” (WI 5)
59. If a woman is going to be raped, she may as well relax and enjoy it (WI)

She Lied (LI)

60. Many so-called rape victims are actually women who had sex and “changed their minds” afterwards (LI 3)
61. Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at guys (LI 2)
62. Many women who allege rape are looking for attention

Rape is a Trivial Event (TE)

63. A lot of people, especially women, are too likely to label a sexual encounter as rape (TE)
64. If a woman is willing to “make out” with a guy, then it’s no big deal if he goes a little further and has sex (TE 5)
65. If a woman isn’t a virgin, then it shouldn’t be a big deal if her date forces her to have sex (TE 4)
66. A woman who was forced to have sex with a male acquaintance would probably get over it easier than if she were mugged or beaten up by a stranger (TE)
67. Women tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them (TE 2)

Rape is a Deviant Event (DE)

68. In reality, women are almost never raped by their boyfriends (DE 1)
69. Usually it is only women who do things like hang out in bars and sleep around that are raped (DE 4)
70. Men from nice middle-class homes almost never rape (DE 2)
71. Rape almost never happens in the woman’s own home (DE 6)

Corrective Rape (CR)

72. “Corrective rape” is just someone trying to show a gay / lesbian person what normal sex is like