

PERCEPTIONS OF SEXUAL CONSENT: THE EFFECTS OF EROTICISM AND DOMINANT GENDER IN ADVERTISING

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Abstract

This research investigates the impact that varying the levels of eroticism and gender of the dominant character in advertisements has on participants' perceptions of sexual consent. Prior research has not examined these variables in conjunction; this study looks for both direct and interaction effects of eroticism and dominance on consent.

Participants undertook an online questionnaire and were sorted into a control group which saw no image, or exposed to one of four images. These four conditions were manipulated by level of eroticism (non-erotic or eroticised), and by whether the male or female character was portrayed as more dominant. Participants then answered a series of questions relating to their attitudes about sexual consent. Image response data and demographic information was also collected.

Results did not indicate any significant direct effects of eroticism or dominance on perceptions of sexual consent. However the interaction effect of these two variables did approach significance on two consent measures. Some of the image and consent measures were found to have small but significant correlations; significant covariate relationships were also identified. In particular, participants' gender identity was found to impact the Positive Attitude Toward Establishing Consent and Verbal Consent Norms subscales; participants' ethnicity had an effect on Positive Attitude Toward Establishing Consent, and their marital status had a significant effect on their Indirect Behavioural Approach To Consent. These relationships largely reinforce the work of previous scholars. These findings, as well as their implications, and suggestions for future research are discussed.

Abbreviations & Key Terms

Key Variables

Eroticism

This term refers to whether the image in question was framed in a platonic way, or was designed to appear more suggestive and sexualised in tone. Conditions are referred to as eroticised or non-erotic. Please note the research here uses the term ‘eroticised’ as opposed to ‘sexualised’ in many cases; this is due to the tendency of past research to refer to items as sexualised when the use of sex appeals are not necessarily appropriate (see Papadopoulos, 2010, as an example). Given that the use of sex in the present experiment was not intended to be gratuitous or excessive, the term ‘eroticised’ was thought to convey the suggestive, but not inappropriate nature of the appeals used.

Dominance

This term refers to which character in the advertisement was framed as dominant. Please note that the manipulation here was to change the gender of the dominant character, rather than whether dominance was demonstrated or not. The advertisements in the study were crafted with the intention of always portraying either the female or male model as being more powerful, or controlling the situation. Conditions are referred to as male dominant or female dominant, however when referring to the variable overall the term ‘dominance’ is often used.

Conditions

Abbreviation	Meaning
NEMD	Non Erotic image with a Male Dominant character
NEFD	Non Erotic image with a Female Dominant character
EMD	Eroticised image with a Male Dominant character
EFD	Eroticised image with a Female Dominant character

Scales

Abbreviation	Meaning
AAd	Attitude Towards The Ad
AdOb	Objections To The Advertisement
CAtt	Positive Attitude Toward Establishing Consent
CBeh	Indirect Behavioural Approach To Consent
CNor	Sexual Consent Norms
CAwa	Consent Awareness and Discussion
CVNor	Verbal Consent Norms

1 THESIS OVERVIEW

1.1 Introduction

In today's highly saturated media landscape, advertising in its many forms appears inescapable. This is unsurprising given predictions that global advertising spend will reach \$544 billion U.S. dollars in 2015, with the market forecast to continue growing (Barnard, 2015). One of the most pervasive and long-standing trends within this industry is the use of sex in advertising (Belkaoui & Belkaoui, 1976; Boddewyn, 1991; Gould, 1994; LaTour & Henthorne, 1994; O'Barr, 2011; Reichert, 2002; Reichert, 2003a; Reichert & Carpenter, 2004; Severn, Belch, & Belch, 1990). This shows no signs of slowing, with research indicating that these appeals are becoming more frequent and increasingly gratuitous (Belkaoui & Belkaoui, 1976; Dahl, Vohs, & Sengupta, 2011; Reichert & Carpenter, 2004; Sengupta & Dahl, 2008; Wise, King, & Merenski, 1974).

While we have only a limited understanding of the full array of effects which might result from these depictions of sex in advertising, some researchers posit that advertising may be a socialising influence (Lafky et al., 1996; Papadopoulos, 2010). They suggest the idea that behaviours depicted in advertising may become normalised within society. This is a concerning notion, given that the interactions depicted in advertising do not always align with societal ideals of a happy or healthy relationship, or sometimes even with depictions of consensual behaviour. Research has in fact demonstrated that a large proportion of advertisements hint at abuse or domestic violence (Stankiewicz & Rosselli, 2008). Even more concerning is the insinuation that these portrayals are glamourized, and may eventually be perceived as a societal norm (Stankiewicz & Rosselli, 2008).

It is possible to suggest that if informed and healthy sexual attitudes abounded in society, this would not perhaps be cause for alarm. However, these portrayals are occurring at the same time as high rates of sexual assault and rape. Statistics New Zealand (2015a) recorded 4056 incidents of sexual assault and related offenses in 2014 – if each of these incidents were recorded by different individuals, this would mean approximately 9% of the New Zealand population had fallen victim to a sex crime within the year (2014 population estimated at 4,509,700 people, Statistics New Zealand, 2015b). When considering this information alongside the aforementioned suggestion that the media may be normalising depictions of sex that are not necessarily consensual, the present study suggests that research in this area is needed.

In examining past research, several key variables become clear. As mentioned, the topic of sex and eroticism in advertising is often the subject of scholarly interest and debate. However, the ideas put forth by Stankiewicz and Rosselli (2008) also introduce the element of power, or lack thereof, to this conversation. Their study suggests that the amount of power attributed to women in this study varies

along with the levels of sexualisation applied to them. As such, this second key variable ‘dominance’ seems to have an interaction effect with sexualised portrayals. Thirdly, while there has been some research into how images affect participants’ attitudes towards rape, the present study suggests that given the statistics pertaining to sexual assault above, it may be time to begin investigating the ways in which people perceive sexual consent as a greater issue. These three variables provide the framework around which this thesis takes shape.

1.2 Background To The Research

The use of sex in advertising is a phenomenon that has been extensively documented and discussed. The longevity of this type of appeal is evident, with occurrences observed as far back as the 1800s (O’Barr, 2011; Reichert, 2002; Reichert, 2003b). Despite its long history, it appears this is still a growing trend; recent studies have indicated that not only are these appeals more common than before, they are also more overt in nature (Dahl et al., 2011; Reichert & Carpenter, 2004; Sengupta & Dahl, 2008; Wise et al., 1974). A number of studies have investigated the effects of sex appeals in advertising on attitudes towards the advertisement or brand (Orth & Holancova, 2004; Pope, Voges, & Brown, 2004; Severn et al., 1990; Veer & Storen, 2010). However, researchers appear to have only recently become more concerned with the effects of sex in advertising on other social constructs, as exemplified by discussions of ethics that are beginning to emerge in literature (Boddewyn, 1991; Gould, 1994; LaTour & Henthorne, 1994; Papadopoulos, 2010).

In parallel, and sometimes overlapping with this line of study, is a vast body of research discussing gender roles in general, and more specifically the differences in how each gender is sexualised. There are a large number of studies investigating the sexualisation of women in advertising (see Section 2.3.1), although as pointed out by Papadopoulos (2010), a hypermasculinisation of males is also occurring – with substantially less attention from researchers (see Section 2.3.2). As referenced above, a study by Stankiewicz and Rosselli (2008) investigated portrayals of women as sex objects and victims in advertising; they also briefly touched on the sexualisation of females as authority figures. This suggests that there are differences not just in the roles played by each gender, but the levels of sexualisation applied to them. This subject therefore ties back into the discussion of sex in advertising as a whole.

Another area in which discussions of gender roles are common is throughout literature pertaining to sexual assault and consent. Discussions often centre on the ‘script’ commonly used to navigate sexual encounters (Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999; Jozkowski & Peterson, 2013; Jozkowski et al., 2013; Jozkowski et al., 2014; Lopez & George, 1995; Muehlenhard et al., 1992; O’Sullivan & Byers, 1992) – this subject is largely focused on what men do and what women do in sexual situations, thus assigning roles to each gender. This links to studies investigating the ways in which people perceive and communicate sexual consent or assault – some of these researchers have also approached this

topic through gendered lenses (Abbey, 1982; Abbey et al., 1987; Abbey & Harnish, 1995; Abbey & Melby, 1986; Harnish et al., 1990; Hall, 1998; Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999; Jozkowski & Peterson, 2013; Jozkowski et al., 2013; Oswald & Russell, 2006). These studies suggest that consent is commonly negotiated and understood in different ways by different people – often influenced by their gender, or the gender of the people depicted in research.

Scholars have also investigated factors outside of participants' genders which might influence their views on sexual assault. This literature goes so far as to include discussions about sexually explicit material such as pornography, and the effects this may have on rape-supportive attitudes (Linz, 1989). However, research has not progressed far enough to sufficiently understand the effects that everyday media, rather than extreme iterations, may be having on these factors. Studies by Lanis and Covell (1995) and MacKay and Covell (1997) provide good examples as a starting point for this type of investigation – their research looks at the effects that portrayals of women in advertising may have on attitudes related to sexual aggression and attitudes towards women. Yet these studies also highlight an underlying concern; of the researchers which have begun looking at the ways media consumption may affect people's attitudes, a large number focus on ideas of sexual aggression or rape-supportive beliefs. As yet, studies have not commonly focused on the effects on people's perceptions of consent.

As such, this study attempts to bridge this gap in the literature, by looking at the ways in which levels of eroticism in advertising might affect participants' perceptions of sexual consent. In addition to this, the aforementioned power dynamic as highlighted by Stankiewicz and Rosselli (2008), is included in the present study in the form of a 'dominance' variable. This involves manipulating whether the male or female character is perceived as more dominant, given the theoretical interaction effect discussed above. These variables – the level of sex in advertising and the gender of the dominant character – are altered between conditions in order to measure any effects this may have on participants' perceptions of sexual consent. This allows the present study to investigate whether any concerns over the normalisation of behaviour depicted in advertising hold merit, and if so, suggest how this situation might be remedied.

1.3 Research Objectives

In light of this discussion, this research endeavours to meet the following research objectives.

- *To investigate the relationship between levels of eroticism in advertising, and perceptions of consent.*
- *To investigate the relationship between the gender of a dominant character in advertising, and perceptions of consent.*
- *To determine if there are any interaction effects between these variables.*
- *To investigate any demographic factors which might impact these relationships.*

1.4 Research Methodology

The present research is concerned with participants' attitudes towards consent and how these are influenced by the levels of eroticism and gender of dominant characters within advertisements. This is best investigated in a deductive manner, and will therefore take the form of a quantitative experiment. As such, this can be measured through a 2x2 between-subjects factorial experimental design. This tests the effects of manipulating the levels of eroticism and the gender of the dominant character, on participant perceptions of and attitudes toward sexual consent.

1.5 Research Contributions

This research is expected to have both theoretical and practical implications. The present study will add to several subsets of existing literature: those pertaining to sex in advertising, gender roles, and sexual consent literature. The practical implications of this experiment have the potential to inform how people conceptualise consent in their own lives, as well as influence education and government policy surrounding both education and advertising standards.

1.5.1 Theoretical Implications

This thesis will extend a number of contributions made by previous authors. It may help to shed light on what is considered acceptable or unacceptable as far as levels of sex in advertising are concerned. This will provide a different focus when compared to existing studies which largely focus on the 'unacceptable' end of the spectrum. The experiment in this study has strong potential to reinforce a number of works discussing the ways that different gender roles are portrayed and perceived, and particularly how these may affect participants' attitudes towards the advertisements. This research will extend the work of Humphreys and Herold (2007) and Humphreys and Brousseau (2010) through the use of their consent measure, and contribute to the limited amount of academic work on the subject. The combined discussion of these three areas in conjunction offers a fresh perspective which may inspire further work.

1.5.2 Practical Implications

This research has a number of practical implications, which range from personal to national in scale. On a personal level, it is hoped that this study will help to encourage people to think about how they view and operationalise sexual consent in their own lives.

Should the outcome of the experiment indicate that participants' views are altered by the media they view, practical implications will be great. These could involve the need for increased media responsibility, and improved guidelines as to the types of content that is or is not acceptable. Government intervention or self-regulation by industry bodies would be suggested in this case. If perceptions are altered by advertisements, this would also suggest a need for media literacy programs in schools in order to help young people contextualise sexualised advertising, and would reinforce the

need for sexual consent education programs. These factors might then become an area of concern for policy and law-makers, who may wish to ensure that national standards in education reflect these areas.

However, if the images in this experiment prove not to affect participants' perceptions of sexual consent, we may take away the knowledge that the levels of sexualisation and types of dominance portrayed can be considered acceptable, as they do not appear capable of influencing attitudes surrounding consent.

1.6 Thesis Outline

This thesis is presented in five chapters. An overview of each chapter is outlined here, including a brief summation of the contents that Chapter One has been comprised of.

This first chapter aimed to provide an overview of the present research by introducing the proposed topic, detailing the research objectives and methodology, and discussing the potential implications of the work.

Chapter Two highlights several areas of literature relevant to this study. Of particular note in this chapter are the subjects of sex and eroticism in advertising, gender roles in advertising, and sexual consent literature. The end of this literature review proposes the hypotheses that are investigated during the experimental proceedings.

Chapter Three outlines the methodology utilised within the experiment. This includes the processes and decisions which lead to the final questionnaire, as well as the development of the questionnaire itself and collection of the data.

Chapter Four presents the statistical analyses conducted as a result of data collection. This is followed by Chapter Five which discusses this analysis and subsequent findings, indicates the implications of said findings, and suggests direction which could be taken by future studies.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW & HYPOTHESES

2.1 Introduction

The present study focuses on three main subjects: sex in advertising, gender, and sexual consent. As this is a relatively new combination, this chapter has drawn on all three of these areas in order to set the stage for the empirical research that was conducted in this study. This research was then used to establish hypotheses.

There is a large existing body of work pertaining to sex in advertising; this literature review discusses the prevalence of sex in advertising as found in recent works, and then delves into an examination of the levels of eroticism as established by previous scholars. Following this, Section 2.3 deals with gender roles as they are portrayed in advertising. This touches specifically on content analyses related to print advertising, and is segmented into portrayals of each gender.

Section 2.4 then looks at findings that relate to both of these two areas in order to discuss their effects. This includes discussions of sexualised portrayals of women and gendered reactions to sex in advertising. Following this, Section 2.4.1 references variables which are seen to mediate these effects.

Literature pertaining to sexual consent is reviewed in Section 2.5; this includes discussing both legal and academic definitions. Studies surrounding the communication and measurement of consent are also mentioned. Once all three of these key areas of literature have been discussed, hypotheses are formed in order to frame the next stage of the research.

2.2 Sex and Eroticism In Advertising

The use of sexual appeals in advertising is by now a well-documented phenomenon (Boddewyn, 1991; Gould, 1994; LaTour & Henthorne, 1994; Reichert, 2002; Reichert, 2003a; Reichert, 2003b; Severn et al., 1990); it has also been a popular topic of investigation for several decades. Boddewyn (1991) states that as a 'soft' issue, sex in advertising is "difficult to define and handle because [it] reflect[s] a large variety of personally subjective, culturally related and historically changing values and attitudes" (p. 25). Thus there is a vast amount of difference in the nature of sexual appeals, but it is important to note that what constitutes 'sexualised content' can vary by participant: "for some people sex in advertising can include instances or occurrences ranging from feminine hygiene products to images of full frontal nudity" (Reichert, 2003a, p. 404). Courtney and Whipple (1983) refer to sex in advertising as "sexuality in the form of nudity, sexual imagery, innuendo, and double entendre...employed as an advertising tool for a wide variety of products" (p. 103). This conveys that sexual appeals can be both visual and verbal, as reflected by Gould (1994) and Severn et al. (1990). Verbal techniques include provocative headlines, suggestive phrases, and double entendres (Reichert, 2007). Among the visual techniques listed are the physical attractiveness of the model, the models'

clothing (or lack thereof), and behaviour – for instance, their posing, eye contact, and interaction or intimacy with other models (Peterson & Kerin, 1977; Reichert & Ramirez, 2000).

In Reichert and Ramirez's (2000) attempt to establish what it is that makes an advertisement 'sexy', they discovered four characteristics that were commonly featured. Many of these are reflected above as visual techniques, but were laid out in more detail. 'Physical Features' were divided into the model's clothing, body, and overall attractiveness; 'Movement' was used to refer to the models' behaviour, demeanour, and less commonly their voice. A dimension relating to the interaction or physical distance between the models was labelled 'Proxemics', with the final dimension 'Context' encapsulating the setting, lighting, and photographic effects of the image. These provide a useful set of guidelines which can be used to assess advertisements. This study also conceptualized two main areas that have been reviewed previously; Reichert and Ramirez (2000) suggest that while nudity has been a common focus in the literature, this is a limiting system of classification, and as such they also refer to the suggestiveness of advertisements. This category thereby includes images which do not involve nakedness, but can still be sexual in tone – this incorporates subtle or implied references to sex that should still be a relevant consideration when examining sex in advertising. This use of 'suggestiveness' is also reflected in discussion by Veer and Storen (2010), who indicate that the term can cover images which include sexual or loving themes.

The area of research pertaining to sex in advertising often overlaps with the area investigating gender roles in advertising. While these are chiefly examined in Section 2.3 below, some studies have provided the categories they use when examining advertisements. For example, Stankiewicz & Rosselli (2008) classified any advertisement which used a woman's sexuality to help sell a product or service, as portraying the woman as a sex object. This was measured by examining the models' facial expressions, posture, activity, make-up, amount of skin shown, and the camera angle. These items slot neatly into the descriptions of Physical Features and Context categories laid out by Reichert and Ramirez (2000); this reflects that the same themes have been consistently discussed throughout various studies.

Sexual appeals in advertising have often been used to gain attention amongst advertising clutter (LaTour & Henthorne, 1994; LaTour, Pitts, & Snook-Luther, 1990; Reichert, 2007). This strategy has often been used as a tool to attract interest, although studies have shown this has sometimes worked to the detriment of the brand (Henthorne & LaTour, 1995; Orth & Holancova, 2004; Pope et al., 2004; Reichert, 2007). A discussion with advertising guru Sam Shahid has lead Reichert (2007) to draw conclusions about why sexualised advertising is used in practice: to contribute to "the look" of a brand by using attractive models as representatives, to convey that associating with the brand will yield certain sexual benefits or promises, and to tap into consumers' fantasies. Reichert (2002) discusses that sex is often used as part of a 'lifestyle marketing' approach taken by companies such as

Abercrombie, Tommy Hilfiger, Ralph Lauren, Gucci, and Christian Dior. These benefits as perceived by advertisers help to explain the continued and growing use of such appeals, as discussed in Section 2.2.1.

2.2.1 Prevalence

The use of women as sexualised objects in advertisements has been observed as far back as the 1800s (O’Barr, 2011; Reichert, 2002; Reichert, 2003b). This phenomenon began increasing in frequency throughout the last half of the 20th century (Belkaoui & Belkaoui, 1976; Reichert & Carpenter, 2004); Section 2.3 below discusses a large number of content analyses from this period and into the last 20 years which prove that this trend of sexualisation has continued over time.

While researchers are aware that this is not a new phenomenon, Wise et al. (1974) noted that the use of sex in advertising has increased (see also Reichert & Carpenter, 2004). This is in both the number and variety of products that use such appeals, but also in the intensity of these appeals (Wise et al., 1974). This “trend toward increasing eroticism and nudity in advertisements” (Peterson & Kerin, 1977, p. 59) has at the present point in time been widely accepted by the marketing field, with the use of sexual appeals now considered commonplace in the advertising world (Gould, 1994; Henthorne & LaTour, 1995; LaTour & Henthorne, 1994; Reichert, 2002; Sengupta & Dahl, 2008).

The prevalence of sexual content varies by medium, with magazine advertisements containing some of the highest proportions of sexualised material (Reichert, 2007; Reichert & Carpenter, 2004). Reichert and Carpenter (2004), for example, found that in men’s magazines, 78% of women were sexually attired. Reichert (2007) has concluded that sexual content “is a fixture in American advertising. While not as ubiquitous as humor, sexual content is present in up to one-fifth of magazine and web ads and one-tenth of television commercials” (page number not available). These statistics demonstrate the inescapability of this type of messaging; this emphasizes the need for further research into the effects this has on society as a whole, rather than research strictly focused on the effectiveness of eroticised advertising in relation to sales or branding.

2.2.2 Levels Of Eroticism

Researchers have noted in recent studies that not only is the use of sex in advertising extremely common, but increasingly gratuitous (Dahl et al., 2011; Reichert & Carpenter, 2004; Sengupta & Dahl, 2008). With this in mind, it is pertinent to investigate the different extents to which sexualisation has been utilised in advertising.

The discussion in Section 2.2 suggests that what constitutes sexual content may vary greatly from person to person – this is to do with factors such as culture, education, and personal values (Boddewyn, 1991). This also explains why it is considered such a difficult task to attempt to moderate this sort of activity; Gould (1994) noted that “the ultimate test of indecency for sexual-appeal

advertising, as for sexually oriented materials of all sorts, is in the eye of the beholder” (p. 75). As such, advertising cannot simply be classed in terms of acceptability or offensiveness – this would be insufficient. However, in the interests of research, previous scholars have differentiated between levels of eroticism, ranging from the absence of any sexual appeal, through to gratuitous and explicit portrayals. A variety of these classifications are investigated here.

While Peterson and Kerin (1977) primarily investigated the effects of nudity rather than sexuality per se, the classifications employed in their experiment are still a useful guideline. They described their manipulations as ‘Demure’, ‘Seductive’, and ‘Nude’ respectively. While the model wore the same clothing between the Demure and Seductive conditions, Peterson and Kerin (1977) described a difference in styling between the two: in the second manipulation, “the blouse was relatively open, and exposed some midriff and cleavage” (p. 60). This description, combined with the name ‘Seductive’, gave an indication of the tone of the advertisement. Reichert (2003a) alluded to tone when he coded advertisements in terms of dress (sexual/not sexual) and interpersonal interaction (sexual/not sexual). These dimensions were then enhanced in the work of Reichert and Carpenter (2004), which categorised models’ clothing as Demure, Suggestive, Partially-clad, or Nude. Their study included a similar interpersonal measure to Reichert (2003) for conceptualising sexual explicitness; in addition to categorising the dress of male and female models, models were classed as having No Contact, Simple Contact, Intimate Contact, or Very Intimate Contact. The addition of these dimensions suggested that portrayals of sexuality were not necessarily restricted to nudity. On the other hand, nudity is not necessarily always considered provocative (Pope et al., 2004). As discussed in Section 2.2, Reichert and Ramirez (2000) reinforce the idea of ‘suggestiveness’ as being a key element in eroticism.

Previous studies have also considered what constitutes an erotic appeal. For instance, Lopez and George (1995) classify Mild, Explicit, and Deviant-explicit erotica, with all three of their definitions for these categories featuring people engaged in sexual activity. The difference between Mild and Explicit in these definitions is primarily to do with whether or not genitalia is visible, thus suggesting that Explicit erotica under these classifications would not commonly appear in advertising. Pope et al. (2004) have borrowed material from this same study in their own research; they investigated the effects of mild erotica on perceptions of advertising and corporate brands. Their classification offers a distinct definition – the study examined “those images that combine total or near-total nudity and overt sexual activity, with genitalia not visible” (Pope et al., 2004, p. 69). While this is a positive step to take in terms of providing specific parameters for the experiment, the present research suggests that this categorisation should perhaps have been renamed; when considering common images in advertising, this type of imagery should perhaps be ranked more strongly than ‘mild’.

Rather than examine this comparatively more sexual classification of advertising, the present study instead aims to look at advertisements which could be commonplace in advertising today. As such, this research will instead operationalise the notion of ‘suggestiveness’, and the characteristics of sexual appeals as reported by Reichert and Ramirez (2000). This is taken in addition to Reichert and Carpenter’s (2004) classifications of contact between models. These frameworks help to conceptualise the creation of advertisements undertaken in the present study.

2.3 Content Analyses Of Gender Roles In Print Advertising

This section provides a review of the large number of studies which have focused on gender role portrayals in advertising. In order to align most effectively with the experimental procedure that took place in the present research, this review has focused primarily on literature pertaining to print advertisements, as one of the longest standing advertising mediums. It also refers chiefly to literature that has come out of the United States, due to both the pervasive nature of the advertising run by some global companies out of the U.S., and the recruitment procedures used in the present study which resulted in a majority of the participants in the final experiment reporting that they resided in the United States.

The focus on content analyses provided insight into common themes and motifs in advertising, as well as trends over time. This helped to inform the creation of images for the purposes of the experiment – this is discussed in Chapter Three. However, a large proportion of the literature has focused on representations of women in advertising – this is largely to do with some of the misrepresentation discussed in Section 2.3.1. As such, this portion of the literature review examines the material centred on the roles of women, looking into studies which have made observations pertaining to portrayals of men.

2.3.1 Portrayals Of Women In Advertising

Investigations of women’s roles as depicted in advertising began rising in popularity with the work of Courtney and Lockeretz in 1971. They discussed four main themes which emerged as a result of their study: women as not venturing outside the home, as not making important decisions, as dependent on men, and as sex objects. Many subsequent scholars have built on these themes, commenting on the ways in which they have improved, or in some cases worsened over time.

The setting or context of print advertisements has been a focal point of many gender role analyses. Women are often associated with the home or indoors, domestic products, or being housewives (Courtney & Lockeretz, 1971; Courtney & Whipple, 1983; Kim & Lowry, 2005; Plakoyiannaki et al., 2008; Zhou & Chen, 1997). This is sometimes referred to as a ‘traditional’ portrayal, although this is typically in earlier studies as opposed to more recent work (Lundstrom & Sciglimpaglia, 1977).

Courtney and Lockeretz (1971) found that only 12% of the workers shown in advertisements were female, compared to the 33% of the full time workforce in U.S. that were female in reality. “Almost half of the men (45%) were shown in working roles: in contrast, less than one-tenth of the women (9%) were shown in working roles” (Courtney & Lockeretz, 1971, p. 93). Of this 9% of working women, the occupational categories they occupied were vastly different to the males – this is demonstrated in Figure 2.1. This study therefore highlighted not only the differences between male and female role portrayals, but also illustrated that the numbers portrayed were not comparable with real life.

Figure 2.1: Occupations Depicted By Gender In Advertising

OCCUPATIONS OF WORKING MEN AND WOMEN SHOWN IN ADVERTISEMENTS ^a		
	<i>Percent of males</i>	<i>Percent of females</i>
Proportion shown as workers	45	9
<i>Occupational categories</i>		
High-level business executives	10	0
Professional	9	0
Entertainers, professional sports	20	58
Sales, middle-level business, semi-professional	7	8
Nonprofessional white collar	2	17
Blue collar	40	17
Soldiers, police	12	0
	100	100
Number of workers shown	176	24

^a Based on number of adults shown.

(Courtney & Lockeretz, 1971, p. 93)

Depictions of women in employment since this early study have been varied. Researchers have found women portrayed in the following ways: unemployed, less often employed than men, underemployed, or in positions of a lower rank than men (Belkaoui & Belkaoui, 1976; Chi & Baldwin, 2004; Milner & Collins, 2000; Zhang, Srisupandit, & Cartwright, 2009). These portrayals are typically compared to the depictions of men, or employment statistics to check for accuracy – often neither of these comparisons are favourable.

Additional inequitable portrayals have also been noted. Female characters are often portrayed as being young, or as younger compared to the male characters shown (Kim & Lowry, 2005; Milner & Collins, 2000; Zhang et al., 2009; Zhou & Chen, 1997). Women were not portrayed as authoritative; throughout a number of studies, they are more frequently shown as product users or demonstrators, as opposed to the male product experts (Courtney & Whipple, 1983; Ford et al., 1998; Milner & Collins, 2000). Some studies even found women shown as needing help or advice from males, or in a dependent position (Courtney & Lockeretz, 1971; Kim & Lowry, 2005).

However, one of the most pervasive findings is repeatedly cited is the portrayal of women as sex objects. Courtney and Lockeretz initially described women whose sexuality was being used as a sales tool as being 'non-active', however the term 'decorative' quickly became popular in subsequent literature. Belkaoui and Belkaoui (1976) elaborate on the categorisation of women in decorative roles: "When women were pictured in non-occupational activities, they generally were shown as decorative features in the advertisements' layouts - reclining on a beach, seated in a formal living room, or modelling clothing or jewelry" (p. 170). This effectively refers to any time a woman's body is included in an advertisement without any real purpose – a theme still reflected today.

Despite sometimes using different terms in order to frame the subject matter, there are many studies which have reflected this trend of women being used as decorative objects. This has been reported even over an extended period of time, with studies noting women being shown as decorative or sex objects, or as being strongly concerned with physical appearance and/or cosmetic products (Belkaoui & Belkaoui, 1976; Bresnahan et al., 2001; Chan & Cheng, 2012; Chi & Baldwin, 2004; Courtney & Lockeretz, 1971; Hovland et al., 2005; Lindner, 2004; Plakoyiannaki et al., 2008; Stankiewicz & Rosselli, 2008; Sullivan & O'Connor, 1988; Wagner & Banos, 1973; Wiles, Wiles, & Tjernlund, 1995; Zhang et al., 2009; Zhou & Chen, 1997). Soley and Reid (1988) found more than twice as many women were dressed sexually when compared to men. Reichert (2003a) found that female models were 3.7 times more likely than male models to be dressed in a sexual manner. Reichert and Carpenter (2004) found that women were dressed in a more explicit manner in 2003 than they were in 1993 – this included 78% of women shown in men's magazines who were dressed sexually. The use of women and their bodies as a sales strategy is a long-standing trend that does not appear to be slowing – if anything, research suggests that the opposite seems true.

This ongoing use of decorative portrayals has led to some more concerning research. Stankiewicz & Rosselli (2008) conducted a study on portrayals of women as sex objects and victims. They revealed a worrying trend in which women who were portrayed as victims were also being sexualised (around 73% of depictions). This risks glamourizing violence against women and even potentially normalising such acts (Stankiewicz & Rosselli, 2008). Other trends in this study indicated that when women were portrayed as aggressors, 75% of them were also portrayed as sex objects. On the other hand, women who were not sexualised were very infrequently shown as the aggressor. Both of these trends were more apparent in men's magazines than general interest or women's magazines. This demonstrates an alarming development in portrayals of women and sexualisation of advertising as a whole.

There are two key issues to be considered given the points raised in this section. The first is that females in advertising historically were not portrayed as equal to their male counterparts. However, this is more of a problem because of the second issue: namely that females were also not portrayed in a way that is realistic, accurate or true to life. It is possible that these factors may be correlated with

the comparatively large body of research pertaining to women's roles when compared to research around depictions of men.

2.3.2 Male Role Portrayals

Researchers have only more recently begun to readjust their lenses and examine portrayals of men in advertising. As discussed by Papadopoulos (2010), it is important that attention is given to all stereotypically-depicted gender roles, as these can be equally harmful to both men and women. Given that men have historically been shown in more varied and realistic roles than women (Lundstrom & Sciglimpaglia, 1977; Skelly & Lundstrom, 1981), it is perhaps unsurprising that the literature surrounding portrayals of men is rather limited. It is important however to acknowledge that there are issues with the depiction of male stereotypes in advertising. In her report, Papadopoulos (2010) was charged with undertaking a review of the sexualisation of women, but very quickly points out that this is impossible without also observing the equal and opposite phenomenon: that is, the hypermasculine portrayals of men which pervade the media landscape.

A number of studies that do touch on men's role portrayals have centred on both genders and therefore were able to make comparative observations. For instance, men were more often depicted in mid and high-level employment than females (Courtney & Lockeretz, 1971; Zhou & Chen, 1997). It was also more common to find men framed as authorities when compared to women (Bresnahan et al., 2001; Courtney & Whipple, 1983). Lundstrom and Sciglimpaglia (1977) found that overall, participants perceived portrayals of men as being more accurate than they did portrayals of women. It has been observed that men have been used as sex objects, though more often in a decorative role than in a situation where the sex appeal relates to the product (Zhou & Chen, 1997). Depictions of men as sex objects or in decorative roles in advertising have also increased over time, although not to the same extent as sexualised portrayals of women (Reichert, 2003a; Skelly & Lundstrom, 1981).

Many researchers touch on the 'traditional sexual script' in which men are the instigators, and women are seen as 'gatekeepers' (Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999; Jozkowski et al., 2013; Jozkowski et al., 2014; Jozkowski & Peterson, 2013; Lopez & George, 1995; Muehlenhard et al., 1992; O'Sullivan & Byers, 1992; O'Sullivan, Byers, & Finkelman, 1998). In line with this, O'Barr (2011) has highlighted that in advertising it is typically the male shown dominating the female character, although he does also provide examples of the less common advertisements in which a female is shown as dominant. However, this same review then draws attention to ads which take this dominance portrayal too far, leading to some ads which eroticise abuse or glamorise violence. Stankiewicz and Rosselli (2008) viewed this trend particularly as it applied to women, however the prevalence of women being shown as weak suggests that the opposite may be true for males. Indeed, Kilbourne (2000) is quoted as saying that such portrayals imply that "real men are always sexually aggressive, that violence is erotic, and women who are the victims of sexual assault 'asked for it'" (p. 291). This depiction aligns

with the stereotype discussed by Papadopoulos (2010) in which men must appear aggressive and dominating in order to be considered ‘manly’.

All of these points combined give the impression that while the dominant theme in literature pertaining to women is about sexualisation, the main message for men centres around depictions of power. This has strong implications for the present study when considering the inclusion of dominance as a theme in this body of work.

2.4 Effects Of Sex And Gender Roles In Advertising

At this point, the present literature review has undertaken a brief foray into the worlds of sex in advertising and gender role portrayals. Given that the effects of these two areas of literature often intersect, with a strong research focus on the effects of sexualised gender roles, it is pertinent to examine these areas of literature together. As such, this section will attempt to pull together some of the effects of sex in advertising, the effects of sexualised portrayals of gender roles in advertising, and any overlapping portions of literature. A brief discussion in Section 2.4.1 will also touch on variables which appear to mediate the effects described in this section.

