ISTANBUL BILGI UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE PROGRAMS
CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY MASTER'S DEGREE PROGRAM

THE EFFECTS OF GENDER, RELATIONSHIP STATUS, AND WOMEN'S RESPONSE ON SEXUAL CONSENT ATTITUDES

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İSTANBUL 2021

The Effects of Gender, Relationship Status, and Women's Response on Sexual Consent Attitudes

İlişki Durumu, Cinsiyet ve Kadınların Sergilediği Davranışların Cinsel Rıza Tutumlarına Etkisi

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Date of Approval of Thesis: 22.06.2021

Total Page Number: 66

Keywords(Turkish)
1) Sexual Consent
2) Gender
3) Relationship Status
4) Sexual Attitudes
5) Gender Role Ideology

Keywords(English)
1) Cinsel Rıza
2) Toplumsal Cinsiyet
3) İlişki Durumu
4) Cinsel Tutumlar
5) Cinsiyet Rolleri Tutumları

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I am grateful to my thesis advisors Hale Bolak Boratav and Ümit Akırmak for their advice and all their help from the beginning to the end of writing my thesis. Also, I would like to thank Alev Çavdar Sideris to provide her students her knowledge and love during all our years in the program.

Nothing is enough to say to my lovely friends Dilan, Miray, Lelas, to my beautiful sister Gamze, and to my one and only Merih. I would like to thank all of them for giving me emotional support and courage and be there whenever I needed.

I am so grateful to my classmates Ece, Eda, Dilan, Gizem, Kaan, Merve, Rümeysa, Tunç, Selin, Sezgi, and Sümeyye for accompanying each other in every step of this way.

I want to express my appreciation and love to my parents, who shared all my emotions in this process and encouraged me to do all my best. They always support and love me while walking my own way. I am whoever I am, thanks to them.

Lastly, I want to thank TÜBİTAK for providing financial support throughout the graduate program.

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of response type given by women to men's sexual advance, relationship status of the couple, and gender of the individuals on sexual consent attitudes. The data for the research was gathered through an online survey. The survey package consisted of the Informed Consent Form, Demographic Information Form, Sexual Consent Vignettes, GRI Scale, INDCOL, and Debriefing Form. The sexual consent vignettes included a hypothetical couple on first date, in three-month relationship, and two-year marriage. The woman in the scenarios responded to the sexual advances of the man by giving verbal response, non-verbal response, no response, and refusal response.

It has been hypothesized that male participants will infer more sexual consent as compared to female participants for all hypothetical responses in the scenarios. GRI may have a possible role in this effect. Also, participants will infer sexual consent most in hypothetical verbal response followed by nonverbal response. Participants will infer less sexual consent in hypothetical no response followed by refusal. Another hypothesis is that when hypothetical relationship status is more long-term and the woman gives no response to the sexual consent of the man, participants will infer more consent. The results will be discussed considering individualism- collectivism levels of the participants.

The results showed that there is an effect of hypothetical response type, gender of the participants, and their interaction on sexual consent attitudes. Men inferred more consent as compared to women in all hypothetical response types. After controlling GRI, there was no significant difference between men and women in refusal condition. There was no main and interaction effect of relationship status.

Keywords: sexual consent, gender, relationship status, sexual attitudes, gender role ideology

ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı kadınların, erkeklerin cinsel yakınlaşmasına verdiği tepkinin, çiftin ilişki durumunun ve cinsiyetin cinsel rıza tutumları üzerindeki etkilerini araştırmaktır. Çalışma verileri çevrimiçi anket aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Anket içeriği sırasıyla Bilgilendirilmiş Onam Formu, Demografik Bilgi Formu, Cinsel Rıza Hikayeleri, GRI Ölçeği, INDCOL ve Katılım Sonrası Bilgi Formundan oluşmaktadır. Cinsel Rıza Hikayeleri ilk buluşma, üç aylık ilişki ve iki senelik evlilik yaşayan çiftten oluşmaktadır. Hikayelerdeki kadın, erkeğin cinsel yakınlaşmalarına sözel cevap verme, sözel olmayan cevap verme, itiraz etmeme ve reddetme şeklinde karşılık vermektedir.

Çalışmada, erkek katılımcıların, tüm varsayımsal karşılık verme durumlarında, kadın katılımcılardan daha fazla cinsel rıza çıkarımında bulunacağı beklenmiştir. Cinsiyetin bu etkisinde Toplumsal Cinsiyet Rolleri Tutumlarının olası etkisi beklenmiştir. Ayrıca katılımcıların sözel karşılık verme durumundan sonra sözel olmayan karşılık verme durumunda en yüksek oranda cinsel rıza çıkarımında bulunacağı beklenmiştir. İtiraz etmeme durumunda sözel olmayan duruma göre daha az, reddetme durumuna göre daha yüksek cinsel rıza çıkarımında bulunacakları beklenmiştir. Ek olarak, hikayedeki çiftin ilişki süresi daha uzun olduğunda ve hikayedeki kadın itiraz etmediğinde diğer ilişki durumlarına göre daha fazla cinsel çıkarımda bulunacakları beklenmiştir. Bulgular bireycilik-toplulukçuluk değerlerine göre değerlendirilmiştir.

Hikayedeki kadının karşılığının, katılımcıların cinsiyetinin ve bunların etkileşiminin cinsel rıza tutumları üzerinde etkisi olduğu görülmüştür. Erkekler kadınlara göre tüm varsayımsal karşılık verme durumunda daha yüksek cinsel rıza çıkarımında bulunmuştur. Toplumsal cinsiyet rolleri tutumu kontrol edildikten sonra, varsayımsal reddetme durumunda kadın ve erkek katılımcılar arasında bir fark görülmemiştir. İlişki durumunun tek başına veya etkileşimsel bir etkisinin olmadığı görülmüştür.

Anahtar Kelimeler: cinsel rıza, toplumsal cinsiyet, ilişki durumu, cinsel tutumlar, cinsiyet roller tutumları

INTRODUCTION

Sexual assault and rape constitute major social problems. There is no uniform agreement on the meaning of sexual assault and rape; in fact, how these terms are defined legally even differ between justice systems (Eileraas, 2011). As expected, the lack of agreement on one definition also shows itself in operational definitions in different studies (Muehlenhard et al., 1992). The broad definition of sexual assault is that all types of sexual encounter that happen without consent (Polusny & Arbisi, 2006). The term consent also shows itself in the definition of sexual assault given by the Republic of Turkey Ministry of Justice (Crimes Against Sexual Inviolability: Sexual Assault, 2004). The ministry defines sexual assault as the case when another person violates the physical integrity of the victim and being touched, kissed, or hugged without the consent of the victim. Rape, on the other hand, has a narrower general definition (Mehlenhard et al., 2016), which is vaginal, anal, or oral coitus occurring with physical force or when the victim cannot give consent due to their age, mental health problems, or being under the effect of drug or alcohol (Koss, 1992).

Senn et al. (2014) found that 50% of women at the university level experienced sexual assault from the time of 14 years of age. Muehlenhard et al. (2017), on the other hand, showed that almost 20% of females in college faced sexual assault during their education in university. Krebs et al. (2009) also found the same sexual assault percentage during university education. When it comes to Turkey, the Republic of Turkey Ministry of Family, Labor, and Social Services (General Directorate of Woman Status, 2020) stated that the proportion of women who experienced sexual assault at a time point in their lifetime was 12% in 2014. Since 1972, it has been required for the universities in the USA to take necessary precautions to prevent sexual assault and harassment and take the necessary steps as soon as possible in case of any occurrences (Jozkowski, 2015). A similar action was taken in universities in Turkey too when most universities published “Cinsel Tacize Karşı Önlem ve Destek İlkeleri Belgesi” (eg. İstanbul Bilgi University, 2016; Kadir Has University, 2017; Okan University, 2017; Sabancı University,

2016). Campaigns to raise awareness of sexual assault are not only limited to universities. In 2014, California enacted legislation concerning sexual assault (Bogle, 2014, as cited in Jozkowski, 2015). Both campaigns in universities and political legislations, however, included and highlighted the importance of consent in both their definitions and required steps needed to be taken for prevention. While being used widely in both definitions of sexual assault and rape, and also in campaigns and policies, there is no universally agreed definition of consent (Mehlenhard et al., 2016).

CHAPTER 1

LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1.DEFINITION OF SEXUAL CONSENT

It was suggested that traditional sexual script explains sexual coercion in heterosexual relationships in which men are considered as initiators of sexual encounters and women as gatekeepers (Jozkowski & Peterson, 2013). In line with these ascribed roles, in traditional sexual scripts, men start the sexual encounter and if women do not have consent to sexual activity, they have the responsibility to stop the men (Wiederman, 2005). Despite the women's responsibility to end the action in case of nonconsensual encounters, in some variants of the script, men keep on their sexual actions despite the women's refusal. In this case, men may believe that women are not giving consent in order to not look "easy" or may expect that the women will eventually give consent by getting aroused (Jozkowski & Hunt, 2014, as cited in Jozkowski, 2015).

Problematizing men's not accepting women's refusal during sexual activity, the "No means no" movement started. The main proposition is that verbally stating refusal to sexual activity must be considered as not giving consent for a sexual activity. In this case, the definition of consent is not saying no. However, despite the "No means no" movement's clear argument, a lot of people still argue that

verbal refusal of women cannot be considered as an evidence of rape. Given that there is still no agreement on whether sexual activity continued by men after women's verbal refusal should be considered as rape shows that the "No means no" movement has failed (Little, 2005). Besides, other objections state that the "No means no" statement, unfortunately, does not point to instances where women cannot say no. These instances include cases when women fainted or used drugs and alcohol causing them to be incapacitated. Women may also be shocked because of fear or may feel confused about the situation since the majority of sexual acts without consent do not happen in accordance with the widely held myth of rape by a stranger at gun point (Muehlenhard et al., 2016).

The arguments of the "No means no" movement have been replaced by the "Yes means yes" claim, which is also called affirmative consent (AC) (Beres, 2014). With this substitution, the definition of consent also changed. AC policies necessitate the parties in sexual activity to ask and obtain "yes" as an answer at crucial moments during the sexual activity. The goal of AC is to defend those who have been subjected to sexual abuse and remained quiet although they would not have preferred to have sexual encounters if they had the chance to choose. According to California legislation, there are four important facets of AC. The first and the most important one is that AC enforces an obligation on the initiators of the sexual encounter to make sure that their partners have given consent to have sex. Secondly, AC makes it clear that the victim being quiet or not resisting do not meet the requirements of AC. Thirdly, AC's conceptualization of sexual encounters includes various actions and phrases. Instead of concentrating only on insertion as the definitory phase of a sexual encounter, AC mandates consent to be continuing and making it possible to be canceled whenever wanted. Lastly, AC forbids giving parties' having a relationship or having a history of a sexual encounter as an excuse for assuming consent for the particular sexual encounter (Chamallas, 2017).

Some components of AC policies can be considered beneficial. For example, Miller (2020) stated that an important touchstone of AC is opposition. In AC policies, consent is not presumed until the person states consent affirmatively. Therefore, the absence of "no" as an answer does not indicate the presence of

consent. This difference is significant given that opposition is a fundamental part of classical rape schemas. Although the AC movement received support from some researchers (e.g. Little, 2005), others have criticisms and oppositions to AC.

