# *Women as Perpetrators: Male Rape*

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**DECLARATION FORM**


Master's Degrees by Examination and Dissertation
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1. This work has not previously been accepted in substance for any degree and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree.

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2. 2. This dissertation is being submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for

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3. 3. This dissertation is the result of my own independent work/investigation, except where otherwise stated.

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**ABSTRACT**

*Historically, rape has been defined as a crime predominantly committed by men (Eriksson, 2011). A wealth of literature exists on female experiences of sexual violence; for decades feminist academics have researched the topic, portraying rape as an abuse of power used to dominate females in a society governed by patriarchy (DuToit, 2012). Research, campaigns, and activism has given women a platform for their voices to be heard with positive progress made in policy and the public arena (Depraetere & Vandeviver, 2020). However, the positive progress achieved for women is arguably to the detriment of male victims of SV because men are portrayed as perpetrators of sex crimes, failing to acknowledge men can be victims too (Javaid, 2018). The notion that roles can be reversed, the female becoming the perpetrator and a male, the victim is an issue society, and UK Law are reluctant to acknowledge (Depraetere & Vandeviver, 2020).*

*This research paper will explore society's gender constructs of masculinity and femininity, considering how they contribute to the lack of understanding relating to male victims of SV (Hine, 2021). It will also critically analyse current UK legislation's reluctance to acknowledge that males can be raped by females, advocating that UK policy should use gender neutral terminology and widen the definition of rape (Pepper, McMillan & Koch, 2013).*

**ACRONYM**

| | |
|---|---|
| CPS | Crime Prosecution Service - |
| FPV | Female Perpetrated Violence - |
| SA | Sexual Assault - |
| SARC | Sexual Assault Referral Centre - |
| SV | Sexual Violence – |
| UK | United Kingdom – |
| USA | United States of America - |
| VAWG | Violence Against Women and Girls - |

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Responding to the issue of sexual violence requires a multi-sectorial approach, combining support systems and legislation (Kewley & Barlow,2020). Lobbying and campaigning has achieved positive outcomes within society; public bodies and legislation are now recognising sexual violence as a serious crime against women and girls (Ellsberg, Morton and Gennari, 2015). Although still a prevalent issue in society, support provisions for females continue to grow and policies continue to develop (Westmaraland, Gangoli and Geetanjali, 2012). Unfortunately, the same cannot be said for male victims of sexual violence (Javaid, 2018). There may be increasing recognition that men can also be subjected to sexual violence, however, research available often focuses on male perpetrators, ignoring the possibility that these crimes can be committed by women too (Abdullah- Khan, 2008). The notion that males can be victims of a female perpetrator causes 'moral panic' within society, unsettling the ingrained social construction of masculinity whereby a man is considered, strong, dominating and more than physically able to defend himself (Cohen, 2002 cited in Javaid, 2018, p.12). If a man is subjected to female perpetrated sexual violence, their experiences are discounted, undermined, and thought to have consented to sex with the perpetrator (Weare, 2018). Not only does society fail to recognise that females are perpetrators of rape, but there is also limited research available on the topic (Walker, 2021). Female perpetrated rape is hidden, unnoticed and ignored, not only in the public sphere, but in UK Law too (Pina and Fisher, 2013).

This research activity will critically explore sexual violence, paying particular attention to female perpetrators of male victimisation (Walfield, 2018). It will explore historical definitions of rape and society's interpretation of rape as being a male

perpetrated crime, used to exercise domination over women (Smith, 2004, p.197). An exploration of historic policies relating to sexual violence will also be considered; the paper will discuss earlier legislation that failed to acknowledge men as victims of rape (Vojdik,2013). A critical analysis of more recent legislation will also be undertaken in this research paper, arguing that although legislation has widened the definition of rape, UK Law continues to remain gender-specific and arguably discriminatory to men (Rumney, 2007). According to the UK Sexual Offences Act (2003), women cannot legally rape a man (McKeever, 2019). It is essential to explore the concept of male against female rape and also male against male rape, to demonstrate current societal attitudes toward the issue, comparing socially ingrained rape myths that negatively impact both female and male victims (Walfield, 2018). Although there is an awareness that men can be victims of rape, research and literature mainly focuses on victimisation by a male perpetrator; limited research exists on female perpetrators (Bitton & Jaeger, 2020). An exploration of the detrimental role hegemonic masculinity plays in undermining the severity of female perpetrated rape (Javaid, 2018). The behaviours and traits associated with men and masculinity downplays their victimisation; men are thought to be unaffected by any unwanted sexual advances, particularly those made by women (Hine, 2021). Not only do rape myths, and gender stereotypes affect public perceptions of rape, they also contribute to the dearth of support provision available for males who have been victimised; this will also be explored within the literature review (Kramer & Bowman, 2021).

The Results and Discussion section will explore three emerging themes from the literature review which are ‘Women as Perpetrators: Social Attitudes and Misunderstandings’, ‘Female Perpetrators: The Invisible Male Victim and Stigma’

and ‘Gender Neutral Policy’. Finally, the Conclusion and Recommendations will resume the outcomes of the dissertation, then explore potential recommendations for future change for policy and potential support provisions.

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1. Introduction

A common assumption relating to rape is that it is an attack carried out by a male stranger, driven by sexual desire (Eriksson, 2011). Although stranger rape does occur, the majority of sexual offences are inflicted in the private sphere by a person known to the victim (Eriksson, 2011). Another rape myth prevalent in society and arguably in Law is the assumption that women cannot rape a man (Weare, 2018). Society disregards the notion a woman can perpetrate sexual violence; the government also does not perceive female perpetrated rape to be common enough to be included in legislation (Rumney, 2007). Although it can be argued that male victimisation is less common than women's experiences of sexual violence, stigmatisation and gender stereotypes prevent men from reporting the crime; therefore, current statistical data relating to the prevalence of male rape is inaccurate (Walfield, 2018).

This literature review will explore the society's understanding of rape, arguing contemporary definitions continue to be underpinned by traditional rape scripts (Benatar, 2012). A similar theme will frame the exploration of current legislation in the UK; referring to Burgess-Jackson's (1996, p.68) 'Conservative Theory of Rape', arguing that current legislation is dated and not fit for purpose. The literature review argues that UK legislation relating to rape continues to adopt a traditional and historic definition of rape, based on gender stereotypes (Javaid, 2014). Many jurisdictions have begun to widen their definition of rape, adopting gender-neutral terminology to recognise that males and females can commit the crime of rape (Van Schalkwyk & Gobodo-Madikizela, 2016). This literature review will argue the need for further expansion of the 'Sexual Offences Act (2003)', altering the outdated legislation to a

more gender-neutral piece of legislation to recognise that either sex can be capable of rape (Ormerod, Laird and Hogan, 2018, p.301). Positive progress has been achieved in countries adopting a gender-neutral policy; in addition to raising awareness of the severity of male victimisation, it has also increased support provision available to male victims of rape (Pina and Fisher, 2013). The benefits of adopting a wider, gender neutral definition of rape in the UK will be explored too (Fisher *et al*, 2013). Advocating for expansion of the Law to recognise the use of objects as rape, not only the use of a penis, and acknowledgment that sexual coercion is also rape (Walfield, 2018)

### 2.2. Rape: Contested Definitions

History

Historically, rape was considered a crime experienced mainly by women (Feinstein, 2019). Their sexuality and reproductive system were conceptualised as commodities, owned by their father, sovereign, or husband; women were expected to keep their chastity 'in trust for the lawful male owner' (Burns, 2013, p.68). Those that lost their 'chastity', regardless of external circumstances, whether it was consensual or by sexual victimisation, were considered 'fallen' and blamed for their circumstances (D'Cruze, 1993, p.379). This attitude toward rape also extended to the way Law Courts dealt with rape; women were culpable by merely bringing forward the allegation (Toulalan & Fisher, 2013). Little consideration was given to the ordeal the female had endured, instead the victim's value as property declined and penalties for these crimes included a fine or monetary compensation to the female's owner (Burgess-Jackson, 1995, *cited in* Whisnant, 2009). Women that had no owner, no father, husband etc. for example, sex workers were disregarded in society and any

sexual violence inflicted upon them was often ignored as their attacks were considered less important in comparison to women who were the property of a man (Whisnant, 2009). Feminists have attributed rape to a form of social control in patriarchal societies with the victimisation a form of wielding control over women, maintaining gender stratification (Baron & Strauss, 1987). Although feminist activists have campaigned for awareness on the prevalence of sexual violence inflicted upon women both historically and to present day, there appears to be a gap in research and understanding relating to sexual violence experienced by men (Benatar, 2012). Academics such as Vojdik (2013) and argue that throughout history, men have experienced sexual violence, yet documentation relating to their experiences are largely invisible in literature. For example, feminist activists advocated that sexual crimes be recognised as an instrument of war following conflict in former Yugoslavia where thousands of women experienced violence and rape (Vojdik, 2013). Yet, men also experienced sexual violence such as castration and rape, however, they remained mainly invisible within historic literature (Erickson and Murphy, 2010). Literature relating to the sexual victimisation of men does exist but often consists of the male-on-male experience of rape in wartime conflict (Sivakumaran, 2005). However, academics such as Foster (2019) are keen to highlight the fact that historically, sexual crimes against men were equally as prevalent as women's experiences. Using archival cases and the expertise of his professors in DePaul University, Foster (2019, p.1) explores the experiences of an enslaved man during the American Civil War, named 'Rufus'. Rufus was not only physically abused by his master but forced to have sex with another female slave to reproduce the future generation of slave workers; he was also subjected to sexual violence by his master's wife (Foster, 2019). Like other academics such as Javaid (2018), Foster's (2019) work portrays sexual violent crimes

as an abuse of power instead of an offence driven by sexual desire and that it can be perpetrated by women too. However, according to Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990 *cited in* Lowell, 2010, p.160) 'Self Control Theory' the act of rape is based on instant sexual gratification rather than power and control, committing this crime for the perceived benefits.

Historical Legislation – United Kingdom

The 21st Century has seen an overhaul in legislation relating to rape in the United Kingdom, an amendment considered overdue and integral to outdated laws relating to sexual violence (Jones, Grear & Fenton, 2011). Prior to this, legislation relating to sexual violence and rape had remained the same since the Sexual Offences Act 1956 (Lowe & Rogers, 2017). Historically, rape has always been considered a crime that women experienced and laws relating to sexual offences reflected this narrow viewpoint too (Javaid, 2018). It was unimaginable to consider that men could be sexually violated and become a victim of rape (Benatar, 2012). Feminist activists praised the introduction of 'The Criminal Justice and Public Order Act (1994)' for recognising rape in a marriage as a crime (Turner, Taylor & Morley, 2017, p.234). However, academics such as Walfield (2018) praised the amendment for another reason: the recognition of male rape. Before the implementation of the 1994 Act, penile penetration of a man was classed as buggery under the Sexual Offences Act (1956) (Johnson & Vanderbeck, 2014, p.64). The crime of rape against a woman could result in a penalty of a lifetime prison sentence, however, buggery carried a lesser sentence of a maximum 10-year imprisonment (Javaid, 2014). Despite Rackley & Auchmuty (2018) welcoming the inclusion of male rape to legislation, the Act was met with criticism by academics such as Fisher *et al* (2013) and Javaid (2016) who

argued that the description of rape as penetration by a penis was still too narrow, assuming only males were capable of sexual violence.

Legislation and Policy in the 21st Century

More recent UK legislation has widened the meaning of rape; according to 'The Sexual Offences Act (2003), a person commits rape if he intentionally penetrates the vagina, anus, or mouth of another person (B) with his penis' (Fisher & Pina, 2013, p.7). Again, although widening the definition appears to be a positive step forward in addressing sexual violence and recognising the rape of a man, the Act has received much criticism for bearing similarity to the UK's 'Public Order and Criminal Justice Act' (1994) in that rape can only be carried out by a male; legal definitions affirm rape has to be penetration by a penis (Fisher *et al, 2013*, p.6). Walfield (2018) accuses UK legislation of being biased in relation to the perpetrators gender, failing to recognise that females are capable of rape. Contributing to Fisher *et al's* (2013) argument is Westmorland (2004, p.9) who is keen to emphasise the Sexual Offences Act 2003 recognition of rape was only extended to encompass oral penetration due to the challenges included in the 'Sexual Offences Review'. A more expansive definition of rape was requested, recognising penetration of the mouth, another part of a body or the use of an object to be considered equally as serious as penetration of the vagina or anus (Westmorland, 2004). Subsequently, penile penetration of the mouth was included within legislation because 'forced oral sex is as horrible, as demeaning and as traumatising as other forms of penile penetration' (Heaton & De Than, 2010, p.130). There is a failure to acknowledge and recognise that sexual attacks inflicted upon men with an object, or those who are forced to penetrate is equally as traumatising as an assault with a penis (Loxton & Groves, 2021). Again, the

justification for this is deeply ingrained in gender stereotypes whereby is it considered that men are unaffected by sexual victimisation and are the initiators of such crimes (Cook & Hodo, 2013). It could be argued that the amendment to legislation continues to portray sexual violence in the same way earlier literature by Scully and Marolla (1985, p.251) who outline that the definition of rape was too narrow and considered a 'nonutilitarian act' acted out by a 'small lunatic fringe' of the male population.