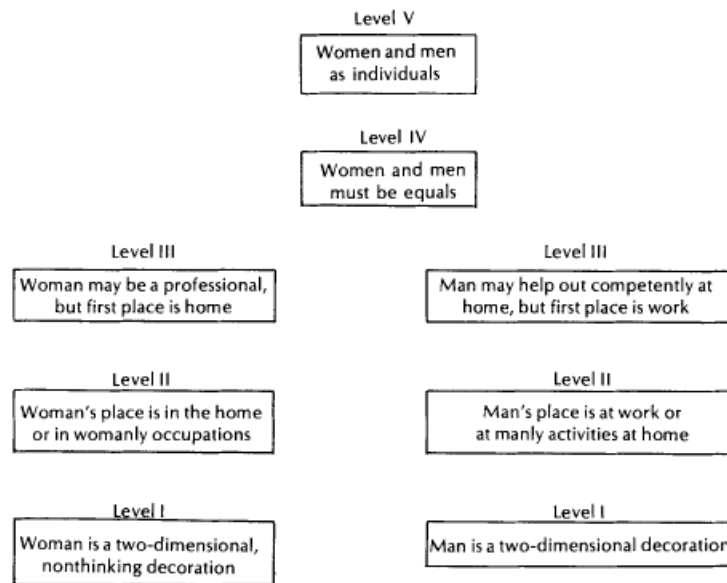
It should be noted that numerous studies have been undertaken on the effects that sexuality in advertising can have on quantifiable commercial measures such as consumer attitude towards brands and purchase intention (Bello, Pitts, & Etzel, 1983; Henthorne & LaTour, 1995; Lundstrom & Sciglimpaglia, 1977; Orth & Holancova, 2004; Pope et al., 2004). However, this is not the intent of the current study – instead, the focus will remain on some of the effects observed by other studies which occur in a wider social context.

Advertising has been acknowledged as a socialising influence (Lafky et al., 1996). Advertisements “provide a gauge for what is desirable and what is normal... the social impact of advertising cannot be overstated” (Stankiewicz & Rosselli, 2007, p. 580). This means that it may have the potential to normalise behaviour, particularly in those who are exposed to its messaging from a young age (Papadopoulos, 2010). While the effects of advertising as a whole may be debated in the literature, most evidence pertaining to gender stereotyping in advertising suggests that there are negative effects. As stated by Courtney and Whipple (1983), “when limited and demeaning stereotypes are as pervasive as those involved in advertising’s portrayal of the sexes, it becomes important to question whether those stereotypes might result in negative and undesirable social consequences” (p. 45).

The scale of consciousness laid out by Pingree et al. (1976) in Figure 2.2 provides a hierarchy for the perceived ‘levels’ of sexism, starting with the most limited portrayals at the bottom, and the greatest amount of freedom at the top. Pingree et al. (1976) thereby offer a means of classifying precisely how limited a portrayal is, which then leads to a clearer picture of what consequences might result from

these depictions. This is a useful model conceptually when discussing the potential harms of gendered depictions in advertising.

Figure 2.2: Consciousness Scale For Media Sexism



(Pingree et al., 1976, p. 199)

When viewing this scale, portrayals in Levels I, II, and III are likely to be stereotyped depictions. There is strong potential within these categories, particularly in Level I, for characters to be sexualised as well as stereotypical. Lafky et al. (1996) discuss that even if stereotyped gender portrayals are not necessarily persuasive as an advertising tool, the messages these stereotypes send can sometimes be internalised by viewers. Some sources have referred to advertising as a socializing force (Lafky et al., 1996; Papadopoulos, 2010; Sawang, 2010); likewise research has suggested that being exposed to stereotypical gender roles can influence attitudes and behaviour (Lanis & Covell, 1995; MacKay & Covell, 1997). This means that these gender role stereotypes may be adopted subconsciously by audiences over time.

Sawang (2010) has suggested that exposure to gender stereotypes leads to increasingly gender-typed views, which “appears to be associated with heightened aggressive attitudes toward women, with women’s concern about body image and with gender-role values. Exposure to stereotyped gender portrayals in advertisements actually may engender negative gender-role attitudes” (p. 179). This is in line with the beliefs of Papadopolous (2010), who said that “[r]epeated exposure to gender-stereotypical ideas and images contributes to sexist attitudes and beliefs; sexual harassment; violence against women; and stereotyped perceptions of, and behaviour toward, men and women” (p.11).

Papadopolous (2010) also posited that the sexualisation of girls in the media has resulted in widespread body dissatisfaction in women, as a result of the idealised figures being portrayed. This in turn links to lowered self-esteem, depression, and insecurity (Papadopolous, 2010). Her report also

suggests that the ways we consume media encourage people to objectify, and thus subsequently dehumanise those we view. Men, on the other hand, are being increasingly encouraged to portray themselves as masculine through sexual conquests and power displays (Papadopoulos, 2010). It is logical to suggest that these findings go hand in hand with research which demonstrates that exposure to gender-stereotyped portrayals can lead to sexist attitudes and beliefs, sexual harassment, and even higher levels of acceptance towards violence against women (Lanis & Covell, 1995; MacKay & Covell, 1997; Papadopoulos, 2010; Sawang, 2010; Stankiewicz & Rosselli, 2008). MacKay and Covell (1997) found young men were more inclined to accept gender stereotypes, and rape or sexual aggression towards women after viewing sexual images of females. A study by Lanis and Covell (1995) found that males exposed to a condition involving women as sex objects were more inclined to accept rape myths than those exposed to the control group. However they also discovered that females were less accepting of rape myths when exposed to the same condition. This suggests an interaction effect of gender and condition, and indicates that women and men may perceive sexuality in advertising in very different ways. Additionally, a study by Abbey (1982) indicated that male participants perceived a female actor as more promiscuous and seductive than was judged by female participants. However in addition, male participants also judged the male actor as more sexualized than females did. This experiment reinforces other research which suggests males may perceive the world in more sexualised terms than females (Abbey et al., 1987; Abbey & Melby, 1986; Harnish et al., 1990).

These are not the only studies to have found differences in the way people of different genders perceive sex in advertising. Overall, men were found to view sex in advertising as more acceptable than women (Sawang, 2010). Lundstrom and Sciglimpaglia (1977) found women more critical of sexualised role portrayals than men. This appears to have progressed to women being more likely to be offended by suggestive or erotic content than men in later studies (Belch et al., 1982; Pope et al., 2004). Sawang (2010) found that American women's least liked images contained sexual content in conjunction with sexy female models. As expected, however, female participants had a more favourable reaction to good-looking male models when compared to male participants (Sawang, 2010). This suggests, logically, that participants preferred attractive members of the opposite gender. In a similar fashion, LaTour (1990) found males reacted more positively than females when exposed to a nude female model. He reported that men had positive associations with nudity while women were the opposite. Some studies suggest that men and women are socialised to perceive sex in advertising differently (LaTour, 1990; Sengupta & Dahl, 2008); this could help in explaining the often negative reaction of females in such studies.

Worth considering are the possible reasons behind the differences in gender perceptions. Sengupta & Dahl (2008) lead an interesting discussion surrounding evolutionary and social reasons why women might respond more negatively to gratuitous sex in advertising than males. This study, alongside an

investigation of gendered responses to sex in advertising (Dahl et al., 2011), posits that males often approach sex from a recreational standpoint, as they benefit reproductively from having a greater number of sexual partners. These studies go on to explain that in the same vein, females are biologically more inclined to consider the context of a relationship, due to the need for sexual partners to also be reliable candidates for raising a child. This, they suggest, helps to explain the more positive reactions of males and negative reactions of females to gratuitous sex in advertising. Dahl et al. (2011) also found empirical evidence that they believe supports this claim, as the negative reactions of females to sex appeals in advertising in their experiment were mitigated by the suggestion that the models were in a relationship. This points to the notion that there are factors which can influence people's perceptions of sex in advertising; these factors are discussed in Section 2.4.1 below.

2.4.1 Mediating Variables

A number of factors in research have been thought to mediate the effects of sex in advertising. One such area is the perceived relevance of the sexual appeal to the product in question. As phrased by Sengupta and Dahl (2008), “[a]ds are increasingly making use of nonsubtle, gratuitous sexual content... that many are likely to regard as being unnecessarily explicit, a perception that is heightened when the image is also irrelevant to the advertised product” (p. 62). This reinforced earlier findings by Peterson and Kerin (1977). Their study found that the condition which employed nudity in conjunction with an unrelated product had a low ranking in terms of ad appeal, and generated the least favourable perceptions of product quality and company reputation, when compared to the other manipulations for the same product. They suggested as a result of this that congruence between products and the models lies along a continuum, with low congruence appearing exploitative. Therefore a reasonable degree of congruence is a relevant consideration in the present experiment. Research conducted by Severn et al. (1990) reaffirms this point.

This ties into a second theme; the use of gratuitous sexual content in advertisements was sometimes seen as unfair or unethical (LaTour & Henthorne, 1994; Mittal & Lassar, 2000; Sengupta and Dahl, 2008). This links to the offence taken by females when exposed to eroticism in Pope et al.'s (2004) study – these researchers suggested that women may process these appeals in a different way to men, leading them to question the advertiser's motives. Belch et al. (1982) found a similar trend in women's propensity to be offended. Thus there is the suggestion that ads which appear exploitative will be poorly received by audiences, thereby mediating any influences on viewers relating to social aspiration.

Age is considered a further mediating influence. Reichert (2003a) points out that the attention-grabbing nature of sexual advertising appeals may have a heightened effect on young adults, as “hormonal changes and body development contribute to the novelty and salience of sexual images” (p. 404). Papadopolous (2010) suggests that because young people are less likely to have media

literacy skills, they may not be able to process what they see as effectively as adults can, thus reinforcing Reichert's (2003a) point. Young people have been shown to be less offended by sex in advertising than older generations (Walsh, 1994); Fetto (2001) reported 44% of people aged 18-24 were more likely to purchase clothing if sexual appeals were used. Wise et al. (1974) found sex in advertising was more positively received by the young, and suggests that young people held more liberal attitudes about sex. This is logical when noting that Mittal and Lassar (2000) found that sexual liberalism helped to explain participant's attitudes to sex in advertising.

Sawang's (2010) study revealed that culture was a mediating factor in people's attitudes towards sex in advertising, having found significant effects for gender, culture, and an interaction effect between the two variables. This was not unexpected given the number of cross-cultural studies of sex in advertising, which reflect different levels of sexualisation as well as gender role portrayals which vary by nation (Chi & Baldwin, 2004; Ford et al., 1998; Hovland et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2009). It is notable that 'culture' is not necessarily a uniform construct; the present study suggests that multiple measures may be required in order to fully encompass this variable.

A final factor which has been highlighted as an influence on perceptions of sex in advertising is relationship status. Dahl et al. (2011) found that females would more readily accept the presence of sex in advertising if it was implied that the sexual contact was between people who were in a committed relationship. Sengupta and Dahl (2008) have suggested reasoning for this, as outlined in the previous section of this literature review. This links to the discussion of sexual consent in Section 2.5; this area of the literature has identified a trend which indicates that people perceive consent as less important in the context of a relationship (Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999; Humphreys, 2007).

While these areas have been identified as likely to influence people's perceptions of sex in advertising, Reichert (2007) has noted that factors such as these which might have an impact are not often measured. The present study therefore attempts to take these variables into account through recording participants' demographic information.

2.5 Sexual Consent Literature

The present research is undertaken on the basis that for a large number of people, there is a difference in perceptions surrounding 'rape' and 'consent'. This applies not only in lay knowledge, but is a theme found in research as well – much more literature exists surrounding the topic of 'rape' than does 'consent' (Beres, 2007). This seems odd given that rape and sexual assault are primarily defined as the lack of consent, as discussed below. This section of the literature review aims to focus primarily on literature pertaining to 'consent', however in order to provide a wider social context, legal definitions surrounding these issues are examined in Section 2.5.1.

2.5.1 Legal Definitions

Legal definitions relating to consent vary by nation, and sometimes even by state. As this experiment included participants from New Zealand, it is pertinent to discuss the legalities of consent in this country before looking at the law in the United States, where the majority of participants in the final experiment were based.

As it stands currently, the legislation surrounding sexual assault in New Zealand includes several conditions in which consent cannot exist, as opposed to a positive definition of consent (Ministry Of Justice, 2008). It is the responsibility of the judge to direct juries on what constitutes consent in a sexual violence case; “[j]udges direct juries that consent must be freely given and requires full understanding of the activity in question” (Ministry Of Justice, 2008, p. 10). The legal definition of sexual violence is as shown in Figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3: Excerpt From The Crimes Act 1961 – Sexual Violation Defined

- 128 Sexual violation defined**
- (1) Sexual violation is the act of a person who—
 - (a) rapes another person; or
 - (b) has unlawful sexual connection with another person.
 - (2) Person A rapes person B if person A has sexual connection with person B, effected by the penetration of person B's genitalia by person A's penis,—
 - (a) without person B's consent to the connection; and
 - (b) without believing on reasonable grounds that person B consents to the connection.
 - (3) Person A has unlawful sexual connection with person B if person A has sexual connection with person B—
 - (a) without person B's consent to the connection; and
 - (b) without believing on reasonable grounds that person B consents to the connection.
 - (4) One person may be convicted of the sexual violation of another person at a time when they were married to each other.
- Section 128: replaced, on 20 May 2005, by section 7 of the Crimes Amendment Act 2005 (2005 No 41).

(Crimes Act 1961, p. 87)

However, Figure 2.4 shows that New Zealand law also features a non-exclusive list of conditions which would mean consent could not exist. While New Zealand was progressive in including these negating factors as early as 1985, there are downsides to this type of definition. “It can be argued that the current statute, by being framed in the negative, supports the assumption and reinforces the attitude that consent always exists unless particular circumstances are present. This approach potentially undermines beliefs about the right to choose on each occasion” (Ministry Of Justice, 2008, p.13). This has led to the notion that it might be beneficial to introduce a positive definition of what consent entails, alongside the existing statute.

Figure 2.4: Excerpt From The Crimes Act 1961 – Conditions Negating Consent

128A Allowing sexual activity does not amount to consent in some circumstances

- (1) A person does not consent to sexual activity just because he or she does not protest or offer physical resistance to the activity.
- (2) A person does not consent to sexual activity if he or she allows the activity because of—
 - (a) force applied to him or her or some other person; or
 - (b) the threat (express or implied) of the application of force to him or her or some other person; or
 - (c) the fear of the application of force to him or her or some other person.
- (3) A person does not consent to sexual activity if the activity occurs while he or she is asleep or unconscious.
- (4) A person does not consent to sexual activity if the activity occurs while he or she is so affected by alcohol or some other drug that he or she cannot consent or refuse to consent to the activity.
- (5) A person does not consent to sexual activity if the activity occurs while he or she is affected by an intellectual, mental, or physical condition or impairment of such a nature and degree that he or she cannot consent or refuse to consent to the activity.
- (6) One person does not consent to sexual activity with another person if he or she allows the sexual activity because he or she is mistaken about who the other person is.
- (7) A person does not consent to an act of sexual activity if he or she allows the act because he or she is mistaken about its nature and quality.
- (8) This section does not limit the circumstances in which a person does not consent to sexual activity.
- (9) For the purposes of this section,—

allows includes acquiesces in, submits to, participates in, and undertakes

sexual activity, in relation to a person, means—

 - (a) sexual connection with the person; or
 - (b) the doing on the person of an indecent act that, without the person’s consent, would be an indecent assault of the person.

Section 128A: replaced, on 20 May 2005, by [section 7](#) of the Crimes Amendment Act 2005 (2005 No 41).

(Crimes Act 1961, p. 87-88)

In the United States, legislation is significantly more complex due to penal codes enacted at state level. This has resulted in a wide variation in the quality and range of definitions for sexual assault crimes. Some states will differentiate a crime by degrees, leading to a large number of possible charges for each type of crime; others will have only a few definitions pertaining to specific offenses. The Rape, Abuse, And Incest National Network (RAINN) is an invaluable resource for consent-related information; this case is no different as they have provided a comprehensive list of state-level legislation on the matter. Some examples have been selected from this list in order to demonstrate the variation of these definitions, as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Examples Of U.S. State Laws Surrounding Sex Crimes

State	Type Of Crime	Definition
California	Rape	An offender commits Rape by engaging in sexual intercourse with another person who is not the offender’s spouse under the following circumstances: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The victim is incapable of giving consent because of a mental disorder or developmental or physical disability; 2. The offender engages in sexual intercourse against a victim’s will by means of force, violence, duress, menace or fear of immediate and unlawful bodily injury on the person or another; 3. The victim is unable to resist because of any intoxicating or anesthetic substance, or any controlled substance and the offender knew or reasonably should have known of the victim’s condition; 4. The victim was unconscious of the nature of the act and the offender knew that the victim was unconscious of the nature of the act because the victim was unconscious or asleep, was not aware or cognizant the act occurred, or was not aware or cognizant of the nature of the act because the offender fraudulently represented that the sexual penetration served a professional

		<p>purpose when it did not;</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. The victim submits under the belief that the offender is someone known to the victim other than the offender due to the offender's artifice, pretense or concealment, which was intended to induce the victim's false belief; 6. The act is accomplished against the victim's will and the offender threatens to retaliate in the future, by way of kidnapping, false imprisonment, the infliction of extreme pain or serious bodily injury, or causing death, against the victim or any other person, and there is a reasonable probability the offender will execute the threat; or 7. The act is accomplished against the victim's will and the offender threatens to use the authority of a public official to incarcerate, arrest, or deport the victim or another, and the victim has a reasonable belief the offender is a public official. <p>(Cal. Penal Code §261)</p>
Colorado	Unlawful Sexual Conduct	<p>An actor who knowingly subjects a victim to sexual contact commits unlawful sexual contact if:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the actor knows that the victim does not consent; • the actor knows that the victim is incapable of appraising the nature of the victim's conduct; • the victim is physically helpless and the actor knows that the victim is physically helpless and the victim has not consented; • the actor has substantially impaired the victim's power to appraise or control the victim's conduct by employing, without the victim's consent, any drug, intoxicant, or other means for the purpose of causing submission; • the victim is in custody of law or detained in a hospital or other institution and the actor has supervisory or disciplinary authority over the victim and uses this position of authority, unless incident to a lawful search, to coerce the victim to submit; or • the actor engages in treatment or examination of a victim not for medical purposes or in a manner substantially inconsistent with reasonable medical practices (punishable as a class 4 felony: 2-6 years incarceration, 3 year parole, and up to \$500,000 fine). <p>(Colo. Rev. Stat. Ann. §18-3-404)</p>
Georgia	Rape	<p>Carnal knowledge of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A female forcibly and against her will; or • A female who is less than 10 years of age. <p>(Ga. Code Ann. § 16-6-1)</p>
Mississippi	Rape; Assault With Intent To Ravish	<p>Any person who assaults with intent to forcibly ravish any female of previous chaste character.</p> <p>(Miss. Code Ann. § 97-3-71)</p>
New York	Rape In The First Degree	<p>Engaging in sexual intercourse with another person:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By forcible compulsion; or • Who is incapable of consent by reason of being physically helpless; or • Who is less than eleven years old; or • Who is less than thirteen years old and the actor is eighteen years old or more. <p>(N.Y. Penal Law § 130.35)</p>
Oklahoma	Rape In The First Degree	<p>Rape in the first degree shall include:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • rape committed by a person over eighteen (18) years of age upon a person under fourteen (14) years of age; or • rape committed upon a person incapable through mental illness or any unsoundness of mind of giving legal consent regardless of the age of the person committing the crime; or • rape accomplished where the victim is intoxicated by a narcotic or anesthetic agent, administered by or with the privity of the accused as a means of forcing the victim to submit; or • rape accomplished where the victim is at the time unconscious of the nature of the act and this fact is known to the accused; or

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • rape accomplished with any person by means of force, violence, or threats of force or violence accompanied by apparent power of execution regardless of the age of the person committing the crime; or • rape by instrumentation resulting in bodily harm is rape by instrumentation in the first degree regardless of the age of the person committing the crime; or • rape by instrumentation committed upon a person under fourteen (14) years of age. <p>(Okla. Stat. Ann. tit. 21, § 1114)</p>
South Dakota	Rape In The First Degree	An act of sexual penetration if the victim is under 13 years old. (S.D. Codified Laws § 22-22-1(1))
South Dakota	Rape In The Second Degree	An act of sexual penetration through the use of force, coercion, or threats of immediate and great bodily harm against the victim or other persons within the victim's presence, accompanied by apparent power of execution. (S.D. Codified Laws § 22-22-1(2))
Texas	Sexual Assault	Intentionally or knowingly causing any of the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Penetration of the anus or sexual organ of another by any means without that person's consent; • Penetration of the mouth of another person by the sexual organ of the actor without that person's consent; or • The sexual organ of another person, without that person's consent, to contact or penetrate the mouth, anus, or sexual organ of another person including the actor. (Tex. Penal Code Ann. § 22.011)
Vermont	Sexual Assault	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No person shall engage in a sexual act with another person and compel the other person to participate in the sexual act: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Without the consent of the other person, or ○ By threatening or coercing the other person, or ○ By placing the other person in fear that any person will suffer imminent bodily injury. • No person shall engage in a sexual act with another person and impair substantially the ability of the other person to appraise or control conduct by administering or employing drugs or intoxicants without the knowledge or against the will of the other person. • No person shall engage in a sexual act with a child who is under the age of 16 ("Statutory Rape"), except: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Where the persons are married to each other and the sexual act is consensual, or ○ Where the person is less than 19 years old, the child is at least 15 years old, and the sexual act is consensual. • No person shall engage in a sexual act with a child who is under the age of 18 and is entrusted to the actor's care by authority of law or is the actor's child, grandchild, foster child, adopted child, or stepchild. • No person shall engage in a sexual act with a child under the age of 16 if: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ The victim is entrusted to the actor's care by authority of law or is the actor's child, grandchild, foster child, adopted child, or stepchild, or ○ The actor is at least 18 years of age, resides in the victim's household, and serves in a parental role with respect to the victim. <p>(13 V.S.A. §§ 3252 & 3254)</p>
West Virginia	Sexual Assault In The First Degree	A person is guilty of sexual assault in the first degree when: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The person engages in sexual intercourse or sexual intrusion with another person and in so doing inflicts serious bodily injury upon anyone or employs a deadly weapon in the commission of the act, or • The person, being 14 years old or more, engages in sexual intercourse or sexual intrusion with another person who is younger than 12 years old and is not married to that person. <p>(W. Va. Code § 61-8B-3)</p>

(RAINN, 2013)

This table shows that some states in the U.S. have comprehensive legislation around sexual violence, similar to the laws enacted in New Zealand. However, comparing some of these laws against each other demonstrates how convoluted, and in some cases, how outdated these laws can be. Two examples are included from South Dakota to demonstrate the use of ‘degrees’ of crimes – this is a familiar pattern in many other states as well. In the case of South Dakota however, these definitions are arguably a little bit too restrictive due to how specific they appear. This contrasts sharply with the examples from Mississippi and Georgia. The terms in these definitions appear so outdated that it would be difficult to define precisely what they mean in modern terms – even if they were updated to employ more colloquial terms, they might still be lacking when compared to other definitions. The reference to a “female of previously chaste character” (RAINN, 2013) mentioned in the Mississippi legislature seems woefully inadequate when considering that New Zealand law has a policy of excluding any evidence pertaining to the victims’ sexual history (Ministry Of Justice, 2008). The excerpt from the California Penal Code pertains specifically to rape of someone who is not one’s spouse – while this seems out of place, in reality they simply have a separate category for spousal rape. Factors such as these do not appear to make the legislation particularly easy to navigate. However, in the interests of fairness it should be stated that as with all law, it is likely these statutes were established purely as guidelines, and that their effectiveness depends on the ways in which they are operationalized.

There is also Federal Law to consider. The FBI’s revised definition of sexual assault now reads: “Penetration, no matter how slight, of the vagina or anus with any body part or object, or oral penetration by a sex organ of another person, without the consent of the victim” (U.S. Department Of Justice, 2014, p. 1). This provides another baseline from which judges are able to operate – one which is thankfully less objectionable than some of the aforementioned state legislation. This background into United States law provides framing which may be an influence on some U.S. citizens’ beliefs surrounding consent and sex crimes.

In many countries, the burden of proof is placed on the complainant when prosecution is undertaken. However, as discussed by the New Zealand Ministry of Justice (2008), courts in countries such as Australia and Canada have recently moved towards requiring the accused to explain what steps they took to ascertain whether the complainant was consenting. This represents something of a shift in public policy that reflects some of the difficulties outlined throughout the Section 2.5 as a whole. This shift reflects the tone of this thesis, insofar as the emphasis is placed on whether consent was obtained, rather than asking the complainant to prove that they did not consent. As suggested by the Ministry Of Justice (2008), sexual violence laws should reflect that consent is something that should be obtained for each instance of sexual connection, rather than assumed.

Overall, while laws may vary depending on geographical location, it is observable from the examples above that most laws do not offer a positive definition of consent. This leaves room for doubt when undertaking sexual activity by both parties as to what does and does not constitute an acceptable level of communication. As such, it is pertinent that this topic is discussed not only in law, but in research, as outline in Section 2.5.2 below.

2.5.2 Academic Definitions

The work of Melanie Beres (2007) is an invaluable starting point when examining literature pertaining to consent. Alongside Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999), she is quick to point out that many researchers do not define consent at all. Instead, a large number of studies leave the reader to try and discern the authors' implied definition, or simply to use their own. This could have profound impacts on the ways in which these studies are interpreted and understood.

There are studies which give definitions of consent that do not align with certain legal parameters discussed above. Some researchers appear to have suggested that consent can still be given when force, coercion, or other factors are used to obtain consent (Dripps, 1992; O'Sullivan & Allgeier, 1998). Subsequent studies have confronted this assertion, and instead posited that situations such as these would make it impossible for true consent to be given (Beres, 2007; Hall, 1998; Hickman and Muehlenhard, 1999, Humphreys, 2007). Some studies have even taken this one step further, and questioned whether wider social forces (for instance, heteronormativity as a social pressure) can arguably prohibit consent (Beres, 2007; Gavey, 1997; West, 2002). While an interesting thought, this is a broader issue which will not be discussed in detail here.

Jozkowski et al. (2013) asked participants to indicate how they would define consent. Answers given during this study are demonstrated in Figure 2.5. As this shows, the most popular definition refers to two parties that appear equal (40%); however the next two most popular definitions reflect the notion that one person will ask and another will accept (21.1% and 16.2% respectively). This encourages the idea that there is something of a conflict between a 'traditional' sexual script, and a more egalitarian emerging sexual dialogue.

Peterson and Muehlenhard (2007) do not define consent, but instead asked their participants questions such as "I felt that I consented or agreed to this experience" and "I communicated to the other person that I consented or agreed to this experience" (p. 76). This reflects the theme of their study in separating the factor of 'wantedness', from having communicated consent. They posit that the presence of wantedness does not necessarily indicate consent, or vice versa. This notion is reflected in the attitude adopted by Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999). They discuss that consent should not be defined as purely a verbal or physical act, but instead suggest that "feelings of willingness and expressions of willingness are distinct and should both be included in defining consent" (p. 259).

Figure 2.5: Definitions Of Consent As Nominated By Participants In Jozkowski et al. (2013)

Consent Definitions	Female % (n)	Male % (n)	Total % (n)
An agreement to have sex; two people willing to have sex with each other	39.0 (39)	41.7 (35)	40.0 (74)
Someone gave permission or approval to have sex	23.0 (23)	19.1 (16)	21.1 (39)
People are aware of their actions, sober, or not under the influence	3.0 (3)	3.5 (3)	3.2 (6)
People want to engage in a sexual act	11.0 (11)	12.1 (11)	11.9 (22)
Sex was not forced or coerced	2.0 (2)	1.2 (1)	1.6 (3)
Saying yes to sex	17.0 (17)	15.5 (13)	16.2 (30)
Asking to have sex	1.0 (1)	1.2 (1)	1.1 (2)
Necessary	1.0 (1)	1.2 (1)	1.1 (2)
Sex is not rape or a way to avoid rape and rape charges	0.0 (0)	1.2 (1)	0.5 (1)
There is no confusion and interest in sex is clear	1.0 (1)	0.0 (0)	0.5 (1)
Deciding to or making the decision to have sex	1.0 (1)	1.2 (1)	1.1 (2)
Other	0.0 (0)	3.5 (3)	1.6 (3)

Note. There were no significant differences between women’s and men’s frequency of endorsing each definition of consent ($X^2 = 13.01$, $df = .14$).

(Jozkowski et al., 2013, p. 909)

This separates wantedness and consent, in the same way verbal and non-verbal cues are then separated: consent is defined as “freely given verbal or non-verbal communication of a feeling of willingness” (Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999, p. 259). They also posit that the situation in which consent occurs should be taken into account: for instance, that the person consenting is not being coerced or under the influence of drugs or alcohol. Hall (1998) offers a similar definition, explaining consent as “[v]oluntary approval of what is done or proposed by another; permission; agreement in opinion or sentiment” (page numbers not available). This concept of ‘voluntary’ and ‘freely given’ consent helps to insinuate that consent should be motivated by desire – a discussion relating to this point can be found in Section 2.5.4.

Lim and Roloff (1999) define consent as “knowing and voluntary agreement to engage in sexual activity. By “knowing,” we mean that the person can understand that an agreement has been made. “Voluntary” implies that agreement was freely given. “Agreement” constitutes a commitment to engage in the action” (p. 3). This aspect of ‘knowing’ is further discussed by Humphreys and Herold (2007), who state that an “individual must have a clear understanding of what she or he is consenting to, before consent can be considered legitimate” (p. 306). This is a highly relevant argument given that as discussed in Sections 2.5.4 and 2.5.5, difficulties that commonly arise in seeking consent often result from miscommunication or a lack of understanding.

Researchers have even begun to investigate ways of measuring consent. Humphreys and Herold (2007) began this process, with Humphreys and Brousseau (2010) then revising the original scale. The 2007 study resulted in two subscales pertaining to consent attitudes, and consent behaviours. In 2010, the revised scale was broken down into three attitudinal and two behavioural subscales: (Lack Of) Perceived Behavioural Control, Positive Attitude Toward Establishing Consent, Indirect Behavioural Approach To Consent, Sexual Consent Norms, and Consent Awareness And Discussion. This self-report measure has provided a baseline for assessing perceptions of sexual consent.

Jozkowski et al. (2014) have also developed a scale for measuring consent; this takes into account personal factors such as Physical Response, Safety/Comfort, Arousal, Consent/Want, and Readiness. Due to the specific nature of these questions, the present research suggests that this measure might be more appropriate when referring to specific cases, as opposed to giving a more generic overview of participants' attitudes toward consent.

2.5.3 Operational Definition

While many of the legal and academic definitions discussed above have significant merit, this research adopts a self-created definition of consent. This definition was intended to be positive, while still encapsulating as many of the 'conditions' needed for consent to exist as possible. As such, the definition is as follows:

Current, fully conscious, voluntary agreement to engage in a particular sexual act.

Each aspect of this definition relates to a different issue, many of which are reflected in New Zealand legislation. These issues are explained in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Unpacking The Present Research's Definition Of Consent

Part Of Definition	Meaning
Current	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cannot be inferred by previous acts or relationships • Can be taken away at any time
Fully Conscious	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participants are awake • Participants are not under the influence of drugs or alcohol • Participants are in full control of their mental faculties – this can refer to situations when one participant may be abusing a position of power, for instance, over someone with special needs
Voluntary	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participants should not be coerced, threatened, or otherwise afraid
Particular	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Refers to awareness, knowledge, and understanding of what exactly is being consented to

The author hopes that this adequately encompasses the majority of the ideas raised above, in a succinct, comprehensible manner. This is the definition of consent that the author of the present study prefers to use; however, readers should note that participants in the following study will each have their own understandings of consent, and so the results of this experiment should not necessarily be judged based on this definition.

2.5.4 Difficulties In Defining Consent

As is alluded to by a number of these studies, many sources find it difficult to come to a single, all-inclusive definition of consent. Table 2.1 demonstrates the wide variations that can exist in law pertaining to sexual assault, even within a single country. Section 2.5.2 points out that many academic sources do not even define consent – it is difficult to say whether this is simply an oversight, or an intentional avoidance of discussing what they believe consent entails. Furthermore, when researchers

and the law have sought to define consent, the number and scope of the definitions established shows that there is a vast variation in what may be construed as sexual consent or the lack thereof. As stated in the Ministry Of Justice's discussion document, "consent is not a clear and easily determined concept but rather one that exists within a continuum of community standards that resists tidy definitions" (2008, p. 14). Some of the 'untidiness' touched on by previous scholars is discussed here.

Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999) partook in an interesting discussion that began to outline some of the problems with consent as it is discussed in research. They pointed out that some schools of thought treat consent as a mental act, while some view it as purely a physical act. They argued that both of these views come with their own issues, thus concluding that both factors should be included in definitions of sexual consent. As such, their definition, as mentioned above, encapsulated both of these aspects. This kind of discussion is echoed by other researchers (Gould, 1994; Severn et al., 1990) who have discussed the role of verbal affirmation in sexual consent. Wilson et al. (2002) utilised consensual and non-consensual case studies in their work, but simply referred to the woman in the cases as either clearly expressing consent, or clearly and verbally expressing that she did not consent. This furthers the idea that in some cases people will 'know [consent] when they see it' (Beres, 2007). This is a similar sentiment to judgements made about sex in advertising, but still means that consent will likely be perceived differently by each participant.

As with Boddewyn's (1991) aforementioned point about sex in advertising, consent can be seen as somewhat subjective. Many researchers have outlined or investigated situations in which consent can appear ambiguous (Abbey & Harnish, 1995; Abbey, Parkhill, & Koss, 2005; Humphreys, 2007; Koss, 1985; Koss et al., 1988). The problematic scenario exists in which people have been raped under the legal or operational definition of rape, but do not classify themselves as having experienced rape when asked directly (see Muehlenhard et al., 1994, for a discussion). This is further reflected by literature which recognises the "hidden victims" whose experiences are not counted by crime statistics, due to the fact the victims may not consider their situation to have constituted use of the term 'rape' (Koss, 1985; Koss et al., 1988). This highlights one difficulty in studies which ask victims to self-report.

Some studies have also noted that indicators of consent may change depending on the scenario – in particular, depending upon relationship status. Humphreys (2007) found that perceptions of consent increased with the degree of intimacy portrayed between a couple; as stated by one woman in Hickman and Muehlenhard's (1999) study, "a smile does not mean consent in a bar to a guy I hardly know, but it does with my boyfriend" (p. 271). This relationship dynamic may also come into play when conceptualizing the "wantedness" of sexual activity.

Peterson and Muehlenhard (2007) posit that sexual activity can exist on two continuums; from wanted to unwanted, and consensual to nonconsensual. They differentiate between these dimensions by

saying that to “*want* something is to desire it, to wish for it, to feel inclined toward it, or to regard it or aspects of it as positively valenced; in contrast, to *consent* is to be willing or to agree to do something” (Peterson & Muehlenhard, 2007, p. 73). Figure 2.6 demonstrates this conceptualisation in comparison to older models. Their research suggests that people may consent to sex even if they do not want it, or may want it but not consent to it – O’Sullivan and Allgeier (1998) reflect a similar theme. Some portions of Peterson and Muehlenhard’s (2007) study also suggested that sex which falls into either of those two categories may still be enjoyable – this is reflected in discussion by Beres (2007).

