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Norges teknisk-naturvitenskapelige universitet
Fakultet for samfunns- og utdanningsvitenskap
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Kunnskap for en bedre verden

Preface

Nine months have passed since we delved into exploring people's comprehension of sexual consent. The subject of rape, and the proceeding legal aspects, has been a topic of interest for us for a long time. With Timo as our ever-positive supervisor, we are finally about to deliver this thesis. Three people and a busy schedule has resulted in meetings on the weekends, afternoons and late night e-mail correspondence. Even with Timo being located in Turkey, he has been there for us through thick and thin, and even an earthquake (yes, an actual earthquake!). Timo's kittens have frequently been playing in the background of our Zoom-meetings, and we have watched them grow older as the months have passed and we've progressed with our thesis.

We have been consistently motivated by the ever intriguing topic of sexual consent. After distributing the survey, many people have reached out to discuss this nuanced terrain, and regrettably many have shared their stories of how this topic has impacted them, adding to the importance of gaining a better comprehension of how we perceive of consent, and how we can communicate better.

As writing partners, we have fulfilled each other well, with Christina writing most of the method and results, as she has got the best handle on SPSS, and Kine working with the introduction and theory, since having a lot of previous knowledge on the subject matter. The remaining thesis we have written together, while never tiring of each other.

As this journey is coming to an end, we will certainly miss the long hours of discussing sexual consent. And Timo's kittens, mostly.

Kine & Christina

Sammendrag

Én av fem norske kvinner blir voldtatt, ifølge nylige tall. De andre skandinaviske landene har fått samtykkelover, og nå anbefaler Justis- og beredskapsdepartementet en endring i den norske straffeloven når det gjelder seksualforbrytelser, og foreslår en samtykkelov. Denne studien hadde som mål å undersøke holdninger til innføring av en samtykkelov i Norge, samt oppfatningen av samtykke i tvetydige seksuelle situasjoner. Et utvalg av 462 respondenter fullførte et spørreskjema med scenarioer for å undersøke oppfatningen av samtykke, en holdningsskala for en samtykkelov, og målinger av aksept for voldtektsmyter, verdier og kjønnsroller. Våre resultater viser betydelige forskjeller i oppfatningen av samtykke og holdninger til en samtykkelov på tvers av flere variabler. Menn viste en sterkere tendens til å oppfatte samtykke og hadde mindre positivt syn på en samtykkelov. Høy aksept for voldtektsmyter korrelerte med økt oppfattet samtykke og negative holdninger til en samtykkelov, noe som understreker innvirkningen av feiloppfatninger om voldtekt. Lignende resultater ble også funnet med hensyn til alder, der eldre mennesker tenderte til å oppfatte mer samtykke og hadde mindre positive syn til den foreslåtte loven. Verdier hadde svakere effekter enn forventet, der universalisme og velvilje var knyttet til noe redusert oppfattet samtykke, men en mer positiv oppfatning av en samtykkelov, mens konformitet og tradisjon viste det motsatte. Overraskende var feminine kjønnsroller svakt assosiert med mindre samtykke og et mindre positivt syn på loven, mens positive maskuline trekk var assosiert med det motsatte. Overordnet ser man sammenhenger mellom oppfattet samtykke og holdninger til samtykkelover. Variabler assosiert med lavere oppfattet samtykke korrelerte ofte med mer positive syn på en samtykkelov, og omvendt, som antyder mangfoldige holdninger forankret i ulike tolkninger av samtykke. Disse funnene understreker kompleksitetene i tolkningen av samtykke og hvordan de kan føre til implikasjoner når det gjelder seksuelle relasjoner, psykologiske effekter, samt etterlevelse av en ny lovendring. Fremtidig forskning bør ta sikte på å etablere relevante variabler for oppfatning av samtykke og samtykkelover, og se hvordan disse variablene korrelerer. Våre funn peker også på nødvendigheten av klare definisjoner i samtykkeloven, for å redusere risikoen for liberale tolkninger som kan føre til feilaktig kommunikasjon av samtykke.

Abstract

One in five Norwegian women are raped, according to recent numbers. Following the other Scandinavian countries, the Ministry of Justice and Public Security recommends a change to the Norwegian penal code regarding sexual offenses, and proposes a consent law. This study aimed to examine attitudes towards introducing a consent law in Norway, and the perception of consent in ambiguous sexual situations. A sample of 462 respondents completed a questionnaire including scenarios to investigate consent perception, an attitude scale for a consent law, and measures of rape myth acceptance, values, and sex roles. Our results show notable differences in consent perception and attitudes to a consent law across multiple variables; Men exhibited a stronger tendency to perceive consent, and held less favourable views of a consent law. Higher acceptance of rape myths correlated with heightened perceived consent and negative attitudes toward a consent law, highlighting the impact of misconceptions about rape. Similar results were also found for age, where older people tended to perceive more consent and had less favourable views of the law. Values had weaker effects than expected, with universalism and benevolence relating to slightly reduced perceived consent, but a more positive view of a consent law, while conformity and tradition showed the opposite. Surprisingly, feminine sex roles were weakly associated with less consent and a less favourable view of the law, whilst positive masculine traits were associated with the opposite. A broader perspective suggests associations between consent conceptualisations and attitudes toward consent laws. Variables associated with lower perceived consent often correlated with more positive views on a consent law, and vice versa, hinting at diverse attitudes rooted in different consent interpretations. These findings highlight the complexities in the interpretation of consent, and how they may result in implications regarding sexual relations, psychological effects, as well as compliance to a new law change. Future research should aim to further establish relevant variables to consent perception and consent laws and how these variables interplay. Our findings also pinpoint the necessity of clear definitions in the consent law, to reduce the risk of liberal interpretations leading to miscommunications of consent.

1. Introduction

According to the recent survey from The Norwegian centre for violence and traumatic stress studies (Nkvts, 2023.) it was concluded that a much higher than anticipated number of people have been raped in Norway. The study was conducted on behalf of the Ministry of Justice and Public Security (Nor: Justis- og Beredskapsdepartementet), based on self-report from a national representative sample of 4300 people, ages 18-74, and concluded that one in five women were raped through force, coercion, or while unconscious, meaning intercourse where one of the parties were unable to resist the act due to intoxication or being asleep. Half of the women were raped before turning 18. The same number for men is three percent. In more than half of the cases, the perpetrator was someone they knew, either a partner, ex-partner or a friend (Nkvts, 2023). Research done in the US also found that one in five women, and one in 71 men, are raped during a lifetime, and 43,9 percent of women and 23,4 percent of men will experience an unwanted sexual experience in their lifetime (Hannan et al., 2020, p. 586-587). Hannan and colleagues (2020) found that exposure to non-consensual sexual experiences may result in various psychological problems, including anxiety, depression, drug abuse, eating disorders, self-inflicted harm and PTSD. All problems which may result in high distress and low functioning for the individual.

The current Norwegian Criminal Code from 2000 does not include consent. A sexual offence is only considered rape if the offender has sexual intercourse by violent or threatening behaviour, or if the person is in an unconscious state (Straffeloven, 2000, § 192). After the world-wide metoo-movement, the world became aware of the concept of harmful sexual behaviour. The campaign is believed to have stirred a political debate, and motivated several countries to reconceptualize the definition of rape to include consent, and re-write their penal code concerning rape and sexual violence, to better ensure lawful protection for the alarming number of predominantly women who endure rape (Linander et al., 2021, s. 110; Holmström et al., 2020, s. 342).

The Norwegian government released a press announcement on 19th of December 2022, that the Ministry of Justice and Public Security recommends a new provision concerning sexual intercourse without consent. This is stated in the government platform called "Hurdalsplattformen", and the idea is to change the wording of the current law so intercourse without consent will be defined as rape, and made punishable by law. The wording of the law has yet to be decided, but it is suggested that the new law will have an emphasis on sexual intercourse being voluntary (Regjeringen, 2022a). Several other countries, such as Denmark, Finland, Germany and Sweden have already implemented consent into their

penal codes, with differences in wording. Since July 1st 2018, the Swedish rape law has been rewritten to include consent. The law emphasises that sex should be consensual, and that the consent has to be expressed through words, actions or similar ways (Brottsbalk, 2018; Swedish Prosecution Authority, n.d.).

In Sweden the rate of reported cases of rape increased with 21 percent, and the number of convictions increased by 75 percent after the law was implemented (Brå, 2020, p. 7, 23). The potential criminal law change does however raise an important question as to what consent means in this context, and whether there is consensus about what sexual consent looks and sounds like amongst the Norwegian population. The definition used for sexual consent often varies widely based on country, area, and institution, and there are also several ways individuals can communicate consent, such as through words or body language. Consent could also be considered either passive/indirect or active/direct, and men and women have usually been found to have slight differences in their interpretation of consent (Wood et al. 2019, p. 400-405, 408). If there is a huge discrepancy between what two people consider consent, and there is no guideline to how it should be interpreted in the law itself, it could possibly affect how the law is interpreted.

The principle of "beyond a reasonable doubt" is highly regarded within the framework of Norwegian law, serving as a safeguard to avoid incriminating people who are innocent (Regjeringen, 2003). Evidenced by a substantial 75 percent surge in rape convictions in Sweden subsequent to the introduction of the consent law, it is plausible that Norway may also experience an increase in convictions. Such a change in judicial practices might lead to a heightened margin for error, potentially resulting in wrongful rape convictions. Research done on innocently prosecuted individuals in the US highlights the several implications wrongful convictions may have on the convicted, as well as their families. The social stigma of being a convicted sex offender can lead to loss of personal identity and psychological trauma (Brooks & Greenberg, 2021, p. 44).

As the Norwegian Criminal Code for sexual offenses likely will be rewritten to include consent, we investigated the attitudes towards sexual consent and law change with a questionnaire. By including Short Schwartz's Value Scale, Positive-Negative Sex-Role Inventory (PN-SRI), and the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance (IRMA) in the questionnaire, we aimed to evaluate how preexisting values, gender and attitudes could influence people's attitudes.

1.1 Theory

1.1.1 The Swedish consent law

The Swedish consent law defines consent as the following: “A person cannot be considered to participate voluntarily if the perpetrator "exploits" (approximately: takes advantage of, for their own purposes) that the person, due to unconsciousness, sleep, severe fear, intoxication or other drug influence, illness, bodily injury, mental disorder [etc.], is in a particularly vulnerable situation. A particularly vulnerable situation, according to Chapter 6, Section 1 of the Swedish Penal Code, refers to a situation where someone engages in sexual intercourse or a comparable sexual act with a person who does not participate voluntarily, resulting in a conviction for rape. When assessing whether participation is voluntary, special consideration shall be given to whether voluntariness has been expressed through words, actions, or in any other way.” (Swedish Prosecution Authority, n.d.). Norway and Sweden are similar in demographics, as well as cultural and political views, and it is therefore plausible that the proposed Norwegian consent law will be similar to the Swedish law.

1.1.2 The Norwegian Criminal Code

Norway is currently the last of the Scandinavian countries without a consent law. The current law, written in 2000, defines rape as sexual intercourse through violence or threatening behaviour, or with someone who is unconscious (Straffeloven, 2000, § 192). The law does not mention consent, meaning that rape is only punishable by law if the perpetrator has been violent, threatening or the victim is sleeping or have been drugged. The world-spanning attitude campaign #metoo brought awareness to unwanted sexual advances, which is believed to have been the catalyst to redefine rape in the criminal laws of several European countries to be consent-based, rather than and in addition to violence- based (Linander et al., 2021, s. 110; Holmström et al., 2020, s. 342). The politicians have debated a rewriting of the criminal law regarding rape two times, with the proposed law being rejected and failed to be enacted. With a consent law being proposed a third time, the politicians are deliberating which of two models to use for the conceptualisation of consent; the “no means no”-model, which requires the victim to communicate resistance with a “no”, or the “only yes means yes”-model, which urges the participants of the sexual act to look for willingness, thus eliminating silence and passiveness as expressions of acceptance (Regjeringen, 2022b).

1.1.3 Perpetrator - victim- relations

Statistics from 2020 shows that 20,3 % are raped by acquaintances, and 19,1% by their partner, while only 4,5% accounts for aggravated rape (Politiet, 2020, p.13). Research shows that a woman is less likely to fight her rapist if it is someone she knows, in addition to a higher likelihood of her developing PTSD from rape by someone she knows (Feinstein et al., 2012, s.192). Lofgreen et al. (2021) also found that the majority of college women on campus knows their rapist, and while serial rapists will account for some of the rapes, one explanation for acquaintance rapes could be that men who do not intend to rape misinterpret the woman's sexual desire. In dating situations, the risk of rape increases when the man is "led on" by the woman. The "rape myth" of "she asked for it" is often justified when the woman shows signs of sexual interest, even when explicitly changing her mind (Lofgreen, 2021, p. 1066).

1.1.4 Complexities of communicating sexual consent

To communicate consent in sexual situations can be complex and difficult. If one person gives a clear verbal consent, for instance, the consent may lack validity if one person has sufficient power over the other (Wood et al., 2019, p. 404-405). Wood and colleagues (2019) suggest that there are three mechanisms in which an implicit consent is given, meaning a consent given by a sign, action or inaction or silence suggesting sexual agreeableness. Research shows that communicating consent non-verbally is more common than explicit verbal consent. The most common ways to convey consent is passive consent (not resisting the other person), indirect consent (dressing in a suggestive way) and non-verbally (touching, kissing, undressing in front of the partner). Implicit consent may cause interpretative issues for both the people in the sexual situations, as well as in court (Wood et al., 2019, p. 405). Studies show that failure to resist or failure to say no are the most common interpretations of consent. However, a number of factors might cause a person to respond like this, such as freezing due to fear, power-imbalance or being unequipped to understand certain social scripts. As a societal norm, the man is supposed to be the sexual advancer, while the woman is expected to be the gatekeeper, which may cause problems in the communication of consent (Wood et al., 2019, p. 405). Seeing as consent has been interpreted as a lack of resistance or the lack of the word "no", universities in the US are now using affirmative consent policies on campuses. Affirmative consent is a voluntary consent communicated either verbally or non-verbally, but explicitly. Affirmative consent policies are based on miscommunication theory, meaning that men have a tendency to falsely interpret a woman's desire for sex, and that the women are too vague when they communicate their consent (Willis & Jozkowski, 2018, p. 326). In addition, there are several factors in play to further complicate the matter, such as

party situations where inebriated people will have a harder time interpreting other people's signals and therefore increases the chance of miscommunication, and the non-verbal is always based on interpretation (Willis & Jozkowski, 2018, p. 327).

Historically, women expressing sexual desire was related to the fear of being perceived as being promiscuous or being a "slut". However, in recent years there has been a shift in society towards sexual equality (Holmström et al., 2020, p. 344).

A Swedish survey looked at what young people aged 18-21 considered to be consensual sex. The survey showed that the participants agreed that consent could be shown through agreeable words or body language, and that "no" always meant "no", regardless of the situation. But the survey also showed that there were different perceptions of norms and expectations in different situations, and different perceptions among gender, age and education, which shows the complexity of a common understanding of what consent is (Holmström et al., 2020, s. 342). Researchers have debated which conditions are considered consent. There is mostly agreement that consent must be given on voluntary terms, and not under pressure or through threats, and it is generally agreed upon that a "yes" given in a threatened situation is not considered consent. When power is expressed through norms or social discourses, it is more difficult to define the validity of the consent (Linander et al., 2021, s. 110).

In their quantitative analysis, Linander and colleagues (2021) investigated so-called "grey-zone" scenarios where sex has taken place on non-violent premises, but where one of the participants has not been particularly willing or felt uncomfortable. The objective of the study was to gain a better understanding of why people may consent in sexual situations where they did not wish to have sex. The participants point out that grey-area cases can occur when people are at a young, vulnerable age, and where the relationship is in the initial phase. It can for example be difficult for young people with limited sexual experience to know their own boundaries, and they may fear being dumped by their partner for saying "no", which can lead to people having sex without wanting to (Linander et al., 2021, p. 114). Further they discuss the intricate dynamics of consent within the context of long-term relationships, navigating the complex terrain of societal norms and expectations. Central to their analysis is the notion that the concept of a "successful" relationship is often measured with sex being had regularly. This paradigm, however, intersects with the reality of fluctuating desires and innate differences in sexual drives between genders. Further the respondents discuss the phenomenon of "nagging" for sex within established relationships. Their partner might "nag" for sexual activity, with the result of them yielding, not out of enthusiastic consent, but rather

pleasing their partner and upholding the expectations of regular sex in the relationship. Importantly, these acquiescences are not classified as instances of rape by the respondents, but rather illuminate a nuanced terrain of unwilling participation, driven by a desire to sustain relational harmony (Linander et al., 2021, p. 115). Some of the respondents also discuss the implications of withdrawing their consent once the sex had been initiated. Some felt that if they initially agreed to the sex, they could not terminate the sex due to the social expectations (Linander et al., 2021, pp. 114-115).

Muehlenhard et al. (2016) highlights the power of inhibition in the interpretation of consent, and found that men who consume alcohol interpret a higher level of intent and sexual arousal from women. They also found that men perceive women who drink as more susceptible to sexual advances, and are more likely to pressure intoxicated women to sex than sober women. Intoxicated women are more at risk to be oblivious to sexual assault cues, and even at small doses of alcohol will not detect danger signs in dating situations. Intoxicated men are more likely to only interpret positive sexual cues in women, which can make mixing parties, alcohol and gendered sexual expectations a dangerous combination (Muehlenhard et al., 2016, p. 461-62).

Muehlenhard et al. (2016) further discusses how the conceptualisation of consent is difficult. Consent can be seen as “an internal state of willingness”, which refers to an individual’s thoughts and internal desires, which is not directly observable, and causes others to rely on behaviour for interpretation. University policies are therefore limited to consent as shown as willingness in behaviour, which in turn can be given in two ways. One way is expressing willingness through words or in written form. However, most people do not explicitly say they want to have sex, they give implicit cues, which has to be interpreted by others as willingness. Consent can therefore be conceptualized as “behaviour that observers use to infer an individual’s willingness.” (Muehlenhard et al., 2016, p. 462). Consent also differs from wanting. A woman may agree to sex, but did not want sex due to worries about pregnancy or being labeled promiscuous later. Also a woman may also be initially wanting sex, from initial attraction, but changing her mind later, which taps into the rape myth of “she wanted it”. A woman who finds sex unappealing might want sex with her partner in order to fulfill the expectations of their partner (Muehlenhard et al., 2016, p. 463).

1.1.5 Values and the the Schwartz’s value theory

Values can be used to explain attitudes and behaviour, and the concept of values tend to persist over time, and are not usually subject to change. The nature of values are what is

perceived as important or desirable in life. Everyone has multiple values, some ranking higher in importance than others, and may differ greatly from other people's values (Schwartz, 2012, p. 3). Values guide decisions, actions and behaviours based on their relative importance. Values may also transcend specific actions or situations; an example can be how honesty and obedience can differ from the workplace and with friends. Motivation or goals distinguishes the values from each other (Schwartz, 2012, p. 3-4).

In Schwartz's value theory, ten basic values are presented in a circumplex figure, to show relations of conflict and congruency between the opposing values (Schwartz, 2012, p. 8). A description of each value is provided in Table 1.

