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Abstract	<p>Being a victim of sexual aggression from a peer is a common experience among adolescents and poses a significant risk for various forms of psychopathology. Unfortunately, little is known concerning specific interpersonal factors that increase an adolescent's risk for experiencing sexual aggression. The current study assessed the contribution made by several interpersonal factors both for the first and repeated experience of becoming a victim of sexual aggression from a peer. Data were collected annually from a longitudinal sample of 200 adolescents over a period of 4 years and were analyzed using multiple-spell, discrete-time survival analysis. Approximately 46% of the adolescents reported experiencing some form of sexual aggression by the end of wave 4. Further, 65% of victims reported experiencing a repeat incident of aggression. Females were at higher risk both for initial and repeated victimization, as were adolescents with more sexual experience and higher levels of rejection sensitivity. Results are discussed in terms of implications for future prevention efforts.</p>	
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4 Interpersonal Factors in the Risk for Sexual Victimization 5 and its Recurrence during Adolescence

6 Brennan J. Young · Wyndol Furman

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9 **Abstract** Being a victim of sexual aggression from a peer
10 is a common experience among adolescents and poses a
11 significant risk for various forms of psychopathology.
12 Unfortunately, little is known concerning specific inter-
13 personal factors that increase an adolescent's risk for
14 experiencing sexual aggression. The current study assessed
15 the contribution made by several interpersonal factors both
16 for the first and repeated experience of becoming a victim
17 of sexual aggression from a peer. Data were collected
18 annually from a longitudinal sample of 200 adolescents
19 over a period of 4 years and were analyzed using multiple-
20 spell, discrete-time survival analysis. Approximately 46%
21 of the adolescents reported experiencing some form of
22 sexual aggression by the end of wave 4. Further, 65% of
23 victims reported experiencing a repeat incident of aggres-
24 sion. Females were at higher risk both for initial and
25 repeated victimization, as were adolescents with more
26 sexual experience and higher levels of rejection sensitivity.
27 Results are discussed in terms of implications for future
28 prevention efforts.

29
30 **Keywords** Adolescence · Sexual victimization ·
31 Revictimization · Rejection sensitivity · Survival analysis
32

33 Introduction

34 Sexual aggression from a peer may take the form of verbal
35 coercion, use of drugs or alcohol, or the threat or use of

physical force in order to obtain unwanted sexual contact 36
(Koss and Gidycz 1985). Experiencing such sexual 37
aggression is alarmingly common among adolescents, with 38
estimates for girls ranging from 14 to 43% (Hickman et al. 39
2004). Adolescents who experience sexual aggression are 40
at higher risk for both externalizing and internalizing 41
symptomatology (Ackard and Neumark-Sztainer 2002; 42
Callahan et al. 2003; Howard and Wang 2005). Girls who 43
are victims of sexual aggression are nearly six times more 44
likely to report suicidal thoughts or attempts than nonvic- 45
tims (Ackard and Neumark-Sztainer 2002). One of the 46
most troubling issues surrounding adolescent sexual 47
aggression is the frequent pattern of chronic victimization 48
(Levy 1990). The rates of sexual victimization in college 49
have been estimated to be two to four times higher for 50
women who had previously been victims of sexual 51
aggression as an adolescent (Gidycz et al. 1993; Humphrey 52
and White 2000). 53

54 Given the high incidence and negative outcomes asso- 55
ciated with experiencing sexual aggression from a peer 56
during this age period, adolescence represents a critical 57
window for intervention (Foshee et al. 2005). Particularly 58
important is the identification of risk factors that can be 59
targeted in prevention programs. The responsibility for 60
sexual aggression clearly rests with the perpetrator, and it 61
is important to identify and understand the factors that lead 62
to sexual aggression. Given that dating is a dyadic process, 63
it is also important to provide adolescents with the tools 64
and ability to protect themselves from sexual aggression. 65
Thus, the identification of characteristics of victims of 66
sexual aggression is essential to understand the factors that 67
incur risk for victimization. Consideration of these char- 68
acteristics will be crucial to identify factors that may help 69
to prevent sexual aggression in the future (Few and Rosen 70
2005).

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71 Research has begun to identify factors that are associ- 120
 72 ated with experiencing sexual aggression. Several of these 121
 73 factors originate within the family and social environment, 122
 74 including a history of child maltreatment or domestic 123
 75 violence (Hall-Smith et al. 2003; Wolfe et al. 2005), hav- 124
 76 ing divorced parents or living in a single-parent household 125
 77 (Coker et al. 2000), and general socioeconomic disadvan- 126
 78 tage (Wolfe and Feiring 2000). Several cognitive factors 127
 79 also are associated with sexual dating victimization, 128
 80 including deficits in social competence and conflict reso- 129
 81 lution (Avery-Leaf and Cascardi 2002). Attitudes justifying 130
 82 aggression and stereotypes concerning gender roles also 131
 83 have been implicated and are targets of most prevention 132
 84 programs (Hickman et al. 2004). Although most studies 133
 85 examining risk for and recurrence of sexual victimization 134
 86 during adolescence have been cross-sectional in nature 135
 87 (Vezina and Hebert 2007), the existing longitudinal studies 136
 88 have identified similar risk factors (e.g., Buzy et al. 2004; 137
 89 Foshee et al. 2004; Humphrey and White 2000; Walsh and 138
 90 Foshee 1998).

91 Thus, a growing body of literature has highlighted the 140
 92 prevalence of sexual aggression and its negative impact 141
 93 upon adolescents. Several cognitive and socioeconomic 142
 94 factors have been implicated as potential risk factors. 143
 95 However, prevention programs that have targeted these risk 144
 96 factors have had limited success in demonstrating behavior 145
 97 change and the actual prevention of victimization (Irwin 146
 98 and Rickert 2005). In contrast, very little attention has been 147
 99 focused upon interpersonal factors that may also incur risk. 148
 100 Specifically, few studies have examined adolescents' 149
 101 understanding of and expectations for relationships, their 150
 102 self-perceptions within relationships, and specific qualities 151
 103 of their relationships. Such interpersonal factors may be 152
 104 particularly valuable to identify, as it may be possible to 153
 105 target them in prevention programs, and thus enhance 154
 106 potential victims' ability to protect themselves. Further, 155
 107 few studies have examined potential risk factors prospec- 156
 108 tively (Vezina and Hebert 2007). The focus of the current 157
 109 study was to assess interpersonal risk factors for experi- 158
 110 encing peer sexual aggression and its recurrence in a 159
 111 longitudinal study of adolescents. We selected five such 160
 112 factors on the basis of their theoretical conceptualization 161
 113 and empirical research suggesting that they could be 162
 114 potentially linked to victimization. 163

115 Interpersonal Risk Factors

116 *Insecure Romantic Relational Styles*

117 One such interpersonal risk factor may be an insecure 170
 118 romantic relational style. Attachment theorists have con- 171
 119 ceptualized such styles as representations of oneself, the 172

partner and the relationship (Bowlby 1980; Furman and 120
 Wehner 1994; Main et al. 1985); accordingly, such styles 121
 not only influence one's behavior, but also one's expecta- 122
 tions regarding the other's behavior. Originally, romantic 123
 styles were categorized into three types: secure, dismissing 124
 (avoidant), or preoccupied (anxious-ambivalent) (Hazan 125
 and Shaver 1987). More recently, differences in attachment 126
 styles have been examined in terms of either underlying 127
 dimensions or the degree to which individuals resemble 128
 these attachment prototypes (Griffin and Bartholomew 129
 1994; Fraley and Waller 1998).