Figure 2.6: Dominant And New Models Of Wanting And Consent

a. The Dominant Model: "Sex is either wanted and consensual or unwanted and nonconsensual"		
	Wanted	Unwanted
Consensual	Not rape	NOT POSSIBLE
Nonconsensual	NOT POSSIBLE	Rape
b. The Dominant Model: "Rape is unwanted nonconsensual sex."		
	Wanted	Unwanted
Consensual	Not rape	Not rape
Nonconsensual	Not rape	Rape
c. The New Model: "Wanting and consenting are distinct concepts; nonconsensual sex is rape."		
	Wanted	Unwanted
Consensual	Not rape	Not rape
Nonconsensual	Rape	Rape

(Peterson & Muehlenhard, 2007, p. 73)

However, these researchers acknowledged that there are potential issues that could arise from this conceptualisation. They noted that victim-blaming statements in the past have often included sentiments such as ‘[the victim] wanted it’. Throughout the course of their discussion, Peterson and Muehlenhard (2007) did their best to make it clear that this was, effectively, irrelevant. Whether sex was wanted or not differs from whether or not a person consented, and consent is framed as the more important point throughout the study. As they stated, sexual assault and rape occur in “the absence of consent, not [necessarily] the absence of desire” (Peterson & Muehlenhard, 2007, p. 85). They posited that this notion could in fact be liberating for many rape victims, who have had experiences in which they did not offer their consent. However, their ideas draw attention to the importance of communicating clearly with one’s partner, and also the importance of avoiding victim-blaming practices.

These points all contribute to the notion that one must be very careful when attempting to construct a comprehensive definition of consent. As is obvious by this point in the discussion, conceptualizations of rape and consent differ between law and research. It is fair to say that lay understandings of consent are likely to be different again, and that these understandings will differ from person to person. The present study aims to encapsulate some of these differences in testing the effects of the independent variables.

2.5.5 Communicating Consent

A further subsection of the literature touches on the ways in which people communicate consent (Hall, 1998; Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999, Jozkowski & Peterson, 2013; Jozkowski et al., 2013). A number of these studies focus on factors which are covariates in the present study, such as gender, age, and relationship status (Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999; Jozkowski et al., 2014; see also the following works: Abbey, 1982; Abbey, Cozzarelli, McLaughlin, & Harnish, 1987; Abbey & Harnish, 1995; Abbey & Melby, 1986; Harnish, Abbey, & DeBono, 1990).

As pointed out by Beres (2007), there has often been a research focus on how women give consent. This gives way to the idea that men's consent is always present and thus does not warrant a place in research. This is a limiting portrayal of men which diminishes their right to choose to consent or not with each sexual encounter (see Graham, 1997). It also fails to account for women's sexual desire and interest in initiating sexual contact. Studies which investigate 'typical' sexual scripts have, however, often found that males are more likely to initiate sexual contact (Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999; Jozkowski & Peterson, 2013; Jozkowski et al., 2013; Jozkowski et al., 2014; Lopez & George, 1995; Muehlenhard et al., 1992; O'Sullivan & Byers, 1992). O'Sullivan et al. (1998) also noted that men more often reported being sexually coercive than women. However, this traditional script dictates that while men are the instigators, it is the role of women to restrict or 'gatekeep' – this may no longer be true, as discovered by O'Sullivan and Byers (1992). Women are now less likely to be 'restrictors', and instead respond positively to sexual initiations in a similar manner to males (O'Sullivan & Byers, 1992). A study by O'Sullivan and Byers (1993) further showed that women are also capable of instigating sex, but appear to be less effective when attempting to coerce their partners – this may contribute to the notion that women are less aggressive than men when asking for sex. These findings imply that the sexual script may be changing, thus altering the limited 'roles' which were previously assigned. While these roles may be changing however, it is still of interest to consider the perceptions or stigmas associated with these roles. In a study of perceptions of sexual coercion, Oswald and Russell (2006) found that while coercive men were seen as aggressive, coercive women were instead thought to be promiscuous. This ties into the differences in perceived gender roles and sexualisation as discussed previously.

Communication of sexual consent can be conceptualised on two continuums, similar to the matrices demonstrated in Figure 2.6. These continuums run from direct to indirect, and from verbal to non-verbal (Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999; Humphreys & Brousseau, 2010). On these axes, it appears that people quite often gravitate towards indirect nonverbal communication – this was the second most common method of indicating consent in Hickman and Muehlenhard’s (1999) study. However, the most common method used to indicate consent was to give no response – that is, participants said they did not object to their partner’s advances, as a means of consenting. Jozkowski et al. (2014) also found women tended to be more passive or give no response as a means of consent, while males tended to take a more dominant role. Hall (1998) found a trend towards non-verbal communication. An opposing effect was found by Jozkowski (2011); results in this particular study indicated that overall, college students communicated consent verbally. However, it is theorised that this conflicting outcome was as a result of an overall focus on gender differences, which was inconsistent with the studies above. In reading their partners, these same participants indicated that they looked for nonverbal cues, similar to the results of Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999).

Other studies report that participants have commonly undertaken sexual behaviour which they deemed consensual, that did not involve explicit verbal consent (Jozkowski et al., 2014; Muehlenhard et al., 1992). This is a concern given Lim and Roloff’s (1999) finding that verbal statements lead to clearer perceptions of consent than nonverbal actions. The trend towards giving no response or an indirect nonverbal response as a form of consent may be cause for alarm, given the disconnection that can occur between the ways different people send and receive consent signals (see below). The indirect nature of these exchanges leaves room for miscommunication, or “selective interpretation” as mentioned by Humphreys and Brousseau (2010, p. 420).

Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999) found a significant difference in the way men and women communicated consent, with men shown to use statements about intoxication, indirect nonverbal signals, or giving no response more frequently than women; women used indirect verbal signals more frequently than was reported by men. They also found that men rated their own signals as more indicative of consent when compared to women’s ratings of their own signals; that is, “men’s signals indicate a greater level of sexual consent than do the same signals given by women” (p. 269). Jozkowski et al. (2013) reported that women seem to indicate consent verbally, while men more frequently expressed themselves nonverbally; however men indicated that they used nonverbal signals as indicators of consent by women. From a holistic standpoint, Humphreys (2007) found that females were more likely to perceive explicit sexual consent as being necessary than men did in sexual encounters, no matter the relationship.

This reveals an underlying problem with consent in general; there is strong potential for miscommunication if someone assumes that other people indicate consent in the same ways they

would indicate it themselves. Abbey (1987) demonstrated one possible outcome of such a scenario, finding that a significantly higher proportion of women than men had experienced someone of the opposite gender misinterpreting friendly behaviour as an expression of sexual interest. Several researchers have also established that males typically interpret heterosexual interactions as having more sexual meaning than females do (Abbey, 1982; Abbey et al., 1987; Abbey & Harnish, 1995; Abbey & Melby, 1986; Harnish et al., 1990). This reflects the strong scope for possible miscommunication in such situations.

Participants in Hickman and Muehlenhard's (1999) study also indicated that the context of the encounter was very important. This outlined that people in relationships were likely to relax their expectations surrounding consent, as they believed their significant other was more likely to understand the ways they would typically indicate consent. This trend was also observed by Humphreys (2007), suggesting there is potential for participants' relationship status to be a significant covariate factor in the present research.

2.6 Hypotheses

This review of literature has provided a snapshot of three varied areas of literature. Given the overlaps demonstrated in these areas, it is now possible to draw some hypotheses related to the present study. This experiment aims to test the ways in which participants' attitudes toward sexual consent are affected by the levels of eroticism in an advertisement, and by which gender is positioned as dominant. Attitudes toward the advertisement and demographic information are also collected. As such, these hypotheses offer predictions as to the relationships between these variables.

Humphreys (2007) found that when couples were portrayed as more intimate, perceptions of consent increased; Hall (1998) demonstrated that verbal consent was perceived as more necessary as the intimacy of sexual activities increased. As such, it is likely that consent will also be seen as more of a necessity when levels of sexual intimacy and eroticism portrayed in an advertisement increase.

H₁: Sexual consent will be rated as more important when participants are exposed to eroticised conditions.

Consent literature has discussed expected sexual scripts and methods used to communicate consent (Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999; Jozkowski & Peterson, 2013; Jozkowski et al., 2013; Jozkowski et al., 2014; Lopez & George, 1995; Muehlenhard et al., 1992; O'Sullivan & Byers, 1992). While it has been observed that the traditional sexual script may be evolving, there still appears to be a large emphasis on females to accept or reject sexual advances (O'Sullivan & Byers, 1992). This suggests that when a woman is taking part in sexual activity, a sexual proposition has already been accepted and thus consent is present. Given the large proportion of females who are portrayed in decorative and therefore passive roles (Belkaoui & Belkaoui, 1976; Bresnahan et al., 2001; Chan & Cheng, 2012; Chi

& Baldwin, 2004; Courtney & Lockeretz, 1971; Hovland et al., 2005; Lindner, 2004; Plakoyiannaki et al., 2008; Stankiewicz & Rosselli, 2008; Sullivan & O'Connor, 1988; Wagner & Banos, 1973; Wiles et al., 1995; Zhang et al., 2009; Zhou & Chen, 1997), the portrayal of a female in an active role means she may be perceived as having already consented to or initiated sexual activity.

H₂: Sexual consent will be rated as less important when participants are exposed to conditions in which the female character is dominant.

Much of the research above has noted differing portrayals of the genders in advertising. However as shown in Section 2.4, many of the effects relating to gendered portrayals are emphasised to a greater extent when these depictions are also sexualised. Studies such as those by MacKay and Covell (1997) and Lanis and Covell (1995) indicated findings of sexual aggression in relation to sexualised images of women specifically. It has been observed that 75% of women shown as aggressors in advertising were also sexualised (Stankiewicz & Rosselli, 2008). Given the normative effect of advertising as discussed previously, it may be expected that people are likely to perceive dominant women as more sexualised.

H₃: There will be an interaction effect between the variables of eroticism and dominance.

Sengupta and Dahl (2008) found that liking for sexual and non-sexual conditions was related to positive attitudes towards sex. Due to the nature of the subscales in the consent measure utilised, it is likely that some of these will relate more closely to liking of the advertisement, or to finding it objectionable. However, this study posits that:

H₄: Ad-related measures (AAd, AdOb, PI) will be correlated with attitudes toward sexual consent.

Section 2.4.1 demonstrated that a number of variables are likely to mediate the effects of sex and gender in advertising. These include age (Fetto, 2001; Reichert, 2003a; Walsh, 1994; Wise et al., 1974), culture (Sawang, 2010), relationship status (Dahl et al., 2011; Humphreys, 2007), and gender (Abbey, 1982; Belch et al., 1982; Dahl et al., 2011; Lanis & Covell, 1995; LaTour, 1990; Lundstrom & Sciglimpaglia, 1977; MacKay & Covell, 1997; Pope et al., 2004; Sengupta & Dahl, 2008). This leads to the final hypothesis for the present study.

H₅: Demographic variables such as age, gender, and relationship status will be significant covariates in the present study.

These five hypotheses provide the basis for the forthcoming analysis.

2.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has attempted to provide a brief overview of three key areas of literature relevant to the present study. Sex in advertising was defined as including those ads which featured not only nudity, but suggestive content or advertisements with a sexual tone. Research has indicated that the use of this

appeal has remained common over an extended period of time, although different studies have attempted to classify 'levels' of eroticism in different ways.

Portrayals of women in advertising were investigated; a large number of studies dictate that women are still being used as sex objects. Males were also used as sex objects in advertising, though to a lesser extent.

The effects of sex and gender roles in advertising were shown to be many and varied. These included negative responses such as the increased support for rape myths and sexual aggression in men as a result of viewing sexualised images of women. However responses to these variables were not always uniform; mediating factors were identified in Section 2.4.1.

Finally, consent was investigated as the third key area of literature. This included discussing the legal and academic considerations of sexual assault and consent, before the presentation of an operational definition. Issues in defining and communicating consent rounded off Section 2.5.

These investigations then led to the establishment of five hypotheses surrounding the expected relationships between the variables discussed. As such, the present research now moves to a discussion of methodology in Chapter Three.

3 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the research methodology utilised in testing the hypotheses discussed in Chapter Two will be explained. The chapter will give an overview of the research design and subsequently the experimental design used. This will be investigated in detail due to the numerous steps taken to develop the final experiment conducted; discussion includes the creation and pre-testing of advertisements, developing and pre-testing the questionnaire and experimental procedures used, as well as the manipulation checks used to ensure the manipulated conditions were effective. Following these sections, this chapter will explore the design of the experiment itself, including a breakdown of the material covered in each stage of the questionnaire. Finally, a discussion surrounding the pre-test serves to illuminate the changes that resulted from data collection and participant input during this pre-testing stage of the research.

3.2 Research Design

As discussed in Section 2.6, it is hypothesised that the dominant character’s gender and the levels of eroticism within an advertisement may have an impact on the viewer’s perceptions of sexual consent. Previous work by Humphreys and Brousseau (2010) has included the development of a sexual consent scale; this scale was used as a measure of participants’ perceptions of consent, which allowed for the exploration of the two variables discussed above. Utilising information gleaned throughout the literature review in Chapter 2, the gender of the dominant character was hypothesised to be an impacting factor; this was developed through using either a female as the dominant character, or a male as the dominant character. Eroticism has previously been used as a stimulus in research with regards to having mildly erotic or non-erotic images (Pope et al., 2004) – these classifications are recreated here. Thus the present research takes the form of a 2 x 2 factorial experimental design, with the inclusion of a control group as a final condition.

3.3 Experimental Design

This research adopted a 2x2 between subjects factorial design to test the effects of Eroticism (present or not present) and Dominant Gender portrayed in the advertisement (the dominant character being male or female) on participants’ attitudes towards sexual consent. A control group who saw no image was also included. This resulted in a total of 5 possible conditions as outlined below.

Table 3.1: Manipulated Conditions Used In Experimental Design

		Eroticism	
		Not Present	Present
Gender of Dominant Character	Male	Condition 1 (NEMD)	Condition 3 (EMD)
	Female	Condition 2 (NEFD)	Condition 4 (EFD)

Condition 1: Non erotic image with a dominant male character (NEMD)

Condition 2: Non erotic image with a dominant female character (NEFD)

Condition 3: Eroticised image with a dominant male character (EMD)

Condition 4: Eroticised image with a dominant female character (EFD)

Condition 5: No image shown (Control)

3.4 Stimulus Development

As part of the required manipulations, a set of advertisements was required for use in the final experiment. This led to a number of stages building toward said experiment; these involved creating a series of images, selecting the most appropriate images for use, and preparing them for inclusion in the final experiment. These processes are detailed throughout Sections 3.4 and 3.5.

3.4.1 Justification For Use Of Images

While it was a key point of the present research that participants' perceptions of consent might be influenced by advertising, there was still the matter of what form these advertisements would take. Print advertisements have been one of the longest-standing types of advertising imagery; studies such as content analyses looking at this type of media also exist in abundance as far back as Courtney and Lockeretz's (1971) seminal work investigating portrayals of women. This past research has been discussed in Chapter Two and as stated, has provided something of a base from which to develop ideas about what the images designed for this research should look like. The use of a static image was naturally much easier to produce than an animated form such as a television commercial, and much more practical for the present work. Producing a static image of acceptable quality also resulted in a greater sense of realism, as these could theoretically be designed for print or web dissemination in today's media. As such, it was logical to produce a series of static images which would be realistic, and did not require the specification of a context such as magazine or web advertising.

3.4.2 Justification For Image Creation

It was decided that this experiment would be more effective if the images used as stimuli were created by the researcher, as opposed to sourcing existing images. This was for several reasons. Firstly, if an existing image was used, it is possible that bias could arise if a subject had previously been exposed to the image in question, or either of the models. The same phenomenon could occur depending on participants' exposure to a brand, if one was included in the study due to the use of an existing advertising image. Secondly, due to the nature of the manipulations required, it would be difficult to find images that were comparable in terms of the levels of eroticism demonstrated and manipulated gender roles in the same manner, in order to keep the manipulations consistent. Thirdly, any differences in models used between different images could result in varying reactions from

participants - the researcher would be unable to distinguish whether any variation in results was due to the intended manipulation or the change in model. Thus it was deemed more appropriate to use the same two models for all conditions if at all possible, in order to remove a potentially confounding variable. These factors together led to the decision that creating images for the purpose of the final experiment would achieve a more favourable result.

3.4.3 Background to Image Creation

Section 2.3 of the above literature review focused on content analyses of gender roles in advertising. This literature was instrumental in allowing the researcher to identify certain themes and motifs common in past advertising which could then be avoided or attained as desired. Previous studies have suggested a strong association of women with the home, for example (Courtney & Lockeretz, 1971; Courtney & Whipple, 1983; Kim & Lowry, 2005; Plakoyiannaki et al., 2008; Zhou & Chen, 1997). For the purposes of the present research, it was deemed useful to avoid cues such as these that have previously been associated with a particular gender, in order to see more explicitly the effect of manipulating the gender of the dominant character. Studies discussed in Section 2.2 (see Reichert & Ramirez, 2000) also touch on the context of the image as potentially being a factor in the levels of sexualisation perceived. This alongside other identifiable themes discussed in Section 2.3, such as whether or not characters were employed or in a position of authority, led to the decision to eliminate any cues outside of those directly relevant to the study.

The discussion pertaining to sexual appeals in advertising (see Section 2.2) provided a framework which was helpful in considering a number of variables. These included the amount of clothing worn by the models and physical contact between them. It was decided that a middle ground should be targeted in terms of clothing; this was due to previous studies which had already focused on the effects of nudity (Peterson & Kerin, 1977), but also in consideration of the safety and comfort of the models. This aligned with the requirement of the present study that the use of a sexual appeal should not be classed as gratuitous, due to the risk of unduly influencing participants in a negative way (Sengupta & Dahl, 2008). Further discussion is taken in Section 3.4.4 regarding the relevance of the sexual appeal to the product category being advertised.

Two existing advertisements were also selected as exemplars. These images were part of a campaign for the fragrance 'Guilty' by Gucci, featuring Chris Evans and Evan Rachel Wood (see Appendix 6.14 for a link to said images). These advertisements were selected because they appeared to manipulate gender roles in the same manner as this study. In one image targeted towards male consumers, the male model gazes forward into the camera. The female model is positioned below him with her head on his chest, gazing adoringly up towards his face. In the image targeted towards female consumers, the female model gazes directly at the camera, with the male model's eyes closed rapturously and his head positioned below her chin. As such, the gender roles are very effectively reversed, and give

differing impressions of which character is in power. Between the two images, the models' poses and expressions are the only things that have notably changed; the title, black background and lighting remain consistent. The reversal of roles between the images is the effect which this research hoped to imitate, although in both erotic and non-erotic situations.

3.4.4 Selection Of Product Category To Be Used

As discussed in the review of literature, the advertisements needed to demonstrate congruence between the type of appeal and product category. Perfume was selected as an appropriate product category for which to simulate advertisements to be used in the present research. This was for several reasons. In order to emphasise the Dominance stimulus, a product was required that could be marketed to both men and women. It was also noted that it should be realistic for the chosen product category to involve images which displayed varying levels of eroticism. Clothing was initially considered as a possibility as this would have met both of the above conditions, however the researcher felt that this might draw too much attention to the models' outfits, and therefore stop participants from viewing the images holistically.

The other product category in consideration was fragrance, which has been used by other scholars (Mittal & Lassar, 2000). This could be presented in a more abstract manner than clothing, as the product did not necessarily need to be visible, thus removing the aforementioned possibility of drawing too much attention away from the models. The exemplar images discussed in Section 3.4.3 above (see also Appendix 6.14) further demonstrated the ways in which images in this product category could be manipulated depending on which gender was being targeted and/or shown as dominant, and displayed the nature of eroticism employed in such advertisements. With these factors in mind, fragrance as a product category was considered to be fit for purpose within the experiment.

3.4.5 Creation of Images For Use In Final Study

A photo shoot was conducted to create a series of images that would be suitable for use in the manipulations required.

The models and photographer were fully informed of the nature and purpose of the experiment, including the scenarios in which the images created would be displayed (see Appendix 6.10). The researcher was able to describe the type of images required to achieve the necessary effects. This ensured that all parties were aware of the four conditions that required images, and could work together to achieve these ends. The models and photographer were shown the exemplar images discussed in Section 3.4.3 (see also Appendix 6.14), in order to demonstrate possible posing.

As discussed above, one of the ideals of the photo shoot was to manipulate the models' poses and facial expressions, while keeping everything else as similar as possible. As such, a plain black backdrop was used as a setting; this also reflected the exemplar advertisements. The models wore the

same clothing throughout the photo shoot, with the occasional addition or removal of jackets by both parties, and a varying degree of buttons done up or undone for the male depending on which condition was being portrayed. The photographer established a lighting set-up that would be suitable throughout the shoot, and was instructed by the researcher to aim for closely framed images where possible. These factors resulted in the majority of the images produced being visually similar.

From this point, the photographer and the researcher collaborated to suggest a variety of poses and facial expressions, which the models were then able to act out. Appendix 6.1 depicts a collection of some of the images created, which may serve to provide an idea of these variations. It was notable that some conditions were significantly easier to photograph than others. In particular, producing images for the condition involving a dominant female in a non-erotic setting proved very difficult. Whilst the researcher had hoped to keep the images as compositionally similar as possible, it was acknowledged during the photo shoot that this might not be entirely possible – due to the height difference between the models, it was almost impossible to create a female-dominant image while the male was standing. However, allowing for shots in which the male was seated introduced a new dynamic which resulted in the production of successful images. The researcher hopes to detail further observations pertaining to the creation of these images in a forthcoming publication. Overall, approximately 200 images were produced – this gave the researcher ample material to work with moving forward.

3.5 Pre-study – Image Selection

A pre-study was undertaken as the next stage in the lead up to the experiment, in order to assist with image selection. This took the form of an image-based questionnaire administered on Qualtrics. The purpose of the questionnaire was to determine which images from the photo shoot discussed in Section 3.4.5 would be most appropriate for use in the final study; the use of a questionnaire at this point served to incorporate diversity of opinion, rather than simply operating on the basis of the researcher's own thoughts. While the researcher was still able to make a final decision, this was deemed a useful step in the decision-making process. A copy of the pre-study questionnaire can be found in Appendix 6.4.

3.5.1 Selection Of Images For Pre-Study

Following the photo shoot discussed above, the researcher was able to pare down the number of images taken. Images that were not of suitably high quality were eliminated first with assistance from the photographer, such as those that were badly lit or unfocused. Images which were not suitably posed were eliminated next, for instance images in which the models were blinking, laughing, or out of character. The researcher organised the remaining images into categories befitting the intended manipulations. A final elimination process was undertaken to ensure that the images were comparable

between categories – this helped to maintain consistency surrounding levels of eroticism. These eliminations resulted in the following number of images for each condition:

Table 3.2: Number of Suitable Images Produced For Each Manipulation

Condition	Number of Suitable Images
Non erotic, male as dominant character	5
Non erotic, female as dominant character	5
Eroticised, male as dominant character	6
Eroticised, female as dominant character	10

These images were then brought forward into the pre-study.

3.5.2 Pre-Study

The use of a pre-study was deemed appropriate in order to get a sense of which images were widely perceived as most appropriate for each category. This information was then used to aid in the researcher’s decision regarding final images. It was decided that requiring participants to rank images would likely yield more definitive results than if purely qualitative research methods such as focus groups were used. As such, an online questionnaire was created in which participants were instructed to order a series of images, according to which they thought were most and least appropriate for the condition described. Respondents were asked to provide comments about each of the images explaining what they found appealing or unappealing. This served to examine which image was ranked as the most appropriate image for each manipulated condition, but also provided insight into why this might have been the case.

Participants were gathered through convenience sampling on social media. 44 participants began the questionnaire, with 19 complete responses. Partial responses were included as these were still a useful source of data. Respondents viewed the group of images for each category on separate pages, and ordered the images from the image they thought was most appropriate, to the image they thought was least appropriate, given the description of the manipulated category as outlined on the page. Demographic information was also collected to mirror the information that would be gathered in the final questionnaire. This meant it would be possible to account for any differences between the samples used for the pre-study questionnaire, pre-test, and final experiment.

The results demonstrated the frequency with which each image was ranked in each position. For instance, on the page related to eroticised images with a dominant male character, Image F was ranked last by 8 participants, second to last by 4 people, and so on (full results can be viewed in Appendix 6.5.2). Therefore observing which images were most commonly ranked in first place (and thus deemed most appropriate by the largest number of participants) was a particularly useful piece of insight. Table 3.3 depicts the number of participants who ranked each of these images as the most appropriate image for the specified category; the bolded figures in the table are discussed below.

Table 3.3: Top Ranking Images By Condition

Image	Condition			
	NEMD	NEFD	EMD	EFD
A	4	11	9	2
B	3	2	2	1
C	10	8	1	8
D	3	1	3	3
E	2	4	4	0
F	-	-	0	3
G	-	-	-	0
H	-	-	-	1
I	-	-	-	0
J	-	-	-	3
Total	22	26	19	21

As highlighted by the bolded figures, three of the manipulated conditions yielded one image that was ranked first more commonly than the rest, with no contest. The researcher was satisfied that the favoured images selected for these conditions were fit for purpose, and so moved these images forward to the next stage.

However the results for the non-erotic image with a dominant female (NEFD) were less decisive; whilst the other three conditions had very obvious victors, this condition appeared to have two images coming to the fore instead of just one. The researcher therefore investigated the comments left by participants; a selection of these comments can be found in Appendix 6.5.3. Participants' comments made it clear that Image A was the favourite in terms of the male's expression and overall posing, but that the female character was not as strong in Image A as she appeared in other images. Image C portrayed the female as more powerful, but the male's posing was not as favourable. These notes allowed the researcher to make an informed judgement; it was decided that a composite image transposing the female from Image C onto Image A would yield the best result. Both of these original images as well as the composite image are displayed together in Appendix 6.2. This completed the set of four requisite images, and the winning selection was then prepared before use in the final experiment; the final images are visible in Appendix 6.3).

3.5.2 Image Preparation

Image preparation was conducted using Adobe Photoshop. An expert was engaged to manipulate the aforementioned images for the non-erotic female dominant image. This effectively created a composite image comprised of the female depicted in Image C, and the male from Image A (see Appendix 6.2). All images from other categories had already received minor editing by the photographer in order to ensure optimal image quality and consistency.

At this point, all images were deemed of a suitably high standard to realistically represent advertisements. With the final images selected, the researcher was able to add text in order to more accurately give the appearance of an advertisement. This text varied slightly in order to stay consistent with the manipulation in question. Advice was taken from the researchers' supervisor with regards to final text used. This was as follows in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Text Used In Manipulation Conditions

Condition	Brand Name	Slogan
Non erotic, dominant male	Mars	The new fragrance for men
Non erotic, dominant female	Venus	The new fragrance for women
Eroticised, dominant male	Mars	Be in control. Be irresistible. The new fragrance for men.
Eroticised, dominant female	Venus	Be in control. Be irresistible. The new fragrance for women.

The decision was taken to emphasise the dominant gender as if that same gender were the target audience. This has been the common pattern as evidenced throughout the literature review and in the exemplars (see Appendix 6.14). Further, the eroticism of the last two images was emphasised in the text by drawing attention to the themes of dominance and sexuality. The final images are visible in Appendix 6.3.

3.6 Questionnaire Development

3.6.1 Independent Variables

3.6.1.1 Gender of Dominant Character [Dominance]

Each advertisement contained a single male and female character. As one or other was portrayed as being more dominant depending on the condition participants were being exposed to, a single-item measure was created to judge which character was perceived as being more dominant. This was measured on a sliding scale, which allowed participants to indicate the extent to which they thought either gender held more control. This was preferable to a Likert scale measure for several reasons. The researcher wanted to avoid leading participants in any way and so aimed to structure the measure as a question, rather than a statement to be agreed or disagreed with. A Likert measure in which labels were given for each point would have been inconsistent with the measures used for the rest of the questionnaire, and would not have allowed for the same amount of variation in answers. The measure that was used is shown below in Figure 3.1. This demonstrates that participants were able to place the slider anywhere on the continuum to indicate whether they thought the male or female character was portrayed as being more dominant, or whether they were approximately even.

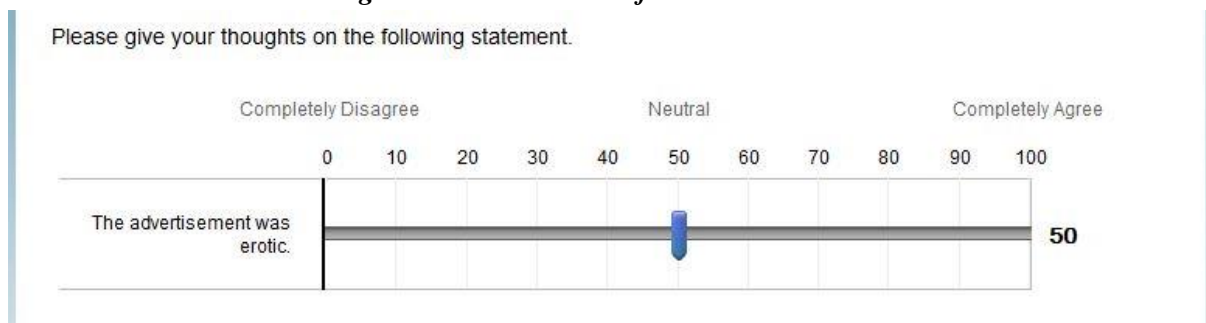
Figure 3.1: Screenshot Of Dominance Measure



3.6.1.2 Level of Eroticism [Eroticism]

While levels of eroticism have been classified and sometimes categorised by previous scholars (Pope et al, 2004), the literature review demonstrates that this is a difficult variable to measure (see Section 2.2). In keeping with the Dominance variable in Section 3.6.1.1, a single-item measure was created to investigate the extent to which participants perceived an image as erotic. As outlined above, this was designed to give participants a greater range of expression regarding how eroticised they found the advertisement, and was in keeping with the Dominance measure on the same screen of the final experiment. The Eroticism measure is depicted in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2: Screenshot Of Eroticism Measure



3.6.1.3 Participant Gender Identity [Gender Identity]

The gender identity of each participant was measured as a demographic variable, however due to the likelihood that this would be a covariate in the present research, efforts were taken to ensure that there would be comparable numbers of male and female participants within each condition. As demonstrated in Sections 2.4 and 2.6, it was hypothesized that factors such as the gender of a participant could have an impact on their reaction to the images in question, and their perceptions of sexual consent. Therefore gender was recorded at the opening of the final questionnaire, and participants were assigned conditions accordingly.

Because of the importance of gender to the present study and its complex relationship with sexual orientation, it was very important to the researcher that any line of questioning pertaining to gender identity was conducted in a sensitive and inclusive manner. As such, the measure used to record

gender (as depicted in Figure 3.3) included an option for those with non-binary gender identities, and those who wished to with-hold gender information.

Figure 3.3: Screenshot Of Participant Gender Measure

Please indicate which gender you identify with

Male

Female

Non traditional (please specify)

Prefer not to say

3.6.2 Dependent Variables

3.6.2.1 Attitudes Toward The Advertisement [AAd]

To measure participants’ attitude toward the advertisement, the present research adapted the scale created by MacKenzie and Lutz (1989). The original measure took the form of three semantic differential scales: “good/bad, pleasant/unpleasant, and favorable/unfavorable” (p. 58). This particular scale was chosen over others due to the presence of items considered irrelevant to the present research that were present in several other existing scales; for instance, informative (Biehal, Stephens, & Curlo, 1992), creative (Biehal et al., 1992), agreeable and satisfactory (Veer & Shankar, 2010). Due to the length of the forthcoming consent measures, a concise scale was desired. These three-item semantic differentials were adapted to the first three Likert items in Table 3.5. An additional single-item measure for overall liking was also included in case the MacKenzie and Lutz (1989) scale was insufficient. This is included below as item AAd4.

Table 3.5: Attitude Toward The Ad Likert Items

	Likert Items
AAd1	The advertisement was good.
AAd2	The advertisement was favorable.
AAd3	The advertisement was pleasant.
AAd4	I liked this advertisement.

3.6.2.2 ‘Objectionable’ Measure For Advertisements [AdOb]

Widing et al. (1991) created a scale to serve as a “measure of general reactions and refers to whether subjects personally object to the use of sexual embeds in advertising” (p. 4) – thus it was deemed highly applicable to the present research. The scale was comprised of three semantic differential items; “Very Objectionable-Not at All Objectionable; Not at All Offensive-Very Offensive (reverse scored); Very Unethical-Not at All Unethical” (Widing et al., 1991, p. 4). These three-item semantic differentials were adapted to the three Likert items in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Objections To The Ad Scale

	Likert Items
AdOb1	The advertisement was offensive.
AdOb2	The advertisement was objectionable.
AdOb3	The advertisement was ethical [reverse coded].

3.6.2.3 Purchase Intention [PI]

Due to the large number of studies investigating the relationship between attitudes toward the ad and brand and/or purchase intention (Bello et al., 1983; Henthorne & LaTour, 1995; Lundstrom & Sciglimpaglia, 1977; Orth & Holancova, 2004; Pope et al., 2004), it was considered appropriate to include a measure relating to purchase intention. However as this was not a focal point of the present study, a single-item measure as shown in Table 4.7 was considered sufficient.

Table 3.7: Purchase Intention Measure

	Likert Items
PI	I would buy this product after seeing this advertisement.

3.6.2.4 Sexual Consent

Humphreys and Brousseau (2010) created a scale for the purpose of measuring sexual consent that was utilised in the present study. The full scale is available in Appendix 6.7. Due to the length of the scale, the researcher sought to include the most relevant items to the present research. Four of the five subscales were included, although the Consent Awareness subscale was placed alongside the demographic items, separately to the other three subscales. This is partially because consent awareness was considered less crucial to the study, and partially due to the fact the questions were more factual and somewhat less personal than some of the items in other subscales. The items used in the final questionnaire are detailed in Table 3.8.

3.6.3 Demographic Measures

Six measures designed to collect demographic data were incorporated into the research. These include asking participants about their age bracket, marital status, sexual orientation, ethnicity, and country of residence, with an extra question to record State of Residence if the participant indicated they lived in the United States. These measures are depicted in screenshots of the final questionnaire, as shown in Appendix 6.8.