Male on Male

Although not a recent phenomenon Lowe (2018) and Walfield (2018) affirm that male rape has not received the same attention as female rape and is an issue that is disregarded in society; beyond the exploration of rape in institutional settings such as prisons, very little research exists. Literature by Howe (2009, p.62) asserts the opinion that feminist work on sexual violence and domestic abuse is a contributing factor in concealing male sexual violence by their 'doctrine of male victimisers and female victims'. Depraetere and Vandeviver (2020) argues that campaigns to end violence against women also contributes to the exclusion of male survivors of sexual violence. For example, #MeToo became a global campaign with celebrities advocating to end violence against women; millions of women worldwide took to social media to show solidarity typing the words 'Me Too', wanting to end sexual violence (Chandra & Erlingsdottir, 2020, p.2). However, despite creating a media storm, holding men such as Harvey Weinstein accountable for their offences, the campaign was considered far from inclusive, failing to recognise that men be victims too (Gieseler, 2019). Banner (2019) describes the campaign as being damaging, reinforcing the stereotypical gender roles of female victim and male perpetrator; discourse surrounding the movement argued there was no room for male survivors.

Another common belief that contributes to the concealment of male sexual victimisation is societal beliefs that male rape is rare, so rare that is does not require public attention (Hein, Murphy & Churchyard, 2021). However, the 21st Century has found academics such as Javaid (2016) explore the under-researched topic, strongly contending that male rape is much more prevalent than society cares to believe. Statistical data from 43 Police forces in the United Kingdom, between 2015 and 2016 revealed that there were 1276 reports of male rape; this figure increased to 1625 by 2017 (Ornella, 2020). Although this figure is significantly less than the number of female rapes reported, Lowe (2017) asserts that statistics relating to male survivors is inaccurate and that male-on-male rape is equally as prevalent as male on female sexual victimisation. The available statistical data relating to male rape is neither accurate or a true representation of the issue; the data captured only incorporates male on male sexual victimisation and not assaults inflicted by women because in the eyes of the Law, women are not capable of rape (Westmarland & Gangoli, 2012). It could be argued that male victimisation is also concealed in the 'Crown Prosecution Service's' (CPS) publication 'Violence Against Women and Girls' (Evans, 2019, p.23). The general assumption when a reader sees the title is that the report refers to violence experienced only by women and girls (Collins, 2021). However, the publication actually refers to categories of crimes such as rape, stalking, harassment, pornography; crime that can affected both male and females (Buzawa & Buzawa, 2017, p.122). Initially, there was no indication within the report that men and boys were included within the data published (Collins, 2021). But, since 2015 and 2016, following a number of complaints to the CPS the title page of the report informs the reader that content includes data relating to men and boys too (Collins, 2021). Collins

(2021) argues that failing to inform the reader that males were included in the report inflated the statistics regarding female victimisation and conceals sexual violence experienced by males.

Roos & Katz (2003) asserts that taboos, gender stereotyping and stigmatisation surrounding male rape, and the reluctance to acknowledge male on male rape has contributed to its concealment. The common assumption that only females experience rape continues to reinforce the belief that crimes of rape cannot be perpetrated against males and if they are, the act is deemed that bizarre and abnormal that it is considered an isolated offence (Kramer, 2017). Cohen's (1972 *cited in* Cowburn, 2010, p.7) 'moral panic theory' has been applied to numerous studies relating to societal attitudes of male rape; the victimisation of a male threatens and upsets societal values. There are many justifications as to why male rape is overlooked in the public domain (Collins, 2021). For example, Haywood (2020, p.5) deliberates whether society is reluctant to recognise male rape because historically, homosexuality was a criminal offence; the Buggery Act (1533), described it as 'an unnatural sexual act against the will of God and man'. Collective attitudes within society may have begun to alter over time, but homophobic views still continue to exist (Walker *et al,* 2021). Arguably, society's refusal to recognise male on male rape is evident from the hostile response to storylines from popular soaps that have brought the issue into the spotlight (Shackleford, 2020). In 2018, long standing soap opera, Coronation Street tackled male rape; in episode 9406, character 'David Platt', was raped by a male friend following a night out (Coronation Street, 2018). Initially, the storyline was greeted with much criticism, viewers considered the storyline inappropriate and too taboo for television, particularly for a soap that families watched (Coronation Street,

2018). Ofcom received 200 complaints relating to this storyline; responding to the volume of complaints, the shows director, perfectly captures the importance of recognising males as victims of sexual violence stating ‘If you tie things up with a bow, there’s a danger people will just think, we don’t need to talk about this anymore. It’s done.’ (Radio Times, 2021, p.1). This was a similar point conveyed by Javaid (2018) and Walfield’s (2021) literature that explored male rape. Another interesting element to the storyline is that both the victim and perpetrator were heterosexual men, again, breaking the stereotypical belief male rape is a crime attributed to gay men (Mgolozeli & Duma, 2020). This is also noted by Javaid (2018, ) who recognises that male rape is usually categorised as an issue  specific to the gay community; society also assumes that only gay men that experience sexual violence. Abdullah-Khan (2008) argues this notion is incorrect, referring to the mass rapes and abuse of prisoners in Abu Ghraib by US military in 2004.

Although literature recognises that gay males are more likely to be subjected to violent sex crimes, compared to heterosexual men, research conducted by Survivors UK found 47% of bisexual and gay men purported to have experienced sexual violence in their lifetime (Survivors UK, 2021). Despite common societal assumptions surrounding male on male rape, literature by Sivakumaran (2005)  argues that not all victims and perpetrators are gay. On the contrary, Hine (2021) argues that majority of perpetrators are heterosexual, particularly if institutionalised settings such as prisons are considered in statistical evidence. Beliefs surrounding male rape are that deeply ingrained in contemporary society that even heterosexual victims of such sex crimes deliberate their behaviour following their attack (Bergsmo, Skre & Wood, 2012). According to Olshaker, Jackson & Smock (2007, p.28) many male victims

question their sexuality following what they term, ‘a non-masculine episode’, whilst others wonder if they possess a gay trait that may have attracted the perpetrator. Sivakumaran (2005, p.1274) refers to this as the ‘taint of homosexuality’ whereby society considers such contact, regardless of whether it was forced, as an indicator of ‘homosexuality’.

Female on Male Rape - Absent from the legislation

UK legislation has broadened the definition of rape; the introduction of the Sexual Offences Act (2003) now recognises that it is not only females that experience rape (Legislation.Gov.UK, 2021). However, it must be noted that although considerable amendments have been made to the Act, it is still strongly contested that sexual victimisation of males continues to be narrow and outdated within the eyes of the Law (Knight, 2012). Although it is possible within UK law for men to experience rape, this crime can only be perpetrated by another man; legislation does not recognise that a female may perpetrate rape against a man (McKeever, 2019). Instead, sexual violence inflicted by women is categorised as ‘assault by penetration’, ‘sexual assault’ or ‘causing a person to engage in sexual activity’ (Monaghan, 2021, p.176).

Javaid (2018) argues society has little empathy for male victims, holding legislation responsible for maintaining these beliefs. Collins (2021) is one of many academics that believes sexual attacks such as forced oral sex or being forced to penetrate should be considered rape the same way men are held accountable for similar sex crimes. Supporting Collins (2021) is Weiss (2010) who also disagrees with UK legislation’s failure to recognise that women can and are capable of rape. Another issue for consideration is the conflicting definition the term rape holds by victims and Law

(Javaid, 2018). Academics exploring sexual violence from the male perspective argue there is a need for the definition of rape to be expanded to include sex acts in addition to forced vaginal penetration (Loxton *et al,* 2021). Whereas legislation's definition of rape remains rigid, male victims that discuss their experiences of sexual violence often categorise other sex acts such as forced oral sex as rape (Ornella, 2020) . A more expansive definition of rape to include forced sex acts will not only contribute to tackling the deeply ingrained societal attitudes toward male rape but will also enable male victims to seek support and validate the male experience of rape (Walfield, 2021).

Sociologists have opposing views to UK law relating to rape, arguing that sexual violence including arousing a man and forcing him to penetrate a woman, and penetrating a man with objects should be redefined in Law as rape (Fisher *et al*, 2013). Another dimension to this argument is presented by McKeever (2019, p.603) who argues that UK legislation adopts a 'penis-centric' view of rape, failing to recognise a person's victimisation unless the crime is committed with a penis. This is evident within Section 79, clause 3 of the Sexual Offences Act whereby transgender female to males who have undergone penile surgery are recognised as perpetrators of rape, even though they may still legally be recognised as female (CPS.GOV.UK, 2021). McKeever (2019, p.601) furthers this argument emphasising that female on female attacks are also excluded from UK Law, defined as 'causing a person to engage in sexual activity without consent' instead of rape. Twinley (2016) not only advocates for the Law to consider female to male sexual violence as rape, but also attacks inflicted on female sexual violence, particularly penetration by an object as rape too. Weare (2018) contends that lack of awareness and understanding pertaining

to female perpetrators of sexual violence is evident within Law and society whereby sexual crimes by females who do not have a penis is not recognised as actual sex. However, a review of earlier literature notes that UK Law relating to sexual violence is a reflection of how society perceives sexual violence amongst men and women (Walker, 2021). Keith Burgess-Jackson (1996, *cited in* Burns, 2013, p.68 ) 'Conservative' theory of rape complements Walker's (2021) hypothesis, asserting that historical and traditional interpretations of sexual violence continues to be ingrained in modern Law – rape is still recognised as crime committed by a man.

Doherty and Anderson's (2004, *cited in* p.580 ) attributes society's reluctance to accept female perpetrators due to 'victims hierarchy of suffering'; female on male sexual assaults contradicts society's understanding of 'real rape': a woman victimised by a male. Sociologists and Government Legislation appear to have conflicting viewpoints on the definition of rape (Walfield, 2018). Whereas English Law fails to recognise that women can be perpetrators of rape, sociologists such as Weare (2018) and Walfield (2018) disagree, referring to sexual assault or forced penetration as rape. A counsellor, working with male rape survivors interviewed by Javaid (2018) highlighted the prevalence of male victimisation by females, affirming that over 20% of their caseload consisted of male victims. Both Javaid (2018) and the professional practitioner interviewed express their opinion that females should be charged with rape in the same way a male would be if they penetrated a female. Javaid (2018, p.109) strongly contends that if UK Legislation does not expand the definition of rape, it will reinforce the pre-existing notion 'that male rape is not really a social problem'

### 2.3. Rape Myths

Theory: Social Norms

Brownmiller's (1975, *cited in* Smith, 2021, p.1) earlier literature described rape myths as beliefs that 'deliberately obscure the true nature of rape'. Another later definition by Bohner (1998, *cited in* Fisher *et al*, 2013, p.15) asserts that 'rape myths deny, downplay or justify sexual violence'. According to Hine (2021), rape myths exonerate the perpetrators actions and minimise or deny the severity of the attack. In 2018 Ruth Croppinger, an Irish MP presented women's underwear in parliament as a means of highlighting 'routine victim blaming' (BBC News, 2018, p.1). The MP's actions were in response to the defence presented in a rape case whereby it was argued the 17year old victim was consenting to engaging in sex because she was wearing a 'lacy thong' (BBC News, 2018, p.1).

Furthermore, social psychologists such as Burt (1980, *cited in* Hall, Gordon, Hirschman, Graham, & Zaragoza, 2013, p.71) hypothesises that the acceptance of rape myths may act as a 'psychological neutraliser', enabling the perpetrator to 'turn off social prohibitions', when carrying out attacks such as rape. A more recent example of this is the civil sexual assault case brought against Prince Andrew by Virgina Guiffre (Stephens, 2022). Former chief prosecutor at the Crown Prosecution Service, Nazir Afzal OBE, accused the prince and his legal team of 'victim blaming'; the victim's memory and psychological history was brought to the spotlight with the victimisation she reported considered unreliable and false (Stephens, 2022, p.1). It is evident that victim blaming deters individuals from reporting their victimisation, thus contributing to the low conviction rate of rape in the UK (Stephens, 2022).

Representation of (M) Gender, Power, and Rape

Although recognition of rape myths associated with the male victim is beginning to emerge, McKeever (2019) is keen to emphasise that research focusing on male victimisation is approximately two decades behind research exploring female rape myths. Abdullah-Khan (2008, p.5) asserts the viewpoint that the 'theoretical explanation of male rape' is 'rooted in positivism', claiming that research within this field 'has developed through clinical observations and analysis from a psychiatric model of understanding rape'. For decades male rape was narrowly recognised as affecting those incarcerated or an issue associated with gay culture (Ornella, 2020). Javaid (2018) theorises that the lack of understanding and research relating to male rape myths are a consequence of earlier beliefs by academics such as Whatley & Riggo (1993, *cited in* Walfield, 2018, p.6395) who cited 'there are no oblivious widely held cultural myths surrounding male rape'. Contemporary literature by Javaid (2018) and Hancock (2019) contests Whatley *et al* (1993 *cited in* Walfield, 2018) earlier statement, affirming male rape myths do exist, emphasising the detrimental impact they can have upon a victim. Hine *et al* (2012, p.2) contributes to this argument, asserting that both male and female myths fall into the following categories: 'sexuality, pleasure, perpetrators, context and effect'. Rape myths are a barrier to men disclosing sex crimes such as rape, this is because their experience does not fit their understanding of what rape is (Cook & Hodo, 2013). This is particularly true for those victimised by a woman; they are unlikely to consider the victimisation they have experienced as a crime (Martini, 2020).

Representation of (F) Gender, Power and Rape

Academics such as Oswald and Holmgreen (2012) advocate that one of the most perplexing issues when researching female perpetrators is the public's scepticism that women are capable of sexual violence. Researchers of female aggressors are often greeted with comments such as 'women do not do that sort of thing' and 'wouldn't men be lucky' (Anderson & Stuckman-Johnson, 1998,p.8). The prevalence of female perpetrated rape in the United Kingdom is difficult to measure due to the lack of research conducted by academics and the UK government (Weare, 2018). There may be no data available to demonstrate the prevalence of female perpetrated rape in the UK, but that does not mean the issue is non-existent (Kramer, 2017). However, data has been recorded in other countries; for example, Tomaszewska and Krahé's (2018 *cited in* Weare, 2018) study on perpetration and sexual violence found 28.4% of male respondents self-reported their victimisation by a female. Literature by Alia-Klein (2020, p.524) may even convince the reader that male victimisation is not a cause for concern by the use of language within their research, affirming that only a 'small minority' of women are sexually aggressive to men.