Some claim that the language of AC policies inclines to be vague; therefore, making what makes up consent is vague too. Is giving "yes" verbally a necessity? How can a person communicate their AC? (Miller, 2020). Others claim that AC policies are not going to decrease the incidents of sexual abuse since they do not apply to the individuals who experienced sexual abuse when they were affected by alcohol or drugs. It is also claimed that with AC policies, people will simply state that the victim said "yes", instead of claiming that the victim did not say "no" (Bogle, 2014, as cited in Jozkowski, 2015). In addition to the critiques related to the language and utility of AC, there are also criticisms related to its conceptualization. For example, Beres (2014) argues that the movement for voicing consent is happening in the lack of a theoretical understanding of the concept and that it is not clear how the people the targets of their campaigns will understand consent.

1.2.COMMUNICATION OF SEXUAL CONSENT

1.2.1. How Do Individuals Communicate Their Sexual Consent?

Hall (1998) conducted research on whether people use verbal or nonverbal signals to communicate their consent with their partners. He asked participants how they would indicate their consent for various situations from kissing to penetration. He found that the communication style differed between situations. For instance, penetration was the least nonverbally communicated instance. Despite these differences in the percentage of preferred communication styles between participants, nonverbal signals were used more for every situation. While this study examined cases in which people communicated their consent when they wanted to engage in sexual activity, Byers and Heinlein (1989) examined communication preference in both giving consent and not giving consent. Their findings showed

that while giving consent for sexual activity, people prefer non-verbal signals; verbal signals are preferred more when not giving consent. In line with their research, O'Sullivan and Byers (1992) also found a preference for verbal signals in case of not giving consent. It was also found that people evaluated giving verbal consent at every step of the sexual encounter as not being stimulating or romantic; therefore, as not preferred (Humphreys & Herold, 2003). Contrary to these findings, however, Jozkowski et al. (2014) found a preference for verbal signals while both giving consent and not giving consent. Despite their findings, most of the studies indicate that although verbal consent can be asked and given during sexual encounters; it is not a component of the normative sexual script of heterosexual relationships for most young adults (Humphreys, 2004).

Even though they provide useful information on consent communication, these studies include limited response options. Jozkowski et al. (2014), for instance, criticized Hall's study (1998) for including only 2 types of consent communication (verbal and nonverbal). They stated that with these limited response options there remains a large body of information unexplored. By diminishing this limitation and looking at the types of communication at a deeper level, Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999) examined 7 different consent communication types: direct-verbal, indirect-verbal, direct-nonverbal, indirect non-verbal, intoxication, no response, and refusal. They gave participants 34 different vignettes each of which has a different response type and asked them to rate the extent to which they used these behaviors to give consent. The results showed that participants stated that they showed their consent to sexual activity by not giving a response, i.e. by not resisting the other person. Moreover, direct-verbal communications of consent were the least preferred types. Similarly, the study of Beres et al. (2004) conducted with same-sex couples revealed that individuals are most likely to convey their consent to their partners by not resisting their advances.

1.2.2. How Do Individuals Interpret the Signals of Sexual Consent?

While previous research found that individuals are more likely to communicate their consent by using nonverbal signals (Byers & Heinlein, 1989; Hall, 1998; O'Sullivan & Byers, 1992) many studies revealed that nonverbal signals are also used most when women and men infer their partner's sexual consent (Jozkowski et al., 2014; Jozkowski, 2013). The same result was found for same-sex couples (Beres et al., 2004). Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999) found that individuals use different signals when communicating their consent and indicating their partner's consent. While they are using no response signals most and direct verbal and direct nonverbal cues least to communicate their own consent, they are using direct verbal and nonverbal cues most and no response cues least to infer their hypothetical partner's consent. Likewise, only two of 21 interviewees reported that if their partners do not resist their sexual advances, they can infer that their partner is showing consent (Beres, 2010).

When participants were given hypothetical situations and asked to indicate the extent to which they could infer their partner's sexual consent, direct verbal and nonverbal signals were chosen the most (Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999). However, individuals reported that they do not need to use explicit verbal cues in real life. When asked how they inferred their partner's consent in real life, they responded with "you just know" (Beres, 2010) and "it is obvious" (Jozkowski & Hunt, 2014, as cited in Muehlenhard et al., 2016). The tacit knowing theme reveals that people infer their partner's consent from the context they are in such as ordering drinks for each other and leaving a bar together.

Similar to the situation in which individuals communicate their own consent to their partners (Byers & Heinlein, 1989; O'Sullivan & Byers, 1992), verbal cues are seen as more indicative than nonverbal cues to infer partners' nonconsent (Burrow et al., 1998; Byers & Lewis, 1988; O'Byrne et al., 2006).

1.2.3. Initiation of the Sexual Activity

Many factors affect the initiation of sexual activity and reactions of the initiation behavior such as partner's signals, current mental state, and energy status of an individual, gratification from the relationship between partners, and aspects related to the individual including gender (Byers & Heinlein, 1989). Byers and Heinlein (1989) presented participants with a questionnaire to investigate their sexual activities within a week period. The questions included whether they had a sexual activity, who initiated it, whether they themselves intended to initiate it, and the responses of the partner. They found that women were less likely to initiate or think of initiating as compared to men. They also found that if the couple lives together, men are more likely to initiate. On the other hand, when women are younger and get more sexual gratification, they are more likely to initiate sexual activity. Negative responses to the initiation were more likely to be verbal than positive responses. Positive responses were more likely to be nonverbal. O'Sullivan and Byers (1992) also found men to be more likely than women to initiate sexual activity. Both studies found that there is no difference between women and men in the number of positive and negative responses (Byers & Heinlein, 1989; O'Sullivan & Byers, 1992).

These findings are consistent with the findings of Jozkowski and Peterson (2013) about consent attitudes. They asked open-ended questions about sexual consent to their participants. When asked how they indicate consent to sexual activity, men answered as asking their partner and women answered as responding to their partner. Most women disagreed with the idea of initiating sexual activity. Yet they expected their partner's initiation and respond positively.

Similar results were found by Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999) for hypothetical situations. They presented their participants with four different scenarios: verbal self-initiation, nonverbal self-initiation, verbal date-initiation, and nonverbal date-initiation of sexual activity. 34 behaviors followed these scenarios. For the self-initiation condition, they asked participants to rate the extent to which those behaviors indicate their date's consent for sexual intercourse. For the date

initiation condition, they rated the extent to which these behaviors indicate their own consent for sexual intercourse. Participants imagined themselves better in nonverbal initiation scenarios. They also found gender differences. Men could imagine themselves better in the self-initiation scenarios as compared to women.

1.3.GENDER DIFFERENCES IN SEXUAL CONSENT COMMUNICATION

In many studies, individuals have been found to use nonverbal cues to communicate their consent (Beres et al., 2004; Byers & Heinlein, 1989; Hall, 1998, Jozkowski et al., 2014; Jozkowski, 2013; O'Sullivan & Byers; 1992). Besides, even though Hall (1998) found differences in using verbal versus nonverbal cues in different types of sexual encounters, he did not find gender differences in using verbal and nonverbal signals. However, Jozkowski et al. (2014) asked participants a variety of closed-ended and open-ended questions about consent and found that men are more likely to use nonverbal signals such as body language as compared to women while communicating their consent. On the other hand, women use verbal signals more than men to show their consent. Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999) added direct and indirect cues among their questions and found that both genders use indirect signals to communicate consent. Besides, their findings were similar to the results of the study of Jozkowski et al. (2014). They found that women are more likely to use indirect verbal cues such as talking positively about sexual activity and men are more likely to use indirect nonverbal cues such as rubbing and touching.

Men and women's tendency to use signals to understand their partner's consent is similar to their tendency of using cues for communicating their consent. Men are more likely to use nonverbal cues such as women's responses to their initiation by kissing and making no eye contact to infer their partner's consent and nonconsent, respectively. However, women use verbal cues more to understand consent such as when the partner talks about protection and to infer nonconsent such as that the partner says "I do not want to." (Jozkowski et al., 2014). The study by Humphreys and Herold (2007) also revealed differences between women and men both in what consent is and how it should be communicated. They developed a scale to assess individuals' attitudes towards sexual consent, collected data from

514 students. They found that more women than men think that consent should be asked before any kind of sexual encounter. Yet, more men than women agree that they can suppose that their partner gives consent and that they can proceed to the sexual activity unless their partner refuses it.

1.3.1. Sexual Script Theory

Sexual scripting theory states that there are different expectations from and roles for women and men in heterosexual relationships. While men are considered as the initiators of sexual encounters, women are expected to be gatekeepers and to answer to these initiations by men (Byers & Heinlein, 1989; Dworkin & O'Sullivan 2005). According to these roles, men should always chase women and insist on a sexual relationship whereas women should resist sex to protect their 'reputation' (Check & Malamuth, 1983). Many aforementioned studies supported the role of a man as initiator and a woman as responder (Byers & Heinlein, 1989; Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999; Jozkowski & Peterson, 2013; O'Sullivan & Byers, 1992). Besides, Burkett and Hamilton (2012) interviewed eight women about attitudes towards consent and sexual assault. One theme that emerged was consistent with sexual script theory. Until women verbally and explicitly stop the men, men can assume that women consent to sexual activity. Thus, it is women's responsibility to prevent any sexual assault. The study of Byers and Lewis (1988) also supports the expectations from men to be persistent. They found that after receiving no from their partners, 16.1% of men questioned this response, 7.1% of men tried to convince their partner, and 10.7 of men maintained physical contact with their partner. These rates may be related to men's expectation about women's need to engage in token resistance and men's need to be persistent.

Beres et al. (2004) explored sexual scripts by conducting research with same-sex couples. They found that consistent with the literature on heterosexual couples, both women to women and men to men couples use nonverbal signals more than verbal signals. Moreover, contrary to the heterosexual couples in which men use nonverbal and women use verbal signals, they found no difference between

male and female same-sex couples in the use of verbal or nonverbal cues. They concluded that homosexual individuals do not subscribe to such gender roles as a man being the initiator and a woman being gatekeepers, but that they have similar tendencies with their partners.

1.3.2. Miscommunication Theory

Many studies have shown gender differences in communication during sexual activity (Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999; Humphreys, 2004; Jozkowski et al., 2014). According to miscommunication theory, incidents of sexual violence can result from these communication differences between men and women (Abbey et al., 1998; O'Byrne et al., 2008). Miscommunication theory points that men misunderstand the signals from their partners due to these traditional scripts. Beres (2010) reported two types of miscommunication: men are more likely to see their partner as indicating consent and women are more likely to exhibit token resistance towards their partner. For instance, since men use nonverbal, but women use verbal signals to both communicate and infer each other's cues, men may disregard verbal signals by women, thinking that they mean yes even if they say no. Likewise, men may infer that women consent to sexual activity when she is not resisting and stays silent (Jozkowski et al., 2014).

There have been various studies conducted to understand whether there is a difference between men and women in inferring each other's consent. When participants were presented with scenarios and videotapes of sexual encounters, men were more likely than women to rate the behaviors of women as seducing and sexually intended (Abbey, 1982; Johnson et al., 1991). Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999) analyzed men's responses to the question of the extent to which their partner's hypothetical behaviors showed their consent and women's responses to their own hypothetical behaviors. Similar to the previous studies, they found that men's score for their partners' consent was higher than women's score for their own consent. Likewise, Humphreys (2004) found that if their partner fondles them, men are more likely than women to evaluate this behavior as consent. In a further study,

Humprey (2007) presented participants with vignettes in which after the man initiates sexual activity, the couple has sex. In the vignettes, woman's responses were not given but left ambiguous. He found that more men than women perceived that the woman has consent to the sexual relationship. Also, compared to women, men were more likely to think that nonverbal behaviors were enough for both asking and understanding consent and that the woman would have stopped the intercourse from happening if she were not willing. Yet, women were more likely than men to think that asking for consent should have been verbal. Osman (2003) also supported miscommunication theory and misattributions related to token resistance. He presented participants with rape scenarios and found that men with higher token resistance belief scores were less likely to consider the scenario in which women said "No" as rape compared to men who had low token resistance belief scores. Besides, regardless of the token resistance beliefs, men rated the situations the same when women say "Yes" and stay silent.