Table 1
Descriptions of values in Schwartz's Value Theory

Basic values	Definition	Structural dimensions
Self-direction	Valuing independence, freedom, exploring, autonomy, and personal accomplishment; having a desire for control and mastery, and expressing one self.	Openness to change Values associated with sensation-seeking, the pursuit of new experiences, novelty and change.
Stimulation	Valuing stimulation-seeking excitement, novelty, variety, and living an adventurous lifestyle.	
Hedonism	Valuing pleasure, enjoyment, and sensuous gratification for oneself; seeking experiences derived from pleasure.	Openness to change & Self-enhancement
Achievement	Valuing personal success, social approval, demonstrating competence according to social norms, and aiming for excellence.	Self-enhancement Values connected with the pursuit of self-interest, social esteem, power, and success.
Power	Valuing influence, prestige, control, and dominance; striving to lead and impact people.	

Security	Valuing safety, harmony, stability, the avoidance of threats or risks; protection-seeking to withstand from harm for oneself or those in close relations.	Conservation Values related to upholding conformity, tradition and stability.
Conformity	Valuing obedience, compliance, and adherence to social norms. Aiming to follow rules in order to prevent upsetting others or cause disturbance with social expectations.	
Tradition	Valuing respect, commitment, and acceptance of ideas and customs related to culture or religion	
Benevolence	Values well-being for people they have close personal connections with, those in the 'in-group'. Kindness, loyalty and a genuine concern for others' well-being.	Selv-transcendence Values emphasizing the welfare of others, caring for the environment, and prioritising the collective well-being of others.
Universalism	Valuing social justice, sustainability and equality for all people and nature.	

Note: (Schwartz, 2012, p. 5-7)

The adjacent values, such as power and achievement, share the same motivation of self-enhancement. While the opposing values of universalism and benevolence are categorized as self-transcendence, which is a conflicting motivation to self-enhancement (Schwartz, 2012, p. 9). The theory can help predict how people likely will feel about the subjects of consent and a consent-based law. More likely will the people who value stimulation and self-direction, which are people who are open to change, welcome a new law, as opposed to those who value conformity, tradition and security, whose values are conservative.

Since values guide and direct all behaviours, and form the basis for attitude formation, we can expect them to be related to an individual's understanding of sexual consent and attitudes to the proposed law.

1.1.6 Gender roles and the Positive-Negative Sex-Role Inventory (PN-SRI)

Grubb & Turner (2012) argues how gender roles are shaped from early on in the socialisation process of growing up, and affects behaviour, including sexual behaviour, and beliefs about oneself and others. Through socialization men are taught to initiate interactions leading to sex. Sex role socialization theory states that rape that happens when two people are in a relationship should not be regarded as rape, but rather normalized as normal sexual intercourse, since forced sex is merely exuded dominance expected from the man as the initiator of sex. This theory offers an explanation as to why rape is normalized in society, and why sexual aggression is commonly expressed from men in sexual situations. Sex roles, and traditional gender role stereotypes, are predictors of attitudes when it comes to sexual behaviour. While dominance, power and aggression are seen as traditional male attributes, fragility, feebleness and weakness are considered female characteristics, which makes gender roles a predictor of rape myth acceptance (Grubb & Turner, 2012, p. 446-447). Being sexually active is for young men a measure of masculinity, which can cause them to seek out sexual advances, despite not being in the mood (Muehlenhard et al., 2016, p. 463).

The Positive-Negative Sex-Role Inventory (PN-SRI) is a measure of gender identity. Femininity and masculinity play an important role in conceptualising oneself, and people tend to favor the attributes congruent with their gender, even the negative characteristics (Berger & Krahe, 2013, p. 516). Other gender assessment measures have focused on the positive gender traits, despite evidence that an individual incorporates both negative and positive aspects in their self-conceptualisation. Therefore the PN-SRI incorporates both negative and positive dimensions, to be able to to measure gender identity and explore desirability and distinctiveness of attributes, and assess which personality traits are more commonly stereotyped in men and women (Berger & Krahe, 2013, p. 516; Rydberg Sterner et al., 2018, p. 1). Individuals internalise in the socialisation process of growing up which traits are considered masculine and feminine. Gender identity can be seen as two dimensions - masculinity and femininity. Agency is associated with masculine attributes, and expressiveness lies at the core of femininity. Attributes that align with the gender are seen as desirable qualities for both genders, and the invert is seen as negative (Berger & Krahe, 2013, p. 516).

1.1.7 Rape beliefs and The Illinois rape myth scale (IRMA)

There are existing rape myths that individuals hold, which either consists of victim-blaming, the denial of rape occurrences, exoneration of perpetrators, or even the misguided notion that only specific types of women can be victims. Rape myth measures have been developed to detect these myths, amongst them the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMA). One prominent example of a damaging myth is the idea that women frequently lie about rape, leading to an over-perception of false allegations. However, empirical data contradicts this, revealing that only around 2% of reported rape cases are estimated to be false allegations (Grubb & Turner, 2012, p. 445). While these figures are derived from the context of the United States, a similar proportion is likely applicable to the Norwegian population, as rape remains a pervasive issue that transcends cultural boundaries.

The Illinois Rape Myth Scale is a comprehensive 45 items rape myth scale to assess rape myth attitudes, which has later been abbreviated to 22 items (McMahon & Farmer, 2011, p. 71). The items are further categorized into seven domains: 1. She asked for it, which detects the myth of victim-blaming attitudes. 2. It wasn't really rape, which are statements suggesting that the lack of resistance from the victim, and circumstances, which undermines the severity of the case. 3. He didn't mean to, which detects myths of 'accidental' rape, where the perpetrator are not responsible because of misunderstandings in the situation, or the lack of intention on his behalf. 4. She wanted it, which detects beliefs that women seeks the attention they get from fabricating rape. 5. She lied, which suggests that women often lie about rape, due to regret or retaliation. 6. Rape is a trivial event, which taps into beliefs of false reports where rape is exaggerated, and 7. Rape is a deviant event, which is the belief that rape usually happens on the 'wrong' side of town, by 'bad' people, to help justify wrongdoings (Newins et al., 2018, p.16). In the abbreviated version of 22 items, only domains 1-4 are used, illustrated in Table 2 (Kamdar et al., 2017, p. 81). The intent behind the rape myth assumptions were for social workers to develop rape prevention programs (McMahon & Farmer, 2011, p. 71).

Table 2*The items in the abbreviated version of Illinois Rape Myth Scale.*

Item Number	Updated Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale
Subscale 1: She asked for it	
1	If a girl is raped while she is drunk, she is at least somewhat responsible for letting things get out of hand.
2	When girls go to parties wearing slutty clothes, they are asking for trouble.
3	If a girl goes to a room alone with a guy at a party, it is her own fault if she is raped.
4	If a girl acts like a slut, eventually she is going to get into trouble.
5	When girls get raped, it's often because the way they said "no" was unclear.
6	If a girl initiates kissing or hooking up, she should not be surprised if a guy assumes she wants to have sex.
Subscale 2: He did not mean to	
7	When guys rape, it is usually because of their strong desire for sex.
8	Guys do not usually intend to force sex on a girl, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away.
9	Rape happens when a guy's sex drive goes out of control.
10	If a guy is drunk, he might rape someone unintentionally.
11	It should not be considered rape if a guy is drunk and did not realize what he was doing.
12	If both people are drunk, it cannot be rape.
Subscale 3: It was not really rape	
13	If a girl does not physically resist sex-even if protesting verbally-it cannot be considered rape.
14	If a girl does not physically fight back, you cannot really say it was

	rape.
15	A rape probably does not happen if a girl does not have any bruises or marks.
16	If the accused “rapist” does not have a weapon, you really cannot call it rape.
17	If a girl does not say “no” she cannot claim rape.
Subscale 4: She lied	
18	A lot of times, girls who say they were raped agreed to have sex and then regret it.
19	Rape accusations are often used as a way of getting back at guys.
20	A lot of times, girls who say they were raped often led the guy on and then had regrets.
21	A lot of times, girls who claim they were raped have emotional problems.
22	Girls who are caught cheating on their boyfriends sometimes claim it was rape.

Note: (Kamdar et al., 2017, p. 81)

1.2 Aims of current study

In our research, we aim to measure people's comprehension of sexual consent, their attitudes towards consent, and their opinions on the implementation of a consent law.

By conducting a survey, we sought to gain valuable insights into the factors influencing individuals' views on sexual consent and their receptiveness towards the implementation of the proposed law. The objective of the questionnaire was to see if there would be differences in conceptualisation of consent, by looking at gender, age, values, gender roles and rape myths.

2. Method

2.1. Participants

A total of 462 people responded to the questionnaire, of which 328 were women (71%), 127 were men (27.5%), and seven identified as “other” (1.5%). The ages among the participants ranged from ages 15 to 69, with an average of 32.34 years ($SD = 12.11$). The seven people identifying as “other” were not included in gender related analyses since the number was too small to be statistically representative for their gender category. Descriptives further showed that most participants ($n=306$) had completed or started a university degree, 167 (36.1%) at a one-year course or Bachelor's degree level, and 139 (30.1%) at a Master's degree or Phd level. The remaining either had or had started a vocational degree (13.2%), or had “junior high school” or “high school” as their current highest education (20.6%). The majority grew up in a town/city (41.6%), followed by participants who grew up in villages (27.1%). The remaining either reported growing up in a township (20.6%) or having lived in both cities and smaller places (10.8%).

Descriptives related to relationship status showed that 281 respondents were in some form of committed relationship (60.8%), while 181 were single (39.2%). For questions about sexual activity, 389 of the participants reported preferred having sex with the opposite gender (84.2%), while the remaining usually either had sex with the same gender (6.5%) or with both genders (6.5%). 13 participants (2.8%) reported never having had sex before. There seemed to be an overall preference for having sex with the same person (74%), and the majority did not have one-night stands, though this is a small majority of 56.7%. For more detailed information about sexual relations and activity, see Table 3.

Table 3*Relationship status, sexual relations, and sexual activity of participants*

Variable	<i>n</i>	%
Relationship status		
Married/in a partnership	67	14.5
Cohabiting	134	29
In a committed relationship	80	17.3
Single	181	39.2
Sexlife		
Regular sex with a committed partner	269	58.2
Regular sex with a non-committed partner	41	8.9
Casual sex	65	14.1
Do currently not have sex	86	18.6
No answer	1	0.2
One-night stands frequency		
Never	262	56.7
Rarely	102	22.1
Sometimes	81	17.5
Often	11	2.4
Very often	3	0.6
Always	0	0
No answer	3	0.6

2.2 Data collection and design

The participants of the study were asked to fill out an anonymous self-report questionnaire about their attitudes towards sexual consent (see Appendix A). The sampling took place in the timeframe of 29.03.2023 to 11.05.2023. The online survey tool Nettskjema was used to create the questionnaire and to collect and store data. A disclaimer was included in the beginning of the survey warning the participants about graphic scenarios depicting what may be interpreted as rape, and they were advised against answering if they were sensitive to the subject. The final slide provided the participants with various support-lines they might call if they needed

someone to talk to about rape. The questionnaire was posted on various forums on facebook and instagram, and flyers with a QR-code were distributed on the university campus and other approved places to hang posters. The study did not require proofing by the NSD (Norsk Senter for Forskningsdata) given that the widespread distribution and non-identifiable questions assured the participant's anonymity, which was further confirmed through direct communication and e-mail confirmation on 04.05.2023 (see Appendix B).

2.3 Instruments and measures

2.3.1 Scenarios

To investigate potential differences in perception and judgment of consent, thirty self-made scenarios were created and divided into the following seven categories:

Alcohol/unconsciousness, misuse of power, fear, non-verbal communication/freezing, continuous consent, age difference, and relationships vs. hook-ups. The categories were chosen based on typical situations where uncertainties surrounding sexual consent can occur, as well as from recurring categories and themes in a preliminary collection of "grey-area" sexual situations suggested by acquaintances of the authors. All of the scenarios were of the fictional characters Ola and Kari, representing a man as a perpetrator and a woman as a perpetrator, who had intercourse in realistic "grey-area" sexual situations, meaning situations where the determination of whether consent has been given is ambiguous and not straightforward, and is susceptible to interpretation. Before starting the survey, "sex" or "sexual intercourse" was defined as "penetration of another person's genitalia, mouth, or anal opening with genitalia or an object, or touching of another person's genitalia or anus with genitalia or mouth", as it is defined in the Norwegian penal code (Straffeloven, 2000, § 192). The participants had to express whether each scenario was consensual or not, using a four-point Likert scale (1="Yes," 2="Probably consent," 3="Probably not consent," 4="No"). A five-point Likert scale was intentionally avoided, omitting the "I don't know" option to encourage participants to take a definitive stance. The scenarios in Norwegian are included in Appendix A, and an English translation of the scenarios can be found in Appendix C.

In all but one of the categories the gender roles were reversed and matched with a similar scenario, where both Kari and Ola alternatingly were the victim and perpetrator. Due to the nature of heterosexual sex, the concept of "freezing", and/or passive participation is far more likely of happening to a woman in rape- scenarios. Consequently, a deliberate choice was made to avoid gender-balancing all scenarios within this category. The objective for the

gender reversed roles was to see if the respondents would have a different attitude to consent based on which gender had the role as the victim or perpetrator, in addition to investigating the overall perception of consent. An overview of which scenarios were compared can be found in appendix D.

2.3.2 Attitudes to a consent law

A new instrument was developed by the authors due to a lack of pre-existing instruments to measure attitudes towards the implementation of a new consent law in Norway. The instrument, hereby referred to as the consent law measure, originally consisted of six items in the form of both positive and negative statements about a new consent law being implemented, measured on a five point scale ranging from “totally agree” to “totally disagree” (see appendix A). As there is no draft for a Norwegian consent law yet the participants were presented with the Swedish law, and asked to base their answers on the assumption that a Norwegian law will look similar.

A principal component analysis was carried out to investigate how the items in the inventory worked. The results led to the reversion of one item (item 4) due to an opposite loading from the other items in the structure matrix, and the deletion of one item (item 6) due to a low loading of -.16. A visualization of the response distributions are shown in section Figure 1 to 6. Only one component was extracted from the principal component analysis, showing that the items only load on one factor. For more details see Table 4. After the changes were made a reliability analysis was carried out, which showed good internal consistency for the instrument with a Cronbach’s Alpha score of $\alpha = .86$.

Table 4*Summary of PCA and reliability analysis*

	Component 1	Communalities
Item 1	.92	.85
Item 2	.93	.87
Item 3	.89	.73
Item 4	-.65	.42
Item 5	.64	.41
Item 6	-.16	.02

Eigenvalue	3.37
% of variance	56.13
Total variance	56.13

Note: Extraction method was Principal Component Analysis. Factor loadings over 0.4 are marked in bold.

Items from the consent law measure and their response-distribution

Figure 1

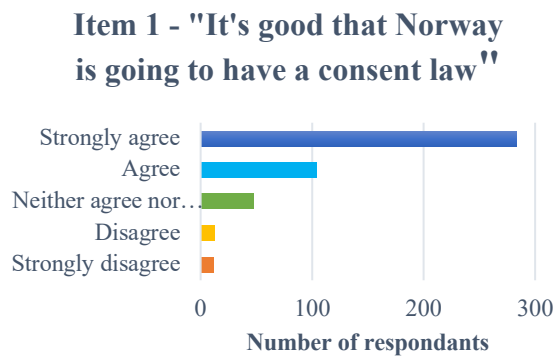


Figure 4

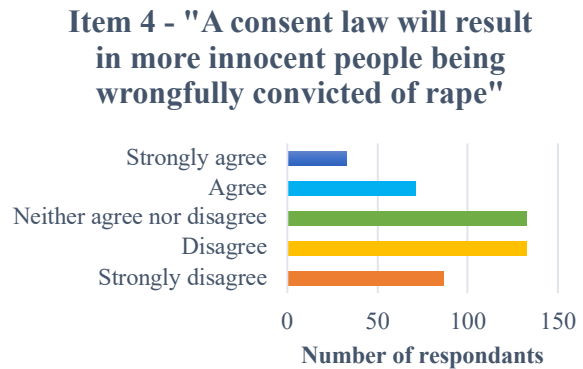


Figure 2

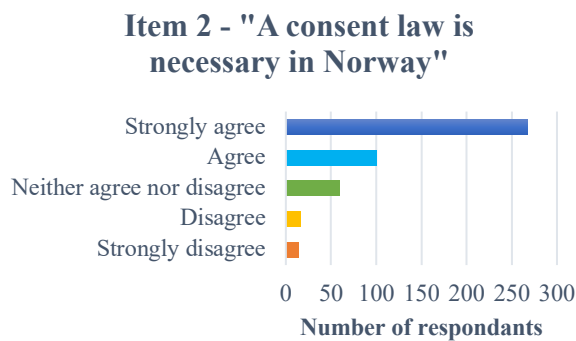


Figure 5

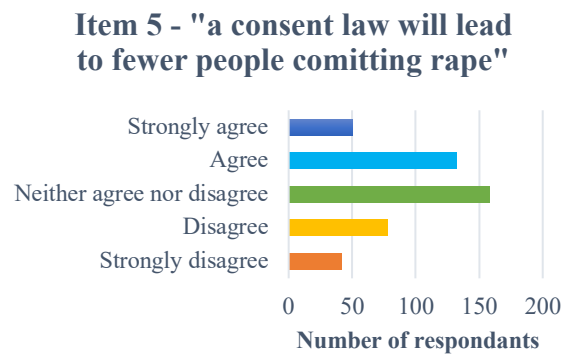


Figure 3

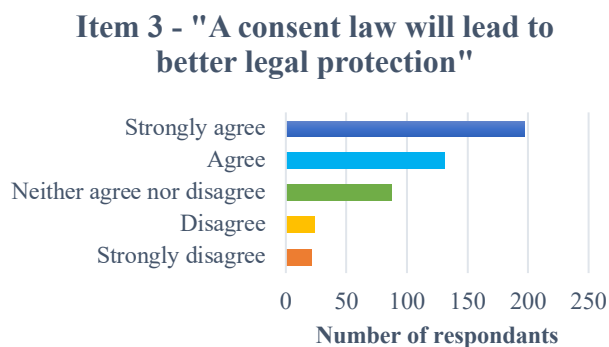
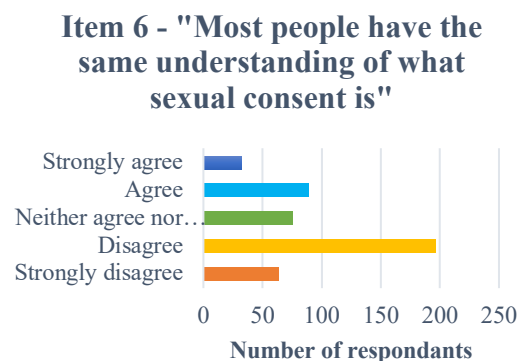


Figure 6



2.3.3 Sex roles/gender identity

To measure gender identity the Positive–Negative Sex-Role Inventory (PN-SRI) of Berger and Krahe (2013) was utilized. In this inventory, respondents report how well they think different items describe them on a 7-point likert scale, ranging from “not at all true” to

“completely true”. The inventory consists of 24 items total, where six items measure positive masculinity (e.g., “analytical”), six items measure negative masculinity (e.g., “arrogant”), six items measure positive femininity (e.g., “empathic”), and six items measure negative femininity (e.g., “anxious”). These item groups make up four subscales in the inventory. The original inventory has shown good internal consistency, with alpha coefficients ranging from $\alpha = .73$ to $\alpha = .88$ for all four subscales (Berger & Krahe, 2013).

For the purpose of the present study 23 items from the inventory were translated to Norwegian (see appendix A), and a factor analysis with principal axis factoring was conducted. This led to item seven and 11 being deleted, due to low communalities of .147 and .175 respectively. The remaining items had communalities ranging from .278 to .517, and were included in a reliability analysis to investigate the inventory’s internal consistency. Results from this analysis showed acceptable internal consistency also for the translated and modified subscales, though smaller than the original, with alpha coefficients of $\alpha = .66$ for negative masculinity, $\alpha = .74$ for positive femininity, $\alpha = .75$ for positive masculinity, and $\alpha = .79$ for negative femininity.

