

Sexual subjectivity in relation to sexual violence

A mixed-method study on the relationship between sexual subjectivity, undesired sex, and sexual violence and the opportunities for policy

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'As a society, we parcel sexuality out, assuming that normal boys but not girls have 'raging hormones'-And that normal girls but not boys long for emotional connection and relationships' (Tolman, 2002, p. 9).

Abstract

Gender inequality is not only visible in income and career, but it can also be found in sexual intercourse (Rahman & Jackson, 2010). Because of heteronormative expectations, young women's sexual subjectivity is minimised compared to young men, which could place young women at risk of elevating men's desires over their own and engaging in undesired sexual activity or becoming a victim of sexual violence (Bay-Cheng & Eliseo-Arras, 2008; Kettrey, 2018; Phillips 2000; Tolman, 2002). The goal of this study is to explore how sexual subjectivity, undesired sex, and sexual violence are related among young people in the Netherlands and to describe how policy regarding sexual subjectivity can be made to prevent undesired sex and sexual violence in the Netherlands. The main questions are: (1) *'To what extent is sexual subjectivity related to undesired sex and sexual violence among young people in the Netherlands?'* and (2) *'How can policy be made regarding sexual subjectivity in to prevent undesired sex and sexual violence in the Netherlands?'*. This study uses a mixed-method design where secondary data are used and semi-structured interviews with experts. The results show that the sexual subjectivity of young people is related to sexual violence among young people in the Netherlands, but this relationship is not stronger for young women than for young men. Furthermore, it appeared that policy should focus on four aspects: a cultural and institutional shift, education, professionals, and media.

Keywords: Sexual subjectivity; Undesired sex; Sexual violence; Sex education; Media; Policy

Preface

With pride, I present my master's thesis, which I have written with great interest and motivation as part of the master's study in Sociology, Contemporary Social Problems, and my internship at Rutgers Kenniscentrum Seksualiteit. I would like to express my gratitude to my Ilze Smit and Yvonne Bogaarts, for offering this unique internship and personal guidance. During my internship, beyond learning a lot about politics and the subject of sexual violence, I discovered what meaningful work means for me and how I want to contribute to society in the future. I would also like to thank Eva Jaspers for sharing her knowledge and feedback, which has lifted my thesis to a higher level.

The main topic of this thesis, sexual violence, made a deep impression on me both during my internship and while writing my thesis. It touches me to see how many people are victims of sexual violence and how deeply rooted this problem is. With my thesis, I hope to contribute to a solution and structural change so that we can work towards a world in which no one is a victim of sexual violence anymore.

Finally, I would like to thank my friends and family for their endless support. Without you, life in general, but especially my studies and thesis, would have been much more difficult.

Marieke Meijer

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1. Introduction

Gender inequality is deeply rooted in society. It is not only visible in income and career, but it can also be found in sexual intercourse (Rahman & Jackson, 2010). Particularly, young women's sexual subjectivity is missing from the discourse regarding sexuality, whereas the sexual subjectivity of men is overly present (Kettrey, 2018). Sexual subjectivity is the perception of being sexually active, which includes desire, pleasure, and agency (Horne & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2005). According to Kettrey (2018), 'This discourse of sexuality does not ignore young women's sexual subjectivity; rather, it proscribes it as inappropriate by classifying young women along a continuum that ranges from 'good girls' who are sexually innocent to 'bad girls' who are sexually knowing' (p. 2). This discourse is constructed within the boundaries of gender roles, which take subjectivity of young men's sexuality for granted and minimise the subjectivity of young women's (Holland et al., 1998; Jozkowski & Peterson, 2013; Kettrey, 2018; Tolman, 2002). The minimised sexual subjectivity of young women means that their pleasure, desire, and agency are disadvantaged, and less attention is paid to this than the pleasure, desire, and agency of young men. Underlying to this difference of the sexual subjectivity of young women and young men, are heteronormative expectations. Heteronormative expectations are expectations based on 'enforced compliance with culturally determined heterosexual roles and assumptions about heterosexuality as 'natural' or 'normal'' (Habarth, 2015, p. 166). These heteronormative expectations portray young women as sexual objects that must be pleasurable to young men, and they portray young men as sexual subjects entitled to the pursuit of their pleasure (Kettrey, 2018).