Table 3.8: Sexual Consent Subscales (Humphreys & Brousseau, 2010)

Likert Items

Subscale: Positive Attitude Toward Establishing Consent

- CAtt1 I feel that sexual consent should always be obtained before the start of any sexual activity.
- CAtt2 I believe that asking for sexual consent is in my best interest because it reduces any misinterpretations that might arise.
- CAtt3 I think it is equally important to obtain sexual consent in all relationships regardless of whether or not they have had sex before.
- CAtt4 I feel that verbally asking for sexual consent should occur before proceeding with any sexual activity.
- CAtt5 When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have sexual consent.
- CAtt6 I believe that it is just as necessary to obtain consent for genital fondling as it is for sexual intercourse.
- CAtt7 Most people that I care about feel that asking for sexual consent is something I should do.
- CAtt8 I think that consent should be asked before any kind of sexual behavior, including kissing or petting.
- CAtt9 I feel it is the responsibility of both partners to make sure sexual consent is established before sexual activity begins.
- CAtt10 Before making sexual advances, I think that one should assume "no" until there is clear indication to proceed.
- CAtt11 Not asking for sexual consent some of the time is okay [Reverse coded].

Subscale: Indirect Behavioural Approach To Consent

- CBeh1 Typically I communicate sexual consent to my partner using nonverbal signals and body language.
- CBeh2 It is easy to accurately read my current (or most recent) partner's nonverbal signals as indicating consent or non-consent to sexual activity.
- CBeh3 Typically I ask for consent by making a sexual advance and waiting for a reaction, so I know whether or not to continue.
- CBeh4 I don't have to ask or give my partner sexual consent because my partner knows me well enough.
- CBeh5 I don't have to ask or give my partner sexual consent because I have a lot of trust in my partner to "do the right thing".
- CBeh6 I always verbally ask for consent before I initiate a sexual encounter [Reverse coded].

Subscale: Sexual Consent Norms

- CNor1 I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a new relationship than in a committed relationship.
- CNor2 I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a casual sexual encounter than in a committed relationship.
- CNor3 I believe that the need for asking for sexual consent decreases as the length of an intimate relationship increases.
- CNor4 I believe it is enough to ask for consent at the beginning of a sexual encounter.
- CNor5 I believe that sexual intercourse is the only sexual activity that requires explicit verbal consent.
- CNor6 I believe that partners are less likely to ask for sexual consent the longer they are in a relationship.
- CNor7 If consent for sexual intercourse is established, petting and fondling can be assumed.

Subscale: Awareness And Discussion

- CAwa1 I have discussed sexual consent issues with a friend.
- CAwa2 I have heard sexual consent issues being discussed by other students on campus.
- CAwa3 I have discussed sexual consent issues with my current (or most recent) partner at times other than during sexual encounters.
- CAwa4 I have not given much thought to the topic of sexual consent [Reverse coded].

3.7 Experimental Procedure

3.7.1 Recruitment of Participants

The questionnaire was administered through Qualtrics and distributed through Mechanical Turk. Respondents were required to be over 18 for ethical purposes. An age check was placed at the beginning of the questionnaire; this was designed to filter out anyone who indicated they were underage and thank them for their interest in participating. Mechanical Turk workers were eligible to complete the questionnaire provided they had an acceptance rating higher than 95%; this maximised the chances of attracting trustworthy and reliable participants. Due to the conditions associated with becoming a member of Mechanical Turk, it was anticipated that the vast majority of respondents would be located in the United States – as such, the spelling in the questionnaire is based on American norms. As the questionnaire pertained largely to attitudes toward consent in general, it was considered fit to distribute to the general population, rather than navigating the ethical minefield associated with asking participants about their personal sexual history. It was discussed in Chapter Two that there was a strong chance that gender would be a significant covariate in the study; however, in order to remain inclusive and sensitive to the possibility that some participants might identify as non-binary, there were no specified gender quotas listed as Mechanical Turk requirements.

3.7.2 Ethical Considerations

Due to the relatively high levels of risk associated with discussing sex-related issues, strict care was taken with all ethical considerations. The research was conducted in accordance with the guidelines provided by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee; the approval letter distributed by the same body is displayed in Appendix 6.9. The discussion below highlights the key ethical considerations taken during each stage of the research.

3.7.2.1 Image Creation

At this point in the research, due care was taken with regards to the safety of and information provided to both models and the photographer. All three parties were fully informed of the nature of the research, including the types of images the researcher was seeking to portray, the contexts these would be displayed in, and the number of people who might view said images. This was a discussion that took place prior to obtaining consent, to ensure that in addition to the provided information sheet, the models in particular had a complete understanding and therefore were able to give informed consent. All three parties were given the right to remain anonymous if they elected to do so. It was also made clear that while it was possible to withdraw the images generated up until a certain point in the research, once the questionnaire was launched, it would not be possible to retract due to participants already having viewed selected images. Both models and the photographer acknowledged these conditions before consenting and were happy to proceed. Their signed consent forms are visible in Appendix 6.11.

3.7.2.2 Pre-Study - Image Survey

Participants for this portion of the pre-study were recruited through convenience sampling; therefore, many of the participants knew the researcher prior to entering the questionnaire and had the opportunity to ask any questions they may have desired. At the first available opportunity, participants were shown an information sheet pertaining to the research and asked to read through it. This outlined the participants' role in the research, and included details about the type of images that would be displayed in the subsequent questionnaire. Participants were asked that if they were likely to be offended or made uncomfortable by sexualised images, they should please consider leaving the questionnaire without entering. It was highlighted that they could exit at any time without penalty if they began to feel uncomfortable. Resources pertaining to consent and sexual assault support were also provided.

It was made clear throughout this information sheet that participation was voluntary, and that participants could withdraw at any time without penalty. Respondents were given the right to withdraw data as long as it remained practically achievable, but were warned that as data was collected anonymously this would only be possible if they elected to submit their name alongside their data. It was also noted that demographic information would be collected. The possibility of the data being referenced in publication was outlined to ensure participants were aware of the scope of the research; this sentiment was echoed throughout subsequent stages of the experiment. All of this information was provided upon first entering the window in which the questionnaire was then conducted. This fulfilled the 'informed' condition of consent; respondents were also required to check a box indicating their consent before being able to proceed, which also ensured their consent was both active and anonymous.

At the close of the questionnaire, participants were given the option to provide their name and contact details if they wished to allow the researchers to contact them regarding their responses. They were reminded that the questionnaire would remain anonymous unless they elected to do this. The information sheet for the pre-study is available in Appendix 6.4.

3.7.2.3 Pre-Test

In a similar fashion to the pre-study, participants for the pre-test were recruited through convenience sampling and therefore had the opportunity to ask questions of the researcher outside of the questionnaire. The first screen of the questionnaire displayed a short preamble. This outlined that this particular questionnaire served as a pre-test and was thus almost identical to the final questionnaire that would be launched for the present study, but with the addition of text entry fields on each page. This allowed participants to comment on anything they did not understand. The second page of the questionnaire included a detailed information sheet. Details for this can be found below in Section 3.7.2.4, as this information sheet was largely identical to the information sheet for the final study. It

should be noted that the information sheet for the pre-test included sexual assault support resources specific to New Zealand, as well as those given for U.S participants. This is because a number of respondents were expected to be from these two countries, due to the convenience method of sampling. These resources were repeated during the debrief information provided at the close of the questionnaire.

Active, informed, anonymous consent was gained in the same manner as discussed above in Section 3.7.2.2; following the information sheet, participants were required to check a box to indicate their consent before they continued. Screenshots associated with the pre-test consent information are displayed in Appendix 6.6.1.

3.7.2.4 Final Experiment

On the first page of the experiment, a detailed information sheet was provided. This discussed the purpose of the research and what the respondent's role would involve. This included warning participants that they may be exposed to material containing sexual themes and/or dominance, and that the researchers would prefer they navigate away from the questionnaire if they were uncomfortable with these constructs. United States-based resources were outlined for any participants that felt they might like to seek further information or assistance; these resources were repeated during the debriefing information at the close of the questionnaire.

It was emphasised that participation in the experiment was voluntary, that respondents could withdraw at any time, and that they would not be penalised for this. It was also explained that because the data collected would be stored as anonymous aggregated data, it would not be possible to withdraw once the information was submitted. Participants were again made aware of the possibility that the results might be published, but that they would not be identifiable in any way.

As discussed previously, the researcher aimed to achieve informed, active, anonymous consent. As such a checkbox was provided after the information sheet, which had to be checked by participants before they elected to continue. The final experiment also took the extra step of including a checkbox to confirm that participants were 18 or over. As stated above, debriefing text at the end of the experiment outlined resources available to participants in case they should they need assistance or more information. These checks are visible throughout the screenshots of the experiment available in Appendix 6.8.

3.7.3 Online Experiment

The final experiment was conducted online; it was hosted on Qualtrics and disseminated by Mechanical Turk. The nature of the online medium meant that participants were able to access the questionnaire at their leisure, in a situation of their choosing, although they were asked not to undertake it on mobile devices. Mechanical Turk workers were required to have an acceptance rate

greater than 95% for previous work in order to participate in the questionnaire; this ensured that participants were more likely to complete the work in a reliable manner.

The final experiment involved exposing respondents to one of five conditions, followed by a series of questions. The material contained within the questionnaire is described in sections below according to the screens that were displayed to participants. All of these screens are visible in screenshots displayed throughout Appendix 6.8.

3.7.3.1 Screen One – Ethical Information

The first screen of the experiment consisted of the information sheet pertaining to the study, and a subsequent check to ensure participants consented to taking part in the research. The ethical information contained in the information sheet has been discussed in detail in Section 3.7.2 above, in particular in Section 3.7.2.4. Participants then clicked the arrow button to proceed to the next screen.

3.7.3.2 Screen Two – Age & Gender Check

This screen displayed an age check, and in the case of the second launch of the experiment, a gender identity check. This helped to facilitate sorting participants more evenly into conditions. If participants indicated they were not 18 or over, or their gender was no longer needed, a closing message as outlined in Section 3.7.3.13 thanked them for their interest but explained that the researcher was not currently in need of participants from their demographic. Respondents who were not filtered out progressed to the next stage once they pressed the arrow button to continue.

3.7.3.3 Screen Three – Condition Assignment

At this point in the experiment, participants were assigned to one of the five experimental conditions. Those respondents assigned to the control group at this point received a screen with a small amount of filler text as their third screen, indicating that the following page would contain questions pertaining to sexual consent and reminding them that they could exit at any time. Upon pressing the arrow button to continue, these participants were moved forward to Screen Seven (Section 3.7.3.7 below).

For those participants assigned to an image manipulation condition, Screen Three included a small portion of preamble text to prepare them for exposure to the image. This included informing them that they would need to view the image for at least 14 seconds before the arrow button would appear and allow them to continue. Participants at this point pressed the arrow button to proceed.

3.7.3.4 Screen Four – Manipulation Image Exposure

Screen Four displayed the manipulated image for those participants being exposed to any condition other than the control. This was one of four possible images designed by the researcher to look like standard advertisements. The arrow button was designed to appear only after 14 seconds, to ensure

participants looked at the advertisement for a suitable length of time. Respondents could then progress to the manipulation checks.

3.7.3.5 Screen Five – Manipulation Checks

This screen displayed two single-item manipulation checks for those participants who were exposed to an image. These items were sliding scales that measured which character was perceived as more dominant within the image, and how erotic participants found the image. Participants could then press the arrow button to continue.

3.7.3.6 Screen Six – Image-Related Items

Screen Six displayed nine Likert items for participants to answer. This included scales pertaining to participants' attitudes toward the advertisement, how objectionable they found the image, a measure of purchase intention, and an attention check. Participants who failed the attention check were directed to an alternative closing message as described in Section 3.7.3.13 after pressing the arrow button. All other participants progressed to the next stage involving questions surrounding consent.

3.7.3.7 Screen Seven – Attitude Toward Establishing Consent Subscale

This screen required participants to answer a series of questions relating to sexual consent – specifically, those items in the subscale pertaining to 'positive attitude toward establishing sexual consent', as shown in Table 3.8. These took the form of seven point Likert scales. Embedded within these questions was a second attention check which would direct participants to the end of their session if they did not pass. Those participants who did pass the attention check were moved on to the next page of consent questions upon clicking the arrow button.

3.7.3.8 Screen Eight – Behavioural Approach To Consent Subscale

Screen Eight involved participants responding to six items describing their Indirect Behavioural Approach to Sexual Consent. These questions were framed in the same format as the previous page, taking the form of seven point Likert items. Participants then progressed to a final page of consent-related questions.

3.7.3.9 Screen Nine – Perceptions Of Sexual Consent Norms Subscale

Screen Nine consisted of eight items in keeping with the previous two pages, displaying questions in a seven point Likert format. Seven of these questions made up the 'Perceptions of Consent Norms' subscale listed in Table 3.8, with the addition of an embedded attention check. As before, any participants who passed the attention check would progress to the next screen upon pressing the arrow button; any participants who failed the attention check would be directed to an end of session message as described in Section 3.7.3.13.

3.7.3.10 Screen Ten – Demographic Items 1

At this stage, respondents were asked a series of questions designed to collect demographic information. This page of the questionnaire included items pertaining to participants' gender identity, age bracket, ethnicity, and country of residence. This line of questioning carried over onto the next screen once participants elected to continue.

3.7.3.11 Screen Eleven - Demographic Items 2, Sexual Consent Awareness Subscale

Screen Eleven involved the collection of some final demographic information, before displaying the Consent Awareness subscale for participants to respond to. The first question asked participants to pick from a list of options describing their relationship status; following this, participants were presented with a slider on which to indicate their sexual orientation. This was designed to avoid labels where possible – instead the slider went from 0 at one end to indicate that participants were attracted to their own gender, to 100 at the opposite end to indicate that they were attracted to the opposite gender. This allowed respondents to place themselves at any point along this continuum. A checkbox was also provided in case participants preferred not to answer, alongside a text entry box in case they wished to specify their orientation in more detail.

The Consent Awareness subscale is displayed in Table 3.8 above. This was presented as four items on seven-point Likert scales. Participants could press the arrow button to continue at this point.

3.7.3.12 Screen Twelve - Debriefing Information

Screen Twelve displayed a small amount of information which reiterated the support resources given on the first page of the questionnaire. A text entry box was then provided for participants to enter their Mechanical Turk Worker ID, in order to receive a small amount of compensation for their time. This brought participants to the close of the questionnaire.

3.7.3.13 Error And Alternate Closing Messages

Two alternate closing messages were created in case of participants being filtered out of the experiment. The first of these was a short message stating that the participant was either outside of the demographics currently required, or that the researcher had received enough responses for that particular condition. This was designed to trigger if participants were under 18, or if gender quotas had been met. The second message was to inform participants if they failed an attention check; as these respondents had already been exposed to a manipulation, the support resources from the information sheet were reiterated here, and participants were thanked for their time.

Error messages were generated throughout the questionnaire in two cases. Firstly, if participants did not answer a question that was marked as requiring an answer, they would receive a bolded message in red asking them to provide an answer before the questionnaire could progress. This would only occur in instances where questions had a 'Prefer not to say' option which could be selected – this

encouraged a more complete set of answers. The second instance involved a pop-up dialogue box indicating that there were a number of unanswered questions on the page. This was primarily used for pages containing consent scales as these did not include a 'Prefer not to say' option. Participants could select from the dialogue box whether they wished to proceed with questions unanswered, or to go back and select an answer before continuing.

3.7.3.14 End Of Session Messages

The final screen for the majority of participants conveyed a short closing message. This thanked participants for their time, and reiterated the researchers' contact details in case respondents had any questions or wished to request a copy of any documents produced as a result of the experiment.

3.8 Sample Size Considerations

A minimum sample size of 50 cases per condition was recommended by Hair et al. (2006). With five conditions operationalised in the present study, this would have required a minimum of 250 participants. However, due to the likelihood that gender identity would be a significant covariate, the decision was made to double this estimate in order to increase the chances of attracting even numbers of female and male participants. Therefore, a guideline of 500 participants was set for the final experiment.

3.9 Pre-Test

A pre-test of the experiment was run prior to main data collection. This took the same form as the final experiment as it was administered through Qualtrics, but was disseminated through social media rather than Mechanical Turk. This was for several reasons. Pre-testing confirmed that the online experiment was fully functional and easily understood by respondents. The inclusion of designated text entry fields on each page allowed participants to make comments on anything they did not understand or found ambiguous. It also provided insight into the ease of analysis after examining the resultant data; following this, some question types were altered slightly in order to improve the functionality of the data. This included changing the image-related questions from sliders back to Likert items in order to maintain consistency with the rest of the questionnaire, and streamlining the flow of the survey so that data was collected more cleanly, without altering the user experience. However the chief purpose of the pre-test was to examine the effectiveness of the Dominance and Eroticism manipulations. The results of these manipulation checks are discussed in Section 3.9.2.

3.9.1 Pre-Test Sample

As the purpose of this pre-test was largely to check functionality and participant understanding, a large sample size was not considered strictly necessary. Participants were recruited through social media using a combination of convenience and snowball sampling. This allowed the researcher to reach out to potential respondents living in the United States, which was a consideration given that

most members of Mechanical Turk would fall into this same category. This method of sampling also allowed for participants outside of a university context; if recruitment had taken place through University channels this would have been a narrow sample compared to the wide variety of participants that was generated through Mechanical Turk for the final experiment.

Data collection for the pre-test took place in January 2015. 54 participants began the questionnaire by following a link onto Qualtrics and landing on the information sheet page. Because partial data was still useful in conducting the manipulation checks described in Section 3.9.2, as many as 43 of these cases contributed useful data. However there were a number of withdrawals, as summarised below in Table 3.9; 36 participants submitted complete data which included viewing the debriefing text at the close of the experiment.

Table 3.9: Summary Of Pre-Test Withdrawn Responses

Point of Withdrawal	N	Proportion
Prior to granting consent	5	27.8%
Prior to image/control text exposure	4	22.2%
Prior to image questions	1	5.6%
Prior to consent questions	4	22.2%
During demographic questions	1	5.6%
Prior to debriefing text	3	16.7%
Total Withdrawals	18	100%

3.9.2 Manipulation Checks

As stated above, the key purpose of the pre-test was to verify the information collected in the pre-study questionnaire regarding which images were most appropriate for each condition. Two items were included in the pre-test to measure the two manipulated variables; these were measured on a slider ranging from zero to 100. The first question asked which character seemed more dominant, with ‘Male’ at one end associated with zero, ‘Equal’ in the middle of the scale, and ‘Female’ at the opposite end associated with 100. A checkbox labelled ‘Could Not Tell’ was included at the end of the scale. The second item was placed alongside a group of questions all displayed on sliders with ‘Completely Disagree’ associated with zero, ‘Neutral’ in the middle, and ‘Completely Agree’ at the 100 mark. This was a statement reading ‘The advertisement was erotic’, meaning the participant could move the slider depending on the extent to which they found the statement to be true or false. For both items, the slider was automatically positioned in the centre as a starting point, so as not to unduly influence respondents’ decisions.

Independent Samples T-Tests were used to check the effectiveness of these two manipulated variables. Due to the small sample size, analysis was run on all cases which contained data for these two measures. This resulted in a slightly smaller number of cases in the NEFD condition, with seven

as opposed to the nine cases in each of the other four conditions. However, significant results were found for both of the tests conducted. One Independent Samples T-Test compared means of the conditions with a dominant male character to those conditions with a dominant female character; a second test compared the means of the conditions in which eroticism was present to those in which no eroticism was demonstrated. The results of these tests are displayed in Tables 3.10 and 3.11.

Table 3.10: Descriptive Statistics For Pre-Test Eroticism And Dominance Variable Measures

Manipulation	Mean	Std Dev
<i>Dominance (0 = MD, 100 = FD)</i>		
Male	25.94	19.72
Female	83.47	16.68
<i>Eroticism (0 = Completely Disagree, 100 = Completely Agree)</i>		
Not Present	25.81	21.40
Present	56.53	18.83

Table 3.11: t-test Results For Pre-Test Eroticism And Dominance Variable Measures

Manipulation	t	sig
Dominant Character	-8.94 ^a	0.000
Eroticism	-4.39 ^b	0.000

a. Equal variances assumed - Levene's test F = 0.080, p = .779

a. Equal variances assumed - Levene's test F = 0.868, p = .359

These tests demonstrated that the differences between means were statistically significant for both variables, thus suggesting that the manipulations were successful and validating the evidence utilised from the pre-study.

3.9.3 Pre-Test Adjustments

A small number of alterations to the questionnaire were made following the pre-test results. Some of these took into account the comments that were left by respondents to the pre-test, whilst some were instigated by the researcher. Changes instigated by the researcher were primarily to streamline the data collection process. This included an increased understanding of survey flow functions in Qualtrics, a more appropriate use of randomization when structuring questions and survey blocks, and understanding how these features could be used more efficiently. These changes did not affect the user experience as participants had not reported any difficulty in using the questionnaire. It was also noted by the researcher that certain methods of data collection made more logical sense than others; in particular, image-related questions which had been presented on sliders in order to appear consistent with the manipulation checks were changed back to their much more effective Likert format, in keeping with the consent scale measures. While this change benefitted the researcher, it was also

mentioned by participants that the Likert measures were easier to follow and give an opinion on than the sliding measures.

Some comments that were made by participants referred to the scales used, or more specifically, the terms used within those scales. With regard to image-related questions, the terms ‘favorable’ and ‘ethical’ were queried; as with many other terms in this questionnaire, it was expected that there would be some variation between participants as to what these terms entail specifically – it was theorised that the larger sample generated from the final experiment would help to average out any differences. However the main area of contention, as demonstrated through comments, was the consent scale itself.

Comments relating to the consent scale included a number of queries. A list of some of the most pertinent comments are included in Appendix 6.6.3; subjects included the difference between ‘regular’ sex and activities such as BDSM, the difference between one-night stands versus relationships, and the distinctions involved between verbal and non-verbal consent. These were some valid points, which would merit further qualitative research. The researcher considered the comments given carefully, but overall elected to stay with the proven scale – similarly to the image related queries above, it was expected that there would be variation in the ways respondents interpreted the questions. This is part of the natural variation that was anticipated in data collection.

One participant did mention a possible misinterpretation of the sexual orientation slider measure. They pointed out that it could be interpreted as being 0% attracted to the same sex at one end, and 100% attracted to the opposite sex at the other end. This was discussed in depth between the researcher and her supervisor; ultimately they decided that as only one participant had raised any issues with this that the measure was as clear as possible whilst still being as inclusive as possible. The inclusion of a text entry box allowed for participants in the final experiment that wished to expand on or clarify their answer.

Overall, the researcher remained satisfied that minimal confusion would arise throughout the questionnaire and was happy to proceed with minor changes as discussed.

3.10 Scale Reliability

A full factor analysis was not undertaken for this pre-test data for two reasons. Firstly, the very small sample did not meet Hair et al.’s (2006) recommendations of a minimum of 50 observations before conducting a factor analysis. Secondly, the convenience method of recruiting participants meant that the sample was highly unlikely to have an even distribution. This second point is evidenced in the descriptive statistics pertaining to skewness and kurtosis below. Table 3.12 demonstrates these statistics for items which make up the consent scale as devised by Humphreys and Brousseau (2010); each darker horizontal line indicates the division of a subscale (please refer to Appendix 6.7 for more

detail). This table demonstrates that a number of subscales are skewed to the right, indicating a tendency to agree with the above statements. The high results for the kurtosis measure in some items are likely to reflect the demographic similarities of the sample.

Skewness and kurtosis statistics are reported in Table 3.13. As is evident from this table, all variables exhibited values outside of the ideal parameters for one or both of these measures. For instance, the kurtosis value of 9.391 for participant ages reflects that almost 70% of the sample fell within the 22-25 age bracket (see pre-test sample demographics in Appendix 6.6.2). These measures were expected to fall within acceptable levels for the main study as the recruitment process was more likely to attract a more varied range of participants.

Table 3.12: Skewness And Kurtosis Measures For Consent Scale Items

Scale Item	Mean	Std Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
I feel that sexual consent should always be obtained before the start of any sexual activity	5.55	1.260	-1.252	3.096
I believe that asking for sexual consent is in my best interest because it reduces any misinterpretations that might arise	5.55	1.431	-1.348	1.982
I think it is equally important to obtain sexual consent in all relationships regardless of whether or not they have had sex before	5.85	1.122	-.951	.406
I feel that verbally asking for sexual consent should occur before proceeding with any sexual activity	4.33	1.639	-.518	-.378
When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have sexual consent	4.85	1.562	-.589	-.181
I believe that it is just as necessary to obtain consent for genital fondling as it is for sexual intercourse	6.15	1.350	-2.194	5.200
Most people that I care about feel that asking for sexual consent is something I should do	5.45	1.319	-.697	-.259
I think that consent should be asked before any kind of sexual behavior, including kissing or petting	4.50	1.695	-.416	-.745
I feel it is the responsibility of both partners to make sure sexual consent is established before sexual activity begins	6.30	.853	-.896	-.250
Before making sexual advances, I think that one should assume “no” until there is clear indication to proceed	5.83	1.259	-1.521	2.583
Not asking for sexual consent some of the time is okay	4.03	1.747	-.435	-.947
Typically I communicate sexual consent to my partner using nonverbal signals and body language	6.05	1.319	-2.141	5.234
It is easy to accurately read my current (or most recent) partner’s nonverbal signals as indicating consent or non-consent to sexual activity	5.75	1.373	-1.776	3.609
Typically I ask for consent by making a sexual advance and waiting for a reaction, so I know whether or not to continue	5.48	1.281	-1.676	3.737
I don’t have to ask or give my partner sexual consent because my partner knows me well enough	4.68	1.575	-.216	-.863
I don’t have to ask or give my partner sexual consent	4.63	1.480	-.307	-.331

because I have a lot of trust in my partner to “do the right thing”				
I always verbally ask for consent before I initiate a sexual encounter	3.45	1.811	.480	-1.163
I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a new relationship than in a committed relationship	4.75	1.891	-.745	-.471
I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a casual sexual encounter than in a committed relationship	4.95	1.947	-.957	-.131
I believe that the need for asking for sexual consent decreases as the length of an intimate relationship increases	4.58	1.738	-.503	-.694
I believe it is enough to ask for consent at the beginning of a sexual encounter	4.20	1.400	-.435	-.167
I believe that sexual intercourse is the only sexual activity that requires explicit verbal consent	2.33	1.207	.527	-.648
I believe that partners are less likely to ask for sexual consent the longer they are in a relationship	5.90	1.105	-1.115	.828
If consent for sexual intercourse is established, petting and fondling can be assumed	5.93	.917	-.897	1.337
I have discussed sexual consent issues with a friend	4.36	2.058	-.341	-1.413
I have heard sexual consent issues being discussed by other students on campus	3.82	1.833	-.072	-1.265
I have discussed sexual consent issues with my current (or most recent) partner at times other than during sexual encounters	4.51	2.126	-.634	-1.172
I have not given much thought to the topic of sexual consent	3.38	1.786	.228	-1.125

Table 3.13: Skewness And Kurtosis Measures For Demographics

Demographic Variables	Mean	Std Dev	Skewness	Kurtosis
Gender Identity	1.45	.504	.209	-2.062
Age Bracket	2.00	.679	2.066	9.391
Ethnicity	2.05	2.320	2.115	3.209
Country Of Residence	120.23	45.351	-1.380	2.208
Sexual Orientation	84.7297	28.79299	-2.162	3.817

3.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter has focused on the quantitative research design developed to test the hypotheses laid out in Chapter Two. It began by discussing the research design, before moving toward an in-depth discussion surrounding the creation of stimuli to be used in the final experiment. This was followed by an outline of the steps taken in the pre-study in order to select the images that would be used in the manipulated conditions. A pre-test then validated the decisions made pertaining to these same images. The development of the questionnaire itself was discussed; the practical implications of this were then made clear by investigating the experimental procedure including participant recruitment, ethical considerations taken, and the functionality of the online experiment. Finally, a discussion of the pre-

test outlined procedures taken prior to launching the final experiment, including the successful validation of the manipulated conditions and explanations pertaining to any alterations made before the main study was disseminated.

4 ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to present the statistical analyses undertaken as a result of the data collected. First, a discussion around the sample size and composition gives the dataset context. An investigation of the reliability and structure of the scales used then follows. At this point manipulation checks were undertaken, to determine the effectiveness of the Eroticism and Dominance variables. Following these checks, statistical analyses relating directly to the hypotheses established in Chapter Two were undertaken. This included analyses of covariance and correlations. This series of analysis leads into the discussion in Chapter Five.

4.2 Sample Size & Composition

4.2.1 Sample Size

Data collection took place in two rounds; the first of these took place on the 10th of April 2015, the second on the 8th of May 2015. The first round of results garnered 222 responses, followed by a second round once the researchers were satisfied that all points of the questionnaire were functioning optimally. The second round garnered another 653 responses, making a total of 875 responses, although 263 of these exited out before reading the information sheet. Therefore for the purposes of this research, the number of responses was recorded as 612.

Participant drop-off rate occurred as follows. Ten participants exited the survey without being sorted into a condition; another sixteen were sorted into a condition but exited before they were exposed to the manipulation for said condition (4 NEMD, 3 NEFD, 4 EMD, 1 EFD, 4 Control group). Only two participants saw an image and then did not progress; eight participants exited after the image questions and therefore did not give responses for the consent questions. Sixteen participants exited during the consent question stage; seven during the demographics and consent awareness stage.

Table 4.1: Summary of Participants Who Did Not Complete Main Experiment

Exit Section	Number	Percentage
Information and Consent	10	14.9%
Condition Exposure	16	23.9%
Image Questions	2	3.0%
Consent Questions	24	35.8%
Demographics	7	10.4%
Debriefing Text	8	11.9%
Total	67	100%

While there were eight participants who did not view the final page involving the debriefing message and requiring their worker ID, the decision was made to keep these cases in the final dataset, as they

had received all appropriate information at the opening of the experiment, consented to continue, and given all other necessary data. However a further 25 participants were filtered out during the questionnaire for failing attention checks. Six cases were removed in which participants preferred not to disclose their gender identity or identified with a non-traditional gender. This left a dataset of 522 responses. Each condition therefore had the following number of cases:

Table 4.2: Number Of Participants Per Condition

Condition	Frequency	Percent
Control	110	21.1
NEMD	104	19.9
NEFD	99	19.0
EMD	99	19.0
EFD	110	21.1
Total	522	100%

4.2.2 Sample Composition

Descriptive statistics were used to explore the demographic characteristics of the sample. These provided information on the composition of the sample; figures are reported in Table 4.3. Key amongst these findings was the gender divide of 60.3% males and 39.7% females. 217 participants (41.6%) were aged 18 to 29; another 230 participants (44.1%) ranged from 30 to 45, with the remaining 75 (14.4%) over age 45. Participants predominantly identified as white or Caucasian (73.8%), with the next highest groups being Asian (10.7%), Hispanic or Latino (5.7%), and African American (4.6%). As expected, the vast majority of participants resided in the United States (96.4%); a breakdown of participants' U.S. State can be found in Appendix 6.12.1. Participants who self-identified as single or dating made up 44.7% of the sample; another 50.7% was comprised of those in long term, live-in, or marital relationships.

Sexual orientation was measured on a continuum and thus has been placed into broad categories for ease of reporting; this is displayed in Table 4.4. The continuum asked participants to place themselves somewhere between 0 – 'Attracted to my own gender' and 100 – 'Attracted to the opposite gender'. A total of 377 participants (72.6%) rated themselves as completely heterosexual; this was reflected in the mean sexual orientation score of 90.47 for the sample. Overall this was considered a sufficiently varied sample going forward. Analysis then took place as follows in Section 4.3 onwards.

4.3 Scale Structure & Reliability

All scales were assessed using Principal Components Analysis and the Cronbach's alpha procedure (Cronbach, 1951) to check their reliability, or internal consistency. This was followed by tests of skewness and kurtosis designed to identify any non-normality and contamination from outliers.

Table 4.3: Breakdown Of Sample Demographic Frequencies & Percentages

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage
Gender Identity	Male	315	60.3%
	Female	207	39.7%
Age	18-21	24	4.6%
	22-25	86	16.5%
	26-29	107	20.5%
	30-33	87	16.7%
	34-37	68	12.9%
	38-41	41	7.9%
	42-45	34	6.5%
	46-49	28	5.4%
	50-53	16	3%
	54-57	11	2.1%
	58-61	10	1.9%
	62-65	5	1.0%
	Over 65	5	1.0%
Ethnicity	White/Caucasian	385	73.8%
	Asian	56	10.7%
	Hispanic/Latino	30	5.7%
	African American	24	4.6%
	Indian	10	1.9%
	Native American	6	1.1%
	Other	5	1.0%
	Prefer not to say	3	0.6%
	Pacific Islander	2	0.4%
	Middle Eastern	1	0.2%
Country of Residence	United States	503	96.4%
	India	18	3.4%
	Russian Federation	1	0.2%
Marital Status	Single	185	35.4%
	Dating	49	9.4%
	Long-term relationship	63	11.9%
	Living with my partner	55	10.5%
	Married	147	28.2%
	Divorced	20	3.8%
	Widowed	3	0.6%
	Prefer not to say	1	0.2%

Table 4.4: Breakdown of Participants' Sexual Orientation Scores

Variable	Score	Frequency	Percentage
Sexual Orientation	0	14	2.7%
	1- 10	5	1%
	11 - 39	12	2.3%
	40 - 60	22	4.2%
	61 -89	33	6.4%
	90 - 99	56	10.8%
	100	377	72.6%
Total	519	100%	

4.3.1 Scale Structure

The method of Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation was used to test the dimensionality of scales. Values lower than 0.4 were suppressed for these analyses. Additionally, items were regarded as cross-loading if they scored 0.5 or more on more than one factor.

Communalities were required to be .5 or higher, in line with recommendations by Hair et al. (2006).

4.3.1.1 Attitude Toward The Advertisement

Attitude Toward The Advertisement was measured using the three item scale established by MacKenzie and Lutz (1989). A single item measure pertaining to liking of the ad was also included. Upon including all four items in the factor analysis, the scale was found to have slightly lower communality scores and explanation of variance than the three item scale – however, a higher Cronbach's alpha value was the deciding factor in opting to proceed with all four items included. The four items loaded onto a single factor with communality of .848 and above. This explained 87.129% of the variance, with a Cronbach's alpha of .950.

4.3.1.2 Advertisement Offensiveness Scale

This scale by Widing et al. (1991) generated communality scores of .615 and above. The three items loaded onto a single factor which accounted for 69.882% of the variance.