Very few studies have examined the links between 131
 relational styles and victimization. However, of those that 132
 have, several found that victims tend to hold more insecure 133
 views of relationships (e.g., preoccupied or dismissing 134
 views; Alexander 1992; Flanagan and Furman 2000; 135
 Stovall-McClough and Cloitre 2006). Those who are more 136
 prototypically dismissing minimize the affective impor- 137
 tance of relationships, emphasizing their own strength and 138
 independence (Cassidy and Kobak 1988). As a result of 139
 minimizing affect and intimacy in relationships, dismissing 140
 individuals tend to view sex as an opportunity for explo- 141
 ration and self-gratification (Furman and Wehner 1994) 142
 and are prone to engage in uncommitted sexual relations 143
 (Simpson and Gangestad 1991). Those who are more dis- 144
 missing are likely to find themselves in potentially 145
 compromising situations, thereby increasing their risk for 146
 experiencing sexual aggression. In fact, dismissing 147
 attachment style predicts being a victim of sexual aggres- 148
 sion over and above the contribution made by earlier child 149
 maltreatment (Wolfe et al. 1998).

Those who are more prototypically preoccupied see 151
 themselves as unworthy of care and support, tend to be 152
 overly concerned with the acceptance of others, and often 153
 fear abandonment (see Mikulincer and Shaver 2007). This 154
 high level of anxiety surrounding romantic relationships is 155
 likely to increase vulnerability to sexual aggression. Pre- 156
 occupied individuals show a propensity for eager 157
 involvement in romantic relationships, tend to fall in love 158
 quickly, and experience frequent break-ups and reunions. 159
 Such a pattern is likely to increase an individual's number 160
 of relationship partners, a factor associated with experi- 161
 encing sexual aggression (Flanagan and Furman 2000). 162
 Further, individuals high on preoccupation tend to view 163
 sexual behavior as a means to increase intimacy and 164
 closeness within a relationship and as a means to achieve 165
 self-validation (Davis et al. 2004). Thus, preoccupied 166
 individuals may become more vulnerable to sexual pres- 167
 sure and coercion and may enter situations in which sexual 168
 aggression is more likely to occur. Consistent with this 169
 conceptualization, college-aged female victims who have 170
 more preoccupied styles report higher rates of victimiza- 171
 tion (Flanagan and Furman 2000).

173 *Rejection Sensitivity*

174 In addition to relational styles, sensitivity to interpersonal
 175 rejection may also incur risk for becoming a victim of sexual
 176 aggression. Individuals high on rejection sensitivity fear
 177 rejection and abandonment and are motivated to avoid it
 178 whenever possible (Downey and Feldman 1996). In fact,
 179 individuals high on rejection sensitivity are willing to engage
 180 in behaviors that may put them at risk for victimization if
 181 they believe that such behaviors will prevent rejection. For
 182 example, adolescent girls high on rejection sensitivity are
 183 more willing than low rejection sensitive girls to engage in
 184 behaviors they know are wrong in order to keep their partners
 185 in their relationships (Purdie and Downey 2000). Thus,
 186 adolescents high on rejection sensitivity may be more prone
 187 to tolerate unwanted sexual advances or less likely to resist
 188 coercive sexual behavior from their partners.

189 *Romantic Competence*

190 Adolescents' perceived romantic competence represents
 191 another potential interpersonal risk factor for experiencing
 192 sexual aggression. Perceived romantic competence refers to an
 193 individual's self-perceived ability to effectively negotiate
 194 romantic relationships as well as his or her perception that he or
 195 she is adequate and worthy within this domain of functioning
 196 (Harter et al. 1998). Adolescents with low perceived compe-
 197 tence exhibit low levels of social self-confidence and tend to
 198 lack assertiveness and control within relationships (Harter
 199 1999), characteristics that may leave them vulnerable to
 200 becoming a victim of sexual aggression. The inability to counter
 201 feelings of relational inadequacy may lead an adolescent who
 202 has low perceived competence to continue in a relationship,
 203 despite potential victimization (Johnson et al. 2005).

204 *Sexual Experience*

205 Finally, the amount of sexual experience an adolescent has
 206 had may be a risk factor. Engaging in sexual activity inher-
 207 ently places one in the situational context within which sexual
 208 aggression occurs and thus may increase risk for becoming a
 209 victim (Howard and Wang 2005). Further, those who engage
 210 in more sexual activity may find themselves in riskier situa-
 211 tions than those who engage in less sexual activity, thereby
 212 increasing their risk for sexual victimization.

213 *Sexual Revictimization*

214 These interpersonal factors are expected not only to
 215 increase adolescents' risk for an initial experience of sexual

aggression but also their risk for experiencing subsequent 216
 incidents of sexually aggressive behavior. Sexual aggress- 217
 sion from a peer is likely to exert effects upon the very 218
 interpersonal factors that increased risk for victimization 219
 in the first place, thereby compounding the risk for victim- 220
 ization. For example, being a victim of sexual aggression is 221
 likely to decrease an adolescent's confidence in his or her 222
 ability to manage romantic interactions, thereby further 223
 eroding his or her self-perceived romantic competence and 224
 incurring risk for further victimization. 225

The risk for adolescent sexual aggression associated with 226
 gender also was of interest. Typically, the reported 227
 rate of sexual victimization among boys is lower than that 228
 for girls (Poitras and Lavoie 1995). Thus, it was expected 229
 that risk for experiencing sexual aggression would be 230
 higher for females than for males. Nevertheless, some 231
 estimates of sexual dating victimization among boys range 232
 as high as 36%, underscoring the importance of examining 233
 the role of gender (Hickman et al. 2004; Vezina and Hebert 234
 2007). 235