2.3.4 Value scale

The Short Schwartz’s Value Scale (SSVS) was used to measure values. This instrument is a shortened version of the Schwartz’s Value Scale (SVS), consisting of 10 broad values as opposed to the 57 specific values in SVS. The values are named after their associated central goal (power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, and security), and the importance of the values are rated on an 8-point scale, ranging from 0 – opposed to my principles, to 8 – of supreme importance. Studies have shown that the SSVS-values correlate to those of SVS, and that the inventory has good internal consistency (Lindeman & Verkasalo, 2005).

This inventory was also translated to Norwegian, with all 10 values included (see Appendix A).

2.3.5 The Illinois Rape Myth acceptance scale (IRMA)

Acceptance towards rape myths, defined as false beliefs about rape shaped by sexism and other prejudices, was measured with a revised version of the Illinois Rape Myth Scale (McMahon & Farmer, 2011). The updated scale consists of 22 items in the form of statements related to rape myths, where respondents answer how much they agree with each item on a scale from 1 – “strongly agree”, to 5 – “strongly disagree”. The inventory has four subscales;

“She asked for it” with six items reflecting beliefs about how the victim’s behaviour invites sexual assault, “it wasn’t really rape” with six items reflecting denial of an assault occurring due to either victim blaming or excusing the perpetrator, “he didn’t mean to” with five items reflecting beliefs about there being no intention from the perpetrator to rape, and “she lied” with five items reflecting beliefs about victims fabricating rapes (McMahon & Farmer, 2011). When tested on a sample of university students the inventory was found to have acceptable internal consistency, with Cronbach’s alphas ranging from $\alpha = .64$ to $\alpha = .80$ for the subscales, and an overall Cronbach's alpha of $\alpha = .87$.

The complete inventory was translated to Norwegian for its use in this study (see Appendix A). A factor analysis with principal axis factoring supported the same original factors for the translated items, and no changes were made. A reliability analysis further showed acceptable internal consistency for the translated subscales, with Cronbach alpha’s of $\alpha = .74$ for “It wasn’t really rape”, $\alpha = .88$ for “She lied”, $\alpha = .66$ for “He didn’t mean to”, and $\alpha = .75$ for “She asked for it”.

2.4 Statistical analysis

All data was analysed using IBM SPSS version 27. Prior to the analyses for the results section, all items from the scenario instrument, consent law instrument, PN-SRI, and IRMA were reversed, so higher scores would indicate a higher degree of agreement for all instruments. Separate variables were also created for the subscales in PN-SRI, IRMA, as well as separate variables for the average scores of the scenarios and the consent law instrument.

3. Results

3.1 Consent in sexual encounters: Scenario analyses

In order to investigate consent in sexual encounters, the participants' scores from the scenarios were analyzed by utilizing different t-tests and a correlation analysis. For the correlation analysis a new variable was created, containing the mean scores from each participant. This variable is referred to as "ConsentMean" in the correlation table.

An overview of the general response distribution for the scenarios can be found in Appendix E.

3.1.1 Gender differences in perceived consent

Through an independent samples t-test, the mean scenario scores of both gender groups were compared to identify differences in their perceived consent. The results showed that men on average perceived higher levels of consent compared to women across all 30 scenarios. The t-scores further showed that this difference in perceived consent was statistically significant in 24 out of the 30 scenarios, suggesting that there are gender-based differences in consent perceptions. The scenarios 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 17, 18, 20, 24, 25, 26, 28 and 29 have a relatively high t-value, ranging from 3.04 to 6.95, indicating a large contrast in perception of consent between men and women. In scenarios 9, 16, 21, 22 and 23 the t-values are smaller, indicating less pronounced disparities between men and women.

For more details, see Table 5.

Table 5*Results of independent samples t-test*

Scenarios	Men		Women		t(df)
	M	SD	M	SD	
1.	2.40	1.16	1.98	1.02	3.51(204.72)***
2.	2.02	1.15	1.30	0.69	6.59(160.36)***
3.	2.45	1.22	1.83	1.01	5.11(193.79)***
4.	1.41	0.76	1.18	0.48	3.19(166.24)**
5.	2.68	1.10	2.18	0.95	4.54(203.72)***
6.	2.15	1.22	1.35	0.74	6.95(163.09)***
7.	2.33	1.06	1.79	0.81	5.13(186.45)***
8.	2.79	1.17	1.98	1.02	6.78(202.87)***
9.	3.17	1.06	3.01	1.10	1.38(450)
10.	3.37	0.94	2.92	0.99	4.38(450)***
11.	1.12	0.35	1.02	0.16	2.94(142.90)**
12.	1.28	0.56	1.10	0.35	3.35(164.89)***
13.	2.14	1.09	1.79	0.92	3.21(196.65)**
14.	2.48	1.10	1.84	0.91	5.73(195.05)***
15.	1.75	0.94	1.49	0.78	2.77(194.96)
16.	2.83	1.13	2.57	1.00	2.21(205.18)
17.	2.26	1.08	1.58	0.81	6.43(180.25)***
18.	2.31	1.19	1.75	0.94	4.80(185.07)***
19.	1.87	1.11	1.59	0.87	2.55(188.08)
20.	2.81	1.09	2.15	1.05	5.86(447)***
21.	3.40	0.85	3.34	0.79	0.76(450)
22.	2.44	1.10	2.23	1.02	2.00(450)*
23.	3.33	1.00	2.06	1.08	2.43(499)*
24.	2.44	1.17	1.76	0.89	5.96(183.73)***
25.	2.82	1.07	2.23	0.95	5.34(204.63)***

26.	2.14	0.98	1.77	0.87	3.90(448)***
27.	2.17	1.17	1.95	0.98	1.91(196.62)
28.	2.86	1.09	2.28	0.94	5.27(201.71)***
29.	2.21	1.11	1.89	0.92	3.04(195.28)**
30.	3.52	0.84	3.22	0.87	3.30(442)***

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. Mean parameter values for each of the scenarios are shown for men and women, as well as the results of t-tests (Levene's test was used to assume unequal or equal variance).

3.1.2 A man vs. woman as the victim: Does the gender of the victim and perpetrator matter?

In order to explore potential differences in perceived consent based on the gender presented as the victim and the perpetrator, a paired t-test was utilized to compare similar, gender-reversed scenarios. For the majority of scenarios (7 out of 11), there was less perceived consent when the woman was portrayed as the victim and the man as the perpetrator. In the remaining scenarios (4 out of 11), there was less perceived consent when the victim was a man. The difference was statistically significant for all pairs, and they had acceptable paired correlations. This suggests that there was a slight tendency to perceive less consent in scenarios where the victim is a woman and the perpetrator is a man, but that participants' perceptions of consent were not consistently influenced by what role the genders had in the scenarios. For more details, see Table 6.

Table 6*Results of pairwise comparison of gender reversed scenarios*

Scenarios	Woman as victim		Man as victim		Mean Difference	<i>t</i> (df)
	M	SD	M	SD		
Alcohol						
7 vs 25	1.94	0.92	2.39	1.02	-0.45	-10.82(456)***
12 vs 2	1.15	0.43	1.50	0.89	-0.35	-9.38(458)***
Power						
27 vs 16	2.00	1.03	2.63	1.05	-0.63	-13.96(456)***
13 vs 6	1.88	0.98	1.57	0.96	0.30	6.79(456)***
20 vs 8	2.33	1.10	2.19	1.13	0.13	3.06(454)*
Nonverbal						
15 vs 14	1.56	0.83	2.01	1.01	-0.45	-11.46(458)***
21 vs 10	3.36	0.81	3.03	1.00	0.32	8.71(457)***
Age						
9 vs 23	3.04	1.13	3.12	1.07	-0.08	-2.80(456)*
Continuous consent						
22 vs 17	2.29	1.04	1.76	0.94	0.52	11.20(457)***
4 vs 24	1.23	0.58	1.94	1.02	-0.69	-14.55(455)***
Fear						
19 vs 1	1.66	0.95	2.09	1.07	-0.42	-9.48(458)***

Notes: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

3.1.4 Correlates of consent: Background factors, sex roles, values and rape attitudes

A Pearson Bivariate correlation analysis was used to investigate the relationship between the participants' average consent scores calculated from the scenarios and variables thought to potentially be relevant. The results are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Correlations between ConsentMean and other variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1 ConsentMean	1																				
2 Gender	-.32***	1																			
3 Age	.33***	-.21***	1																		
4 "She asked"	.52***	-.29***	.33***	1																	
5 "Didn't mean"	.29***	-.10*	.05	.50***	1																
6 "It wasn't"	.46***	-.23***	.32***	.60***	.30***	1															
7 "She lied"	.50***	-.33***	.21***	.66***	.45***	.54***	1														
8 Fem Neg	.24***	-.20***	.32***	.14**	.04	.14**	.12*	1													
9 Mas Pos	-.18***	.24***	-.24***	-.16***	-.03	-.12**	-.13**	-.33***	1												
10 Fem Pos	.11*	-.20***	-.04	.08	.08	.04	.10*	.14**	.00	1											
11 Mas Neg	-.01	.05	.16***	-.01	-.11*	.00	-.00	.11*	-.136**	-.02	1										
12 Power	.14**	-.13**	-.08	.13**	.09*	-.03	.09*	.07	-.01	.13**	-.38***	1									
13 Achievement	.01	.01	-.23***	-.03	.01	-.07	-.00	.05	-.07	.00	-.27***	.50***	1								
14 Hedonism	.00	.01	-.23***	-.01	.04	-.07	-.04	.07	-.06	-.07	-.16***	.26***	.39***	1							
15 Stimulation	-.08	.05	-.09	-.10*	-.05	-.13**	-.13**	.13**	-.10*	-.07	-.08	.09	.25***	.38***	1						
16 Self-direction	-.09*	.11*	-.01	-.09*	-.09	-.07	-.15**	.12*	-.05	-.07	.00	.02	.25***	.27***	.51***	1					
17 Universalism	-.26***	.19***	-.04	-.24***	-.18***	-.29***	-.39***	-.13***	.07	-.12**	.12*	-.15***	-.07	.02	.27***	.36***	1				
18 Benevolence	-.12**	.24***	-.03	-.08	-.05	-.11*	-.12*	-.07	-.04	-.19**	.22***	-.16***	.04	.06	.17***	.31***	.38***	1			
19 Tradition	.18***	.11*	.22***	.25***	.24***	.24***	.28***	.03	.03	-.11*	.07	-.01	.01	-.05	-.07	-.01	-.07	.13**	1		
20 Conformity	.16***	.043	.16***	.26***	.24**	.26***	.33***	.12*	-.02	-.05	.08	.01	.09	.01	-.08	.01	-.14**	.18***	.66***	1	
21 Security	.03	.126**	.04	.06	.02	.09*	.11*	.03	-.04	-.08	.08	-.01	.12**	.08	.08	.21***	.10*	.33***	.32***	.45***	1

Note. 1=men, 2=women. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

For the demographic variables there was a weak negative correlation with gender, $r(460) = -.32, p = <.001$, as well as a weak positive correlation with age, $r(460) = .33, p = <.001$, showing that women and younger people are less inclined to perceive consent in grey-area scenarios. Further, all IRMA-subcales showed significant moderate positive correlations with the total consent score, suggesting that false beliefs about rape is associated with the perception of more consent in sexual grey- area scenarios. As for the gender roles variables there were positive, though weak, significant correlations with both positive and negative femininity, and a weak negative correlation with positive masculinity, indicating that people with the positive masculine traits perceive less consent than people with more of the feminine traits. There were only significant correlations with six out of the ten values, and these correlations were weak.

3.2 Attitudes to consent law

To analyse the participants' attitude towards a new consent law, a variable containing their mean score from the attitude measurement was made. This variable, referred to as AttitudeMean in the correlation table, was then used in a correlation and regression analysis, as well as for descriptive statistics.

3.2.1 Descriptive statistics

An independent samples t-test was conducted to examine potential differences in attitudes towards a new law regarding sexual consent between men and women, using their results from the consent law measure. The assumption of unequal variance was applied. The results showed a statistically significant difference between male and female attitudes, $t(156.538) = -8.29, p < .001$, with women ($M = 4.07, SD = 0.62$) on average expressing more positive attitudes compared to men ($M = 3.21, SD = 1.09$).

3.2.2 Correlations

Another Pearson Bivariate correlation analysis was used to investigate the relationship between the participants' attitude to a new consent law calculated from their mean score on the consent law measure and other variables thought to be relevant. The results are shown in Table 8.

Table 8. Correlations between AttitudeMean and other variables.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1 AttitudeMean	1																				
2 Gender ^a	.44***	1																			
3 Age	-.31***	-.21***	1																		
4 "She asked"	-.51***	-.29***	.33***	1																	
5 "Didn't mean"	-.31***	-.10*	.05	.50***	1																
6 "It wasn't"	-.45***	-.23***	.32***	.60***	.30***	1															
7 "She lied"	-.55***	-.33***	.21***	.66***	.45***	.54***	1														
8 Fem Neg	-.23***	-.20***	.32***	.14**	.04	.14**	.12*	1													
9 Mas Pos	.22***	.24***	-.24***	-.16***	-.03	-.12**	-.13**	-.33***	1												
10 Fem Pos	-.16***	-.20***	-.04	.08	.08	.04	.10*	.14**	.00	1											
11 Mas Neg	-.01	.05	.16***	-.01	-.11*	.00	-.00	.11*	-.14**	-.02	1										
12 Power	-.09	-.13**	-.08	.13**	.09*	-.03	.09*	.07	-.01	.13**	-.38***	1									
13 Achievement	.04	.01	-.23***	-.03	.01	-.07	-.00	.05	-.07	.00	-.27***	.50***	1								
14 Hedonism	.05	.01	-.23***	-.01	.04	-.07	-.04	.07	-.06	-.07	-.16***	.26***	.40***	1							
15 Stimulation	.03	.05	-.09	-.10*	-.05	-.13**	-.13**	.13**	-.10*	-.07	-.08	.09	.25***	.38***	1						
16 Self-direction	.10*	.11*	-.01	-.09*	-.09	-.07	-.15**	.12*	-.05	-.07	.00	.02	.25***	.27***	.51***	1					
17 Universalism	.29***	.19***	-.04	-.24***	-.18***	-.29***	-.39***	-.13**	.07	-.12**	.12*	-.15***	-.07	.02	.27***	.36***	1				
18 Benevolence	.23***	.24***	-.03	-.08	-.05	-.11*	-.12*	-.07	-.04	-.19***	.22***	-.16***	.04	.06	.17***	.31***	.38***	1			
19 Tradition	-.15**	.11*	.22***	.25***	.24***	.24***	.28***	.03	.03	-.11*	.07	-.01	.01	-.05	-.07	-.01	-.07	.13**	1		
20 Conformity	-.13**	.04	.16***	.26***	.24***	.26***	.33***	.12*	-.02	-.05	.08	.01	.09	.01	-.08	.01	-.14**	.18***	.66***	1	
21 Security	.05	.13**	.04	.06	.02	.09*	.11*	.03	-.04	-.08	.08	-.01	.12**	.080	.08	.21***	.10*	.33***	.32***	.45***	1

Note. ^a1=men, 2=women. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Notably, these results reveal some similar trends between these correlations and the correlations discovered earlier for average consent scores, where the majority of the variables associated with higher consent scores are also associated with more negative attitudes towards a new consent law. There is a moderate positive correlation with gender, and a weak negative correlation with age, indicating that women and younger people have more favorable views of a new consent law compared to their counterparts. There were also weak to moderate negative correlations with all IRMA-subcales, showing that false beliefs about rape are associated with more negative views of a new consent law. The strongest correlation is between the mean attitude score and the “She lied”-subscale, $r(460) = -.51, p = <.001$, followed by the “She asked”-subscale, $r(460) = -.51, p = <.001$, suggesting that believing people lie about rape, or that people are asking for it to happen to them, might be an important factor impacting people’s attitudes to a consent law. Further, there were weak negative correlations for both negative and positive femininity, and a weak positive correlation for positive masculinity. This indicates that people with the feminine traits have a slightly more negative view of a new consent law than people with positive masculine traits. For values there were weak significant correlations between five of the values. The rest of the variables had no significant correlation with the attitude sum score.

3.2.3 Regression model

The results presented in Table 9 illustrate the findings of a multiple regression analysis, aiming to examine the relationships between various predictor variables and their impact on attitudes towards sexual consent. Each model progressively includes additional predictor variables to investigate their influence on the dependent variable.

Table 9*Multiple Regression Analysis*

Model	R^2	b	$SE\ b$	β	p	95% CI	
						LL	UL
Model 1	.24						
Gender ^a		.772	.083	.400	<.001	.609	.934
Age		-.015	.003	-.209	<.001	-.021	-.009
Model 2	.40						
Gender ^a		.568	.079	.295	<.001	.413	.724
Age		-.008	.003	-.110	.007	-.014	-.002
Man as perpetrator ^b		-.609	.137	-.370	<.001	-.879	-.338
Woman as perpetrator		-.083	.112	-.066	.457	-.303	.136
Model 3	.44						
Gender ^a		.520	.082	.270	<.001	.359	.681
Age		-.007	.003	-.102	.018	-.013	-.001
Man as perpetrator ^b		-.585	.138	-.356	<.001	-.855	-.314
Woman as perpetrator ^c		-.084	.112	-.067	.453	-.304	.136
Positive femininity		-.084	.045	-.074	.060	-.172	.003
Negative femininity		-.020	.030	-.027	.520	-.079	.040
Positive masculinity		.056	.050	.046	.262	-.042	.155
Negative masculinity		-.005	.035	-.006	.876	-.075	.064
Model 4	.46						
Gender ^a		.414	.079	.215	<.001	.260	.569
Age		-.005	.003	-.063	.131	-.010	.001
Man as perpetrator ^b		-.379	.132	-.230	.004	-.638	-.120
Woman as perpetrator ^c		-.039	.105	-.031	.711	-.246	.168
Positive femininity		-.071	.042	-.062	.091	-.153	.011
Negative femininity		-.029	.028	-.040	.315	-.085	.027
Positive masculinity		.053	.047	.044	.261	-.040	.146
Negative masculinity		-.008	.033	-.009	.803	-.073	.057
"‘She asked’"		-.080	.080	-.055	.318	-.238	.078
"‘Didn't mean’"		-.060	.059	-.043	.308	-.176	.056
"‘It wasn't’"		-.192	.088	-.100	.030	-.365	-.019
"‘She lied’"		-.221	.053	-.211	<.001	-.326	-.116
Model 5	.50						
Gender ^a		.381	.081	.198	<.001	.222	.541
Age		-.004	.003	-.053	.235	-.010	.002
Man as perpetrator ^b		-.386	.133	-.235	.004	-.646	-.125
Woman as perpetrator ^c		-.029	.106	-.023	.785	-.238	.180

Positive femininity	-.059	.042	-.052	.162	-.143	.024
Negative femininity	-.017	.029	-.024	.553	-.075	.040
Positive masculinity	.059	.048	.049	.215	-.035	.153
Negative masculinity	-.035	.036	-.039	.332	-.107	.036
“She asked”	-.095	.081	-.065	.239	-.254	.063
"Didn't mean"	-.053	.060	-.038	.372	-.170	.064
“It wasn't”	-.175	.090	-.091	.053	-.352	.002
“She lied”	-.212	.056	-.202	<.001	-.321	-.102
Power	-.006	.022	-.013	.768	-.049	.036
Achievement	.010	.021	.022	.632	-.032	.052
Hedonism	.018	.019	.039	.349	-.020	.055
Stimulation	-.056	.023	-.106	.016	-.101	-.010
Self-direction	.001	.026	.002	.963	-.050	.052
Universalism	.024	.020	.052	.237	-.016	.063
Benevolence	.064	.030	.090	.033	.005	.123
Tradition	-.024	.020	-.057	.241	-.064	.016
Conformity	.013	.022	.030	.563	-.030	.056
Security	.023	.022	.043	.303	-.020	.066

Notes: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. ^a1=men, 2=women, ^bSumscore of scenarios where a man were the perpetrator, ^cSumscore of scenarios where a women were the perpetrator.

