

Rape Myths and the Cross-Cultural Adaptation of the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale in China

Journal of Interpersonal Violence

1–33

© The Author(s) 2016

Reprints and permissions:

sagepub.com/journalsPermissions.nav

DOI: 10.1177/0886260516651315

jiv.sagepub.com



Jia Xue,¹ Gang Fang,² Hui Huang,³ Naixue Cui,¹
Karin V. Rhodes,¹ and Richard Gelles¹

Abstract

The study examines the similarities and differences between China and the United States with regard to rape myths. We assessed the individual level of rape myth acceptance among Chinese university students by adapting and translating a widely used measure of rape myth endorsement in the United States, the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance (IRMA) scale. We assessed whether the IRMA scale would be an appropriate assessment of attitudes toward rape among young adults in China. The sample consisted of 975 Chinese university students enrolled in seven Chinese universities. We used explorative factor analysis to examine the factor structure of the Chinese translation of the IRMA scale. Results suggest that the IRMA scale requires some modification to be employed with young adults in China. Our analyses indicate that 20 items should be deleted, and a five-factor model is generated. We discuss relevant similarities and differences in the factor structure and item loadings between the Chinese Rape Myth Acceptance (CRMA) and the IRMA scales. A revised version of the IRMA, the CRMA, can be used as a resource in rape prevention services and rape victim support services. Future research in China

¹University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, USA

²Beijing Forestry University, China

³Florida International University, Miami, USA

Corresponding Author:

Jia Xue, School of Social Policy & Practice, University of Pennsylvania; Room 201, 3815 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, PA 19104, USA.

Email: xuejia@sp2.upenn.edu

that employs CRMA will allow researchers to examine whether individual's response to rape myth acceptance can predict rape potential and judgments of victim blaming and community members' acceptance of marital rape.

Keywords

China, rape, marital rape, Rape Myth Acceptance scale development, factorial structure, factor loading

Introduction

Rape is a significant and harmful social problem that affects women around the globe. Rape offenders are family members, acquaintances, and strangers. In the United States, Black et al. (2011) reported that nearly 18.3% of women and 1.4% of men report being raped at some time in their lives. The survey also reports that nearly 1 of every 10 women (9.4%) has been raped by an intimate partner in her lifetime. In China, rape is also a serious crime: The Chinese Health and Family Life Survey (2000) revealed that 32% of married urban Chinese women report at least one lifetime experience of marital rape (Parish, Luo, Laumann, Kew, & Yu, 2007).¹ Unwanted sexual incidents within marriage are negatively associated with physical health, family income, and self-rated physical attractiveness (Parish et al., 2007). Rape victimization also diminishes women's psychological well-being (Parish et al., 2007). One survey in Zhejiang province reports that 0.56% to 11.8% of female college students have experienced sexual coercion and 7.3% have been raped (Xu, Xie, & Chen, 1998).

Despite its extensive prevalence, the extent of rape continues to be vastly underreported both in the United States and in China (Chan, 2007; Kruttschnitt, Kalsbeek, & House, 2014; J. Lee, Pomeroy, Yoo, & Rheinboldt, 2005). Estimates are that only one third of rapes in the United States are reported (Ringel, 1997), and only 10% of rapes are reported in China (Luo, 2000). Researchers and advocates point to stigmatizing rape-supportive beliefs that discourage victims from disclosing rape incidents, and therefore, contribute to the underreporting of rape in society (Schwendinger & Schwendinger, 1974). Thus, it is important to determine the extent rape myths as a means of reducing the acceptance of rape myths.

In the past few decades, several studies have assessed attitudes toward rape in the United States, including developing and applying measures of rape myth acceptance (RMA; Burt, 1980; Feild, 1978; Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999). Compared with the studies of rape in the United States, there is scant research on the causes of rape and attitudes about rape in China. In addition, there is no existing psychometric measure that assesses attitudes

toward rape in China. As some scholars and many advocates believe that agreement with rape myths may contribute to sexual violence, it is important to assess attitudes toward rape and endorsement of rape myths in China.

The purpose of our study is to examine the similarities and differences in endorsements of rape myths in the United States and China, and develop a psychometrically sound measure of rape myth endorsement that can be used with samples of Chinese population.

Literature Review

Rape Myth

There was little empirical research on rape and sexual assault in the United States prior to the mid-1970s. The women's movement generated a rapid increase in scholarship on rape as well as increased federal funding for sexual assault research. Much has been accomplished since the 1980s. Researchers have conducted substantial empirical research and developed theoretical explanations for gender-based violence and sexual assault. There was also an increase in research on attitudes toward rape and endorsement of rape myths (Burt, 1980; Hinck & Thomas, 1999; McMahon & Farmer, 2011; Payne et al., 1999; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010).

Rape myth refers to "prejudicial, stereotyped, or false beliefs about rape, rape victims, and rapists in creating a climate hostile to rape victims" (Burt, 1980, p. 217). Examples of rape myth include "Victims falsely cry rape," "Only bad girls get raped," "Women ask for it," or "Rapists are sex-starved, insane, or both" (Burt, 1980, p. 217). Scholars and advocates alike believe that endorsement of rape myths helps perpetuate rape and obscure the need for social changes by conveying false ideas, including defining rape more narrowly than the legal definition (i.e., rape only occurs between strangers.) and blaming the victim (Iconis, 2011; Peterson & Muehlenhard, 2004). Enduring, but inaccurate, beliefs about rape deny and trivialize rape crimes, blame the victims, and justify the behaviors of perpetrators, possibly contributing significantly to sexual violence in many societies (Brownmiller, 1975; Burt, 1991).

Similarities and Differences in Rape Myths Between the United States and China

As with the United States, stigmatizing rape-supportive beliefs, such as victim blaming, also exist in Chinese society. Chinese culture places major emphasis on the protection of female virginity and chastity (Luo, 2000). The cult of female virginity originates from the long-suppressive views on sexual

behavior by Cheng-Zhu Neo-Confucianism that strictly emphasizes female chastity and male patriarchal dominance and authority in Chinese society (Li, 1999; Luo, 2000; Ng, 1987). The expectation is that women should use all means to resist rape, particularly strong physical resistance. Failing to physically defend oneself will call a woman's virtue into question, and she will be considered morally imperfect. In some sense, Chinese culture considers it to be at least partly a woman's fault if a rape occurs. Rape is socially constructed as a taboo where victims are likely to be blamed.

Comparative research on rape attitudes reveals that Asian students are more likely than Caucasian students to believe that female victims cause the rape and women should be responsible for preventing rape (J. Lee et al., 2005). Victim blaming is intensified in Chinese culture because of the over-emphasis on "loss of face" that relates to the loss of female virginity in Chinese culture (Hu, 1944). Loss of face is cited as a main reason for the large number of underreported rape cases in Chinese society (M. Y. Lee & Law, 2001). In contrast to non-Chinese population, the Chinese place a greater value on the concept of "face" (Mianzi), which metaphorically means reputation, respect, prestige, or honor. The fact that being a rape victim is so shameful and unspeakable means that reporting an incident of rape will result in a loss of face and a loss of reputation for the victims and their families (Chan, 2009). Historically, committing suicide after being raped was considered an acceptable way to rescue the reputation of the female victim and her family since, compared with "a loss of sexual virtue, death is a small matter" (Li, 1999; Ng, 1987). It is likely that the social stigma of "losing face" associated with "female chastity" results in cultural interpretations of rape that are slightly different in China compared with Western societies.

The legal definition of rape varies between the United States and China. The U.S. Department of Justice (2012) defined rape as "the penetration, no matter how slight, of the vagina or anus with any body part or object, or oral penetration by a sex organ of another person, without the consent of the victim." This is a gender-neutral definition of rape recognizing all types of sexual penetrations and all types of relationships between victims and assailants. In contrast, the legal definition of rape in China is not as clear (Tanner, 1994): "Rape constitutes a forced sexual act with a woman by violence, coercion or other means, and against her will" (Criminal Law of the People's Republic of China, 2015, Article 236; Ye, 2011, p. 65). This definition does not deal with marital rape and does not apply to male victims. The Chinese legal definition also excludes all other types of coercive sexual behavior, such as other forms of penetrative sex, including oral sex, anal sex, and penetrations of the vagina or anus by other body parts like fingers or other objects. The different laws regarding rape may well result in very different social attitudes toward rape in China compared with the United States (LeGrand, 1973).

As similarities and differences exist in rape myths and cultures between the United States and China, it is important to assess the endorsement of attitudes about rape. Toward that end, it is appropriate to develop psychometrically sound measures of rape myth endorsement for both in the United States and China.