1.1 Problem setting

According to Kettrey (2018), 'By minimising young women's sexual subjectivity, these heteronormative expectations may place young women at risk of elevating men's desires over their own and, thus, engaging in undesired sexual activity to please a male partner' (p. 21). Subsequently, various research demonstrates that women are thus more often victims of undesired sex and sexual violence (Bay-Cheng & Eliseo-Arras, 2008; Phillips 2000; Tolman, 2002).

In the Netherlands, 22% of women and 6% of men have been forced to perform or undergo sexual acts. Sexual violence involves manual, oral, vaginal, or anal sex (Van Berlo & Twisk, 2017). If other forms of sexual harassment, such as unwanted touching or kissing, are added, then 53% of women and 19% of men have experienced it at some point in their life.

Remarkably, more than half of the victims of sexual violence are younger than the age of 25. Among young people up to the age of 25, 14% of girls and 3% of boys have experienced sexual violence (De Graaf et al., 2017). Because young people are still developing their sexuality, sexual violence at an early age can have major future consequences and leave significant damage (Jina & Thomas, 2013). Another thing that stands out from these numbers is the clear difference between the numbers of men and women who have experienced sexual violence. Over the years, these numbers show little to no change (De Graaf et al., 2005; 2012; 2017).

The consequences of sexual violence can be lifelong on a psychological, reproductive, or physical level. Some are a direct consequence – for example, pregnancy or a sexually transmitted disease (STD) – whereas others such as excessive substance use or mental health problems may occur indirectly as a result of the violence (Jina & Thomas, 2013). Not only do sexual violence and harassment affect the individual, but there are also high economic and societal costs at stake. It concerns, for example, healthcare costs and economic damage due to loss of productivity at work (Speetjens et al., 2016). These consequences show that sexual violence affects society as a whole (Martin et al., 2011). Therefore, it can be stated that minimised sexual subjectivity has major implications on public health and safety.

Sexual violence is closely linked to undesired sex; the main difference between the two concepts is that with undesired sex, there is consent given, but the sexual activity is undesired (O’Sullivan & Allgeier, 1998). With sexual violence, there is no given consent, while there is use of force (Van Berlo & Twisk, 2017). This research differentiates between both concepts to provide more specific insight on the consequences of minimised sexual subjectivity.

1.2 Context: the Netherlands

The relationship between the sexual subjectivity, undesired sex, and sexual violence of young women has been demonstrated several times, but to date, there has not been research conducted about this relationship among Dutch young people. Country-specific information is important when it comes to sexual subjectivity, undesired sex, and sexual violence because culture has a major influence on how heteronormative expectations are practiced by society (Kalra & Bhugra, 2013). Additionally, it is interesting to conduct this research in the Dutch context, because compared to other European countries, the Dutch ‘sexual revolution’ during the 1960s was much greater than in other European countries, even though the Netherlands was more conservative than other European countries (Hekma & Duyvendak, 2011). ‘Ever

since the ‘sexual revolution’ of the 1960s, the Netherlands has been at the forefront of championing erotic freedoms’ (Hekma & Duyvendak, 2011, p. 625). However, simultaneously, the numbers of victims of sexual violence in the Netherlands are outgrowing the figures for sexual violence in other European countries. According to the Fundamental Rights Agency (FRA) (2014), in the EU, 8% of women between the age of 18–74 have experienced physical and/or sexual violence since the age of 15 years old. Thus, the Netherlands is an interesting country for researching the relationship between the sexual subjectivity, undesired sex, and sexual violence of young people.

Even though minimised sexual subjectivity can play a role in the experience of undesired sex and sexual violence, at the moment, policies that aim to prevent sexual violence in the Netherlands do not include sexual subjectivity (Rijksinstituut voor Volksgezondheid en Milieu [RIVM], 2018). Therefore, this study focuses on the relation between sexual subjectivity, undesired sex, and sexual violence, as well as the possibilities for policy.

1.3 Goal setting

Firstly, the goal of this study is to explore how sexual subjectivity, undesired sex, and sexual violence are related among young people in the Netherlands. The second goal is to explore potential policy on sexual subjectivity to prevent undesired sex and sexual violence in the Netherlands.

1.4 Research question and hypothesis

This study consists of two main questions. The first question is a quantitative research question. The second question is a policy question.