The research on the perpetration of sexual violent crimes by female perpetrators is in its infancy; existing research is exploratory and described by Greathouse, Saunders, Matthews and Miller (2015, p.37) as lacking in 'methodological sophistication'. Supporting this is Weare (2018) who concludes there are no published research papers that have studied a large sample group of female perpetrators. The limited research available uses small sample sizes, providing an unreliable picture of the topic; furthermore, the studies that do exist have no comparison group to compare findings and draw conclusions from (Greathouse *et al*, 2015). Although Miller (2015) and Weare (2018) are correct to stress that minimal research exists on female aggressors

of male rape, the topic appears to have been explored to some extent in the 1980's by Sarrel and Masters (1982) and later by Anderson (1998) who chose this topic for his PhD thesis. In Anderson and Struckman-Johnson's (1998, p.2) literature exploring female perpetrators, Anderson spoke of the controversy surrounding his subject topic, that he was discouraged from researching this area because it was considered 'damaging to women's causes' and was cautioned that his work may not be published because it was considered too taboo. The same attitude toward the topic is apparent in the 21st Century; Abrams (2016) hypothesises research remains limited due to concerns that highlighting the victimisation of men will overshadow the progress made with regards to females who have experienced sexual violence and crime. Abrams (2016) advocates that although feminists academics may have begun to accept male victims into their infrastructure, they still remain reluctant to accept that sexual violent crimes can be perpetrated by females. Machado, Santos, Graham-Kevan and Matos (2017) also suggest that society is not prepared to acknowledge women as sexual aggressors; female on male rape is greeted with disbelief and dismay, failing to fit the 'script for real rape' (Russell,2012, p.85).

Although Fisher *et al* (2013) emphasises that the past twenty years has seen an increased amount of research into female perpetrators, there are academics that are critical of the existing research (Lowe & Rogers, 2017). Trottier, Nolet & Benbouriche (2021) argue that published research is not a true reflection of the issue; the existing research often studies women incarcerated for a wide variety of offences, including sex crimes against adults, children, and young adolescents. The sampling of women perpetrators of various sex offences skews knowledge relating to female perpetrators; the females participants studied will likely have carried out physical

force during the attack, contributing to their conviction and imprisonment (Gatehouse *et al*, 2015). For the purpose of this literature review, it must be acknowledged that women can, and do use force to inflict sexual aggression (Bouffard &Miller,2015). Sita and Dear's (2019) case study design, exploring male experiences of sexual violence and aggression referred to a participant who experienced physical aggression, including the use of tools and furniture to sexually coerce the male victim. However, the research available on female aggressors has demonstrated an emerging common theme, that being that females are unlikely to resort to physical violence and aggression, instead using sexual coercion, forcing males to engage in sexual intercourse through manipulation, emotional threats and blackmail (Bates & Weare, 2020). Cook and Hodo (2013) support this, affirming that it is more prevalent for females to use verbal threats and psychological manipulation to coerce their victim. Although the severity of sexual coercion is often undermined, particularly when the perpetrator is a female, Struckman and Johnson (1988) and Bouffard (2015) are keen to emphasise just how extreme threats by women can be, causing extreme guilt and psychological damage to the male victim. Supporting this is Sita (2019) who affirms that women use threats of suicide to force a man to engage in sexual intercourse; male victims reported feeling they had no other alternative but to engage in intercourse with the female due to fear the female would end their life otherwise. Society downplays the severity of sexual coercion, often because the perpetrator is known to the victim (acquaintance, friend, or partner); however, this does not mean the incident is less psychologically damaging than being victimised by a stranger (Bates, 2020).

Sexual coercion as a method to victimise is a concept that is misunderstood; lack of awareness surrounding the issue maintains its concealment and undermines the

victim's experience; this is particularly true for male victims (Huitema & Vanwensenbeek, 2016). Gender scripts are also a contributing factor to society's reluctance to recognise that women can assault men; male stereotypes reinforce the assumption that men are strong enough to walk away from a sexually coercive female (Anderson, 2016). Although some men may possess the physical stature and strength to evade victimisation, sexual coercion is complex; physical strength is not needed by the perpetrator that uses psychological manipulation against their victim (Walfield, 2018). Hine (2021) argues that men are likely to prescribe to gender stereotypes and will engage in sexual intercourse in fear of being considered effeminate. Society perceives sexual coercion differently, dependant on the sex of the perpetrator (Cook, 2013); for example, a male perpetrator using sexual coercion is regarded as an aggressive, sexual predator, whereas when women adopt the very same coercive approach, they are considered 'promiscuous' (Oswald & Holmgreen, 2012, p.85).

It could be argued that society's reluctance to recognise women as perpetrators implicitly endorses behaviour such as sexual coercion (Weare, 2018). Research undertaken by Anderson and Johnson (1998) explored female participants attitudes on sexual coercion. A number of the female participants undertaking the study admitted to using sexual coercion as a means of making a male have sexual intercourse with them (Anderson *et al,* 1998). Another surprising finding from this study is that female participants showed no remorse for their behaviour, failing to recognise their actions as an abuse of power (Anderson, *et al,* 1998). The main justification for adopting this approach was because they feel it was their right as a female to have their sexual needs met (Anderson *et al,* 1998). Supporting Anderson's (1998) research is Johnson (2006, p.132) who also explored women's attitudes toward sexual

coercion; similar findings emerged from both studies; the female participants in Johnson's study self-reported their use of coerciveness as a 'strategy' to 'force' men into sex. Fiebert and Tucci's (1998) study exploring the gender comparisons relating to sexual coercion found that 35% of male respondents reported being coerced into sexual touching and kissing against their will and 20% indicated that they were forced to have vaginal or anal sex.

Male experiences of sexual coercion is an under researched topic in the field of academia; Bouffard *et al* (2015) hypothesises the reason for this is due to concerns that awareness surrounding male victimisation may overshadow women's experiences of sexual violence . Loxton *et al* (2021) argues that advocating for the recognition of male rape does not mean there is intent to undermine or devalue the decades of campaigning and research made on behalf of female victims. Loxton *et al* (2021) explains that the objective of research into male sexual violence is to shine a light upon male sexual violence by female perpetrators, better understand their experiences through the development of theory similar to the positive progress being made relating to male rape myths.

Rape Myths.

Javaid (2018) argues the acceptance of rape myths, particularly those that include victimisation by a female perpetrator is a contributing factor in ensuring male rape remains invisible. Furthermore, Smyth (2020) also asserts that the social construction of masculinity negatively impacts society's understanding of male victimisation by female perpetrators; in the same way women are considered responsible for their attack for wearing certain clothing, rape myths relating to men also hold the victim

partially culpable. Benatar (2012) and McKeever (2019) argue societal norms surrounding gender, masculinity and sexual orientation are what maintains male rape myths. Hegemonic masculinity assumes men should possess traits such as strength, dominance, and power, whereas rape victims are viewed as timid, feminine, vulnerable, and weak; characteristics often associated with femininity (Loxton *et al*, 2021). According to these stereotypical portrayals of male and females, there is an unwritten myth that 'real men' cannot become victims of rape (Spruin & Reilly, 2018, p.2) and that 'a man would not be upset about being raped by a woman' (Struckman-Johnson, 1992 *cited in* Benatar, 2012, p.68). McKeever (2019) presents another dimension to this argument, alluding to the fact that society reacts differently to disclosures of sexual violence from both male and females. For example, McKeever (2019) refers to two friends, a male and female who were victims of rape, both receiving very different responses to their disclosures. The female's disclosure was taken seriously, and support offered by friends and family, whereas the male raped by a female was greeted with humour and comments from his friends enquiring whether the perpetrator was 'hot' (McKeever, 2019, p.600). Collins (2021) contributes to McKeever's (2019) argument, affirming that society perceives sexual violent crimes perpetrated against men and boys as less significant. This is evidenced in journalist, Barbara Ellen's comments in her article for the Guardian newspaper. Ellen's article, titled 'This shameful liaison doesn't deserve prison', Barbara downplays the severity of Madeleine Martin's sexual affair with a 15 year old school boy (Ellen, 2009, p.1). Within the article, Barbara Ellen urged the reader to consider whether a female teacher having a sexual affair with a pupil was as severe as a male teacher having sex with a female pupil (Ellen, 2009). Within her article, Barbara Ellen comments that the young victim's encounters with the older woman would have been greeted with

jealousy by his peers, but, on the other hand considers it unacceptable if the roles were reversed: a female pupil and male teacher (Ellen, 2009). Collins (2021, p.19) describes this as 'equality only when it suits' and hypothesises similar situations are likely to increase as women gain positions of power within society.

Although rape myths exist for both female and males, Walfield (2018) contends that gendered nuances within rape myths can negatively impact victims of sexual violence. For example, it is less likely for a male to receive a supportive response to their disclosure of rape which in turn causes feelings of shame and embarrassment that they 'failed in upholding their manhood' (Hine, 2021, p.3). Furthermore, male victims of sex crimes are considered weak, and they must have 'wanted to be raped' not to fight off their attacker (Hine, 2021, p.3). Celebrity, Shia Lebouf disclosed his victimisation by a female guest during his 'art project #IAMSORRY'; despite his celebrity status, his disclosure was greeted with scepticism (Levy & Adam, 2018, p.1). According to Shia Lebouf, the female entered the room at the celebrity's art project, removed Lebouf's clothing and raped him whilst her boyfriend waited outside (Beaumont-Thomas, 2014). Levy *et al* (2018) study, exploring societal attitudes towards female perpetrated rape analysed 505 responses to the news article relating to the celebrity's victimisation published in the Guardian newspaper. Responses to the article varied from victim blaming, asserting the opinion Shia Lebouf had wanted to be raped for attention, to the belief he had consented to the incident: 'Did he forget to tell her to stop it? What am I missing here? What was his action? He had every opportunity to stop it'(Levy *et al*, 2018,p.586). Levy *et al* (2018) findings emulates earlier research by Sleath & Bull (2009, *cited in* Pina *et al*, 2013, p.14) on male rape myth acceptance. Sleath *et al* (2009 *cited in* Pina *et al*, 2003) believes men can be raped

by women despite UK legislation stating otherwise. Within their research exploring rape myths, respondents believed that a male can enjoy sexual intercourse regardless of whether it is consensual, and held the belief that if a man became erect, they are aroused and wanted to engage in intercourse (Sleath *et al, cited in* Pina *et al,* 2013). However, this notion is a prime example of the dangers of rape myths serving to downplay the victimisation men experience (Ryan, 2019). Research has concluded that males 'can become physically aroused in heightened emotional states such as fear and anger'; these are physiological responses that cannot be controlled and are not an indicator of enjoyment and consent (Pina *et al* 2013, p.16). Although masculine norms ascribed to men portray them as strong, bold, resilient, and open to sexual encounters, Collins (2021) argues this is untrue; the impact of rape upon men is significant and long-lasting.

### 2.4. Male Rape: 'Ideal Victim/Offender'

Male victimisation challenges deeply ingrained societal stereotypes; this is particularly the case when victimisation is by a female perpetrator (Lowe *et al,* 2017). In addition to challenging social and cultural norms surrounding femininity and masculinity, falling victim to a female perpetrator diminishes the likelihood of reporting and seeking support due to the fear or ridicule, disbelief, and ostracism (Kramer & Bowman, 2022). Andersson *et al* (2019) attributes the dearth of support and acknowledgement of male rape on the culturally-constructed ideals placed on victims of sexual violence; violence inflicted by a female is considered 'less significant in terms of frequency, severity, consequences and impact' (Loxton *et al* , 2021, p.2).

Christie (1986; *cited in* Loxton & Groves, 2021, p.2) aimed to conceptualise this notion in their 'Ideal Victim/Offender Theory' that outlines socially constructed ideals an individual must possess to be considered a 'victim'. Likewise, there are specific ideals society attributes to the 'ideal' perpetrator; according to Andersson, Edgren & Karlsson (2019, p.8); these include the perception that the perpetrator is immoral, strong, evil, unknown to the victim and typically a male. Despite limited research into the subject of male sexual violence by female perpetrators, existing literature has demonstrated that perpetrators are often already acquainted with the victim; for example, colleagues, family members or even their spouse (Pietz & Mattson, 2014). This can present another barrier to reporting and accessing support; the conflicting emotion of wanting to seek support but not wanting to disclose the identity of the perpetrator (Bitton *et al*, 2020).

### 2.5. Male Rape: Challenges and Barriers to Support

A wealth of knowledge exists on the experiences of females that have experienced sexual violence, it is a subject that has been extensively researched, achieving positive gains for women (Walfield, 2018). For example, feminist activism in the 1970s led to increased awareness of the violence women experienced resulting in the implementation of services providing support to women such as 'Women's Aid' and 'rape crisis centres' (Hague, 2021, p.84) . Feminism continues to be the driving force behind challenging the violence women experience in contemporary society too (Lucas & Heimer, 2021). More recent activism such as the '#MeToo' movement became a global campaign, offering a political platform for survivors to voice their encounters of sexual violence by men (Fileborn & Loney-Howes, 2019, p.22). Despite advocating solidarity for all survivors of sexual violence, the movement failed

to address the victimisation men experienced (Collins, 2021). Male heterosexual victims of rape are described as being a 'hard to reach group', less likely to disclose any experiences of sexual violence experienced by women due to the stigma and embarrassment they fear they will receive (Hester, Williamson, Regan, Coulter, Chantler & Gangoli, 2012, p.6). Hammond *et al* (2016) also attributes feminist theory, biased legal definitions, and rape myths as contributors to deterring men from reporting their victimisation and seeking support. These factors are not only commonly held beliefs in society but also in specialist support services and Law (Fisher *et al,* 2013). Bateman & Wathen (2015) affirm that male rape myths contribute to the insensitive support some specialist practitioners offer victims accessing their services. Donnelly and Kenyon's (1996, *cited in* Hammond, Ioannou & Machin, 2017, p.6) paper exploring male rape myths reported one practitioner's response to a query about the services offered to male victims; their response was 'Honey, we don't do men… men can't be raped'.