The Current Study 236

In summary, the current study sought to assess the contri- 237
 bution made by several interpersonal variables to the risk 238
 for experiencing sexual aggression by a peer in adoles- 239
 cence. Specifically, it was hypothesized that adolescents 240
 whose romantic views were more dismissing and/or pre- 241
 occupied, who were higher on rejection sensitivity, and 242
 who reported more sexual experience would be at higher 243
 risk for later sexual victimization by a peer than adoles- 244
 cents who were lower on these measures. Adolescents who 245
 reported lower self-perceived romantic competence also 246
 were hypothesized to be at increased risk for later sexual 247
 victimization. Further, girls were expected to be at higher 248
 risk than boys. In addition to these interpersonal variables, 249
 several covariates were assessed, including 10th grade self- 250
 reported GPA, ethnicity, family structure (e.g., single/two 251
 parent home status), socioeconomic status, and IQ. These 252
 covariates were examined in order to determine the influ- 253
 ence of the interpersonal variables on the risk for 254
 victimization over and above any demographic effects that 255
 may exist. 256

The use of a longitudinal sample of adolescents allowed 257
 us to examine prospective risk associated with each inter- 258
 personal factor. Further, the current study employed 259
 multiple-spell, discrete-time survival analysis to assess the 260
 risk associated with an initial experience as well as the 261
 possible recurrence of sexual aggression (Willett and 262
 Singer 1995). Typically, investigators have simply exam- 263
 ined whether individuals have been victims of sexual 264
 aggression or not. Multiple-spell, discrete-time survival 265

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analysis, however, has several appealing features. First, it provides descriptive information about the proportion of individuals experiencing sexual aggression at different time points. It does not assume that the risk is consistent over time (i.e. proportional hazards); thus, one is able to assess if there are times of particularly high risk (Willet and Singer 1991). Moreover, it allows for the inclusion of time varying predictors, rather than a single time predictor gathered at the beginning of the study. In this way, the assessment of risk can be sensitive to fluctuations in the levels of the interpersonal predictor variables over time. This analytic strategy also provides a particularly sensitive assessment of risk factors because it uses standard logistic regression models yielding traditional odds ratios. Finally, an advantage of multiple spell, discrete time survival analysis over other time-series methods is that it allows for the description and prediction of event recurrence, taking into account whether and when someone has previously experienced the event.

285 Methods

286 Participants and Procedure

287 Data for the current study were collected as part of an
288 ongoing longitudinal investigation of the role that parents,
289 peers, and romantic partners play in adolescent psychoso-
290 cial functioning. Two hundred tenth grade adolescents (100
291 male, 100 female) were recruited in a large Western
292 metropolitan area by distributing brochures and sending
293 letters to families residing in various zip codes and to
294 students enrolled in various schools in ethnically diverse
295 neighborhoods. We were unable to determine the ascer-
296 tainment rate because we used brochures and because the
297 letters were sent to many families who did not have a 10th
298 grader. To insure maximal response, we paid families \$25
299 to hear a description of the project in their home. Of the
300 families that heard the description, 85.5% expressed
301 interest and carried through with the Wave 1 assessment.

302 Designed to be ethnically representative of the United
303 States' population, the sample was comprised of 11.5%
304 African American, 12.5% Hispanic, 1.5% Native Ameri-
305 can, 1% Asian American, 4% Biracial and 69.5% White,
306 non-Hispanics. With regard to family structure, 57.5%
307 were residing with 2 biological or adoptive parents, 11.5%
308 were residing with a biological or adoptive parent and a
309 step parent or partner, and the remaining 31% were
310 residing with a single parent or relative. At wave 1, par-
311 ticipants ranged in age from 14 to 16 years
312 ($M = 15.3$ years; $SD = .54$ years). The sample was of
313 average intelligence (WISC-III vocabulary score $M = 9.8$,
314 $SD = 2.44$); 55.4% of their mothers had a college degree,

as would be expected from an ethnically representative
sample from this particular Metropolitan area.

Approximately 85% of the participants had begun dating
by the tenth grade and 75.5% had a romantic relationship
of at least 1 month duration. At the first wave of data
collection 94% said they were heterosexual/straight,
whereas the remaining 6% said they were bisexual, gay,
lesbian, or questioning their sexual orientation. The sample
also closely approximated national norms on a series of
measures of psycho-social adjustment and substance use
(see Furman et al. 2007).

Analyses in the current study included data collected
from the first four waves (grades 10, 11, 12, and 1 year
subsequent to the 12th grade); all 200 adolescents partici-
pated in the first two waves of data collection, 199
participated in the third wave and 194 participated in the
fourth wave of data collection.

Measures

Sexual Victimization

The Sexual Experiences Survey (SES; Koss and Gidycz
1985) was administered at each wave of data collection.
The SES consists of eight questions and asks participants
whether they have experienced various types of unwanted
sexual activity and how often they have had such experi-
ences during a given time period. For example, one item
asks, "Have you had sexual intercourse when you didn't
want to because a person threatened or used some degree of
physical force (twisting your arm, holding you down, etc.)
to make you?" Based upon Koss and Gidycz's definition
(1985), sexual aggression was considered to be any
behavior involving verbal coercion, use of drugs or alco-
hol, or the threat or use of physical force in order to obtain
an unwanted sexual contact with any part of the body. The
items on the SES were asked specifically in regard to
experiences with peers; participants were instructed not to
include sexual aggression from family members or other
adults.

At each of the four waves of data collection, participants
indicated how many times they had experienced any of the
eight forms of sexual aggression from a peer during the
prior 12 months. Those who reported an instance of the
eight were considered to have experienced sexual aggres-
sion during that wave. At the first wave of data collection,
participants were also asked how often they had *ever*
experienced sexual aggression. This information was used
to left-censor participants who had already been previously
victimized from the analyses of initial victimization
(see statistical analyses). Since these eight items were not
used to create a scale but rather to establish a dichotomous