4.3.1.3 Positive Attitude Toward Establishing Consent Subscale

The subscale relating to attitudes toward consent loaded onto a single factor, but featured several items with low communality scores. These three items were removed, resulting in communality scores of .524 and above for the eight item scale. This explained 60.142% of the variance.

4.3.1.4 Indirect Behavioural Approach To Consent Subscale

These items loaded onto a single factor, however two items were removed due to low communality. Following this, communality scores of .541 and above were recorded, alongside 62.90% of the variance explained by this four item factor.

4.3.1.5 Sexual Consent Norms Subscale

This subscale initially presented as two factors, with one item cross-loading. This item (CNor4) was removed before retesting, which still highlighted a second item (CNor5) as a separate factor. Because of the high values generated for these two items, the decision was taken that these two items would be removed for use as a second scale pertaining to verbal consent norms. CNor7 was also removed due to a low communality score. This left a four item scale which loaded onto a single factor. Communality scores were .579 and above; 67.699% of the variance was explained.

4.3.1.6 Sexual Consent Awareness And Discussion Subscale

The Consent Awareness and Discussion subscale loaded onto a single factor. One item was removed due to poor communality, leaving a three item scale. This resulted in a single factor which explained 69.269% of the variance, with communality scores of .658 and above.

4.3.1.5 Verbal Consent Norms Subscale

This subscale was created following the high loadings of items CNor4 and CNor5 onto a separate scale. On examining these two items, they were seen to relate more directly to verbal consent norms than the other variables on the Consent Norms subscale. As this subscale is comprised of only two items, a factor analysis and a Pearson correlation were run to determine the relationship between them.

Factor analysis gave communalities of .661, with 66.077% of the variance explained. The Pearson test showed a small positive correlation of .322, significant to .000. This is considered sufficient as Hair et al. (2006) suggest correlations should sit above .30.

4.3.1.6 Overview

Principal Components Analysis yielded results which showed a large number of subscales initially loading onto one factor, although with poor communality scores. This necessitated the removal of some items from the consent subscales laid out by Humphreys and Brousseau (2010). These alterations are summarised in Table 4.5. It should be noted that communality scores were recorded from the first round of analysis for each subscale. While these did change as each factor was removed, none of the scores were raised above .5 at any point in time, therefore confirming that they should be removed. Final items included in each scale are shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.5: Summary Of Items Altered From Existing Consent Scales

Subscale	Item	Reason For Removal/Addition
Positive Attitude Toward Establishing Consent	CAtt5	Poor communality (.475)
	CAtt9	Poor communality (.349)
	CAtt11	Poor communality (.457)
Indirect Behavioural Approach To Consent	CBeh3	Very poor communality score (.176)
	CBeh6	Poor communality (.463)

Sexual Consent Norms	CNor4	Cross-loaded (.412 and .638 respectively)
	CNor5	Loaded onto a second factor (.896)
	CNor7	Poor communality score (.443)
Consent Awareness And Discussion	CAwa2	Poor communality score (.410)
Verbal Sexual Consent Norms	CNor4	Added from Consent Norms Subscale
	CNor5	Added from Consent Norms Subscale

Table 4.6: Final Items Included In Each Scale

Likert Items

Subscale: Positive Attitude Toward Establishing Consent

- CAtt1 I feel that sexual consent should always be obtained before the start of any sexual activity.
- CAtt2 I believe that asking for sexual consent is in my best interest because it reduces any misinterpretations that might arise.
- CAtt3 I think it is equally important to obtain sexual consent in all relationships regardless of whether or not they have had sex before.
- CAtt4 I feel that verbally asking for sexual consent should occur before proceeding with any sexual activity.
- CAtt6 I believe that it is just as necessary to obtain consent for genital fondling as it is for sexual intercourse.
- CAtt7 Most people that I care about feel that asking for sexual consent is something I should do.
- CAtt8 I think that consent should be asked before any kind of sexual behaviour, including kissing or petting.
- CAtt10 Before making sexual advances, I think that one should assume "no" until there is clear indication to proceed.

Subscale: Indirect Behavioural Approach To Consent

- CBeh1 Typically I communicate sexual consent to my partner using nonverbal signals and body language.
- CBeh2 It is easy to accurately read my current (or most recent) partner's nonverbal signals as indicating consent or non-consent to sexual activity.
- CBeh4 I don't have to ask or give my partner sexual consent because my partner knows me well enough.
- CBeh5 I don't have to ask or give my partner sexual consent because I have a lot of trust in my partner to "do the right thing".

Subscale: Sexual Consent Norms

- CNor1 I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a new relationship than in a committed relationship.
- CNor2 I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a casual sexual encounter than in a committed relationship.
- CNor3 I believe that the need for asking for sexual consent decreases as the length of an intimate relationship increases.
- CNor6 I believe that partners are less likely to ask for sexual consent the longer they are in a relationship.

Subscale: Awareness And Discussion

- CAwa1 I have discussed sexual consent issues with a friend.
- CAwa3 I have discussed sexual consent issues with my current (or most recent) partner at times other than during sexual encounters.
- CAwa4 I have not given much thought to the topic of sexual consent [Reverse coded].

Subscale: Verbal Consent Norms

- CNor4 I believe it is enough to ask for consent at the beginning of a sexual encounter.
- CNor5 I believe that sexual intercourse is the only sexual activity that requires explicit verbal consent.

4.3.2 Scale Reliability

After completing Principal Component Analyses, the internal consistency of the scales was tested using the Cronbach's alpha procedure. None of the subscales tested warranted the removal of any items to increase the alpha value. Results are demonstrated in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficients for Total Scale Variables

Scale	Number Of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Attitude Towards The Ad	4*	0.950
Objections To The Advertisement	3	0.783
Positive Attitude Towards Establishing Consent	8*	0.903
Indirect Behavioural Approach To Consent	4*	0.800
Consent Norms	4*	0.838
Consent Awareness And Discussion	3*	0.777
Verbal Consent Norms*	2*	0.485

* Adapted from original scale due to analysis

At this point, new variables were coded in order to create a single item to represent each scale.

4.3.3 Descriptive Statistics

Examinations of the descriptive statistics for each total scale variable were also undertaken. These are shown in Table 4.8. This included the mean and median scores, and the standard deviation. Minimum and maximum values are displayed chiefly due to the minimum value of the Positive Attitudes Toward Establishing Consent scale (CAAtt) being a point of interest. Statistics for skewness and kurtosis are also included, and demonstrate no causes for concern. The skewness value for the Sexual Consent Norms scale indicates that responses skew to the right – this indicates that participants were more inclined to believe that consent was less necessary in longer term or more established relationships.

Table 4.8: Descriptive Statistics For Total Scale Variables

Scale	Min.	Max.	Mean	Median	Std. Dev	Skewness	Kurtosis
AAd	1	7	4.37	4.50	1.50	-.41	-.61
AdOb	1	7	2.69	2.33	1.23	.93	.54
CAAtt	2	7	5.55	5.75	1.08	-.81	.33
CBeh	1	7	5.10	5.25	1.22	-.47	-.27
CNor	1	7	5.46	5.75	1.25	-1.05	.91
CAwa	1	7	4.43	4.67	1.54	-.27	-.76
CVNor	1	7	3.77	4.00	1.21	.08	-.11

Histograms for all scales with the addition of normal curves are shown in Appendix 6.13. Table 4.9 depicts a correlation matrix for the measures discussed above. Note that Purchase Intention (PI) was included in the questionnaire as a single item measure and therefore was not included in the factor analysis above, but does feature in the correlation matrix in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Correlation Matrix For Total Scale Variables

		AAd	AdOb	PI	CAtt	CBeh	CNor	CAwa	CVNor
AAd	Pearson		-.424**	.744**	-.052	.207**	.161**	.028	.218**
	Sig.		.000	.000	.295	.000	.001	.565	.000
AdOb	Pearson			-.259**	.089	-.238**	-.179**	.156**	-.060
	Sig.			.000	.072	.000	.000	.002	.224
PI	Pearson				-.049	.130**	.088	-.022	.238**
	Sig.				.319	.008	.076	.656	.000
CAtt	Pearson					-.313**	-.204**	.340**	-.266**
	Sig.					.000	.000	.000	.000
CBeh	Pearson						.579**	-.254**	.303**
	Sig.						.000	.000	.000
CNor	Pearson							-.203**	.363**
	Sig.							.000	.000
CAwa	Pearson								-.149**
	Sig.								.001
CVNo	Pearson								
r	Sig.								

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4.4 Manipulation Checks

The measures for perceived Eroticism and Dominance were used as manipulation checks in the main experiment, in a similar manner to the pre-test discussed in Chapter Three. This was designed to ascertain whether participants in the eroticised conditions perceived the levels of eroticism as significantly higher than the levels perceived by those participants in the non-erotic conditions. Likewise, the dominance checks tested that participants exposed to the male dominant condition perceived that the male character was significantly more dominant than the female character, and vice versa for the female dominant condition. Descriptive statistics and Independent Samples t-tests prove these points to be true, as demonstrated in Tables 4.10 and 4.11.

Table 4.10: Descriptive Statistics For Eroticism And Dominance Variable

Manipulation	Pre-test		Main Study	
	Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev
<i>Dominance (0 = Male Dominant, 100 = Female Dominant)</i>				
Male	25.94	19.72	22.87	24.40
Female	83.47	16.68	89.33	14.53
<i>Eroticism (0 = Completely Disagree, 100 = Completely Agree)</i>				
Not Present	25.81	21.4	31.18	27.78
Present	56.53	18.83	62.53	23.17

Table 4.11: Results Of Independent Samples t-tests For Eroticism And Dominance Variables

Manipulation	<i>Pre-test</i>		<i>Main Study</i>	
	t	sig	t	sig
Dominance	-8.94	0.000	-33.474	0.000
Eroticism	-4.39	0.000	-12.424	0.000

4.5 Effects Of Independent Variables On Sexual Consent Scales

Chapter Two laid out a series of hypotheses to be tested in the present experiment. **H₁** through **H₃** suggest that sexual consent will be affected by exposure to eroticism and varying dominant characters, as recapped below:

H₁: Sexual consent will be rated as more important when participants are exposed to eroticised conditions.

H₂: Sexual consent will be rated as less important when participants are exposed to conditions in which the female character is dominant.

H₃: There will be an interaction effect between the variables of eroticism and dominance.

A series of ANCOVAs were conducted in order to assess the effect of the independent variables on each of the consent subscales. The results are tabulated below.

Table 4.12: Summary Of ANCOVA Results - Dependent Variables And Manipulations

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	F	Sig
CAAtt Scale	Eroticism	0.164	0.686
	Dominance	0.063	0.802
	Interaction	3.308	0.070
CBeh Scale	Eroticism	0.612	0.434
	Dominance	2.363	0.125
	Interaction	1.469	0.226
CNor Scale	Eroticism	0.629	0.428
	Dominance	1.004	0.317
	Interaction	0.07	0.791
CAwa Scale	Eroticism	0.001	0.978
	Dominance	1.558	0.212
	Interaction	2.94	0.087
CVNor Scale	Eroticism	0.192	0.662
	Dominance	0.191	0.662
	Interaction	0.695	0.405

These results have not yielded significant outcomes at a .001 or .005 level. However, two of these results are approaching significance; the interaction effect on the Positive Attitudes Toward Establishing Consent subscale ($F = 3.308, p = .070$), and the interaction effect on the Consent Awareness and Discussion subscale ($F = 2.94, p = .087$).

As such, **H₁** and **H₂**, which related to the effects of eroticism and dominance respectively, are not supported. This implies that there is no effect demonstrated by either of these factors on their own. However **H₃**, relating to the interaction effect between these manipulated variables, finds partial support.

4.6 Relationship Between Ad-Related Measures & Sexual Consent Scales

H₄ posited that ad-related measures such as Attitude Toward the Ad, Purchase Intention, and the Objectionable measure of advertising would be correlated with sexual consent measures. The correlation matrix in Table 4.9 above suggests that some relationships exist between these variables; the relevant portions of the table to the present hypothesis are replicated here. Significant correlations are bolded for ease of interpretation; values which are approaching significance have been italicised.

Table 4.13: Correlations Between Consent Scales And Ad-Related Measures

Consent Scale	Ad-Related Measure	r	Sig
CAtt Scale	AAd Scale	-0.052	0.295
	AdOb Scale	0.089	<i>0.072</i>
	PI	-0.049	0.319
CBeh Scale	AAd Scale	0.207	0.000
	AdOb Scale	-0.238	0.000
	PI	0.130	0.008
CNor Scale	AAd Scale	0.161	0.001
	AdOb Scale	-0.179	0.000
	PI	0.088	<i>0.076</i>
CAwa Scale	AAd Scale	0.028	0.565
	AdOb Scale	0.156	0.002
	PI	-0.022	0.656
CVNor Scale	AAd Scale	0.218	0.000
	AdOb Scale	-0.06	0.224
	PI	0.238	0.000

This table demonstrates that there are relationships between these measures – some significant to a .001 level. In particular, the Indirect Behavioural Approach To Consent scale (CBeh) is significantly correlated with all three ad-related measures (AAd $r = .207$, $p = .000$; AdOb $r = -.238$, $p = .000$; PI $r = .130$, $p = .008$). This inverse relationship with the objectionable measure of advertising is logical, as higher values on the AdOb scales relate to finding the ad more offensive, where higher values on the other two scales correspond to increased liking of the ad and greater purchase intention respectively. Higher values on this consent scale imply that the participant relies on nonverbal cues and body language to communicate consent, and tends to trust that their partner knows them well and will act appropriately. As such, these beliefs are correlated with an increased liking of the ad and a disinclination to find it offensive. This pattern is reflected for the Consent Norms scale (CNor); higher

scores on this scale imply participants believe consent is less necessary in relationships that are more established or longer term. The small but significant relationships for AAd ($r = .161, p = .001$) and AdOb ($r = -.179, p = .000$) suggests that these beliefs are correlated with liking the advertisement, and being disinclined to find it objectionable. There was also a very small positive relationship between this scale and purchase intention that was found to be approaching significance.

The Consent Awareness scale (CAwa) is related to having discussed consent previously; this had a positive correlation with finding the ad objectionable ($r = .156, p = .002$). The Verbal Consent Norms scale (CVNor) had small significant positive relationships with the Attitude Toward The Ad scale ($r = .218, p = .000$) and Purchase Intention ($r = .238, p = .000$). This implies that liking of the advertisements and being inclined to purchase the product, are both positively correlated with believing that verbal consent is not necessary for all sexual acts. Also notable is the relationship between the measure of advertisements being found objectionable, and the Positive Attitude Toward Establishing Sexual Consent scale (CAtt). While this relationship is only approaching significance ($r = .089, p = .072$), this indicates that believing consent is important may have a small positive correlation with finding the images objectionable.

Overall, **H₄** finds partial support as there are some correlations between ad-related measures, and measures of sexual consent.

4.7 Effect Of Covariates On Sexual Consent

The final hypothesis in the present experiment suggested that demographic variables such as age, gender, and relationship status would be significant covariate factors. As with Section 4.5 above, a series of ANCOVAs was used to test this prediction. The results are presented in Table 4.14.

Significant relationships are bolded for ease of interpretation.

Table demonstrates a number of significant relationships. Participants' gender identity ($F = 6.896, p = .009$) and ethnicity ($F = 8.624, p = .003$) were both shown to have significant effects on the Positive Attitude Toward Establishing Consent subscale. As suggested, this implies that the extent to which participants have a positive attitude towards establishing consent prior to sexual activity varied depending on participant's gender or ethnicity.

Marital status was show to have an effect on Indirect Behavioural Approach To Consent ($F = 9.168, p = .003$); the effects of marital status also approached significance with regards to the Consent Norms scale ($F = 3.015, p = .083$). This suggests that participants' tendency to rely on non-verbal communication, and their thoughts on which situations were most likely to require consent, varied with their relationship status. Participants' gender identity was shown to have a significant effect on the Verbal Consent Norms scale ($F = 5.86, p = .016$), relating to communicating consent verbally.

Table 4.14: Summary of ANCOVA Results - Effects Of Covariates On Sexual Consent Scales

Dependent Variable	Covariate	F	Sig
CAtt Scale	Gender Identity	6.896	0.009
	Age Bracket	0.313	0.576
	Ethnicity	8.624	0.003
	U.S. State	0.011	0.917
	Marital Status	0.89	0.346
	Sexual Orientation	0.492	0.483
CBeh Scale	Gender Identity	0.468	0.494
	Age Bracket	0.412	0.521
	Ethnicity	2.146	0.144
	U.S. State	0.13	0.719
	Marital Status	9.168	0.003
	Sexual Orientation	0.981	0.323
CNor Scale	Gender Identity	0.413	0.521
	Age Bracket	0.442	0.506
	Ethnicity	1.125	0.289
	U.S. State	0.003	0.958
	Marital Status	3.015	0.083
	Sexual Orientation	1.599	0.207
CAwa Scale	Gender Identity	0.771	0.380
	Age Bracket	2.351	0.126
	Ethnicity	0.402	0.526
	U.S. State	0.375	0.541
	Marital Status	1.477	0.225
	Sexual Orientation	2.162	0.142
CVNor Scale	Gender Identity	5.86	0.016
	Age Bracket	0.085	0.771
	Ethnicity	0.123	0.726
	U.S. State	0.747	0.388
	Marital Status	0.075	0.784
	Sexual Orientation	0.71	0.400

It should also be noted that participants' country of residence was recorded. However, due to 96% of participants being located in the United States, this measure was not included in the analysis. This was an expected result, as Mechanical Turk members are required to live in the United States. U.S. State was entered into the ANCOVA, but did not generate any significant effects. Similarly, participants' age bracket was not a significant factor.

A series of graphs was then produced to illustrate these significant relationships more clearly. These are presented below, and give a clearer indication of how each group responded to some of the scales used. Some of these graphs also outlined the need for further investigation as discussed below. Figure 4.1 demonstrates that female participants felt consent was more important than male participants did.

This was able to be confirmed with an Independent Samples t-test. Males recorded a mean score of 5.4373, with female scores averaging 5.7307. This mean difference of .29337 was significant to a .002 level.

Figure 4.1: Plot Of Mean CAtt Scale Scores By Gender Identity

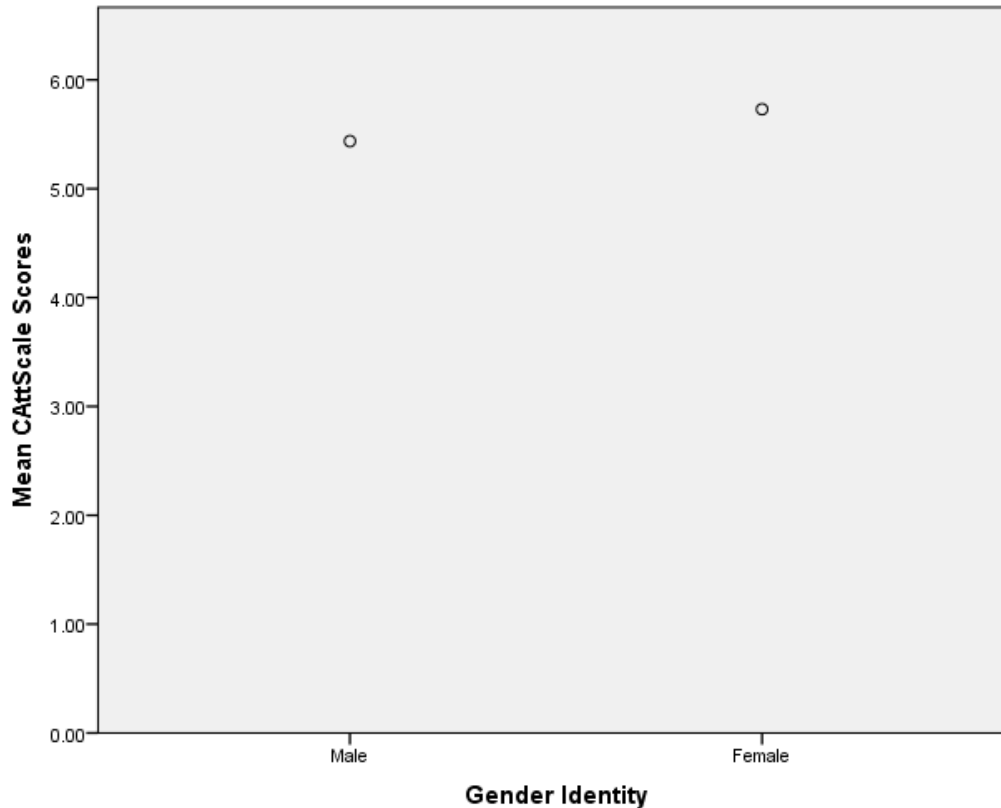


Table 4.15: Independent Samples t-Test of Mean CAtt Scale Scores By Gender Identity

Gender Identity	Mean CAtt Scale Scores	Std Dev
Male	5.4373	1.10250
Female	5.7307	1.02439

t	Mean Difference	Sig
-3.058	-0.29337	0.002

Equal variances assumed - Levene's Test F = 1.836, p = .176

Figure 4.2 depicts how scores varied depending on participant ethnicity, thus indicating some cultural differences and how these manifested in the sample. However Table 4.3 above shows that only one participant self-reported as Middle Eastern (0.2%), and two as Pacific Islanders (0.4%). Likewise, six participants were Native American (1.1%), with ten people identifying as Indian (1.9%). These relatively small numbers suggested that further testing should be undertaken to further examine the importance of ethnicity as a covariate in a larger and more varied sample.

Figure 4.2: Plot Of Mean CAtt Scale Scores By Ethnicity

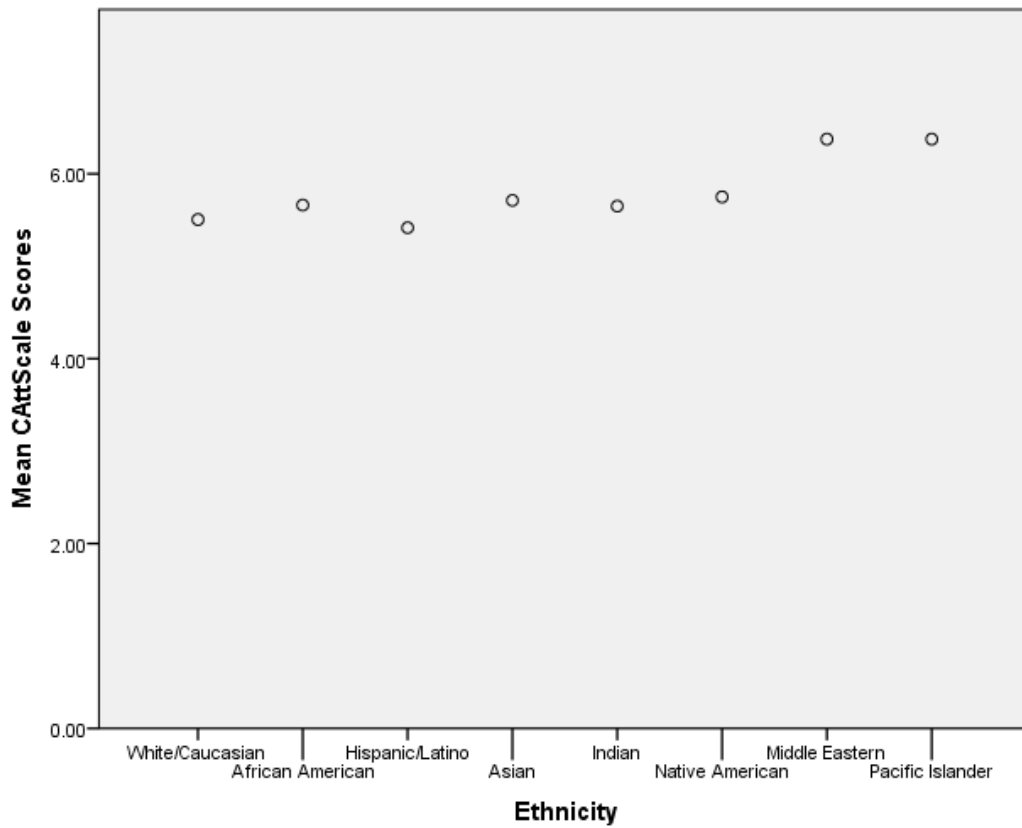


Figure 4.3 denotes variation in the Indirect Behavioural Approach To Consent scale depending on marital status. Notable here is the large jump in scores for participants who were widowed. However as shown in Table 4.3 above, only three participants in the sample were widowed (0.6%). This suggested further testing was needed to confirm that this relationship was a significant one outside of these three cases. Due to this small number of cases, an ANOVA was conducted with the three widowed participants, and those who preferred not to state their marital status, excluded from the dataset. This generated a significant result ($F = 3.492, p = .004$).

Figure 4.4 below showed that males scored higher on the Verbal Consent Norms scale, indicating they were more likely to agree that it was enough to ask for consent at the beginning of a sexual encounter, and that intercourse was the only sexual activity requiring explicit verbal consent. This was confirmed with an Independent Samples t-Test shown in Table 4.16.

Overall, H_5 found partial support as there were several significant relationships between covariates such as gender identity and marital status, and the sexual consent scales.

Figure 4.3: Plot Of Mean CBeh Scale Scores By Marital Status

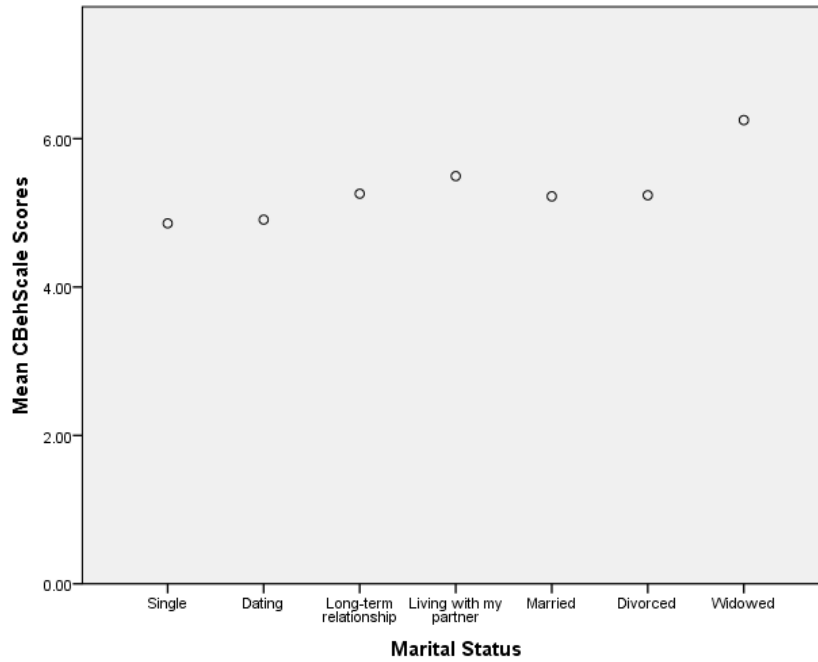


Figure 4.4: Plot Of Mean CVNor Scale Scores By Gender Identity

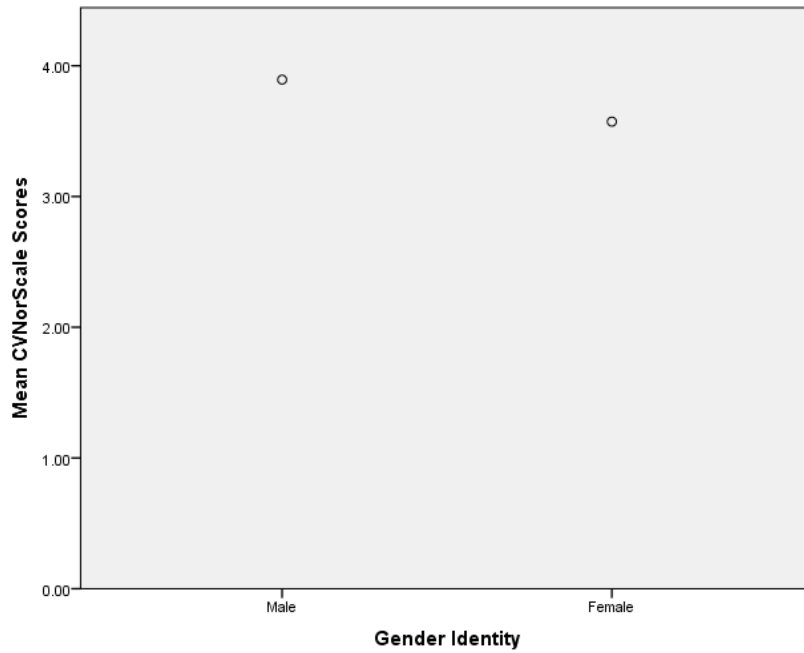


Table 4.16: Independent Samples t-Test of Mean CVNor Scale Scores By Gender Identity

Gender Identity	Mean CVNor Scale Scores	Std Dev
Male	3.8937	1.19071
Female	3.5725	1.22358

t	Mean Difference	Sig
2.982	0.32119	0.003

Equal variances assumed - Levene's Test F = .811, p = .368

4.8 Chapter Summary

Analysis throughout Chapter Four has tested the hypotheses laid out in Section 2.6. A series of ANCOVAs were used to test four of the five hypotheses. H_1 and H_2 remained unsupported, suggesting there were no direct effects of eroticism or dominance in the sample. However results for H_3 were approaching significance, suggesting that there was partial support for the notion of an interaction effect between these two variables.

H_4 was tested by examining the correlations between ad-related measures and the measures of sexual consent. This received partial support, as some correlations proved significant. A final ANCOVA was used to test H_5 , which again found partial support as some covariates were found to have significant effects on the sexual consent scales. Means plots for these covariates were also presented in order to aid further understanding of the data.

The results of these analyses henceforth lead into further discussion, undertaken in Chapter Five below.

5 DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This final chapter discusses the analyses undertaken in Chapter Four in more detail. Firstly the main findings are presented and discussed. This facilitates a discussion on the implications of said findings, and the ways in which this research was limited. Following these points, suggestions will be made for further study moving forward. A summary of the research then concludes this thesis.

5.2 Major Research Findings

Overall, the research did not demonstrate a significant effect on attitudes towards sexual consent of either eroticism or dominance when taken separately. However, the interaction effect of these two variables is approaching significance on two scales. The Positive Attitude Toward Establishing Consent scale indicates a general emphasis on consent and its importance; the Consent Awareness and Discussion scale implies that thought and discussion have taken place around the topic of sexual consent. The interaction effect of these scales were significant to levels of .070 and .087 respectively – this suggests that there could be a combined effect of eroticism and dominance when taken together on some measures.

There were some significant relationships between ad-related measures and consent-related measures. This included significant correlations between the Indirect Behavioural Approach To Consent scale and all three ad-related measures (AAd $r = .207$, $p = .000$; AdOb $r = -.238$, $p = .000$; PI $r = .130$, $p = .008$). Consent Norms were correlated with the Attitude Toward the Ad scale ($r = .161$, $p = .001$) and the measure of how objectionable the advertisements were ($r = -.179$, $p = .000$); Consent Awareness and Discussion had a small positive correlation with the ‘objectionable’ measure ($r = .156$, $p = .002$). The Verbal Consent Norms scale had a small but significant positive relationships with the Attitude Toward the Ad scale and Purchase Intention (AAd $r = .218$, $p = .000$; PI $r = .238$, $p = .000$).

A number of covariates were shown to have significant effects on some of the consent scales. This included gender identity, which had a significant effect on the Positive Attitude Toward Establishing Consent scale ($F = 6.896$, $p = .009$) and the Verbal Consent Norms scale ($F = 5.86$, $p = .016$). Ethnicity significantly impacted the Positive Attitude Toward Establishing Consent scale ($F = 8.624$, $p = .003$), and marital status was found to have a significant effect on the Indirect Behavioural Approach To Consent scale ($F = 9.168$, $p = .003$).

5.3 Discussion Of Findings

It was discussed during the review of previous literature that a number of studies had focused on extreme iterations of the type of content utilised in the present study. This included the use of nudity as stimulus material (Peterson & Kerin, 1997), gratuitous portrayals of sex in advertising (Sengupta &

Dahl, 2008), depictions of victims in advertising (Stankiewicz & Rosselli, 2008), and attitudes towards rape (Lanis & Covell, 1995; Linz, 1989; MacKay & Covell, 1997). However this study has aimed to bridge the gap between some of these more extreme areas, and situations that are more common in an everyday capacity. The eroticised conditions in this study do not involve nudity or gratuitous depictions of sex; the character shown as dominant was not portrayed as physically harming their victim. Instead the images created for this study were intended to be a realistic middle ground, in order to approximate what kind of effect these everyday images might be having.

However, this proved difficult to achieve in practice. The manipulation checks in this study did indicate that participants found the eroticised conditions significantly more sexualised than the non-erotic conditions. Similarly, the designated gender was rated as significantly more dominant, in line with expectations. Despite these factors, the experiment failed to generate any direct effects of eroticism or gender dominance. This was surprising given the results achieved by previous scholars. However, the more extreme nature of previous studies suggests that while the manipulations in the present research were strong, they were not strong enough to evoke these same effects. It is suggested that if the stimulus materials had been more extreme, significant main effects may have been achieved. Likewise, if the present study has measured perceptions of rape as opposed to consent, the outcome may have perhaps been different.

It is also relevant to suggest that the short-term nature of the study may have been a defining factor in these results. Given the points above and the relatively 'normal' nature of the advertisements used, a single exposure may not have been sufficient to override any existing beliefs held by participants about sexual consent. This notion was reinforced by the discovery of significant covariate effects – for some of the consent measures used, the short term exposure in this research may not have been enough to supersede participants' overarching demographic circumstances.

Also notable is the fact that not all scales were affected by all covariates. In fact, these varied greatly. However, the scales that were affected were often logical when considering that particular covariate. For example, the Indirect Behavioural Approach To Consent scale pertains to knowing ones' partner and believing in the ability to read non-verbal cues. Thus it is not unexpected that marital status would have a significant impact on this measure. Figure 4.3 illustrates that those who were in a long term-relationship, living with their partner, or were married, recorded higher scores on average on this measure than those participants who were single or dating. This appears to be a relatively intuitive result, and reflects some of the findings reported by Humphreys (2007).

The effects of gender identity as a covariate were not unexpected given the results of studies previously conducted by other authors. Figure 4.1 suggested that females on average tend to rate consent as a more important construct than males, given the items comprising the Positive Attitude To Establishing Consent scale. The Verbal Consent Norms scale also indicated that men are more likely

to agree on average that it is not necessary to continue checking whether their partners consent to different acts throughout sexual encounters – instead they are more likely to consent at the beginning or ask verbally for consent to intercourse only. The gender differences conveyed in these two scales reflect the findings of Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999), and Humphreys (2007).