On the other hand, some researchers disagree with the miscommunication theory and state that men and women can communicate and understand each other very clearly. Beres (2010) interviewed 21 students about how they communicate sexual consent. She concluded that all participants used many different cues to convey and understand consent in their relations. Moreover, both genders were able to understand nonconsent easily even if the behaviors are very vague and they do not have enough information about their partner. O'Bryne et al., (2008) conducted two focus groups with 9 male students and concluded similar results as Beres (2010) that men can read women's behaviors regardless of how vague they are. They claimed that miscommunication theory suggests that women are responsible for sexual assault due to their misleading behaviors and putting men in a position to be confused.

1.4. THE EFFECT OF RELATIONSHIP STATUS ON SEXUAL CONSENT

In addition to many researchers claimed that men and women follow the roles of the sexual script in their sexual relationships (Byers & Heinlein 1989; Check &

Malamuth, 1983; Dworkin & O'Sullivan 2005), Humphreys and Harold (2007) stated that the roles expected from both genders change according to the context they are in such as the history and duration of their relationship. These various role expectations affect the sexual behaviors of individuals and how people approach sexual consent in different conditions. For example, as compared to casual relationships, women in serious relationships are more likely to initiate sexual activity even though still less than men do. Besides, the expectation that they should stop men at least at the beginning in sexual relations is not seen in serious relationships (O'Sullivan & Byers, 1992).

In several studies, previous sexual intercourse was found to be an important factor affecting individuals' rape perceptions. Specifically, people are more likely to perceive a situation as rape when a non-consensual sexual relationship happens between two people with no previous sexual experience compare with the situation with a previous sexual relationship (L'Armand & Pepitone, 1982; Monson et al., 1996; Monson et al., 2000; Shotland & Goodstein, 1992). Also, men are more likely than women to find the situation less serious (Bridges, 1991; Monson et al., 1996; Monson et al., 2000). Likewise, Shotland and Goodstein (1992) assessed sexual relationship history and rape attitudes in non-consensual sexual encounters. They used different vignettes in which either the man or the woman wants to stop moving forward after sexual intimacy. In one of the vignettes, the couple did not have a sexual relationship with each other before. In the other vignettes, they had sexual intercourse once before and ten times before. They found that compared to women, men were more likely to find that the person who was refused by her/his partner should have continued to have sex. This attitude does not differ according to the gender of the person who refused to have sex. Both women and men believe that there is a social contract, such that if a couple has had a previous sexual relationship, they should not say no to have sex with each other again; this tendency is higher for men. According to Shotland and Goodstein (1992), people have such an attitude due to the benefit of the social contract to maintain social interest. As a result of the contract, individuals are not devoid of sexual relationships when they are dependent on their partner. Also, when individuals are committed to being monogamous,

therefore limited to one partner, they expect to satisfy each other sexually so as not to have other partners.

Monson et al., (2000) created four scenarios in which the woman persistently refuses the sexual attempts of the man in a stranger, early date, late date, and marriage conditions. As expected, women rated the seriousness of rape as lower in marriage and late date conditions as compared to the stranger and early date conditions. They also blamed women more in late date and marriage conditions compared to stranger and early date conditions. Surprisingly, however, men rated the seriousness of rape higher for the stranger and late date conditions as compared to early date and marriage conditions. Their victim-blaming scores were similar; they blamed women more in early date and marriage conditions than the late date and stranger conditions. This difference could be related to the fact that men found women in early date condition as more non-restrictive towards sexual intimacy; and therefore, more to blame. Yet, in the late date condition, women are not blamed because they may be found as betrayed by men.

Humphreys and Harold (2007) have argued that sexual consent has been assessed much less than individuals' attitudes towards rape. They developed a scale measuring sexual consent attitudes and beliefs. They found that men are more likely to think that consent communication is less necessary in romantic relationships, and that consent can be assumed until that time when their partner communicates their unwillingness. Likewise, the theme that emerged from the interviews of Beres (2014) with young adults is that looking for sexual consent is not crucial in committed relationships. These attitudes are similar to the findings of Humphreys and Harold (2007); however, Beres (2014) emphasized that while the interviewees were able to explain their consent discussions with their partner, they were not able to define what they discussed as "consent".

Humpreys (2007) also claims that couple's sexual relationships vary as the status and length of their relationship change. When they are in a romantic and long-term relationship, they know each other more and their consent behaviors become more informal and nonverbal. Also, individuals seek sexual consent less in romantic and long-term relationships, and that they are more likely to assume their partner's

consent. A similar tendency was found by other researchers (Marcantonio et al., 2018). In the study by Humphreys (2007), participants were randomly assigned to three relationship status groups (first date, dating 3 months, married 2 years) and given a vignette with an ambiguous ending in which a man is initiating sexual encounter non-verbally, his partner moves her hand away gently first and they end up having sex. He gave them 17 questions asking about the perception of consent, clarity of consent, and appropriateness of the situation. He found that relationship length had a significant effect on the responses to 11/17 questions. That is perception, appropriateness, and clarity of consent increase as a function of the length of the relationship of the couples in vignettes. In addition, he found a significant gender difference in 15/17 questions. While men were more likely to find the situation as more appropriate and clear and assumed consent, women reported that there should have been more explicit communication.

On the other hand, Willis et al. (2019) found that individuals are more likely to use verbal consent signals in committed relationships and to use less direct signals in casual dating situations. Therefore, there is a contradiction between individuals' attitudes towards sexual consent and their actual consent behaviors. This contradiction was found by Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999) as a difference between hypothetical consent scores and actual consent behaviors.

1.5.CULTURAL FACTORS EFFECTING SEXUAL CONSENT

According to the sexual script theory, what kind of actions individuals will take in sexual relationships and their attitudes towards sexual relationships are shaped by the societal norms and culture people live in (Humphreys & Harold, 2007).

1.5.1. Individualism- Collectivism and Sexual Consent

Gender roles attitudes and gender inequality are related to individualistic and collectivistic tendencies of societies. (Kitayama & Cohen, 2007; Lane & Wagschal, 2012; Vandello & Cohen, 1999).

According to Hofstede (2013), while people in collectivistic cultures accord themselves with a larger group and act to maintain the social order, people in individualistic cultures put more importance on their own decisions and independence. While collectivistic cultures consider women with their relational role such as daughter, wife, and mother; individualistic cultures expect women to be independent individuals. Moreover, in the collectivistic culture of Japan, women were found to overlook sexual abuses they experience instead of defending their own rights (Dohi & Fooladi, as cited in Siddiqi & Shafiq, 2017). Likewise, Wasti and Cortina (2002) found that, similar to other collectivistic cultures in Hofstede's model, women in Turkey are found to be less assertive against sexual abuse at work compared to women in individualistic societies.

In addition to the effect of collectivism on one's responses to their own experiences, maintaining their group's interest was considered as related to the attitudes of individuals. For example, according to Sigal and Jacobsen (1999), collectivistic cultures may abstain from blaming abusers in order to maintain group harmony.

Even though Turkey was found to be collectivistic (Hofstede 2010), recent studies cannot place Turkey in neither individualistic nor collectivistic culture. In fact, Turkish culture has both autonomous and relatedness features as individuals getting more independent from their families financially, yet they are still loyal and responsible for their families (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1996; Kağıtçıbaşı, 2007). In some studies, individualism has been found higher as individuals in Turkey get more educated, younger, and living in nonrural regions (Imamoğlu & Karakitapoğlu-Aygun, 2006; Yetim, 2003)

1.6. THE PRESENT STUDY

Studies explained above shows that the sexual consent attitudes are different between men and women as well as between different relationship status. The studies showed that as the relationship of couples become more serious, the consent attributions of people increase. However, the effect of relationship status on sexual

consent attributions was not searched for different responses that women give to men's sexual advances. To address this issue, the present study aims to assess sexual consent attributions of women and men in different relationship status of and different types of responses of women in sexual relationships.

Different relationship and response type conditions were presented to the participants by using vignettes. Since it was found that men are more likely to initiate sexual activity compared to women (Jozkowski & Peterson, 2013; O'Sullivan & Byers, 1992), the consent attitudes will be investigated for a relationship in which a man is initiating sexual activity and a woman is responding to his sexual advance.

Since it's effect on sexual consent attitudes was found before, the effect of relationship status will be assessed in the present study as well.

It was found that different consent communication types effects differently the consent infereces of people in casual sexual relationships (Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999). This is why, different responses of women in various relationship conditions will be investigated too.

Since miscommunication theory claims that traditional gender roles rise misunderstanding between men and women in terms of sexual consent (Beres, 2010), possible effect of attitudes towards gender roles on sexual consent attitudes will also be investigated in the present study.

Lastly, since women in collectivistic cultures found less assertive against sexual abuse, the possible effect of individualism and collectivism on sexual consent attitudes in different relationship status will be assessed.

The main purpose of this study is to examine the effect of relationship status of a couple, response type of a woman, and gender of the third person on the sexual consent attitudes of the third person. The comparison of sexual consent rates of participants when they were presented with different response types and relationship status is expected to provide information on differential reactions. The role of individualism and collectivism will be discussed.

The hypothesis of the present study are listed below:

1) There will be effect of participants' gender on their sexual consent rates. Specifically, men will infer more sexual consent as compared to women.
2) There will be interaction effect of gender and response type.
    a) Men will infer consent more than women in Verbal response situation.
    b) Men will infer consent more than women in Non-verbal response situation.
    c) Men will infer consent more than women in No Response situation.
    d) Men will infer consent more than women in Refusal situation.
3) Gender role attitudes have a possible effect on both gender's consent rates.
    a) After controlling GRI, the effect size of the difference between men and women will be smaller in verbal response situation.
    b) After controlling GRI, the effect size of the difference between men and women will be smaller in non-verbal response situation.
    c) After controlling GRI, the effect size of the difference between men and women will be smaller in no response situation.
    d) After controlling GRI, the effect size of the difference between men and women will be smaller in refusal situation.
4) There will be main effect of response type.
    a) There will be more sexual consent rates in verbal response situation than non-verbal response situation.
    b) There will be more sexual consent rates in non-verbal response situation than no response situation.
    c) There will be more sexual consent rates in no response situation than refusal response situation.
5) There will be main effect of relationship duration.
    a) There will be more consent rates in two-year condition than first date and three-month conditions.
    b) There will be an interaction effect of relationship status and hypothetical response type. For non-verbal and no response

situations, there will be more consent rates in two-year condition than first date and three-month conditions. There will be no difference between relationship status conditions for verbal and refusal response situations.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1. PARTICIPANTS

321 individuals completed the online survey. Ten of individual responses were not included to the study due to the response bias. 311 responses left at the end. The age range of the participants is between 18 and 30 (*M* = 26, 26, *SD* = 2.655). The distribution of the sample as to education is presented in Table 2.1. The majority of the participants (82%) graduated from university.

170 of the individuals (54, 7%) defined themselves as woman and 141 of them (43, 3%) as man. Among those participants, 295 (94, 9%) of them define their sexual orientation as heterosexual, one (0.3 %) of them as homosexual, 12 (3,9 %) of them as bisexual, and three (1%) of them as other.

79 (25, 4%) of the participants are married and 232 (74, 6%) of them are single. 122 (39, 9%) of the participants has no relationship, 21 (6,8%) of them has a relationship less than a year, 84 (27%) of them has a relationship for one to five years, and 79 (25,4%) of them has a relationship for more than five years.