364	status variable (victimization occurred/did not occur),	Questionnaire (Downey and Feldman 1996). Each item	408
365	internal consistency was not calculated.	presents a hypothetical interpersonal situation specific to	409
		romantic relationships (e.g., “You ask someone you don’t	410
		know well out on a date.”) and asks participants to make	411
366	<i>Romantic Styles</i>	two ratings. The first rating consists of the degree to which	412
		he or she would be anxious or concerned about the out-	413
367	Adolescents’ romantic styles were assessed using the	come of the situation on a 6-point scale (1 = “very	414
368	romantic partner version of the Behavioral Systems	unconcerned” to 6 = “very concerned”). Secondly, par-	415
369	Questionnaire (BSQ; Furman, W., & Wehner, E. (1999).	ticipants are asked to rate the extent to which they would	416
370	The behavioral systems questionnaire. Unpublished mea-	expect the other person to respond in an accepting manner	417
371	sure, University of Denver, Denver, CO.). Romantic styles	(1 = very unlikely to 6 = very likely). The scores from	418
372	reflect adolescents’ self-perceptions of their approach to	these two ratings for each item are multiplied to obtain a	419
373	affiliation, caretaking, and attachment within their romantic	single, weighted item-score. Weighted scores are then	420
374	relationships. The BSQ is a 27-item self-report question-	summed across items. The average internal consistency for	421
375	naire divided into three 9-item Likert scales, which assess	the four waves of data for this scale was $\alpha = .73$.	422
376	secure, dismissing, or preoccupied styles respectively.		
377	Each item presented a statement related to affiliation,		
378	caretaking or attachment behavior within romantic rela-	<i>Sexual Experience</i>	423
379	tionships (e.g., “I consistently turn to my boy/girlfriends		
380	when upset or worried”), and the participant rated on a	The extent of each adolescent’s sexual experience was	424
381	scale of 1–5 the degree to which the statement described	calculated as a mean of nine 5-point Likert items that	425
382	him or her. For the purposes of the current study, the secure	assessed the frequency that the adolescent engaged in	426
383	scores were not used as they were highly negatively related	various sexual activities within the past 12 months. The	427
384	to the dismissing style scores ($M r = -.74$). Average	sexual activities ranged from cuddling and kissing to	428
385	internal consistency of the four data waves for dismissing	intercourse and oral sex. The average internal consistency	429
386	styles was $\alpha = .88$ and for preoccupied styles was $\alpha = .83$.	for the four waves of data for this scale was $\alpha = .92$.	430
387	<i>Romantic Competence</i>	Procedure	431
388	Adolescents’ perceived competence in romantic relation-	Parental consent and adolescent assent for the four waves	432
389	ships was measured with the romantic competence subscale	of data collection were obtained at the time of the initial	433
390	of the <i>Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents</i> (SPPA;	family visit. The IQ measure was administered at a	434
391	Harter, S. (1988). The self-perception profile for adoles-	research laboratory at the university. Questionnaires on	435
392	cents. Unpublished manual, University of Denver, Denver,	sexual behavior were administered by computer assisted	436
393	CO.). The SPPA consists of 32 items (range = 1–4)	self-interviewing techniques at the laboratory to increase	437
394	designed to reflect self-perceived competence and worth in	the candor of responses. The other questionnaires were	438
395	various domains that are important to adolescents. The	completed at the participant’s convenience. The confiden-	439
396	romantic competence subscale assesses the adolescent’s	tiality of the participants’ data was protected by a	440
397	perceptions that he or she is romantically attractive, is	Certificate of Confidentiality issued by the U. S. Depart-	441
398	dating the people he or she would like to date, and feels that	ment of Health and Human Services. Participants were	442
399	he or she is fun and interesting when on a date. Each item is	compensated financially for completing the questionnaires.	443
400	presented in a “structured alternative format” to reduce the		
401	tendency to respond in a socially desirable manner (Harter	Statistical Analyses	444
402	1982). The romantic competence subscale contained four		
403	items, and the average internal consistency for the four	<i>Survival Analysis</i>	445
404	waves of data was $\alpha = .77$.		
405	<i>Rejection Sensitivity</i>	In general, survival analysis provides a means to determine	446
		whether and when individuals in a sample experience a	447
406	Adolescents’ rejection sensitivity was measured with a	target event—in this case, being a victim of sexual	448
407	5-item abbreviated version of the Rejection Sensitivity	aggression. The rate of experiencing sexual aggression is	449
		described in terms of the likelihood of experiencing an	450

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451 incident of sexual aggression over the course of the study.
 452 The current study utilized multiple-spell, discrete-time
 453 survival analysis (MDSA) (Willett and Singer 1995).
 454 MDSA describes each participant's history of experiencing
 455 sexual aggression in terms of spells and periods-within-
 456 spells. A participant is considered to be within a particular
 457 spell until the occurrence of a target event (an incident of
 458 being the victim of sexual aggression), whereupon the next
 459 spell begins. Time within a particular spell may span
 460 several waves of data collection, each of which is repre-
 461 sented as a single period within that spell. For example, an
 462 adolescent who reported experiencing sexual aggression
 463 for the first time at wave 3 of data collection would be
 464 considered to be in Period 3 of Spell 1 at the time of the
 465 third wave (having already progressed through Period 1
 466 and Period 2 of Spell 1 during the first two waves).
 467 However, because she reported experiencing an incident of
 468 sexual aggression at this assessment, she would then enter
 469 Period 1 of Spell 2 at the next wave of data collection
 470 (wave 4). In contrast, an adolescent who never reported an
 471 incident of sexual aggression during the course of the study
 472 would progress from Period 1 of Spell 1 through Period 4
 473 of Spell 1 over the 4 waves and would not enter Spell 2.
 474 Each adolescent's presence within a particular period of a
 475 particular spell was represented by a series of dummy
 476 variables.

477 Based upon this parameterization, MDSA proceeds as a
 478 series of hierarchical logistic regression models with vic-
 479 timization as the outcome variable. The spell and period
 480 variables are combined to form a baseline hazard model,
 481 which describes the risk for victimization over time with-
 482 out regard to predictor variables. From this baseline model,
 483 all predictor variables are added in a second model, and the
 484 improvement of fit over the baseline model is assessed. The
 485 contribution to risk made by each predictor variable is
 486 described in terms of odds ratios.

487 *Missing Data and Censoring*

488 Across all four waves, the rate of missing data due to
 489 attrition or omission was low, ranging from 0 to 10.6% on
 490 each variable ($M = 4.5\%$). For some participants, time to
 491 victimization could not be computed, and censoring tech-
 492 niques were employed for their data. For example, some
 493 participants did not report experiencing sexual aggression
 494 during the course of the study, and it is thus unknown
 495 whether they were ever victimized and (if so) what their
 496 time-to-victimization was. These participants were right-
 497 censored, such that their data up to the end of their par-
 498 ticipation were included in the analyses. Additionally,
 499 some participants reported experiencing peer sexual
 500 aggression prior to the 12-month period assessed at wave 1,

501 making their time to initial victimization unknown. How-
 502 ever, it was still possible to assess their time to next
 503 victimization, and these participants were left-censored
 504 such that their available data were included in the spell 2
 505 analyses of revictimization. Finally, for cases in which data
 506 were intermittently missing (e.g., complete data at wave 1,
 507 wave 2 and wave 4 but missing data at wave 3), multiple
 508 imputation (MI) procedures were implemented (see Bacik
 509 et al. 1998; Keiley and Martin 2005).

