7

FOSTERING MEN'S RESPONSIBILITY FOR PREVENTING SEXUAL ASSAULT

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Men must take responsibility for preventing sexual assault, because most assaults are perpetrated by men against women, children, and other men. Even though only a minority of men may commit sexual assault, all men can have an influence on the culture and environment that allows other men to be perpetrators. Thus, effective sexual assault prevention requires that men look at their own potential for violence as well as take a stand against the violence of other men. This chapter provides an overview of the issues involved in men taking responsibility for sexual assault prevention, suggests a philosophy and pedagogy for rape prevention, provides a developmental model for prevention programs, makes recommendations for advancing the field, and reviews promising interventions and strategies. The chapter's primary focus is the prevention of sexual assault perpetrated by men

against women (or young men and young women) who know each other in college or high school settings.

Scholars and researchers who study the male gender role have noted that masculinity is often defined in opposition to femininity, which is devalued or seen as less desirable (Kilmartin, 2000; Levant & Pollack, 1995; Pleck, 1981). Teaching boys and men to devalue or objectify women and girls may facilitate behavior in which men and boys overlook, disrespect, harass, or abuse girls and women. These ways of treating women may in turn create discomfort among men whose values conflict with the male socialization process. Whether or not men choose to act out these negative potentials, all men struggle with the conflicts and issues created by a definition of self that devalues women and limits what is acceptable behavior for men. Thus, sexual assault prevention should help men explore how they are taught to be men, the conflicts and discomfort associated with trying to live up to the male role, and how they may intentionally or unintentionally enable the coercive sexual behavior of other men. As I have noted elsewhere, "It is the experience of masculinity itself—how men think of themselves as men— that creates the psychological and cultural environment that leads men to rape . . . this environment is perpetuated through men's relationships with and expectations of each other" (Berkowitz, 1994c, p. 1). Capraro (1994) made a similar assertion:

> Our understanding of the specific act of rape should be embedded in our understanding of masculinity. Rape is not an isolated behavior, but a behavior linked in men's lives to larger systems of attitudes, values and modalities or conduct that constitute masculinity. In this model, rape prevention work begins with men and with men's questioning of prevailing assumptions about masculinity and their rethinking of what it means to be a man. I am extremely skeptical of any rape prevention work that proposes solutions to the problem of rape but leaves masculinity, as we know today, largely intact. (p. 22)

Asking men to make a shift may not be as difficult as it may seem for several reasons. First, men already feel uncomfortable with their socialization as men and the pressure to live up to a masculine ideal. Researchers have conceptualized the difficulty of trying to live up to inherently contradictory gender role expectations as "gender role conflict," and an extensive research literature has documented that most men do experience role conflict as well as its negative psychological consequences (Mahalik, 1999; Sharpe & Heppner, 1991). Second, while male peer support and pressure increase the likelihood of sexual assault (Berkowitz, 1992; Muehlenhard & Linton, 1987; Schwartz & DeKeseredy, 1997), recent research has suggested that men overestimate the extent to which their peers endorse gender stereotypes about sexual attitudes and behavior (Berkowitz, 2000a). Thus, the peer pressures men feel may in part be based on misperceptions of other

men's attitudes and behavior. Finally, the research literature has shown that rape proclivity is strongly associated with *hypermasculinity*, or the tendency to overconform to perceived male gender role expectations (Berkowitz, Burkhart, & Bourg, 1994). These findings converge in the hypothesis that sexual assault prevention for men should have an explicit gender focus (Kilmartin, 2001) and that interventions that reveal men's true feelings about male gender role expectations could (a) help reduce the pressures men feel to be sexually active in ways that lead to sexual assault and (b) encourage men to express their discomfort with other men's coercive behavior, thus potentially inhibiting such behavior.

This approach to prevention is not recommended for all men. Men who have a history of previous sexual assaults have not benefited from educationally oriented sexual assault prevention programs (Gilbert, Heesacker, & Gannon, 1991) and may need more intensive treatment within clinical or judicial systems, or both.

TERMINOLOGY: SEXUAL ASSAULT PREVENTION, RISK REDUCTION, AND DETERRENCE

Professionals have struggled to develop adequate terminology to describe men's and women's roles in preventing sexual assault in intimate relationships. Responsibility for prevention can be defined by who takes the initiative with respect to sexual intimacy, with the assumption that it is responsibility of the person initiating to ensure that the intimacy is mutual, uncoerced, and consenting (Berkowitz, 1994b). Because sexual activity is often initiated by men, and because almost all sexual assaults are perpetrated by men against women, children, or other men, the term *prevention* in this chapter is used primarily to describe programs directed to male audiences.

Programs for potential victims can help reduce the risk of sexual assault by empowering participants to engage in actions that decrease the likelihood of victimization, although this risk may not be totally eliminated (see Ullman, chapter 6, this volume). The terms *empowerment, risk reduction*, and *deterrence* have been used in the literature to describe programs that teach women actions that can reduce the potential risk of assault, increase protective factors and skills for self-defense, and foster social activism to end violence against women. Risk reduction and deterrence strategies can also be considered a form of prevention because they can prevent individuals from becoming victims. Because most victims of sexual assaults are women, risk reduction, safety enhancement, and empowerment programs should primarily be directed toward women. However, because a smaller percentage of men may also be victimized, programs with male audiences should acknowledge and be sensitive to issues of male victimization. The critical elements of effective risk reduction–deterrence–prevention programs for women have

been outlined by Berkowitz (2001) and are provided in the discussion that follows.

WHY ALL-MALE PROGRAMS?

A consensus is emerging among researchers that sexual assault prevention is most effective when conducted in separate-gender groups. This conclusion was found in six reviews of the evaluation literature on sexual assault prevention programs, with all of them recommending all-male programs as the preferred prevention strategy for men (Brecklin & Forde, 2001; Breitenbecher, 2000; Gidycz, Dowdall, & Marioni, 2002; Lonsway, 1996; Schewe, chapter 5, this volume; Yeater & O'Donohue, 1999). These researchers have based their conclusions on several factors, including (a) the different strategies and goals for men's and women's programs and the danger of inconsistent messages when both groups are combined (Gidycz et al., 2002; Schewe, chapter 5, this volume; Yeater & O'Donohue, 1999); (b) outcome studies indicating that mixed-gender programs are less effective than separate-gender programs (Berkowitz 1994b; Brecklin & Forde, 2001; Lonsway, 1996); and (c) the testimony of participants in all-male workshops.

With respect to conflicting strategies and messages, Gidycz and colleagues (2002) concluded that

> The goals for men and women's programs diverge in a number of respects making it difficult to structure the content for mixed-sex programs. Although a number of mixed-sex programs have focused on rape-myth acceptance and sex role attitudes and thus, assessed these variables post-intervention as measures of program efficacy, the literature does not support a link between these types of attitudes and the experience of being a victim for women (see Koss & Dinero, 1989). Thus, while challenging these attitudes seems to be an appropriate goal for men, we believe that programs for women need to help them identify and cope with characteristics of sexually aggressive men and situations that are particularly risky.