The Historical and Current Measures of Rape Myth Measures

Feild (1978) developed the Attitudes Toward Rape (ATR) questionnaire, which was the first instrument to measure attitudes toward rape, including the act of rape, the rape victims, and the rapists. Feild studied the underlying nature of rape attitudes and proposed that rape attitudes were multidimensional in nature. The ATR scale identifies eight factors, including “women’s responsibility in rape prevention,” “sex as motivation for rape,” “severe punishment for the rape,” “victim precipitation of rape,” “normality of rapists,” “power as motivation for rape,” “favorable perception of a woman after rape,” and “resistance as woman’s role during rape.” Feild’s questionnaire was a frequently employed measure of attitudes toward rape.

Burt (1980) was the first to employ the term “rape myth” to define rape-supportive attitudes. Burt created a 19-item measure, RMA, to measure individual levels of rape myth endorsement. She also empirically examined the association between RMA and a person’s demographic characteristics, experience with violence or being victimized, and a cluster of attitudinal variables (e.g., acceptance of interpersonal violence). Burt’s findings confirmed the hypothesis that attitudinal variables were strong predictors of RMA. Since 1980, Burt’s RMA scale has been the most widely cited measure in research on attitudes toward rape.

The multidimensional nature of attitudes toward rape added to the complexity of rape attitude research (Anderson, Cooper, & Okamura, 1997). Over time, many scholars voiced criticisms about existing rape myth instruments. Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994) reviewed 24 measures of RMA, and showed that the measures lack adequate theoretical and psychometric precision, including Burt’s RMA scales. For example, item format is a unique problem with Burt’s RMA scale. Two of the items ask for respondents to estimate the percentage of women who report rape incidents for various reasons. However, such estimates are difficult and unreliable because they assess respondents’ knowledge about rape statistics rather than the type of information related to rape myth (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). In addition, colloquial phrases, such as “fair game” and “necking,” in Burt’s RMA scale are now outdated and also mean different things to different people, which severely restricts the cross-cultural applicability (Ward, 1988).

In the 1990s, Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994, 1995) redefined and reconceptualized the construct of rape myth as “attitudes and beliefs that are generally false, but are widely and persistently held, and that serve to deny and justify

male sexual aggression against women” (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994, p. 134). Using the new updated definition of rape myth, Payne et al. (1999) developed an innovative measure of RMA, the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance (IRMA) scale. The scale was developed with a convenience sample of 604 undergraduate students at a large Midwestern university (Appendix A). Unlike earlier instruments of RMA, Lonsway and Fitzgerald’s (1994) study involved structural investigations, careful consideration of representation of rape myth constructs, wording and clarity of items, removal of colloquial phrases, and the analyses of psychometric properties. Lonsway and Fitzgerald’s (1994) study showed that the IRMA scale possessed adequate internal consistency and reliability, as well as construct validity. In addition, their study corrected for response sets.

The IRMA scale has a total of 45 items, and five of them are filler items used to inhibit response sets, such as “It should be required that a female police officer be present when a woman reports a rape.” The five filler items are discarded before conducting any statistical analysis. For the other 40 items, respondents rate each item using a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (*not at all agree*) to 7 (*very much agree*). The summarized scores of all 40 items provide a total score of RMA. The higher the score, the higher the level of RMA. The authors also report that the 40 non-filler items load on seven factors, labeled as “she asked for it (SA, eight items),” “it wasn’t really rape (NR, five items),” “he did not mean to (MT, five items),” “she wanted it (WI, five items),” “she lied (LI, five items),” “rape is a trivial event (TE, five items),” and “rape is a deviant event (DE, seven items).”

The IRMA scale of 40 items not only measures the general RMA but also assesses the seven specific rape myth subcomponents. The IRMA scale is now another widely used measure to understand salient rape myths and the endorsement of rape myths in society.

Aims of the Study

Our goal is to advance research on rape and sexual assault in China by exploring whether it is possible to adapt a widely employed measure of rape myth attitudes. Research on rape in China can be enhanced by developing a valid measure of RMA specifically targeted against Chinese population. In addition, we will compare and contrast the similarities in stigmatizing rape-supportive beliefs between the United States and China. The analysis will allow scholars to adapt a widely used valid measure from the United States in Chinese context.

Our first step is to translate the IRMA scale into Chinese. As discussed above, the IRMA scale is the first large-scale investigation into the question of rape myth structure, and the IRMA scale addresses the shortcomings of other scales that measure RMA. Thus, we choose to adapt the IRMA scale for rape myth research in China.

We translate, refine, and explore the factor structure underlying rape myths with the translated IRMA scale. We also explore the similarities and differences in the factor structure and salient rape myths between the original IRMA scale and the refined Chinese version of the IRMA scale, Chinese Rape Myth Acceptance (CRMA) scale.

Method

Chinese Version of the IRMA Scale

We translated the IRMA scale by following the *Guidance for the process of cross-cultural adaptation of self-report measures* (Beaton, Bombardier, Guillemin, & Ferraz, 2000). First, two bilingual graduate students who are native Chinese speakers independently translated the full IRMA scale from English to Mandarin Chinese and produced two translations. Translator 1 had a background in gender studies and was aware of the concepts in the questionnaire, while Translator 2 was not informed of the concepts and had no background in the field of gender violence. Each of the two translators produced a written report that highlighted the challenging phrases and uncertainties along with their rationale of choices in the translation process. For example, both translators had uncertainties when translating the word “rape myth.” Next, the two translators compared their translations, addressed and resolved each of the disagreements and produced a single, common translation for the IRMA questionnaire in Chinese. For example, two translators discussed and made an agreement to translate the word “rape myth” into “Misi” (迷思) instead of “Shenhua” (神话), because myth refers to false attitudes and beliefs about rape and “Misi” fits better to the context. The synthesis process of the two translated versions is documented in a written report. Next, two native English-speaking translators who were blind to the original IRMA scale and were not informed about its contents independently translated the common Chinese translation back into English. These two translators produced two versions of back-translations. Finally, to develop a final version of the questionnaire, we formed a committee, including all four translators, a methodologist, a senior researcher of gender studies in China, and a doctoral student who had expertise in gender and violence studies both for China and for the United States. The committee compared the original IRMA questionnaire and the back-translated questionnaires to examine cross-cultural equivalence. The committee discussed issues such as “words that hold different meanings between cultures” and the “translation of colloquialisms and idioms.” For example, the term “bad side of town” in the IRMA scale was difficult to translate because there is no equivalent concept in Chinese society. The committee translated this item into Chinese by a term with a similar meaning: “places with weak public security.” The committee reached

consensus on all discrepancies and produced a final version of the IRMA questionnaire translated into Chinese, the Chinese Version of the IRMA scale.

Sample

The administration of the Chinese IRMA scale was embedded in the larger China Rape Myth Study. The sample consisted of 978 university students at seven universities in six cities across China, including Beijing, Shanghai, Chengdu, Harbin, Guangzhou, and Ürümchi. We recruited the sample of students from the Introductory Psychology Courses offered in 2013. The Introductory Psychology Courses serve students with a variety of majors. The questionnaires were distributed by the course instructor during a regularly scheduled class. The questionnaire included items on the demographic characteristics of the participants and the 45-item Chinese version of the IRMA scale (Payne et al., 1999) in Chinese. Neither the questionnaire nor the administrator provided detailed instructions about the definition of rape. The participants were asked to respond to all items by rating their level of agreement using the 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *not at all agree* to 7 = *very much agree*). Each participant received one extra credit for his or her participation. Three participants had more than 25% missing data, and therefore were removed from the sample. Thus, there were a total of 975 students (female = 632, male = 337, transgender = 6) in the final sample. This study was approved by the School of Humanities & Social Sciences at the Beijing Forestry University, China.

Data Analysis

After descriptive analyses using SPSS, we ran exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to examine the factor structure of the 40 items (the filler items were not included) in Mplus. For EFA, we used the oblique rotation of GEOMIN² and the robust-weighted least-squares estimator, which is the default estimator for categorical data in Mplus. Mplus uses polychoric correlation to examine the correlation between categorical variables. Polychoric correlation is more suitable for categorical data than Pearson's correlation.

Results

Descriptive Analysis

Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of the study population. Of the 975 participants in the final sample, 64.8% were female, 34.6% were male students, and 0.6% ($n = 6$) were transgender. The mean age of the students was 20 years. The majority of participating students were freshman, and only 5.4% were graduate students. About one third of the respondents were from rural

areas and 63% were from cities. More than half of the participants reported that they were the only child in their families. Data on subjects' sexual experiences found that 14.7% of the students reported having sexual experiences. The sexually experienced percentage was much lower among Chinese university students compared with American undergraduates who were sexually experienced with a rate of 83% (Lewis, Granato, Blayney, Lostutter, & Kilmer, 2012). Only 0.5% students (three female and two male) reported that they had experienced a rape, and 8.6% (84 students) reported that they knew a rape victim, which was much lower than the rate of 54.1% among American university students who reported prior victimization (Yeater, Treat, Viken, & McFall, 2010).