(1) *‘To what extent is sexual subjectivity related to undesired sex and sexual violence among young people in the Netherlands?’*

(2) *‘How can policy be made regarding sexual subjectivity to prevent undesired sex and sexual violence in the Netherlands?’*

1.5 Reading guide

This study is divided into two parts: a quantitative section and a qualitative section. To answer the first quantitative research question, Chapter 2 provides existing theory to gain more

insight into gender, heteronormative expectations and sexual subjectivity, the distribution of these heteronormative expectations, and the influence of sexual subjectivity on undesired sex and sexual violence. Thereafter, Chapter 3 consists of a quantitative method description, followed by Chapter 4, which provides an overview of the quantitative results of Research Question 1. Chapter 5 provides theoretical background of policy regarding sexual violence which gives more background to answer the second policy question. Chapter 6 describes the qualitative method used in this study, followed by the qualitative results described in Chapter 7. Finally, Chapter 8 includes a discussion and conclusion section, and Chapter 9 provides a recommendation for policy.

2 Quantitative theoretical background

2.1 *Sexual subjectivity and self-esteem*

As mentioned in the introduction, young women's sexual subjectivity is minimised compared to the sexual subjectivity of young men (Holland et al. 1998; Jozkowski & Peterson, 2013; Kettrey, 2018; Tolman, 2012). Sexual subjectivity is about the perceptions of pleasure from the body and the experience of being sexually active, including desire, pleasure, and agency (Horne & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2005). It refers to 'a necessary component of agency and thus of self-esteem. That is, one's sexuality affects her/his ability to act in the world, and to feel like she/he can and will things and make them happen' (Martin, 1996, p. 10). Horne and Zimmer-Gembeck (2005) show that young people with higher self-esteem also have higher sexual subjectivity, and young people with lower self-esteem have lower sexual subjectivity. According to Martin (1996), declines in self-esteem were tied to difficulties with the establishment of sexual subjectivity, because when self-esteem is low, people act more often out of uncertainty and pressure from others than their own interests. Therefore, lower self-esteem is expected to relate to lower sexual subjectivity (H1).

2.2 *Heteronormative expectations and sexual subjectivity*

Not only does lower self-esteem complicate the development of sexual subjectivity of young people, but heteronormative expectations also play a role. These heteronormative expectations suggest that 'girls are supposed to be unambivalent about their [lack of] desire and boys are assumed to always unambivalently want and desire sex' (Lamb & Peterson, 2012, p. 709). However, there seems to be a mismatch between expectations and reality. Various research shows that young men feel much more uncertain about having sex and their desires than the media and public opinion suggests (Giordano et al., 2006; Oswalt et al., 2005; Tolman et al., 2003). Research also shows that the female heteronormative role collides with reality as well. In reality, young women often do want and desire sexual activity (Lamb & Peterson, 2012). Therefore, it can be argued that these heteronormative expectations are incorrect for both young men and women. Even though these heteronormative may be incorrect, they still have consequences on the development of sexual subjectivity.

According to Horne and Zimmer-Gembeck (2005), young women have more difficulty developing their sexual subjectivity because of these heteronormative expectations by which young women still receive 'mixed messages and cultural double standards that emphasise male sexual values, such as the prominence of intercourse; such standards and values do not encourage female development of a sense of sexual entitlement and sexual

empowerment' (Horne & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2005, p. 28). Because young women are at risk of losing touch with their own desires and feelings, they become more vulnerable to the power and feelings of others, as well as what others say young women want or do not want to do (Tolman, 2002). Morokoff (2000) continues, stating that because of the heteronormative expectations of women being visually and behaviourally pleasing to men, women do not have independent sexual subjectivity. Meanwhile, men are expected to always be interested in sex (Gavey, 2012). Therefore, the sexual subjectivity of young women is expected to be lower than the sexual subjectivity of young men in the Netherlands (H2).

2.3 Distribution of heteronormative expectations

From the above paragraphs, it becomes clear that self-esteem and prevailing hetero-normative expectations interfere in the development of sexual subjectivity. Additionally, research shows that these heteronormative expectations are spread by, among others, educational systems such that schools position young women as potential victims of male's aggression through sexual education (Fields, 2008; Fine & McClelland, 2006). Hereby, a certain fear is spread of girls being sexually active. The dangers of pregnancy and early parenting are lurking in the shadows of sexual activity (Tolman, 2002). When the quality of sex education is low – meaning young people have little to no sex education or only the dangers and warning messages are spread – sexual subjectivity is minimised (Fields, 2008; Fine & McClelland, 2006). It is therefore expected that the quality of sex education is related to the sexual subjectivity of young people (H3).