Schewe (chapter 5, this volume) notes that it might be inappropriate to share risk reduction messages with men because it could provide potential rapists with information about what makes women vulnerable to rape.

Evaluation studies also have suggested that single-gender programs are more effective. These conclusions are consistent across a wide range of studies using different methodologies and experimental designs. For example, in Lonsway's review (1996), all three programs provided to all-female audiences had a positive impact, as did most of the studies conducted with all-male audiences. Similarly, Earle (1996) compared two coeducational programs with an all-male program developed by Berkowitz (1994b) and

found the latter to be more beneficial for men. In contrast to single-gender programs, evaluations of programs provided to coeducational groups are less clear regarding their benefits for both men and women. Thus, of the 25 studies reviewed for this chapter, only 5 demonstrated an equal impact on men and women (Fonow, Richardson, & Wemmerus, 1992; Frazier, Valtinson, & Candell, 1994; Malamuth & Check, 1984; Mann, Hecht, & Valentine, 1988; Rosenthal, Heesacker, & Neimeyer, 1995), four others reported a negative impact on all or some of the men (Earle, 1996; Ellis, O'Sullivan, & Sowards, 1992; Fisher, 1986; Heppner, Good, et al., 1995), and five additional studies found that men (Earle, 1996; Harrison, Downes, & Williams, 1991; Heppner, Humphrey, Hillenbrand-Gunn, & DeBord, 1995; Holcomb, Sarvela, Sondag, Hatton, & Holcomb, 1993) or women (Lenihan & Rawlins, 1994) benefited more than the other gender. Similarly, in three comprehensive high school studies reviewed by the National Research Council (Crowell & Burgess, 1996), young men and young women benefited equally in only one study, and a small group of young men showed change in the undesired direction in another. Thus, a review of existing evaluation studies and literature reviews indicates that separate-gender programs are more effective than are coeducational program formats.

This conclusion is supported by a recent study in which Brecklin and Forde (2001) conducted the most comprehensive analysis of rape prevention program evaluations as of this writing. In a meta-analysis of 43 evaluation studies, they determined that both men and women experienced more beneficial change in single-gender groups than in mixed-gender groups.

Male workshop participants articulated several benefits from all-male discussions in participant evaluations of an all-male rape prevention program developed by Berkowitz (1994b). Reasons given in favor of all-male programs included the following:

- Men are more comfortable, less defensive, and more honest in all-male groups.
- Men are less likely to talk openly and participate in the presence of women.
- Mixed-gender discussions can become polarized.
- Single-gender groups reveal a diversity of opinions among men that may not be expressed if women are present.
- Men feel safe disagreeing or putting pressure on each other in all-male groups.
- Focusing on risk reduction in mixed-gender groups can result in men assigning responsibility for the assault to women.

In evaluations of this workshop over a 10-year period, a majority of men attending stated that it should be kept all male. A selection of typical evaluation comments is provided in Exhibit 7.1. It is noteworthy that many of the attitudes men express in favor of all-male workshops (e.g., viewing gender

EXHIBIT 7.1
Evaluation Comments Favoring All-Male Workshops

- I liked the all-male atmosphere.
- The workshop provided an opportunity to express feelings and frustrations freely.
- Keep it all males.
- Men won't speak freely or openly with women around.
- The conversation would not be honest or as frank. It would be too hard to speak with women present.
- It's easier to talk with an all-guy crowd.
- It's hard to be open about women when women are around.
- If the program were coeducational, it would become a "battle of the sexes."
- Men would worry about women taking what they say the wrong way if there were women in the room.
- I wouldn't want to make victims who were present uncomfortable.

dialogue as adversarial or feeling comfortable in expressing men's complaints about women) are attitudes and beliefs that need to be changed if men are to take responsibility for rape prevention. The purpose of providing such an opportunity is to bring these beliefs and attitudes into the open so that they can be challenged and transformed. Fear of embarrassment, "political correctness," or judgment might inhibit men from expressing these feelings in the presence of women. Furthermore, the opportunity to have an open, honest dialogue with other men also serves to contradict men's socialization and experience of sharing intimate feelings only with women.

Men's preference for single-gender discussions parallels the development of women's consciousness-raising groups early in the history of the women's movement. It is interesting to note that most men will indicate a preference for a coeducational workshop prior to participation in an all-male workshop but will change their minds after having the experience of an open, honest discussion with other men.

Given that all-male workshops are the intervention of choice for working with men, what is the best format for such programs? What are the areas that should be addressed or at least mentioned in sexual assault prevention programs?

PROGRAM FORMAT

A variety of program formats have been discussed in the literature, including lectures, viewing of videos or movies, structured discussions, panels

of victims, and interactive discussions following a video or presentation of scenarios. The literature has suggested that the quality and interactive nature of the discussion may be more important than the format in which the material is presented (Breitenbecher, 2000). Davis (2000) defined this dimension as "program process":

> Program process issues are aimed at making the content palatable to the learner, effectively engaging the learner, reducing defensiveness, and facilitating thoughtful evaluation of the information being presented. That is, process strategies should be geared towards enhancing the "learnability" of the intended outcomes. (p. 83)

Heppner, Humphrey, et al. (1995) demonstrated, for example, that an interactive, nonblaming program format resulted in a deeper level of processing among participants than did a lecture format. Earle (1996) compared lecture, structured presentation, and interactive discussion formats and found that the interactive discussion was most effective in changing men's attitudes about rape. Flores and Hartlaub (1998) compared human sexuality courses, workshops, video presentations, and other formats and found that they all were equally effective in reducing rape myth acceptance. In contrast, sexual assault prevention programs focusing on factual information alone have been found ineffective in producing desired changes, as have those that adopt a blaming or confrontational approach toward men (Schewe, chapter 5, this volume). Lonsway (1996), after conducting a comprehensive overview of the evaluation literature, concluded that "programs with the greatest effectiveness involve interactive participation such as role-playing and peer counseling . . . participant interaction is an element common to many rape prevention programs and one that is generally reported to co-occur with desirable attitude change" (p. 247). Thus, the quality of the discussion in a workshop experience seems to be one of the most important factors in producing change among male (or female) participants. This is consistent with findings from the drug prevention, sexual assault prevention, and child abuse prevention fields and is consistent across a wide variety of studies with different methodologies, samples, and intervention strategies:

> In general, any intervention that provides for active participation is more effective than one that requires only passive participation. For example, interactive theater with audience participation is a more powerful intervention than a presentation without discussion or audience participation. An interactive theater presentation with audience discussion followed by discussion in small groups is an ideal way to combine large and smaller program formats. Creating intensive programs which foster interaction, discussion and reflection require that we focus on process as well as content, and replace rigid structure with flexibility. (Berkowitz, 2001, p. 77)

Several workshops for men have been developed since the early 1990s, when Berkowitz (1992), Birnbaum and Weinburg (1991), Corcoran (1992), and Kivel (1992) articulated the need for a male role in the prevention of sexual assault and violence. Since then, several programs and curricula have been developed that focus on men's responsibility for preventing sexual assault, including workshops by Berkowitz (1994b), Katz (1995), Schewe and O'Donohue (1996), Foubert and colleagues (Foubert, 2000; Foubert & Marriott, 1997; Foubert & McEwen, 1998), Mahlstedt and Corcoran (1999), and Men Can Stop Rape (MCSR, 2000). These programs are designed to encourage open, honest discussion in all-male audiences and tend to focus on one or more of the following themes: developing empathy for victims; learning how to achieve mutual, uncoerced consent in intimate relationships; teaching skills for intervening with other men to prevent sexual assault or interrupt sexism; and understanding the cultural and socialization issues that contribute to the problem. Information on these programs is provided in Appendix A.