Table 2 shows participants' responses to the items in the Chinese version of the IRMA scale, with a 7-point Likert-type scale (*not at all agree* to *very much agree*) collapsed into three categories, including "any disagree," "any agree," and "neither agree nor disagree." Results from all respondents indicated that among the 40 items, 33 items received "any disagree" responses from more than one third (33%) of all respondents; 21 items received "any disagree" responses from more than half of all respondents; and only seven items received "any disagree" responses from less than one third of all respondents. In addition, Table 2 shows the differences in levels of disagreement between male and female students. The mean score and standard deviation of students' responses to RMA in the IRMA scale are presented in Table 2. The mean score (40 items) for all students was 3.36, and the mean score for males (3.77 ± 0.69) was statistically higher than that of female students (3.13 ± 0.64 ; $t = 14.1$, $p < .001$).

Factor Structure

Cases with missing data were included in the analysis. Mplus uses pairwise presentation, which does not include a particular case when it has a missing value on the variable being analyzed but uses the case when analyzing other variables with non-missing values.

We reached our final factor structure through three steps. First, we ran EFA models of all the 40 items with the factor counts between 1 and 7. The models with the factor counts between 4 and 7 indicated satisfactory model fit (standardized root mean square residual [SRMR] $< .05$, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) $< .05$, comparative fit index (CFI) $> .90$, Tucker–Lewis index (TLI) $> .90$). We started from closely examining the model with four factors. The four factors had eigenvalues of 9.50, 2.67, 1.90, and 1.49. Further examination showed that 15 items (Appendix B) cross-loaded on at least two factors. That was, the differences between their loadings on two factors were less than 0.20. Second, we removed the 15 items cross-loading items from the analysis and ran EFA again. The model of five factors showed satisfactory model fit (SRMR = .028, RMSEA = .042, CFI = .968, TLI = .948). However, there were

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Study Population ($N = 975$).

Characteristic	Total	Male ($n = 337$)	Female ($n = 632$)
Age, $M \pm SD$	20.01 ± 1.551	20.33 ± 1.522	19.84 ± 1.544
	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)
Only child at home	533 (54.7)	181 (53.7)	348 (55.1)
Home of residence			
Rural areas	363 (37.2)	156 (46.3)	205 (32.5)
Middle/small cities	433 (44.4)	126 (37.4)	303 (47.9)
Big cities	177 (18.2)	54 (16.0)	123 (19.5)
Year in school			
Freshman	549 (56.3)	156 (46.3)	388 (61.4)
Sophomore	192 (19.7)	95 (28.2)	96 (15.2)
Junior	131 (13.4)	39 (11.6)	92 (14.6)
Senior	45 (4.6)	23 (6.8)	22 (3.5)
Graduate	53 (5.4)	21 (6.2)	32 (5.1)
Having sexual experience	144 (14.7)	76 (22.5)	66 (10.5)
Disclose prior experience of rape			
Self	5 (0.5)	3 (0.9)	2 (0.3)
Know any victims	84 (8.6)	33 (8.9)	53 (8.4)
Both	2 (0.2)	0 (0)	2 (0.3)

still five items that had cross-loadings (Appendix B). We removed the five items from the analysis and ran EFA again. The final model of five factors showed satisfactory model fit ($SRMR = .022$, $RMSEA = .034$, $CFI = .985$, $TLI = .971$). We reported the final model of the 20 remaining items with five factors. The factor loadings after the oblique rotation of GEOMIN are reported in Table 3.

As shown in Table 4, we listed the items under their corresponding factors. The first factor had significant loadings on three items with the theme that “rape victims want to be raped.” The second factor had significant loadings on two items with the theme that “rape allegations are often false.” The third factor had significant loadings on six items with the theme that “rape must involve violence.” The fourth factor had significant loadings on six items with the theme that “victims are responsible for being raped.” The fifth factor had significant loadings on three items with the theme that “the motivation to rape is understandable.”

Table 5 shows that the correlational analyses conducted on the unweighted factor-scale scores revealed the significant correlation at the .05 level between Factors 1 and 5, and a significant correlation at the .01 level between all other factors.

Table 2. Percentage of Responses on the 40 items (N = 975), Including Disagree, Neither Disagree Nor Agree, and Agree.

Item	All			Male (n = 337)			Female (n = 632)			χ^2
	Any Disagree (%)	Neither Disagree nor Agree (%)	Any Agree (%)	Any Disagree (%)	Neither Disagree nor Agree (%)	Any Agree (%)	Any Disagree (%)	Neither Disagree nor Agree (%)	Any Agree (%)	
1. If a woman is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of control.	45.3	8.4	46.1	41.8	11.0	46.6	47.5	7.1	45.4	12.705*
2. Although most women wouldn't admit it, they generally find being physically forced into sex a real "turn-on."	36.9	34.3	28.6	22.6	38.6	38.3	44.8	32.0	23.3	54.966***
3. When men rape, it is because of their strong desire for sex.	23.7	15.6	60.5	27.9	10.7	61.4	21.4	18.2	60.1	13.417*
4. 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.	57.2	14.6	27.5	37.1	19.0	43.0	67.7	12.2	19.5	90.071***
5. Women who are caught having an illicit affair sometimes claim that it was rape.	33.1	32.0	34.5	20.8	35.9	42.4	39.6	30.2	30.1	41.161***
7. Many so-called rape victims are actually women who had sex and "changed their minds" afterward.	22.8	37.7	39.4	19.3	32.0	48.4	24.8	40.7	34.5	21.725***
8. Many women secretly desire to be raped.	35.1	40.1	24.1	12.2	53.7	33.2	47.3	32.9	19.1	119.736***
9. Rape mainly occurs on the "bad" side of town.	20.5	11.9	67.3	21.7	13.6	64.4	19.9	10.6	69.1	11.240
10. Usually, it is only women who do things like hang out in bars and sleep around that are raped.	69.9	10.9	19.0	62.9	13.9	23.1	73.7	9.2	16.8	14.285*
12. If a woman doesn't physically fight back, you can't really say that it was rape.	71.5	11.5	16.5	62.9	12.2	24.6	75.8	11.2	12.3	28.258***
13. Men from nice middle-class homes almost never rape.	66.7	25.3	7.9	57.0	28.2	14.8	71.8	23.7	4.3	41.240***
14. Rape isn't as big a problem as some feminists would like people to think.	63.3	19.6	16.6	45.1	28.5	26.1	73.1	15.0	11.2	82.738***

(continued)

Table 2. (continued)

Item	All			Male (n = 337)			Female (n = 632)			χ^2
	Any Disagree (%)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (%)	Any Agree (%)	Any Disagree (%)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (%)	Any Agree (%)	Any Disagree (%)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (%)	Any Agree (%)	
15. When women go around wearing low-cut tops or short skirts, they're just asking for trouble.	57.5	11.4	31.0	48.4	13.4	38.0	62.3	10.4	27.2	19.999***
16. Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at men.	61.8	23.0	14.6	46.0	30.6	22.8	70.4	19.1	9.8	66.090***
17. A rape probably didn't happen if the woman has no bruises or marks.	71.8	16.9	10.8	60.8	20.2	18.7	77.4	15.3	6.6	43.893***
18. Many women find being forced to have sex very arousing.	34.9	42.8	22.4	20.5	47.8	31.8	42.7	40.2	17.1	58.047***
19. If a woman goes home with a man she doesn't know, it is her own fault if she is raped.	40.7	9.2	50.1	35.6	8.9	55.5	43.8	9.5	46.7	13.167**
20. Rapists are usually sexually frustrated individuals.	32.7	24.4	42.8	29.1	22.6	48.4	34.7	25.5	39.7	7.468
22. It is usually only women who dress suggestively that are raped.	68.6	12.2	18.8	56.1	14.5	28.8	75.3	11.1	13.3	43.976***
23. Some women prefer to have sex forced on them so they don't have to feel guilty about it.	47.6	35.1	17.0	32.6	42.1	24.6	55.9	30.9	13.1	57.546***
24. If the rapist doesn't have a weapon, you really can't call it a rape.	87.0	7.0	5.8	80.1	9.8	9.8	90.5	5.5	3.8	23.052***
25. When a woman is a sexual tease, eventually she is going to get into trouble.	38.2	15.5	46.1	29.4	15.4	54.6	42.7	15.5	41.6	20.119**
26. Being raped isn't as bad as being mugged and beaten.	59.5	12.5	27.2	52.2	14.5	31.8	63.1	11.4	25.0	14.900*
27. Rape is unlikely to happen in the woman's own familiar neighborhood.	64.1	18.5	17.0	55.5	21.1	23.1	68.5	17.1	13.9	20.260**