4. Discussion

The prevalence of sexual assault amongst Norwegian women in 2023 is concerning, with recent numbers revealing one in five women are raped (Nkvts, 2023). Being raped is associated with a range of profound psychological implications, including PTSD. The current law stipulates specific conditions for under which rape can be prosecuted, specifying that the victim needs to either be unconscious, threatened, or use active resistance (Straffeloven, 2000, § 192). Studies do however show that rape can happen outside of these conditions. The majority of rapes are not aggravated assault, but acquaintance rape, meaning that the majority of victims know their perpetrator (Lofgreen, 2021, p. 1066; Politiet, 2020, s.13). Consequently, the dynamics of such relationships can impact the victim's response, with studies showing that a woman is less likely to fight her attacker if it is someone she knows. In addition, there is an elevated likelihood of developing PTSD from being sexually assaulted by an acquaintance (Feinstein et al., 2012, s.192). This is one of many examples used to argue the need for reformed sexual penal codes, where sexual intercourse without any form of expressed consent can be considered rape.

With Norway being the last of the Nordic countries, several countries have re-conceptualized their definition of rape, and included consent in their sexual offence laws. The neighbouring country of Sweden specifies that voluntariness must be expressed through words, actions, or in any other way (Brottsbalk, 2018). Consequently, with many countries now getting consent laws, there has been a subsequent increase in rape convictions (Brå, 2020, p. 7, 23). The inclination is likely not due to an increase of rape, but the ability to now prosecute non-consensual sexual assault, suggesting that sexual offence laws including consent can lead to better legal protection for victims of sexual crimes. This increase in cases of rape prosecutions has however also caused concern for wrongful convictions. Among the repercussions of wrongful convictions are the loss of personal identity, a deeply ingrained psychological trauma, the burden of social stigma, strains on interpersonal relationships, and adjustment difficulties (Brooks & Greenberg, 2021, p. 44).

The possibility of integrating consent into the Norwegian sexual penal codes does therefore raise several important questions. Should the wording be similar to the Swedish law, where there is no clear given explanation of which actions or ways someone can express consent, ambiguity in communication and complication of judicial practices is of concern. As shown earlier, interpretation of consent can differ greatly between individuals (Wood et al., 2019). Dissent regarding the proposed consent law can have implications for law compliance. Research shows that individuals who engage in criminal activities deliberate the likelihood of

getting caught for a crime, and if the likelihood is perceived as low, they are more inclined to break the law. Intriguingly, the perceived probability of getting caught is a stronger predictor for crime than the fear of severe punishment. Individuals are also more inclined to obey laws that align with their personal morals and values, and vice versa (Tyler, 2006, p. 310, 314). Consequently, this study has aimed to investigate if there is a consensus regarding what is considered sexual consent amongst Norwegians, and their attitudes towards a new sexual consent law. The findings and their implications will be discussed in this chapter.

4.1 Individual variation in conceptualisation of consent

To get a better understanding of people's conceptualisation of sexual consent we did several analyses using so-called “grey-area” scenarios, meaning situations where the determination of whether consent has been given is not straightforward and ambiguous, and is susceptible to interpretation. A general consensus on the topic would make the implementation of the new law change easier on the general public, while dissent might lead to non-compliance, as well as complicate the judicial practices. The 30 scenarios were categorised into seven different categories, and consent was studied in the following settings: Continuous consent, fear, hook-ups vs. relationships, alcohol/ unconsciousness, misuse of power, non-verbal communication/ freezing and age-difference.

4.1.1. Situational factors related to consent

Category I: Continuous consent

Muehlenhard et al. (2016) pinpoints how consent differs from wanting, which contributes to the continuous sex discussion. The concept of continuous consent is not specified in the Swedish law. Examples of continuous consent is being able to withdraw the consent at any time, and agreeing to one thing does not imply agreement to everything without the proper permission, e.g. an intercourse that started out as consensual may no longer be consensual if the sexual act changes. This may be the case if consensual oral sex changes to intercourse, or consensual vaginal intercourse changes to anal penetration without both parties agreeing (Helsenorge, 2021).

We constructed two scenarios, scenario 22 (woman as victim) vs. 17 (man as victim), where we explored instances of transitioning from vaginal to anal penetration without the proper communication. In scenario 22, where the woman is the victim, both men and women leaned towards a “yes”-response, suggesting that both men and women may lack a comprehensive understanding of the concept of continuous consent, or alternatively, there

might be a prevailing consensus that such transitions remain within the bounds of acceptable consent norms. In Scenario 17, where the man is the victim, the female respondents leaned towards a “no”-response, and the men still leaned towards a “yes”-response. However the men found scenario 17 less consensual compared to scenario 22, suggesting that men were more inclined to perceive transitioning from vaginal to anal penetration as consensual when being done to a woman, more often than in the comparable scenario where a woman surprisingly penetrates a man’s anus with her finger without prior consent from the man. Grubb & Turner (2012) suggests in their research paper that women are more empathic towards rape victims because they are able to visualise themselves in a similar situation, thus feeling empathy towards other women who are raped. Conversely, this seems to be the case in our research with our male respondents, where it is probable that men oppose the notion of an unwanted sexual act more when it's being done to them.

Alternatively, this finding could be attributed to stereotypes of gender roles, and the traditional perception of women as passive and men as active in sexual scenarios, which also challenges the traditional notions of power dynamics. It may also be influenced by cultural and societal norms, where there are societal expectations linked to gender roles, which in turn shapes the individual's perception of what is considered socially acceptable within sexual scripts. In the other scenario of continuous consent, where the perpetrator wants to finish and reach orgasm after the victim has vocalised a desire to abort the sex, our respondents were leaning further towards a “no”-response, suggesting that continuous consent in this format is generally considered non-consensual amongst our respondents.

Category II: Fear

This category depicts scenarios of violence and the subsequent fear, where the two comparable scenarios show the victim agreeing to sex to avoid their partner getting violent. Violence at the hands of a man or a woman seems to affect the perceived consent with our respondents, with a tendency of both men and women finding it more consensual if the perpetrator is a woman. Women find both scenarios more non-consensual, however the men are slightly more inclined to perceive the female perpetrator-scenario as consensual. This could mean that a violent woman is seen as a lesser threat, due to presumed size and physical strength.

People opposing violence and sex could potentially be attributed to the traditional lens through which rape has been historically perceived, which also is explicitly written as rape in

the existing penal code, which is presumably why the majority of our respondents found these scenarios to be non-consensual.

Category III: Hook-ups vs. relationships

A recurring theme suggested by acquaintances involved a boyfriend persistently pressuring his girlfriend for sexual activity until she acquiesced. Consequently, we wrote a couple of scenarios with the aim of investigating potential disparities in consent perception between sexual interactions anticipated within a romantic relationship context and those occurring with comparatively unfamiliar individuals, such as in scenarios of a first date or a one-night stand. Our findings suggest that people find it more consensual if unwanted sex, such as persuasion or “nagging” for sex, happens with someone they are in a relationship with, as opposed to a first date. The explanation for this might be what Linander et al. (2021) highlights in their research, how even though the respondents concurred if their partner pleaded for sex, they did not consider it rape, but rather unwanted sex they agreed to in order to meet the societal expectations, as well as wanting to please their partner. As for sex with someone they barely know, such as for casual hook-ups, the risk of one of the parties feeling violated sexually is higher, according to our research. An explanation for this might be what Linander et al. (2021) discuss, of how a relationship in its initial phase, or the early stages of dating, can cause people to engage in unwanted sex, for the reasons of fear of being rejected by the partner, or limited knowledge of their own boundaries, which young people are particularly vulnerable to. There seems to be an emotional significant component in our findings, suggesting that people will tolerate unwanted sex to a greater degree if they share an intimate bond with their sexual partner. In the findings of Feinstein et al. (2012), we see that women are less inclined to actively resist rape when they are being raped by an acquaintance. This is likely contributed to the emotional component of sharing an intimate bond with someone, and not wanting to defend themselves if defending themselves involves the potential for physical harm to their partner.

Category IV: Alcohol intoxication/ unconsciousness

Alcohol intoxication and unconsciousness are often present in rape cases. As previously discussed, alcohol makes men more susceptible to overperception of sexual cues, and women more oblivious to signs of danger (Muehlenhard et al., 2016). In two gender-balanced scenarios we describe a sexual encounter where a drunk person does not remember having sex, and is unsure if it was consensual or not. In both scenarios the perpetrators were less

drunk. Our analysis shows that people found it more consensual when the man was drunk and doesn't remember. This could be explained by a man, within the bounds of normal heterosexual scripts, will have to have an active role in the sex, and therefore is presumed more guilty than the woman. Regardless, it is evident in our findings that people have a higher tendency to victim-blame the man who claims it was non-consensual sex. The same were true of the scenarios depicting someone being awakened by the perpetrator doing sexual acts to them. Our findings show that men in general found it more consensual, but also that it was found more consensual by both genders if it happened to the man than to the woman. Interestingly the men also perceived the scenarios depicting a female perpetrator as more consensual, which could mean that men see females making sexual advances as acceptable. Some of these men might see these scenarios as sexual fantasies rather than rape scenarios.

Category V: Misuse of power

In this category we used scenarios where a person of power had a professional advantage in a situation, specifically a boss and a subordinate, and scenarios of psychological power-advantage. Included in the Swedish consent law is the clause: “[The person who, with a person who does not participate voluntarily if] the perpetrator induces the individual to participate by seriously exploiting the fact that the individual is in a dependent position to the perpetrator” (Brottsbalk, 2018). However it does not further specify, and will therefore largely be open to interpretation in the court. In these scenarios we found the most dissent amongst the respondents. However they found it slightly more consensual if a female took advantage of a male, while possessing either a professional or psychological power over the person. It's evident from our results that people lack a clear conceptualisation of consent in these scenarios, as our respondents are polarised in their responses.

Category VI: Non-verbal communication/ Freezing

As discussed earlier, a deliberate choice was made to avoid gender-balancing all scenarios within this category. However, two gender-comparable scenarios were retained: one involving a man giving an implicit consent by nodding, and another featuring a male not resisting oral sex from a woman at a social gathering.

Central to the discourse of the possible implementation of a consent law is the phenomenon of “freezing”, which is one of the three common fear-responses that can happen to an individual while experiencing tremendous fear (Schmidt, 2008, p. 293). As previously discussed, the current rape law only accounts for the other two fear responses: fight and flight.

While undergoing freezing, the victim experiences temporary paralysis and is rendered unable to communicate a lack of consent, thereby underscoring the critical importance of affirmative consent.

Due to a prevalence of one in five women being raped in the US, an affirmative consent bill was passed mandating public-funded universities to ensure a higher level of safety for their students. The law stipulates that an affirmative consent must be given, and that “a lack of protest or resistance does not mean consent, nor does silence mean consent” (Johnson & Hoover, 2015, p. 1). Johnson & Hoover (2015) found in their research on affirmative consent that men and women differentiated in their perception of communicated consent. Men believed they communicated consent through non-verbal communication, and thought verbal consent to be unnecessary and that their consent was implied. Contrary, women expressed a need for verbal cues to communicate consent, and believed that non-verbal communication was not indicative of consent. Research shows that social norms where the man is expected to be the aggressor, and women the gatekeeper, is one possible explanation for men to interpret passive behaviour as consent (Wood et al, 2019 , p. 406). This is consistent with our findings of men finding non-verbal communication more consensual than women, which aligns with prior research suggesting that misinterpretation of silent cues contributes to this disparity. As previously stated, consent is more often expressed non-verbally than verbally, which creates a larger margin for error in sexual situations that are ambiguous.

In scenario 28, depicting a woman who is passive and non-responsive during intercourse, our female responders leaned towards a “non-consensual”-response, while the males leaned towards a “consensual”-response, confirming the gender differences in perception of non-verbal communication.

Our findings indicate that freezing, shown as passive behaviour in sexual scenarios, may be harder to differentiate between an actual trauma response or the female gender role of acting passively under sex, for our respondents.

Category VII: Age-difference

The two gender-balanced scenarios depicting sex between a 16-year old and a considerably older person were the category in which most people found consensual. The age of consent in Norway is 16, which the respondents seemed to be aware of. In both the scenarios the people expressed clear consent. Even though it might be ethically frowned upon to engage in sexual activities with someone considerably younger, it is nevertheless consensual in the eyes of the

law. Some of the respondents didn't see these scenarios as consensual. This might be due to people questioning the ability to make good choices for a 16-year old, and therefore expecting the older person to abstain from making sexual advances. This could also apply to and could have been discussed under "misuse of power", at the concept of "grooming", where a perpetrator, often a paedophile, befriends someone under the age of consent, to cultivate trust, subsequently exploiting this connection for sexual purposes (Cambridge Dictionary, n.d.). It's reasonable to surmise that respondents who identified these scenarios as non-consensual may potentially perceive them through the lens of grooming dynamics.

4.1.2 Gender as a contributing factor in perceived consent and in attitudes to a consent law

Gender and perception of consent

Our study found that women on average perceived less consent than men across all thirty scenarios, meaning men were more likely to see sexually ambiguous scenarios as consensual.

This finding aligns with earlier literature on interpretation of consent in ambiguous situations, such as where indirect or implicit communication is used, where men typically have a higher tendency to interpret women's behaviour as showing more sexual interest than intended (Wood et al., 2019, p. 406). This commonly found male-"overperception" of consent would explain why we found men to perceive more consent than women across all scenarios, as more passive and indirect communication was purposefully used to create ambiguity, rather than clear verbally given consent or rejection. Grubb and Turner (2012) proposes that men generally tend to have less empathy with rape victims and have a higher tolerance for rape than women, and that they are more likely to blame the victim in cases of rape, providing insight as to why this overperception might exist (Grubb & Turner, 2012, p. 446).

The same body of literature does however also suggest that men's overperception of sexual intent might be overestimated in research, referring to newer studies where findings show that men and women more often agree than disagree on which behaviours indicate sexual consent, which is contradictory to our findings (Wood et al., 2019, p. 410). However, these newer findings are based on men and women's ratings of individual behaviours alone, neglecting the possible effect of context and combinations of such behaviours (Wood et al., 2019, p. 416). This makes the finding less applicable to our study, as the scenarios presented to the participants often contain several variables and combinations of different behaviours, suggesting that men still overestimate the level of consent if the situation is complex and

ambiguous enough. An extension of this topic is discussed earlier in section 4.1.1 Situational factors related to consent.

In the discussion of the overall observed gender difference in the scenarios it is also important to note that our findings only are partially consistent with a similar quantitative study, which found that men generally see less consent than women for one category; if men were the victims (Vandiver & Dupalo, 2013). In our gender reversed scenarios where men were the victims, we still found that men saw more consent than women did. However, there were scenarios in our study where men saw more consent if it happened to a woman than a man, such as switching to anal penetration without any prior communication. This shows that men did occasionally see less consent if a man is the victim in our study, but since women consistently saw even less consent this was less prominent than in the study of Vandiver and Dupalo (2013).

Gender and attitudes to a consent law

A similar result for gender was found in our measure of attitudes towards a consent law, where women on average had a more favourable view of the law compared to men. A consent law stating that “consent must be given through words, actions, or in other ways”, such as the Swedish law, will likely be impacted by the gender difference in concept perception, with the risk of being too liberal, allowing liberal interpretations of consent as well. We were unable to find prior research on how gender affects attitudes towards the implementation of consent laws specifically, but based on other findings and statistics possible explanations can be inferred.

Given that men consistently showed higher levels of perceived consent across a range of scenarios that could potentially fall under a new consent law, they may perceive such a law as unnecessary, or even harmful, as the law might be misaligned with their personal conception of what constitutes rape. This could have led to less agreement on some of the statements in the consent law measure, such as the necessity of a consent law, negatively affecting their measured attitude.

The more negative attitude towards a consent law amongst men can also possibly be explained by a belief that they are more likely to be negatively impacted by a possible consent law implementation. Reports show that the majority of rape victims in Norway are women, meaning men are more likely to be reported as rapists and prosecuted for rape (Nkvts, 2023). Further, social norms dictate men to be the initiator of sex, while women are cast as the gatekeepers who are expected to show resistance (Wood et al., 2019, p. 405). Consequently,

men are faced with a higher responsibility of detecting and interpreting signals of consent or resistance than women, making men more susceptible to breaking a consent law if they fail to do so. Men who hold this belief could therefore have been more susceptible to interpreting the statement of "A consent law will lead to better legal protection" in the consent law measure differently than women, as they might be more inclined to believe a consent law will result in a general reduced legal protection for men, rather than increasing the legal protection for rape victims. It is also plausible that this could have caused men to more strongly concur with the statement "A consent law will result in more innocent people being wrongfully convicted of rape", fearing they may be implicated.

Men were also found to generally score higher in beliefs related to rape myths (see section 4.1.5) (McMahon & Farmer, 2011, p. 77). In our measurement of the attitude towards a consent law, a lot of dissent was observed in the "A consent law will result in more innocent people being wrongfully convicted of rape"-statement, which likely reflects the rape myths of believing women lie about rape, and the myth of the perpetrator committing rape unintentionally. As a result, male participants might have been more predisposed to agree with this statement, contributing to a more negative view on the law. The belief of being more negatively impacted could also have led to a more negative standpoint on other statements, such as the "It's good that Norway is going to have a consent law"-statement, further contributing to a more negative attitude.

4.1.3 Age as a contributing factor in perceived consent and in attitudes to a consent law

Age and perception of consent

The results showed that age of the respondents was associated with the amount of perceived consent, and the older the participants were the more likely they were to see more consent in the scenarios. This difference could be attributed to societal changes, as older participants grew up with different norms regarding sexual scripts and the conceptualisation of rape. Sparked by the #metoo- campaign, a new social discourse of defining sexual harassment and personal boundaries has dominated social media in the recent years (Linander et al., 2021, s. 110; Holmström et al., 2020, s. 342). The national curriculum is constantly changing, and we are witnessing a shift from teaching about reproductive health and sexually transmitted diseases, to implementing knowledge in schools and teaching fourth-graders about how to act and speak up if they or someone they know are subjected to sexual assault. The new curriculum includes education about the body, sexuality, gender, and personal boundaries. A notable emphasis lies on cultivating an understanding of consent, unacceptable sexual

conduct, elucidating the nuances of violence and abuse, and fostering empathy towards the experiences of others (Noknorge, n.d.). A new awareness around the nuances of sexual misconduct with the younger generations, can likely explain why older people foster different attitudes around the conceptualisation of consent.

Age and attitudes to a consent law

The results also showed that the older the participants were, the less they favoured the proposed consent law.