The correlations table in Section 4.6, while only highlighting small relationships (whether positive or negative) still provides some interesting insights. The Indirect Behavioural Approach To Consent scale notably had significant correlations with all three ad-related measures. These results indicated that this consent measure had a small positive correlation with the Attitude Toward The Ad and Purchase Intention measures, and a small negative correlation with the Objectionable measure. This implies that participants who relied more on non-verbal signals to communicate consent would find the ad more appealing, less objectionable, and be more likely to indicate purchase. This would suggest that these participants may have perceived the models as consenting to the activity occurring in the images, as these people presumed the models would be able to read their partners in the situation portrayed. The Verbal Consent Norms scale yielded similar results. A significant small positive correlation was found between this scale, and the measures of Attitude Toward The Ad and Purchase Intention. This suggests that participants who believed that only sexual intercourse required explicit verbal consent, and that it was enough to ask for consent at the beginning of a sexual encounter, may have perceived that the models had already consented to the situation taking place, and thus experienced increasing liking of the image and intention to purchase the product.

The Sexual Consent Norms scale also implies that obtaining consent is less necessary in a longer-term relationship. While the nature of the models' relationship was not stated, this scale had a small positive correlation with Attitude Toward The Ad, and a small negative correlation with the Objectionable measure. Therefore those participants who believed that consent was less necessary in longer-term relationships were more inclined to like the advertisement, and less inclined to find it offensive. This suggests that the models may have been perceived as having a relationship rather than a casual encounter. This would be an interesting factor to manipulate in the future; this aligns with the sentiments expressed in a prior study by Veer and Storen (2010) with regards to lustful versus loving images.

A further point of interest lies in the small positive relationship between Consent Awareness, and the measure of finding the advertisement Objectionable. This indicates that those participants who have discussed consent with their partners or friends, or generally given thought to the topic of consent, are more likely to find the images objectionable. It is possible that these participants rate consent as more important, and thus are more aware of the need to obtain it – their increased likelihood to find the images objectionable may be because this consent process was not visible in the images, and/or

because of the unequal power dynamic portrayed. This is of particular interest given that the interaction effect of eroticism and dominance was approaching significance for this particular scale.

5.4 Research Implications & Contributions

5.4.1 Practical Implications

This research raises several points useful in conceptualising consent in one's own life. The literature review in Chapter Two touched on issues raised by a number of scholars surrounding the dangers of assuming that other people send and receive signals in the same ways (Abbey, 1982; Abbey, 1987; Abbey et al., 1987; Abbey & Harnish, 1995; Abbey & Melby, 1986; Harnish et al., 1990). This thesis builds upon this suggestion, by showing that covariates such as marital status and gender identity can change people's attitudes towards sexual consent. As such, it is pertinent to consider that one's sexual partners may hold views different to one's own. Comments taken from the pre-study phase of the experiment (see Appendix 6.5.3 for examples) also served to reinforce how different people's perceptions of the same image could be – this logic applies when interpreting signals given by others.

This issue works into the larger scheme of consent issues that are raised throughout the literature review. The general lack of consensus surrounding definitions of sexual consent in conjunction with the already significant possibility of miscommunication and frequent use of non-verbal signals, all indicate a lack of understanding about the concept as a whole. This brings to light the need for a more structured and consistent approach to sexual consent education, as suggested by Papadopolous (2010) and Reichert (2003a). This is an area that should be of concern to educators, students, and parents alike. In turn, it becomes pertinent to suggest that perhaps this should be a matter of government policy, in order to guarantee the consistency and quality of said education. The literature discussed throughout the present study may also aid in discussion and creation of laws, thus being of interest to the police and justice system, as well as policy and lawmakers.

There is also an important lesson to be taken from the lack of significant main effects throughout this experiment. This finding indicates that the levels of sexualisation demonstrated in this study were not strong enough to impact participants' perceptions of consent. This is a positive result as we can now suggest that these types of portrayals, under the experimental conditions utilised, were not sufficient to alter participants' attitudes. From a practical standpoint, this may help to remove societal concern about the impacts of advertising – further research implications of this are included in Section 5.4.2.

5.4.2 Theoretical Implications & Contributions

This research has highlighted an area of study that had not been previously examined by other scholars. This provides a thought-provoking base for developing future studies, building on similar concepts to those used here. It is hoped that this study will lay the groundwork for a greater societal concern over the effects of advertising on social functions such as consent.

The present study has made several contributions to extend the work of other researchers. As mentioned above, a number of covariates were initially proposed by past research – this study has been able to confirm that these are still significant factors.

Participants' relationship status as a mediating factor on consent attitudes has been suggested by Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999) and Humphreys (2007). The appearance of the marital status measure as having a significant effect on the Indirect Behavioural Approach To Consent scale confirms this suggestion; this factor was also approaching significance for the Consent Norms scale, which refers to the length of the relationship in question and is thus relevant to participants' relationship status as highlighted by these scholars.

Gender has been a recurring theme in a number of past studies. This appeared as a significant covariate in the present study for two of the consent scales: the Positive Attitude Toward Establishing Consent measure and the Verbal Consent Norms scale. As mentioned in Section 5.3, this is also in line with reports made by Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999) and Humphreys (2007). In particular, the work of Humphreys (2007) indicated that females perceived consent as more necessary than males did – this relates strongly to the findings pertaining to the Positive Attitude Toward Establishing Consent scale. The gendered difference found in the Verbal Consent Norms scale contributes to an existing body of research on consent communication, as discussed in Section 2.5.5 (Hall, 1998; Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999; Jozkowski & Peterson, 2013; Jozkowski et al., 2013). As such, this thesis adds to the literature which can be used as evidence in future cases surrounding this point.

As mentioned, the lack of a significant direct effect in this experiment is in some ways encouraging. The idea that these images did not have an effect on perceptions implies that research can now move forward in determining if and where there is a tipping point, at which the content of sexualised advertisements does begin to have an impact. This may be through multiple exposures, long-term viewing, or increasingly sexualised content. However for the time being, this study suggests that a certain level of mild eroticism can be regarded as 'safe', in that it does not appear to alter attitudes towards sexual consent.

5.5 Research Limitations

As is the nature of research, this study was subject to a number of limitations. These arose in the areas of data collection, sample demographics, scales, and also some further concerns relating to the questionnaire format.

5.5.1 Data Collection Method

The use of Mechanical Turk as a means of data collection did have some limiting factors. Participants are able to select which tasks they participate in on this platform, leading to a slight self-selection bias as participants are obviously willing to participate. However, due to the potentially sensitive subject

matter covered in this experiment, this was not necessarily considered a negative outcome. Mechanical Turk is also considered to have a low chance of participants giving untrue responses, and is highly unlikely to cause any experimenter effects (Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010). These factors were a concern entering into this study, and so these benefits were welcomed. Additionally, whilst still not a representative sample, Mechanical Turk did generate a group of respondents with considerably more variation than data collection focused on a sample of University students. The limitations in the demographics of the sample as discussed below may have been overcome by recruiting a larger sample – this would have been possible through this method of data collection. As such, despite the limitations of this method, it is considered that the limitations associated with data collection may have been greater if another system had been used.

5.5.2 Demographics

Some points of limitation were noted with regard to the sample demographics. As indicated in Section 4.7, a more even demographic spread in areas such as ethnicity and marital status would have allowed for more generalizable analysis. As also noted, country of residence was not included in any analysis due to the high percentage (96%) of participants hailing from the United States. While this was an expected result, it does still prevent generalization to other countries.

While questionnaire participation was not restricted to people identifying with a specific gender, analysis was only able to be conducted on those participants who had indicated traditional binary gender identities. This was due to the small number of people who indicated a non-binary affiliation. However, the researcher also suspects that participants who do not identify with traditional gender roles are likely to have a more complicated relationship with said gender roles; while this would be an interesting area of research, it is suggested that qualitative research might first be more appropriate.

Further areas that might have been of interest to measure included levels of education and religious affiliation. As touched on by Abbey (1987), even factors such as small-town upbringing may have yielded different results. At present it appears there is no succinct measure to encapsulate the nature of a participants' upbringing – whether they are conservative or liberal in their beliefs in general, and particularly how they were socialised with regard to gender roles and sex, would both have been points of interest in the present research.

However one key area which would have been particularly advantageous to include was participants' previous media consumption. Getting an indication of the types and frequency of media consumption undertaken by participants in their everyday lives would perhaps have added a further level of understanding to the study. The development of any measurements in this area of study would certainly be relevant in repeating the present experiment. At the time of the study however, no short-form measures had been developed to measure this factor.

5.5.3 Scales

Some limitations apply to the scales used. While the use of a sliding scale was effective as a manipulation check for the eroticism and dominance variables, this was limiting in some ways when conducting further analysis. In future it might be pertinent to utilise a Likert scale measure in the final experiment, once the manipulation checks have been found significant during pre-testing.

The measure of Purchase Intention was not considered crucial to the study, and as such a single-item measure was used. Given that this measure was found to be significant during some of the analyses conducted, it is suggested that a multi-item measure might perhaps be more reliable for future research. Despite this thought, it was still important to the present study to consider the length of the final questionnaire that was undertaken by participants.

An important point of discussion here is the sexual consent scales used by Humphreys and Brousseau (2010). The decision was taken early in the research to utilise these existing scales, given that they provided a relatively thorough measure of consent that had been proven reliable by previous scholars. This also allowed for consistency throughout the study. However a number of subjects in the pre-test suggested that some of the terms might be outdated, despite the version in use being published as recently as 2010. Some of the subscales from the initial study were also considered not to be as relevant to the present study, again in consideration of the length of the final questionnaire. It would have been of interest to include these items, particularly given that the items in the scale did not load onto subscales in the expected manner – the final subscales used here differed from those in the original study. Also notable is the fact that while these scales are relatively thorough and exceptionally useful in comparing between groups of subjects, it is difficult to relate between subscales. For instance, high scores for one subscale might align with low scores on another subscale; this can certainly be true in that those who scored high on the Positive Attitude Toward Consent measure did not necessarily agree with the statements pertaining to Indirect Behavioural Approach To Consent. This meant that throughout analysis it was important to double-check which scale was being considered, and what the scores associated with that scale might meant. As such, it is suggested that in the future some scales could be reverse coded in order to increase the chances that scores would be comparable across subscales. Despite this suggestion, this may be difficult to achieve in practice given the broad nature of the items included throughout the scale. This indicates that further research is needed to increase the user-friendliness of the scale as a whole, and implies that the generalizability of this scale may be limited. The difference between subscales established by the original study and in the present research also indicates that these findings may be limited. Further research into the loadings experienced in this study, in comparison to the loadings reported by the original study, may shed light onto this area.

Comments in the pre-test provided a further source of data regarding the limits of the consent scales. Consent as a construct was questioned by some participants, with some stating that they were imagining the ‘worst-case scenario’ when answering questions. One participant questioned whether understandings of consent would be different for the BDSM community, for example. It is reasonable to assume that some participants in the main study would have had similar queries. As such the findings of this study are limited depending on the ways in which participants understood the questions in particular and the concept of consent as a whole.

5.5.4 Questionnaire

The use of the questionnaire format warrants some additional introspection. As with all quantitative research, this questionnaire did not provide participants with any additional vehicles to discuss their answers, thus restricting knowledge of how questions were interpreted, or why participants responded in a certain way. As with any questionnaire format, there is also a limitation in how participants may answer, given that they are conscious of the experimental setting. As mentioned however, Mechanical Turk is considered one of the means with some of the most honest responses (Paolacci et al., 2010), thus hopefully minimising this limitation through its anonymity.

The use of a single exposure is also considered a strongly limiting factor. As discussed above, it is suggested that for this mild type of stimuli, a single exposure may not have been sufficient. As such it would have been of interest to conduct a longer term study. It should also be noted that the results generated in this study have limited applicability. While the images used here were intended to be representative of advertisements more generally, it is impossible to say how participants’ perceived these images compared to other advertisements; this is another aspect that this experiment could have attempted to measure. This limitation also manifests in the sense that the stimuli presented in this experiment took the form of a single image – this fails to mimic the cluttered advertising environment that is common in everyday life. The mandatory minimum 14 second viewing time for the image exposures may have also affected participants’ responses. It should also be noted that the control condition within this questionnaire was limited given that no image was shown. The use of a placeholder image or control image similar to those presented might have produced differing outcomes. These conditions should all be considered in examining the findings presented.

5.6 Directions For Future Research

The present study has generated a multitude of ideas that could contribute to academic literature in the future.

5.6.1 Alterations To The Present Study

There are a number of options which could be explored, should any future scholars seek to mimic the research undertaken in this thesis. The researcher would like to see the present study run again under

different conditions, in order to try and understand the interaction effects of eroticism and dominance which approached significance on some scales. Initially, suggestions would include points raised above, such as obtaining a more representative sample involving a more even gender ratio and a wider spread of ethnicities and ages. As such, a greater sample size would be recommended.

The inclusion of more conditions could aid in understanding some of the relationships demonstrated more clearly. For instance, the addition of a condition in which male and female models were portrayed as even in terms of power for each level of eroticism might provide an interesting alternative to the control condition in the current research. Another alternative might be to include the non-eroticised conditions as control images, and then incorporate a third, more eroticised category over and above the existing images. This ties into a second suggestion, which would involve taking the same principles as were used in this experiment, but pushing them to a more extreme level. This could include providing more erotic images, or making the dominance portrayal more apparent. It could certainly be an interesting undertaking to take elements of this study, and combine them with the use of nudity as demonstrated by Peterson and Kerin (1977). Further to this, as discussed in literature review, the opposite approach could be taken with regards to measurement – it would be of great interest to mimic the present study but measure attitudes towards rape instead of focusing on consent, and to compare the results.

5.6.2 Alternative Suggestions

Several other forms of research are also suggested. It appears that more qualitative studies are needed in order to further understand how people perceive consent. This could lead into a collaborative research effort to explore perceptions in different areas and subsequently craft a more thorough academic definition of consent which future research could then incorporate. This may also be an interesting project for lawmakers to be involved with and/or take note of. The creation of a consent definition which stands up legally and academically in multiple countries would be a commendable achievement. Further to this, the literature discussed in Chapter Two gave rise to the idea that asking participants a series of questions surrounding their perceptions of consent before and after being given a definition of the concept might lead to very different answers. This could form the basis of a quantitative study focused purely on consent and the extent to which participants' answers change.

Additionally, people's perceptions of dominance are deserving of attention. This study suggested the possibility that people may perceive men in power differently to how they perceive women in power. Future studies could investigate the extent of this, in addition to situations in which this might change. Further qualitative research would also contribute to the pool of knowledge on perceptions of gender roles, and the ways in which people enforce or reject these. A future study incorporating participants who do not identify with a traditional binary understanding of gender would be of great interest.

These ideas outline some of the directions that could contribute to academic literature in the future.

5.7 Research Summary

Overall, this thesis failed to prove the existence of any main effects of manipulating the levels of eroticism, or the gender of the dominant character in an advertisement, on participants' perceptions of sexual consent. It is suspected that this is in large part due to the comparatively subtle images used in the manipulated conditions; other studies which have generated effects in the past have often included more extreme stimuli, or lines of questioning that were more confronting than those utilised in this experiment. However this thesis did find that the interaction effect of these two variables was approaching significance for two measures of sexual consent; this provides a basis for suggesting that further research is needed. Suggestions in relation to this and other paths for future studies have been suggested.

This study was able to prove some small but significant correlations between ad-related measures and consent scales. This is in addition to a number of significant covariate effects of factors such as gender identity and marital status, on some measures of sexual consent perceptions. These findings help to reinforce and extend previous research by other scholars, thus contributing to the body of academic literature in the areas of advertising research, sex in advertising, gender roles, and sexual consent.

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APPENDICES

6.1 Sample Of Photo Shoot Images





6.2 Image Alteration For Non Erotic Female Dominant Condition

Image A:



Image C:



Composite Image:



6.3 Final Images



6.4 Pre-Study Questionnaire



Thank you for taking the time to click into this questionnaire. In order to comply with ethical standards, please read the information below carefully before you begin.

'Effects of Eroticism in Advertising on Attitudes Towards Sexual Consent' Image Assessment Questionnaire Information Sheet

This research will be conducted by Emma Crequer, with the supervision of Ekant Veer, towards the completion of the thesis component of a Masters in Commerce. The research seeks to examine (1) whether there is a link between the levels of eroticism portrayed in advertising, and participants' attitudes towards sexual consent, and (2) whether there is an effect of the gender of either participants or subjects portrayed in advertising on participants' attitudes towards sexual consent.

Your involvement in this project will be to participate in a preliminary questionnaire, in order to establish which images taken from a photo shoot would be most appropriate for use in the experiment that will be run by the researcher. This will involve viewing a series of images, ranking and commenting on them, taking no longer than ten minutes of your time. Due to the nature of the experiment, participants will be asked to comment on their responses to these images, which will include some images that are sexualized. The research will also ask for your demographic information in order to ensure consistency with the target audience of the final questionnaire.

In the performance of these tasks, participants will be asked to view images that may be sexual in nature. Whilst all care has been taken that these images should not be offensive, the researchers ask that if this makes you uncomfortable, please close this window to exit out of the questionnaire. You will not be penalized in any way for this, and we thank you for any time you have already given. If during this questionnaire you feel uncomfortable, we further ask that you exit this window and discontinue your participation to ensure no negative impacts eventuate. Should you wish to seek further information or help, the following sites may be of assistance: the Rape Prevention Education website for information, including discussion of consent and help for survivors of sexual assault (<http://rpe.co.nz/>), a list of Sexual Assault Support Centers (<http://rpe.co.nz/find-a-sexual-assault-support-centre-near-you/>), and a list of helplines (<http://toah-nnest.org.nz/get-help/>).

Participation in this questionnaire is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw at any stage without penalty. If you withdraw, the researchers will remove information relating to you so long as it remains practically achievable; however information will be stored as anonymous aggregated data, meaning that names will not be included. This questionnaire is anonymous to protect your identity, however there will be an option for you to leave your name and details if you wish to discuss your answers with the researcher. You will also have the option to indicate whether you wish to remain anonymous in any publications if this is the case. You may receive a copy of the project results by contacting the researcher at the conclusion of the project.

The results of the project may be published, but you may be assured of the complete confidentiality of data gathered in this investigation: if you have volunteered your identity, it will not be made public without your prior consent. To ensure anonymity and confidentiality, data will be aggregated and anonymous as outlined above. Any hard copies of information will be stored in a secure facility. All data will be destroyed after a period of five years. A thesis is a public document and will be available through the UC Library

The project is being carried out as a requirement for the thesis component of a Masters in Commerce by Emma Crequer, who may be contacted at emma.crequer@pg.canterbury.ac.nz, under the supervision of Ekant Veer, who can be contacted at ekant.veer@canterbury.ac.nz. They will be pleased to discuss any concerns you may have about participation in the project.

This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee, and participants should address any complaints to The Chair, Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

If you agree to participate in the study, you are asked to check the box below to indicate that you have read the above information and consent to it, before entering the questionnaire.

Many thanks for your help,
Emma Crequer

Please check the box below if you wish to continue.

I consent to participate in this questionnaire.





In order to ensure that participants in this experiment mirror the target audience of the final questionnaire, the following questions will ask for your demographic information. Please remember this questionnaire is anonymous unless you elect to provide your contact details on the final page.

Please indicate which gender you identify with.

- Male
- Female
- Non-traditional (you may specify if you wish)

Please indicate your age bracket

Please indicate your ethnicity

Please indicate your country of residence

Please indicate your marital status

- Single
- Long-term relationship
- Living with my partner
- Married
- Divorced
- Widowed

Please indicate your sexual orientation

- I prefer males
- I prefer females
- I prefer both
- I prefer neither
- Other





This experiment will ask you to rank images according to how suitable you believe they are for the category described.

The final experiment requires an image for each of the following categories:

- 1) A non-erotic image with a dominant female character
- 2) A non-erotic image with a dominant male character
- 3) An erotic image with a dominant female character
- 4) An erotic image with a dominant male character

As such, each of the following pages will show a series of images that fit into these categories; you will be asked to rank them to ascertain which images you personally think best demonstrate these qualities. These images are designed to look like advertising images: please bear this in mind when you make your selections. Some of the images have only minor differences between them - the researcher asks that you do your best to identify why you have a preference for some images over others, even if it is to do with only small details. Please identify these factors in the appropriate text box for each image.

Please press the arrow button to continue.



Please drag and drop the images below to indicate, from most appropriate (1/top of page) to least appropriate (5/bottom of page), which images you think best fit the category "non erotic image with a dominant female character". Please provide comments about each of the images explaining what you find appealing or unappealing about them.



• Image A



• Image B



• Image C



• Image D



• Image E



Please drag and drop the images below to indicate, from most appropriate (1/top of page) to least appropriate (5/bottom of page), which images you think best fit the category "non erotic image with a dominant male character". Please provide comments about each of the images explaining what you find appealing or unappealing about them.



• Image A



• Image B



• Image C



• Image D



• Image E



Please drag and drop the images below to indicate, from most appropriate (1/top of page) to least appropriate (10/bottom of page), which images you think best fit the category "erotic image with a dominant female character". Please provide comments about each of the images explaining what you find appealing or unappealing about them.



• Image A



• Image B



• Image C



• Image D



• Image E



• Image F



• Image G



- Image H



- Image I



• Image J



Please drag and drop the images below to indicate, from most appropriate (1/top of page) to least appropriate (6/bottom of page), which images you think best fit the category "erotic image with a dominant male character". Please provide comments about each of the images explaining what you find appealing or unappealing about them.



• Image A



• Image B



• Image C



• Image D




• Image E



• Image F





If you wish to give the researcher the option of contacting you to discuss your answers, please provide your name and contact details. Please remember this questionnaire is anonymous unless you elect to do this.

Did you have any prior knowledge about this experiment (i.e. has the researcher discussed this topic with you previously)?

Yes

No

Have you seen these images in any form before completing this questionnaire?

Yes

No

This brings us to the close of the experiment. Thank you very much for your participation in this questionnaire.



Please note that these images do not show the ability participants had to drag and drop the images. This mechanism meant that when participants hover over an image, the current ranking of that image is displayed in a bright green box beside the image to ensure that participants are aware of what number is it ranked.

6.5 Pre-Study Results

6.5.1 Demographics

Gender Identity	Frequency	Percentage
Male	10	38%
Female	16	62%
Non-traditional	0	0%
Total	26	100%

Age Bracket	Frequency	Percentage
18-21	3	12%
22-25	19	73%
26-29	4	15%
Total	26	100%

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percentage
American	1	4%
Asian	1	4%
Caucasian/White	6	23%
Chinese	1	4%
European	1	4%
Indian	2	8%
Japanese	1	4%
Multiple	1	4%
NZ European/New Zealander/Pakeha	11	42%
Palagi	1	4%
Total	26	100%

Nb: text responses collated

Country of Residence	Frequency	Percentage
New Zealand	16	62%
USA	7	27%
Singapore	1	4%
India	2	8%
Total	26	100%

Nb: text responses collated

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage
Single	13	50%
Long-term relationship	8	31%
Living with my partner	2	8%
Married	3	12%
Divorced	0	0%
Widowed	0	0%
Total	26	100%

Sexual Orientation	Frequency	Percentage
I prefer males	14	54%
I prefer females	10	38%
I prefer both	2	8%
I prefer neither	0	0%
Other	0	0%
Total	26	100%

6.5.2 Image Rankings

These tables depict the frequency with which each image was ranked in which position.

<i>NEFD</i>	Image Ranking				
	1	2	3	4	5
Image					
A	10	6	5	3	1
B	2	5	6	2	10
C	8	4	6	6	1
D	1	3	6	8	7
E	4	7	2	6	6
Total	25	25	25	25	25

<i>NEMD</i>	Image Ranking				
	1	2	3	4	5
Image					
A	4	8	6	2	2
B	3	5	5	3	6
C	10	2	4	2	4
D	3	4	4	8	3
E	2	3	3	7	7
Total	22	22	22	22	22

<i>EFD</i>		Image Ranking									
Image	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
A	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	1	
B	1	3	2	2	0	2	2	2	3	4	
C	8	2	6	0	3	0	0	1	0	1	
D	3	3	3	5	1	3	2	0	1	0	
E	0	1	0	1	6	3	4	1	1	4	
F	3	3	3	3	2	4	0	2	1	0	
G	0	2	3	3	2	0	5	2	3	1	
H	1	1	2	3	5	1	0	6	2	0	
I	0	2	0	2	0	3	4	1	6	3	
J	3	2	0	0	0	3	2	3	1	7	
Total	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	

<i>EMD</i>		Image Ranking					
Image	1	2	3	4	5	6	
A	9	3	3	1	0	3	
B	2	6	3	2	3	3	
C	1	3	5	7	3	0	
D	3	4	3	6	1	2	
E	4	1	2	1	8	3	
F	0	2	3	2	4	8	
Total	19	19	19	19	19	19	

6.5.3 Selection Of Image Comments By Pre-Study Participants

Category	Image	Comment
NEFD	A	Wearing coat, so "non-erotic". Woman standing taller than man, but both participants have a relaxed expression/ head tilted. Hand position of woman dominant, but not aggressively so.
	A	They look like two very good friends, friendly with each other with genuine and kind of joking smiles on their faces. Although the girl is standing and putting her hand on the man's shoulder, but her smiles shows she doesn't have superior status than the man.
	A	She looks dominant but his expression is more adoring than lustful
	B	She looks super confident which is good but something about the glint in his eye makes it kinda erotic (out of this group)
	B	It looks like both of them just want sex. And they're waiting for the camera guy to leave.
	C	The guy looks to be in awe of her power but not in a sexual way. She is in control.
	C	They female is in red, well dressed, covered up, non erotic and dominant in the picture eg her hand is on his shoulder suggesting she holds the power/dominating..

	D	She looks a little awkward in his presence, almost like she found out he is thinking inappropriately about her. His expression looks lustful. But she doesn't want any of that.
	D	The woman smiles confidently as the picture above. The man's facial expression seems he is shocked in some way so it's a bit weird. The woman without a coat seems more erotic than with a coat.
	E	They look they are at the same status again, the woman doesn't seem to be dominant
	E	Look the most like a cute happy couple
	E	She looks like she is not aware that he is harbouring sexual fantasies for her. She seems to think of him as almost a brother.
NEMD	A	Same as Image C, but close up shot and more serious expressions make the photo more intimate, with undertones of eroticism.
	A	The most erotic due to the size of the male, lighting, and face. Also makes him dominant in the picture but the female body language suggests she is looking at him with desire.
	A	The man is in the front and the woman is behind him so it feels like the man is dominant. The man doesn't look at the woman so there is no erotic atmosphere involved. The same with the previous one, there's admiration in the woman's eyes towards the man
	B	He is looking straight at the viewer while she is looking at him. The eyebrow raise is almost comical but he's smiling to show he has a sense of humour. Feels like he is ignoring her. But they both seem to exude lust.
	B	He is dominant but not domineering, not overtly sexual apart from the fact that they are touching
	C	Neither looks sexy. Just happy
	C	The more comfortable he looks, the more in control he is compared to her comfort levels
	C	Looks like a candid picture of a couple. neither dominate photo
	D	Both look like they're in a relationship. Though they're not touching they seem comfortable with each other. Her smile is warm, and he looks relaxed. But it doesn't feel erotic, just consensual and normal.
	D	His comfort level and where she is looking indicate he is in control of the situation
	E	His stance is dominant but also sexual
EFD	A	Female very dominant. Less explicit photo however. Male appears intimidated
	A	She is dominant but his gaze isn't overtly sexual, its more awelike
	A	Looks like a photo a royal couple would take. Very stately. He is looking at her but not with lust.
	B	His smile here makes it less erotic and more puppy-adorable
	B	Powerful female pose can be quite hot
	B	This is more like a mother & son pose, even if they are quite close
	B	Playful air, almost like both are posing.
	C	Powerful and sexy woman. He looks surprised and awed
	C	She is undressing him which is overtly sexual & also in a way that is quite "dominatrix"
	C	Undressing is erotic, I'd rank this image higher because her straight back is a bit more dominant
	C	It looks weird that women take off man's clothes. It would make more sense if they shift roles so it doesn't work quite well
	D	The removal of clothing is obviously suggestive but the exaggerated show of

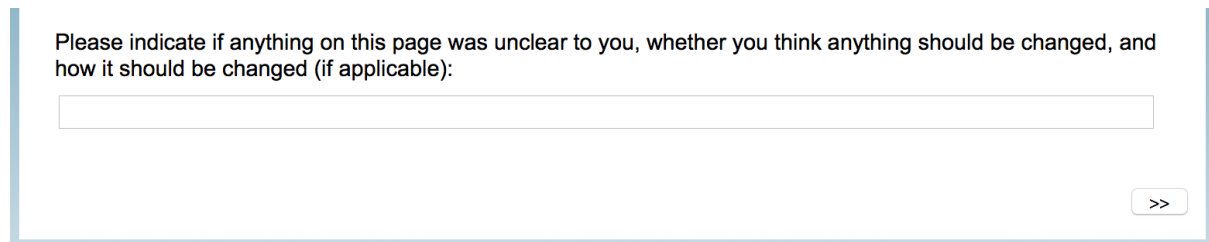
		buttocks makes it seem more playful rather than erotic.
	E	Less of frame focussed on woman, and less erotic framing. facial expressions more subdued on female.
	E	He also looks too happy to be in this situation, looking adoringly at her doesn't work in a super sexual context
	E	Her face doesn't show much passion or emotion. Looks like she is an amateur forced into the act. When the lady's actions seem unconsensual it doesn't feel erotic.
	F	She is taking command, he looks like he is letting her. She looks strong, confident, experienced. She doesn't even need to look at him to know what she needs to do.
	F	This pose just doesn't seem sexual enough
	G	Still the whole begging or waiting for a command thing coming from the guy. Not hot
	G	Male expected female to unbutton therefore female not so dominant
	G	The man looks a bit scared, and very obedient.
	H	He looks a little frightened by her and she looks like she wants to eat him alive. The fear in his eyes makes it erotic.
	H	Intimate, but they have more equal standing.
	H	Hand position makes female dominant. Erotic in the sense that characters are in close proximity. Facial expressions rather suggestive
	H	trying to be dominant by force which make male more dominant
	H	She is not dominant in this picture.
	I	Looks like a tragic love story, almost Romeo and Juliet types. Tender but not erotic. Her face looks sad and not fierce.
	J	Good but he looks a little bit confident, less victim-y than others
	J	Her hands are on a vulnerable part of his body. But both look like their lust is consensual.
EMD	A	This looks very questionable, he seems to be overpowering her, even holding her hand in a controlling way.
	A	Both look like they are very much into the act. He is taking charge but she is allowing it.
	B	The man is holding the woman, but from the woman's facial expression, she seems to enjoy about it very much so can't say the guy is dominant
	B	He is holding her in a protective manner, almost like he owns her. She looks like she feels safe in his arms.
	C	The dominance is too equal here. She looks like she is going in for the kiss first
	D	He looks sexy, but I wouldn't call the image erotic. There's no chemistry.
	D	Too much booty for him to be the dominant figure in this
	D	His face shows no intensity or passion, so his grip seems more tender/protective rather than erotic.
	E	Tender love, Romeo/Juliet types. Very passionate but not erotic. More on the sweeter side.
	E	The guy's hand at the woman's neck looks erotic
	F	Dominance from him but also showing a disinterest in her which makes it less sexual
	F	His body is taking up more space than hers. He looks like he is sheltering her from the world. She seems infatuated and without an identity of her own.

6.6 Pre-Test

6.6.1 Screenshots Of Pre-Test

The pre-test of the main study featured largely the same processes and questions as the final questionnaire. As such, this section features only screenshots of the portions of the pre-test that differ from the screenshots shown in Appendix 6.8 below.

Please note that with the exception of the image exposure screens, all pages (even those which were otherwise the same as those in the final study) featured the following text entry field at the end of the screen.



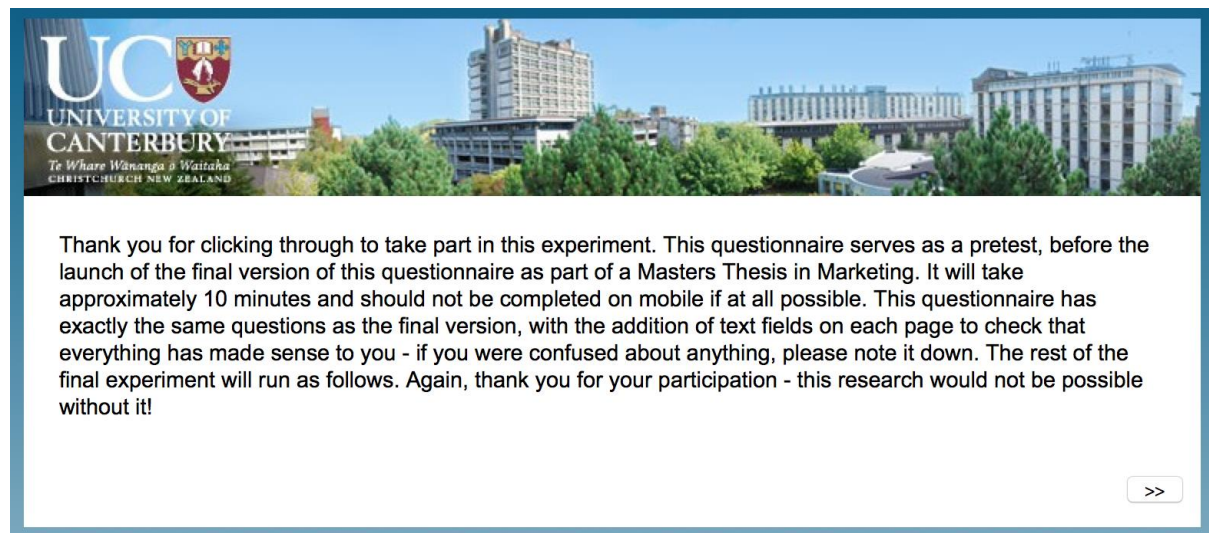
Please indicate if anything on this page was unclear to you, whether you think anything should be changed, and how it should be changed (if applicable):

>>

Other screens which differed are included below.

6.6.1.1 Screen 1

This screen was included prior to the same information and consent screen in order to ensure participants were aware this was a pre-test.