(continued)

Table 2. (continued)

Item	All				Male (n = 337)				Female (n = 632)				χ^2
	Any Disagree (%)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (%)	Any Agree (%)	Any Disagree (%)	Any Disagree (%)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (%)	Any Agree (%)	Any Disagree (%)	Any Disagree (%)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (%)	Any Agree (%)		
28. In reality, women are almost never raped by their boyfriends.	60.9	20.1	19.0	52.8	19.9	27.3	65.0	20.4	14.6	25.950***			
29. Women tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them.	37.0	30.1	32.9	24.9	32.0	43.0	43.2	29.3	27.5	39.656***			
30. When a man is very sexually aroused, he may not even realize that the woman is resisting.	18.1	41.3	40.5	18.7	31.5	49.9	17.7	46.5	35.6	23.937***			
31. A lot of women lead a man on and then they cry rape.	23.6	44.4	31.7	14.8	42.1	42.4	28.2	45.9	25.8	39.754***			
33. A lot of times, women who claim they were raped just have emotional problems.	39.3	35.4	24.8	29.1	38.3	32.3	44.9	33.9	20.6	30.409***			
34. If a woman doesn't physically resist sex—even when protesting verbally—it really can't be considered rape.	61.0	16.9	21.7	51.0	17.5	31.2	66.1	16.8	16.8	30.988***			
35. Rape almost never happens in the woman's own home.	76.2	14.9	8.5	68.5	15.7	14.5	80.1	14.6	5.4	35.127***			
36. A woman who "teases" men deserves anything that might happen.	60.2	10.6	29.1	49.0	12.5	38.6	66.0	9.5	24.4	30.694***			
37. When women are raped, it's often because the way they said "no" was ambiguous.	58.4	14.6	26.4	49.3	17.2	32.9	63.1	13.3	22.8	19.390***			
38. If a woman isn't a virgin, then it shouldn't be a big deal if her date forces her to have sex.	82.4	8.9	8.1	71.5	12.8	15.4	88.0	7.0	4.3	51.451***			
39. Men don't usually intend to force sex on a woman, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.	44.9	23.8	30.9	34.1	17.2	48.1	50.6	27.2	21.8	72.681***			

(continued)

Table 2. (continued)

Item	All			Male (n = 337)			Female (n = 632)			χ^2
	Any Disagree (%)	Neither Disagree nor Agree (%)	Any Agree (%)	Any Disagree (%)	Neither Disagree nor Agree (%)	Any Agree (%)	Any Disagree (%)	Neither Disagree nor Agree (%)	Any Agree (%)	
41. A woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex.	57.6	14.8	26.8	43.6	19.6	35.9	65.2	12.3	21.7	44.415***
42. Rape happens when a man's sex drive gets out of control.	29.9	31.5	37.5	25.2	24.0	49.9	32.4	35.6	30.9	35.146***
43. A woman who goes to the home or apartment of a man on the first date is implying that she wants to have sex.	57.7	18.6	23.3	47.5	20.8	31.2	63.1	17.4	19.1	24.936***
44. Many women actually enjoy sex after the guy uses a little force.	38.2	43.8	17.3	29.4	42.4	27.6	42.9	44.5	11.9	42.338***
45. If a woman claims to have been raped but has no bruises or scrapes, she probably shouldn't be taken too seriously.	80.1	11.9	7.7	68.0	17.2	14.2	86.4	9.2	4.3	52.515***
Mean of IRMA (SD)	All 3.36 (0.73)			Male 3.77 (0.69)			Female 3.13 (0.64)			t test 14.1***

Note. To assess the level of disagreement and agreement, we collapse the categories of "not at all disagree," "disagree," and "partly disagree" into one category "disagree." We also collapse the categories of "very much agree," "agree," and "partly agree" into one category "agree." IRMA = Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 3. GEOMIN Rotated Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis With the Revised Chinese IRMA Scale.

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
2. Although most women wouldn't admit it, they generally find being physically forced into sex a real "turn-on."	0.67	0.10	0.03	0.01	0.02
3. When men rape, it is because of their strong desire for sex.	0.04	-0.01	0.06	0.00	0.42
5. Women who are caught having an illicit affair sometimes claim that it was rape.	0.05	0.56	0.07	-0.01	0.03
7. Many so-called rape victims are actually women who had sex and "changed their minds" afterward.	0.03	0.72	0.01	0.00	0.00
8. Many women secretly desire to be raped.	0.62	0.24	-0.08	0.04	-0.06
9. Rape mainly occurs on the "bad" side of town.	-0.04	0.08	-0.10	0.07	0.46
12. If a woman doesn't physically fight back, you can't really say that it was rape.	0.10	-0.05	0.53	0.07	0.02
13. Men from nice middle-class homes almost never rape.	-0.10	-0.01	0.68	-0.12	0.02
17. A rape probably didn't happen if the woman has no bruises or marks.	0.04	0.01	0.53	0.17	-0.12
18. Many women find being forced to have sex very arousing.	0.71	-0.01	0.13	-0.01	0.08
20. Rapists are usually sexually frustrated individuals.	0.04	-0.01	0.27	0.00	0.43
24. If the rapist doesn't have a weapon, you really can't call it a rape.	0.03	0.04	0.62	0.03	-0.15

(continued)

Table 3. (continued)

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
26. Being raped isn't as bad as being mugged and beaten.	0.03	0.06	0.23	0.05	-0.10
34. If a woman doesn't physically resist sex—even when protesting verbally—it really can't be considered rape.	0.07	-0.09	0.22	0.48	-0.03
35. Rape almost never happens in the woman's own home.	-0.21	0.11	0.50	0.08	0.07
36. A woman who "teases" men deserves anything that might happen.	-0.04	0.03	-0.04	0.73	0.04
37. When women are raped, it's often because the way they said "no" was ambiguous.	-0.06	0.07	0.13	0.45	0.03
41. A woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex.	0.05	0.03	-0.01	0.61	0.02
43. A woman who goes to the home or apartment of a man on the first date is implying that she wants to have sex.	0.07	-0.01	-0.01	0.60	0.08
45. If a woman claims to have been raped but has no bruises or scrapes, she probably shouldn't be taken too seriously.	-0.02	0.00	0.11	0.66	-0.17

Note. IRMA = Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance. Table 3 reported the results from exploratory factor analysis, which did not generate statistical significance. The bold font indicates factor loadings no less than 0.20.

Reliability

We used the Kuder–Richardson Formula 20 (Kuder & Richardson, 1937), the equivalent of Cronbach's alpha for dichotomous variables, to measure the internal consistency of the questionnaire. The coefficient alpha scores were .73,

Table 4. Factors and Items for the Revised Chinese IRMA Scale.

	Item
Factor 1	<p>Rape victims want to be raped</p> <p>2. Although most women wouldn't admit it, they generally find being physically forced into sex a real "turn-on."</p> <p>8. Many women secretly desire to be raped.</p> <p>18. Many women find being forced to have sex very arousing.</p>
Factor 2	<p>Rape allegations are often false</p> <p>5. Women who are caught having an illicit affair sometimes claim that it was rape.</p> <p>7. Many so-called rape victims are actually women who had sex and "changed their minds" afterward.</p>
Factor 3	<p>Rape must involve violence</p> <p>12. If a woman doesn't physically fight back, you can't really say that it was rape.</p> <p>13. Men from nice middle-class homes almost never rape.</p> <p>17. A rape probably didn't happen if the woman has no bruises or marks.</p> <p>24. If the rapist doesn't have a weapon, you really can't call it a rape.</p> <p>26. Being raped isn't as bad as being mugged and beaten.</p> <p>35. Rape almost never happens in the woman's own home.</p>
Factor 4	<p>Victims are responsible for being raped</p> <p>34. If a woman doesn't physically resist sex—even when protesting verbally—it really can't be considered rape.</p> <p>36. A woman who "teases" men deserves anything that might happen.</p> <p>37. When women are raped, it's often because the way they said "no" was ambiguous.</p> <p>41. A woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex.</p> <p>43. A woman who goes to the home or apartment of a man on the first date is implying that she wants to have sex.</p> <p>45. If a woman claims to have been raped but has no bruises or scrapes, she probably shouldn't be taken too seriously.</p>
Factor 5	<p>The motivation to rape is understandable</p> <p>3. When men rape, it is because of their strong desire for sex.</p> <p>9. Rape mainly occurs on the "bad" side of town.</p> <p>20. Rapists are usually sexually frustrated individuals.</p>

Note. IRMA = Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance.