These sexual assault prevention programs share several common assumptions:

- Men should take primary responsibility for preventing sexual assault.
- The best approach to working with men is to view them as prevention partners rather than blaming them for the problem of rape and sexual assault.
- Workshops are most effective when conducted by peer educators in small, all-male groups.
- Discussions should be interactive and encourage honest sharing of feelings, ideas, and beliefs.
- Opportunities should be created to discuss and critique prevailing understandings and (mis)perceptions of men's experience.

In addition to these underlying assumptions, each program emphasizes one or more of the program elements listed below. (The components of men's prevention programs that follow are adapted from Berkowitz [2001], which provides an overview of effective program elements for all-male, all-female, and coeducational workshops. See Exhibit 7.2 for more information.)

In practice, it may not be possible to incorporate all of these elements in a particular program, and in fact it may be possible to develop a highly effective program that is based on only a few. When possible, however, it is important to cover all or most of these at least briefly in the context of an interactive workshop format. Thus, the suggested program components should serve as guidelines rather than requirements. These guidelines can also be used as a training outline for peer educators and staff who will be

EXHIBIT 7.2
Critical Elements of Sexual Assault Prevention Programs for Men

1. Emphasize men's responsibility for preventing sexual assault.
2. Emphasize that sexual activity is a choice.
3. Provide information about the definitions and severity of the problem.
4. Inform participants about relevant local laws and policies.
5. Explore characteristics of risky situations.
6. Understand consent and how to be sure that both parties are fully consenting.
7. Address the role of alcohol and other drugs.
8. Distinguish issues of miscommunication from abuse of power or coercion.
9. Understand the range of coercive behaviors that men are socialized to employ.
10. Explore relevant aspects of male gender socialization and the role of sexism in facilitating sexual assaults.
11. Challenge rape myths and reduce victim blaming.
12. Challenge myths and assumptions regarding the role of sexuality and sexual activity in men's lives.
13. Address men's false fear of false accusation.
14. Reduce enabling behavior and increase bystander interventions among men.
15. Increase empathy for victims and understanding of the impact of rape.
16. Educate about heterosexist or ethnocentric assumptions about sexuality and sex.
17. Acknowledge male victimization.
18. Provide information about local resources and services.
19. Explore opportunities for men to take social action to raise other men's awareness about the problem of sexual assault.

Note. Adapted from A. Berkowitz, "Critical Elements of Sexual-Assault Prevention and Risk Reduction Programs for Men and Women" in C. Kilmartin, *Sexual Assault in Context* (2001) by permission of Learning Publications, Holmes Beach, FL.

facilitating programs. In general, individuals involved in providing a program should be familiar with relevant research and information for each program element. Familiarity with these elements will ensure that facilitators have been exposed to the wide range of issues that pertain to sexual assault.

1. *Emphasize men's responsibility for preventing sexual assault.* Men's denial of the problem of sexual assault because of the assumption that sexual assault is a "women's problem" and the failure of most men to intervene with other men are two barriers to effective prevention for men. Thus, men's programming should clearly outline men's responsibility for prevention and help participants understand how men are hurt by sexual assault, not only indirectly through relationships with victims but also directly in terms of how it hurts men and men's relationships with each other. As noted earlier, men should be enlisted as partners in the prevention of sexual assault rather than being blamed or accused of causing the problem.

2. *Emphasize that sexual activity is a choice and that all people, at any time, are free to choose whether or not to be sexually active and how.* There is a danger of reinforcing the assumption that all or most men are sexually active. For example, studies of college students indicated that men routinely overestimate the amount of sexual activity of their peers, thus creating increased pressure to be sexually active (Berkowitz, 1993, 2000a; Morgan 1997). In one study, more than two thirds of men reported experiencing unwanted sex because of perceived pressure from male peers (Muehlenard & Cook, 1988). Data from several secondary school settings have indicated that high school men overestimate their peers' sexual activity even more dramatically (Berkowitz, 2000b; B. Bruce, 1999). It is thus important that the choice to not be sexually active is emphasized and that myths about the presumed sexual activity of older and younger men are debunked.

3. *Provide information about the legal definitions and severity of the problem of sexual assault.* When possible, this information should be specific to your school, campus, or community (Gray, Lesser, Quinn, & Bounds, 1990).

4. *Inform participants about relevant local laws and policies.* This includes school or campus policies for colleges and universities, as well as local and state policies. When confronted with information on sexual assault, men may focus on legal details and definitions as a way of avoiding the interpersonal, moral, and emotional aspects of the issue. Thus, a focus on statistics and information should be minimized to allow time for discussion and interaction, and overly legalistic and formalistic discussions should be avoided. It is useful to remind participants that if they learn ways to ensure that all sexual intimacy is mutual and consenting, concern with the law and definitions will become unnecessary.

5. *Explore characteristics of risky situations.* Ambiguity about sexual intent, unresponsiveness on the part of the other person, and unverified assumptions about what the other person wants are examples of situations that are problematic or risky.

6. *Understand consent and how to be sure that both parties are fully consenting.* According to Berkowitz (1994b), consent requires that both parties are fully conscious, have equal ability to act, are positive and sincere in their desires, and have clearly communicated their intent. A consent model avoids technical and legalistic discussions regarding whether or not a rape occurred and helps men focus on what they can do to minimize

their risk of perpetrating a sexual assault. An excellent way to promote discussion about risky situations and explore the conditions of consenting intimacy is through the discussion of realistic scenarios that can occur on campus or in a community. These scenarios can explore gender differences in the misperception of sexual intent (Abbey, 1982, 1987) and foster discussion about whether both parties were consenting in a particular situation.

7. *Address the role of alcohol and other drugs.* This should be done from the perspective of both victim and perpetrator (including the use of "date rape" drugs). It is extremely important to discuss the effects of alcohol consumption and how alcohol can facilitate assault both physiologically and cognitively (Abbey, McAuslan, & Ross, 1998; Abbey, Zawacki, & McAuslan, 2000). Abbey, Ross, and McDuffie (1994) have identified five effects of alcohol on men that may be implicated in a sexual assault perpetrated by a male on a female:

   - It encourages the expression of traditional gender role beliefs about sexual behavior.
   - It triggers alcohol expectancies associated with male sexuality and aggression.
   - It engages stereotypes about the sexual availability of women who drink alcohol.
   - It increases the likelihood that men will misperceive women's friendly cues as a sign of sexual interest.
   - Inebriation is viewed as a justification for men to commit sexual assault.