106 women and 107 men has consensual vaginal- penile intercourse experience before. 64 women and 34 men did not have a vaginal- penile intercourse experience in which they consent. Average number of partners participants had penile vaginal intercourse is 8,6 (SD = 15,7%). For women, the average number of partners is 4,2 (SD = 7,2) and for men it is 13,2 (SD = 20,2). 17 women and 6 men reported that they had nonconsensual sexual intercourse before.

GRI scores of women and men can be seen in Table 2.2. Means and standard deviations for other variables will be presented in the sections below.

Table 2.1.

Educational Level of Participants

		N	%
Educational Level	Not graduated	1	.3
	Primary School	4	1
	High School	51	16
	University	255	82

Table 2.2.

GRI Scores of Women and Men

	M	SD
Women	27.10	10.99
Men	32.62	13.37

2.2. INSTRUMENTS

The instruments which were presented to the participants in the current study were Demographic Information Form, Sexual Consent Vignettes, Gender-Role Ideology Scale, and Individualism- Collectivism Scale (INDCOL).

2.2.1. Demographic Information Form

Demographic Information Form included questions about age, gender, level of education, sexual orientation, relationship status, and consensual and nonconsensual sexual intercourse experiences (see Appendix B)

2.2.2. Sexual Consent Vignettes

Twelve different vignettes were used in the study. Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999) found that men as compared to women can imagine themselves in a scenario in which they initiate a sexual encounter. In addition, it was found that men are more likely to initiate sexual encounter than women (Jozkowski et al., 2014). Therefore, the initiators of sexual encounter in the scenarios used in this study are men.

In the vignettes, while a couple is watching television, the man gets sexually intimate with the woman by taking her clothes off. The woman's responses were presented differently in different vignettes. The woman responses by saying "I want to have sex with you." for verbal condition; by touching and fondling the man for nonverbal condition; by not saying no for no response condition; and by saying "No" for refusal condition.

In addition, the relationship length of the couple in the vignette changes indicated as "It is their first date." for first date condition, "They are celebrating third month of their relationship." for three-moth relationship condition, and "They are celebrating second anniversary of their marriage." for 2-year marriage condition. In order to present relationship length, the wordings of Humprey's study (2007) in which the couple has sexual encounter in different relationship length (first date, three-month, and two-year) were used. In order to present Verbal, Nonverbal, No response and Refusal conditions, the response behaviors from the study of Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999) were used. Two response behaviors from each response type (Verbal, Nonverbal, No response, and Refusal) were chosen according to their factor loadings and appropriateness of Turkish language. Most representative vignette from two options was chosen by two psychology professors. At the end, there remained one vignette for each response type conditions. For both relationship length and response type conditions, the sentences from vignettes were translated forward and back by two bilingual psychologists.

Following the vignette participants were asked the extent to which the woman's response shows her consent to vaginal-penile intercourse. Participants

rated this question from 0 (it does not show her consent to vaginal-penile intercourse) to 100 (It definitely shows her consent to vaginal- penile intercourse).

2.2.3. Gender-Role Ideology (GRI) Scale:

Gender-Role Ideology scale measures attitudes towards gender roles. The scale has 16 items, five of which was added from the study of Treas and Widmar (2000), six of which was added from the study of Mason and Bumpass (1975), and lastly five of which was created by the researchers of Project 3535 (Korabik, 2017). It is a 6-point Likert type measurement; 1 point refers to strongly disagree and 6 point refers to strongly agree. The items consist statements related to the role of women and men in the areas of working status, career, and division of labor. Having higher scores from this scale corresponds to more traditional gender role ideology. Turkish adaptation of the measure was conducted by Aycan in 2017. The Cronbach's alpha was found to be .86 for this measure (Korabik, 2017).

2.2.4. Individualism and Collectivism Scale (INDCOL):

INDCOL was developed by Singelis et al. (1995) to measure four dimensions of individualism and collectivism: horizontal individualism, horizontal collectivism, vertical individualism, and vertical collectivism. The scale was adapted by Wasti and Erdil (2007) into Turkish. INDCOL is 5- point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree) consisting of 37 items. The adaptation study was conducted with two different samples. Cronbach's alpha for horizontal collectivism, vertical collectivism, horizontal individualism, and vertical individualism are .73, .72, 71, and .67, respectively. The alphas were found in the other sample as .73, .69, .69, and .67, respectively. They found that four-factor structure fits the data better than a two-factor structure (individualism and collectivism). Yet, the best model was found to be as three-factor structure as vertical individualism is removed (Wasti & Erdil, 2007).

2.3. PROCEDURE

Before collecting the data, the ethics approval was taken from Bilgi University Ethics Committee. After the approval of the committee, study materials were delivered via an online survey website (www.surveymonkey.com) for data collection. SurveyMonkey link was shared in social media groups.

Participants were first presented with informed consent form (see Appendix A). The informed consent form included the aim of the study, their right of withdrawal at any point, information on data confidentiality, and contact information of the researcher for the possible questions.

Participants were divided randomly into three different groups (first date, three-month, and two-year relationship length). The female and male participants were 59 and 52 for the first date condition, 60 and 43 for the three-month relationship condition, and 51 and 46 for the two-year marriage condition, respectively. After their approval for voluntarily participating to the study and Demographic Information Form, participants in each relationship length group were presented with four different vignettes: Verbal response, Nonverbal response, No response, and Refusal (see Appendix C, D, and E). Then, they were given a brief information that the current study is researching attitudes towards communicating consent in heterosexual relationships and that they will be asked to imagine the scenarios they will be presented and rate each of them carefully. The vignettes were in the random order. At the end of each scenario, the extent to which the woman's response show her consent was asked.

GRI Scale (see Appendix F) and INDCOL (see Appendix G) were completed followed by vignettes. Completing all the questions took approximately 10 minutes. After completing the scales, debriefing form was shared with participants (see Appendix H)

2.4. DATA ANALYSIS

2x3x4 Mixed ANOVA was conducted.to investigate the main effects of gender of the participants, hypothetical response types, and hypothetical relationship status as well as the interaction effects of gender of the participants and hypothetical response types; gender of the participants and hypothetical relationship status; hypothetical response type and hypothetical relationship status; and gender of the participants, hypothetical relationship status, and hypothetical response type. In the analysis, the repeated measures factor was response type with four levels: Verbal, Nonverbal, No response, and Refusal. The between-subjects factors were hypothetical relationship status and participants' gender. The dependent variable was sexual consent rates of the participants.

Post hoc comparisons using Bonferroni correction was done for comparing the levels of response type: verbal, nonverbal, no response, and refusal. In order to investigate the difference of consent rates of each gender on the different levels of response types Post hoc comparisons with Bonferroni adjustments were conducted. Besides, planned contrast analysis was conducted to assess the change rate differences of women and men between verbal and nonverbal, nonverbal and no response, and no response and refusal conditions.

2x3x4 Mixed ANCOVA was conducted.to investigate the possible effect of GRI on the differences of sexual consent rates with regard to gender of the participants and hypothetical response type.

In order to explore the characteristics of the present sample, analysis with repeated measures was conducted. The repeated factor is INDCOL with four levels: horizontal individualism, horizontal collectivism, vertical individualism, and vertical collectivism. To explore the relationship of sexual consent rates of the participants between horizontal individualism, horizontal collectivism, vertical collectivism, and vertical individualism, four different Pearson correlation analysis were conducted.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

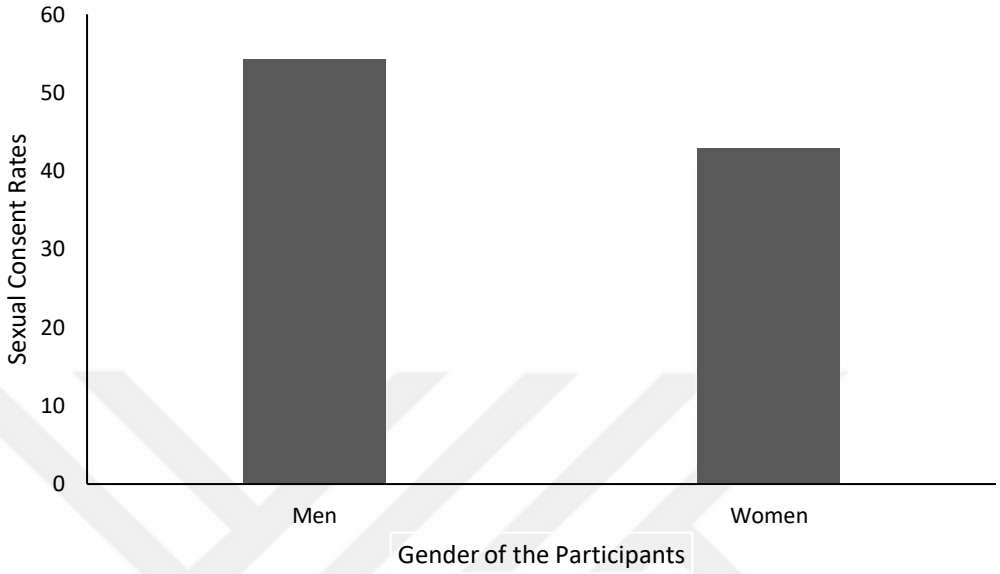
3.1. COMPARISON OF PARTICIPANTS' SEXUAL CONSENT ATTITUDES WITH REGARD TO DIFFERENT RESPONSE TYPES, RELATIONSHIP STATUS, AND GENDER OF THE PARTICIPANTS

3.1.1. The Effect of Response Types and Participants' Gender on Sexual Consent Rates

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity had been violated for mixed-design ANOVA $\chi 2$ (5) = 22.218, p = .00. Therefore, degrees of freedom were corrected using Huynh-Feld estimates of sphericity. 2x3x4 Mixed ANOVA results showed that there was a main effect of gender of the respondents on their sexual consent rates $F(1, 305) = 27.985$, $p = .000$, $\eta p2 = .084$. The consent rates of men ($M = 54.21$, $SD = 30.69$) was higher than those of women ($M = 42{,}81$, $SD = 27.3$). 2x3x4 Mixed ANCOVA was conducted to control Gender Role Ideology. The results revealed that there was still main effect of gender, yet the effect size got smaller $F(1, 305) = 19.343$, $p = .000$, $\eta p2 = .063$. The mean scores of sexual consent rates of women and men can be seen in Figure 3.1.1.1.

Figure 3.1.1.1.

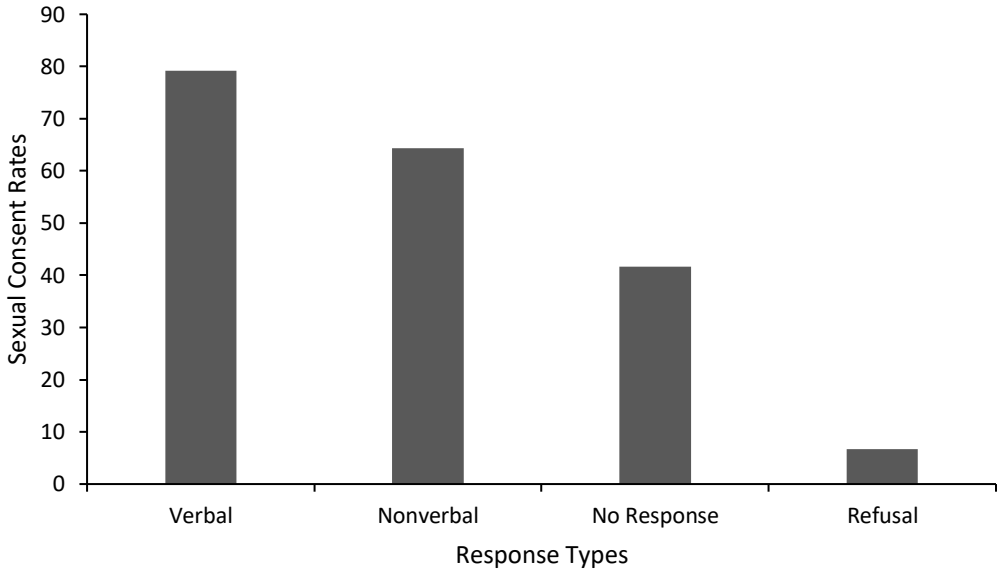
Sexual Consent Rates with Regard to Gender of the Participants



The test results showed the main effect of response type $F(2.951, 305) = 591.033$, $p = .000$, ηp2 = .66. Participants' consent rates were highest when the response in the scenario is Verbal ($M = 79.17$, $SD = 29.63$). The consent rate for Verbal response was higher than the rate for Nonverbal response ($M = 64.35$, $SD = 32.588$) $F(1,305) = 55.290$, $p = .000$, ηp2 = .153. Also, Nonverbal response was higher than No response situation ($M = 41.67$, $SD = 31.128$) $F(1,305) = 378.566$, $p = .000$, ηp2 = .554. The lowest consent rate was found to be Refusal condition ($M = 6.66$, $SD = 15.601$). Refusal was lower than No response condition $F(1,305) = 1381.372$, $p = .000$, ηp2 = .819. The mean values of the consent rates of Verbal, Nonverbal, No response and Refusal response types can be seen in Figure 3.1.1.2.