Table 5. Correlations Between Factors.

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Factor 1	1.00				
Factor 2	.36**	1.00			
Factor 3	.20**	.18**	1.00		
Factor 4	.29**	.24**	.49**	1.00	
Factor 5	.08*	.13**	.08*	.12**	1.00

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

.59, .61, .76, and .38 for Factors 1 through 5, respectively. Therefore, Factor 5 had low reliability, while the other four factors have acceptable reliability.

Discussion

This is the first study to examine the factor structure and reliability of the IRMA scale or any RMA scale with a Chinese sample in China. We translated the IRMA scale into Chinese to produce the Chinese version of IRMA. During the factor analyses procedure, we modified the scale by removing 20 items from the original 40 items due to cross-loadings on multiple factors (Appendix B). For use in China, the original IRMA should be reduced to 20 items, in addition to the five filler items ("F"), when used for a Chinese population. We title the new measure, the CRMA scale. We present the CRMA scale in both English and Chinese in Appendix C.

We identify a five-factor structure of CRMA, labeled "rape victims want to be raped"; "rape allegations are often false"; "rape must involve violence"; "victims are responsible for being raped"; and, "the motivation to rape is understandable." In the following discussion, we discuss similarities between the IRMA and CRMA scales on three constructs, including "victims' sexual desire," "victims' false allegations," and "rapists' sexual motive in nature." Subsequently, we discuss the differences. We also discuss differences on RMA between genders, and limitations and implications of the present study.

Similarities Between the IRMA and CRMA Scales

Our study shows that three of the five constructs of the CRMA scale are similar to three constructs of the original IRMA scale, including Factor 1: "victims want to be raped," Factor 2: "rape allegations are often false," and Factor 5: "rapists' sexual desire is a motivation to rape."

Factor 1, labeled "rape victims want to be raped" in the CRMA scale, deals with items regarding victims' desire for rape, such as "many women

secretly desire to be raped” and “many women find being forced to have sex very arousing.” Factor 1 is similar to the original IRMA factor “she wanted it (WI)” (five items) because all three of the items loaded in Factor 1 also load on Factor WI in the IRMA scale. Factor 2, labeled “rape allegations are often false” in the CRMA scale, includes two items: “Women who are caught having an illicit affair sometimes claim that it was rape” and “many so-called rape victims are actually women who had sex and ‘changed their minds’ afterward.” Factor 2 is close to the original IRMA factor “she lied (LI)” (five items) because these two items also load on Factor LI in the IRMA scale. A common theme between these two items is the notion of victims’ false allegations: Whether a regular sex behavior is defined as a rape crime depends on the victim’s allegations, but these allegations are often wrong. Factor 5 includes three items, labeled “the motivation to rape is understandable” in the CRMA scale, two of which deal with items regarding sex and its relation to rape, such as “when men rape, it is because of their strong desire for sex” and “rapists are usually sexually frustrated individuals.” Factor 5 is close to the original IRMA factor: “he didn’t mean to (MT)” (five items), because these two items also load on factor MT in the IRMA scale. Moreover, we find that more than two thirds of participating students (60.5% and 42.8%) endorse these two statements in Factor 5, indicating that Chinese respondents consider “rapists’ uncontrolled sexual desire” as either a main cause or an acceptable excuse for rape among Chinese participants.

Similar factor loadings between Factor 1 and WI, Factor 2 and LI, Factor 5 and MT demonstrate that the IRMA and CRMA scales share three similar rape myth constructs in common. However, we notice one item in Factor 5, “rape mainly occurs on the ‘bad’ side of town,” does not deal with notions of sex and its relation to rape, but this item loads on Factor 5 with the other two items that emphasize rapists’ sex desire. One possible reason as mentioned in the Method section is that there is no equivalent concept of “bad side of town” in Chinese society, and we translate this term into Chinese by a term with a similar meaning “places with weak public security.” As words hold different meanings between cultures, Chinese and U.S. respondents interpret terms differently, leading to the different factor loadings in the present study. In addition, results of coefficient alphas show that Factor 5 has low reliability with an alpha score of .38, which helps explain why this item loads on Factor 5.

Differences Between the IRMA and CRMA Scales

The factor structure and item loadings of Factor 3 and Factor 4 in the CRMA scale are significantly different from the original IRMA scale. In the CRMA scale, six items load on Factor 3 “rape must involve violence,” while these six items load on three different factors in the original IRMA scale: Three of

them load on the factor “it wasn’t really rape (NR),” two of them load on the factor “rape is a deviant event (DE),” and one of them loads on the factor “rape is a trivial event (TE)” in the IRMA scale. We carefully examined the six items, and find that they deal with the violent nature of rape, such as “involvement of physical resistance,” “physical bruises as evidence,” and “use of weapon.” Thus, we label Factor 3 as “rape must involve violence.” The item “men from nice middle-class homes almost never rape” also suggests that respondents perceive rape as a violent crime, which is positively associated with neighborhood disadvantages such as poverty. Decades of social science research (Morenoff, Sampson, & Raudenbush, 2001; Sampson, Raudenbush, & Earls, 1997) report that neighborhoods with concentrated disadvantages such as high poverty rate are associated with higher rates of violent crime. The item “rape almost never happens in the woman’s own home.” also suggests that respondents perceive rape as a violent crime, the majority of incidents do not happen at home. The statistics from the National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS, Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2015) show that between 2004 and 2008, one third of violent crimes occur in or near the victim’s own home.

In Factor 4, there are six items, which load on two different factors in the IRMA scale: Four items load on the original factor “victims ask for rape (SA),” and two items load on the original factor “it wasn’t really rape (NR).” We examine these six items, and find that they all mention the notion of women’s responsibilities, such as “when women are raped, it’s often because the way they said ‘no’ was ambiguous (SA),” “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),” “if a woman doesn’t physically resist sex—even when protesting verbally—it really can’t be considered rape (NR),” and “if a woman claims to have been raped but has no bruises or scrapes, she probably shouldn’t be taken too seriously (NR).” The two items that load on Factor NR in the IRMA scale also emphasize women’s responsibilities of physically resisting rape.

Gender and RMA

We find that Chinese male students endorse rape myth statements to a greater degree than female students, which is consistent with previous research findings that Asian men agree with rape myth more than Asian women (Anderson et al., 1997; Kennedy & Gorzalka, 2002; Tang, Yik, Cheung, Choi, & Au, 1995). For instance, significantly more males than females indicate agreement on the two items (i.e., “women secretly desire to be raped” [33.2% vs. 19.1%] and “many women find being forced to have sex very arousing” [31.8% vs. 17.1%]) in Factor 1. Furthermore, we find gender difference on perceiving women’s sexualized appearance as a precipitation for their own

victimization. Results in the present study show that more men than women (35.9% vs. 21.7%) endorse statements with notions such as “a woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex.” This is consistent with prior research that men endorse to a greater degree than women the view that women’s revealing clothing is seducing or conveys consent for sex (Abbey & Melby, 1986; Haworth-Hoepfner, 1998; Moor, 2013). The finding indicates that both U.S. and Chinese societies have the same gender-based attribution with regard to the blaming of female victims’ sexualized look as a cause of their rape.

Limitations

Our study has limitations regarding generalizability. We use a convenience sample of university students at seven universities in six cities across China. Therefore, the CRMA scale generated in the present study might not be generalizable to older individuals or those not enrolled in universities in China. However, the majority of work in this field has been conducted using samples of university students (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Payne et al. (1999) also suggested that future research should continue to focus on this important age group, which shows high incidence of rape, and therefore, is a population of particular interest. Our study is an attempt to focus on RMA among Chinese university students. In addition, Chan (2007) has stated that no study in Chinese society could represent the Chinese population as a whole because of China’s heterogeneity. Thus, our study is no exception.

Another limitation is that we did not test for test–retest reliability, as we were not able to conduct the survey more than once with our sample. In the seven universities in this study, most students were recruited for the study when they were taking the Introductory Psychology Courses. The subjects do not necessarily take any other classes together; therefore, it was difficult to gather them again for the retest. Future studies on the CRMA scale should identify a sample available for taking the survey twice and report the test–retest reliability.