8. *Distinguish issues of miscommunication from abuse of power or coercion.* Although poor communication is a risk factor for sexual assault, all sexual assault results from the imposition of one person's wishes on another. Strategies for improving communication assume that both parties have equal power, which is not the case in situations leading to sexual assault (Corcoran, 1992). Thus, although communication strategies may be emphasized and can form the basis for a workshop on healthy relationships, they should not be the main focus of sexual assault prevention programs. There is evidence, however, that teaching women assertive communication may be an effective risk reduction strategy (Muehlenhard & Andrews, 1985).

9. *Understand the range of coercive behaviors that men are socialized to employ.* Coercive behaviors should be presented in the context of a continuum ranging from verbal pressure to im-

plied threats of force, actual force, or rape. The Sexual Experiences Survey (Koss & Gidycz, 1987) is an excellent survey instrument for documenting the range of coercive behaviors that constitute unwanted intimacy. Presentation of physically violent rapes or of situations in which lack of permission is clearly evident may allow men to disown the possibility that they could also be perpetrators in a more ambiguous situation. Instead, men must learn that there are more subtle forms of coercion and influence that operate in interpersonal relationships and learn the skills necessary to ensure that equality of choice and action is the basis of all intimate relationships. In some cases, men may act in ways that are experienced as coercive by the other person without realizing that this is the case. Thus, the full range of coercive situations, from subtle to overt, and from verbal to physical, and from intentional to unintentional should be discussed and represented in examples. Understanding the dynamics of coercive behavior and the possibility of unintentional coercion are critical issues for men.

10. *Explore relevant aspects of male gender socialization and the role of sexism in facilitating sexual assault.* Many of the traditional behaviors and roles that men are socialized into can increase the likelihood of sexual assault (Berkowitz, Burkhart, & Bourg, 1994; Kilmartin, 2001). These gender roles are taught to all men and therefore we are all influenced by them. Educational programs should thus include discussion of the relationship between gender role socialization, gender role stereotyping, and sexual assault.

11. *Challenge rape myths and reduce victim blaming.* Myths about victims and perpetrators that serve to justify or condone sexual assault must be discussed and critiqued. Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994) and Ward (1995) have provided an extensive discussion of rape myths and their role in victim blaming. Preliminary studies reviewed by Berkowitz (2000a) have suggested that men overestimate the extent to which other men adhere to these rape myths.

12. *Challenge myths and assumptions regarding the role of sexuality and sexual activity in men's lives.* Frequent heterosexual sex is equated with masculinity in many men's upbringing, whether or not this is actually true in men's lives (Levant & Pollack, 1995; Pleck, 1981). Pressures men feel to be sexually active and to live up to male myths of sexual activity and prowess are thus important to deconstruct and critique. As noted earlier, these myths perpetuate false perceptions of other men's

sexual activity, with most men overestimating the sexual activity of friends and peers (Berkowitz, 2000a).

13. *Address men's false fear of false accusation.* Men's (false) fear of false accusation provides an opportunity to explore strategies for achieving consent and the ways in which men can be unintentionally coercive. False accusations do occur but they are extremely rare, accounting for only 2% of all rape charges, a false accusation rate which is similar to that for other crimes (U.S. Department of Criminal Justice, 1989). This misperception is fostered by the media, which may provide prominent coverage to occasional instances of false accusations while devoting less attention to frequently occurring rapes. In workshop discussions, men frequently overestimate the rate of false reports, believing that most men are unfairly accused. Most men, however, are willing to acknowledge on reflection that a man may think he has permission when he actually does not. This discussion allows men to understand how a woman could have been assaulted even though the man she accuses claims to be innocent.

14. *Reduce enabling behaviors and increase bystander interventions among men.* Programs for men must move beyond a focus on individual responsibility to emphasize men's responsibility to each other to intervene and challenge inappropriate comments, actions, or behavior. Research that is based on social norms theory (Berkowitz, 2000a; S. Bruce, 2000; Kilmartin et al., 1999) has documented that most men are in fact uncomfortable with the behavior of the minority of men who exploit or objectify women. Prevention programs should therefore help men move from passive silence (which may be misinterpreted as support) to active opposition and intervention when inappropriate behavior is witnessed. An overview of the literature on bystander behavior and its application to sexual assault prevention for men is found in Berkowitz (2000a). This issue can be addressed in workshops by providing and discussing statistics about true norms of discomfort among men and by analyzing scenarios in which men stand by and do not confront behavior that makes them feel uncomfortable.

15. *Increase empathy for victims and understanding of the impact of rape.* Most men are capable of empathy and will be inhibited from acting in coercive ways when the full effects and trauma of sexual assault are understood. This information can be provided by victim stories and testimony, in skits and vignettes, or by the personal sharing of men who have been secondary victims. (Note that I discuss several philosophical and meth-

odological issues in victim empathy approaches later in this chapter.)

16. *Educate about heterosexist or ethnocentric assumptions about sexuality and sex.* Sexual assault can occur between individuals of any race or sexual orientation. It is thus important to provide information or examples that dispel myths about the identity of perpetrators and victims. One technique for doing this is to provide a scenario that uses names for the perpetrator and victim that could be male or female (e.g., Chris and Pat). A discussion about participant assumptions regarding Chris and Pat's gender and race can be illuminating.

17. *Acknowledge male victimization.* Men may have particular difficulty acknowledging that a male can be the victim of unwanted sex. It is thus important to carefully define and provide statistics on male victimization and explore men's discomfort discussing this issue. Michael Scarce (1997), victim advocate and educator, has written an excellent book on issues facing male victims.

18. *Provide information about local community resources and services.* Participants should be made aware of the local community services for victims, such as rape crisis centers, the availability of rape kits/exams, victim support and advocacy services, and activities and programs for men.

19. *Explore opportunities for men to take social action to raise other men's awareness about the problem of sexual assault.* Workshop participants should be encouraged to become involved in political and social efforts to end violence against women. This could include participating (as appropriate) in a local Take Back the Night Event, sponsoring a White Ribbon Campaign (Kilmartin, 1996), establishing a chapter of Men Against Violence (Hong, 2000), or taking part in efforts to call attention to the problem of sexual assault. Information on programs that provide men an opportunity to engage in social activism and foster societal change with respect to sexual assault are provided in Appendix B.

AN INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENTAL MODEL OF RAPE PREVENTION FOR MEN

Individual men and communities of men may differ in their recognition of the problem of intimate violence against women and in their willingness to take responsibility for ending it. Are there certain approaches that are more appropriate with particular groups of men or individual

campuses? Because sexual assault prevention can be conceptualized as a developmental process of change, different interventions are recommended for men at earlier and later stages in the change process.