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Thank you for clicking through to take part in this experiment. This questionnaire serves as a pretest, before the launch of the final version of this questionnaire as part of a Masters Thesis in Marketing. It will take approximately 10 minutes and should not be completed on mobile if at all possible. This questionnaire has exactly the same questions as the final version, with the addition of text fields on each page to check that everything has made sense to you - if you were confused about anything, please note it down. The rest of the final experiment will run as follows. Again, thank you for your participation - this research would not be possible without it!

>>

6.6.1.2 Screen 2

This ethics information is predominantly the same as for the main study, with the inclusion of New Zealand-specific resources.



Thank you for your interest in taking part in this experiment. Please read the information sheet below carefully to ensure you understand the requirements before you begin.

'Effects of Eroticism in Advertising on Attitudes Towards Sexual Consent'
Questionnaire Information Sheet

This research will be conducted by Ms. Emma Crequer, with the supervision of Dr. Ekant Veer, towards the completion of a Master's thesis. The research seeks to examine whether there is a link between the both the levels of eroticism and gender of characters portrayed in advertising, and participants' subsequent attitudes towards sexual consent.

Your involvement in this project will be to answer a questionnaire. This may or may not require you to view a single advertisement, then answer questions regarding how much you liked it, and how it made you feel. All participants will then be presented with some questions regarding your attitude towards sexual consent as a general construct. The questionnaire will also include questions about your demographic information, but at no point will you be required to give your name or contact details. We will not record your individual identity in any way. Completion of the questionnaire should take no longer than fifteen minutes.

Participation in this experiment is completely voluntary. Throughout the questionnaire you will be permitted to indicate if you do not feel comfortable asking a question. You will not be penalized for this in any way, and may withdraw from the questionnaire at any time without penalty. The data will be stored as anonymous aggregated data once collected; after this point it will not be possible to identify your individual answers. As such, once you have submitted the questionnaire it will not be possible to withdraw your information.

The images shown in this questionnaire may involve sexual themes and/or dominance. If either these concepts, or discussions of sexual consent may be distressing or offensive to you, please DO NOT enter this questionnaire. You will not be penalized in any way for choosing not to be involved in this experiment; we thank you for any time you have already given. If at any point during the questionnaire you become distressed or agitated, we likewise request that you stop and withdraw from the experiment. Again, you will not be penalized in any way, and we thank you for any time you have already given. At the close of the questionnaire, there is further information pertaining to who you should contact if the experiment has raised any issues for you. The following resources are recommended for participants based in the United States who wish to seek further information or assistance:

National Sexual Assault Hotline - 1.800.656.HOPE
Rape, Abuse, & Incest National Network - <https://www.rainn.org/get-help>
National Sexual Assault Online Hotline - <https://ohl.rainn.org/online/>
The National Domestic Violence Hotline - <http://www.thehotline.org/>

A list of RAINN's International Resources can also be found here: <https://www.rainn.org/get-help/sexual-assault-and-rape-international-resources>

For New Zealand participants, please consider accessing the Rape Prevention Education website for information, including discussion of consent and help for survivors of sexual assault (<http://rpe.co.nz/>). They also provide a list of Sexual Assault Support Centers (<http://rpe.co.nz/find-a-sexual-assault-support-centre-near-you/>), and a list of helplines can be found here: <http://toah-nnest.org.nz/get-help>.

The results of the project may be published, but you may be assured of the complete confidentiality of data gathered in this investigation: as your identity is not recorded, it cannot and will not be made public without your prior consent. To ensure anonymity and confidentiality, your identity is not recorded in any way beyond the demographic information you volunteer. Data will be stored anonymously, in an aggregated file so that no individual participant can be identified. Data will remain confidential to the research and will be stored in password-protected files and/or securely locked cupboards. Data will be destroyed after five years. A thesis is a public document and will be available through the UC Library. You may receive a copy of the project results by contacting the researcher at the conclusion of the project.

The project is being carried out as part of a Masters thesis by Ms. Emma Crequer under the supervision of Dr. Ekant Veer. Ms. Crequer can be contacted at emma.crequer@pg.canterbury.ac.nz; Dr. Veer at ekant.veer@canterbury.ac.nz. They will be pleased to discuss any concerns you may have about participation in the project.

This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee, and participants should address any complaints to The Chair, Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

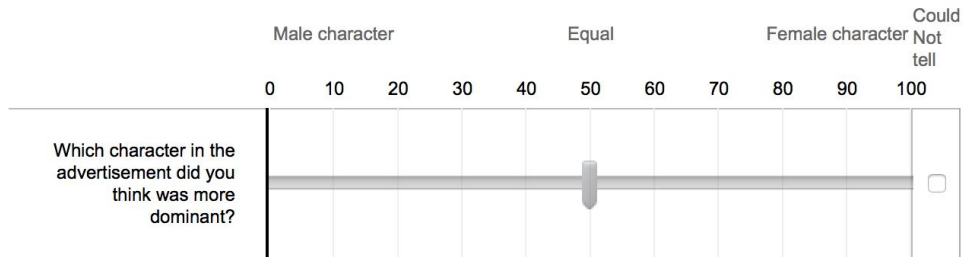
If you agree to participate in the study, you are asked to check the box below. This indicates you understand all points outlined above and what is required of you in this experiment. Please note if you do not check the box to consent, the questionnaire will not proceed and you are asked to exit this window. Your honesty and cooperation are greatly appreciated.

Many thanks,
Emma Crequer

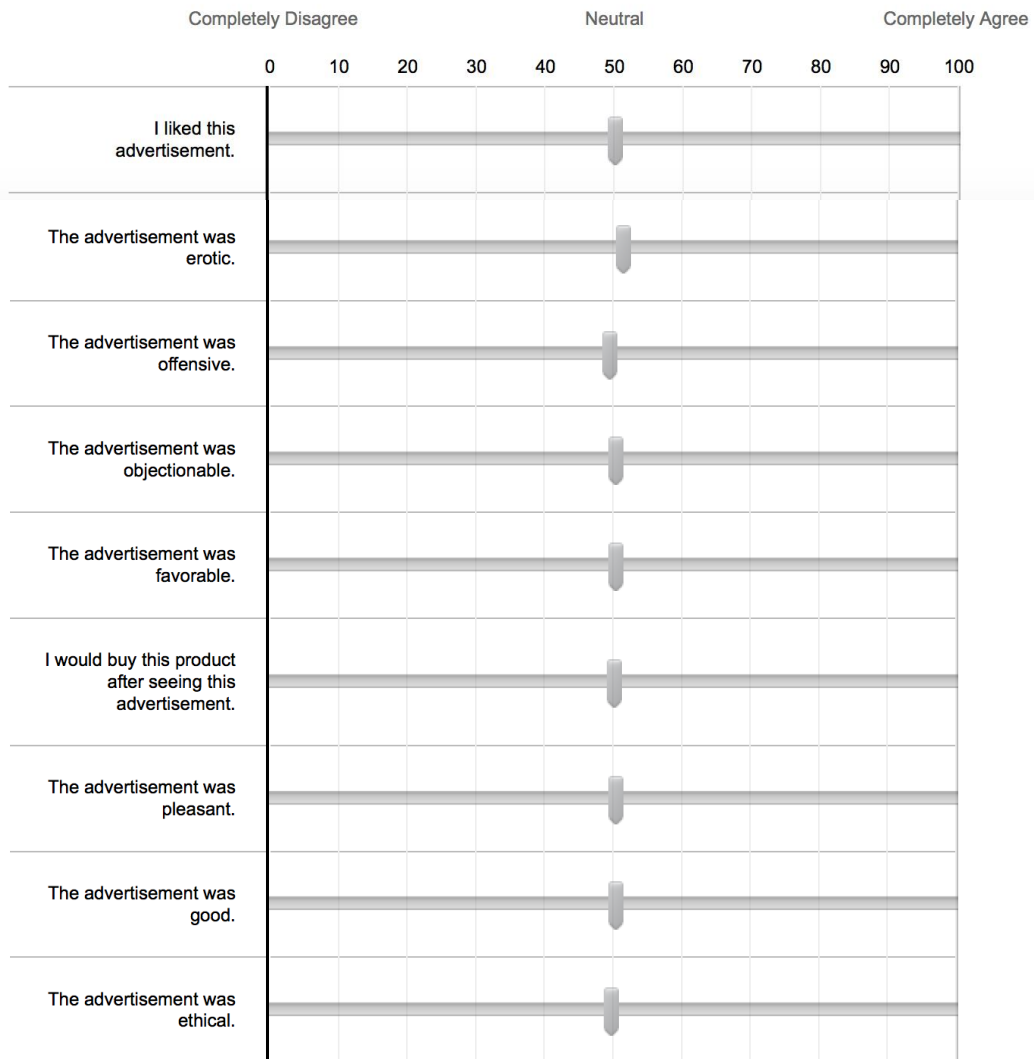
6.6.1.3 Ad-related Questions



The following questions relate to the advertisement that you just viewed. Please answer honestly.



The following questions relate to the advertisement that you just viewed. Please answer honestly.



6.6.1.4 Additional Questions On Demographics Screen

These questions were designed to account for the fact that some participants in the pre-test might have also completed the pre-study experiment. They were included so that comparisons could be made between those who had and had not viewed the images before if necessary.

If you were exposed to an image as part of this experiment, had you seen it before?

- Yes
 No

Were you aware of this experiment/had the researchers discussed any part of this material with you before participated in this questionnaire?

- Yes
 No

Please indicate if anything on this page was unclear to you, whether you think anything should be changed, and how it should be changed (if applicable):

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6.6.1.5 Closing Information



This brings us to the close of the experiment. Again, if any of the content has raised any issues for you, please do not hesitate to seek help and/or support.

The following resources are recommended for participants based in the United States who wish to seek further information or assistance:

National Sexual Assault Hotline - 1.800.656.HOPE
Rape, Abuse, & Incest National Network (RAINN) - <https://www.rainn.org/get-help>
National Sexual Assault Online Hotline - <https://ohl.rainn.org/online/>
The National Domestic Violence Hotline - <http://www.thehotline.org/>

A list of RAINN's International Resources can also be found here: <https://www.rainn.org/get-help/sexual-assault-and-rape-international-resources>.

For New Zealand participants, please consider accessing the Rape Prevention Education website for information, including discussion of consent and help for survivors of sexual assault (<http://rpe.co.nz/>). They also provide a list of Sexual Assault Support Centers (<http://rpe.co.nz/find-a-sexual-assault-support-centre-near-you/>), and a list of helplines can be found here: <http://toah-nnest.org.nz/get-help>.

Thank you for your participation in this experiment. It would not be possible to complete this study without your involvement.

Any further questions or to request a copy of the final report, please contact the researcher:
emma.crequer@pg.canterbury.ac.nz

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6.6.2 Pre-Test Demographics

Condition	Frequency	Percent
NEFD	7	16.3
NEMD	9	20.9
EFD	9	20.9
EMD	9	20.9
Control	9	20.9
Total	43	100

Gender Identity	Frequency	Percent
Male	22	51.2
Female	18	41.9
Missing	3	7.0
Total	43	100

Age Bracket	Frequency	Percent
18-21	6	14.0
22-25	30	69.8
26-29	3	7.0
34-37	1	2.3
Missing	3	7.0
Total	43	100

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Single	23	53.5
Long-term relationship	8	18.6
Living with my partner	8	18.6
Total	39	90.7
Missing	4	9.3
Total	43	100

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percent
White/Caucasian	32	74.4
Asian	3	7.0
Indian	1	2.3
Other (please specify)	3	7.0
Prefer not to say	1	2.3
Missing	3	7.0
Total	43	100

Country of Residence	Frequency	Percent
Prefer not to say	1	2.3
Australia	3	7.0
Canada	1	2.3
New Zealand	30	69.8
United States	5	11.6
Missing	3	7.0
Total	43	100

Prior Exposure To Image (if applicable)	Frequency	Percent
Yes (had seen the image before)	7	16.3
No (had not seen the image before)	32	74.4
Missing	4	9.3
Total	43	100

Prior Awareness Of Experiment	Frequency	Percent
Yes (was aware of experiment before participating)	12	27.9
No (was not aware of experiment before participating)	27	62.8
Missing	4	9.3
Total	43	100.0

Manipulation checks for the pre-test data are available in Section 3.9.2.

6.6.3 Pre-Test Comments By Participants

Image Question Comments
Not sure what you mean by the advertisement was 'ethical'.
The ethical question was vaguely confusing but I suppose since no one was being beaten, it is?
Consent Subscale Comments (Attitude, Behaviour & Norms Subscales)
Could be more clear in the pre-survey information about exactly what participants will be asked to respond to. While it was said in the consent form stuff, a short paragraph on its own page summarizing the survey would be helpful so that participants know what they're getting into! Maybe be more clear about what you mean by 'sexual consent' in the info.
Should have an allowance for the difference between regular intercourse and more intense intercourse, such as BDSM etc. Regular intercourse may not require consent within an established relationship, whereas other things may do.
Section 1: With the consent to sexual activity... I think it may be useful to distinguish there if this is a couple, or an affair, one-night stand...I'm in a relationship and I clearly don't need to give consent every single time something happens. Hope that makes sense...
I might make more of a distinction between sexual consent and verbal sexual consent. I think that obtaining verbal sexual consent is more important in a casual encounter because it's harder to read a partner you don't know and harder to say no with someone you aren't comfortable with. However, I think it's always necessary to obtain sexual consent in any relationship, it just might not need to be verbal when you've been together for longer periods of time.
I assumed the most compromising/uncertain situations possible when answering these questions e.g. myself and/or partner intoxicated or emotionally distressed. Others may not decide to approach the questions in this way.
Consent is not defined in all cases: as in verbal consent, or consent shown through body language.
Demographic & Consent Awareness Subscale Comments
Not sure who this will be sent out to, but what happens if a participant has never had a partner?
The scale can be assumed as "0%" attracted to the same sex on the left of the scale and "100%" attracted to the opposite sex on the right of the scale, implying the same thing.
Instead of "my own gender", maybe change it to "Same gender", to make the scale a bit clearer

6.7 Sexual Consent Scale

SEXUAL CONSENT SCALE

Table 2. Factor Loadings, Means, and Standard Deviations for the Sexual Consent Survey Subscale Items

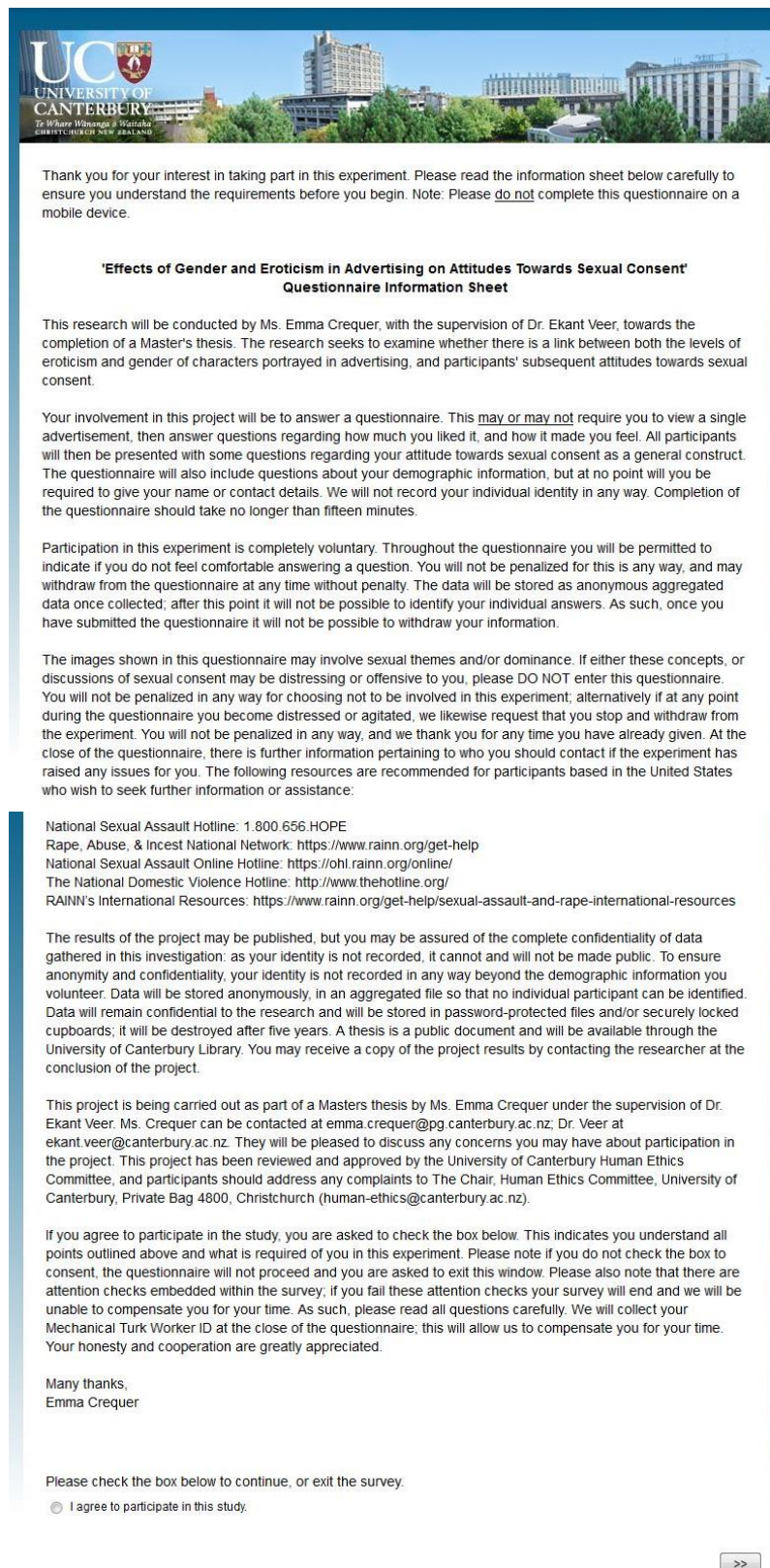
Items	Loadings	M	SD
Subscale 1: (Lack of) perceived behavioral control			
I would have difficulty asking for consent because it would spoil the mood	.785	3.32	1.67
I am worried that my partner might think I'm weird or strange if I asked for sexual consent before starting any sexual activity	.742	3.02	1.66
I would have difficulty asking for consent because it doesn't really fit with how I like to engage in sexual activity	.723	3.53	1.67
I would worry that if other people knew I asked for sexual consent before starting sexual activity, that they would think I was weird or strange	.720	2.92	1.60
I think that verbally asking for sexual consent is awkward	.717	3.88	1.74
I have not asked for sexual consent (or given my consent) at times because I felt that it might backfire and I wouldn't end up having sex	.593	2.64	1.53
I believe that verbally asking for sexual consent reduces the pleasure of the encounter	.580	3.75	1.73
I would have a hard time verbalizing my consent in a sexual encounter because I am too shy	.570	3.16	1.69
I feel confident that I could ask for consent from a new sexual partner [R]	.511	3.15	1.53
I would not want to ask a partner for consent because it would remind me that I'm sexually active	.465	2.14	1.25
I feel confident that I could ask for consent from my current partner [R]	.447	2.66	1.46
Subscale 1: Mean		3.10	1.04
Subscale 2: Positive attitude toward establishing consent			
I feel that sexual consent should always be obtained before the start of any sexual activity	.691	4.36	1.64
I believe that asking for sexual consent is in my best interest because it reduces any misinterpretations that might arise	.653	5.28	1.34
I think it is equally important to obtain sexual consent in all relationships regardless of whether or not they have had sex before	.643	5.12	1.53
I feel that verbally asking for sexual consent should occur before proceeding with any sexual activity	.639	4.17	1.64
When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have sexual consent	.638	4.66	1.48
I believe that it is just as necessary to obtain consent for genital fondling as it is for sexual intercourse	.600	4.96	1.51
Most people that I care about feel that asking for sexual consent is something I should do	.570	4.36	1.42
I think that consent should be asked before any kind of sexual behavior, including kissing or petting	.565	3.20	1.65
I feel it is the responsibility of both partners to make sure sexual consent is established before sexual activity begins	.537	5.74	1.09
Before making sexual advances, I think that one should assume "no" until there is clear indication to proceed	.488	4.55	1.54
Not asking for sexual consent some of the time is okay [R]	.435	4.87	1.71
Subscale 2: Mean		4.66	0.93
Subscale 3: Indirect behavioral approach to consent			
Typically I communicate sexual consent to my partner using nonverbal signals and body language	.695	5.21	1.34
It is easy to accurately read my current (or most recent) partner's nonverbal signals as indicating consent or non-consent to sexual activity	.633	5.33	1.41
Typically I ask for consent by making a sexual advance and waiting for a reaction, so I know whether or not to continue	.630	4.96	1.48
I don't have to ask or give my partner sexual consent because my partner knows me well enough	.626	4.64	1.61
I don't have to ask or give my partner sexual consent because I have a lot of trust in my partner to "do the right thing"	.588	4.36	1.63
I always verbally ask for consent before I initiate a sexual encounter [R]	.564	5.34	1.41
Subscale 3: Mean		4.95	1.06
Subscale 4: Sexual consent norms			
I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a new relationship than in a committed relationship	.622	4.30	1.91
I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a casual sexual encounter than in a committed relationship	.570	5.17	1.60
I believe that the need for asking for sexual consent decreases as the length of an intimate relationship increases	.536	4.94	1.59
I believe it is enough to ask for consent at the beginning of a sexual encounter	.532	3.86	1.55
I believe that sexual intercourse is the only sexual activity that requires explicit verbal consent	.484	2.48	1.44
I believe that partners are less likely to ask for sexual consent the longer they are in a relationship	.436	5.76	1.13
If consent for sexual intercourse is established, petting and fondling can be assumed	.428	5.49	1.27
Subscale 4: Mean		4.57	0.88
Subscale 5: Awareness and discussion			
I have discussed sexual consent issues with a friend	.772	3.53	1.96
I have heard sexual consent issues being discussed by other students on campus	.695	2.97	1.81
I have discussed sexual consent issues with my current (or most recent) partner at times other than during sexual encounters	.683	4.00	1.99
I have not given much thought to the topic of sexual consent [R]	.606	3.72	1.77
Subscale 5: Mean		3.55	1.39

Note. Factor loadings <.40 are not reported. Items with [R] are reverse coded.

(Humphreys & Brousseau, 2010, p. 425)

6.8 Screenshots Of The Final Questionnaire

6.8.1 Final Questionnaire Screen 1



Thank you for your interest in taking part in this experiment. Please read the information sheet below carefully to ensure you understand the requirements before you begin. Note: Please do not complete this questionnaire on a mobile device.

**'Effects of Gender and Eroticism in Advertising on Attitudes Towards Sexual Consent'
Questionnaire Information Sheet**

This research will be conducted by Ms. Emma Crequer, with the supervision of Dr. Ekant Veer, towards the completion of a Master's thesis. The research seeks to examine whether there is a link between both the levels of eroticism and gender of characters portrayed in advertising, and participants' subsequent attitudes towards sexual consent.

Your involvement in this project will be to answer a questionnaire. This may or may not require you to view a single advertisement, then answer questions regarding how much you liked it, and how it made you feel. All participants will then be presented with some questions regarding your attitude towards sexual consent as a general construct. The questionnaire will also include questions about your demographic information, but at no point will you be required to give your name or contact details. We will not record your individual identity in any way. Completion of the questionnaire should take no longer than fifteen minutes.

Participation in this experiment is completely voluntary. Throughout the questionnaire you will be permitted to indicate if you do not feel comfortable answering a question. You will not be penalized for this in any way, and may withdraw from the questionnaire at any time without penalty. The data will be stored as anonymous aggregated data once collected; after this point it will not be possible to identify your individual answers. As such, once you have submitted the questionnaire it will not be possible to withdraw your information.

The images shown in this questionnaire may involve sexual themes and/or dominance. If either these concepts, or discussions of sexual consent may be distressing or offensive to you, please **DO NOT** enter this questionnaire. You will not be penalized in any way for choosing not to be involved in this experiment; alternatively if at any point during the questionnaire you become distressed or agitated, we likewise request that you stop and withdraw from the experiment. You will not be penalized in any way, and we thank you for any time you have already given. At the close of the questionnaire, there is further information pertaining to who you should contact if the experiment has raised any issues for you. The following resources are recommended for participants based in the United States who wish to seek further information or assistance:

National Sexual Assault Hotline: 1.800.656.HOPE
Rape, Abuse, & Incest National Network: <https://www.rainn.org/get-help>
National Sexual Assault Online Hotline: <https://ohi.rainn.org/online/>
The National Domestic Violence Hotline: <http://www.thehotline.org/>
RAINN's International Resources: <https://www.rainn.org/get-help/sexual-assault-and-rape-international-resources>

The results of the project may be published, but you may be assured of the complete confidentiality of data gathered in this investigation: as your identity is not recorded, it cannot and will not be made public. To ensure anonymity and confidentiality, your identity is not recorded in any way beyond the demographic information you volunteer. Data will be stored anonymously, in an aggregated file so that no individual participant can be identified. Data will remain confidential to the research and will be stored in password-protected files and/or securely locked cupboards; it will be destroyed after five years. A thesis is a public document and will be available through the University of Canterbury Library. You may receive a copy of the project results by contacting the researcher at the conclusion of the project.

This project is being carried out as part of a Masters thesis by Ms. Emma Crequer under the supervision of Dr. Ekant Veer. Ms. Crequer can be contacted at emma.crequer@pg.canterbury.ac.nz; Dr. Veer at ekant.veer@canterbury.ac.nz. They will be pleased to discuss any concerns you may have about participation in the project. This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee, and participants should address any complaints to The Chair, Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

If you agree to participate in the study, you are asked to check the box below. This indicates you understand all points outlined above and what is required of you in this experiment. Please note if you do not check the box to consent, the questionnaire will not proceed and you are asked to exit this window. Please also note that there are attention checks embedded within the survey; if you fail these attention checks your survey will end and we will be unable to compensate you for your time. As such, please read all questions carefully. We will collect your Mechanical Turk Worker ID at the close of the questionnaire; this will allow us to compensate you for your time. Your honesty and cooperation are greatly appreciated.


Many thanks,
Emma Crequer

Please check the box below to continue, or exit the survey.

I agree to participate in this study.

>>

6.8.2 Final Questionnaire Screen 2



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Please confirm that you are 18 or over.

Yes I am 18 or over

No I am not 18 or over

Please indicate which gender you identify with

Female

Male

Non traditional (please specify)

Prefer not to say

>>

6.8.3 Final Questionnaire Screen 3a [Control Group]




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The following page will ask a series of questions about sexual consent. Please press the button below to continue.

>>

6.8.4 Final Questionnaire Screen 3b [Conditions]



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CHRISTCHURCH NEW ZEALAND

For the first portion of this experiment, you will be shown a single advertisement. Please note **the 'next' button will not appear until you have viewed the image for a minimum of 14 seconds.**

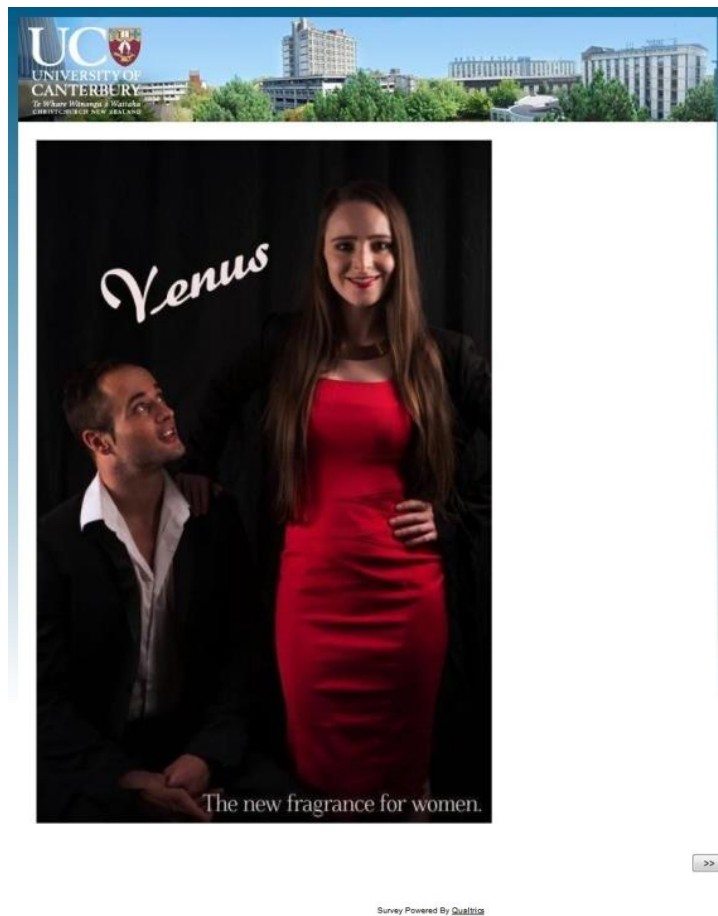
The researchers wish to remind you that if you feel uncomfortable at any point during the experiment you may close this window to exit and withdraw your participation.

The image will be shown on the next page.

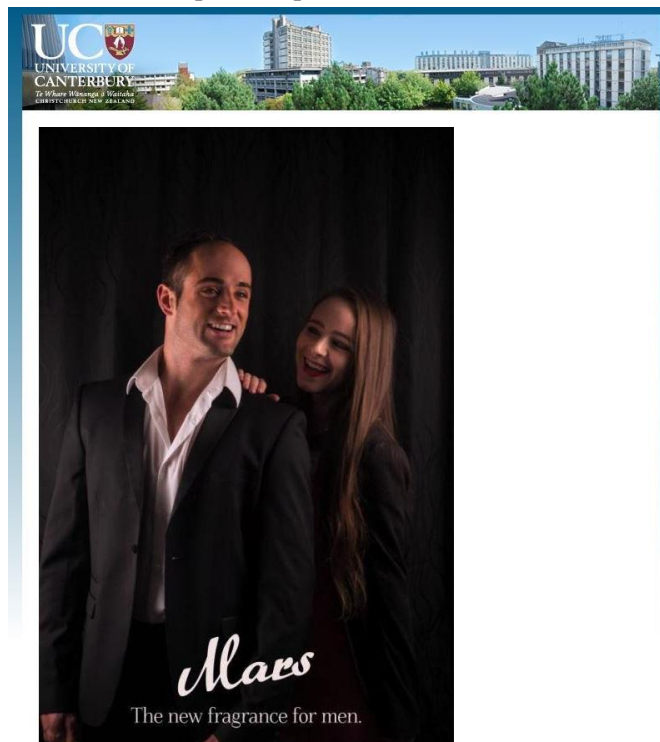
>>

6.8.5 Final Questionnaire Screen 4a [NEFD]

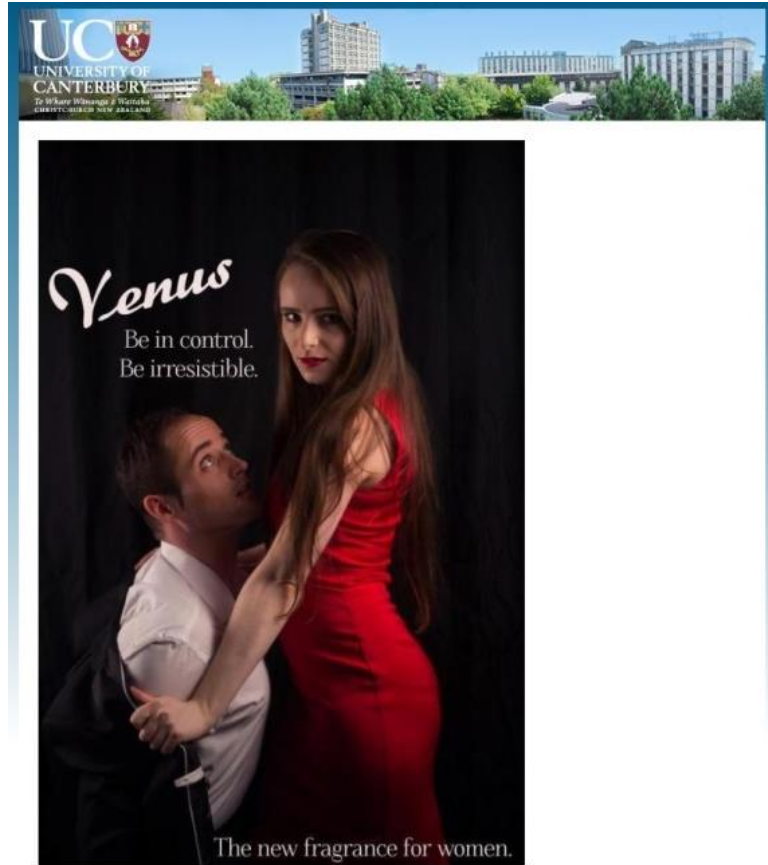
Note: On all image exposure screens, the arrow button appeared after 14 seconds.



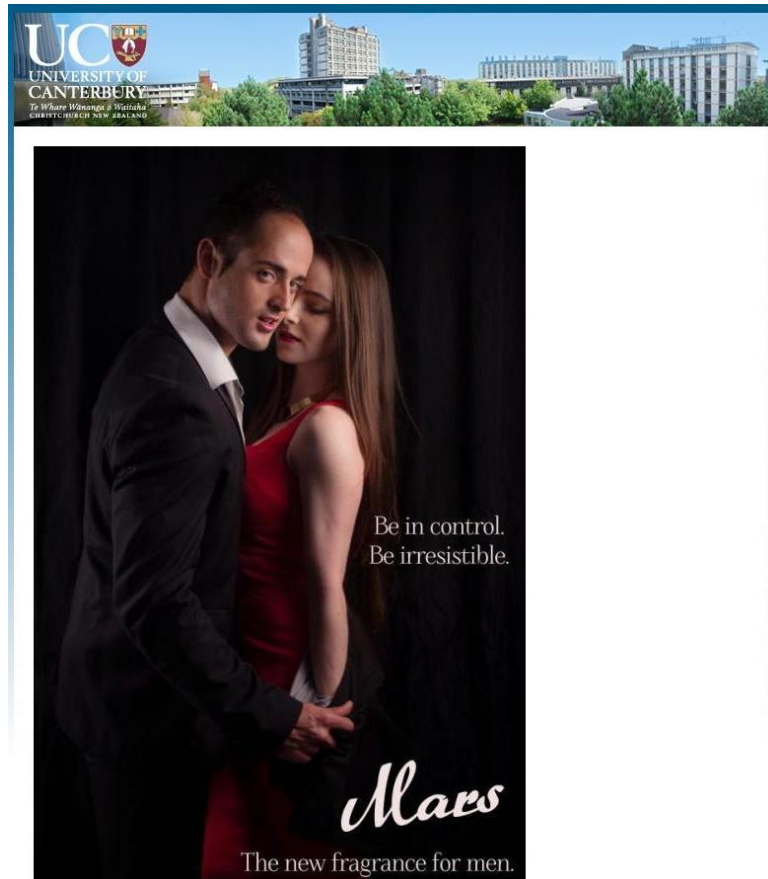
6.8.6 Final Questionnaire Screen 4b [NEMD]




6.8.7 Final Questionnaire Screen 4c [EFD]



6.8.8 Final Questionnaire Screen 4d [EMD]



6.8.11 Final Questionnaire Screen 7




The following questions are about your views on sexual consent. Again, we remind you that this questionnaire is anonymous and your answers will not be connected to you in any way; with this in mind, we would appreciate your honesty.