510 MI is a maximum likelihood-based method for replacing
 511 missing values (Schafer and Graham 2002). In MI, maxi-
 512 mum likelihood procedures are employed to create a series
 513 of complete data sets. Each data set is made complete by
 514 drawing values for the missing data from a predictive dis-
 515 tribution of scores based upon information from all variables
 516 in the data set. Primary analyses are then conducted on each
 517 completed data set and combined into a single statistical
 518 estimate (Rubin 1987; Schafer 1997). Ten imputed datasets
 519 were derived, which resulted in an estimated 99.0% effi-
 520 ciency (Rubin 1987; Schafer and Olsen 1998).

Statistical Software

521
 522 Multiply imputed datasets were generated in AMOS v. 7.0
 523 (Arbuckle 2006). Preliminary analyses of the data were
 524 conducted in SPSS v. 11.5. Lifetables and graphs of the
 525 survival function also were generated in SPSS. Finally, the
 526 primary multiple-spell model-fitting analyses were con-
 527 ducted in Mplus v. 4.0 (Muthen and Muthen 2006). The
 528 Mplus statistical package provided the benefit of conduct-
 529 ing the analyses across the imputed data sets and
 530 automatically calculating combined estimates (Mplus
 531 Users' Guide 2006). Results across each of the 10 imputed
 532 data sets were combined according to Schafer's (1997)
 533 equations.

534 **Results**

535 Preliminary Analyses

Data Cleaning

537 Prior to the multiple imputation process, variables in the
 538 dataset were assessed for normality of distribution and the
 539 presence of outliers. No violations of normality were noted.
 540 Outliers were identified and corrected by equating extreme
 541 values to scores of ± 1.5 times the interquartile range from
 542 the mean. Other assumptions of logistic regression,
 543 including linearity of the logit, also were assessed
 544 according to procedures outlined by Tabachnick and Fidell
 545 (2001), and the data were found to conform adequately.

546 *Covariates*

547 Prior to the primary analyses, a number of variables were
 548 considered for inclusion as covariates in the logistic
 549 regression models. These variables included 10th grade
 550 self-reported GPA, ethnicity, family structure (e.g., single/
 551 two parent home status), socioeconomic status (based upon
 552 maternal education) and IQ (WISC-III Vocabulary). None
 553 were significantly related to experiencing sexual victim-
 554 ization and thus, were not included in the primary analyses.

555 *Correlations*

556 Table 1 presents the correlations among the interpersonal
 557 variables and gender at wave1. The pattern of correlations
 558 was similar across all four waves.

559 *Primary Analyses*

560 *Rate of Victimization*

561 The primary dependent variables were the participants’
 562 reports of whether they were or were not victims of sexual
 563 aggression in each of the 12 months prior to the four waves of
 564 data collection. The rate of sexual victimization is expressed
 565 as the proportion of incidents averaged across the 10 imputed
 566 data sets. Approximately 46.4% of the participants reported
 567 experiencing either a first incident of sexual aggression or a
 568 repeated incident by the end of the fourth wave of data col-
 569 lection. The average proportion of adolescents that reported
 570 experiencing either first-time or repeated sexual aggression
 571 was fairly consistent across waves (Wave 1 = 16.2%; Wave
 572 2 = 20.1%; Wave 3 = 16.6%; Wave 4 = 18.3%).

573 In the first wave of data collection, the participants were
 574 also asked if they had ever been victims of sexual
 575 aggression from a peer. Comparisons of the reports of ever
 576 being victims and being victims in the last 12 months
 577 revealed that 17.7% reported that they had experienced an
 578 incident of sexual aggression even earlier than the

579 12 month period assessed at the first wave of data collec-
 580 tion, whereas an additional 34.8% of the adolescents
 581 reported that an initial incident of sexual aggression had
 582 been experienced during the four year period examined in
 583 the present study. Thus, 46.4% of the participants had been
 584 victims at some point. Those participants who reported
 585 prior incidents were left-censored; that is, they were not
 586 included in the analyses of initial victimization, but they
 587 were included in the spell 2 analyses of revictimization.

588 To assess whether potentially meaningful differences
 589 existed between these participants and those who experi-
 590 enced sexual aggression for the first time during the course
 591 of the study, group differences were examined on the
 592 potential covariates (e.g., IQ GPA, ethnicity, family
 593 structure, & SES), gender, and the interpersonal variables.
 594 Significant group differences existed only on the sexual
 595 experience composite ($\beta = 1.09$; $SE = .35$; $p < .01$).
 596 Adolescents whose first experience of peer sexual aggres-
 597 sion occurred prior to the start of the study reported higher
 598 levels of sexual experience ($M = 2.81$; $SD = .77$) than
 599 adolescents whose first experience occurred later during
 600 the course of the study ($M = 2.15$; $SD = .83$).

601 The survival functions for spell 1 and for spell 2 are
 602 displayed in Fig. 1. An average of 34.8% experienced an
 603 initial incident of sexual aggression during the 4-year
 604 period of the study. The mean survival time in spell 1 was
 605 2.79 years ($SE = .12$; $95\% \text{ CI} = 2.57\text{--}3.02$). Of those who
 606 did report an incident of sexual aggression, the mean sur-
 607 vival time to the next incident (i.e., time in spell 2) was
 608 1.33 years ($SE = .17$; $95\% \text{ CI} = 1.02\text{--}1.63$ years). Only
 609 35.2% of adolescents who experienced an initial incident of
 610 sexual aggression survived through the end of wave 4
 611 without a second incident.

612 *Baseline Hazard Model*

613 The multiple-spell, discrete time survival analysis was con-
 614 ducted as two hierarchical logistic regression models. The
 615 first was a baseline hazard model, in which the risk for
 616 experiencing sexual aggression was described without the

Table 1 Correlations among interpersonal variables and gender by wave

	Gender	SexExp	RejSens	RomComp	DismStyle	Mean	SD	Range
SexExp	-.03					2.20	0.90	1.00–4.56
RejSens	-.14	-.30**				11.44	4.43	1.00–22.08
RomComp	-.01	-.46**	-.44**			2.66	0.66	1.00–4.01
DismStyle	-.20**	-.11	-.09	-.23**		2.29	0.63	1.00–4.24
PreocStyle	-.00	-.06	-.17**	-.21**	-.10	2.38	0.58	1.00–3.98

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$ level. * Correlation is significant at $p < .05$ level. SexExp = Sexual Experience composite; RejSens = Rejection Sensitivity; RomComp = Romantic Competence; DismStyle = Dismissing Romantic Style; PreocStyle = Preoccupied Romantic Style