There are two useful frameworks for looking at men's responsibility for sexual assault prevention from a developmental perspective. One addresses bystander behavior. If men live in a culture that encourages or condones violence against women, individual men may vary along a bystander continuum from passive indifference to commitment to intervene. Research on bystander behavior has identified five stages in this process: noticing the event, interpreting it as a problem, feeling responsible for a solution, possessing the necessary skills to act, and intervention (Latane & Darley, 1970). Berkowitz (1998, 2000a) has suggested that the stages of the bystander model can provide an organizing framework for sexual assault prevention efforts.

Men's willingness to take responsibility for preventing sexual assault can also be conceptualized in terms of a "stages of change" model. The stages of change theory outlines an individual's readiness for change in stages and proposes interventions to create movement from one stage to another. It has led to the development of "motivational interviewing," which has been used successfully in therapeutic interventions for drug abusers (Miller & Rollnick, 1991). Five stages are posited within stages of change theory: precontemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, and maintenance.

Both the bystander behavior and the stages of change models attempt to match interventions with the individual's ability to take responsibility for change. In Table 7.1, the stages within each model are matched with questions or goals that can be addressed with men regarding their relationship to the problem of sexual assault. These questions are designed to introduce cognitive dissonance about beliefs and assumptions prevalent at each stage and provide information that will foster a shift to the next stage.

The different approaches to working with men described here (empathy induction, conditions of consent, and bystander interventions) map nicely onto the proposed developmental model. Thus, an empathy induction approach might be most effective in situations where there is little awareness or recognition of the problem. Although empathy induction approaches do not challenge or attempt to change men's socialization and identity as men, they begin the process by encouraging men to acknowledge and take the problem of rape seriously. Teaching men the conditions of consent introduces the need for men to change personal behavior by providing skills that can be used to prevent individual men from perpetrating sexual assault. The consent model requires that men question their assumptions and beliefs about intimacy, consent, and perceptions of intent and consider the fact that men can be wrong about what sexual partners want. Thus, it requires a deeper level of change than empathy induction

TABLE 7.1
A Developmental Model of Sexual Assault Prevention
Interventions for Men

Stage of bystander behavior or change	Questions or concerns for men
1. Notice the event (Precontemplation)	Is sexual assault a problem on this campus? How is sexual assault defined? Is it possible for a man to sexually assault someone and not realize it?
2. Interpret it as a problem (Contemplation)	How does sexual assault hurt men? How does sexual assault hurt women? Are men falsely afraid of false accusations? How are men hurt by other men's behavior?
3. Feel responsible for a solution (Preparation)	How can I be sure that the desire for intimacy is mutual? What are the different ways that men can be unintentionally coercive? What can men do to change other men?
4. Possess the skills to act and intervene (Action)	Learn conversational skills. Take active steps to reduce risk factors for sexual assault. Learn to intervene in other men's behavior.
5. Maintenance	What responses from women and other men serve to reinforce and promote changes in men's attitudes and behavior?

approaches. The bystander model moves beyond individual change by framing sexual assault prevention as a social problem that requires that men intervene in other men's behavior (Corcoran & Mahlstedt, 1998; Funk & Berkowitz, 2000; Mahlstedt & Corcoran, 1999). Both the conditions of consent and bystander approaches implicitly ask men to reexamine the socialization and cultural conditioning of men and promote alternate ways of being a man.

Thus, rather than the different approaches to working with men being viewed as mutually exclusive, they can be conceptualized as stages along a continuum of change. Intervention strategies can be designed that begin at the level of awareness of most men in the population of concern and then followed with sequenced activities that attempt to move participants into later stages. When there is time, this staging can be incorporated into individual workshop interventions, or it can provide a framework for designing and sequencing activities over a longer period of time, such as an academic year. Thus, each approach to rape prevention may be appropriate as a sexual assault prevention strategy in a given environment, with appropriately sequenced interventions moving men through the stages of change and bystander behavior models.

FUTURE DIRECTIONS FOR THE FIELD

Progress as of this writing in developing rape prevention programs for men and in evaluating their effectiveness has been slowed by conceptual and methodological limitations (Burkhart, Bourg, & Berkowitz, 1994, Schewe & O'Donohue, 1993). Thus, in this final section I make recommendations for addressing several methodological limitations and for improving the effectiveness of prevention programs.

Research and Measurement Issues

Several researchers have pointed out the need for more sensitive and contemporary measures of behavior, particularly measures of empathy and other measures of program outcome, and for comparative evaluation of prevention programs.

Empathy Induction

Empathy induction programs use a variety of formats, presenting participants with stories of female victims, male victims, or both female and male victims. Ten published studies using this approach were reviewed by Schewe (chapter 5, this volume). In the two unsuccessful interventions (and in an 11th study Schewe did not review conducted by Berg, Lonsway, and Fitzgerald in 1999), men were asked to empathize with a female victim only. The other eight programs, which included both male and female victims, were successful in producing attitude change.

It is interesting to speculate about why the three programs with only female victims were unsuccessful in changing men's attitudes. Perhaps asking men to empathize with female victims is unsuccessful if other questions and concerns of men are not addressed first. Thus, it may be necessary to first empathize with men's concerns and misunderstandings about sexual assault before asking these same men to be sympathetic to women's experience as victims.

A victim empathy approach developed by Foubert (Foubert, 2000; Foubert & Marriott, 1997; Foubert & McEwen, 1998) has successfully changed men's attitudes using a video of a male survivor of rape telling his story. Davis (1999) and Scarce (1999) expressed concerns about this approach, noting the absence of female voices and the danger of appealing to traditional masculinity through a focus on men's helping persona.

In light of the current research and concerns about workshops with only male or female victim perspectives, it seems prudent to incorporate the perspectives of both male and female victims in programs designed to enhance victim empathy.

Outcome Measures

Several researchers have suggested that instruments used to evaluate program effectiveness are outdated or lacking in focus. For example, Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994), in an extensive review of the literature on rape myths, identified problems in conceptual clarity and definitional consistency, domain articulation, psychometric adequacy, and theoretical power. These problems led them to develop a new instrument that addresses these difficulties, the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999). Another new scale has been developed by Lanier and Elliot (1997). Berg, Lonsway, and Fitzgerald (1999) identified similar problems in their review of instruments measuring empathy, noting that the measures commonly used to assess empathy focus on a generic sense of empathy, which may not capture the more rape-specific form of empathy that empathy induction programs attempt to foster in men. They proposed that measures of empathy should be developed that are more specific to the experience of rape. Thus, future evaluations of sexual assault prevention programs should make use of these newer attitude scales and attempt to conceptualize empathy in a way that is more specific to the problem of rape.