From a constructionist viewpoint, Muehlenhard and Kimes (1999) argues that despite sharing common ground, female victimisation takes priority over male experiences, which is not considered worthy enough of public attention. Guilespe (1996 *cited in* Akrivos & Antoniou, 2019) presents a similar stance, affirming that due to limited availability of resources and support, priority should be given to female victims due to the reportedly smaller number of men experiencing sexual violence. Another issue to consider is the lack of funding the Government provides voluntary organisations, particularly to support male victims (Riccardi, 2010). A determining factor to secure funding in the 21st Century is to demonstrate value of the service by evidencing

outputs rather than focusing on the outcomes achieved by offering support to a client in need (Mawby, 2016).

According to Hammond (2016 p.5) more research on male rape is needed to raise awareness, particularly violence perpetrated by females, referring to the topic as 'unchartered territory. Not only will a shift in research focus help provide a broader understanding of sexual violence, it will also influence public perceptions toward the issue and increase support provision for male survivors (Fisher *et al,* 2013). However, Bates (2020) argues for legal reform and lobbying to begin, there must be provision and support available for male survivors of rape. Although a relatively simple notion, the reality of achieving this is challenging (McKeever, 2019). Walfield (2021) advocates that to achieve this, there must be awareness of the issue on a societal level; something that is lacking for male victims. Sivakurman (2005, *cited in* Turchik, Hebenstreit & Judson, 2015, p.4) argued that 'if there is no awareness of any issue by decision makers, then there is little, if any, chance that the issue will be considered' and resources made available to support survivors.

The lack of support for male victims is evident in literature by Javaid, who describes the scarcity of resources as a 'draconian budget cut' (Javaid,2018 p.247). Javaid's (2018, p.247) research found that although practitioners recognise the need to support male victims they are 'hampered' by lack of funding. It can be argued that the United Kingdom's reluctance to acknowledge the male victim is a contributing factor to the limited resources available (Weare, 2018). There is limited support available to male victims of in the UK; although rape crisis centres can offer support to male victims, only half of these centres in the UK has provision to support men (Rape Crisis

England & Wales, 2021). The lack of specialist provision available to male victims of rape is described by Lowe (2017, p.1) as a 'postcode lottery'; the quality and quantity of services are inadequate and are likely to remain this way without a clear policy in place in the UK. The positive outcomes of adopting a gender-neutral policy is evident in countries that have already widened the definition of rape; reporting rates have increased and there is recognition that specialised support services are required to support male victims (Covers, Teeuwen & Bicanic, 2021).

### 2.6. Redefining Rape in Policy and Legislation: Learning from International Comparisons

Even though 'The Sexual Offences Act (2003)' has expanded the meaning of rape, but many academics affirm the act needs further broadening to consider sexual violence initiated by female perpetrators as rape (Pina *et al,* 2013, p.6). Ornella (2020) argues that UK policies and legislation relating to rape continues to suggest the offence is only committed by men. Framing rape as a gendered issue creates confusion within society, generating an inaccurate representation of the crime (Hine, 2021). Rumney (2007) also argues that the piece of legislation is also discriminatory to men. Whilst reforming the 'Sexual Offences Act (2003)', the Home Office emphasised the importance of introducing a Law that was neither discriminatory to men nor women; recommendations were made to use gender-neutral language, in line with the 'European Convention of Human Rights (ECHR)' (Ormerod & Laird, 2017, p.301). It is evident by reviewing the Law that it continues to adopt a gender biased definition of rape; the justification for this? That female perpetrated rape is not common within society (McKeever, 2019). Data collated by Rape Crisis Wales and England reported that 155,000 men experienced sexual violence between 2019 and

2020 (Rape Crisis.org.uk, 2021). Furthermore, the Home Office's justification is contradictory to their earlier comment in the 'Government Response to the Stern Review' whereby it is estimated that 89% of victims do not report their victimisation (Publishing.service.gov.uk, 2011, p.1). This figure does not indicate whether the statistics are inclusive of male victimisation; although the paper appears gender specific, referring to sexual violence predominantly experienced by women and girls (Publishing.service.gov.uk. 2011). Hammond *et al* (2016) is also keen to emphasise that the varying definitions of rape within different justice systems globally is problematic. For example, India continues to adopt a heteronormative definition of rape 'based on notions of masculinity' (Kujat, 2017, p.1). Social scientists and lawyers have expressed their concern that the Indian Penal Code excludes male experiences of SV, strongly advocating for the elimination of Section 377 of the Indian Penal Code that even prescribes punishment for engaging in sexual intercourse with an individual of the same sex (Halder & Brhambhatt, 2021). Whereas the UK and India's legislation continues to be gender-specific in regard to who can be a victim of rape, many other countries are undertaking a more gender-neutral 'approach to Law relating to sexual offences (Pepper, McMillan & Koch, 2013). For example, in 2013 the US Department of Justice broadened their definition of rape, allowing for both male and females to be perpetrators or victims of rape (Justice.Gov, 2013). Initially the USA's legislation was heavily influenced by 'English Common law', defining rape as the 'illicit carnal knowledge of a female by force against her will' (Black, 1968 *cited in* Anderson & Struckman-Johnson, 1998, p.51). Acknowledging that legislation had not been altered since 1927 and that it was now outdated and not fit for purpose, the new definition was expanded to

> "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." (Department of Justice Archives, 2012, p.12).

The USA is not the only country that updated their legislation, leaving behind gender biased assumption that only men commit sexual violence (Fisher *et al,* 2013). South Africa implemented The New Sexual Offences Act in 2007 expanding their definition to a more gender-neutral approach, similar to the USA's reform (Van Schalkwyk & Gobodo-Madikizela,2016, p.7). Not only does the reformed legislation acknowledge that women can be perpetrators of rape, it also recognises that other acts of sexual violence are equally as traumatising and invasive as rape (Westmorland *et al,* 2012). Comparing the UK's Sexual Offences Act (2003) to Australia's legislation highlights just how antiquated UK legislation continues to be (Conaghan, 2013). The 'Crimes Amendment (Sexual Offences and Other Matters, 2014)' is described as a trailblazing piece of legislation by researchers studying male victims of SV, widening the definition of rape beyond the traditional 'forced penetration' to include 'rape by compelling sexual penetration (Loxton & Groves, 2021, p.6). Carline and Eastel (2014) advocates for the UK's Sexual Offences Act's (2003) legislative language to match Australia's, acknowledging women as perpetrators of rape.

Although the broadening of legislation was considered by academics such as Collins (2021) and (Weare, 2018) as a positive step forward, Van Schalkwyk *et al* (2016) argues that legislation reforms were met with criticism from legal scholars and some feminists due to the gender neutral wording of legislation. DuToit (2013, p.8) opposes the gender-neutral language within South Africa's revised legislation, asserting her opinion that 'women do not have a penetrating sexual organ and men

do'. Therefore, it is much more difficult for a woman to access 'rape as a tool of sexual power and domination' (DuToit, 2013, p.8). A criticism of DuToit's (2013) stance is the failure to recognise and acknowledge that power and domination does not necessarily refer to physical power and strength; on the contrary, coercive power and control is an equally powerful tool that is used to perpetrate sexual violence as demonstrated by works by Bouffard *et al* (2016). Rumney (2007, p.228) is eager to emphasise that adopting a gender-neutral law in the UK does not mean women's experiences of sexual violence are downplayed; instead, it labels victimisation both men and women experience that are 'similar in nature and effect'. Feminists have long argued the need to label women's experiences of sexual violent crimes to raise awareness and to demonstrate to other victims that they are not alone (Kelly & Rehman, 2016). It could be argued that male victims should also be given this right (Fisher *et al*, 2013).

### 2.7. Conclusion

Rape still continues to be considered a crime predominantly experienced by women (Feinstein, 2019). Feminist activists and campaigns such as the #MeToo movement continue promote awareness of the violence women experience at the hands of men; although very important to continue initiating effective change, feminist campaigns have been met with criticism over the exclusion of male victims (Fileborn *et al*, 2019). Male victims' experiences remain unheard, ignored, and overlooked, not considered a crime severe enough to warrant any campaigns or lobbying (Martini, 2020). There may be a growing awareness of male-on-male rape with Law recognising that males can be victims of rape and popular TV programmes such as Coronation Street exploring male on male rape within their storylines (Coronation

Street, 2018: Shackleford, 2020). However, female perpetrated rape is still unrecognised and misunderstood (Walfield, 2021). This literature review has demonstrated that female perpetrated rape is not a new phenomenon (Kramer, 2017) . This is evidenced in Foster's (2013) exploration of historic literature that documented the victimisation of Rufus, a slave that lived during the Civil War period; Rufus was not only victimised by his slave owner's wife, but also experienced sexual coercion, forced to penetrate another female slave (Foster, 2013).

A contributing factor to the limited awareness and understanding of female perpetrated rape is the UK government's failure to understand that women can rape a man (Bates *et al*, 2020). 'The Sexual Offences Act (2003)' still continues to adopt a gender-biased interpretation of rape, referring to the perpetrator of these offences within the legislation as 'he' (Westmorland *et al*, 2012, p.82). Female perpetrators that force a man to penetrate her anus, mouth or vagina cannot be convicted of rape, instead, their crime is categorised as sexual assault, carrying a lesser sentence than if a man was to initiate the same attack (Monaghan, 2021, p.217). Academics studying male victimisation express the opinion that society fails to recognise the seriousness of female perpetrated SV due to the Government's resistance to recognise female SV as rape (Weare, 2018). Rumney *et al* (2007) argued the Government's justification for not extending the definition of rape to include female perpetrators is because this type of victimisation is rare. This justification is both incorrect and contradictory to earlier comments made, whereby the Government alluded that over 89% incidents of male victimisation goes unreported (Hammond *et al*, 2016). Statical data on male sexual violence (both male and female perpetrated) is inaccurate (Walfield, 2018). The majority of males do not report their victimisation because of the negative stigma

and stereotypes associated with being a victim of rape (Fisher, 2013). Moreover, Collins (2021, p.193) argues that the statistical data public bodies such as the CPS has captured relating to male victimisation is well hidden in the 'Violence Against Women and Girls' publication, previously with no indication the document included male statistics too.

This literature has found that rape myths and gender stereotypes have a detrimental impact upon male victims of SV, maintaining their invisibility in society and Law (Lowe *et al,* 2017). Stereotypical qualities associated with masculinity identify men as dominant, strong, and willing to partake in sexual intercourse regardless of whether they consented (Bitton, 2020). Men are also considered strong enough to physically resist a female's unwanted advances; therefore, the male must have wanted to engage in intercourse (Anderson, 2016). On the other hand, the stereotypical associations of what it means to be female: timid, gentle and vulnerable, conflicts with society's portrayal of a perpetrator of sexual violence (Loxton *et al,* 2021). These stereotypes continue to reinforce society's belief that women cannot victimise men (Bitton, 2020); men that do disclose their victimisation receive little support or understanding, instead their admission is greeted with disbelief (McKeever, 2019). Shia Lebouf's admission to being raped during his exhibition captures society's understanding of male victims; instead of receiving support, the celebrity was accused of wanting to be raped by the female perpetrator as a publicity campaign (Levy *et al,* 2018). Rape is often considered a crime driven by sexual desire; the use of physical strength is used to overpower the victim (Kramer, 2017). This paper has concluded sexual violence is a method of 'power and control'; this is true for male and female perpetrators of rape (Smith, 2004, p.197). Male perpetrators may be more reliant on physical

aggressiveness to carry out their victimisation; however, research has found that female perpetrators more commonly use sexual coercion to victimise men (Oswald *et al*, 2012). Research conducted by Johnson (2006) on female attitudes surrounding sexual coercion, found participants openly discussing their use of coercion to force partner's and acquaintances into having sex with them. If the roles were reversed and male respondents admitted to using coercion to obtain sex, the severity of their actions would be recognised as an abuse of power and an act of SV almost immediately (Johnson, 2006). Campaigns raising awareness of violence against women have played an integral part of recognising male perpetrated SV; the same recognition is needed for males that have been assaulted by females (Bates *et al*, 2020). Another startling find is the female respondents openly discussed their abuse of power, not realising the severity of their actions and that it constituted rape (Johnson, 1998). Then again, societal attitudes toward rape are that deeply ingrained and gender specific, they respondents may not even believe their actions fall into the category of rape (Ornella, 2020). Johnson's (1998) above study demonstrates the need for the UK to widen the definition of rape; use gender-neutral language, acknowledging that females and males can be both victims and perpetrators of rape.This amendment in Law may invoke an understanding in society that rape is severe regardless of whether it is perpetrated by a man or woman (Walfield, 2018).