It's highly probable that similar factors accounting for the influence of age on consent perception also contribute to this finding. As mentioned above, older individuals in our sample grew up during a time when sexual education, setting boundaries, and addressing harassment were less emphasised than it is now. Consequently, they might have internalised the concept of consent differently than younger individuals, which could be contributing to differences in attitudes towards a consent law. As older people tend to see more consent in the scenarios, they might find that changing the law is unnecessary, therefore disagreeing with the statements used in this study to measure attitudes towards the law, such as statements concerning the necessity of such a law in Norway, and that it is good that Norway is going to get a consent law. This could explain the more prominent negative attitude among older people than what was seen for younger participants.

Further, our correlation analysis also showed a weak but noticeable positive correlation between age and the values of tradition and conformity, suggesting that these values play a role in shaping people's views towards a new law. Tradition and conformity are both reflective of a broader value of conservation (Schwartz, 2012), which might cause more resistance to change, especially changes that are considered more controversial such as the consent law. As a result, these values could potentially contribute to fostering some resistance among older individuals in regard to welcoming a new law. It was however a weak correlation, meaning values alone is not enough to explain this age-related difference in attitudes alone. For a more in-depth discussion about values, see section 4.1.6.

4.1.4 Sex roles as a contributing factor in perceived consent and in attitudes to a consent law

Sex roles refer to the roles acquired through the process of socialisation, wherein people learn the shared beliefs about which desirable traits are attributed to men and women within the bounds of societal norms. When these are learnt, they are thought to be incorporated into

individuals' self-concept to varying degrees (Berger & Krahe, 2013). Our results are based on the participants' self-ratings on how much they relate to the dimensions of masculinity and femininity as measured in the Positive-Negative Sex-Role Inventory by Berger & Krahe.

Sex roles and perception of consent

Our study found that both positive and negative feminine traits were weakly associated with more perceived consent in the scenarios, while positive masculine traits were weakly associated with less perceived consent. In addition, there was no found association between perceived consent and negative masculinity. This is an interesting finding considering women on average were found to perceive less consent than men, and it is expected for women to score higher on feminine traits and men to score higher on masculine traits (Berger & Krahe, 2013, p. 523-524). One could also infer that negative masculine traits, such as “inconsiderate” and “hungry for power” should typically lead to a higher level of perceived consent, however this was not found in our analysis.

A possible explanation for the correlation with feminine traits can be inferred by looking closer at the relevant subscales. “Empathic” and “sensitive” are considered positive feminine traits, which initially would be natural to associate with empathy and sensitivity for victims, therefore resulting in less perceived consent. It is however also plausible that these traits lead to more compassion and understanding for potential predators, especially if the scenarios depict complex situations with cues that might be considered hard for the other part to pick up on, therefore leading to more perceived consent instead. Similar explanations are possible for the negative feminine traits, where traits such as “naïve” and “self-doubting” could be expected to result in more perceived consent instead of less.

Another possible explanation for this finding is a change or difference in gender roles since the Positive-Negative Sex-Role Inventory (PN-SRI) was made in 2013. Men perceiving more consent on average, while positive masculine traits correlate with less perceived consent, might be an indicator that the more traditional sex-role identities weren't as applicable for our sample, and that women and men might have identified more with traits that's previously been more associated with, and desired by, the opposite gender. When looking at the correlations between gender and the sex roles subscales this also seems to be the case.

It is however important to emphasise that the association found between feminine traits, positive masculine traits, and perception of consent was very weak, meaning it is not a robust finding or strongly indicative of consent perception. As this is somewhat of a more

controversial finding, more research is needed to reach a more confirmative conclusion about these traits' role in the perception of consent.

Sex roles and attitude to consent law

In regards to attitudes to a consent law weak correlations were again found for feminine traits and positive masculine traits. Feminine traits were associated with a more negative attitude towards a consent law, whilst positive masculine traits were associated with a more positive attitude. As with perception of consent, no significant correlation was found with negative masculine traits.

Since these correlations are similar to those for perception of consent and sex roles, one can assume that the possible explanations given for those results are applicable here as well. Additionally, there is a possibility that conceptualisation of consent was important, and that more perceived consent in the scenarios for the feminine traits could be what caused the more negative view towards a consent law, and vice versa for the positive masculine traits. However, since the correlations were weak and unexpected, more research is necessary to establish how feminine and masculine traits affect attitudes towards consent laws.

4.1.5. Rape Myths as a contributing factor in perceived consent and in attitudes to a consent law

Rape myths are false or distorted beliefs about rape, perpetrators, victims and the circumstances under which sexual assault happens. This was measured with a revised version of the Illinois Rape Myth Scale (McMahon & Farmer, 2011).

Rape myths and perception of consent

Our results show that a higher acceptance for all four subscales of rape myths was associated with more perceived consent in the scenarios. The correlations were moderate for “she asked for it”, “she lied” and “it wasn’t”, and weaker for “he didn’t mean to”. This finding was expected, and aligns with earlier research showing that people with a higher acceptance for rape myths are more likely to interpret sexual intent in women’s behaviour (Wood et al., 2019, p. 407). This finding can also be interpreted as consistent with the underlying beliefs represented by the subscales; being more susceptible to think that the sexual intercourse was asked for (she asked for it), denying the occurrence of an assault (it wasn’t really rape), believing that victims often lie about being assaulted (she lied), or that there was no intention for the predator to cross a line (he didn’t mean it), can explain why the participants with a

higher acceptance for rape myths are more inclined to interpret sexual situations as more consensual than someone who does not hold the same beliefs.

Another study investigating students' attitudes to rape myths found that the most endorsed rape myth was "he didn't mean to rape", suggesting that the respondents found miscommunication to be a leading factor in men raping someone by accident (Johnson & Hoover, 2015, p. 3). In our study however, we found a stronger correlation with the myths of "she asked for it", "she lied", and "it wasn't", suggesting that our respondents attribute rape less to miscommunication, and rather victim blaming and circumstantial factors.

Rape myths and attitude to consent law

A higher acceptance for rape myths was also found to be associated with a more negative attitude towards a consent law. The strongest association was found with "She lied", followed by "She asked", "It wasn't", and "He didn't mean it". "She lied" was also one of the strongest predictor variables for attitudes towards a consent law as shown in our regression analysis, and the only statistically significant predictor variable from the IRMA-inventory in the final regression model. This indicates that beliefs in rape myths, especially believing people lie about rape, are probable indicators of a more negative view on the consent law. Research, however, reveals a contrasting reality, where only 2% of rape allegations are indeed false (Grubb & Turner, 2012, p. 445). This implies that in a substantial 98% of cases, women who come forward as rape victims are speaking the truth and, regrettably, often face the distressing prospect of not being believed. This further indicates that a large number of women today are raped without protection from the current law. However it also means that in 2 % of the cases, predominantly men will be at risk for being falsely implicated in rape accusations.

The findings from the correlation and regression analysis could be attributed to a conceptualisation of rape that doesn't align with what a consent law would consider rape, due to interpreting situations as showing more consent than they do. Another possible explanation is that people who endorse rape myths are more inclined to justify sexual assault (Grubb & Turner, 2012, p. 445) and therefore might not see a need for the law, or find it unjust for people to be prosecuted under one. Further, people who accept beliefs who fall under the "She lied"-subscale might have an elevated fear of themselves or others being wrongfully convicted. Considering the rise in legal proceedings involving rape cases in other countries subsequent to the introduction of consent laws (Brå, 2020, p. 7, 23), and recognizing the profound social and psychological ramifications linked with wrongful convictions (Brooks &

Greenberg, 2021, p. 44), this might explain why people who hold this belief are especially inclined to view a consent law unfavorably.

4.1.6. Values as a contributing factor in perceived consent and in attitudes to a consent law

Values refer to the different enduring beliefs, principles, and ideas that guide individuals' behaviour, decisions and attitudes. In our study the participants' values were measured with the Short Schwartz's Value Survey.

Values and perception of consent

There were no strong associations found with any of the values measured, suggesting a relatively minor influence of values on perception of consent. Universalism and benevolence have slight negative correlations with perceived consent, whereas tradition, conformity and power have small positive correlations with perceived consent. Despite their smaller effect, explanations for these associations can be derived by taking a closer look at each value.

The values of universalism and benevolence collectively constitute the "Self-Transcendence"-category within Schwartz's value theory (Schwartz, 2012). This category reflects values that emphasise welfare and prioritising the collective well-being of others, which offers insight into its link with less perceived consent. Given that caring for others beyond one's own needs is central for this category, individuals identifying with these values might be more attuned to the potential discomfort or lack of autonomy experienced by others. This might make these participants more sensitive to distress of the people in the scenarios, therefore making them more inclined to interpret the scenarios as lacking consent.

In contrast, tradition and conformity are values that prioritise not upsetting others by adhering to rules, respecting traditions, and maintaining societal roles (Schwartz, 2012). This could explain why they're more likely to perceive consent in sexually ambiguous situations, especially in cases where women are portrayed as the victim, as they are driven by their desire to avoid disrupting the social order, and adhering to conventional behaviours and traditional expectations. Further, this might be particularly relevant if the individuals valuing tradition happen to also endorse traditional attitudes about men and women's societal roles, as this has been found to play a pivotal role in blaming the victim in rape cases, and less judgement of the perpetrator. This is thought to partially be because traditional gender role stereotyping dictates that a woman should be sexually conservative, therefore attributing blame and responsibility to the rape victim (Grubb & Turner, 2012, p.447).

As for power, it is a value connected to pursuing self-interests, often showing as a wish and desire for social dominance and control (Schwartz, 2012). As they value behaviours that are controlling and dominant to other people, they might be more susceptible to justify ignoring and going against someone's will, and therefore more likely to judge the sexually ambiguous scenarios as acceptable and consensual. This is a plausible explanation as to why people who scored higher on power tended to perceive more consent in the scenarios.

However, whilst these results give insight into how values and perception of consent might interplay, it is important to acknowledge that the weak correlations limit these findings and inferences. As values are seen as guides for people's actions, behaviour and attitudes (Schwartz, 2012, p. 3), one might have expected stronger correlations in our results. This highlights how perception of consent is a nuanced phenomenon that is most likely influenced by multiple factors that go beyond individual values.

Values and attitudes to consent law

Similar findings were found for the relationship between values and attitudes to a consent law. Again, the relatively weak correlations suggest a minor influence of values on attitudes to a consent law. Universalism and benevolence were associated with slightly more favourable views of a consent law, whilst the opposite was found for tradition and conformity.

Considering that the values linked to lower perceived consent align with a more positive view of the law, and conversely, values associated with higher perceived consent align with a less favorable view of the law, it's plausible that variations in how rape and consent are defined and recognised can account for the discrepancies found for attitudes toward the law. Seeing a higher frequency of non-consent could possibly be what increases the inclination to recognize the necessity of a consent law for universalism and benevolence, whilst perceiving more instances of consent might result in a reduced inclination such as for tradition and conformity. There was however no significant correlation for power and the consent law, even though power was found to be associated with more perceived consent.

Another explanation is that the values might differ in their openness to changing the sexual penal code. This could affect the scores on the attitude scale. Tradition and conformity are both values that belong to the "conservatory"-category in Schwartz's value theory (Schwartz, 2012), meaning people who hold these values might be less inclined to want to change and want to uphold traditions and stability.

4.2 Limitations

To recruit respondents to the questionnaire we used both snowball sampling and convenience sampling, where we posted on our private facebook and instagram accounts, and asked acquaintances to respond. We also recruited respondents by posting the survey in several facebook groups where the members were discussing current affairs and political issues, figuring the members would be interested in participating. By using these recruitment methods there might be several biases, including network bias, homogeneity bias and underrepresentation bias, as the majority of our facebook friends will likely be respondents close to our age and likemindedness. We therefore also used intercept sampling from hanging posters outside in Trondheim and on campus NTNU Dragvoll and Gløshaugen, to ensure a better statistical validity.

Another limitation is the lack of a more extensive knowledge about the validity and reliability of our scenarios. In order to investigate potential differences in how people perceive sexual situations relevant to the new law, ambiguous “grey-area” situations with several unknown variables lacking a clear yes/no answer had to be used. For our gender reversed scenarios there were also instances where context and present variables had to be changed so as to not make them too recognizable as the reversed version of another scenario. There is therefore a possibility that people might have based their answers on different variables or factors than we anticipated, making it unsure if the scenarios have measured what we wanted them to measure in terms of e.g., the different categories and gender of victim and perpetrator. Our paired t-test analysis did however show acceptable correlations between the gender reversed paired scenarios, indicating that this might not been an issue of importance in our results for the gender reversed scenarios.

Further, we opted for a four-point Likert scale for the scenarios, intentionally omitting the neutral "I don't know" option, in order to encourage respondents to express a clear stance. However, this approach could potentially have impacted the validity of our research on conceptualisation of consent, as the lack of a neutral option could have led some participants to provide responses that are not accurately reflecting their beliefs or their true feelings about the scenarios.

There were a full 30 scenarios, with considerable length, in addition to the collection of demographics, the Consent law measure, Schwartz value scale, the IRMA-scale and the Positive-Negative Sex-Role Inventory, which in total made the questionnaire lengthy. By examining the response times provided by Nettskjema, it became apparent that a significant portion of respondents took more than 15-20 minutes to complete the survey. With the survey

being of considerable length, the risk of people putting less consideration into their answers increases, especially towards the end of the questionnaire.

Although the IRMA-scale is regarded as one of the best self-report questionnaires, and a valid instrument to detect attitudes towards rape, there has been an incline in rape myths during the recent years. This could either indicate an actual shift in people's opinions, or that the attitudes have become socially undesirable. Consequently people may be less inclined to report their true feelings towards rape, thus making the covert and subtle opinions increasingly harder to detect with the IRMA-scale (Thelan & Meadows, 2022, p. 3-4).

5. Conclusion

This paper investigated attitudes towards implementing a consent law in Norway, and the complexities surrounding differences in perception of consent in ambiguous sexual scenarios. Our findings provide several significant insights which contribute to a deeper understanding of the complexities surrounding sexual consent.

Our research showed a general disparity in the perception of consent across several variables. Starting with gender, we found that men showed a more pronounced tendency to perceive consent than women, an observation that aligns with earlier research on male “overperception” of sexual intent. Men also exhibited a less favourable view on a proposed Norwegian consent law than women did, indicating they will be less welcoming towards a change in the penal codes for sexual offenses. Moreover, our analyses showed that a higher level of rape myth acceptance was associated with a heightened perception of consent and a negative stance towards a consent law, which underscores the impact of misconceptions about rape and their potential implications. Further, weaker associations than initially anticipated were found for values, indicating that values have a lesser influence on perception and attitude. Universalism and benevolence were associated with slightly less perceived consent and a more positive outlook on a consent law, while the opposite was found for conformity and tradition. A more surprising result was found for sex roles, showing the potential impact of gender attributions. Positive and negative feminine traits correlated with higher perceived consent and a more negative view of a consent law, while positive masculine traits showed the opposite trend, which is contradictory to what should be expected from our gender related findings. However, these correlations were weak and not substantial enough to be considered indicative.

Looking at the results from a broader perspective also reveals a potential link between conceptualisation of consent and attitudes towards a consent law. When one variable was associated with less perceived consent it often had an association of similar strength to a more positive view on a consent law, and vice versa, indicating that different attitudes towards the consent law might at least partially be due to different conceptualisations of consent.

Overall, our study’s findings present important implications for both sexual relations and a potential Norwegian consent law. People conceptualize and interpret consent differently, which can potentially lead to sexual misconducts and psychological implications for the victim, even in cases where there is no intention to do so. A new law might also be interpreted very differently depending on this conceptualisation, both inside and outside of the court, if no guidelines or clarification on which ways consent can be shown are given. The

results have also given insight into different variables and how they are associated with positive and negative views of the law, which gives important information regarding potential future law compliance. Even though a consent law is arguably needed to provide better legal protection for rape victims, our results indicate that several factors can cause resistance among some of the Norwegian population. More research is however needed to further establish which variables constitute sexual consent and affect attitudes towards consent laws, and how these variables interact with each other. Further research regarding how sexual consent can be communicated more efficiently would also be beneficial.

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Appendix

Appendix A: Questionnaire

Appendix B: Email correspondence with NSD

Appendix C: Scenarios translated to English

Appendix D: Overview of scenario comparisons and categories in English

Appendix E: Overview of distribution of scenario responses

APPENDIX A – Questionnaire



Holdninger til seksuelt samtykke

Holdninger til seksuelt samtykke

Dette er en spørreundersøkelse for å undersøke **holdninger til hva seksuelt samtykke er**. Straffelovrådet har lagt fram forslag, som er oppe til høring, om at Norge skal få en ny lov om bestemmelse om seksuell omgang uten samtykke - en samtykkelov. Definisjonen av voldtekt kan dermed bli omdefinert i den norske straffeloven. Per dags dato har ikke ordlyden blitt definert. Scenarioene presentert i denne undersøkelsen er fiktive, men likevel grafiske i sine beskrivelser. Flere av spørsmålene kan for enkelte oppleves støtende. Dersom du kjenner med deg selv at du er sensitiv for spørsmål om seksuell vold, anbefales det ikke at du svarer på denne spørreundersøkelsen.

Undersøkelsen tar utgangspunkt i heteroseksuelle relasjoner. Du må være 16 eller eldre for å svare på denne undersøkelsen.

Når begrepet "sex" eller "seksuell omgang" blir benyttet i undersøkelsen, menes definisjonen: penetrering av en annens kjønnsorgan, munn eller endetarmsåpning, med kjønnsorgan eller gjenstand, eller berøring av andres kjønnsorgan eller anus med kjønnsorgan eller munn.

Målet med undersøkelsen er å undersøke hva folk anser som samtykke til sex.

Kontakt: chrismle@ntnu.no, kinenle@ntnu.no

Undersøkelsen er anonym, og tar ca 15 minutter.

Obs! Svarene dine lagrer seg ikke automatisk om du lukker fanen, så vi anbefaler at du fullfører hele skjemaet uten å lukke det

Jeg er

- Mann
- Kvinne
- Annet

Alder:

Hvilken utdanning har du? Kryss av for den høyeste utdannelsen du har fullført/holder på å fullføre

- Ungdomsskole
- Videregående
- Fagskole/ fagbrev
- Universitet/høgskole (årsstudium eller bachelor)
- Universitet/høgskole (master, profesjon eller PHD)

Jeg er oppvokst

- I by
- Et tettsted
- På bygda
- I by og på mindre steder

Jeg har som oftest sex med:

- Det motsatte kjønn
- Det samme kjønn
- Begge kjønn
- Jeg har ikke hatt sex før

Nå er jeg:

- Gift/i et partnerskap
- I et samboerskap
- I et fast forhold
- Singel

Hva beskriver ditt sexliv best nå?

- Jeg har jevnlig sex med en kjæreste
- Jeg har jevnlig sex med noen jeg kjenner, uten at vi har definert hva vi er
- Jeg har tilfeldig sex
- Jeg har ikke sex med noen

Hvor ofte har du tilfeldig sex (one night stand)?

- Aldri
- Sjelden
- Noen ganger
- Ofte
- Veldig ofte
- Alltid

Jeg foretrekker:

- Å ha sex med den samme personen
- Å ha tilfeldig sex
- Jeg kan foretrekke både sex med samme person og tilfeldig sex
- Jeg har ikke sex

Det vil nå komme noen scenarioer hvor vi er interessert i å vite din holdning til om det som beskrives er å anse som seksuelt samtykke eller ikke.

Det er ingen fasit på spørsmålene, og vi er interessert i å vite hva du mener. Vi har valgt å bruke de fiktive personene "Ola" og "Kari" i scenarioene.

Enkelte av spørsmålene kan oppleves støtende for noen.