These questions relate to your attitude toward establishing sexual consent:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
When initiating sexual activity, I believe that one should always assume they do not have sexual consent	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Not asking for sexual consent some of the time is okay	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I believe that asking for sexual consent is in my best interest because it reduces any misinterpretations that might arise	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Before making sexual advances, I think that one should assume "no" until there is clear indication to proceed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel that sexual consent should always be obtained before the start of any sexual activity	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I believe that it is just as necessary to obtain consent for genital fondling as it is for sexual intercourse	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Most people that I care about feel that asking for sexual consent is something I should do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think it is equally important to obtain sexual consent in all relationships regardless of whether or not they have had sex before	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Please select 'Strongly Agree' as the answer to show you have read this question.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think that consent should be asked before any kind of sexual behavior, including kissing or petting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel it is the responsibility of both partners to make sure sexual consent is established before sexual activity begins	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel that verbally asking for sexual consent should occur before proceeding with any sexual activity	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

6.8.12 Final Questionnaire Screen 8




These questions relate to your behavioral approach to consent:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I always verbally ask for consent before I initiate a sexual encounter	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Typically I communicate sexual consent to my partner using nonverbal signals and body language	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Typically I ask for consent by making a sexual advance and waiting for a reaction, so I know whether or not to continue	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't have to ask or give my partner sexual consent because I have a lot of trust in my partner to "do the right thing"	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I don't have to ask or give my partner sexual consent because my partner knows me well enough	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It is easy to accurately read my current (or most recent) partner's nonverbal signals as indicating consent or non-consent to sexual activity	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

>>

6.8.13 Final Questionnaire Screen 9




These questions relate to your perception of sexual consent norms:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I believe that the need for asking for sexual consent decreases as the length of an intimate relationship increases	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a casual sexual encounter than in a committed relationship	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If consent for sexual intercourse is established, petting and fondling can be assumed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Please select "Strongly Disagree" as the answer to show you have read this question.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think that obtaining sexual consent is more necessary in a new relationship than in a committed relationship	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I believe it is enough to ask for consent at the beginning of a sexual encounter	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I believe that partners are less likely to ask for sexual consent the longer they are in a relationship	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I believe that sexual intercourse is the only sexual activity that requires explicit verbal consent	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

>>

6.8.14 Final Questionnaire Screen 10



Please indicate which gender you identify with

Male

Female

Non traditional (please specify)

Prefer not to say

Please indicate your age bracket

Please identify which ethnicity you MOST identify with

White/Caucasian

African American

Hispanic/Latino

Asian

Indian

Native American

Middle Eastern

Pacific Islander

Other (please specify)

Prefer not to say

Please indicate your country of residence

6.8.15 Final Questionnaire Screen 11



Please indicate your marital status

- Single
- Dating
- Long-term relationship
- Living with my partner
- Married
- Divorced
- Widowed
- Prefer not to say

Please indicate your sexual orientation:

My Own Gender
The Opposite Gender
Prefer Not To Say

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100

I am sexually attracted to:
(if other orientation please state)

Please answer each of the following questions:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I have not given much thought to the topic of sexual consent	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have discussed sexual consent issues with my current (or most recent) partner at times other than during sexual encounters	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have discussed sexual consent issues with a friend	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have heard sexual consent issues being discussed by other students on campus	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

>>

6.8.16 Final Questionnaire Screen 12

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CHRISTCHURCH NEW ZEALAND

If any of the content in this questionnaire has raised any issues for you, please do not hesitate to seek help and/or support. The following resources are recommended for participants based in the United States who wish to seek further information or assistance:

National Sexual Assault Hotline - 1.800.656.HOPE
Rape, Abuse, & Incest National Network (RAINN) - <https://www.rainn.org/get-help>
National Sexual Assault Online Hotline - <https://ohl.rainn.org/online/>
The National Domestic Violence Hotline - <http://www.thehotline.org/>

For RAINN's International Resources - <https://www.rainn.org/get-help/sexual-assault-and-rape-international-resources>

Please enter your Mechanical Turk Worker ID below. This will be used to compensate you for your time. Please note there will be a delay while we check over all survey results.

>>

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

6.8.17 Final Questionnaire Screen Error 1

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CANTERBURY
Te Whare Wānanga o Waitaha
CHRISTCHURCH NEW ZEALAND

Thank you for your interest in taking part in this questionnaire. Unfortunately you are either outside of the demographics we currently require, or we have filled the number of required responses for this condition. We are unable to let you continue at this time but we thank you for participation.

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

6.8.18 Final Questionnaire Screen Error 2

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CANTERBURY
Te Whare Wānanga o Waitaha
CHRISTCHURCH NEW ZEALAND

Thank you for your participation. You have failed an attention check; we will be unable to use the data you have provided so far, therefore we have terminated your survey.

If any of the content in this questionnaire has raised any issues for you, please do not hesitate to seek help and/or support. The following resources are recommended for participants based in the United States who wish to seek further information or assistance:

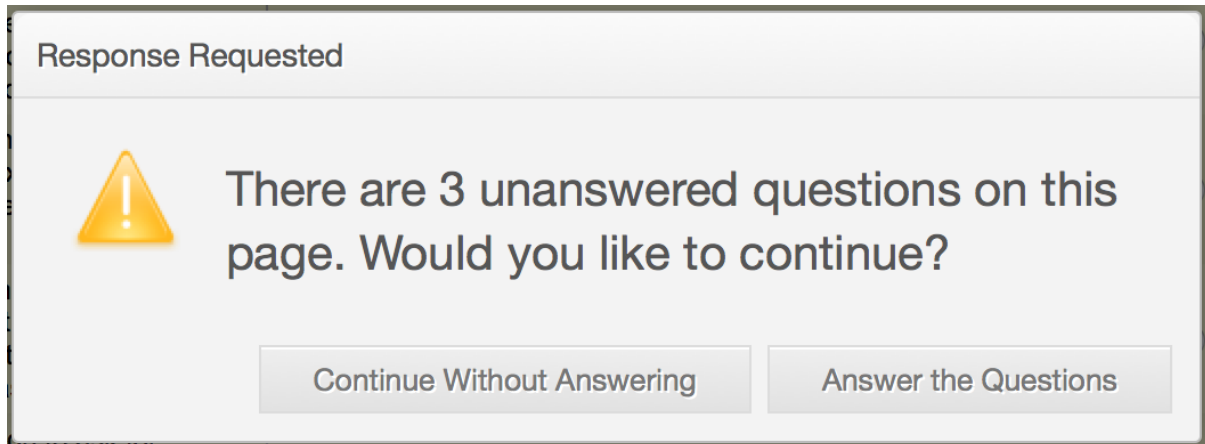
National Sexual Assault Hotline - 1.800.656.HOPE
Rape, Abuse, & Incest National Network (RAINN) - <https://www.rainn.org/get-help>
National Sexual Assault Online Hotline - <https://ohl.rainn.org/online/>
The National Domestic Violence Hotline - <http://www.thehotline.org/>
For RAINN's International Resources - <https://www.rainn.org/get-help/sexual-assault-and-rape-international-resources>

We thank you for your time.

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

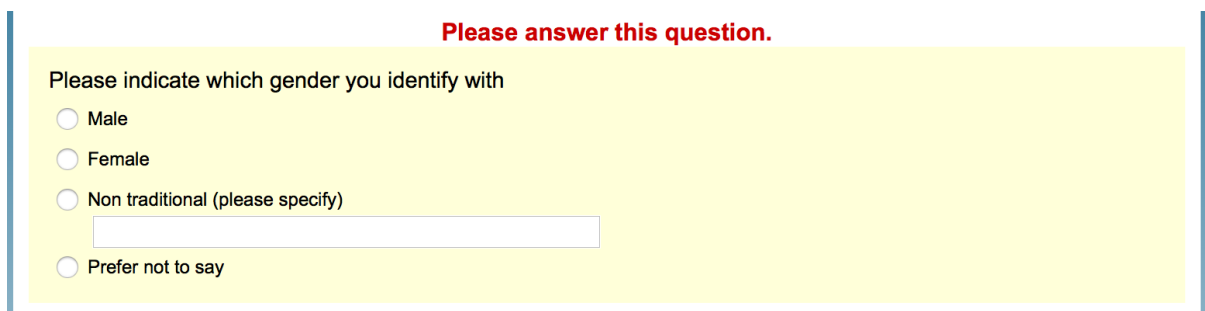
6.8.19 Final Questionnaire Screen Error 3

Any questions which did not feature a 'prefer not to say' option but were left unanswered would generate the following dialogue box.



6.8.20 Final Questionnaire Screen Error 4

Any questions which did feature a 'prefer not to say' option but were left unanswered would generate the following pop-up message and were not permitted to continue until they had selected an answer.



6.8.21 Successful End Of Session Message



6.9 Ethics Approval



HUMAN ETHICS COMMITTEE

Secretary, Lynda Griffioen
Email: human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz

Ref: HEC 2014/140

11 December 2014

Emma Crequer
College of Business & Law
UNIVERSITY OF CANTERBURY

Dear Emma

The Human Ethics Committee advises that your research proposal "Effects of eroticism in advertising on attitudes towards sexual consent" has been considered and approved.

Please note that this approval is subject to the incorporation of the amendments you have provided in your email of 10 December 2014.

Best wishes for your project.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'L. MacDonald'.

Lindsey MacDonald
Chair
University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee

6.10 Model & Photographer Information Sheet

'Effects of Eroticism in Advertising on Attitudes Towards Sexual Consent' Advertisement Creation Information Sheet

This research will be conducted by Emma Crequer, with the supervision of Ekant Veer, towards the completion of the thesis component of a Masters in Commerce. The research seeks to examine (1) whether there is a link between the levels of eroticism portrayed in advertising, and participants' attitudes towards sexual consent, and (2) whether there is an effect of the gender of either participants or subjects portrayed in advertising on participants' attitudes towards sexual consent.

Your involvement in this project will be to participate in the creation of four mock advertisements which will be used in a questionnaire. This questionnaire will discuss eroticism, gender roles, and sexual consent. If you are uncomfortable being pictured in an image associated with any of these things, please inform the researcher that you will be unable to participate. The questionnaire will be disseminated to approximately 500 participants, predominantly in the United States, who will view one of the advertisements created. These advertisements will be designed to portray one of the following scenarios: (a) a non-erotic scene with a dominant male character, (b) a non-erotic scene with a dominant female character, (c) an erotic scene with a dominant male character, and (d) an erotic scene with a dominant female character. These scenarios will see one male and one female model interacting, as described above and by the researcher. Further details on the use of these images and the participants who are likely to view them will be discussed with you by the researcher to ensure that you have a full understanding.

In the creation of these advertisements, you will be asked to act out/photograph a scenario that is sexual in nature. If you think this may be at all uncomfortable for you or may raise any issues for you personally, please inform the researchers that you will be unable to participate. The researcher will be present at all times during the photo shoot and has your wellbeing as a top priority. At no stage will you be asked to do anything if you feel uncomfortable. Your participation is voluntary; you may withdraw at any stage without penalty and we thank you for any time you have taken so far.

As your participation is voluntary you are able to withdraw your involvement if you so choose. However we ask that you please consider carefully before agreeing to participate; after the photographs have been taken they will be edited in line with advertising standards, which may represent a significant amount of time invested. The images could still be withdrawn at this point, but once the questionnaire has been released online participants in the experiment will be able to view the images, at which point it becomes significantly harder to withdraw. Please be aware also that this research may be published; if this is the case we are able to protect your anonymity if you wish, for

instance through blurring out faces in the photographs and/or using pseudonyms. Your identity will not be made public without your prior consent; the researcher will discuss this with you further. You may receive a copy of the project results by contacting the researcher at the conclusion of the project.

All images will be stored securely on the UC network in password-protected files. Any hard copies of information will be stored in a secure facility. All data will be destroyed after a period of five years. A thesis is a public document and will be available through the UC Library.

The photographs will be used solely for academic research and data collection, and will not sold for use for any other purposes. You will have the right to view all photographs and retain usage rights for non-commercial purposes, however the researcher retains ownership of the images. Any dissemination of the images for personal purposes that you choose to undertake should be discussed with the other parties involved (photographer/both models in question).

The project is being carried out as a requirement for the thesis component of a Masters in Commerce by Emma Crequer under the supervision of Ekant Veer, who can be contacted at ekant.veer@canterbury.ac.nz. They will be pleased to discuss any concerns you may have about participation in the project.

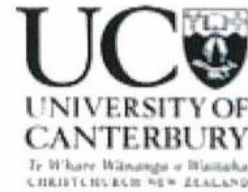
This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee, and participants should address any complaints to The Chair, Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz).

If you agree to participate in the study, you are asked to complete the consent form and return it before the photo shoot can be scheduled.

Emma Crequer

6.11 Model & Photographer Consent Forms

College of Business and Law
Telephone: +64 3 [Your telephone number]
Email: emma.crequer@pg.canterbury.ac.nz
[Date]



'Effects of Eroticism in Advertising on Attitudes Towards Sexual Consent' Photographer Release Form

I have been given a full explanation of this study and the tasks I will be required to undertake as a part of it – that is, shooting a series of photographs.

I understand that these photographs will be used as part of an experiment relating to gender roles, eroticism, and sexual consent. I understand the questionnaire that will be used and the part these images will play, and have been given details of the types of participants that may view these photographs.

I understand that the photographs generated may be sexual in nature.

I understand that I will not be asked to do anything that I am uncomfortable with, and that if I feel discomfort at any stage, I should make this known to the researcher (who will be present). I also understand that I will be guided by the researcher with regards to the tone of the photographs and poses required of the models.

I understand that these images will not be used for any purpose outside of this experiment or publication of this experiment without the written permission of all parties involved in creating them.

I give permission for the researcher to edit the photographs to ensure they are fit for purpose.

I understand that I may withdraw my participation from this experiment at any time without penalty and I confirm that I am 18 or over.

I understand that the photographs will be used for academic research purposes and data collection. I understand that the photographs will not be sold for use for any other purposes. I agree that these images may appear in academic publications.

I understand that I retain usage rights of the images for my own non-commercial purposes, however I acknowledge that the researchers retain ownership of these images. If I wish to disseminate these photographs further for personal purposes, this will also need to be discussed with the models involved.

Name: Natasha Hing

Signature: [Handwritten Signature]
Date: 20/07/2015

College of Business and Law
Telephone: +64 3 [Your telephone number]
Email: emma.crequer@pg.canterbury.ac.nz
[Date]



'Effects of Eroticism in Advertising on Attitudes Towards Sexual Consent'
Model Release Form

I have been given a full explanation of this study and the tasks I will be required to undertake as a part of it – that is, modelling for a series of photographs.

I understand that these photographs will be used as part of an experiment relating to gender roles, eroticism, and sexual consent. I understand the questionnaire that will be used and the part these images will play, and have been given details of the types of participants that may view these photographs.

I understand that the photographs generated may be sexual in nature.

I understand that I will not be asked to do anything that I am uncomfortable with, and that if I feel discomfort at any stage, I should make this known to the researcher (who will be present) and the photographer. I understand that I will be working alongside another model and may be asked to interact with this person.

I understand that these images will not be used for any purpose outside of this experiment or publication of this experiment without the written permission of all parties involved in creating them.

I give permission for the researcher to edit the photographs to ensure they are fit for purpose.

I understand that I may withdraw my participation from this experiment at any time without penalty and I confirm that I am 18 or over.

I understand that the photographs will be used for academic research purposes and data collection. I understand that the photographs will not be sold for use for any other purposes. I agree that these images may appear in academic publications, but that my anonymity can be protected in these cases (for example, by blurring faces).

I understand that I have the right to view all photographs taken. I retain usage rights of the images for my own non-commercial purposes, however I acknowledge that the researchers retain ownership of these images. If I wish to disseminate these photographs further for personal purposes, this will also need to be discussed with the photographer and co-model.

Name: _____ Christopher Olwage _____

Signature: _____
4/4/2015

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'Christopher Olwage', written over a horizontal line.

Date:

College of Business and Law
Telephone: +64 3 [Your telephone number]
Email: emma.crequer@pg.canterbury.ac.nz
[Date]



'Effects of Eroticism in Advertising on Attitudes Towards Sexual Consent' Model Release Form

I have been given a full explanation of this study and the tasks I will be required to undertake as a part of it – that is, modelling for a series of photographs.

I understand that these photographs will be used as part of an experiment relating to gender roles, eroticism, and sexual consent. I understand the questionnaire that will be used and the part these images will play, and have been given details of the types of participants that may view these photographs.

I understand that the photographs generated may be sexual in nature.

I understand that I will not be asked to do anything that I am uncomfortable with, and that if I feel discomfort at any stage, I should make this known to the researcher (who will be present) and the photographer. I understand that I will be working alongside another model and may be asked to interact with this person.

I understand that these images will not be used for any purpose outside of this experiment or publication of this experiment without the written permission of all parties involved in creating them.

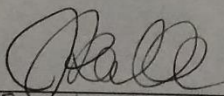
I give permission for the researcher to edit the photographs to ensure they are fit for purpose.

I understand that I may withdraw my participation from this experiment at any time without penalty and I confirm that I am 18 or over.

I understand that the photographs will be used for academic research purposes and data collection. I understand that the photographs will not be sold for use for any other purposes. I agree that these images may appear in academic publications, but that my anonymity can be protected in these cases (for example, by blurring faces).

I understand that I have the right to view all photographs taken. I retain usage rights of the images for my own non-commercial purposes, however I acknowledge that the researchers retain ownership of these images. If I wish to disseminate these photographs further for personal purposes, this will also need to be discussed with the photographer and co-model.

Name: Jessica Kate Tweed

Signature: 
Date: 12-04-15

6.12 Further Demographic Results & Analysis From Main Study

6.12.1 State Of Residence For Participants Residing In The United States

U.S. State	Frequency	Percent	U.S. State	Frequency	Percent
Alabama	9	1.7	Missouri	8	1.5
Arizona	14	2.7	Montana	1	0.2
Arkansas	2	0.4	Nebraska	3	0.6
California	64	12.3	Nevada	9	1.7
Colorado	3	0.6	New Hampshire	2	0.4
Connecticut	6	1.1	New Jersey	15	2.9
Delaware	1	0.2	New Mexico	3	0.6
District of Columbia	2	0.4	New York	40	7.7
Florida	46	8.8	North Carolina	17	3.3
Georgia	17	3.3	Ohio	19	3.6
Hawaii	6	1.1	Oklahoma	2	0.4
Idaho	5	1	Oregon	9	1.7
Illinois	21	4	Pennsylvania	23	4.4
Indiana	6	1.1	Rhode Island	2	0.4
Iowa	2	0.4	South Carolina	5	1
Kansas	8	1.5	Tennessee	8	1.5
Kentucky	5	1	Texas	24	4.6
Louisiana	4	0.8	Utah	4	0.8
Maine	3	0.6	Vermont	2	0.4
Maryland	5	1	Virginia	12	2.3
Massachusetts	10	1.9	Washington	15	2.9
Michigan	18	3.4	West Virginia	4	0.8
Minnesota	9	1.7	Wisconsin	7	1.3
Mississippi	3	0.6	Total	503	96.4

6.12.2 Gender Identity Differences In Sexual Orientation

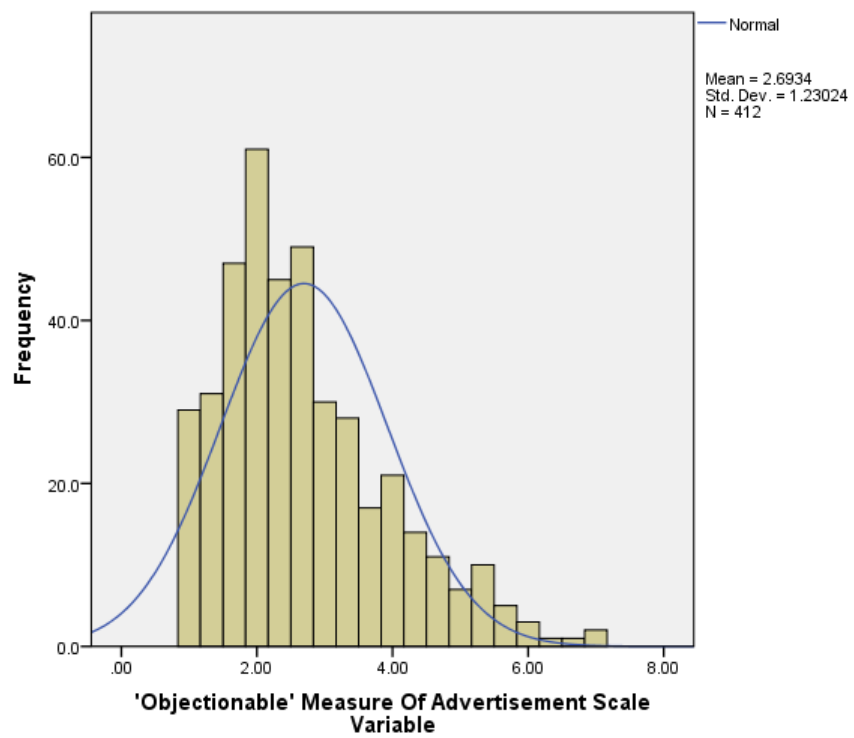
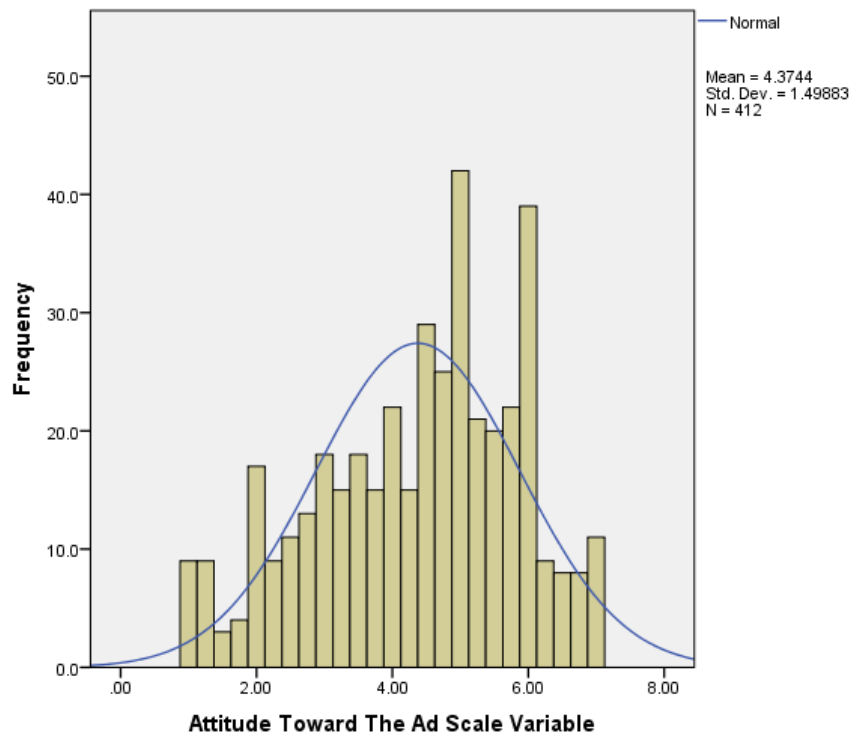
An Independent Samples t-Test revealed a significant difference in the way males and females classify their sexual orientation. Please note scores ranged from being sexually attracted to 'My Own Gender' (0), to 'The Opposite Gender' (100).

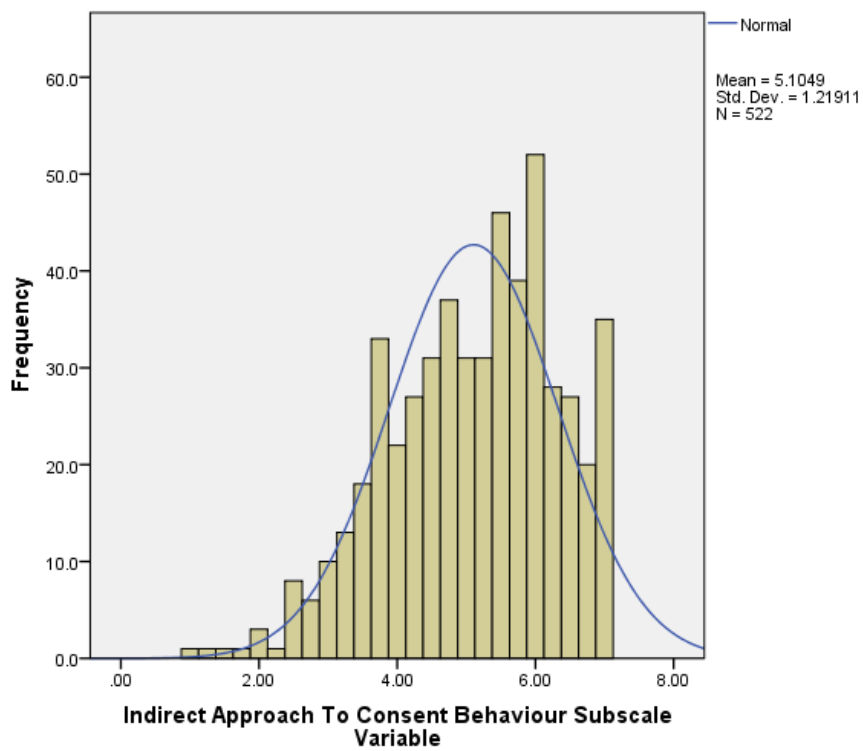
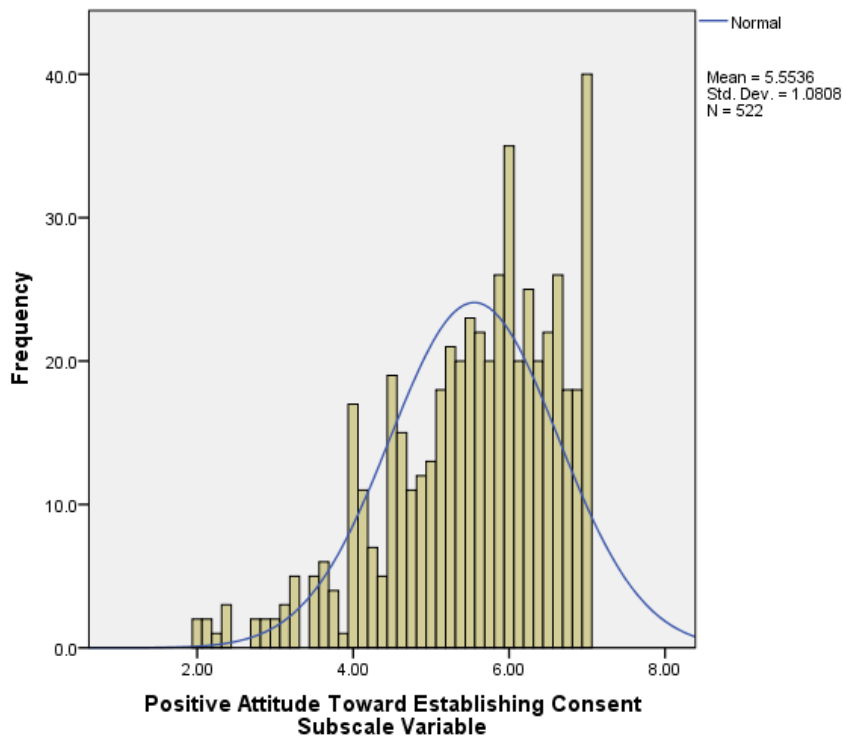
Gender Identity	N	Mean Sexual Orientation Scores	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Male	313	92.21	22.875	1.293
Female	206	87.81	23.829	1.66

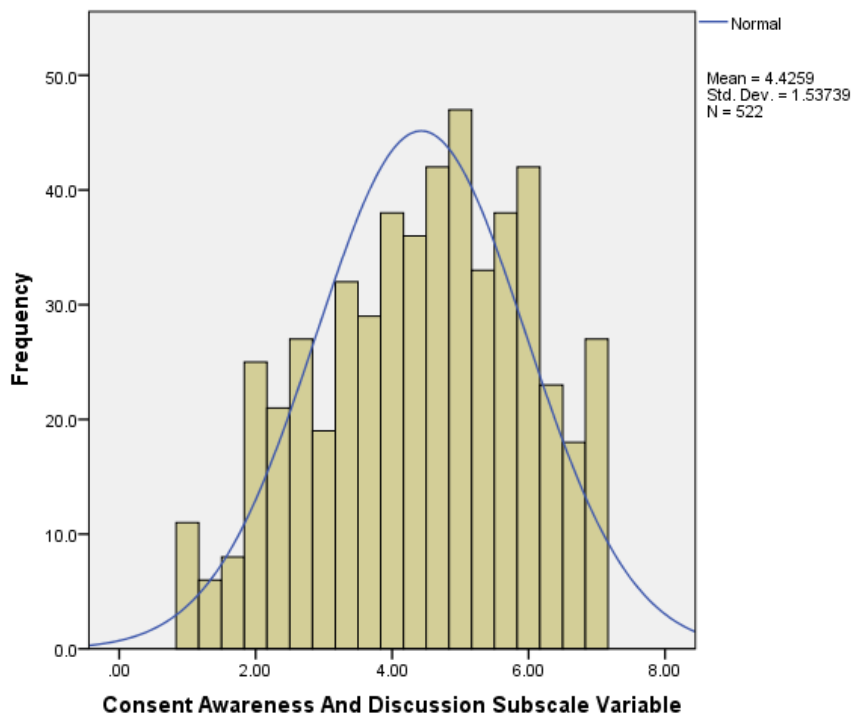
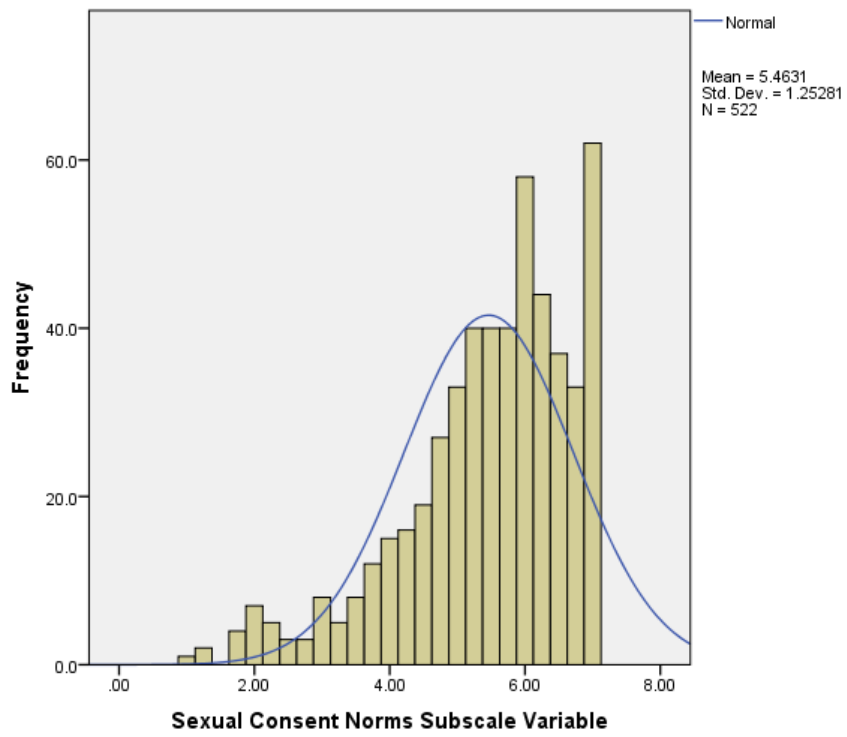
t	Sig	Mean Difference
2.093	0.037	4.403

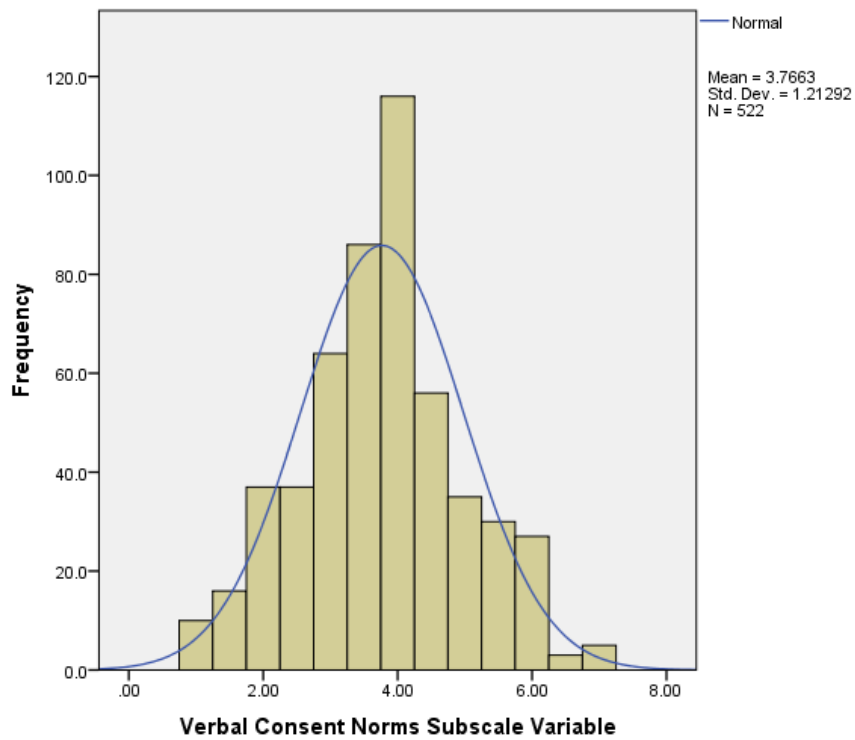
Equal Variances not assumed - Levene's test F = 9.117, p = .003

6.13 Histograms









6.14 Exemplar Advertisements

These are accessible at <http://imgur.com/S6Anqpo>. Please note this research does not claim to have copyright to reproduce these images.