## 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 3.1. Introduction

Although awareness and research continue to develop on the subject of rape, society, public bodies, and the government continue to define the crime as a male perpetrated act of violence (Eriksson, 2011). Men are now beginning to be recognised as victims of rape, but the perpetrator of these crimes is still assumed to be male (Javaid, 2018). Campaigns to raise awareness of sexual violence continues to leave male victims in the shadows, and address SV as a gendered crime that is only perpetrated by males (Ornella, 2020). The following section will discuss emerging themes from the literature review. Firstly, it will discuss society's reluctance to recognise females as perpetrators of rape and the detrimental impact sex roles play in failing respond appropriately to males' disclosure of victimisation by women (Bates, 2020). It will also consider the impact existing social attitudes towards rape have upon maintaining the invisibility of male victims in society (Hine, 2021). A comparison between rape scripts upheld in society and Christie's (1986, *cited in* Depraetere, Vandeviver & Beken, 2018, p.992) 'Ideal Victim Theory' will also be discussed to demonstrate a person must fit specific criteria to be considered a true victim of rape. Finally, this section will consider the positive impact a gender-neutral Law has had upon other jurisdictions that have widened their definition of rape outlining the need for the UK to follow other countries approach (Van Schalkwyk *et al*, 2016).

### 3.2. Women as Perpetrators: Social Attitudes and Misunderstandings

An extensive amount of research exists, exploring female sexual victimisation; the last 40 years has witnessed feminist academics, advocates and activist lobby for change, ending violence against women (Ellsberg *et al*, 2015). A more recent global

campaign that initiated positive change, encouraging all survivors of sexual violence to come forward was the #MeToo movement (Fileborn *et al,* 2019, p.2) . This movement encouraged those affected by sexual violence to seek support and speak out about their experiences without being concerned about shame or stigma (Fileborn *et al,* 2019). However, this movement was far from inclusive, failing to promote and advocate for male survivors of sexual violence, disregarding the victimisation men experience at the hands of men and women (Fisher *et al,* 2013). A wealth of knowledge exists about female victims of sexual violence; the substantial research into the subject has initiated positive change and has contributed to the implementation of support provision such as 'Women's Aid' and 'rape crisis centres' (Hague, 2021,p.84). Feminism continues to advocate to end violence against women, but is also accountable for the further exclusion of male victims (Javaid, 2018) . Brownmiller's (1975) radical feminist viewpoint, theorise that rape is a means of of domination, a way of wielding power over women in a patriarchal society. Brownmiller's (1975) work altered the way in which society views rape, framing the issue as a violent act as opposed to a crime based on sexual desire; it is important further research is undertaken to demonstrate that female aggressors victimise men as a form of power and control too (DuToit, 2013).

The lack of research into female perpetrators, contributes to society's reluctance to accept that men can be victimised by women (Javaid, 2018). This is still a contentious area; despite recognising that rape can be perpetrated against men, it appears as though feminist academic writers are reluctant to recognise that women can be the aggressors of these acts (Abrams, 2016). Feminism continues to be the driving force behind challenging the violence women experience in contemporary society, but there

appears to be very little academics, researchers, or advocates representing the voices of males who experienced sexual violence in particular those males who have experienced sexual violence by female perpetrators (PeConga, Spector and Smith, 2022). It is evident from this literature review that contemporary society continues to adopt historic, outdated scripts relating to male and female sex roles; these beliefs also shape the public's understanding of sexual violence (Levy *et al,* 2018). These stereotypical notions of gender include the belief that women are recognised as delicate, vulnerable, sensitive and the 'gatekeepers of sex' (Waling, 2022, p.4). Parallel to this is society's portrayal of males as sexual aggressors; dominant, strong, and willing to engage in sexual intercourse regardless of whether it was initiated or not (Cohen, 2014). These stereotypes are so deeply ingrained in society, the notion a female can deviate from these norms and be a perpetrator of SV is considered an anomaly, upsetting social norms and values (Cowburn, 2010). Society prescribes to the typical rape script of the perpetrator being male, not known to the female, inflicting his attack in an isolated, dark area by the use of physical aggression (Kramer, 2017). However, findings in this literature review have demonstrated that 'rape scripts' differ greatly from the above definition of rape, particularly for female perpetrated assaults (Hewitt *et al,*2020, p.1). Although, some women may not be as physically strong as men, strength is not necessarily needed to be a perpetrator of rape (Weare, 2018). Research has demonstrated women use sexual coercion rather than physical force as a way of forcing a man to engage in intercourse (Huitema *et al,* 2016). Research has demonstrated women use emotional blackmail, manipulation and even threats of suicide to force a man into sex (Sita, 2019). Interestingly, research by Bates *et al* (2020) found that women tend to normalise their behaviour, openly discussing and admitting to forcing a man into having sexual intercourse (Anderson

*et al,* 1998). Furthermore Bouffard's (2015) exploration of females' perception of sexual coercion found that women felt they were entitled to sex and were willing to use coercion as means of obtaining it; the females admitting to this behaviour failed to recognise this behaviour falls into the category of rape. It could be argued that the female participants of these studies, also hold the belief that women cannot rape (Anderson *et al,* 1998). If organisations, public bodies and the Law do not recognise that women can rape men, then it is highly unlikely the female participants in the studies referred to realise their behaviour constitutes sexual violence either (Fisher *et al,* 2013).

### 3.3. Female Perpetrators: The Invisible Male Victim and Stigma

Rape is typically presented as a gendered issue; females are considered the victims and males are recognised as the perpetrator (Weare, 2020). A wealth of literature, historic and contemporary, denote women as victims of sexual violence, documenting survivors' experiences and psychological impact of their victimisation (Weare, 2020). Although awareness of male victimisation is increasing, critics argue that the focus of research mainly explores male on male rape, particularly in conflict zones or institutionalised settings such as prisons (Ornella, 2020). Research on male victimisation perpetrated by a female continues to be understudied, partly because this group continues to remain invisible in both society and UK government legislation (McKeever, 2019). Although unresearched and invisible to society, male victimisation at the hands of women is not a new phenomenon (Loxton *et al,* 2021). Foster's (2019) research highlighted the historic sexual violence enslaved men experienced by their owners, and the owners' wives as early as the 19$^{th}$ Century. Moving forward to the 20th Century, a small amount of literature emerged in the 1980's and 1990's by

academics such as Anderson (1998) but it could be argued that the subject was considered too taboo and controversial, with concerns raised that Anderson's research would remain unpublished.

The 21st Century has witnessed a renewed interest into the subject, however, research published has been met with criticism (Trottier *et al*,2021). The main criticism noted amongst a number of academics is that current research is unreliable; data collection is often conducted on small sample groups of incarcerated women, convicted of a wide range of crimes besides sexual violence (Gatehouse, 2015). Male victims of female perpetrators continue to be an invisible group within society; excluded from campaigns to end sexual violence, ignored in legislation, and practically anonymised in research from public agencies such as the Crime Prosecution Service (Collins, 2021). Christie's (1986, *cited in* Depraetere, Vandeviver & Beken, 2018, p.992) 'Ideal victim theory', although theorised over 30 years ago, continues to capture contemporary society's understanding of rape. According to Christies theory (1986, *cited in* Depraetere, Vandeviver & Beken, 2018, p.992), victims of rape are required to meet a set of criteria society attributes to a typical victim. A victim must be weak, must not be located in an area where blame can be attributed to them (isolated place); the perpetrator must be overpowering and strong – all traits associated with society's gender stereotypical representations of male and female (Vandeviver *et al* ,2018). Unfortunately, these stereotypes prove a barrier to men disclosing, reporting, and even recognising their victimisation by a female; furthermore, the lack of support and understanding from friends and family further reinforce that the victim's experience should remain invisible (Kramer *et al*, 2021). Literature by McKeever (2019) demonstrated that a male's disclosure of rape by a female is often greeted with

disbelief and even humour; disclosures are often met with references about whether the perpetrator was ‘good looking’ or ‘hot’ (McKeever, 2019, p.600). McKeever (2019) emphasises that if the roles were reversed a female victim’s disclosure would be greeted with empathy, sensitivity and understanding. Hegemonic masculinity continues to reinforce the notion that men fit into one of two categories: ready to engage in sex, even if they did not initiate it, or implicitly compliant because they possess the strength and stature to fight off any unwanted advances by a female if they really wanted to (Hine, 2021).

These commonly held rape myths, continue to conceal the severity of male victimisation; even if a male’s disclosure is taken seriously, the severity of the attack is downplayed in comparison to a woman’s admission (Andersson *et al,* 2019). Men are thought to recover quickly from such experiences, with minimal psychological impact (Hine, 2021). Again, this hypothesis is likely to be highly inaccurate; there is limited research to make comparisons, and limited support mechanisms available to male victims to even gather data relating to effect victimisation has upon men (Javaid, 2018). Furthermore, the number of men victimised by women is unknown; research does not provide a true representation of the issue (Walfield, 2018). Men are unlikely to disclose rape because admitting to being a victim of a female attack, conflicts with society’s interpretation of masculinity (Smythe, 2021). Moreover, the complexity of female perpetrated rape, the lack of violence and use of coercion to victimise, often leaves the male confused too; unable to categorise their victimisation as an act of sexual violence (Walker, 2021).

Further research is needed on the subject female perpetrated rape and male victims; expanding further from the limited sample groups of incarcerated women to a more qualitative research paradigm, focusing on the male victim's experiences of sexual violence (Trottier *et al,* 2021) . Not only does this have the potential to raise public awareness by providing an understanding of the male victim's subjective experience, but may also demonstrate the need for support services, specialising in supporting male victims of rape (Andersson *et al,* 2019).

### 3.4. Gender Neutral Policy

Historically, UK Law failed to acknowledge men as victims of rape; before the implementation of the 'The Criminal Justice and Public Order Act (1994)', male victims experiences of rape were categorised as buggery with prosecutions falling under the term 'unnatural offences' (Turner *et al,* 2017, p.234). Although legislation in England and Wales now acknowledges men can be raped, the Act continues to suggest this crime is predominantly perpetrated by men (Fisher *et al,* 2013). Within the Act's definition or rape, the legislation continues to refer to the perpetrator as 'he' (Westmorland, 2012, p.82). McKeever (2019, p.603) describes the UK's Sexual Offences Act (2003) as a 'penis-centric' piece of legislation, meaning that acts of sexual violence are only considered rape if they include the use of a penis. However, if a female forces a male to penetrate her, anally, orally, or vaginally, this is not considered rape; instead, the crime carries a lesser sentence (if any) and is defined as sexual assault (Monaghan, 2021). Reforming the Law, extending the meaning of rape to include other forms of non-consenting sex acts was meant to address the suffering of victims experiencing other forms of unwanted sexual violence (Fisher, 2013). Instead, it appears as though reforms continue to exclude male victim's experiences,

fail to address the harm inflicted upon men that are victimised by women and continues to perpetuate the belief that men are solely the perpetrators of rape (Hall, 2010).

Recommendations have been made by Rumney (2007) and Javaid (2018) that the UK Law needs to become a fully gender-neutral Law, counteracting the typical perception of rape, recognising male and females as perpetrators and victims. Whilst revising the 'Sexual Offences Act (2003)', the Home Office emphasised the need for legislation that was non-discrimination that used gender-neutral terms (Ormerod & Laird, 2018). The policy does not meet the set expectations, neither being gender-neutral or non-discriminatory to men (Ormerod *et al*, 2018, p.301). In comparison to other jurisdictions, it is not surprising that Knight (2012) describes Sexual Offences Act as not only outdated but discriminatory to men. UK legislation continues to reflect a traditional definition of rape as does India, a country that also adopts a heteronormative definition of rape (Kujat, 2017). In contrast to this, other jurisdictions globally have already adopted gender neutral Laws relating to SV. The US Department of Justice expanded the definition of rape, leaving behind earlier Law's that were heavily grounded in historical English Law (Justice.gov,2013). Australia's 'Crimes Amendment (Sexual Offences and Other Matters, 2014) extended its Law beyond the original definition of 'forced penetration', to include non-penetrative assaults and the recognition that victims can also be coerced into engaging in sex (Loxton *et al,* 2021, p.6). Altering the Law proved beneficial to male victims of SV; the severity of their victimisation became visible, leading to funding for further provision to support males through counselling (Gregory & Lees, 2012). As previously noted, support mechanisms for male victims are non-existent, there is little

recognition for its need; funding is generally given to services offering support to female victims (Javaid, 2018). Extending the definition of rape in UK Law may have a similar impact in the UK as it did in Australia; an awareness of the issue, may lead to more reports of SV by men and demonstrate the need for support services that specialise in male victimisation (Javaid, 2018).

### 3.5. Conclusion

Female aggressors of sexual violence is an understudied, complex topic, referred to as 'unchartered territory' (Hammond, 2016 p.5); minimal research exists on the subject in comparison to male aggressors (Fisher *et al,* 2013). The feminist movement continues to drive awareness of female sexual victimisation, initiating change in policy and maintaining awareness by their campaigns (Fileborn *et al,* 2019). Feminists such as Brownmiller (1975) are correct to refer to SV as an abuse of power, however, they fail to acknowledge that women are equally capable of using SV to control men (Walker, 2021). It could be argued that the feminist movement are reluctant to understand women can victimise men, in the same way men victimise women in fear of undoing the decades of awareness and campaigning (Hague, 2021).

Unfortunately, the lack of research contributes to the confusion surrounding female perpetrators (Bouffard *et al,* 2015). Society does not understand the male victim or the female perpetrator; a lack of understanding of a subject often lead to ignorance and suspicion, this appears to be the case when considering female perpetrators (Cowburn *et al,* 2010). The UK government's reluctance to expand the Sexual Offences Act (2003) continues to reinforce SV as a crime inflicted by males (Weare, 2018). The Government's justification to not reform policy is due to the belief that

male sexual victimisation is not as common as female victimisation (Depraetere *et al*, 2020 ). However, there is no existing statistical data to confirm this; the data that does exist is captured from disclosures male on male perpetrated rape (Kramer, 2017).