1

Ola og Kari har holdt på en stund. Kari sitt humør kan endre seg raskt, spesielt når hun føler seg avvist. Når hun blir skikkelig sint kan hun begynne å sparke eller slå. Hun er mye mindre enn Ola og han er sterkere enn henne, men han synes det er skremmende og gjør mye for å unngå å provosere henne. En kveld initierer hun til sex, og Ola har ikke lyst. Han frykter at en avvisning kan gjøre henne sint siden det har skjedd før, og går med på å ha sex med henne.

Er det samtykke?

- Ja
- Trolig
- Trolig ikke
- Nei

2

Ola og Kari møtes på byen. De drikker en del, og har sex, hvor begge viser entusiasme. De sovner sammen. På morgenen, noen timer senere, våkner Ola av oralsex fra Kari.

Er det samtykke?

- Ja
- Trolig
- Trolig ikke
- Nei

3

Ola og Kari er i et avstandsforhold. De savner hverandre mye og sender hverandre meldinger hver dag. Kari kommer på besøk en helg etter 3 mnd fra hverandre, men hun har ikke lyst til å ha sex i løpet av hele helgen. Ola mener det er underforstått at de skal ha det. De krangler, Og Ola sier at det er jo ikke noe vits at de er sammen om de ikke skal ha sex når de endelig møtes, og at da kan de like godt slå opp. Kari vil ikke miste han, og går med på å ha sex.

Er det samtykke?

- Ja
- Trolig
- Trolig ikke
- Nei

4

Ola og Kari møtes på byen og bestemmer seg for å ha sex. Underveis sier Kari at hun ønsker å avbryte. Ola vil ikke avbryte før han har kommet, og sier "bare litt til, jeg kommer snart" og fullfører.

Er det samtykke?

- Ja
- Trolig
- Trolig ikke
- Nei

5

Ola og Kari er på date. Kari er veldig flørtete. Hun sier han er sexy og hennes type. De skal til å ha sex, men hun sier lurt nei og smiler flørtende. Ola tenker det er åpenbart at det er en tease, og tar det som et signal på å fortsette. De kysser, og han tar av henne klærne. De har sex.

Er det samtykke?

Ja
Trolig
Trolig ikke
Nei

6

Kari (19 år) jobber som vikarlærer på en videregående, og Ola (18 år) er en elev i klassen hennes. Alle guttene i klassen sier hun er den diggeste læreren på skolen. Kari og Ola flørter med hverandre, og på en klasseset tur til Polen tar Kari initiativ til å gi han oralsex. Ola er nølende og sier det ikke er så lurt. Hun begynner å gråte, og spør "finner du meg ikke tiltrekkende?". Ola vil ikke såre følelsene hennes, og går med på det. Etterpå sier Kari at han ikke kan si det til noen, for da kan hun miste jobben.

Er det samtykke?

Ja
Trolig
Trolig ikke
Nei

7

Kari er ganske full, Ola er nesten edru. De har sex. Dagen etter husker Kari ingenting, og føler seg ukomfortabel og usikker på om hun sa ja. Ola forsikrer henne om at hun hadde lyst.

Er det samtykke?

Ja
Trolig
Trolig ikke
Nei

8

Kari og Ola skal møtes for første gang på en datekveld hjemme hos Kari. Det er en god tone, og de begge liker hverandre. Kari tar etter hvert initiativ til å ha sex, men Ola har lyst til å vente litt. Kari skjønner ikke vitsen med å vente når det er god kjemi, og spør igjen flere ganger i løpet av kvelden. Ola gir til slutt etter.

Er det samtykke?

Ja
Trolig
Trolig ikke
Nei

9

Ola er 49 år, Kari er 16 år. De møtes på et dansekurs, og finner raskt tonen. En dag tar Ola initiativ til at de skal ha sex. Kari sier ja.

Er det samtykke?

Ja

Trolig
Trolig ikke
Nei

10

Kari og Ola havner til sengs sammen etter en tur på byen. Hun spør "har du lyst til å ha sex?". Han synes det ikke det er mannlig å si nei. Han nikker derfor, men sier ikke verbalt ja.

Er det samtykke?

Ja
Trolig
Trolig ikke
Nei

11

Ola og Kari er kjærester. En dag kommer Kari hjem og forteller at hun har vært utro. Ola blir veldig lei seg og får lyst til å straffe henne. Han bærer henne inn på soverommet, og har sex med henne uten at hun har lyst. Han mener hun fortjener det, på grunn av hva hun har gjort.

Er det samtykke?

Ja
Trolig
Trolig ikke
Nei

12

Kari er forelska i Ola. De drikker alkohol, og er på samme fest. De har flørtet hele kvelden, og ender opp med å sovne i samme seng. Kari våkner av at Ola har hånda si ned i trusa hennes og fingrer henne.

Er det samtykke?

Ja
Trolig
Trolig ikke
Nei

13

Kari kommer rett ut av videregående og inn på drømmestudiet. Hun deltar på fadderuka. Ola er fire år eldre og fadderens hennes. Han forteller henne alt om byen og studentlivet, og sier at en viktig del av studietiden er å ha det gøy med masse folk. Han foreslår at de skal dra hjem til han. Kari sier forsiktig at hun ikke har lyst, og da reagerer han med å virke irritert på henne og sier at han ikke trodde hun var en sånn prippen og kjip jente. Kari blir bekymret for at hun skal bli sosialt ekskludert, og det ender med at hun blir med han hjem likevel. De har sex.

Er det samtykke?

Ja
Trolig

Trolig ikke

Nei

14

Ola er en litt sjenert type, som synes det er vanskelig å avvise folk. Han er ganske kjekk og får ofte oppmerksomhet fra jenter. En kveld er han på fest, og han havner i prat med ei jente, Kari. Ola tenker at det er en hyggelig prat, men opplever ikke praten som spesielt flørtete. Han går på do, og i det han skal gå ut igjen kommer Kari inn og låser døra bak dem. Hun kysser han og begynner å åpne buksesmekken hans. Ola blir overrasket, og sier ingenting. Hun gir han oralsex.

Er det samtykke?

Ja

Trolig

Trolig ikke

Nei

15

Kari og Ola har lagt seg i samme seng på en fest. Ingen av dem føler seg særlig beruset. Ola begynner å ta på Kari. Hun stivner til i respons til Olas berøring. Hun gir derfor ikke uttrykk verbalt for at hun ikke ønsker sex, og dytter han heller ikke unna.

Er det samtykke?

Ja

Trolig

Trolig ikke

Nei

16

Ola er nyutdannet lege, og har en midlertidig turnusstilling hvor han håper på forlengelse. På en jobbfest kommer han i snakk med sjefen hans Kari, som sier hun holder på å bestemme hvem de vil tilby en forlengelse av stillingen. Ola synes ikke Kari er spesielt tiltrekkende. Hun begynner å flørte med han, og spør omsider om de kan dra hjem til henne. De har sex.

Er det samtykke?

Ja

Trolig

Trolig ikke

Nei

17

Ola og Kari er kjærester. En gang de har sex stikker Kari en finger inn i endetarmsåpningen til Ola uten å spørre. Det var ikke noe Ola hadde lyst til, men han vet ikke hva han skal si, og ender med å ikke si noen ting.

Er det samtykke?

Ja

Trolig

Trolig ikke

Nei

18

Kari og Ola matcher på Tinder, og de avtaler å møtes for å ha sex. Når Ola dukker opp ser han helt annerledes ut enn på bildene, og han har en utiltrekkende utstråling. Kari blir nølende og passiv. Ola spør "skal vi bare ha sex da?". Kari sier "vet ikke". Ola sier "det var jo det vi planla, skal du trekke deg nå når jeg har kommet hele den lange veien?". Kari føler ikke hun kan si nei nå, og har sex med han.

Er det samtykke?

Ja

Trolig

Trolig ikke

Nei

19

Kari har vært sammen med sin voldelige kjæreste Ola en stund, og i dag er han i et sint humør. Hun vet, basert på tidligere erfaring, at hvis hun sier nei til sex når han er i det humøret, blir sexen mye mer brutal/voldelig enn hun liker. Hun sier derfor ja til sex, for å forhindre at det skal gå voldelig for seg.

Er det samtykke?

Ja

Trolig

Trolig ikke

Nei

20

Kari og Ola har vært kjærester og samboere i fem år. Ola har lyst til å ha sex oftere enn Kari, og kan ofte spørre flere ganger til han får et ja.

Er det samtykke?

Ja

Trolig

Trolig ikke

Nei

21

Kari og Ola havner til sengs sammen etter en tur på byen. Han spør "har du lyst til å ha sex?". Hun nikker, men sier ikke verbalt ja.

Er det samtykke?

Ja

Trolig

Trolig ikke

Nei

22

Ola og Kari har frivillig vaginalt samleie. Midt under akten ender det seg til analt samleie, uten at de har snakket om det på forhånd.

Er det samtykke?

- Ja
- Trolig
- Trolig ikke
- Nei

23

Kari er 55 år, Ola er 16 år. De møtes på et treningsstudio, og det oppstår et nært bånd mellom dem. En dag tar Kari initiativ til at de skal ha sex. Ola sier ja.

Er det samtykke?

- Ja
- Trolig
- Trolig ikke
- Nei

24

Ola og Kari har et one night stand. Etter de har hatt vaginalt samleie og Ola har fått orgasme, spør Kari om han kan gå ned på henne så hun også kan komme. Ola synes det er litt ekkelt å utføre oralsex, og sier nei. Kari blir irritert og sier at han selvfølgelig må gjøre det. Han går med på det.

Er det samtykke?

- Ja
- Trolig
- Trolig ikke
- Nei

25

Kari og Ola har drukket alkohol, Ola er betydelig mer beruset enn Kari. De ender opp med å ha sex hvor begge er enige. Dagen etter sier Ola at det burde være åpenbart at han var for full til å gi samtykke.

Er det samtykke?

- Ja
- Trolig
- Trolig ikke
- Nei

26

Ola og Kari er kjærester og har sex ofte. De har snakket om hva de liker og ikke liker. Plutselig gjør Ola en ting Kari har sagt for en stund tilbake at hun absolutt ikke liker. Hun korrigerer han ikke mens det skjer, men sier etterpå "du visste jo at jeg ikke ville det". Ola sier at det kan han ikke

huske, og synes det blir for dumt at man må spørre om hver minste lille ting.

Er det samtykke?

- Ja
- Trolig
- Trolig ikke
- Nei

27

Kari er ansatt i et firma hvor Ola er sjef. De er begge til stede på en firmafest og er litt beruset. Ola kommer i snakk med Kari og sier at firmaet skal redusere antall arbeidsplasser, men at han kan sørge for at Kari beholder jobben sin hvis hun blir med han hjem. Han ler etterpå, og sier det var en spøk. Kari er fortsatt litt bekymret for å miste jobben. Hun er ikke fysisk tiltrukket av han. Han foreslår at de skal dra hjem til han, og de ender opp med å ha sex.

Er det samtykke?

- Ja
- Trolig
- Trolig ikke
- Nei

28

Kari og Ola har sex. Kari sier ja til å ha samleie, men er passiv og nølende under akten og gir ellers ingen kroppslige tegn på at hun liker situasjonen. Hun ligger stille og tar ikke på Ola. Ola lurere på om hun har ombestemt seg, eller om hun bare er en stille jente, men synes det er kleint å spørre. Han fortsetter derfor.

Er det samtykke?

- Ja
- Trolig
- Trolig ikke
- Nei

29

Kari og Ola møtes på byen. Det oppstår en flørtende tone. På et tidspunkt kommer en annen fyr bort og prøver seg på Kari. Ola blir rasende, og slår til han. Kari blir sjokkert over at han kunne endre seg så raskt. Rett etterpå tar han hånda hennes og sier "kom, vi drar hjem til meg". Kari er redd at hvis hun sier nei at Ola kan endre seg og sette henne i en farlig situasjon. Hun blir derfor med han hjem, og blir med når han tar initiativ til sex.

Er det samtykke?

- Ja
- Trolig
- Trolig ikke
- Nei

30

Ola og Kari er på en første date. De tar et glass vin på et utested. Kari smiler og ler av alt Ola sier, og tar han på armen. Ola tolker det som tydelig tegn på at hun vil ha sex med han. Ola sier han kan følge kari hjem. I døra kysser han henne, og blir med inn. Han spør om de skal ha sex. Kari sier at hun vil, men at hun har en regel om at hun ikke ligger med folk på første date, fordi gutter mister interessen da. Ola sier at han ser etter noe seriøst, og at hun ikke trenger bekymre seg for at han skal ligge med henne og ghoste henne. Kari nøler, men sier ja. De har sex.

Er det samtykke?

- Ja
- Trolig
- Trolig ikke
- Nei

Det er rimelig å anta at den norske samtykkeloven vil komme til å likne den svenske samtykkeloven, som er definert slik:

Voldtekt:

Den som har samleie med en person som ikke deltar frivillig, dømmes for voldtekt til fengsel i minimum ett og høyst seks år.

En person som deltar i samleie skal ikke anses for å gjøre det frivillig, dersom

1) personen har ikke verbalt, gjennom sin oppførsel eller på annen måte gitt uttrykk for at personen deltar frivillig,

2) personen har blitt tvunget til samleie ved vold mot en person eller ved trusler, eller

3) Personen har ikke vært i stand til å gi eller uttrykke sin vilje på grunn av bevisstløshet, sykdom, funksjonsnedsettelse, frykt, sterk beruselse eller nedsatt bevissthet eller på grunn av plutselig oppstått situasjon eller alvorlig misbruk av maktposisjon eller på grunn av annen sammenlignbar grunn.

Forsøk er straffbart

Hvor enig er du i de følgende utsagnene?

Det er bra at Norge skal få en samtykkelov

- Helt enig
- Enig
- Verken enig eller uenig
- Uenig
- Helt uenig

En samtykkelov er nødvendig i Norge

- Helt enig
- Enig
- Verken enig eller uenig
- Uenig
- Helt uenig

En samtykkelov vil føre til et bedre rettsvern

- Helt enig
- Enig

Verken enig eller uenig

Uenig

Helt uenig

En samtykkelov vil gjøre at flere blir uskyldig dømt for voldtekt

Helt enig

Enig

Verken enig eller uenig

Uenig

Helt uenig

En samtykkelov vil føre til at færre begår voldtekter

Helt enig

Enig

Verken enig eller uenig

Uenig

Helt uenig

De fleste har samme forståelse av hva seksuelt samtykke er

Helt enig

Enig

Verken enig eller uenig

Uenig

Helt uenig

Jeg anser meg selv å være...

Analytisk

Helt enig

Enig

Litt enig

Verken enig eller uenig

Litt uenig

Uenig

Fullstendig uenig

Engstelig

Helt enig

Enig

Litt enig

Verken enig eller uenig

Litt uenig

Uenig

Fullstendig uenig

Verken enig eller uenig

Uenig

Helt uenig

En samtykkelov vil gjøre at flere blir uskyldig dømt for voldtekt

Helt enig

Enig

Verken enig eller uenig

Uenig

Helt uenig

En samtykkelov vil føre til at færre begår voldtekter

Helt enig

Enig

Verken enig eller uenig

Uenig

Helt uenig

De fleste har samme forståelse av hva seksuelt samtykke er

Helt enig

Enig

Verken enig eller uenig

Uenig

Helt uenig

Jeg anser meg selv å være...

Analytisk

Helt enig

Enig

Litt enig

Verken enig eller uenig

Litt uenig

Uenig

Fullstendig uenig

Engstelig

Helt enig

Enig

Litt enig

Verken enig eller uenig

Litt uenig

Uenig

Fullstendig uenig

Fullstendig uenig

Hensynsløs

Helt enig

Enig

Litt enig

Verken enig eller uenig

Litt uenig

Uenig

Fullstendig uenig

Logisk

Helt enig

Enig

Litt enig

Verken enig eller uenig

Litt uenig

Uenig

Fullstendig uenig

Kjærlig

Helt enig

Enig

Litt enig

Verken enig eller uenig

Litt uenig

Uenig

Fullstendig uenig

Naiv

Helt enig

Enig

Litt enig

Verken enig eller uenig

Litt uenig

Uenig

Fullstendig uenig

Objektiv

Helt enig

Enig

Litt enig

Verken enig eller uenig

Litt uenig

Uenig
Fullstendig uenig

Oppmerksomhetsøkende

Helt enig
Enig
Litt enig
Verken enig eller uenig
Litt uenig
Uenig
Fullstendig uenig

Overforsiktig

Helt enig
Enig
Litt enig
Verken enig eller uenig
Litt uenig
Uenig
Fullstendig uenig

Oversensitiv

Helt enig
Enig
Litt enig
Verken enig eller uenig
Litt uenig
Uenig
Fullstendig uenig

Lidenskapelig

Helt enig
Enig
Litt enig
Verken enig eller uenig
Litt uenig
Uenig
Fullstendig uenig

Maktsyk

Helt enig
Enig
Litt enig
Verken enig eller uenig

Litt uenig
Uenig
Fullstendig uenig

Praktisk

Helt enig
Enig
Litt enig
Verken enig eller uenig
Litt uenig
Uenig
Fullstendig uenig

Rasjonell

Helt enig
Enig
Litt enig
Verken enig eller uenig
Litt uenig
Uenig
Fullstendig uenig

Selvtvilende

Helt enig
Enig
Litt enig
Verken enig eller uenig
Litt uenig
Uenig
Fullstendig uenig

Følsom

Helt enig
Enig
Litt enig
Verken enig eller uenig
Litt uenig
Uenig
Fullstendig uenig

Løsningsfokusert

Helt enig
Enig
Litt enig

Verken enig eller uenig

Litt uenig

Uenig

Fullstendig uenig

Øm

Helt enig

Enig

Litt enig

Verken enig eller uenig

Litt uenig

Uenig

Fullstendig uenig

Du kommer nå til å bli presentert for ulike verdier. Vennligst angi hvor viktige de er for deg.

Makt: Sosial makt, autoritet, rikdom

0 - Det går imot mine prinsipper

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8 - Det er svært viktig

Prestasjon: Fremgang, gjennomføringsevner, ambisjoner, å ha innflytelse over mennesker og hendelser.

0 - Det går imot mine prinsipper

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8 - Det er svært viktig

Hedonisme: Tilfredsstillelse av ønsker, nytelse i livet, selvtilfredshet.

0 - Det går imot mine prinsipper

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8 - Det er svært viktig

Stimulasjon: Å leve et variert, utfordrende og spennende liv.

0 - Det går imot mine prinsipper

1

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6

7

8 - Det er svært viktig

Selvstendighet: Kreativitet, frihet, nysgjerrighet, uavhengighet og bestemme sine egne mål.

0 - Det går imot mine prinsipper

1

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5

6

7

8 - Det er svært viktig

Universalisme: Ha et åpent sinn, naturen og kunstens skjønnhet, sosial rettferdighet, verdensfred, likestilling, visdom, enhet med naturen, miljøvern.

0 - Det går imot mine prinsipper

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8 - Det er svært viktig

Velvilje: Hjelpsomhet, ærlighet, tilgivelse, lojalitet og ta ansvar.

0 - Det går imot mine prinsipper

3

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8 - Det er svært viktig

Stimulasjon: Å leve et variert, utfordrende og spennende liv.

0 - Det går imot mine prinsipper

1

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8 - Det er svært viktig

Selvstendighet: Kreativitet, frihet, nysgjerrighet, uavhengighet og bestemme sine egne mål.

0 - Det går imot mine prinsipper

1

2

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6

7

8 - Det er svært viktig

Universalisme: Ha et åpent sinn, naturen og kunstens skjønnhet, sosial rettferdighet, verdensfred, likestilling, visdom, enhet med naturen, miljøvern.