Author Proof

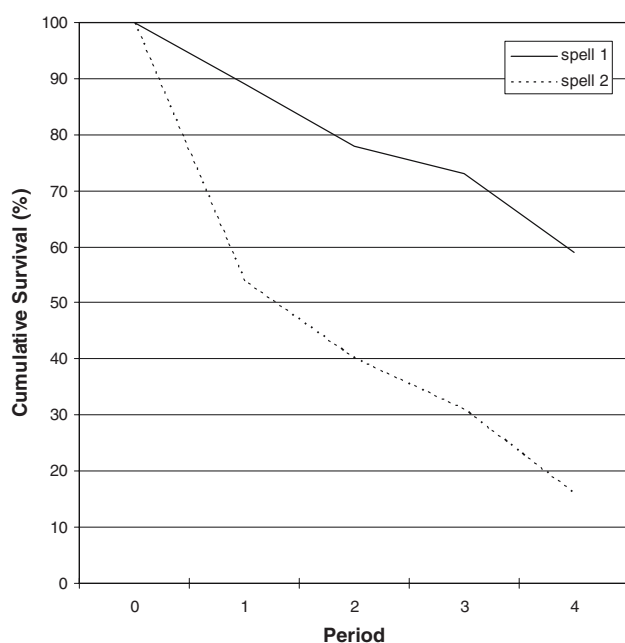


Fig. 1 Survival functions for initial victimization (spell 1) and for revictimization (spell 2)

617 influence of any predictor variables. The spell and period
618 each participant was in was represented with a series of
619 dummy variables: one for each period, one for spell, and one
620 for the interaction between spell and period. Victimization
621 status was then regressed upon these dummy variables,
622 establishing the baseline hazard function for sexual aggression.
623 The equation for the baseline hazard model was:

$$\text{Logit}(\text{hazard}) = \text{period1} + \text{period2} + \text{period3} \\ + \text{period4} + \text{spell2} + \text{period} * \text{spell2}$$

625 In order to avoid linear dependence that may be created
626 by including four period dummy variables, the intercept
627 was not included in the model.

628 The average baseline goodness-of-fit was $(-2)\log\text{likeli-}$
629 $\text{hood} = 541.11$. The estimate for Spell 2 was both
630 significant and positive ($\beta = 2.03$; $\text{SE} = .55$; $p < .05$),
631 indicating that the risk for experiencing revictimization
632 was greater than the risk for initial victimization. In fact,
633 the average odds ratio for spell 2 was 7.65; once an adoles-
634 cent initially experienced sexual aggression, he or she
635 was more than seven times more likely to experience
636 subsequent incidents. The estimates and standard errors for
637 each term in the model are presented in Table 2.

638 *The Influence of Gender and Interpersonal Variables upon* 639 *Risk for Victimization*

640 The next model assessed whether the prediction of experi-
641 encing sexual aggression could be improved with the

Table 2 Parameter estimates (and standard errors) for multiple-spell survival models

Predictor	Baseline	Model 2
Period 1	0–2.01 (0.24)	0–6.20 (1.95)
Period 2	0–2.22 (0.26)	0–6.40 (1.91)
Period 3	0–2.59 (0.33)	0–6.86 (1.90)
Period 4	0–1.95 (0.30)	0–6.25 (1.93)
Spell2	0–2.03 (0.55)**	0–6.72 (3.10)**
Period*Spell2	0–0.32 (0.29)	0–0.26 (0.30)
Gender		0–0.71 (0.33)*
Gender*Spell2		–1.01 (0.63)
SexExp		0–0.51 (0.21)*
SexExp*Spell2		0–0.29 (0.41)
RejSens		0–0.08 (0.04)*
RejSens*Spell2		0–0.03 (0.06)
RomComp		0–0.15 (0.33)
RomComp*Spell2		0–0.16 (0.53)
PreocStyle		0–0.16 (0.30)
PreocStyle*Spell2		0–0.53 (0.46)
DismStyle		0–0.09 (0.28)
DismStyle*Spell2		–0.29 (0.48)
Deviance (–2)LL:	541.11	517.16
	6 parameters	18 parameters

Note: ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

SexExp = Sexual Experience composite; RejSens = Rejection Sensitivity; RomComp = Romantic Competence; DismStyle = Dismissing Romantic Style; PreocStyle = Preoccupied Romantic Style

642 inclusion of the hypothesized risk variables. No a priori
643 reasons were identified for entering the predictor variables
644 into the model in any particular order; thus, all were
645 entered simultaneously in a single block, including the
646 respective interactions with spell (Model 2). The interper-
647 sonal variables were time-varying and were entered as
648 prospective predictors into the equation such that sexual
649 victimization at any particular wave was predicted by the
650 interpersonal variables as measured at the preceding
651 assessment (e.g., victimization at wave 3 was predicted by
652 level of rejection sensitivity at wave 2). Sexual victimiza-
653 tion at wave 1 was predicted by the interpersonal scores at
654 wave 1, as no prior measure of the interpersonal variables
655 was available. (Supplementary analyses revealed no dif-
656 ference in the magnitude of corresponding concurrent
657 and prospective relations (e.g., Wave 1 rejection sensitiv-
658 ity's correlation with Wave 1 and Wave 2 sexual
659 victimization)).

660 The average goodness-of-fit for Model 2 was $(-2)\log\text{likeli-}$
661 $\text{hood} = 517.14$, yielding a significant improvement
662 over the baseline model ($\Delta X^2 (12df) = 23.97$, $p < .05$).
663 The estimates and odds ratios for each predictor variable
664 are discussed subsequently and are presented in Table 2.

665 The estimate for gender was significant ($\beta = .71$; SE =
666 $.33$; $p < .05$) and yielded a corresponding odds ratio of
667 2.05 (95% CI = 1.20 – 3.73). Thus, adolescent girls' risk for
668 experiencing sexual aggression was more than two times
669 the risk for boys, a statistically significant difference.
670 Accordingly, separate risk profiles for boys and girls were
671 examined. The mean survival time for girls in spell 1 was
672 2.26 periods (SE = $.13$; 95% CI = 2.01 – 2.51); at the end of
673 period 4, approximately 49% of adolescent girls had
674 experienced sexual aggression. In contrast, the mean sur-
675 vival time for boys in spell 1 was somewhat longer
676 ($M = 2.53$ periods; SE = $.11$; 95% CI = 2.32 – 2.74), and
677 only 33% reported experiencing sexual aggression. The
678 mean survival time for girls in spell 2 (e.g., after the first
679 incident) was 1.39 years (SE = $.21$; 95% CI = 0.98 – 1.80),
680 whereas the mean survival time for boys was 1.24 years
681 (SE = $.23$; 95% CI = 0.77 – 1.69). The interaction term
682 between gender and spell was not significant, indicating
683 that the risk associated with gender did not statistically
684 differ from the initial incident of sexual aggression to the
685 next incident.