Although one of the strongest influences on men's behavior is other men, outcome variables have seldom focused on measures relevant to men's experience of each other. This is despite considerable evidence from studies reported by Berkowitz (2000a) suggesting that men misperceive other men's degree of sexual activity, adherence to rape myths, willingness to use coercion to gain sex, and level of discomfort with language which objectifies and degrades women. Berkowitz (2000a) suggested that these misperceptions encourage men to keep their true feelings hidden from other men and encourage passive bystander behavior. Measures should therefore be developed that assess perceptions men have of each other that can be used to evaluate future program effectiveness. It is possible that changes on these dimensions of men's experience may need to occur before actual reductions in the rates of perpetration take place.

Finally, it is also important to develop specific outcome measures that are appropriate to the goals of risk reduction and deterrence programs for women. In existing research, most outcome measures have been gender neutral despite the fact that gender-specific programs have been shown to be more desirable and effective. Thus, outcome measures must be developed that are gender specific and that evaluate the different program outcomes that are sought for each gender.[1]

Comparative Evaluations

Breitenbecher (2000) reviewed 15 studies that compared the relative effectiveness of two or more program formats. She found that different treatments tended to have equal effectiveness and concluded that "the literature

suggests that some intervention is better than no intervention, and that different interventions are most often equal in terms of effectiveness" (p. 31). This finding supports the conclusion that program process (Davis, 2000), or how the program is delivered, may be more important than program content, or what material is presented.

Program Design and Implementation

In addition to the issues presented earlier in this chapter, several areas of program design and implementation remain problematic. These areas include developing methods for fostering interactive discussion, developing collaborative partnerships with women, addressing the needs of subpopulations of men, and developing environmental approaches to sexual assault prevention that can create a comprehensive environment of change.

Fostering Interactive Discussions

As noted earlier, the evaluation literature has highlighted the importance of interactive discussions that emphasize program process in addition to content. Davis (2000) reviewed three program process dimensions that are important to constructing a safe learning environment: all-male workshops, facilitators the audience can identify with (e.g., peer educators), and small interactive discussion groups. To ensure that programs provide safe and effective learning environments for men, program facilitators need to be trained in process and facilitation skills in addition to being provided with information and materials. Experiences with Hobart College's rape prevention program (described in Appendix A) suggest that facilitator training should provide male facilitators with the opportunity to explore personal issues and challenges; create safety to allow intimate feelings and perceptions to be shared; and teach men that it is possible to have open, honest discussion in all-male groups. Such training discussions are transforming, resulting in facilitators changing their views about gender, intimacy, and sexual assault (Mahlstedt & Corcoran, 1999; Simon, Paris, & Ramsay, 1994). This training experience provides male facilitators with the ability to create similar conditions in workshops with peers.

Working With Female Colleagues

Men involved in providing rape prevention programs for men have a responsibility to work closely and collaboratively with female colleagues, soliciting their views, input, and support. Although it is important for men to take responsibility for rape prevention, women have developed and led several highly effective programs. Hong (2000) and Mahlstedt and Corcoran (1999) have explored in depth the issues and pedagogy involved in women training men. At Hobart College, female colleagues, staff, student leaders,

and rape crisis center staff were given the opportunity to view the men's rape prevention program each year, providing the opportunity for valuable feedback and dialogue. It is important to develop such relationships before initiating prevention programming for men to ensure that there is compatibility of goals and methods, to avoid sending mixed or competing messages, and to prevent competition for scarce resources. Men's programs should also incorporate a social activism component that explicitly supports and contributes to victim advocacy and service agencies.

A workshop for men and women led by a coeducational team would be a perfect follow-up to a single-gender workshop. This experience would allow both genders to listen to each others' perspectives after addressing the issue separately and allow facilitators to model collaboration and respect between women and men.

Subpopulations of Men

Tailoring rape prevention programs for men to the characteristics of particular male groups is an important strategy. The literature on successful prevention programs has suggested that relevance is a critical component of program success (Berkowitz, 1997, 2001). The Mentors in Violence Prevention program (Katz, 1995) was developed for working with athletes, and both The Men's Program (Foubert, 1998) and the Fraternity Violence Education Project (Mahlstedt & Corcoran, 1999) have primarily been used with fraternity members. However, very few studies have looked at ethnic issues in sexual assault prevention for men. Heppner, Neville, Smith, Kivlighan, and Gershuny (1999) conducted the only study assessing the differential impact of programs on men from different racial backgrounds. They found that generic race-neutral programs were effective for White men but not for men of color and that programs with a copresenter of color and relevant ethnic content were effective for both groups. In another study, no difference was found in the rates of sexual aggression among Asian American and White men, but differences were found between the groups in the relative influence of individualistic and collectivistic determinants of aggressive behavior (Hall, Sue, Narang, & Lilly, 2000). These results strongly suggest the importance of developing programs that are either tailored to the needs of a particular group or conducted in a way that is inclusive and welcoming of all backgrounds. A critical oversight is the lack of research examining the needs of gay and bisexual men with respect to rape prevention programming.

Creating a Comprehensive Environment of Change

Researchers who have reviewed and critiqued the evaluation literature have noted that attitudinal changes that result from sexual assault prevention programs are of short duration (Brecklin & Forde, 2001; Gidycz et al., 2002; Lonsway, 1996; Schewe, chapter 5, this volume). These improvements

in men's attitudes tend to "rebound" after a period of time, that is, after a few months, the initial changes disappear. This phenomenon is often seen as an indication of program failure. However, given the prevalence and intensity of attitudes men have learned over a lifetime, one can also view the temporary changes produced by an intervention of approximately an hour as a success. Perhaps it is unrealistic to expect longer lasting changes to come about from a single, short intervention. For example, there is some evidence that the rebound effect can be eliminated for some men when interventions are longer and take place over time (Heppner et al., 1999).

Anderson et al. (1998) suggested that a variety of interventions should be offered throughout an individual's college experience, with later interventions serving as "boosters" for earlier ones. Sequenced programs could be combined with environmental interventions such as social norms marketing campaigns to correct misperceptions relating to sexual assault (Berkowitz, 2000a). Similar techniques have been effectively used in the drug prevention field (Berkowitz, 1997, 2000a). Thus, interventions that are sequenced, synergistic, and mutually reinforcing are likely to be more effective than single, isolated ones that do not contain common messages or refer to each other. These interventions can be directed at individuals who are at risk for perpetuating an assault, to groups of men who live or associate with each other, and to the larger campus community. What is important is that all sexual assault prevention efforts be viewed comprehensively and integrated with each other to create common and reinforcing messages.

Environmental interventions that have been successfully used on other campuses include the White Ribbon Campaign, a week of men's activism to prevent violence against women first developed in Canada (Kilmartin, 1996); appropriate participation in Take Back the Night Marches; formation of Men Against Violence chapters (Hong, 2000); and social norms media campaigns to correct men's misperception of other men's attitudes and behaviors (Berkowitz, 2000a; S. Bruce, 2000; Kilmartin et al., 1999).