0 - Det går imot mine prinsipper

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8 - Det er svært viktig

Velvilje: Hjelpsomhet, ærlighet, tilgivelse, lojalitet og ta ansvar.

0 - Det går imot mine prinsipper

Under kommer noen påstander om voldtekt. Hvor enig er du i påstandene?

a

Hvis ei jente går inn på et rom alene med en gutt på fest, så er det hennes egen skyld hvis hun blir voldtatt.

Hvor enig er du?

- Svært enig
- Enig
- Verken enig eller uenig
- Uenig
- Svært uenig

b

Hvis begge partene er fulle, kan det ikke være en voldtekt.

Hvor enig er du?

- Svært enig
- Enig
- Verken enig eller uenig
- Uenig
- Svært uenig

c

Det burde ikke regnes som voldtekt hvis en gutt er full og ikke innså hva han gjorde.

Hvor enig er du?

- Svært enig
- Enig
- Verken enig eller uenig
- Uenig
- Svært uenig

d

Ofta når en jente sier hun ble voldtatt, så har de selv lagt an på gutten for så siden å angre seg

Hvor enig er du?

- Svært enig
- Enig
- Verken enig eller uenig
- Uenig
- Svært uenig

e

Hvis ei jente kler seg horete kommer hun omsider til å havne i trøbbel.

Hvor enig er du?

- Svært enig
- Enig
- Verken enig eller uenig
- Uenig
- Svært uenig

f

Gutter har vanligvis ingen intensjon om å tvinge en jente til å ha sex, men noen ganger blir de for seksuelt revet med.

Hvor enig er du?

- Svært enig
- Enig
- Verken enig eller uenig
- Uenig
- Svært uenig

g

Ofte vil jenter som sier de ble voldtatt lyve om det fordi de angrer på at de hadde sex.

Hvor enig er du?

- Svært enig
- Enig
- Verken enig eller uenig
- Uenig
- Svært uenig

h

Voldtektsanklager blir ofte brukt som en måte å ta hevn på gutter.

Hvor enig er du?

- Svært enig
- Enig
- Verken enig eller uenig
- Uenig
- Svært uenig

i

Hvis jenta ikke sier «nei» kan hun ikke hevde at hun ble voldtatt.

Hvor enig er du?

- Svært enig
- Enig
- Verken enig eller uenig

Uenig
Svært uenig

j

Hvis ei jente tar initiativ til å kysse eller kline, så burde hun ikke bli overrasket dersom gutten antar at hun ønsker å ha sex.

Hvor enig er du?

Svært enig
Enig
Verken enig eller uenig
Uenig
Svært uenig

k

Hvis ei jente ikke gjør fysisk motstand – selv om hun protesterer verbalt - kan det ikke regnes som voldtekt.

Hvor enig er du?

Svært enig
Enig
Verken enig eller uenig
Uenig
Svært uenig

l

Hvis en jente blir voldtatt når hun er full, er hun selv minst litt ansvarlig for at ting havnet ute av kontroll.

Hvor enig er du?

Svært enig
Enig
Verken enig eller uenig
Uenig
Svært uenig

m

Hvis ei jente ikke fysisk kjemper imot, kan man ikke egentlig si at det var voldtekt.

Hvor enig er du?

Svært enig
Enig
Verken enig eller uenig
Uenig
Svært uenig

n

Hvis jenter drar på fest i dristige klær så spør de om å havne i trøbbel.

Hvor enig er du?

- Svært enig
- Enig
- Verken enig eller uenig
- Uenig
- Svært uenig

o

Ofte vil jenter som hevder de ble voldtatt bare ha emosjonelle problemer.

Hvor enig er du?

- Svært enig
- Enig
- Verken enig eller uenig
- Uenig
- Svært uenig

p

Hvis en gutt er full kan han komme til å voldta noen uten å mene det.

Hvor enig er du?

- Svært enig
- Enig
- Verken enig eller uenig
- Uenig
- Svært uenig

q

Når jenter blir voldtatt er det ofte fordi måten de sa «nei» på var uklar.

Hvor enig er du?

- Svært enig
- Enig
- Verken enig eller uenig
- Uenig
- Svært uenig

r

Hvis den beskyldte voldtektsmannen ikke har et våpen, så kan man ikke egentlig kalle det voldtekt.

Hvor enig er du?

- Svært enig

Enig
Verken enig eller uenig
Uenig
Svært uenig

s

Når gutter voldtar er det ofte på grunn av et sterkt ønske om sex.

Hvor enig er du?

Svært enig
Enig
Verken enig eller uenig
Uenig
Svært uenig

t

Det var mest sannsynlig ikke voldtekt om jenta ikke har blåmerker eller andre merker.

Hvor enig er du?

Svært enig
Enig
Verken enig eller uenig
Uenig
Svært uenig

u

Jenter som blir tatt i å være utro mot kjæresten sin vil noen ganger hevde at det var en voldtekt.

Hvor enig er du?

Svært enig
Enig
Verken enig eller uenig
Uenig
Svært uenig

v

Voldtekter skjer når en gutts seksuelle lyst kommer ut av kontroll.

Hvor enig er du?

Svært enig
Enig
Verken enig eller uenig
Uenig
Svært uenig

Appendix B.

JW Jørgen Wincentzen <jorgen.wincentzen@sikt.no>
To: You

⏪ ⏴ ⏵ ⏩
Wed 4/5/2023 8:54 AM

Start reply with: [Takk for oppklaring](#) [Takk for infoen](#) [Fikk det, tusen takk](#)

Hei,

Vær til telefon samtale i dag. Dersom spørreundersøkelsen er anonym og du ikke samler inn opplysninger som kan direkte eller indirekte identifisere (gjennom kombinasjon av bakgrunnsvariable), trenger du ikke å sende inn meldeskjema til oss, ettersom det ikke er en behandling av personopplysninger å melde.

Med vennlig hilsen

Jørgen Wincentzen

Radgiver, Seksjon for Personvern tjenester

Telefon: (+47) 53 21 15 36



Sikt – Kunnskapssektorens tjenesteleverandør

www.sikt.no

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www.sikt.no

⏪ Reply

⏴ Forward

Appendix C – Scenarios translated to English

Scenario 1: Ola and Kari have been together for a while. Kari's mood can change quickly, especially when she feels rejected. When she gets really angry, she might start kicking or hitting. She is much smaller than Ola, and he is stronger than her, but he finds it frightening and does a lot to avoid provoking her. One evening, she initiates sex, and Ola is not interested. He fears that rejecting her might make her angry, as it has happened before, so he agrees to have sex with her.

Scenario 2: Ola and Kari encounter each other at a social venue. After consuming a considerable amount of alcohol, they engage in sexual activity where they both show enthusiasm. Falling asleep together, Ola awakens a few hours later to find Kari performing oral sex on him.

Scenario 3: Ola and Kari are in a long-distance relationship. They miss each other greatly and exchange messages daily. After being apart for three months, Kari visits for a weekend, but she doesn't want to have sex during the entire weekend. Ola believes it's implied that they will be intimate. They argue, and Ola says that being together makes no sense if they won't have sex when they finally meet. He suggests they might as well break up. To avoid losing him, Kari agrees to have sex.

Scenario 4: Ola and Kari meet in a bar and decide to have sex. During the encounter, Kari expresses a desire to stop. Ola wants to continue until he reaches orgasm, saying, "Just a bit more, I'll come soon," and finishes.

Scenario 5: Ola and Kari are on a date. Kari is very flirtatious. She tells him he's sexy and her type. They are about to have sex, but she playfully says no and gives a flirtatious smile. Ola interprets it as a tease and takes it as a signal to proceed. They kiss, he undresses her, and they have sex.

Scenario 6: Kari, aged 19, works as a substitute teacher at a high school, and Ola, aged 18, is a student in her class. Among the boys in the class, Kari is considered the most attractive teacher. Kari and Ola engage in mutual flirtation. During a class trip to Poland, Kari takes the initiative to offer oral sex to Ola. Ola hesitates, expressing that the idea is not prudent.

Overcome with emotion, Kari tearfully questions, "Don't you find me attractive?" Ola, wanting to avoid hurting her feelings, agrees. Afterward, Kari instructs Ola not to disclose the incident due to fears of jeopardizing her job.

Scenario 7: Kari is quite intoxicated, Ola is nearly sober. They engage in sexual activity. The following day, Kari has no recollection and feels uneasy and unsure if said yes. Ola reassures her that she was willing.

Scenario 8: Kari and Ola are meeting for the first time on a date night at Kari's place. They have a good rapport, and they both like each other. Eventually, Kari initiates sexual activity, but Ola wants to wait a bit. Kari doesn't understand the point of waiting when the chemistry is good and asks multiple times throughout the evening. Eventually, Ola gives in.

Scenario 9: Ola is 49 years old, Kari is 16. They meet in a dance class, and quickly hit it off. One day Ola initiates sex. Kari says "yes".

Scenario 10: Kari and Ola end up in bed together after a night out. She asks, "Do you want to have sex?" He doesn't feel it's masculine to say no. Consequently, he nods but doesn't verbally confirm his agreement.

Scenario 11: Ola and Kari are in a romantic relationship. One day, Kari confesses that she has been unfaithful. Ola becomes very sad and feels the urge to punish her. He carries her to the bedroom and has sex with her without her wanting to. He believes she deserves it due to her actions.

Scenario 12: Kari is romantically interested in Ola. They consume alcohol and are at the same social event. They have flirted throughout the evening, and they eventually fall asleep in the same bed. Kari wakes up to find Ola's hand in her underwear, fingering her.

Scenario 13: Fresh out of high school, Kari embarks on her desired university program and participates in orientation week. Ola, four years her senior, serves as her mentor. Ola provides insights about the city and university life, emphasizing the significance of socializing with a diverse group of people. Ola suggests they go back to his place. Hesitant, Kari politely declines, triggering an irritated response from Ola who asserts that he did not expect her to be

so prudish and dull. Concerned about potential social exclusion, Kari ultimately agrees to accompany Ola to his place, culminating in a sexual encounter.

Scenario 14: Ola is a somewhat shy individual who finds it difficult to reject people. He's fairly attractive and often receives attention from girls. One evening at a party, he ends up talking to a girl, Kari. Ola perceives their conversation as pleasant but not particularly flirtatious. He goes to the bathroom, and as he's about to exit, Kari enters and locks the door behind them. She kisses him and starts to undo his pants. Ola is surprised but remains silent. She performs oral sex on him.

Scenario 15: Kari and Ola have lain down in the same bed at a party. Neither of them feels particularly intoxicated. Ola begins to touch Kari. She stiffens in response to his touch. She does not express a verbal desire for sex, nor does she push him away.

Scenario 16: Ola, a recent medical graduate, holds a temporary rotational position with the hope of extension. During a company celebration, he converses with his superior, Kari, who mentions that she is in the process of selecting candidates for job extensions. Ola does not perceive Kari as particularly attractive. Kari initiates flirtation and eventually suggests they go to her place. They proceed to engage in sexual activity.

Scenario 17: Ola and Kari are in a relationship. During sex, Kari inserts a finger into Ola's anus without asking. Ola didn't want this, but he doesn't know how to respond and remains silent.

Scenario 18: Kari and Ola match on Tinder and arrange to meet for sex. When Ola arrives, he looks very different from his pictures, and he exudes an unappealing vibe. Kari becomes hesitant and passive. Ola asks, "Should we just have sex then?" Kari replies, "I don't know." Ola says, "That's what we planned, are you going to back out now that I've come all this way?" Feeling unable to say no, Kari ends up having sex with him.

Scenario 19: Kari has been in a relationship with her abusive boyfriend Ola for a while, and today he is in an angry mood. Based on previous experiences, she knows that if she refuses sex when he's in that mood, the encounter can turn much more violent and brutal than she's comfortable with. Therefore, she agrees to have sex to prevent it from becoming violent.

Scenario 20: Kari and Ola have been in a relationship and living together for five years. Ola desires sex more frequently than Kari and often asks multiple times until he receives a yes.

Scenario 21: Kari and Ola end up in bed together after a night out. He asks, "Do you want to have sex?" She nods but doesn't verbally confirm her agreement.

Scenario 22: Ola and Kari engage in voluntary vaginal intercourse. Midway through, it transitions to anal intercourse without prior discussion.

Scenario 23: Kari is 55 years old, Ola is 16. They meet at the gym, and form a close connection. One day Kari takes initiative for sex. Ola says "yes".

Scenario 24: Ola and Kari have a one-night stand. After vaginal intercourse and Ola's orgasm, Kari asks if he can perform oral sex on her for her orgasm. Ola finds it unappealing and declines. Kari gets annoyed and insists he should do it. He agrees.

Scenario 25: Kari and Ola have consumed alcohol, with Ola significantly more inebriated than Kari. They proceed to have sexual intercourse with mutual agreement. The subsequent day, Ola asserts that his level of intoxication should have clearly indicated his inability to provide consent.

Scenario 26: Ola and Kari are in a relationship and have frequent sexual activity. They have discussed their likes and dislikes. Suddenly, Ola does something Kari had previously mentioned she dislikes. She doesn't correct him in the moment but later says, "You knew I didn't want that." Ola claims he doesn't remember and finds it stupid to ask for permission about every little thing.

Scenario 27: Kari is employed at a company where Ola is her boss. They are both present at a company event and are slightly intoxicated. Ola engages in conversation with Kari and informs her that the company plans to reduce its workforce. He suggests that Kari could retain her job if she accompanies him home. Ola later laughs and clarifies that he was joking. Despite this, Kari remains somewhat apprehensive about the prospect of losing her job. She

does not feel a physical attraction toward Ola. He proposes they go to his place, which leads to them engaging in sexual activity.

Scenario 28: Kari and Ola engage in sexual activity. Kari agrees to have intercourse but remains passive and hesitant during the act, and shows no bodily signs of enjoying the situation. She lies still and doesn't touch Ola. Ola wonders if she has changed her mind or if she's just a quiet person but finds it awkward to ask. Consequently, he continues.

Scenario 29: Kari and Ola meet at a bar. A flirtatious atmosphere develops. At one point, another guy approaches and tries to engage with Kari. Ola becomes furious and hits the guy. Kari is shocked by his rapid change in behavior. Shortly afterward, Ola takes her hand and says, "Come, let's go to my place." Kari is afraid that if she says no, Ola might change and put her in a dangerous situation. Thus, she goes along with him to his place and participates in the sexual activity he initiates.

Scenario 30: Ola and Kari are on their first date. They drink a glass of wine at a bar. Kari smiles and laughs at everything Ola says, touching his arm. Ola interprets these actions as clear indications that she wants to have sex with him. Ola offers to walk Kari home. At her door, he kisses her and accompanies her inside. He asks if they should have sex. Kari explains that she's willing but has a rule not to engage sexually on the first date, as guys tend to lose interest afterward. Ola assures her he's seeking something serious and won't ghost her after. Kari hesitates but eventually agrees, and they have sex.

Appendix D – Overview of scenario comparisons and categories

Scenarios	
Male perpetrator “Ola”	Female perpetrator “Kari”

Alcohol/ unconsciousness

<p>S7 a. Kari is quite intoxicated, Ola is nearly sober. They engage in sexual activity. The following day, Kari has no recollection and feels uneasy and unsure if said yes. Ola reassures her that she was willing.</p>	<p>S25 a. Kari and Ola have consumed alcohol, with Ola significantly more inebriated than Kari. They proceed to have sexual intercourse with mutual agreement. The subsequent day, Ola asserts that his level of intoxication should have clearly indicated his inability to provide consent.</p>
<p>S12 a. Kari is romantically interested in Ola. They consume alcohol and are at the same social event. They have flirted throughout the evening, and they eventually fall asleep in the same bed. Kari wakes up to find Ola's hand in her underwear, fingering her.</p>	<p>S2 a. Ola and Kari encounter each other at a social venue. After consuming a considerable amount of alcohol, they engage in sexual activity where they both show enthusiasm. Falling asleep together, Ola awakens a few hours later to find Kari performing oral sex on him.</p>

Misuse of power

<p>S27 a. Kari is employed at a company where Ola is her boss. They are both present at a company event and are slightly intoxicated. Ola engages in conversation with Kari and informs her that the company plans to reduce its workforce. He suggests that Kari could retain her job if she accompanies him home. Ola later laughs and clarifies that he was joking. Despite this, Kari remains somewhat apprehensive about the prospect of losing her job. She does not feel a physical attraction toward Ola. He proposes they go to his place, which leads to them engaging in sexual activity.</p>	<p>S16 a. Ola, a recent medical graduate, holds a temporary rotational position with the hope of extension. During a company celebration, he converses with his superior, Kari, who mentions that she is in the process of selecting candidates for job extensions. Ola does not perceive Kari as particularly attractive. Kari initiates flirtation and eventually suggests they go to her place. They proceed to engage in sexual activity.</p>
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<p>S13</p> <p>a. Fresh out of high school, Kari embarks on her desired university program and participates in orientation week. Ola, four years her senior, serves as her mentor. Ola provides insights about the city and university life, emphasizing the significance of socializing with a diverse group of people. Ola suggests they go back to his place. Hesitant, Kari politely declines, triggering an irritated response from Ola who asserts that he did not expect her to be so prudish and dull. Concerned about potential social exclusion, Kari ultimately agrees to accompany Ola to his place, culminating in a sexual encounter.</p>	<p>S6</p> <p>a. Kari, aged 19, works as a substitute teacher at a high school, and Ola, aged 18, is a student in her class. Among the boys in the class, Kari is considered the most attractive teacher. Kari and Ola engage in mutual flirtation. During a class trip to Poland, Kari takes the initiative to offer oral sex to Ola. Ola hesitates, expressing that the idea is not prudent. Overcome with emotion, Kari tearfully questions, "Don't you find me attractive?" Ola, wanting to avoid hurting her feelings, agrees. Afterward, Kari instructs Ola not to disclose the incident due to fears of jeopardizing her job.</p>
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Relationship vs. Hook-up

<p>S29</p> <p>a. Kari and Ola meet at a bar. A flirtatious atmosphere develops. At one point, another guy approaches and tries to engage with Kari. Ola becomes furious and hits the guy. Kari is shocked by his rapid change in behavior. Shortly afterward, Ola takes her hand and says, "Come, let's go to my place." Kari is afraid that if she says no, Ola might change and put her in a dangerous situation. Thus, she goes along with him to his place and participates in the sexual activity he initiates.</p>	<p>S19</p> <p>a. Kari has been in a relationship with her abusive boyfriend, Ola, for a while. Today, he is in an angry mood. Based on previous experience, she knows that refusing sex when he's in such a mood will result in a more brutal/violent encounter than she prefers. To prevent it from turning violent, she says "yes" to sex.</p>
<p>S20</p> <p>a. Kari and Ola have been in a relationship and living together for five years. Ola desires sex more frequently than Kari and often asks multiple times until he receives a yes.</p>	<p>S8</p> <p>a. Kari and Ola are meeting for the first time on a date night at Kari's place. They have a good rapport, and they both like each other. Eventually, Kari initiates sexual activity, but Ola wants to wait a bit. Kari doesn't understand the point of waiting when the chemistry is good and asks multiple times throughout the evening. Eventually, Ola gives in.</p>

S18

a. Kari and Ola match on Tinder and arrange to meet for sex. When Ola arrives, he looks very different from his pictures, and he exudes an unappealing vibe. Kari becomes hesitant and passive. Ola asks, "Should we just have sex then?" Kari replies, "I don't know." Ola says, "That's what we planned, are you going to back out now that I've come all this way?" Feeling unable to say no, Kari ends up having sex with him.