Figure 3.1.1.2.

Sexual Consent Rates with Regard to Response Types



3.1.2. The Interaction Effect of Hypothetical Response Type and Participants' Gender on Sexual Consent Rates

There was an interaction effect of participants' gender and hypothetical response type in the scenarios, $F(2.951, 305) = 5.032$, $p = .002$, $\eta p2 = .016$. Planned contrast analysis showed that the difference of consent rates between Verbal and Nonverbal response types for women is higher than difference of consent rates between Verbal and Nonverbal for men $F(1, 305) = 4.342$, $p = .038$, $\eta p2 = .014$. Also, the difference of consent rates between No response and Refusal response types for women is less than difference of consent rates between No response and Refusal for men $F(1, 305) = 10.512$, $p = .001$, $\eta p2 = .033$. Mean values of sexual consent rates of women and men in different response types are shown in Table 3.1.2.1. and Figure 3.1.2.1.

Besides, post hoc comparisons with Bonferroni adjustment showed that the sexual consent rate of male participants was higher than that of woman for Verbal $F(1, 305) = 9.139$, $p = .003$, ηp2 = .029, Nonverbal $F(1, 305) = 25.966$, $p = .000$, ηp2 = .078, No response $F(1, 305) = 14.575$, $p = .000$, ηp2 = .046, and Refusal response types F(1, 305) = 5.404, $p = .021$, ηp2 = .017.

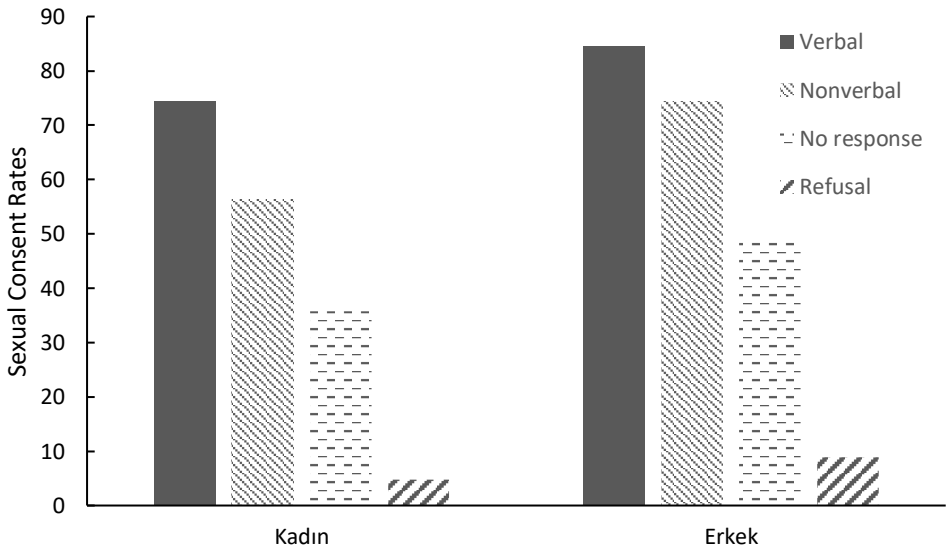
Table 3.1.2.1.

Descriptive of Sexual Consent Rates of Women and Men with Regard to Response Type

	Women		Men	
	M	SD	M	SD
Verbal	74.514	31.56	84.628	26.125
Nonverbal	56.258	33.487	74.364	28.398
No response	35.698	35.46	48.951	30.865
Refusal	4.777	4.74	8.908	18.358

Figure 3.1.2.1.

Sexual Consent Rates of Women and Men with Regard to Response Type



3.1.3. The Possible Effect of GRI on the Sexual Consent Rates of Women and Men in Different Hypothetical Response Type Situations

Then, 2x3x4 Mixed ANCOVA was conducted to investigate the possible effect of GRI on the sexual consent rate differences with regard to gender of the participants and hypothetical response type. The results showed an interaction effect of gender and response types on sexual consent rates after controlling GRI $F(2.986, 305) = 5.092$, $p = .002$, ηp2 = .017. Post hoc comparisons with Bonferroni adjustment results showed that the consent rates of men for Verbal $F(1, 305) = 8.888$, $p = .003$, ηp2 = .03, Nonverbal $F(1, 305) = 20.39$, $p = .000$, ηp2 = .066, and No response types $F(1, 305) = 8.219$, $p = .004$, ηp2 = .028 were still higher than those of women after controlling GRI. However, there was no difference between men and women on their sexual consent rates in Refusal condition $F(1, 305) = .901$, $p = .343$, ηp2 = .003.

3.1.4. The Effect of Relationship Status on Sexual Consent Rates

2x3x4 Mixed ANOVA results showed that hypothetical relationship status did not have a main effect on sexual consent rates $F(2, 305) = 2.74$, $p = .066$, ηp2 = .018 (see Table 3.1.4.1.). In addition, there was no interaction effect of hypothetical response type and hypothetical relationship status $F(5.887, 305) = .970$, $p = .443$, ηp2 = .008 (see Figure 3.1.4.1.) and of hypothetical response type, hypothetical relationship status, and gender of the participants $F(5.887, 305) = .447$, $p = .844$, ηp2 = .003. Pairwise comparisons with Bonferroni adjustment shows that the consent rates of male participants were found to be higher than the consent rate of female participants for First Date $F(1, 305) = 15.33$, $p = .000$, ηp2 = .048; for Three-Month $F(1, 305) = 6.432$, $p = .012$, ηp2 = .021; and for Two-Year Marriage $F(1, 305) = 76.24$, $p = .006$, ηp2 = .024. The means of sexual consent rates of female participants with regard to hypothetical response type and relationship status can be seen in Table 3.1.4.2. and Figure 3.1.4.2. The means of sexual consent rates of male

participants with regard to hypothetical response type and relationship status can be seen in Table 3.2.4.3. and Figure 3.1.4.3.

Table 3.1.4.1.

Descriptive of Sexual Consent Rates with Regard to Hypothetical Relationship Status

	M	SD
First Date	48,52	20,79
Three Month	44,37	19,56
Two Year	51,12	18,36

Figure 3.1.4.1.

Descriptive of Sexual Consent Rates with Regard to Hypothetical Relationship Status and Response Types

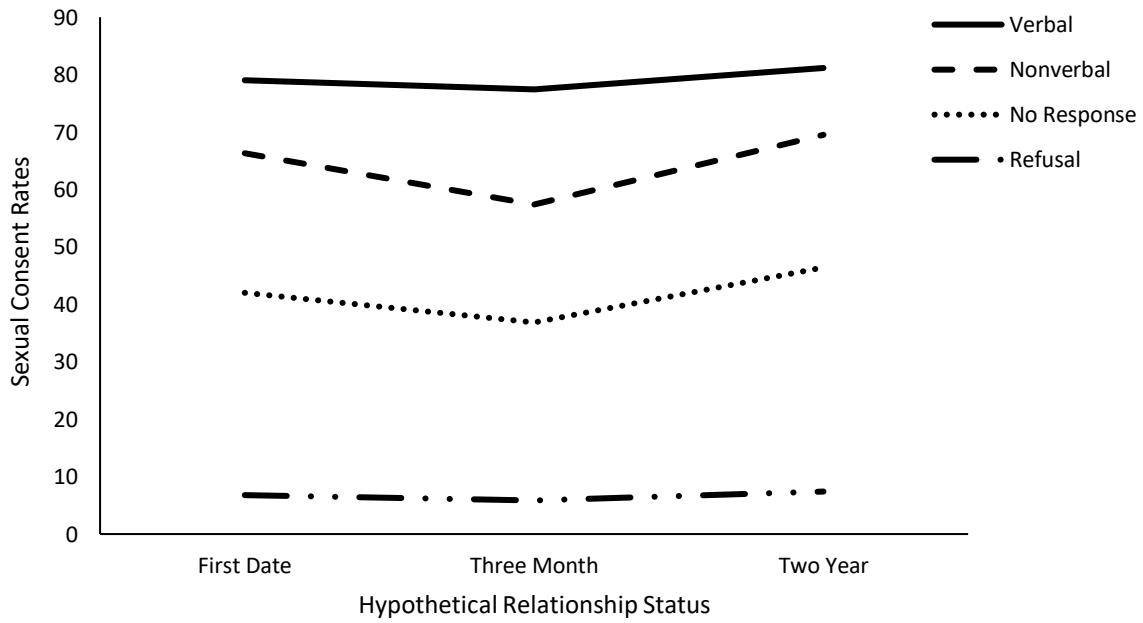


Table 3.1.4.2.

Descriptive of Sexual Consent Rates of Women with Regard to Hypothetical Response Type and Hypothetical Relationship Status

	First Date		Three month		Two year	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Verbal	72,03	32,654	75,9	30,322	75,61	32,156
Nonverbal	57,44	34,971	48,45	33,273	62,88	30,759
No response	34,37	32,244	32,47	29,075	40,25	28,503
Refusal	3,93	10,279	4,73	15,564	5,67	11,292

Figure 3.1.4.2.