A case example of a sequenced, integrated intervention was developed by Alan Berkowitz and Rocco Capraro at Hobart College over a period of 10 years. During first-year orientation, a brief program introduced new students to the problems of sexual assault. In the beginning of the fall semester, all first-year men were required to attend the Rape Prevention Program for Men (Berkowitz, 1994b). A parallel workshop focusing on risk reduction and deterrence was offered to first-year women at the same time. Each program contained references to the opposite gender program. Similar workshops were offered throughout the year to upper-class men in fraternities and on athletic teams and as part of resident adviser training. This was followed by a winter symposium extending over a period of weeks titled "Men and Masculinity," which addressed issues of contemporary importance to men through a combination of all-campus lectures open to men and women and more focused, interactive discussions and workshops for men only (Capraro & Berkowitz,

1986–1990). In the spring, a White Ribbon Campaign was conducted the week before Take Back the Night to raise men's awareness of the problem of violence against women and reduce backlash from men who felt defensive as a result of the march. During the march, men gathered to look at the Clothesline Project and then met in small groups with trained facilitators to discuss what participants could do to prevent intimate violence against women. At the conclusion of the Take Back the Night March, the men joined the female marchers to listen to several speeches and personal testimonials in the form of speak-outs by women. A debriefing was held after the speak-outs to provide men with the opportunity to reflect on and share reactions to what they heard. This format modeled men's accountability to women in sexual assault prevention work, the need for men and women to work collaboratively, and the need for men and women to have separate spaces to do gender work.

CONCLUSION

Almost 2 decades of research and program development have resulted in dramatic gains in the creation of interventions that address men's responsibility for preventing sexual assault. Insights developed from the women's movement and feminist studies in particular have led to new understandings of men's experience and the development of new strategies for working with men. The most promising interventions provide men the opportunity to drop the "tough" guise of masculinity and engage in open, honest discussion about their feelings, attitudes, and behaviors in a nonblaming environment. The process of honest dialogue about sexual assault prevention in a safe environment of men contradicts many aspects of men's socialization and fosters actions that can inhibit or prevent sexual assault.

I have presented a theoretical and programmatic rationale for working in all-male groups to prevent sexual assault, reviewed critical program elements and effective strategies, proposed an integrative developmental model for working with men, and made recommendations for the future. I hope that new research will refine further an understanding of what is effective with men and why it is effective and also lead to the development of new and better programs to help eliminate sexual assault and rape.

END NOTE

[1]Editor's note: Schewe, in collaboration with Berkowitz, Heppner, Lonsway, and 30 prevention educators from the Illinois Coalition Against Sexual Assault, is currently in the process of developing such a measure.

APPENDIX A
MODEL RAPE PREVENTION PROGRAMS FOR MEN

This appendix provides information on programs designed exclusively for men that have published protocols and outlines that can be easily replicated on college campuses and in secondary schools. Although all these programs were developed for use with a college-age audience, they can be adapted for younger men by incorporating issues such as sexual harassment (which may be more relevant and appropriate for younger audiences than an exclusive focus on rape prevention). The programs are presented in the order that they were developed, from oldest to most recent.

Rape Prevention Program for Men

Developer: Alan D. Berkowitz, Independent Consultant, Trumansburg, NY; 607-387-3789; *alan@fltg.net*

Berkowitz (1994b) was among the first to develop a protocol and program focusing on men's responsibility for preventing sexual assault. The Rape Prevention Program for Men (RPPM) was developed at Hobart College in 1987 and has been offered as a required workshop for all first-year men each year since. It attempts to bring men's discomfort with the opportunistic and coercive sexual behavior of some men out in the open so that discomfort with such behavior can be shared and acted on. It also teaches guidelines for consenting sexual intimacy. *Consent* is defined as a situation in which both parties are fully conscious, equally free to act, and have positively and clearly communicated their intent (Berkowitz, 1994a). The workshop encourages men to share their "frustrations at being a male on campus," as well as issues such as men's (false) fear of false accusation, intimate situations in which attribution of responsibility is unclear to men, and developing empathy for sexual assault victims. The original form of the workshop used a video that portrayed events leading up to and after a sexual assault. The video has since been replaced by scenarios that portray an intimate encounter between a male and female, men's discomfort with other men's language and behavior, and men's experience of pressure to be sexually active from other men (sample workshop scenarios can be obtained from the author).

This program was evaluated in a study by Earle (1996) that compared three program formats with a nontreatment (control) group. The RPPM is single gender and conducted in small groups by trained peer facilitators with a focus on discussion and interaction. It was compared with two coeducational programs presented by professional staff. One used an interactive, small group discussion format, and the other was a large group lecture. Of the three interventions, only the RPPM produced positive changes in rape myth acceptance and attitudes toward women in comparison with the control group.

The RPPM was also evaluated in a study by Davis (1997, 2000), in which it was compared with another small group, interactive rape prevention program with a focus on issues of male socialization. Both programs reduced rape-supportive attitudes and increased men's understanding of the difference between consent and coercion in a posttest administered immediately after the workshop, although these improvements were no longer present 6 weeks later.

Mentors in Violence Prevention Program

Developer: Center for the Study of Sport in Society, Northeastern University; 617-373-4025; *www.sportinsociety.org*

The Mentors in Violence Prevention (MVP) program trains student-athletes to exercise leadership among peers by teaching skills to intervene when other men speak or act inappropriately toward women. MVP was originally developed by Jackson Katz (1995) and is a program of the Center for the Study of Sport in Society at Northeastern University. The MVP model involves three sessions each year with each participating college team. A fourth session is scheduled for athletes who are interested in presenting programs to younger audiences. The main focus of the workshop is the "MVP Playbook," a series of party and residence hall scenarios portraying actual or potential sexual assaults, inappropriate language, and bystander behavior. The goal of MVP is to teach men to take responsibility for sexual assault prevention by intervening in other men's behavior. In addition to programs for male college and high school students, the MVP model can be used with nonathletes and has been adopted by the Marine Corps for use with its soldiers. MVP is currently being evaluated to determine its effectiveness.

Date Rape Prevention: A Video Intervention for College Students

Developer: Northwest Media; 800-777-6636; *www.northwestmedia.com/health/daterape.html*

This 45-minute videotaped program contains three segments that cover rape myths, victim empathy, and the negative consequences of committing rape. The first segment portrays college students with a variety of viewpoints discussing a publicized rape that occurred on their campus. The purpose of this segment is to provide the audience with more accurate information to replace widely held rape-supportive beliefs. The second segment presents several victims of rape as they tell about their abuse. The purpose of this segment is to help the male audience empathize with the pain that rape survivors feel both during and after being raped. The final segment portrays several men who have sexually coerced or raped women. The purpose of

this segment is to highlight the negative consequences that raping holds for men. Program segments are described in more detail in Schewe and O'Donohue (1996), the authors of the program. The segments can stand alone, be incorporated into previously existing workshops, or used in sequence.