Secondly, the largest maintainer and spreader of heteronormative expectations is the media. Via media, women's sexualising expectations are transmitted (Kettrey, 2018). Young girls learn that sexualised behaviour and appearance are rewarded not only by society, but also peers. Therefore, they are likely to internalise these standards (Egan, 2013). According to the American Psychological Association (APA), the sexualisation of girls is most often explained by 'sexuality that is inappropriately imposed upon a person' (APA, 2007, p.1). Papadopoulos (2010) explains that because of sexualisation, innocence is tucked away, leaving tweenagers culturally confused and emotionally lacking (Papadopoulos, 2010). Egan (2013) adds, 'The toxic mix of sexualising media and commodities transform girls between the age of 8 and 12 into self-sexualising subjects at risk for a host of mental, physical, cognitive and relational problems' (p. 1963). Sexualising messages cause undesirable sexual subjectivity (Egan & Hawkes, 2007). Thus, young women focus more on sexualising themselves than participating in activities that are more fitting to tweenagers (Egan, 2013). In

this way, the sexualisation of young women influences the sexual subjectivity of young girls. For young men, this relationship is less researched, but according to De Ridder (2017), strict standards for young men are also disseminated through media. Therefore, it is expected that media exposure lowers the sexual subjectivity of young people (H4).

2.4 Sexual subjectivity, undesired sex, and sexual violence

A serious consequence of the minimised sexual subjectivity of young women is that young women, who internalise this minimisation of sexual subjectivity, engage more often in undesired sex and are more frequently victims of sexual violence (Bay-Cheng & Eliseo-Arras, 2008; Phillips 2000; Tolman 2002). Within undesired sex, there are ‘situations in which a person freely consents to sexual activity with a partner without experiencing a concomitant desire for the initiated sexual activity.... Participation by both partners in the sexual activity is consensual, but unwanted or undesired for at least one partner.’ (O’Sullivan & Allgeier, 1998, p. 234). Thus, O’Sullivan and Allegeier (1998) describe how consent to sex and desire for sex have a different meaning. ‘Consent’ means agreeing to do something, while ‘desire’ is to wish for something (O’Sullivan & Allegeier, 1998). Then there is sexual violence, which refers to any sexual act or attempted sexual act using force or coercion, involving manual, oral, vaginal, or anal sex (Berlo & Twisk, 2017). Thus, the difference between undesired sex and sexual violence is that in the case of undesired sex, there is the consent of all people involved, while in sexual violence, not all the people involved give consent.

Bay-Cheng and Eliseo-Arras (2008) explain that the heteronormative expectations of gender interlock the disadvantage of women and privilege of men in negotiating the terms of sexual and romantic engagements. Muenhlenhard and Peterson (2005) note that these heteronormative expectations leave no room for contradictions about sexual intentions even though there is a mismatch between the reality and expectations of subjectivity and gender. These heteronormative expectations lead young women to reject the sexual acts of young men, while young men are driven to always desire sex. ‘It ignores the possibility that both young women and men may consent to sex that they do not want or desire and, in effect, it assumes that all consensual sex is desired sex’ (Kettrey, 2018, p. 4). Research shows that both young men and women consent to sex that they do not desire (Kaestle, 2009; Katz & Tirone, 2009; Muehlenhard & Peterson, 2011; Vannier & O’Sullivan, 2010). However, for young women, this is more common (Kaestle, 2009). Studies have shown that young women consent to sex that they do not desire because they wish to maintain a relationship; they feel that their male partner was aroused to a point of no return, and they experience a fear of negative

partner response or partner pressure and self-protection against possible worse violence (Basile, 1999; Impett & Peplau, 2002; Livingston et al., 2004; Shotland & Hunter, 1995; Sionéan et al., 2002). Tolman (2002) holds that young women are expected to speak in a world where they have to be sexually available but not sexually in charge of themselves because their motivation for sexual activity is based on the pleasure of their partner instead of themselves. Thus, the sexual subjectivity of young women becomes minimised (Kettrey, 2018). It is therefore expected that the sexual subjectivity of young people is related to undesired sex in the Netherlands (H5), and the sexual subjectivity of young women is more closely related to undesired sex than the sexual subjectivity of young men in the Netherlands (H6).