Descriptive of Sexual Consent Rates of Women with Regard to Hypothetical Response Type and Hypothetical Relationship Status

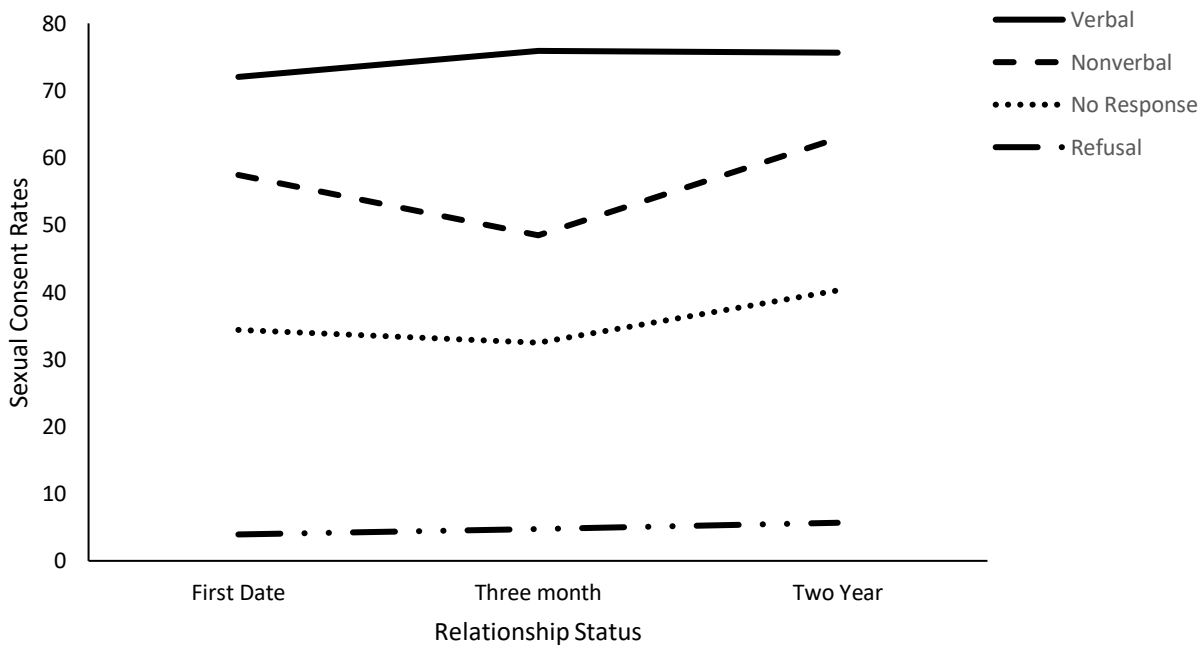


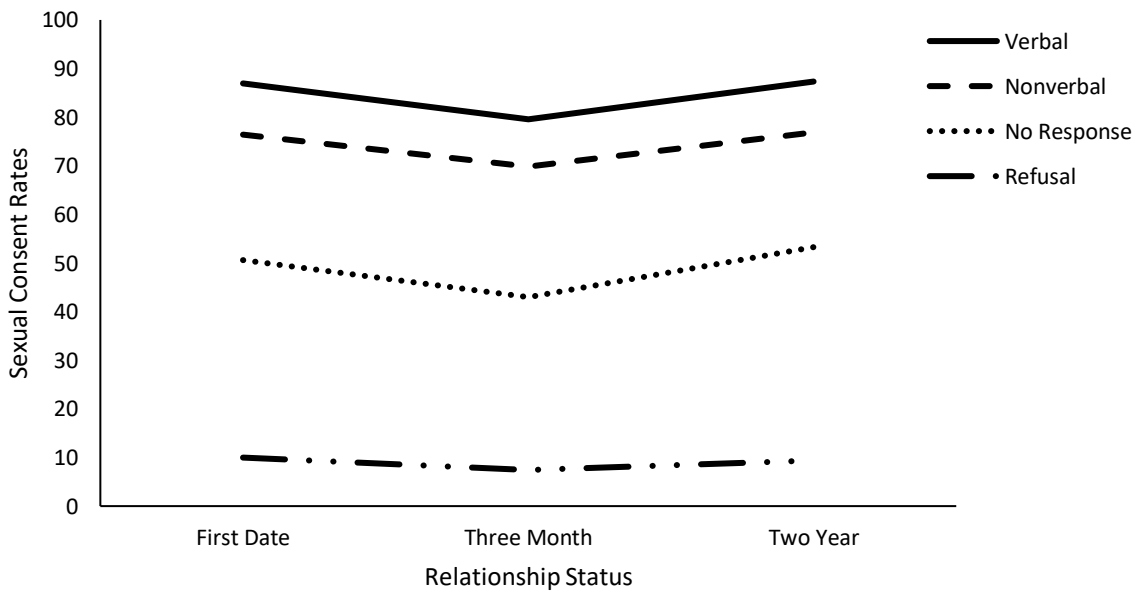
Table 3.1.4.3.

Descriptive of Sexual Consent Rates of Men with Regard to Response Type and Relationship Status

	First Date		Three month		Two year	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Verbal	87	23,025	79,56	28,453	87,33	26,991
Nonverbal	76,38	25,677	69,84	32,2	76,87	27,63
No response	50,62	30,3	42,98	30,039	53,26	32,013
Refusal	9,98	17,358	7,42	16,086	9,33	21,491

Figure 3.1.4.3.

Descriptive of Sexual Consent Rates of Men with Regard to Response Type and Relationship Status



3.1.5. Exloring INDCOL Scores

In order to explore the characteristics of the present sample, analysis with repeated measures was conducted. The repeated factor is INDCOL with four levels: horizontal individualism, horizontal collectivism, vertical individualism, and vertical collectivism. Descriptive of horizontal individualism, horizontal collectivism, vertical individualism, and vertical collectivism can be seen in Table 3.1.5.1. Horizontal individualism scores were found to be the highest. Horizontal collectivism score was found to be lower than horizontal individualism scores $F(1, 305) = 89.114$, $p = .000$, ηp2 = .25. Vertical collectivism scores were found to be lower than horizontal collectivism $F(1, 305) = 284.622$, $p = .000$, ηp2 = .521 and higher than vertical individualism scores $F(1, 305) = 376.877$, $p = .000$, ηp2 = .59.

Table 3.1.5.1.

Descriptive of INDCOL Scores of Pariticpants

	M	SD
Horizontal Individualism	4.07	.49
Horizontal Collectivism	3.66	.49
Vertical Collectivism	3.27	.58
Vertical Individualism	2.92	.67

In order to explore the relationship of sexual consent rates of the participants between horizontal individualism, horizontal collectivism, vertical collectivism, and vertical individualism, four different Pearson correlation analysis were conducted. Results of the Pearson correlation indicated that there was a significant positive association between sexual consent rates of participants and vertical individualism $r(263) = .224$, $p = .000$ and between sexual consent rates of the participants and vertical collectivism $r(263) = .297$, $p = .000$. However, the results showed no significant correlation between sexual consent rates of the participants

and horizontal individualism $r(263) = .041$, $p = .509$ and between sexual consent rates of the participants and horizontal collectivism $r(263) = .085$, $p = .167$. The correlations of sexual consent rates of the participants with the dimensions of INDCOL scale is shown in Table 3.1.5.2.

Table 3.1.5.2.

Pearson Correlations of Sexual Consent Rates of the Participants and Dimentions of INDCOL Scale

	Sexual Consent Rates
Vertical Individualism	.224*
Vertical Collectivism	.297*
Horizontal Individualism	.041
Horizontal Collectivism	.085

*$p = .000$

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The present study aimed to explore the effects of relationship status, response types given to sexual advances, and gender on sexual consent attitudes. In the following section, the results of the study with regard to the literature, limitations, implications, and further recommendations will be discussed.

4.1. SEXUAL CONSENT RATES WITH REGARD TO GENDER OF THE PARTICIPANTS AND HYPOTHETICAL RESPONSE TYPES

The woman was found to indicate the highest level of consent when she gave a verbal response to the man's sexual advance. When the woman responded nonverbally (fondling and touching) to the man's sexual advance, participants found the sexual consent of the woman as second highest followed by verbally saying "I want to have sex with you". When the woman did not say no to the sexual advance of the man, participants found the sexual consent of the woman as less than the situation when the woman touched and fondled the man as a response. And lastly, when the woman refused the sexual advance of the man by saying "No", participants found the woman as least consensual to have a penile vaginal intercourse.

These findings were in line with previous studies, showing that even though individuals use nonverbal and not resisting signals when communicating and inferring sexual consent, they find explicit verbal cues as most indicative of sexual consent (Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999). Even individuals found verbal cues as more indicative of consent, touching and fondling were still very highly perceived as woman showing her consent to penile vaginal intercourse. That is, even when women did not explicitly convey her desire to have sexual intercourse but touched and fondled a man as foreplay, individuals can assume the woman had consent for sexual intercourse.

Besides, individuals found that the woman showed more consent when she did not resist the sexual advances of the man than compared to when she verbally

said “No” to him. Even though the woman did not actively show her consent to her partner, participants interpreted her as consenting in some extent.

When it comes to gender differences, as expected, male participants were more likely to find the woman as expressing her consent more as compared to female participants. This situation was the same when the woman explicitly said yes, fondled and touched the man, did not say no to his advance and verbally said no to his advance. As it was found in the literature (Humphreys, 2004), men found the behaviors of the women as more sexually intended as compared to woman, which may in turn, lead to miscommunication between the partners and potentially result in sexual violence.

Specifically, both male and female participants found the extent to which the woman showed her consent when explicitly saying “Yes” as very high. Female participants’ consent inferences in the situation in which the woman fondled and touched the man as a response dropped dramatically, at slightly higher than 50%. Yet, male participants’ consent inferences when the woman fondled and touched the man dropped only slightly, being still very high (74%). That is, while both sexes differentiated between explicit yes and nonverbal signals, women and men perceived verbal and nonverbal cues very differently. This may be because women are more likely to use verbal cues to communicate and imply sexual consent as compared to man. However, men are more likely to use nonverbal cues as compared to women and they find that verbal cues are not a necessity to imply consent.

When it comes to not saying or not saying “No”, contrary to previous findings that men associate not resisting with and saying “Yes”, male participants obviously perceived these two responses differently. It is a promising result that when a woman cannot say no because of intoxication, incapacity, fear, shock, or avoiding being “rude”, men does nor interpret the woman’s response as a full consent. On the other hand, men found the woman’s consent as almost 50% when she did not resist. Besides, female participants perceived that not resisting is closer to refusal than male participants do. Therefore, not resisting still implies consent to an considerable extent for men and more considerable extent than for women. Considering the findings of Hickman and Muehlenhard (1999) that individuals use

no response signals most to communicate their sexual consent, this difference could lead to an important misunderstanding between partners, especially when women are unable to say no because of many reasons.

As miscommunication theory points that men misunderstand the signals from their partners due to traditional sexual roles of women and men, gender role ideology of participants were controlled in the present study. It was found that regardless of the gender role ideology of the participants, male participants inferred more sexual consent than female participants when the woman said explicitly yes, fondled and touched the man, and did not say no to her partner's sexual advance. Yet, when controlling gender role ideology, female and male participants inferred the sexual consent of women similarly. Therefore, attitudes towards gender roles can explain the miscommunications when women refuse men's sexual advances. This can be explained by men's belief that women show token resistance. However, traditionalist- egalitarianist gender role attitudes do not explain the miscommunication between genders when women say yes, fondle and touch the man and do not resist. Even though individuals posit egalitarianist attitudes, men still infer more sexual consent than women. This may be because of that even though individuals do not regard men are/ should be more assertive and women are/ should be more submissive in society, they still may posit these gender attitudes in sexual relationship content.

Lower education level was found to be correlated with victim blaming attitudes in sexual assault situations (Gravelin, Biernat, & Bucher, 2019). Also, higher education was associated with more egalitarian gender role attitudes (Shu, 2004). Considering the high education level of the present sample, the findings are very crucial. Even though majority of the present sample is university graduate, the probability of miscommunication is a clear risk among the present sample. That means, sexual assault due to miscommunication is a considerable risk for the general population.

4.2. SEXUAL CONSENT RATES WITH REGARD TO HYPOTHETICAL RELATIONSHIP STATUS AND HYPOTHETICAL RESPONSE TYPES

Participants found the sexual consent rate of the woman as same for all relationship conditions regardless of how the woman responded to her partner. This result contradicts previous finding couples in long-term and serious relationship being more likely to assume their partners' consent as compared to partners in casual dates (Humpreys, 2007; Marcantonio et al., 2018; Monson et al., 2000).

This contradiction could result from the context difference between the present study and previous studies. Previous studies assessing the effect of relationship length and status focused mostly on rape scenarios in which a woman refused but her partner persisted in sexual advances (eg. Monson et al., 2000; Shotland & Goodstein, 1992). Humpreys (2007) also assessed the effect of relationship status on consent attitudes by giving a scenario in which a woman moves her partners' hand away first and then has sex after her partner continues his sexual advances. Therefore, individuals can hear a woman's "No" similar regardless of her relationship status with her partner but underestimate the seriousness of sexual assaults in committed relationships.