Beyond the UK, research is beginning to emerge on female perpetrated rape; although a positive step forward, there are concerns surrounding the reliability of emerging data (Trottier *et al*, 2021). Sample groups may include female aggressors, but the research does not fully capture the true picture of female perpetrated rape (Trottier *et al*, 2021). This form of victimisation is concealed within society, the complexity of the problem often overlooked and misunderstood, even by victims themselves (Gatehouse, 2015). Gender stereotypes contribute to the misunderstanding of female perpetrators; the expectation that women are gentle, timid and vulnerable, and men are dominant, strong, sexually charged beings, contributes to the reluctance to view women as aggressors of sexual crimes and males as their victims (Loxton *et al*, 2021). Rape is portrayed as an act of power and aggression, behaviours associated with masculinity (Benatar, 2012). Power does not necessarily have to be physical, with this paper demonstrating that female perpetrators often rely on another form of power to victimise males – coercion (Oswald *et al*, 2012).

Further need for research on female perpetrators is required to better understand and raise awareness for policy and society (Javaid, 2018). Whereas studies have predominantly explored the female perpetrators actions and behaviours, capturing the male victim's subjective experience will be beneficial to future research (Trottier *et al*, 2021).

## 4. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is evident additional research is needed to gain a better understanding of the female perpetrator and the victims of this violence; research continues to be limited and the subject considered taboo (Lowe, 2017). Although there appears to be an increasing academic interest into the subject, the research available captures data from a specific group of perpetrators, failing to understand the complexity of the topic (Ornella, 2020). Male victimisation, perpetrated by a female is complex, often hidden from society, friends, and family; it is even likely that the male is unaware their experience was an abuse of power as many attacks are perpetrated by a spouse, friend or acquaintance (Eriksson, 2011). Rape scripts have reinforced an inaccurate portrayal of a 'typical' perpetrator and victim, further contributing to the invisibility of the male victim (Hewitt *et al*, 2020, p.1).

The following section will consider the three themes that have emerged from the literature review which are: 'Women as Perpetrators: Social Attitudes and Misunderstandings', 'Female Perpetrators: The Invisible Male Victim and Stigma', and 'Gender Neutral Policy'. These themes will now be considered as recommendations for future policy with the aim to raising awareness of female perpetrated rape. Each theme presents different research, theories, and arguments on the subject of female perpetrators, but each theme shares a one commonality; gender stereotypes, gender biases and the UK's dated policy continues to be a barrier to understanding and raising awareness of female perpetrated rape (Javaid, 2014: Bitton, 2020: Walker, 2021).

Women as Perpetrators: Social Attitudes and Misunderstandings

Feminist academics and activists continue to drive forward awareness of violence against women, initiating positive changes not only in society, but in policy too (Ellsberg *et al,* 2015). Although campaigns such as #MeToo encouraged victims to speak out about their experiences, the global movement also ensured male victims continues to remain invisible, instead portraying males to be the only perpetrators of SV (Fileborn *et al,* 2019). Rape is still recognised as a gendered crime; men are the perpetrators and females the victims (Hine, 2020). Gender stereotypes associated with masculinity and femininity are responsible for society's reluctance to acknowledge females as perpetrators of sex crimes (Miller, 2015). According to gender scripts women are timid, sensitive and the 'gatekeepers of sex', and men are dominant, sexually charged and physically strong (Waling, 2022, p.4). A female perpetrator breaking these gender norms and inflicting violence upon a male is a concept society finds difficult to comprehend (Bouffard *et al,* 2015). A man who discloses they were raped by a female is often greeted with suspicion and lack of empathy; rape myths conclude the male must have wanted to have sex, otherwise, they could have used their physical strength to fight off a female perpetrator (Walker, 2021). This is where the misunderstanding surrounding female perpetrators lays; more often, women use sexual coercion rather than physical violence to victimise men (Cook *et al,* 2013). Studies have explored women's perceptions of sexual coercion, with many participants admitting to using this form of aggression to obtain sex from their partners, failing to recognise the severity of their behaviour and that forcing a person into having sex is defined as rape (Bouffard *et al,* 2015). It appears the gender-biased assumptions of rape (male perpetrator, female victim) contribute to the lack of understanding that the behaviours women adopt to coerce men into intercourse is

unacceptable (Cowburn, 2010). Education and awareness are integral to providing an understanding of the subject (Javaid, 2018).

**Recommendation 1:** Education and campaigns addressing awareness that females and males are victims of sexual violence (Walker, 2021).

Female Perpetrators: The Invisible Male Victim and Stigma

Male victims of SV continue to be an area of academic study that requires further exploration (PeConga *et al,* 2022). Although the past two decades has seen an increasing number of academics research the subject of male against male rape, female perpetrated victimisation remains an area that is under researched and greeted with caution (Mgolozeli, 2020). There appears to have been an interest on the topic in the 1980s and 1990s, but the subject was considered taboo and concerns surrounding whether any research paper exploring female perpetrators would be published (Anderson *et al,* 1998). The same gender stereotypes exist in contemporary society as the 1980's when Struckman *et al* (1988) explored female perpetrators. Women continue to be considered the 'gatekeepers of sex', dominated by strong, dominant men who are driven by sexual desire (Waling, 2022, p.4). The notion these gender scripts can shift, and a man can be sexually assaulted causes confusion and dismay in society, particularly when men are meant to possess characteristics such as strength; this often leads to the opinion the male must have consented to sex (Weare, 2018). However, findings from this literature review have demonstrated that physical strength and aggression is not necessarily needed to victimise a person; sexual coercion is a method that is equally as damaging and powerful as physical strength (Ornella, 2020).

Research on female perpetrators is limited and the literature available is met with criticism surrounding its reliability (Trottier *et al*, 2021). Female perpetrators of rape is a complex topic and victims of this crime continue to be invisible in society; the way in which women victimise men can differ from male perpetrated sexual violence. Further exploration and study of the issue would provide a better understanding of the understudied topic (Loxton *et al*, 2021)

**Recommendation 2:** Further research is needed exploring male experiences of SV victimisation by women (Loxton *et al*, 2021).

**Recommendation 3:** The application of a qualitative paradigm may be useful to understand the subjective experiences of victims (Trottier *et al*, 2021)

Gender Neutral Policy

Historical legislation did not recognise that men could be raped; the victimisation men experienced was considered 'unnatural' and defined as buggery instead of rape (Turner *et al, 2017,* p.234). Since 1994, legislation recognises men's victimisation – a positive step in UK Law. The Sexual Offences Act further extended how rape is defined, adding penetration of the vagina, anus or mouth to legislation; however, for these offences to be considered rape, penetration must be with a penis (Rackley *et al*, 2018. Although expanding legislation to include anal and oral penetration was considered a progressive step, the Act has met criticism relating to the gender biased opinion that males are perpetrators of rape (Weare, 2018). This is evidenced in the Act's use of language, referring to the perpetrator as 'he' (Westmorland, p.82). Expanding the definition of rape was meant to be a way of acknowledging the serious nature of SV; the act has not achieved this, instead continues to exclude men's experiences of victimisation by female perpetrators (Depraetere *et al*, 2020). According to UK Law, a female cannot legally rape a male; a female coercing a male

to penetrate is not considered rape – victimisation must include the use of a penis (Weare,2018: Javaid, 2018).

Fisher (2013) advocates for the UK to follow other jurisdictions that have adopted a gender-neutral policy relating to sexual violence, whereby female and males are treated equally within Law. Even the USA (whose policy has its roots in English Law) recognised their definition of rape was outdated and required updating (Schalkwyk *et al*, 2016). Australia has significantly altered their definition of rape to include non-penetrative acts and sexual coercion (Conaghan, 2013).

**Recommendation 4:** Additional research is required for a better understanding of female perpetrated violence (Javaid, 2018).

**Recommendation 5:** Current legislation (The Sexual Offences Act, 2003) needs be to create a gender-neutral policy that recognises that both male and females are capable of rape (Fisher *et al*, 2013).

**Recommendation 6:** The need to omit gender specific language within legislation (Depreatere, 2020).

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Reitz-Kreuger, Mummet and Troupe (2017, p.326) affirms that shame is more commonly experienced when the attack was perpetrated by a female.

# 6. APPENDICES

### 6.1. Appendices 1 Proposal Form

PRIFYSGOL CYMRU
Y Drindod Dewi Sant
UNIVERSITY OF WALES
Trinity Saint David

Institute of Education and Humanities/
Yr Athrofa Addysg a'r Dyniaethau

**MA Dissertation Approval Form/**
**Ffurflen Gymeradwyo Traethawd Hir MA**
**ECGE7002Q**

| | |
|---|---|
| Student Name/ *Enw Myfyriwr* | Donna Leeanne Cleaver |
| Degree Scheme/ *Cynllun Gradd* | MA Equity Diversity in Society |
| Start date/ *Dyddiad cychwyn* | October 2020 |

I have completed Part 1 of my degree.
*Please delete as appropriate.

*Yr wyf wedi cwblhau Rhan 1 o fy ngradd*
** Dileu fel sy'n briodol*

- Title of Dissertation: Can women rape? / Male rape

Aims and Objectives:
*Nodau ac Amcanion*

- **Introduction**

Responding to sexual violence requires a multi-sectorial approach, combining support systems and legislation (Kewley & Barlow,2020). Positive progress is steadily being made with the implementation of the Governments 'Ending Violence Against Women and Girls' and more recently the Future of Generations Commissioner of Wales's 'An All Equal Wales, whereby sexual violence against women and children is considered detrimental and one of the driving forces of

inequality (Future Generation.Wales, 2021). Although there is recognition that males can be victims of sex crimes, the research available often focuses on male perpetrators. The notion that males can be victims of a female perpetrator causes 'moral panic' within society, unsettling the ingrained social construction of masculinity whereby a man is considered, strong, dominating and more than physically able to defend himself (Cohen, 2002 *cited in* Javaid, 2018, p.12). This research activity will critically explore sexual violence, paying particular attention to male victims of female perpetrators. It will also explore society's attitude towards rape and legislation that fails to recognise that males can be raped (McKeever, 2018)

**Literature review:**

Sexual violence, particularly rape, is often considered a gendered crime: a female victim and a male perpetrator (Fisher & Pina, 2013). Typical societal beliefs of rape conjure the image of 'stranger rape'; a female attacked by an unknown male perpetrator in a dark alley whilst walking alone at night (Hewitt, Chopin, Beauregard, 2020, p.21). It must be noted that the prevalence sexual violence on women is significant, and the number of women experiencing sexual violence or rape is startling. For example statistical data obtained from Rape Crisis England and Wales (2021) reported 510,000 women experienced sexual violence in 2017, 85,000 of those women were raped or an attempt was made to rape; furthermore the Word Health Organisation (2017) reported 35% of women worldwide experience sexual violence in their lifetime. Global campaigns such as the #MeToo movement have played an important part in providing women with a voice, encouraging those who are survivors of sexual violence to speak out and seek support. Although campaigns, government legislation and charitable organisations are beginning to address and raise awareness of the prevalence of sexual violence, academics such as Javaid (2018) argue that legislation and support services fail to recognise men as victims of sexual violence and rape (Javaid, 2018). Muehlenhard (1998, *cited in* Weare, 2018, p.112) highlights the importance of altering societal perceptions of rape, affirming that by continuing to frame sexual violence as a female issue, male rape remains a taboo subject, unspoken of an not understood.

**Theme 1: Redefining rape**

"The politicization of rape as a feminist issue may contribute to the isolation and suffering experienced by the male victim" (Mezey & King, 1989, *cited in* Walfield, 2021, p.6392).

Although sexual violence experienced by female victims has been extensively researched, a lesser amount of literature exists on the subject of male victims (McKeever, 2018). Historically, rape has been conceptualised as a gendered issue, involving a female victim and a male perpetrator; this gendered perception of sexual violence has resulted in slower progress recognising males as victims of rape (Fisher *et al,* 2013). Javaid (2018) affirms that the literature available on the subject of male victims of sexual violence mainly focuses on male victimisation by a male perpetrator. Supporting this notion is Sleath and Bull (2010) arguing that academics studying male rape typically focus on prisoners, bisexual and gay men; although an important area of research contributing to the body of knowledge of male sexual violence, research on male rape by a female perpetrator is limited.

**Theme 2: Rape Myths**

Brownmiller (1975, *cited in* Smith, 2021, p.1) earlier literature described rape myths as beliefs that 'deliberately obscure the true nature of rape'. Rape myths often try to justify the reasons why a person was raped , transferring the blame from the perpetrator onto a victim; a woman considered to be wearing provocative clothing or an intoxicated woman are both examples of female rape myths (Smith, 2021). Earlier literature by Whatley & Riggo (1993 *cited in* Walfield, 2018) asserted that no male rape myths existed in relation to male rape. However, contemporary literature by Javaid (2018) disputes Whatley *et al's* (1993 *cited in* Walfield, 2018) earlier belief, affirming male rape myths do exist and they prohibit victims from seeking support and disclosing.

The social construction of masculinity negatively impacts society's understanding of male victims of rape (Javaid, 2018). In the same way women are considered responsible for their attack for wearing certain clothing, men are thought to be

strong enough to escape a woman but wanted to engage in sexual activity (Walfield, 2021). Bateman & Wathen (2015) also affirms that male rape myths can be a contributing factor to the lack of support available to male survivors of sexual violence with some practitioners offering insensitive support. Donnelly and Kenyon's (1996 *cited in* Walfield, 2021, p.4) paper on the topic of male rape supports Bateman *et al* (2015) argument, purporting that one practitioner questioned about the services offered to male victims responded – 'Honey, we don't do men… men can't be raped'. Recognition, awareness, and an alteration in policy to recognise men can be raped could play an important part in supporting male victims of sexual violence (Javaid, 2018).

Methodology/Methods

A critical literature review evaluating and synthesizing scholarly literature, statistical data, and government legislation on the topic of sexual violence will be undertaken to complete this research activity. Research will be collected using books, academic journals available from the university's library and Google Scholar. Policy papers, statistics from sources such as the Office for National Statistics (ONS) and researching literature by charities working within the area of sexual violence will contribute to providing a comprehensive understanding of the chosen topic.