Implications

The ultimate goal of studying the CRMA scale is to develop a reliable and valid measure that can be used in rape prevention services and rape victim support services. The present study reaches the goal of developing a reliable measure. Future research should focus on examining the validity of CRMA. More specifically, future research should study whether individuals’ response to CRMA can predict their rape proclivity and judgments of victim blaming and community members’ acceptance of marital rape. If future studies show

that one's response to CRMA is highly correlated with his or her rape proclivity, rape prevention services can use CRMA as a tool to identify individuals at high risk of becoming perpetrators. Previous studies show that acceptance of rape myth is one prominent cause of sexual violence (Bohner, Jarvis, Eyssel, & Siebler, 2005). Participants who have higher level of RMA report a more extensive history of sexual aggression than those who have less RMA (e.g., Malamuth, 1986; Malamuth, Haber, & Feshbach, 1980). Perpetrators have been using rape myth to justify or rationalize their sexual coercion behaviors (Burt, 1980). Thus, rape prevention should target individuals with high rape myth endorsement, which can help decrease the likelihood of future sexual aggression and rape proclivity (Gilbert, Heesacker, & Gannon, 1991; O'Donohue, Yeater, & Fanetti, 2003).

In addition, future studies should examine the relationship between individuals' responses to CRMA and their victim blaming. If future studies show that one's response to CRMA is highly correlated with his or her victim blaming, rape intervention services can use the CRMA as a tool to identify targets for rape intervention education. The acceptance of rape myth shifts the blame from perpetrators to victims (Burt, 1980). The non-supportive reactions toward rape victims may be from family and friends, bystanders, legal services, health providers, and so on (Campbell & Johnson, 1997; Comack & Peter, 2005; Ullman, 1996; Ullman & Townsend, 2007). The victims exposed to victim-blaming environment are less likely to report their experience of rape and recover from rape. The extreme victim blaming can even result in post-rape trauma after victims disclose their experience (Frese, Moya, & Megias, 2004; Koss, 1992; Yamawaki, Darby, & Queiroz, 2007). Furthermore, as people's willingness to intervene in situations of rape is affected by their RMA (Banyard, Moynihan, & Plante, 2007; Burn, 2009), reducing endorsement of rape myth will better prepare individuals to intervene as bystanders, which will help reduce the occurrence of rape. If one's response to CRMA is significantly related to victim blaming among Chinese population, rape intervention education can use the CRMA to identify individuals who are likely to hold victim-blaming attitudes. Reducing their victim-blaming attitudes will increase their likelihood to intervention as bystanders and provide support to rape victims after rape occurs.

Additional research should test the reliability of the CRMA scale among community samples in China. As the present study uses a sample of university students and the majority of them are unmarried, this study does not capture the married population who can be involved in marital rape. Comparatively, there is a larger portion of married people in community samples, some of whom might have experience with marital rape. Western research shows that men who have higher acceptance of rape myth are less likely to interpret forced or unwanted sexual intercourse within marriage as rape, are more likely to endorse marital rape, and minimize the seriousness of harm in marital rape

(Simonson & Subich, 1999). However, marital rape leads to deleterious physical and psychological outcomes (Bennice & Resick, 2003). Thus, there is a need to test the CRMA scale in community samples in China, and to explore the relationship between CRMA and their acceptance of marital rape.

Conclusion

It is possible to adapt an originally U.S.-based measure of RMA in China. We found that rape-supportive beliefs exist in both the countries. We translated the IRMA scale into Chinese to test the cross-cultural adaptation in a sample of university students in China. After revision, the CRMA retains 25 of 45 items from the IRMA scale and produces a five-factor structure. In terms of factor structure, the CRMA scale shares three factors with the IRMA but is different from the IRMA on two other factors.

To our knowledge, this is the first study to develop a rape myth measure in China by adapting an originally U.S.-based measure. Further study should test its validity by examining the relationship between one's response to CRMA, and their rape proclivity and victim blaming. Moreover, future study should study the reliability of CRMA among community samples in China.

Appendix A

IRMA Scale.

Factor Label	Item
SA	If a woman is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of control.
	When women go around wearing low-cut tops or short skirts, they're just asking for trouble.
	If a woman goes home with a man she doesn't know, it is her own fault if she is raped.
	When a woman is a sexual tease, eventually she is going to get into trouble.
	A woman who "teases" men deserves anything that might happen.
	When women are raped, it's often because the way they said "no" was ambiguous.
	A woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex.
	A woman who goes to the home or apartment of a man on the first date is implying that she wants to have sex.

(continued)

Appendix A (continued)

Factor Label	Item
NR	<p>If a woman doesn't physically fight back, you can't really say that it was rape.</p> <p>A rape probably didn't happen if the woman has no bruises or marks.</p> <p>If the rapist doesn't have a weapon, you really can't call it a rape.</p> <p>If a woman doesn't physically resist sex—even when protesting verbally—It really can't be considered rape.</p> <p>If a woman claims to have been raped but has no bruises or scrapes, she probably shouldn't be taken too seriously.</p>
MT	<p>When men rape, it is because of their strong desire for sex.</p> <p>Rapists are usually sexually frustrated individuals.</p> <p>When a man is very sexually aroused, he may not even realize that the woman is resisting.</p> <p>Men don't usually intend to force sex on a woman, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.</p> <p>Rape happens when a man's sex drive gets out of control.</p>
WI	<p>Although most women wouldn't admit it, they generally find being physically forced into sex a real "turn-on."</p> <p>Many women secretly desire to be raped.</p> <p>Many women find being forced to have sex very arousing.</p> <p>Some women prefer to have sex forced on them so they don't have to feel guilty about it.</p> <p>Many women actually enjoy sex after the guy uses a little force.</p>
LI	<p>Women who are caught having an illicit affair sometimes claim that it was rape.</p> <p>Many so-called rape victims are actually women who had sex and "changed their minds" afterward.</p> <p>Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at men.</p> <p>A lot of women lead a man on and then they cry rape.</p> <p>A lot of times, women who claim they were raped just have emotional problems.</p>
TE	<p>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.</p> <p>Rape isn't as big a problem as some feminists would like people to think.</p> <p>Being raped isn't as bad as being mugged and beaten.</p> <p>Women tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them.</p> <p>If a woman isn't a virgin, then it shouldn't be a big deal if her date forces her to have sex.</p>

(continued)

Appendix A (continued)

Factor Label	Item
DE	<p>Rape mainly occurs on the “bad” side of town.</p> <p>Usually, it is only women who do things like hang out in bars and sleep around that are raped.</p> <p>Men from nice middle-class homes almost never rape.</p> <p>It is usually only women who dress suggestively that are raped.</p> <p>Rape is unlikely to happen in the woman’s own familiar neighborhood.</p> <p>In reality, women are almost never raped by their boyfriends.</p> <p>Rape almost never happens in the woman’s own home.</p>

Note. IRMA = Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance; SA = she asked for it; NR = it wasn’t really rape; MT = he didn’t mean to; WI = she wanted it; LI = she lied; TE = rape is a trivial event; DE = rape is a deviant event.

Appendix B

IRMA Scale Items Removal for Cross-Loadings.

IRMA no.	Item
Items deleted following Step 1	
1	If a woman is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of control.
4	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.
10	Usually, it is only women who do things like hang out in bars and sleep around that are raped.
14	Rape isn’t as big a problem as some feminists would like people to think.
15	When women go around wearing low-cut tops or short skirts, they’re just asking for trouble.
16	Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at men.
19	If a woman goes home with a man she doesn’t know, it is her own fault if she is raped.
22	It is usually only women who dress suggestively that are raped.
25	When a woman is a sexual tease, eventually she is going to get into trouble.
29	Women tend to exaggerate how much rape affects them.
30	When a man is very sexually aroused, he may not even realize that the woman is resisting.

(continued)

Appendix B (continued)

IRMA no.	Item
31	A lot of women lead a man on and then they cry rape.
33	A lot of times, women who claim they were raped just have emotional problems.
38	If a woman isn't a virgin, then it shouldn't be a big deal if her date forces her to have sex.
42	Rape happens when a man's sex drive gets out of control.

Items deleted following Step 2

23	Some women prefer to have sex forced on them so they don't have to feel guilty about it.
27	Rape is unlikely to happen in the woman's own familiar neighborhood.
28	In reality, women are almost never raped by their boyfriends.
39	Men don't usually intend to force sex on a woman, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.
44	Many women actually enjoy sex after the guy uses a little force.

Note. A total of 20 items in the IRMA scale were deleted after two steps. IRMA = Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance.

Appendix C

The Final Version of CRMA Scale (With Chinese Translation).

(The numbers in the CRMA scale are provided; the labels are the factor numbers that these items belong to; equivalent item descriptions and factor themes in Chinese are also provided).