In addition, cultural differences may explain the differences between the results of the present study and past studies (Humpreys, 2007; Monson et al., 2000). While horizontal individualism put value on independence and consider others as equal to them; vertical individualism put value on independence and improving their status in the society. Also, both horizontal and vertical collectivism give importance to connectedness but vertical collectivism values submitting to authority and horizontal collectivism does not. Therefore, equality is stressed in horizontal ends and hierarchy is emphasized in vertical ends (Triandis, 2001). The horizontal collectivism and individualism scores of the participants in the present study were higher than their vertical collectivism and individualism scores. In addition, the gender role attitudes of the participants of the present study were also more inclined towards egalitarianism. Accordingly, individuals who stress more to equality and egalitarianism may not expect woman in romantic relationships to be

more consensual.

4.3. LIMITATIONS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

First of all, the vignettes used in the present study were different than the vignettes used in the past research (Hickman & Muehlenhard, 1999). In their study, they have used variety of direct and indirect response behaviors for verbal, nonverbal, no response situations. Whereas, in the present study, one direct response behavior for each of the response type was presented to the participants. This reduced the possibility of the responses a woman may give, hence variability of the attitudes of the participants.

Secondly, most of the participants are university graduates. Besides, they are more inclined towards egalitarianism in terms of gender role ideology. Hence, the sample was limited in terms of representation of different educational background and gender role attitudes. Further research should include a more representative sample in terms of socio-economic status, educational background, and traditional- egalitarian gender role attitudes.

Third limitation of the study was the scarcity of the literature regarding the relationship status aspect of the current study. From the existing literature, most of the studies in this topic focused on casual relationships. The interest of the studies focused on romantic relationships were mostly rape scenarios. Due to this limitation, hypotheses were formulated on the basis of different contexts.

Lastly, further research can assess the sexual consent attitudes of individuals by focusing on their attitudes on societal hierarchy- equality aspects.

CONCLUSION

The current study aimed to analyze the effect of hypothetical relationship status, hypothetical response type of woman given to her partner, and gender of the third person on sexual consent attitudes. The findings of the research, in general, showed that there is an effect of response type of the woman given to her partner, gender of the third person and their interaction on sexual consent attitudes. The findings support the claims of miscommunication theory. Yet, relationship status does not have an effect on sexual consent attitudes of individuals, which can be related to the cultural factors.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Informed Consent Form

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu çalışma Türkiye'deki yetişkinlerin heteroseksüel ilişkilerdeki cinsel rıza tutumlarını ölçmek için tasarlanmıştır.

Araştırma, İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Güler Tireli tarafından Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Hale Bolak Boratav danışmanlığında bir tez çalışması kapsamında yürütülmektedir.

Çalışmaya katılmak için 18-30 yaş aralığında olmak gerekmektedir. Bu araştırmaya katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır. Çalışma verilecek olan senaryolara ait sorular ve ölçek sorularını içermektedir. Çalışmanın amacına ulaşması için sizden beklenen, bütün soruları eksiksiz ve içtenlikle cevaplamanızdır. Anketi tamamlamanız yaklaşık 10-15 dakika sürmektedir. Araştırmanın herhangi bir noktasında hiçbir gerekçe belirtmeden anketi doldurmayı bırakabilirsiniz.

Anketin hiçbir aşamasında kimlik bilgileriniz sorulmayacak ve yanıtlar araştırmacılar dışında kimseyle paylaşılmayacaktır. Veriler toplu halde değerlendirilerek yalnızca bilimsel yayın amacıyla kullanılacaktır.

Araştırmaya katılımın katılımcılar üzerinde herhangi bir olumsuz etki oluşturması beklenmemektedir.

☐ Yukarıda verilen bilgiler doğrultusunda, bu çalışmaya katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Appendix B: Demographic Information Form

Aşağıda sizinle ilgili sorular yer alıyor. Soruların bazıları diğerlerine göre daha çok kişisel bilgiler içeriyor. Lütfen her bir soruyu dikkatlice okuyun ve cevaplayın. Cevaplarınız tamamen gizli tutulacaktır.

1- Yaşınız:
2- Cinsiyetiniz:
    - Kadın
    - Erkek
    - Diğer
3- Eğitim Durumunuz:
    - Herhangi bir okuldan mezun değilim
    - İlkokul mezunu
    - Ortaokul mezunu
    - Lise mezunu
    - Üniversite mezunu
    - Yüksek lisans mezunu
    - Doktora mezunu
4- Medeni haliniz:
    - Evli
    - Bekar
5- Romantik ilişki durumunuz:
    - İlişkim yok
    - 1 yıldan az süredir ilişkim var
    - 1-5 senedir ilişkim var
    - 5 seneden fazla süredir ilişkim var

6- Cinsel yöneliminizi nasıl tanımlarsınız?

- Heteroseksüel (sadece karşı cinsten olan kişilerden hoşlanma)
- Homoseksüel (sadece aynı cinsten olan kişilerden hoşlanma)
- Biseksüel (hem kadınlardan hem erkeklerden hoşlanma)
- Diğer

7- Daha önce kendi rızanız dahilinde bir cinsel birlikteliğiniz oldu mu? (Bununla kastedilen vajinal birleşmedir)

- Evet
- Hayır

8- 7. Soruya cevabınız evet ise bu soruyu cevaplayınız:
Daha önce kaç farklı partnerle rızanız dahilinde cinsel birliktelik yaşadınız?
…. Kişiyle

9- Daha önce hiç kendi rızanız dışında bir cinsel birliktelik yaşadınız mı?

- Evet
- Hayır

Appendix C: Sexual Consent Vignettes (First Date)

İnsanların heteroseksüel ilişkilerde cinsel ilişkiye dair rızalarını partnerlerine iletme şekillerine, cinsel ilişki (vajinal birleşme) yaşamak istediklerini partnerlerinin nasıl bilmesini sağladıklarına dair tutumları araştırıyoruz. Lütfen aşağıdaki senaryoları iki kez okuyun ve senaryolarda yaşanan olayları olabildiğince hayal etmeye çalışın. Lütfen her bir senaryoyu kendi içinde değerlendirin.

Verbal Response

Emre ve Esra, Emre'nin evinde yalnızlar. Bu onların ilk buluşması olduğu için birlikte özel bir gece geçiriyorlar. Birlikte film izlerlerken Emre Esra'nın yanına oturuyor ve Esra'nın üstünü çıkarmaya başlıyor. Emre'nin bu hareketinin üstüne Esra, Emre'ye "Seninle sevişmek istiyorum." diyor.

Emre'nin cinsel yakınlaşmasına karşılık Esra'nın sergilediği tutumu değerlendiriniz. Bu tutum Esra'nın cinsel birleşmeye (vajinal birleşmeye) rızası olduğunu ne kadar gösteriyor?

0	--------	100
Cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu göstermez		Kesinlikle cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu gösterir.

Nonverbal Response

Emre ve Esra, Emre'nin evinde yalnızlar. Bu onların ilk buluşması olduğu için birlikte özel bir gece geçiriyorlar. Birlikte film izlerlerken Emre Esra'nın yanına oturuyor ve Esra'nın üstünü çıkarmaya başlıyor. Emre'nin bu hareketinin üstüne Esra Emre'ye dokunuyor ve onu okşuyor.

Emre'nin cinsel yakınlaşmasına karşılık Esra'nın sergilediği tutumu değerlendiriniz. Bu tutum Esra'nın cinsel birleşmeye (vajinal birleşmeye) rızası olduğunu ne kadar gösteriyor?

0 -------- 100

Cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu göstermez — Kesinlikle cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu gösterir.

No Response

Emre ve Esra, Emre'nin evinde yalnızlar. Bu onların ilk buluşması olduğu için birlikte özel bir gece geçiriyorlar. Birlikte film izlerlerken Emre Esra'nın yanına oturuyor ve Esra'nın üstünü çıkarmaya başlıyor. Emre'nin bu hareketinin üstüne Esra Emre'ye itiraz etmiyor.

Emre'nin cinsel yakınlaşmasına karşılık Esra'nın sergilediği tutumu değerlendiriniz. Bu tutum Esra'nın cinsel birleşmeye (vajinal birleşmeye) rızası olduğunu ne kadar gösteriyor?

0 -------- 100

Cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu göstermez — Kesinlikle cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu gösterir.

Refusal

Emre ve Esra, Emre'nin evinde yalnızlar. Bu onların ilk buluşması olduğu için birlikte özel bir gece geçiriyorlar. Birlikte film izlerlerken Emre Esra'nın yanına oturuyor ve Esra'nın üstünü çıkarmaya başlıyor. Emre'nin bu hareketinin üstüne Esra Emre'ye "Hayır." diyor.

Emre'nin cinsel yakınlaşmasına karşılık Esra'nın sergilediği tutumu değerlendiriniz. Bu tutum Esra'nın cinsel birleşmeye (vajinal birleşmeye) rızası olduğunu ne kadar gösteriyor?

0	--------	100
Cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu göstermez		Kesinlikle cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu gösterir.

Appendix D: Sexual Consent Vignettes (Three-Month)

İnsanların heteroseksüel ilişkilerde cinsel ilişkiye dair rızalarını partnerlerine iletme şekillerine, cinsel ilişki (vajinal birleşme) yaşamak istediklerini partnerlerinin nasıl bilmesini sağladıklarına dair tutumları araştırıyoruz. Lütfen aşağıdaki senaryoları iki kez okuyun ve senaryolarda yaşanan olayları olabildiğince hayal etmeye çalışın. Lütfen her bir senaryoyu kendi içinde değerlendirin.

Verbal Response

Emre ve Esra, Emre'nin evinde yalnızlar. Bu onlar için özel bir gece çünkü birlikte üçüncü ay dönümlerini kutluyorlar. Birlikte film izlerlerken Emre Esra'nın yanına oturuyor ve Esra'nın üstünü çıkarmaya başlıyor. Emre'nin bu hareketinin üstüne Esra Emre'ye "Seninle sevişmek istiyorum." diyor.

Emre'nin cinsel yakınlaşmasına karşılık Esra'nın sergilediği tutumu değerlendiriniz. Bu tutum Esra'nın cinsel birleşmeye (vajinal birleşmeye) rızası olduğunu ne kadar gösteriyor?

0	--------	100
Cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu göstermez		Kesinlikle cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu gösterir.

Nonverbal Response

Emre ve Esra, Emre'nin evinde yalnızlar. Bu onlar için özel bir gece çünkü birlikte üçüncü ay dönümlerini kutluyorlar. Birlikte film izlerlerken Emre Esra'nın yanına oturuyor ve Esra'nın üstünü çıkarmaya başlıyor. Emre'nin bu hareketinin üstüne Esra Emre'ye dokunuyor ve onu okşuyor.

Emre'nin cinsel yakınlaşmasına karşılık Esra'nın sergilediği tutumu değerlendiriniz. Bu tutum Esra'nın cinsel birleşmeye (vajinal birleşmeye) rızası olduğunu ne kadar gösteriyor?

0 -------- 100

Cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu göstermez — Kesinlikle cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu gösterir.

No Response

Emre ve Esra, Emre'nin evinde yalnızlar. Bu onlar için özel bir gece çünkü birlikte üçüncü ay dönümlerini kutluyorlar. Birlikte film izlerlerken Emre Esra'nın yanına oturuyor ve Esra'nın üstünü çıkarmaya başlıyor. Emre'nin bu hareketinin üstüne Esra Emre'ye itiraz etmiyor.