Mixed methods is the research methodology adopted to undertake the research activity; mixed methods is considered the 'third methodological movement', following quantitative and qualitative research methods (Tashakkorri & Teddlie, 2003, *cited in* Creswell, 2011, p.1). Mixed methods enables the researcher freedom to select research from multiple methods, permitting the use of qualitative and quantitative data to synthesise information and data (Efron & David, 2018). Instead of being committed to one particular philosophical stance, mixed methods research places emphasis on practicality, focusing on gathering information that will enable the researcher to answer the research question (Efron & David, 2018).

Ethical approval will be sought prior to commencing the literature review and

research undertaken will be adhere to the guidelines outlined withing UWTSD's 'Research Ethics & Integrity Code of Practise'

Results Discussion

- TBC

Conclusion/Recommendations

- TBC

Short Introductory Bibliography:
*Llyfryddiaeth rhagarweiniol byr*


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Proposed Supervisor: Associate professor Caroline Lohmann-Hancock
*Goruchwyliwr awgrymedig*

Please indicate whether ethical approval for project is needed – YES
*Nodwch a oes angen cymeradwyaeth foesegol ar gyfer y prosiect - OES*

Please indicate whether sufficient resources are available for the project – YES
*Nodwch a oes digon o adnoddau ar gael ar gyfer y prosiect - OES*

The above topic, proposal, and supervisor have been agreed:
*Cytunwyd ar y pwnc, y cynnig a'r goruchwyliwr uchod:*

Signed : Assoc Prof C Lohmann-Hancock
Llofnod Assoc Prof C Lohmann-Hancock

Programme Director/
Cyfarwyddwr y rhaglen

Date 25/10/2021
Dyddiad

**Please return this form to your Programme Director.**
**Dychwelwch y ffurflen hon at eich Cyfarwyddwr Rhaglen.**

## 6.2. Appendices 1 Ethics Form

### APPLICATION FOR ETHICAL APPROVAL

**In order for research to result in benefit and minimise risk of harm, it must be conducted ethically. A researcher may not be covered by the University's insurance if ethical approval has not been obtained prior to commencement.**

The University follows the OECD Frascati manual definition of **research activity**: "creative work undertaken on a systematic basis in order to increase the stock of knowledge, including knowledge of man, culture and society, and the use of this stock of knowledge to devise new applications". As such this covers activities undertaken by members of staff, postgraduate research students, and both taught postgraduate and undergraduate students working on dissertations/projects.

The individual undertaking the research activity is known as the "principal researcher".

Ethical approval is not required for routine audits, performance reviews, quality assurance studies, testing within normal educational requirements, and literary or artistic criticism.

**Please read the notes for guidance before completing ALL sections of the form.**

**This form must be completed and approved prior to undertaking any research activity.** Please see Checklist for details of process for different categories of application.

**SECTION A: About You (Principal Researcher)**

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Full Name: | | Donna Leeanne Cleaver | | | |
| 2 | Tick all boxes that apply: | | Member of staff: | ☐ | Honorary research fellow: | ☐ |
| | Undergraduate Student | ☐ | Taught Postgraduate Student | ☒ | Postgraduate Research Student | ☐ |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 3 | Institute/Academic Discipline/Centre: | Institute of Education and Humanities |
| 4 | Campus: | Carmarthen |
| 5 | E-mail address: | 1402308@student.uwtsd.ac.uk |
| 6 | Contact Telephone Number: | 07415850606 |
| | ***For students:*** | |
| 7 | Student Number: | 1402308 |
| 8 | Programme of Study: | MA Equity & Diversity in Society. |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 9 | Director of Studies/Supervisor: | Phillip Morgan |

**SECTION B: Approval for Research Activity**

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Has the research activity received approval in principle?<br>(please check the Guidance Notes as to the appropriate approval process for different levels of research by different categories of individual) | | **YES** | ☒ | **NO** | ☐ |
| | | | | | ***Date:*** | |
| 2 | If Yes, please indicate source of approval (and date where known): ***Approval in principle must be obtained from the relevant source prior to seeking ethical approval*** | Research Degrees Committee | | ☐ | | |
| | | Institute Research Committee | | ☐ | | |
| | | Other P Morgan | | ☒ | ***28.09.2021*** | |

**SECTION C: Internal and External Ethical Guidance Materials**

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | Please list the core ethical guidance documents that have been referred to during the completion of this form (including any discipline-specific codes of research ethics, location-specific codes of research ethics, and also any specific ethical guidance relating to the proposed methodology). Please tick to confirm that your research proposal adheres to these codes and guidelines. You may add rows to this table if needed. | |
| 1 | **UWTSD Research Ethics & Integrity Code of Practice** | ☒ |
| 2 | **UWTSD Research Data Management Policy** | ☒ |
| 3 | Office for National Statistics<br><br>Male Rape: The Silent Victim and the Gender of the Listener (Riccardi, 2010)<br><br>Perceptions of male rape and sexual assault in a male sample from the United Kingdom: Barriers to reporting and the impacts of victimization (Hammond, 2016)<br><br>Writing a Literature Review (Winchester, 2016) | ☒ |

**SECTION D: External Collaborative Research Activity**

If there are external collaborators then you should gain consent from the contact persons to share their personal data with the university. If there are no external collaborators then leave this section blank and continue to section E.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | Institution | N/A |
| 2 | Contact person name | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | N/A | | | | |
| 3 | Contact person e-mail address | N/A | | | | |
| 4 | Is your research externally funded? | | **YES** | ☐ | **NO** | ☒ |
| 5 | Are you in receipt of a KESS scholarship? | | **YES** | ☐ | **NO** | ☒ |
| 6 | Are you specifically employed to undertake this research in either a paid or voluntary capacity? | Voluntary | **YES** | ☐ | **NO** | ☒ |
| 7 | | Employed | **YES** | ☐ | **NO** | ☒ |
| 8 | Is the research being undertaken within an existing UWTSD Athrofa Professional Learning Partnership (APLP)? | If YES then the permission question below does not need to be answered. | **YES** | ☐ | **NO** | ☒ |
| 9 | Has permission to undertake the research has been provided by the partner organisation? | (If YES attach copy)<br>If NO the application cannot continue | **YES** | ☐ | **NO** | ☒ |

**Where research activity is carried out in collaboration with an external organisation**

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10 | Does this organisation have its own ethics approval system? | **YES** | ☐ | **NO** | ☒ |
| | If Yes, please attach a copy of any final approval (or interim approval) from the organisation (this may be a copy of an email if appropriate).<br><br>**N/A** | | | | |

**SECTION E: Details of Research Activity**

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Indicative title: | Male Rape/ Do women rape? | | |
| 2 | Proposed start date: | 01/11/2021 | Proposed end date: | 22/03/2022 |
| | **Introduction to the Research (maximum 300 words per section)**<br>**Ensure that you write for a <u>Non-Specialist Audience</u> when outlining your response to the points below:**<br>*Purpose of Research Activity*<br>*Proposed Research Question*<br>*Aims of Research Activity*<br>*Objectives of Research Activity*<br><br>Demonstrate, briefly, how **<u>Existing Research</u>** has informed the proposed activity and explain<br>*What the research activity will add to the body of knowledge* | | | |

| | |
|---|---|
| | *How it addresses an area of importance.* |
| 3 | **Purpose of Research Activity**<br><br>The purpose of this research is to explore sexual violence, specifically male rape by female perpetrators.<br><br>A substantial amount of existing research and literature derives from the experiences of female rape victims/survivors by male perpetrators (Lowe & Rogers, 2017). In contrast, less attention has been paid to sexual violence inflicted upon men; however, the literature available on this subject often focuses on the sexual victimisation of males by male perpetrators discounting the possibility that such violence could be inflicted upon males by female perpetrators (Hammond, 2016).<br><br>Sexual violence, specifically the rape of an adult male by a female perpetrator is an area that receives little public attention and is a subject that is under researched, receiving little public attention (Javaid, 2018). Framing sexual violence and rape as a female issue further excludes male victims, reinforcing and perpetuating society's ingrained belief that a man cannot be a woman's victim. Women are typically portrayed in society as nurturers, vulnerable, sexually passive and the 'gatekeepers' of sex, whereas men are strong, powerful and considered the initiators of sexual activity (Muehlenhard, 1998, *cited in* Weare, 2018, p.112).<br><br>(this box should expand as you type) |
| 4 | **Research Question**<br><br>Male rape: Do women rape?<br><br>(this box should expand as you type) |
| 5 | **Aims of Research Activity**<br><br>Male rape is recognised as an area that is under researched and overlooked; although recognition is growing in relation to male on male rape, a lesser amount of literature exist on the subject of male rape by female perpetrators (Stemple & Meyer, 2014).<br><br>Contemporary understanding and depictions of rape continue to reinforce the 'stereotypical sexual victimization paradigms' of males as perpetrators and females as the victims (Stemple *et al,* 2014, p.21).<br><br>This research activity will review existing literature, exploring how deep-rooted gender stereotypes and sexual scripts within society are less likely to recognise a male being sexually assaulted by a female (Hammond, 2016). The paper will aim to re-define rape, focusing on male victims and female perpetrators', studying the lack of recognition of male rape within society, law and policy and the role this plays in inhibiting men from disclosing and seeking help and support (Hammond, 2016). |

| | |
|---|---|
| | (this box should expand as you type) |
| 6 | **Objectives of Research Activity**<br><br>To critically explore and examine the literature available on the subject of male rape, gaining an understanding of what has been researched and potential areas to explore further. This research activity may also consider gendered rape i.e male on male, female on males and 'other on male'.<br><br>The research activity will aim to strengthen understanding of male victims of rape.<br><br>(this box should expand as you type) |
| | **Proposed methods (maximum 600 words)**<br>Provide a brief summary of all the methods that **may** be used in the research activity, making it clear what specific techniques may be used. If methods other than those listed in this section are deemed appropriate later, additional ethical approval for those methods will be needed. You do not need to justify the methods here, but should instead describe how you intend to collect the data necessary for you to complete your project. |
| 7 | A critical literature review is the chosen method to undertake this research activity.<br><br>Research will be collected using the following:<br><br>Books<br>Academic journals<br>Literature from the university's library<br>Google Scholar<br>Government legislation<br>Policy papers and statistics from sources such as ONS and charities working within the field of sexual violence<br><br>(this box should expand as you type) |
| | **Location of research activity**<br>Identify all locations where research activity will take place. |
| 8 | Due to the impact of COVID-19, the research activity will consist of desk based research will be . If university guidelines permit students to utilise library space to research and write, this option will be considered too.<br><br>(this box should expand as you type) |
| | **Research activity outside of the UK**<br>If research activity will take place overseas, you are responsible for ensuring |

| | |
|---|---|
| | that local ethical considerations are complied with and that the relevant permissions are sought. Specify any local guidelines (e.g. from local professional associations/learned societies/universities) that exist and whether these involve any ethical stipulations beyond those usual in the UK (provide details of any licenses or permissions required). Also specify whether there are any specific ethical issues raised by the local context in which the research activity is taking place, for example, particular cultural and/or legal sensitivities or vulnerabilities of participants. If you live in the country where you will do the research then please state this. |
| 9 | N/A<br><br>*(this box should expand as you type)* |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 10 | Use of documentation not in the public domain: Are any documents **NOT** publicly available? | **NO** | ☒ |
| | | **YES** | ☐ |
| 11 | If Yes, please provide details here of how you will gain access to specific documentation that is not in the public domain and that this is in accordance with the current data protection law of the country in question and that of England and Wales.<br><br>N/A<br><br>*(this box should expand as you type)* | | |

| | **Does your research relate to one or more of the seven aims of the Well-being of Future Generations (Wales) Act 2015?** | **YES** | **NO** |
|---|---|---|---|
| 12 | A prosperous Wales | ☐ | ☒ |
| 13 | A resilient Wales | ☐ | ☒ |
| 14 | A healthier Wales | ☒ | ☐ |
| 15 | A more equal Wales | ☒ | ☐ |
| 16 | A Wales of cohesive communities | ☐ | ☒ |
| 17 | A Wales of vibrant culture and thriving Welsh language | ☐ | ☒ |
| 18 | A globally responsible Wales | ☐ | ☒ |
| 19 | If YES to any of the above, please give details: | | |
| | N/A<br><br>(this box should expand as you type) | | |

**SECTION F: Scope of Research Activity**

| | **Will the research activity include:** | **YES** | **NO** |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Use of a questionnaire or similar research instrument? | ☐ | ☒ |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 2 | Use of interviews? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 3 | Use of focus groups? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 4 | Use of participant diaries? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 5 | Use of video or audio recording? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 6 | Use of computer-generated log files? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 7 | Participant observation with their knowledge? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 8 | Participant observation without their knowledge? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 9 | Access to personal or confidential information without the participants' specific consent? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 10 | Administration of any questions, test stimuli, presentation that may be experienced as physically, mentally or emotionally harmful / offensive? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 11 | Performance of any acts which may cause embarrassment or affect self-esteem? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 12 | Investigation of participants involved in illegal activities? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 13 | Use of procedures that involve deception? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 14 | Administration of any substance, agent or placebo? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 15 | Working with live vertebrate animals? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 16 | Procedures that may have a negative impact on the environment? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 17 | Other primary data collection methods. Please indicate the type of data collection method(s) below. | | |
| | Details of any other primary data collection method:<br><br>(this box should expand as you type) | ☐ | ☒ |

If NO to every question, then the research activity is (ethically) low risk and **may** be exempt from **some** of the following sections (please refer to Guidance Notes).

If YES to any question, then no research activity should be undertaken until full ethical approval has been obtained.