	Label	Item
1	Factor 1	Although most women wouldn't admit it, they generally find being physically forced into sex a real "turn-on." 很多女人不承认，但实际上她们觉得被强迫发生性行为才是最兴奋刺激的。
2	Factor 5	When men rape, it is because of their strong desire for sex. 男人强烈的性欲是导致强奸发生的原因。
3	Factor 2	Women who are caught having an illicit affair sometimes claim that it was rape. 女人为了遮掩自己不正当男女关系时，会说是被强暴的。
4	FI	Newspapers should not release the name of a rape victim to the public. 报刊杂志不该对外公开透露强暴受害者的真实姓名。

(continued)

Appendix C (continued)

	Label	Item
5	Factor 2	Many so-called rape victims are actually women who had sex and “changed their minds” afterward. 很多自称“强奸受害者”的女人，其实是自愿发生性行为但事后反悔了。
6	Factor 1	Many women secretly desire to be raped. 很多女人私下怀有被强暴的欲望。
7	Factor 5	Rape mainly occurs on the “bad” side of town. 强奸主要发生在当地治安不好的地方。
8	FI	Most rapists are not caught by the police. 很多强暴者没有被警察抓住
9	Factor 3	If a woman doesn’t physically fight back, you can’t really say that it was rape. 女人如果没有肢体上抵抗，就不是被强暴。
10	Factor 3	Men from nice middle-class homes almost never rape. 中产阶级家庭的男人几乎从来不强奸女人。
11	Factor 3	A rape probably didn’t happen if the woman has no bruises or marks. 女人身上若没有瘀伤、青肿等肉体伤痕，便可能没发生强奸。
12	Factor 1	Many women find being forced to have sex very arousing. 很多女人认为被强迫发生性行为是刺激兴奋的。
13	Factor 5	Rapists are usually sexually frustrated individuals. 强暴者通常是那些长期得不到性满足的人。
14	FI	All women should have access to self-defense classes. 所有女人都该学习自我防卫的知识或课程。
15	Factor 3	If the rapist doesn’t have a weapon, you really can’t call it a rape. 如果强暴者没有使用枪、刀棍等攻击性工具，这就不叫强暴。
16	Factor 3	Being raped isn’t as bad as being mugged and beaten. 被强暴的恶劣程度和被抢劫或挨打差不多。
17	FI	It is preferable that a female police officer conduct the questioning when a woman reports a rape. 女警员比男警员更适合对被强暴女性进行询问调查取证。
18	Factor 4	If a woman doesn’t physically resist sex—even when protesting verbally—it really can’t be considered rape. 女人即使口头拒绝发生性行为，但如果没有肢体抵抗，就不能称是强奸。
19	Factor 3	Rape almost never happens in the woman’s own home. 强奸几乎从不可能发生在女人自己的家里。
20	Factor 4	A woman who “teases” men deserves anything that might happen. 女人主动挑逗男人，无论接下来发生什么，她都是活该的。
21	Factor 4	When women are raped, it’s often because the way they said “no” was ambiguous. 女人被强暴，通常因为她们说“不”（拒绝）不够明确。

(continued)

Appendix C (continued)

	Label	Item
22	FI	This society should devote more effort to preventing rape. 这个社会应该投入更多的努力来预防强奸的发生。
23	Factor 4	A woman who dresses in skimpy clothes should not be surprised if a man tries to force her to have sex. 若穿着太过于暴露性感，她不该对男人想强行与她发生性行为而感到大惊小怪。
24	Factor 4	A woman who goes to the home or apartment of a man on the first date is implying that she wants to have sex. 女人第一次约会就同意去男人家，表示她同意发生性行为。
25	Factor 4	If a woman claims to have been raped but has no bruises or scrapes, she probably shouldn't be taken too seriously. 不用认真对待那些声称被强暴，却没有肉体瘀伤和抓痕的女人。

因子1 (Factor 1): 受害者期待被强暴 (Rape victims want to be raped);

因子2 (Factor 2): 强奸的指控是有误的 (Rape allegations are often false);

因子3 (Factor 3): 强奸必须使用暴力才可能发生 (Rape must involve violence);

因子4 (Factor 4): 强奸受害者应对被强奸负责任 (Victims are responsible for being raped);

因子5 (Factor 5): 强奸动机是可以理解的 (The motivation to rape is understandable);

Filter Items: 4, 8, 14, 17, 22.

Note. CRMA = Chinese Rape Myth Acceptance; FI = filler items.

Authors' Note

The authors express their gratitude to Dr. Kimberly A. Lonsway for giving permission to use the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance (IRMA) scale and for her suggestion to name the five factors in the Chinese Rape Myth Acceptance scale. We also extend our deep appreciation to Dr. Michael J. Rovine for guidance on the factor analysis. Gang Fang and Hui Huang have contributed equally to this work as co-second authors.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The author(s) received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Notes

1. What has been referred to as marital rape in the United States was referred to as unwanted spousal intercourse in China.
2. GEOMIN is an oblique type of rotation, which assumes that the factors are correlated with each other.

References

- Abbey, A., & Melby, C. (1986). The effects of nonverbal cues on gender differences in perceptions of sexual intent. *Sex Roles, 15*, 283-298.
- Anderson, K. B., Cooper, H., & Okamura, L. (1997). Individual differences and attitudes toward rape: A meta-analytic review. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 23*, 295-315.
- Banyard, V. L., Moynihan, M. M., & Plante, E. G. (2007). Sexual violence prevention through bystander education: An experimental evaluation. *Journal of Community Psychology, 35*, 463-481.
- Beaton, D. E., Bombardier, C., Guillemin, F., & Ferraz, M. B. (2000). Guidelines for the process of cross-cultural adaptation of self-report measures. *Spine, 25*, 3186-3191.
- Bennice, J. A., & Resick, P. A. (2003). Marital rape: History, research, and practice. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse, 4*, 228-246.
- Black, M. C., Basile, K. C., Breiding, M. J., Smith, S. G., Walters, M. L., Merrick, M. T., . . . Stevens, M. R. (2011). *National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (NISVS): 2010 Summary Report*. Atlanta, GA: National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Retrieved from http://www.cdc.gov/violenceprevention/pdf/nisvs_report2010-a.pdf
- Bohner, G., Jarvis, C. I., Eyssel, F., & Siebler, F. (2005). The causal impact of rape myth acceptance on men's rape proclivity: Comparing sexually coercive and noncoercive men. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 35*(6), 819-828.
- Brownmiller, S. (1975). *Against our will: Men, women and rape*. New York, NY: Simon & Shuster.
- Burn, S. M. (2009). A situational model of sexual assault prevention through bystander intervention. *Sex Roles, 60*, 779-792.
- Burt, M. R. (1980). Cultural myths and supports for rape. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 38*, 217-230.
- Burt, M. R. (1991). Rape myths and acquaintance rape. In A. Parrot & L. Bechhofer (Eds.), *Acquaintance rape: The hidden crime* (pp. 26-40). New York, NY: John Wiley.
- Campbell, R., & Johnson, C. R. (1997). Police officers' perceptions of rape: Is there consistency between state law and individual beliefs? *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 12*, 255-274.
- Chan, K. L. (2007). *Sexual violence against women and children in China*. Pretoria, South Africa: Sexual Violence Research Initiative. Retrieved from <https://www.ciaonet.org/attachments/19599/uploads>
- Chan, K. L. (2009). Sexual violence against women and children in Chinese societies. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse, 10*, 69-85.
- Chinese Health and Family Life Survey. (2000). Retrieved from <http://popcenter.uchicago.edu/data/chfls.shtml>
- Comack, E., & Peter, T. (2005). How the criminal justice system responds to sexual assault survivors: The slippage between "responsibilization" and "blaming the victim." *Canadian Journal of Women and the Law, 17*, 283-309.