Emre'nin cinsel yakınlaşmasına karşılık Esra'nın sergilediği tutumu değerlendiriniz. Bu tutum Esra'nın cinsel birleşmeye (vajinal birleşmeye) rızası olduğunu ne kadar gösteriyor?

0 -------- 100

Cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu göstermez — Kesinlikle cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu gösterir.

Refusal

Emre ve Esra, Emre'nin evinde yalnızlar. Bu onlar için özel bir gece çünkü birlikte üçüncü ay dönümlerini kutluyorlar. Birlikte film izlerlerken Emre Esra'nın yanına oturuyor ve Esra'nın üstünü çıkarmaya başlıyor. Emre'nin bu hareketinin üstüne Esra Emre'ye "Hayır." diyor.

Emre'nin cinsel yakınlaşmasına karşılık Esra'nın sergilediği tutumu değerlendiriniz. Bu tutum Esra'nın cinsel birleşmeye (vajinal birleşmeye) rızası olduğunu ne kadar gösteriyor?

0	--------	100
Cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu göstermez		Kesinlikle cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu gösterir.

Appendix E: Sexual Consent Vignettes (Two- Year Marriage)

İnsanların heteroseksüel ilişkilerde cinsel ilişkiye dair rızalarını partnerlerine iletme şekillerine, cinsel ilişki (vajinal birleşme) yaşamak istediklerini partnerlerinin nasıl bilmesini sağladıklarına dair tutumları araştırıyoruz. Lütfen aşağıdaki senaryoları iki kez okuyun ve senaryolarda yaşanan olayları olabildiğince hayal etmeye çalışın. Lütfen her bir senaryoyu kendi içinde değerlendirin.

Verbal Response

Emre ve Esra, Emre'nin evinde yalnızlar. Bu onlar için özel bir gece çünkü birlikte evliliklerinin ikinci yıl dönümünü kutluyorlar. Birlikte film izlerlerken Emre Esra'nın yanına oturuyor ve Esra'nın üstünü çıkarmaya başlıyor. Emre'nin bu hareketinin üstüne Esra Emre'ye "Seninle sevişmek istiyorum." diyor.

Emre'nin cinsel yakınlaşmasına karşılık Esra'nın sergilediği tutumu değerlendiriniz. Bu tutum Esra'nın cinsel birleşmeye (vajinal birleşmeye) rızası olduğunu ne kadar gösteriyor?

0	--------	100
Cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu göstermez		Kesinlikle cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu gösterir.

Nonverbal Response

Emre ve Esra, Emre'nin evinde yalnızlar. Bu onlar için özel bir gece çünkü birlikte evliliklerinin ikinci yıl dönümünü kutluyorlar. Birlikte film izlerlerken Emre Esra'nın yanına oturuyor ve Esra'nın üstünü çıkarmaya başlıyor. Emre'nin bu hareketinin üstüne Esra Emre'ye dokunuyor ve onu okşuyor.

Emre'nin cinsel yakınlaşmasına karşılık Esra'nın sergilediği tutumu değerlendiriniz. Bu tutum Esra'nın cinsel birleşmeye (vajinal birleşmeye) rızası olduğunu ne kadar gösteriyor?

0 -------- 100

Cinsel birleşmeye Kesinlikle cinsel birleşmeye

rızası olduğunu göstermez rızası olduğunu gösterir.

No Response

Emre ve Esra, Emre'nin evinde yalnızlar. Bu onlar için özel bir gece çünkü birlikte evliliklerinin ikinci yıl dönümünü kutluyorlar. Birlikte film izlerlerken Emre Esra'nın yanına oturuyor ve Esra'nın üstünü çıkarmaya başlıyor. Emre'nin bu hareketinin üstüne Esra Emre'ye itiraz etmiyor.

Emre'nin cinsel yakınlaşmasına karşılık Esra'nın sergilediği tutumu değerlendiriniz. Bu tutum Esra'nın cinsel birleşmeye (vajinal birleşmeye) rızası olduğunu ne kadar gösteriyor?

0 -------- 100

Cinsel birleşmeye Kesinlikle cinsel birleşmeye

rızası olduğunu göstermez rızası olduğunu gösterir.

Refusal

Emre ve Esra, Emre'nin evinde yalnızlar. Bu onlar için özel bir gece çünkü birlikte evliliklerinin ikinci yıl dönümünü kutluyorlar. Birlikte film izlerlerken Emre Esra'nın yanına oturuyor ve Esra'nın üstünü çıkarmaya başlıyor. Emre'nin bu hareketinin üstüne Esra Emre'ye "Hayır." diyor.

Emre'nin cinsel yakınlaşmasına karşılık Esra'nın sergilediği tutumu değerlendiriniz. Bu tutum Esra'nın cinsel birleşmeye (vajinal birleşmeye) rızası olduğunu ne kadar gösteriyor?

0	--------	100
Cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu göstermez.		Kesinlikle cinsel birleşmeye rızası olduğunu gösterir.

Appendix F: Gender- Role Ideology

Lütfen aşağıdaki ölçeği kullanarak, toplumumuzda kadınların ve erkeklerin rollerine ilişkin kişisel görüşlerinizi aşağıdaki ifadelerde belirtiniz.

Tutum İfadeleri	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Çalışan bir anne çocuklarıyla, çalışmayan bir anneninki kadar sıcak ve güvenli bir ilişki kurabilir.						
2. Bir kadının, kocasının kariyerine destek olması, kendisinin kariyer sahibi olmasından daha önemlidir.						
3. Erkeğin evin dışında çalışması, kadının ise ev ve aile ile ilgilenmesi herkes için daha iyidir.						
4. Erkekler bulaşık, temizlik ve benzeri ev işlerinde sorumluluğu paylaşmalıdır.						
5. İş hayatında erkekler kadınlardan daha iyi yöneticidirler.						
6. Bir baba, çocuğunu doktora götürmek, altını değiştirmek gibi çocuk bakımıyla ilgili işlerle bir anne kadar ilgilenmelidir.						
7. Kısıtlı sayıda iş imkanı olduğu koşulda, eşinin maddi imkanı olsa bile evli bir kadının çalışması kabul edilebilir.						
8. Evlendikten ve çocuk sahibi olduktan sonra kadının davranışlarını değiştirmesi ve daha geleneksel rolleri üstlenmesi beklenir.						

9. Ev işleri, bir kadının en temel sorumluluğudur ve başkasına bırakılmamalıdır.						
10. Çocuk bakımı, bir kadının en temel sorumluluğudur ve başkasıyla paylaşılmamalıdır.						
11. Eğer annesi çalışıyorsa küçük yaştaki bir çocuğun sorun yaşama olasılığı yüksektir.						
12. Genel olarak, eğer bir kadın tam zamanlı bir işte çalışıyorsa, aile hayatında sorun yaşanır.						
13. Bir işte çalışmak iyidir, ama bir kadının gerçekte en çok istediği, bir aile ve çocuklardır.						
14. Erkeğin işi para kazanmaktır; kadının işi ev ve aile ile ilgilenmektir.						
15. Evli bir kadın, ailenin huzuru için aile içi anlaşmazlıklar karşısında tolerans gösterir.						
16. Bir kadının çalışması çocuklarının gelişimine ve okul başarısına zarar verir.						

Appendix G: INDCOL

Değerli Katılımcı, Bu ölçek 37 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Her bir madde 1 ile 5 arası puanlanmaktadır. Lütfen her bir maddeyi dikkatlice okuyunuz ve sizi en iyi tanımlayan seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur. Sizden beklenen içtenlikle cevap vererek bilimsel bir çalışmaya yardımcı olmanız. Lütfen bütün sorularla ilgili görüşlerinizi ifade ediniz.	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Benim mutluluğum çevremdekilerin mutluluğuna çok bağlıdır.					
2. Kazanmak her şeydir.					
3. Yakın çevrem için kişisel çıkarlarımdan fedakarlık ederim.					
4. Başkaları benden daha başarılı olduğunda rahatsız olurum.					
5. Yakın çevremdekilerin birbiriyle uyumunu muhafaza etmek benim için önemlidir.					
6. İsimi başkalarından daha iyi yapmak benim için önemlidir.					
7. Komsularımla ufak tefek şeyleri paylaşmak hoşuma gider.					
8. İş arkadaşlarımın iyiliği benim için önemlidir.					
9.Rekabet doğanın kanunudur.					
10. İş arkadaşlarımdan biri ödül kazansa gurur duyarım.					

11. Özgün bir birey olmak benim için önemlidir.					
12. Başkası benden daha başarılı olduğu zaman kendimi gergin ve kamçılanmış hissederim.					
13. Çoğu zaman kendi bildiğim gibi yasarım.					
14.Yakın çevremin kararlarına saygı göstermek benim için önemlidir.					
15. Başkalarına güvenmektense kendime güvenirim.					
16. Ne fedakarlık gerekirse gereksin aile bireyleri birbirlerine kenetlenmelidirler.					
17. Anne-baba ve çocuklar mümkün olduğu kadar birlikte kalmalıdırlar.					
18. Başkalarından bağımsız bireysel kimliğim benim için çok önemlidir.					
19. Kendi isteklerimden fedakarlık yapmak gerekirse de aileme bakmak benim görevimdir.					
20. Bireysel kimliğim benim için çok önemlidir.					
21. Ben başkalarından ayrı özgün bir bireyim.					
22.Yakın çevremde çoğunluğun isteklerine saygı gösteririm.					
23.Kendine özgü ve başkalarından farklı olmaktan hoşlanırım.					

24.Bir karar vermeden önce yakın arkadaşlara danışıp onların fikirlerini almak önemlidir.					
25. Maddi güçlük içinde olan bir akrabama imkanlarım ölçüsünde yardım ederim.					
26. Rekabet olmadan iyi bir toplum düzeni kurulamaz.					
27. İnsan hayatını başkalarından bağımsız olarak yasamalıdır.					
28. Çok hoşuma giden bir şeyden ailem onaylamazsa vazgeçerim.					
29.Başkalarıyla iş birliği yaptığım zaman kendimi iyi hissederim.					
30. Başkalarıyla rekabet edebileceğim ortamlarda çalışmak hoşuma gider.					
31.İnsanlara açık ve dosdoğru konuşmayı tercih ederim.					
32. Çocuklara vazifenin eğlenceden önce geldiği öğretilmelidir.					
33. Benim için zevk başkalarıyla vakit geçirmektir.					
34. Başarı hayattaki en önemli şeydir.					
35. Eğer başarılı oluyorsam bu benim yeteneklerim sayesindedir.					
36. Yakın çevremle fikir ayrılığına düşmekten hiç hoşlanmam.					
37.Ailemi memnun edecek şeyleri nefret etsem de yaparım.					

Appendix H: Debriefing Form

Sayın Katılımcı,

Daha önce de belirtildiği gibi bu araştırma, İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Güler Tireli tarafından Prof. Dr. Hale Bolak Boratav danışmanlığında bir tez çalışması kapsamında yürütülmektedir.

Çalışmada, heteroseksüel ilişkilerde çiftlerin ilişki sürelerinin ve ilişki içerisinde erkeğin cinsel yakınlaşması sonrası kadının verdiği tepkilerin, katılımcıların cinsel rıza dair tutumlarını ne ölçüde etkilediğine bakılmaktadır. Ayrıca bireycilik- toplulukçuluk gibi kültürel özelliklerin ve cinsiyet tutumlarının bu ilişkide olası etkisi olup olmadığına bakılmaktadır. Cevaplarınız gizli tutulacak olup sadece araştırma amacıyla kullanılacaktır.

Katılımınız için teşekkürler.

ETHICS BOARD APPROVAL

Ethics Board Approval is available in the printed version of this dissertation.