**SECTION G: Intended Participants**

If there are no participants then do not complete this section, but go directly to section H.

| | **Who are the intended participants:** | **YES** | **NO** |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Students or staff at the University? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 2 | Adults (over the age of 18 and competent to give consent)? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 3 | Vulnerable adults? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 4 | Children and Young People under the age of 18? (Consent from Parent, Carer or Guardian will be required) | ☐ | ☒ |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | Prisoners? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 6 | Young offenders? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 7 | Those who could be considered to have a particularly dependent relationship with the investigator or a gatekeeper? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 8 | People engaged in illegal activities? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 9 | Others. Please indicate the participants below, and specifically any group who may be unable to give consent. | ☐ | ☒ |
| | Details of any other participant groups:<br><br>(this box should expand as you type) | | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | **Participant numbers and source**<br>Provide an estimate of the expected number of participants. How will you identify participants and how will they be recruited? | |
| 10 | How many participants are expected? | N/A<br>*(this box should expand as you type)* |
| 11 | Who will the participants be? | N/A<br>*(this box should expand as you type)* |
| 12 | How will you identify the participants? | N/A<br>*(this box should expand as you type)* |

| | **Information for participants:** | **YES** | **NO** | **N/A** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13 | Will you describe the main research procedures to participants in advance, so that they are informed about what to expect? | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ |
| 14 | Will you tell participants that their participation is voluntary? | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ |
| 15 | Will you obtain written consent for participation? | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ |
| 16 | Will you explain to participants that refusal to participate in the research will not affect their treatment or education (if relevant)? | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ |
| 17 | If the research is observational, will you ask participants for their consent to being observed? | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ |
| 18 | Will you tell participants that they may withdraw from the research at any time and for any reason? | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ |
| 19 | With questionnaires, will you give participants the option of omitting questions they do not want to answer? | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ |
| 20 | Will you tell participants that their data will be treated with full confidentiality and that, if published, it will not be identifiable as theirs? | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 21 | Will you debrief participants at the end of their participation, in a way appropriate to the type of research undertaken? | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ |
| 22 | If NO to any of above questions, please give an explanation | | | |
| | N/A<br><br>*(this box should expand as you type)* | | | |

| | **Information for participants:** | **YES** | **NO** | **N/A** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 24 | Will participants be paid? | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ |
| 25 | Is specialist electrical or other equipment to be used with participants? | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ |
| 26 | Are there any financial or other interests to the investigator or University arising from this study? | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ |
| 27 | Will the research activity involve deliberately misleading participants in any way, or the partial or full concealment of the specific study aims? | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ |
| 28 | If YES to any question, please provide full details | | | |
| | N/A<br><br>*(this box should expand as you type)* | | | |

**SECTION H: Anticipated Risks**

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Outline any anticipated risks that may adversely affect any of the participants, the researchers and/or the University, and the steps that will be taken to address them.<br><br>If you have completed a full risk assessment (for example as required by a laboratory, or external research collaborator) you may append that to this form. | | |
| 1 | Full risk assessment completed and appended? | Yes | ☒ |
| | | No | ☐ |
| 2 | **Risks to participants**<br>For example: sector-specific health & safety, emotional distress, financial disclosure, physical harm, transfer of personal data, sensitive organisational information | | |
| | Risk to participants:<br><br>N/A<br><br>*(this box should expand as you type)* | *How you will mitigate the risk to participants:*<br><br>N/A<br><br>*(this box should expand as you type)* | |
| 3 | If research activity may include sensitive, embarrassing or upsetting topics (e.g. sexual activity, drug use) or issues likely to disclose information requiring further action (e.g. criminal activity), give details of the procedures to deal with these issues, including any support/advice (e.g. helpline numbers) to be offered to participants. Note that where applicable, consent procedures should make it clear that if something potentially or actually illegal is discovered in the course of a project, it may need to be disclosed to the proper authorities | | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | N/A<br><br>*(this box should expand as you type)* | |
| 4 | **Risks to the investigator**<br>For example: personal health & safety, physical harm, emotional distress, risk of accusation of harm/impropriety, conflict of interest | |
| | Risk to the investigator:<br><br>Emotional distress due to the sensitive topic being researched.<br><br>Negative impact on investigator's wellbeing.<br><br>*(this box should expand as you type)* | *How you will mitigate the risk to the investigator:*<br><br>Discuss research content with dissertation supervisor.<br><br>Discuss any concerns during supervision session provided by employer.<br><br>Seek support from university support services.<br><br>Voice any concerns or feelings of declining wellbeing during supervision sessions provided by my employer.<br>*(this box should expand as you type)* |
| 5 | **University/institutional risks**<br>For example: adverse publicity, financial loss, data protection | |
| | Risk to the University:<br><br>Reputational risk to university.<br><br>*(this box should expand as you type)* | *How you will mitigate the risk to the University:*<br><br>Adhere to Ethical Approval system and instructions.<br><br>Explain the narrative within the research activity does not specifically refer to subjective experiences of individuals associated with UWTSD<br><br>*(this box should expand as you type)* |
| 6 | **Environmental risks**<br>For example: accidental spillage of pollutants, damage to local ecosystems | |
| | Risk to the environment:<br><br>Potential impact on wellbeing due to sensitive nature of research activity.<br><br>*(this box should expand as you type)* | *How you will mitigate the risk to environment:*<br><br>Utilise and seek support from employer 'Employee Assistance Programme' that offers wellbeing support 24/7.<br><br>*(this box should expand as you type)* |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Disclosure and Barring Service** | | | |
| | If the research activity involves children or vulnerable | **YES** | **NO** | **N/A** |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | adults, a Disclosure and Barring Service (DBS) certificate must be obtained before any contact with such participants. | | | |
| 7 | Does your research require you to hold a current DBS Certificate? | ☐ | ☐ | ☒ |
| 8 | If YES, please give the certificate number. If the certificate number is not available please write "Pending"; in this case any ethical approval will be subject to providing the appropriate certificate number. | **N/A** | | |

**SECTION I: Feedback, Consent and Confidentiality**

| | |
|---|---|
| 1 | **Feedback**<br>What de-briefing and feedback will be provided to participants, how will this be done and when? |
| | N/A<br>*(this box should expand as you type)* |
| 2 | **Informed consent**<br>Describe the arrangements to inform potential participants, before providing consent, of what is involved in participating. Describe the arrangements for participants to provide full consent before data collection begins. If gaining consent in this way is inappropriate, explain how consent will be obtained and recorded in accordance with prevailing data protection legislation. |
| | N/A<br>*(this box should expand as you type)* |
| 3 | **Confidentiality / Anonymity**<br>Set out how anonymity of participants and confidentiality will be ensured in any outputs. If anonymity is not being offered, explain why this is the case. |
| | N/A<br>*(this box should expand as you type)* |

**SECTION J: Data Protection and Storage**

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Does the research activity involve personal data (as defined by the General Data Protection Regulation 2016 "GDPR" and the Data Protection Act 2018 "DPA")? | **YES** | **NO** |
| 1 | ***"Personal data"*** *means any information relating to an identified or identifiable natural person ('data subject'). An identifiable natural person is one who can be identified, directly or indirectly, in particular by reference to an identifier such as a name, an identification number, location data, an online identifier or to one or more factors specific to the physical, physiological, genetic, mental, economic, cultural or social identity of that natural person. Any video or audio recordings of participants is considered to be personal data.* | ☐ | X |
| | If YES, provide a description of the data and explain why this data needs to be collected: | | |
| 2 | N/A | | |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | *(this box should expand as you type)* | | |
| | Does it involve special category data (as defined by the GDPR)? | **YES** | **NO X** |
| **3** | ***"Special category data"*** *means sensitive personal data consisting of information as to the data subjects' –*<br>*(a) racial or ethnic origin,*<br>*(b) political opinions,*<br>*(c ) religious beliefs or other beliefs of a similar nature,*<br>*(d) membership of a trade union (within the meaning of the Trade Union and Labour Relations (Consolidation) Act 1992),*<br>*(e) physical or mental health or condition,*<br>*(f) sexual life,*<br>*(g) genetics,*<br>*(h) biometric data (as used for ID purposes),* | ☐ | X |
| | If YES, provide a description of the special category data and explain why this data needs to be collected: | | |
| 4 | N/A<br><br>*(this box should expand as you type)* | | |

| | **Will data from the research activity (collected data, drafts of the thesis, or materials for publication) be stored in any of the following ways?** | **YES** | **NO X** |
|---|---|---|---|
| 5 | Manual files (i.e. in paper form)? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 6 | University computers? | ☒ | ☐ |
| 7 | Private company computers? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 8 | Home or other personal computers? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 9 | Laptop computers/ CDs/ Portable disk-drives/ memory sticks? | ☒ | ☐ |
| 10 | "Cloud" storage or websites? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 11 | Other – specify: | ☐ | ☒ |
| 12 | For all stored data, explain the measures in place to ensure the security of the data collected, data confidentiality, including details of backup procedures, password protection, encryption, anonymisation and pseudonymisation: | | |
| | The data on my personal laptop will be password protected and linked to the UWTSD One Drive storage.<br>The UWTSD Computer is also password locked through my student email account<br><br>*(this box should expand as you type)* | | |

| | **Data Protection** | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Will the research activity involve any of the following activities: | **YES** | **NO** |
| 13 | Electronic transfer of data in any form? | ☒ | ☐ |
| 14 | Sharing of data with others at the University outside of the immediate research team? | ☐ | ☒ |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 15 | Sharing of data with other organisations? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 16 | Export of data outside the UK or importing of data from outside the UK? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 17 | Use of personal addresses, postcodes, faxes, emails or telephone numbers? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 18 | Publication of data that might allow identification of individuals? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 19 | Use of data management system? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 20 | Data archiving? | ☐ | ☒ |
| 21 | If YES to any question, please provide full details, explaining how this will be conducted in accordance with the GDPR and Data Protection Act (2018) (and any international equivalents, where appropriate): | | |
| | From my personal laptop to the UWTSD One drive storage<br>my personal laptop is password protected and my student account for the UWTSD One drive storage is password protected.<br>The UWTSD Computer is also password protected through my student email account<br><br>*(this box should expand as you type)* | | |
| 22 | List all who will have access to the data generated by the research activity: | | |
| | Myself plus my supervisor (C Lohmann-Hancock)<br><br>*(this box should expand as you type)* | | |
| 23 | List who will have control of, and act as custodian(s) for, data generated by the research activity: | | |
| | Myself<br><br>*(this box should expand as you type)* | | |
| 24 | Give details of data storage arrangements, including security measures in place to protect the data, where data will be stored, how long for, and in what form. Will data be archived – if so how and if not why not. | | |
| | All work will be kept on my password protected laptop and password protected UWTSD Storage which is password protected<br><br>*(this box should expand as you type)* | | |
| 25 | Please indicate if your data will be stored in the UWTSD Research Data Repository (see https://researchdata.uwtsd.ac.uk/ ). If so please explain. (*Most relevant to academic staff)* | | |
| | N/A<br>*(this box should expand as you type)* | | |
| 26 | Confirm that you have read the UWTSD guidance on data management (see https://www.uwtsd.ac.uk/library/research-data-management/) | **YES** | ☒ |
| 27 | Confirm that you are aware that you need to keep all data until after your research has completed or the end of your funding | **YES** | ☒ |

**SECTION K: Declaration**

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | The information which I have provided is correct and complete to the best of my knowledge. I have attempted to identify any risks and issues related to the research activity and acknowledge my obligations and the rights of the participants**.**<br><br>In submitting this application I hereby confirm that I undertake to ensure that the above named research activity will meet the University's Research Ethics and Integrity Code of Practice which is published on the website: https://www.uwtsd.ac.uk/research/research-ethics/ | | |
| 1 | **Signature of applicant:** | Donna Cleaver | **Date:**<br><br>**03/10/2021** |

***For STUDENT Submissions:***

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 2 | Director of Studies/Supervisor: | Assoc Prof C Lohmann-Hancock | **Date:**<br><br>**19/10/2021** |
| 3 | Signature: | Assoc Prof C Lohmann-Hancock | |

***For STAFF Submissions:***

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 4 | Academic Director/ Assistant Dean: | | **Date:** |
| 5 | Signature: | | |

**Checklist:** Please complete the checklist below to ensure that you have completed the form according to the guidelines and attached any required documentation:

| | |
|---|---|
| ☒ | I have read the guidance notes supplied before completing the form. |
| ☒ | I have completed **ALL RELEVANT** sections of the form in full. |
| ☒ | I confirm that the research activity has received approval in principle |
| ☒ | I have attached a copy of final/interim approval from external organisation (**where appropriate**) |
| ☐ | I have attached a full risk assessment (where appropriate) *ONLY TICK IF YOU HAVE **ATTACHED A FULL RISK ASSESSMENT*** |
| ☒ | I understand that it is my responsibility to ensure that the above named research activity will meet the University's Research Ethics and Integrity Code of Practice. |
| ☒ | I understand that before commencing data collection all documents aimed at respondents (including information sheets, consent forms, questionnaires, interview schedules etc.) must be confirmed by the DoS/Supervisor, module tutor or Academic Director. |

| |
|---|
| **RESEARCH STUDENTS AND STAFF ONLY**<br>All communications relating to this application during its processing must be in writing and emailed to pgresearch@uwtsd.ac.uk , with the title 'Ethical Approval' followed by your name.<br>You will be informed of the outcome of your claim by email; therefore **it is important that you check your University and personal email accounts regularly.** |
| **STUDENTS ON UNDERGRADUATE OR TAUGHT MASTERS PROGRAMMES**<br>should submit this form (and receive the outcome) via systems explained to you by the supervisor/module leader. |

**This form is available electronically from the Academic Office web pages:**
https://www.uwtsd.ac.uk/academic-office/appendices-and-forms/