- Criminal Law of the People's Republic of China, article 236. (2015). Retrieved from http://www.npc.gov.cn/englishnpc/Law/2007-12/13/content_1384075.htm
- Feild, H. S. (1978). Attitudes toward rape: A comparative analysis of police, rapists, crisis counselors, and citizens. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 36, 156-179.
- Frese, B., Moya, M., & Megias, J. L. (2004). Social perception of rape: How rape myth acceptance modulates the influence of situational factors. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 19, 143-161.
- Gilbert, B. J., Heesacker, M., & Gannon, L. J. (1991). Changing the sexual aggression-supportive attitudes of men: A psychoeducational intervention. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 38, 197-203.
- Haworth-Hoeppner, S. (1998). What's gender got to do with it: Perceptions of sexual coercion in a university community. *Sex Roles*, 38, 757-779.
- Hinck, S. S., & Thomas, R. W. (1999). Rape myth acceptance in college students: How far have we come? *Sex Roles*, 40, 815-832.
- Hu, H. C. (1944). The Chinese concepts of "face." *American Anthropologist*, 46, 45-64.
- Iconis, R. (2011). Rape myth acceptance in college students: A literature review. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research*, 1(2), 47-52.
- Kennedy, M. A., & Gorzalka, B. B. (2002). Asian and non-Asian attitudes toward rape, sexual harassment, and sexuality. *Sex Roles*, 46, 227-238.
- Koss, M. P. (1992). The under detection of rape: Methodological choices influence incidence estimates. *Journal of Social Issues*, 48(1), 61-75.
- Kruttschnitt, C., Kalsbeek, W. D., & House, C. C. (2014). *Estimating the incidence of rape and sexual assault*. Washington, DC: Committee on National Statistics, Division of Behavioral and Social Sciences and Education, National Academies Press.
- Kuder, G. F., & Richardson, M. W. (1937). The theory of the estimation of test reliability. *Psychometrika*, 2, 151-160.
- Lee, J., Pomeroy, E. C., Yoo, S. K., & Rheinboldt, K. T. (2005). Attitudes toward rape: A comparison between Asian and Caucasian college students. *Violence Against Women*, 11, 177-196.
- Lee, M. Y., & Law, P. F. (2001). Perception of sexual violence against women in Asian American communities. *Journal of Ethnic & Cultural Diversity in Social Work*, 10(2), 3-25.
- LeGrand, C. E. (1973). Rape and rape laws: Sexism in society and law. *California Law Review*, 61, 919-941.
- Lewis, M. A., Granato, H., Blayney, J. A., Lostutter, T. W., & Kilmer, J. R. (2012). Predictors of hooking up sexual behaviors and emotional reactions among US college students. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 41, 1219-1229.
- Li, L. (1999). The ultimate loss: Rape and suicide in Qing China, 1744-1903. *International Journal of Comparative and Applied Criminal Justice*, 23, 91-101.
- Lonsway, K. A., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1994). Rape myths in review. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 18, 133-164.

- Lonsway, K. A., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1995). Attitudinal antecedents of rape myth acceptance: A theoretical and empirical reexamination. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 68, 704-711.
- Luo, T. (2000). "Marrying my rapist?!" The cultural trauma among Chinese rape survivors. *Gender & Society*, 14, 581-597.
- Malamuth, N. M. (1986). Predictors of naturalistic sexual aggression. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 50, 953-962.
- Malamuth, N. M., Haber, S., & Feshbach, S. (1980). Testing hypotheses regarding rape: Exposure to sexual violence, sex differences, and the "normality" of rapists. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 14, 121-137.
- McMahon, S., & Farmer, G. L. (2011). An updated measure for assessing subtle rape myths. *Social Work Research*, 35, 71-81.
- Moor, A. (2013). She dresses to attract, he perceives seduction: A gender gap in attribution of intent to women's revealing style of dress and its relation to blaming the victims of sexual violence. *Journal of International Women's Studies*, 11(4), 115-127.
- Morenoff, J. D., Sampson, R. J., & Raudenbush, S. W. (2001). Neighborhood inequality, collective efficacy, and the spatial dynamics of urban violence. *Criminology*, 39, 517-559.
- Ng, V. W. (1987). Ideology and sexuality: Rape laws in Qing China. *The Journal of Asian Studies*, 46, 57-70.
- O'Donohue, W., Yeater, E. A., & Fanetti, M. (2003). Rape prevention with college males the roles of rape myth acceptance, victim empathy, and outcome expectancies. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 18, 513-531.
- Parish, W. L., Luo, Y., Laumann, E. O., Kew, M., & Yu, Z. (2007). Unwanted sexual activity among married women in urban China. *Journal of Sex Research*, 44, 158-171.
- Payne, D. L., Lonsway, K. A., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1999). Rape myth acceptance: Exploration of its structure and its measurement using the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 33, 27-68.
- Peterson, Z. D., & Muehlenhard, C. L. (2004). Was it rape? The function of women's rape myth acceptance and definitions of sex in labeling their own experiences. *Sex Roles*, 51, 129-144.
- Ringel, C. (1997). *Criminal victimization in 1996, changes 1995-1996 with trends 1993-1996*. Retrieved from www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/cv96.pdf
- Sampson, R. J., Raudenbush, S. W., & Earls, F. (1997). Neighborhoods and violent crime: A multilevel study of collective efficacy. *Science*, 277, 918-924.
- Schwendinger, J. R., & Schwendinger, H. (1974). Rape myths: In legal, theoretical, and everyday practice. *Crime and Social Justice*, 1, 18-26.
- Simonson, K., & Subich, L. M. (1999). Rape perceptions as a function of gender-role traditionality and victim-perpetrator association. *Sex Roles*, 40, 617-634.
- Suarez, E., & Gadalla, T. M. (2010). Stop blaming the victim: A meta-analysis on rape myths. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 25, 2010-2035.
- Tang, C. S., Yik, M. S., Cheung, F. M., Choi, P., & Au, K. (1995). How do Chinese college students define sexual harassment? *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 10, 503-515.

- Tanner, H. (1994). Chinese rape law in comparative perspective. *The Australian Journal of Chinese Affairs*, 31, 1-23.
- The National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS). (2015). Retrieved from <http://www.bjs.gov/index.cfm?ty=tp&tid=44>
- Ullman, S. E. (1996). Social reactions, coping strategies, and self-blame attributions in adjustment to sexual assault. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 20, 505-526.
- Ullman, S. E., & Townsend, S. M. (2007). Barriers to working with sexual assault survivors: A qualitative study of rape crisis center workers. *Violence Against Women*, 13, 412-443.
- U.S. Department of Justice. (2012). *An updated definition of rape*. Retrieved from <http://www.justice.gov/opa/blog/updated-definition-rape>
- Ward, C. (1988). The attitudes toward rape victims scale. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 12, 127-146.
- Xu, S., Xie, L., & Chen, M. (1998). A survey of sexual victimization among 178 Chinese female college students. *International Medical Journal*, 5(2), 113-117.
- Yamawaki, N., Darby, R., & Queiroz, A. (2007). The moderating role of ambivalent sexism: The influence of power status on perception of rape victim and rapist. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 147, 41-56.
- Ye, Q. (2011). Introduction to the issue of rape in China as a developing country. In N. Westmarland & G. Gangoli (Eds.), *International approaches to rape* (pp. 57-77). Bristol, UK: Policy Press.
- Yeater, E. A., Treat, T. A., Viken, R. J., & McFall, R. M. (2010). Cognitive processes underlying women's risk judgments: Associations with sexual victimization history and rape myth acceptance. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 78, 375-386.

Author Biographies

Jia Xue, juris master, is a PhD candidate in social welfare, in the School of Social Policy and Practice, along with a dual degree in statistics in Wharton School, at the University of Pennsylvania. She is an affiliated research fellow in Carr Center, at the Harvard Kennedy School. Her research interests include intimate and domestic violence, dating violence in young adulthood, child abuse, and sexual violence against women and children.

Gang Fang, PhD, is an associate professor in the School of Humanities and Social Science, Beijing Forestry University, China. His research focuses on sexualities, gender, and gender-based violence, especially qualitative research on masculinities, and has published more than 50 books and 40 articles.

Hui Huang, PhD, MSW, MS, an assistant professor in the School of Social Work at Florida International University, is interested in studying children and families that are involved in child welfare and at least one other public service sector. She has research experiences in using advanced statistical models for large-scale projects.

Naixue Cui, master of nursing science, is a doctoral student at the School of Nursing, University of Pennsylvania. Her research focuses on the relationship between risk factors, including violence exposure, malnutrition, and environmental toxicants, in the early life and neurocognitive and behavioral development in later childhood.

Karin V. Rhodes is an associate professor and director of the Center of Emergency Care Policy Research in the Department of Emergency Medicine, with secondary appointments in Psychiatry and the School of Social Policy and Practice. She is a highly productive intimate partner violence (IPV) and health services researcher with many high-impact journal articles. She is interested in both the contextual and cultural aspects of health for vulnerable population and in broad system-level interventions that can improve public health.

Richard Gelles is an internationally known expert in domestic violence and child welfare. He was influential in the passage of the Adoption and Safe Families Act of 1997. He is the author of the highly influential book, *The Violent Home*, which was the first systematic investigation to provide empirical data on domestic violence. He is the author of 26 books and more than 100 articles, chapters, and articles. He was the dean of the School of Social Policy and Practice and is currently the Joanne and Raymond Welsh Chair of Child Welfare and Family Violence of School of Social Policy and Practice.