686 The estimate for sexual experience was significant
687 ($\beta = .51$; SE = $.21$; $p < .05$), yielding an average odds-
688 ratio of 1.67 (95% CI = 1.18 – 2.37) and indicating higher
689 risk associated with more sexual experience. Given that the
690 magnitude of effects for continuous variables such as
691 sexual experience is difficult to interpret, we recalculated
692 the odds ratio based upon a dichotomized median-split.
693 Based upon this dichotomization, the odds ratio for sexual
694 experience was 3.14 , indicating that an individual with a
695 sexual experience score above the median was 3.14 times
696 more likely to experience sexual aggression than an indi-
697 vidual below the median. Finally, a nonsignificant
698 interaction term between sexual experience and spell
699 indicated that the risk associated with sexual experience in
700 spell 2 was not different from the risk in spell 1.

701 Rejection sensitivity also yielded a significant estimate
702 ($\beta = .08$; SE = $.04$; $p < .05$), indicating that higher levels
703 of rejection sensitivity were associated with increased risk
704 for experiencing sexual aggression. The average odds ratio
705 was 1.09 . Like sexual experience, rejection sensitivity was
706 measured continuously, making it difficult to interpret the
707 odds ratio. When dichotomized at the median, this variable
708 yielded an odds ratio of 1.31 , indicating that an adolescent
709 scoring above the median on rejection sensitivity was 31%
710 more likely to experience sexual aggression than an ado-
711 lescent below the median. The interaction between
712 rejection sensitivity and spell was not significant, sug-
713 gesting uniform risk across initial and repeat incidents.
714 None of the remaining interpersonal variables (e.g.,
715 romantic competence, preoccupied or dismissing style of
716 romantic views) contributed significantly to the prediction
717 of experiencing sexual aggression.

Discussion

718
719 Sexual aggression at the hands of a peer can negatively
720 impact an individual, particularly during the formative
721 adolescent years. Unfortunately, little is understood con-
722 cerning the factors that serve to increase an adolescent's
723 risk for experiencing an initial or repeated incident of peer
724 sexual aggression. The current study was one of the first to
725 prospectively examine the developmental pattern of sexual
726 aggression among adolescents and to assess the impact of
727 interpersonal risk factors.

728 Multiple-spell, discrete-time survival analysis was
729 employed among a sample of 200 adolescents. By the end
730 of the fourth year (one year post-high school), nearly one-
731 half of the adolescents reported having experienced some
732 form of sexual aggression. This rate of sexual victimization
733 is similar to that reported by other studies that used a
734 similar definition (e.g., Humphrey and White 2000),
735 thereby giving confidence in the measure of sexual vic-
736 timization and sampling procedures used in the current
737 study.

738 Alarming, approximately 65% of adolescents who
739 reported an initial incident of aggression also reported a
740 repeat incident at a later wave. Repeated incidents tended
741 to follow closely upon the heels of first-victimization, with
742 an average time to revictimization of 1.33 years. Just as
743 child sexual victimization places an individual at risk for
744 subsequent revictimization, so too does victimization from
745 a peer. Further, this rate of revictimization is higher than
746 that of undergraduate women reported by Humphrey and
747 White (2000). Thus, it appears that middle to late adoles-
748 cence is a particularly risky time for experiencing sexual
749 aggression—both initially and in recurrence—and repre-
750 sents a critical window for intervention. Individuals who
751 have previously experienced sexual aggression may be
752 appropriate for more narrowly focused, targeted
753 interventions.

754 Several risk factors played an important role in this
755 pattern of experiencing sexual aggression. Consistent with
756 previous research, higher levels of sexual activity pro-
757 spectively predicted becoming a victim of sexual
758 aggression (Howard and Wang 2005). Adolescents who
759 engage in these activities may run a higher risk for expe-
760 riencing sexual aggression simply because they are more
761 often in situations where sexual aggression is likely to
762 occur. However, more may be involved than just oppor-
763 tunity. Date rape often occurs in situations that began as
764 consensual sexual activity (Kanin 1984). Thus, progres-
765 sively more intimate sexual activity may make it more
766 likely that the line is crossed into unwanted or coercive
767 sexual contact. Inexperienced in romantic relationships,
768 adolescents may have more difficulty setting and enforcing
769 clear boundaries for sexual activity. Unfortunately, it was

770 not possible to assess the risk associated with specific
771 sexual behaviors.

772 Adolescents with higher levels of rejection sensitivity
773 also were at increased risk for being a victim of sexual
774 aggression. These adolescents may have difficulty setting
775 and enforcing clear boundaries for sexual activity. Adolescents
776 high on rejection sensitivity may be more reluctant
777 or less effective in resisting advances for fear of upsetting
778 their partner or of being replaced by someone more willing
779 to acquiesce. Congruent with this idea, women who
780 experience sexual aggression from an intimate partner are
781 lower on measures of assertiveness when refusing sexual
782 activity (Testa et al. 2007).

783 The current results are consistent with the idea of
784 “token resistance” as an important mechanism in sexual
785 aggression. Incomplete resistance—giving in to sexual
786 advances after an initial attempt to stop—may serve as
787 an intermittent reinforcer for sexual aggression (Marx
788 and Gross 1995). Perpetrators learn that their reluctant
789 partner is likely to give in to their advances if they
790 continue to pressure, coerce or otherwise force the issue.
791 The clear and decided meaning of “No” becomes eroded
792 for the perpetrator when the result is not to consistently
793 curb sexual activity. Importantly, this behavior should not
794 be considered as sending “mixed signals” or as an
795 underlying consent on the part of the victim; on the
796 contrary, the sexual behavior is clearly unwanted and
797 unwarranted. However, higher levels of rejection sensitivity
798 may make incomplete resistance more likely to
799 occur. These adolescents may fear that refusal to comply
800 with a partner’s sexual advances may be met with anger
801 or disinterest in continuing the relationship. Thus, they
802 may feel less comfortable or be less effective when
803 communicating and asserting firm boundaries for sexual
804 activity. Alternatively, rejection sensitive individuals may
805 be more likely to have relationships or encounters with
806 partners who are prone to sexual aggression. These ideas
807 regarding incomplete resistance or involvement with
808 partners who are prone to sexual aggression are speculative,
809 however, and need empirical evaluation through
810 future research.