S3

a. Ola and Kari are in a long-distance relationship. They miss each other greatly and exchange messages daily. After being apart for three months, Kari visits for a weekend, but she doesn't want to have sex during the entire weekend. Ola believes it's implied that they will be intimate. They argue, and Ola says that being together makes no sense if they won't have sex when they finally meet. He suggests they might as well break up. To avoid losing him, Kari agrees to have sex.

S11

a. Ola and Kari are in a romantic relationship. One day, Kari confesses that she has been unfaithful. Ola becomes very sad and feels the urge to punish her. He carries her to the bedroom and has sex with her without her wanting to. He believes she deserves it due to her actions.

S30

b. Ola and Kari are on their first date. They drink a glass of wine at a bar. Kari smiles and laughs at everything Ola says, touching his arm. Ola interprets these actions as clear indications that she wants to have sex with him. Ola offers to walk Kari home. At her door, he kisses her and accompanies her inside. He asks if they should have sex. Kari explains that she's willing but has a rule not to engage sexually on the first date, as guys tend to lose interest afterward. Ola assures her he's seeking something serious and won't ghost her after. Kari hesitates but eventually agrees, and they have sex.

Non-verbal communication / Freezing**S28**

a. Kari and Ola engage in sexual activity. Kari agrees to have intercourse but remains passive and hesitant during the act, and shows no bodily signs of enjoying the situation. She lies still and doesn't touch Ola. Ola wonders if she has changed her mind or if she's just a quiet person but finds it awkward to ask. Consequently, he continues.

<p>S15</p> <p>a. Kari and Ola have lain down in the same bed at a party. Neither of them feels particularly intoxicated. Ola begins to touch Kari. She stiffens in response to his touch. She does not express a verbal desire for sex, nor does she push him away.</p>	<p>S14</p> <p>a. Ola is a somewhat shy individual who finds it difficult to reject people. He's fairly attractive and often receives attention from girls. One evening at a party, he ends up talking to a girl, Kari. Ola perceives their conversation as pleasant but not particularly flirtatious. He goes to the bathroom, and as he's about to exit, Kari enters and locks the door behind them. She kisses him and starts to undo his pants. Ola is surprised but remains silent. She performs oral sex on him.</p>
<p>S21</p> <p>a. Kari and Ola end up in bed together after a night out. He asks, "Do you want to have sex?" She nods but doesn't verbally confirm her agreement.</p>	<p>S10</p> <p>a. Kari and Ola end up in bed together after a night out. She asks, "Do you want to have sex?" He doesn't feel it's masculine to say no. Consequently, he nods but doesn't verbally confirm his agreement.</p>
<p>S5</p> <p>a. Ola and Kari are on a date. Kari is very flirtatious. She tells him he's sexy and her type. They are about to have sex, but she playfully says no and gives a flirtatious smile. Ola interprets it as a tease and takes it as a signal to proceed. They kiss, he undresses her, and they have sex.</p>	

Age- difference

<p>S9</p> <p>a. Ola is 49 years old, Kari is 16. They meet in a dance class, and quickly hit it off. One day Ola initiates sex. Kari says "yes".</p>	<p>S23</p> <p>a. Kari is 55 years old, Ola is 16. They meet at the gym, and form a close connection. One day Kari takes initiative for sex. Ola says "yes".</p>
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Continuous Consent

<p>S22 a. Ola and Kari engage in voluntary vaginal intercourse. Midway through, it transitions to anal intercourse without prior discussion.</p> <p>S26 b. Ola and Kari are in a relationship and have frequent sexual activity. They have discussed their likes and dislikes. Suddenly, Ola does something Kari had previously mentioned she dislikes. She doesn't correct him in the moment but later says, "You knew I didn't want that." Ola claims he doesn't remember and finds it stupid to ask for permission about every little thing.</p>	<p>S17 a. Ola and Kari are in a relationship. During sex, Kari inserts a finger into Ola's anus without asking. Ola didn't want this, but he doesn't know how to respond and remains silent.</p>
<p>S4 a. Ola and Kari meet in a bar and decide to have sex. During the encounter, Kari expresses a desire to stop. Ola wants to continue until he reaches orgasm, saying, "Just a bit more, I'll come soon," and finishes.</p>	<p>S24 a. Ola and Kari have a one-night stand. After vaginal intercourse and Ola's orgasm, Kari asks if he can perform oral sex on her for her orgasm. Ola finds it unappealing and declines. Kari gets annoyed and insists he should do it. He agrees.</p>

Fear

<p>S19 <i>(also used in Relationships vs. Hook-ups)</i> a. Kari has been in a relationship with her abusive boyfriend Ola for a while, and today he is in an angry mood. Based on previous experiences, she knows that if she refuses sex when he's in that mood, the encounter can turn much more violent and brutal than she's comfortable with. Therefore, she agrees to have sex to prevent it from becoming violent.</p>	<p>S1 a. Ola and Kari have been together for a while. Kari's mood can change quickly, especially when she feels rejected. When she gets really angry, she might start kicking or hitting. She is much smaller than Ola, and he is stronger than her, but he finds it frightening and does a lot to avoid provoking her. One evening, she initiates sex, and Ola is not interested. He fears that rejecting her might make her angry, as it has happened before, so he agrees to have sex with her.</p>
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Appendix E – Overview of distribution of scenario responses

Scenario 1

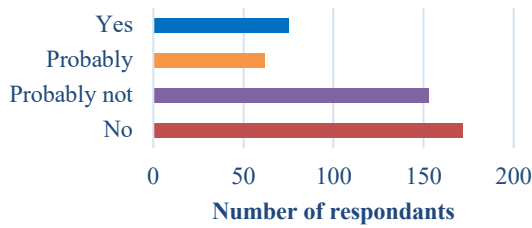


Figure 1
(Fear)

Scenario 5

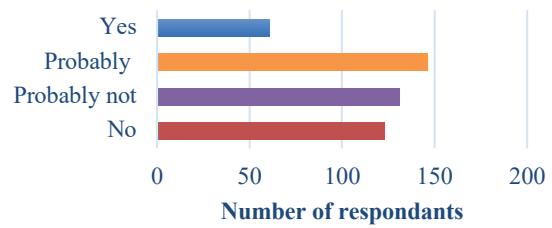


Figure 5
(Non-verbal communication / Freezing)

Scenario 2

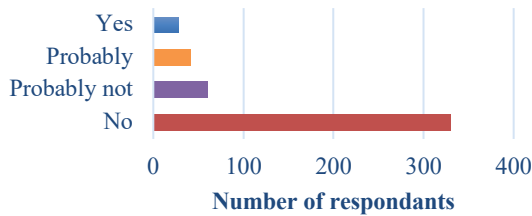


Figure 2
(Alcohol/ unconsciousness)

Scenario 6

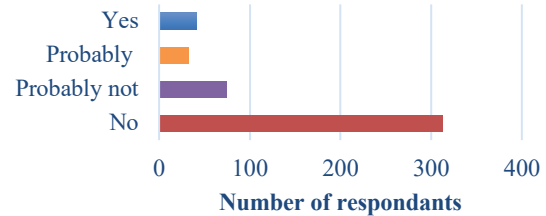


Figure 6
(Misuse of power)

Scenario 3

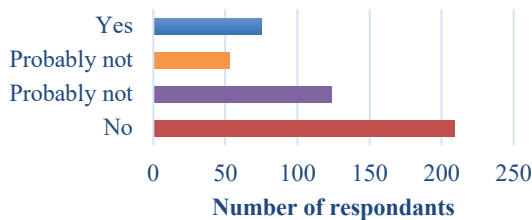


Figure 3
(Relationship vs. Hook-up)

Scenario 7

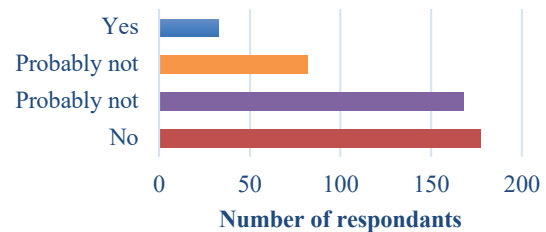


Figure 7
(Alcohol/ unconsciousness)

Scenario 4

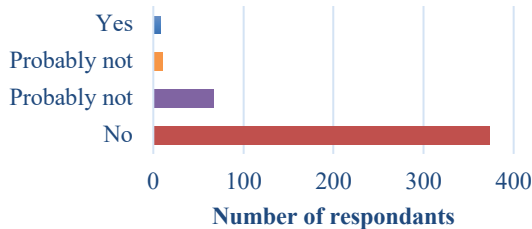


Figure 4
(Continous consent)

Scenario 8

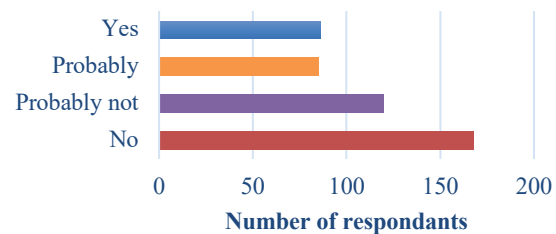


Figure 8
(Relationship vs. Hook-up)

Scenario 9

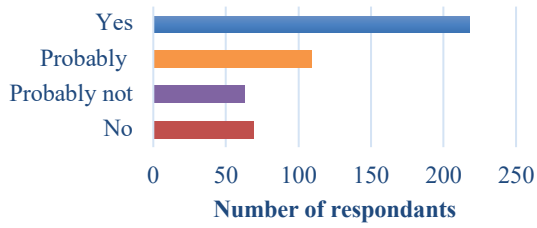


Figure 9
(Age-difference)

Scenario 13

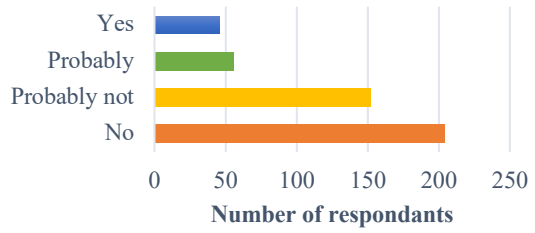


Figure 13
(Misuse of power)

Scenario 10

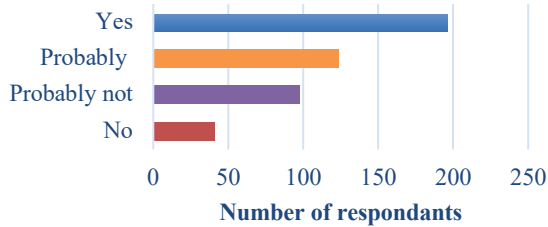


Figure 10
(Non-verbal communication / Freezing)

Scenario 14

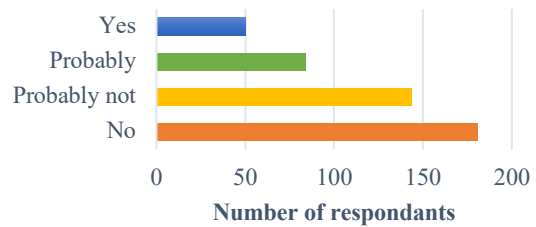


Figure 14
(Non-verbal communication / Freezing)

Scenario 11

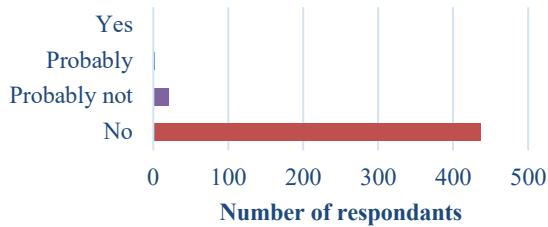


Figure 11
(Relationship vs. Hook-up)

Scenario 15

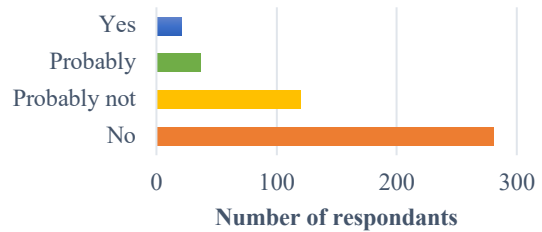


Figure 15
(Non-verbal communication / Freezing)

Scenario 12

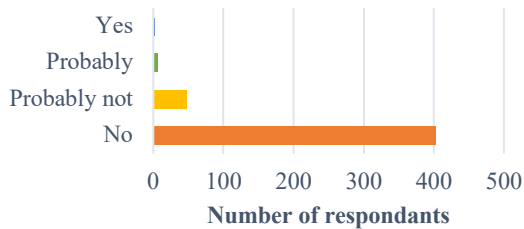


Figure 12
(Alcohol/ unconsciousness)

Scenario 16

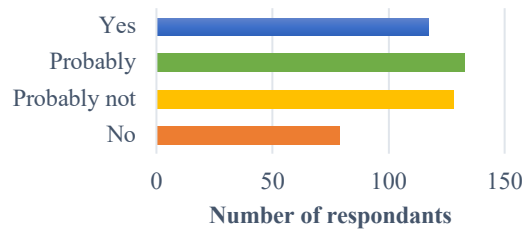


Figure 16
(Misuse of power)

Scenario 17

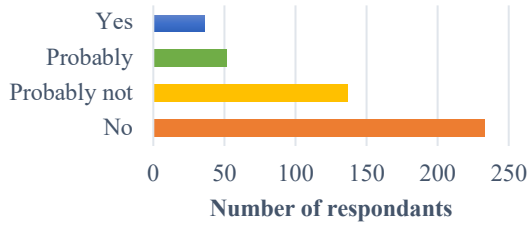


Figure 17
(Continuous Consent)

Scenario 21

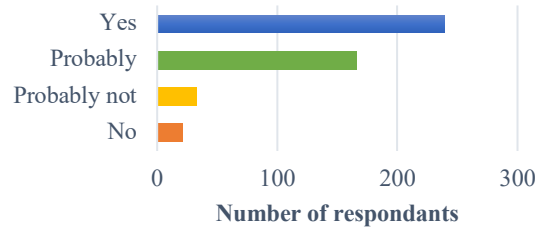


Figure 21
(Non-verbal communication / Freezing)

Scenario 18

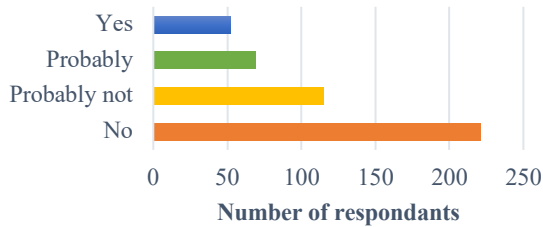


Figure 18
(Relationship vs. Hook-up)

Scenario 22

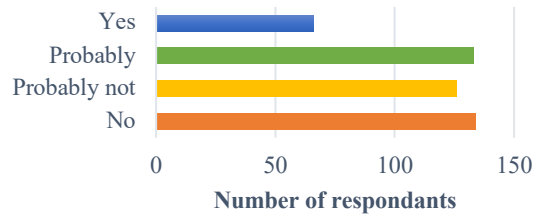


Figure 22
(Continuous Consent)

Scenario 19

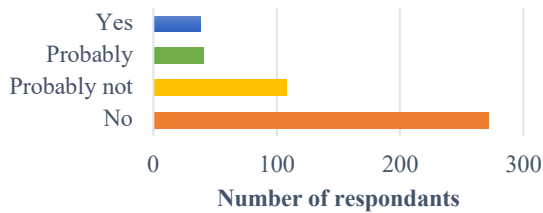


Figure 19
(Fear + Relationship vs. Hook-up)

Scenario 23

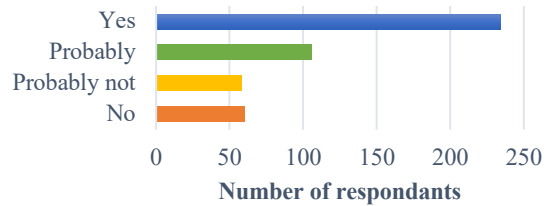


Figure 23
(Age-difference)

Scenario 20

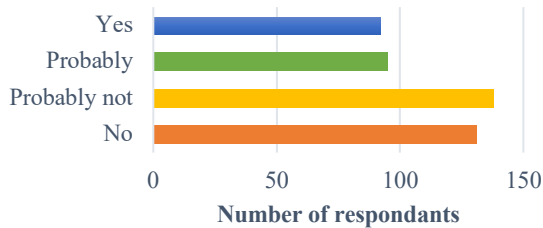


Figure 20
(Relationship vs. Hook-up)

Scenario 24

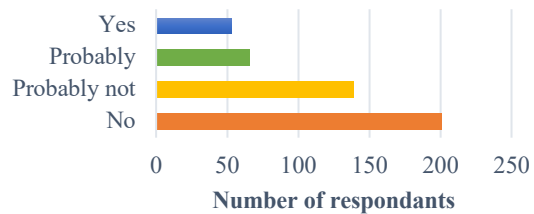


Figure 24
(Continuous consent)

Scenario 25

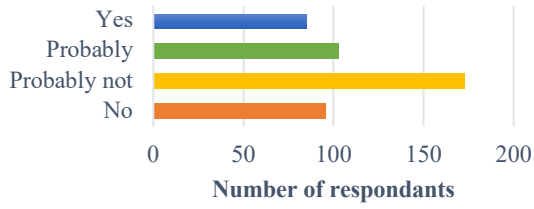


Figure 25
(Alcohol/unconsciousness)

Scenario 29

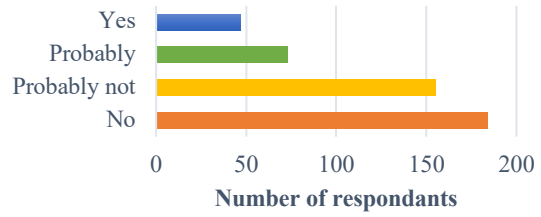


Figure 29
(Relationship vs. Hook-up)

Scenario 26

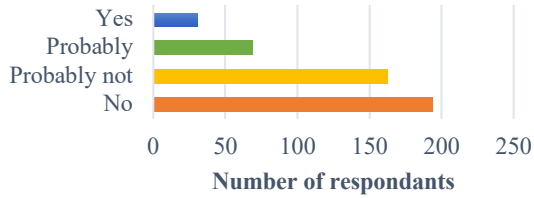


Figure 26
(Continous consent)

Scenario 30

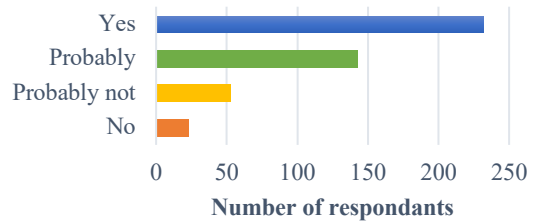


Figure 30
(Relationship vs. Hook-up)

Scenario 27

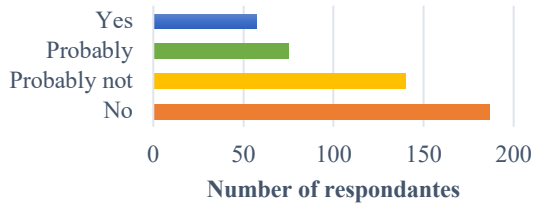


Figure 27
(Misuse of power)

Scenario 28

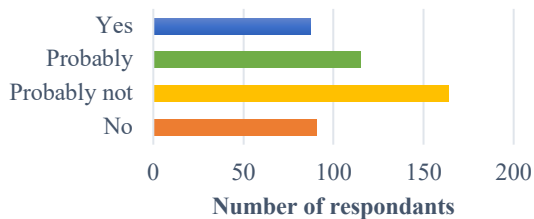


Figure 28
(Non-verbal communication / Freezing)