This video was evaluated in a study comparing it to a peer-facilitated discussion of sexual assault, a placebo intervention, and a control group. Of the four conditions, only the video and the placebo were effective in changing posttreatment scores on scales assessing rape myth and attitude toward sexual assault, while only the video was effective in changing scores for "high-risk" males. Thus, it may show some promise as an effective tool for working with men who have high rape proclivity.

The Men's Program

Developer: John D. Foubert, Office of the Dean of Students, University of Virginia; 804-924-3736; *NOMORE@virginia.edu*

The Men's Program is designed to build empathy in men for female rape survivors. It is presented in a lecture format, with discussion of a video developed by the Seattle Police Department describing the rape of a male police officer by two other men. The program is designed to help men understand what it might feel like to be raped to develop empathy for female victims. It assumes that men will be able transfer the empathy generated by the workshop to female victims and draws from research suggesting that victim empathy approaches are less effective when female victims are portrayed (Schewe, chapter 5, this volume). An excellent manual has been developed for those interested in training peer educators who can offer the program (Foubert, 1998), and the author has cited studies that the workshop has produced reductions in rape-supportive attitudes in several studies (Foubert, 2000; Foubert & Marriott, 1997; Foubert & McEwen, 1998).

This program has generated controversy for several reasons. Davis (1999) reviewed the evaluation studies of the workshop and concluded that "the results of these studies raise concerns about the confidence with which several claims are made based on tenuous findings and important methodological limitations" (p. 756). These include the fact that in two of the three studies, changes in the experimental group were also observed in the control group (Foubert & Marriott, 1997; Foubert & McEwen, 1998), undermining the author's claim of program effectiveness. Davis (1999) and Scarce (1999) also objected to the absence of women's voices in the workshop and its appeal to traditional models of masculinity (i.e., men's helper persona). In addition, Scarce argued that the workshop may stimulate men's latent homophobia by portraying the rape of a man by a man. Finally, the author's claim that the program can "successfully lower men's likelihood of raping" (which is featured prominently on the cover of the workshop manual) actually refers to a

reduction in men's self-reported intent of raping, which was not associated with a reduction in actual levels of coercive behavior in a 7-month follow-up.

Despite these criticisms, The Men's Program is theoretically based and is one of the most thoroughly evaluated rape prevention programs for men. The video comes with an excellent manual and supporting materials.

Fraternity Violence Education Project

Developer: Deborah Mahlstedt, Department of Psychology, West Chester University, West Chester, PA; 610-436-3525; contact *dmahlstedt@wcpa.edu*

The FVEP provides fraternity leaders with an intensive exposure to issues of violence against women. During a one-semester course, participants are exposed to an extensive feminist analysis of male violence and power and receive training to present skits to fraternity members about male violence and sexual harassment. The workshops are offered over the course of the second semester, followed by a final term paper evaluating the year-long experience. The program, described in Mahlstedt and Corcoran (1999), has a manual with an excellent outline of the training curriculum, workshop skits and exercises, and a video titled "Men's Work" (Mahlstedt, 1999). The FVEP manual and video portray changes male facilitators experience over time as traditional values and gender definitions are examined and revised. A major focus of FVEP has been to qualitatively evaluate how men change and process material when exposed to a feminist analysis of male violence, privilege, and patriarchy. The program has not been evaluated quantitatively.

The video follows a group of fraternity brothers enrolled in FVEP over the course of their 1-year training period. In an all-male, peer-led seminar, they explore the causes of violence against women, examine their own attitudes and behavior, and begin speaking to other men on campus about men's responsibility to stop violence against women. The video provides a framework for college-age men to understand the causes of violence against women and what men can do to stop it. It examines difficult issues such as sexual objectification, peer pressure, and male privilege, and it presents positive role models for young men, challenging them to take responsibility to stop violence against women.

The video can be used in a variety of ways. In a large group format it provides an introduction to the issue of sexual assault and inspires young men to take action. In small group workshop settings, it can be used to involve men in more in-depth discussions about the causes and ways to prevent violence against women. Finally, in mixed-sex classroom settings, the video can be used to educate students about the issue and show women and men how men can take responsibility to end violence against women. The video is organized into five segments that each focus on a causal element—such as sexual objectification, male institutional power, hypermasculinity, and alcohol, and each section ends with a discussion question.

**Speaking With Men About Sexism and Sexual Violence
Trainer's Manual**

Developer: Men Can Stop Rape, P.O. Box 5144, Washington, DC 20037-7144; 202-265-6530; *info@mrpp.org* or *http://www.mencanstoprape.org*

Men Can Stop Rape (MCSR) of Washington, DC, is a nonprofit organization that works to prevent rape and other forms of male violence through community education, consulting, research, and public action (see description in Appendix B). MCSR sponsors activities to empower male youths and the institutions that serve them to work as allies with women in preventing rape and other forms of men's violence. MCSR sponsors training weekends in which men and women are taught to facilitate a sexual assault prevention workshop developed by MCSR. The training manual is available separately. The manual covers facts, myths, and causes of sexual assault; describes ways for men to interrupt sexism and intervene in problematic behavior of men; discusses process issues in facilitating a workshop for men; and provides a workshop outline. The manual is thorough and comprehensive and is an excellent resource for rape prevention educators. This program has not yet been evaluated.

Note. From *Speaking with men about sexism and sexual violence: Training packet.* Copyright 2000 by Men Can Stop Rape. Reprinted with permission.

APPENDIX B
RESOURCES FOR SOCIAL ACTION
TO PREVENT SEXUAL ASSAULT

Men Against Violence

A campus-based program developed at Louisiana State University focusing on men's responsibility for ending all forms of men's violence. Contact 225-388-5718; *www.geeocities.com/MAVatLSU*

Men Can Stop Rape

Men Can Stop Rape, formerly The Men's Rape Prevention Project, based in Washington, DC, empowers male youths and the institutions that serve them to work as allies with women in preventing rape and other forms of men's violence. It sponsors variety of programs and activities in the metropolitan Washington area, an email newsletter, and national workshops and trainings. An excellent web site contains links to men's antiviolence organizations nationally and globally, along with relevant resources and publications. Contact P.O. Box 5144, Washington, DC 20037-7144; 202-265-6530; *info@mrpp.org* or *http://www.mencanstoprape.org*

Take Back the Night

Almost all college campuses and communities have an annual Take Back the Night march during which women walk in solidarity to protest violence against women and create safety. The roles of male participants vary across communities. In some cases, men participate as equals, and in others men's involvement is restricted. The best way for men to support Take Back the Night efforts is to develop parallel activities that foster men's responsibility for preventing sexual assault, educate men about the goals and purposes of Take Back the Night, and reduce backlash against it. Participation in Take Back the Night should be limited to what is comfortable for women organizers and participants. Contact your campus sexual assault prevention coordinator or local rape crisis center for information about this event in your community.

White Ribbon Campaign

A public education campaign to help educate men to take action to stop violence against women. Those interested in hosting a White Ribbon Campaign should get a copy of *Make a Difference: The White Ribbon Week Student Action Kit*. Contact 800-328-2228; *www.whiteribbon.ca*

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