811 Conceptually, rejection sensitivity and preoccupied style
812 of romantic attachment are related constructs; both derive
813 from an individual’s expectations regarding the relationship
814 and the partner’s behavior. Indeed, the measures of
815 these constructs were moderately correlated in the current
816 sample. Given this conceptual overlap, it is interesting that
817 rejection sensitivity was predictive of experiencing sexual
818 aggression, but a preoccupied romantic style was not. An
819 examination of items contained within each of these
820 measures suggests that the rejection sensitivity questionnaire
821 more heavily emphasizes an adolescent’s expectations
822 for acceptance from a romantic partner,

783 whereas items related to preoccupied styles on the BSQ
784 place more emphasis upon emotional dependence upon a
785 romantic partner. Such concerns over acceptance may be
786 more centrally related as they may make it more difficult
787 for an adolescent to set and effectively communicate clear
788 sexual boundaries.

789 An association between preoccupied or dismissing
790 styles and victimization was not found in the current
791 analyses; however, future study should examine potential
792 links between peer sexual victimization and an unresolved/
793 disorganized state of mind in regard to a loss or traumatic
794 experience (e.g., childhood sexual abuse). Indeed, unresolved
795 childhood trauma has been found to co-occur with
796 symptoms of post-traumatic stress and dissociation, which
797 may hold implications for revictimization during adolescence
798 (Stovall-McClough and Cloitre 2006).

799 Adolescent girls were at higher risk for experiencing
800 sexual aggression than boys in the current sample; further,
801 initial victimization occurred somewhat sooner for girls.
802 These results provide further empirical support for gender
803 differences in the experience of sexual aggression. Nevertheless,
804 even though boys were at lower risk for experiencing sexual
805 aggression, it is clear that a relatively high proportion of
806 adolescent boys did experience some form of sexual aggression.
807 Much of the literature has focused upon victimization among
808 girls, and much less is known concerning the characteristics
809 and outcomes among boys who report being the target of sexual
810 aggression. It is possible that boys’ experience of sexual
811 aggression—and the related outcomes—may be qualitatively
812 different than that of girls and should be explored in future
813 research.

814 It is interesting that the influence of the predictors did
815 not differ from the initial incident of aggression to later,
816 repeated incidents, suggesting that the risk associated with
817 these predictors was uniform over incidents. Thus, some
818 adolescents appear to carry with them a set of risk factors
819 that consistently increases their vulnerability to acts of
820 sexual aggression, a finding similar to that of Foshee and
821 colleagues (2004). The current study did not examine
822 whether the experience of victimization has an impact on
823 these risk factors. For example, experiencing sexual
824 aggression might change an adolescent’s level of sexual
825 activity or rejection sensitivity. Future investigation should
826 explore the possibility of a dynamic relationship between
827 risk factors and sexual victimization.

828 The present study also contributes to the literature by
829 providing an illustration of multiple-spell, discrete-time
830 survival analysis, a relatively unused statistical approach.
831 MDSA provides a means of delineating the course of
832 survival over time. The technique is particularly appropriate
833 for examining multiple incidents and determining if
834 the risk varies as a function of the number of incidents
835 (spells). Moreover, this strategy allowed us to use
836

876 time-varying predictors, which may be more sensitive
877 indices of the degree of risk at any particular time point.

878 The high rates of experiencing sexual aggression
879 observed in the current study speak to the continued need
880 for the development and dissemination of primary pre-
881 vention strategies. Efforts must be made to reduce the
882 perpetration of sexual aggression, but attention should also
883 be focused upon identifying individuals at-risk for sexual
884 victimization and providing them with the skills to resist
885 and protect themselves. Given the precipitous increase in
886 risk for repeat victimization following an initial incident,
887 the current results also suggest that adolescents who
888 experience sexual aggression should be targeted for sec-
889 ondary prevention efforts.

890 Several prevention programs targeting sexual aggression
891 have been developed, but specific strategies for prevention
892 are in need of further development and refinement (Hick-
893 man et al. 2004; Irwin and Rickert 2005). Results from the
894 current study highlight topics that should be considered
895 for inclusion among prevention programs. Specifically,
896 it appears as though adolescents should be encouraged to
897 develop clear boundaries related to the sexual activity with
898 which they feel comfortable and in which they feel ready to
899 engage. The role of rejection sensitivity and its potential to
900 erode these boundaries also should be addressed. Cogni-
901 tions and emotions related to fears of rejection and
902 abandonment within romantic relationships should be
903 identified and addressed among adolescents who have
904 experienced sexual aggression. Specific cognitive strate-
905 gies aimed at helping adolescents manage these thoughts
906 and feelings, as well as assertiveness training around
907 establishing and communicating effective boundaries, may
908 be beneficial in reducing the repeat incidence of
909 victimization.

910 Although the present study provides valuable informa-
911 tion about risk factors for being a victim of sexual
912 aggression, several limitations exist. First, the sample was
913 not sufficiently large enough for us to examine different
914 types of sexual aggression or the risk factors associated
915 with them. Additionally, it is possible that multiple inci-
916 dents of sexual aggression occurred within the same period.
917 The current method of multiple-spell, discrete-time sur-
918 vival analysis does not differentiate between single and
919 multiple incidents within a particular discrete time interval
920 (e.g., multiple incidents that occurred within a single
921 wave). Thus, although it is clear that each incident reported
922 in the current analyses was uniquely distinct from any other
923 incident, revictimization may have actually occurred more
924 quickly and at a higher rate than reported here. In this
925 regard, the current estimates are conservative. Also unex-
926 plored in the current study was the possibility that
927 interactions between the interpersonal variables themselves
928 may differentially influence risk for sexual victimization; it

929 remains for future investigation to determine how these
930 interpersonal variables may influence each other and what
931 effect that may have upon the risk for victimization.
932 Finally, the current study did not examine the role of early
933 versus late pubertal maturation. Previous studies have
934 documented the role that early maturation may play in
935 early-onset delinquency and risky sexual behavior (Lynne
936 et al. 2007), suggesting a potential link to sexual victim-
937 ization as well.

938 The need to reduce the incidence and impact of sexual
939 victimization in adolescence has been clearly identified,
940 and results from the current study serve to underscore the
941 importance of this effort. Particularly highlighted is the
942 extent to which an initial incident of experiencing sexual
943 aggression is followed by another incident of aggression.
944 The current study explored sources of risk for sexual vic-
945 timization within the understudied domain of interpersonal
946 variables. Specifically, it was found that adolescents high
947 on rejection sensitivity and who engage in higher levels of
948 sexual activity are particularly vulnerable to sexual
949 aggression. Further, the risk associated with these variables
950 remained steady across multiple incidents of victimization,
951 suggesting that the effects of these variables on risk are
952 likely to endure without intervention. Focused, empiri-
953 cally-informed secondary prevention programs are needed
954 to disrupt the development of patterns of victimization
955 among adolescents who have experienced sexual
956 aggression.

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