These heteronormative expectations not only provoke undesired sex but also sexual violence. Research shows a 'link between sexual violence and beliefs about male power embedded in compulsory heterosexuality, which allows and even encourages, developing boys and girls to be socialised into the established hierarchy of men over women and learn to grow comfortable with it' (Tolman, 2002, p. 162). Thus, young people grow comfortable with young men crossing the borders of young women, whereby young people become separated from their own sexual subjectivity. Additionally, the psychosocial development of adolescents plays a role in sexual violence. When young people are exploring relationships and intimacy, they may have difficulties distinguishing between flirting, dominance, and violence. Because these heteronormative expectations encourage young men to act on their sexuality and initiate sexual activity, this statement applies most to sexual violence against young women (Tolman, 2002). Therefore, the sexual subjectivity of young people is expected to relate to sexual violence in the Netherlands (H7), and the sexual subjectivity of young women is more closely related to sexual violence than sexual subjectivity of young men in the Netherlands (H8).

2.5 Summary of the theory

To summarise, due to heteronormative expectations, young women's sexual subjectivity is minimised compared to the sexual subjectivity of young men; thus, young women are at risk of losing touch with their own desires and feelings and more vulnerable to the power of others (Holland et al. 1998; Jozkowski & Peterson, 2013; Kettrey, 2018; Tolman, 2002). Young women are expected to be visually and behaviourally pleasing to young men, while young men are expected to always be interested in sex. The spreaders of these heteronormative expectations are, among others, educational systems, and media (Fields, 2008; Fine & McClelland, 2006; Kettrey, 2018; Papadopoulos, 2010; Schalet, 2011). Because of minimised

sexual subjectivity, young women engage more often in undesired sex and are more frequently victims of sexual violence (Bay-Cheng & Eliseo-Arras, 2008; Kettrey, 2018; Phillips, 2000; Tolman, 2002).

Based on the theory, a conceptual model has been formed in which the relationships between the concepts are presented in an abstract manner (Figure 1). The connection between sexual subjectivity and sexual violence is presented. Additionally, the factors that influence sexual subjectivity are visible.

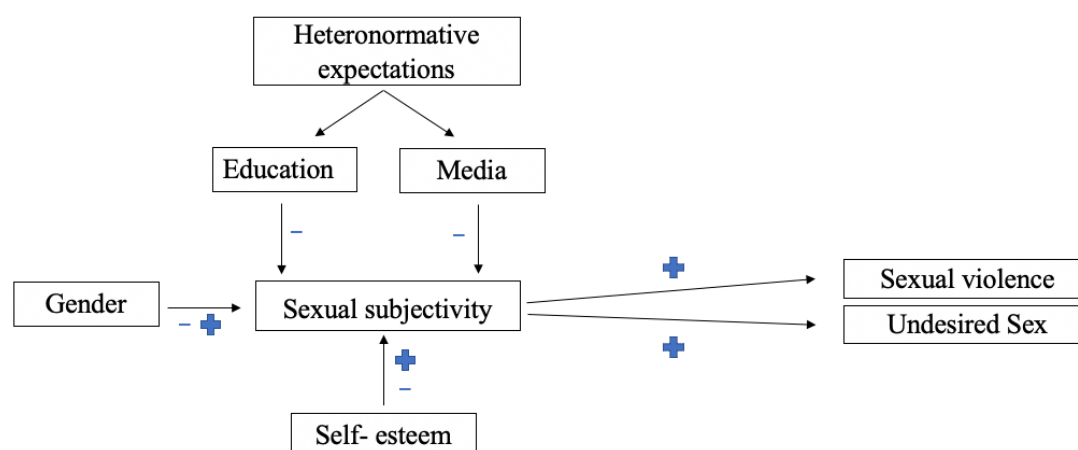


Figure 1. Expectation of the effect of sexual subjectivity on sexual violence

Derived from the theoretical background, Table 1 presents an overview of the hypotheses.

Table 1. Hypotheses

H1	Lower self-esteem is related to lower sexual subjectivity.
H2	The sexual subjectivity of young women is lower than the sexual subjectivity of young men in the Netherlands.
H3	The quality of sex education is related to young people's sexual subjectivity.
H4	Media exposure lowers young people's sexual subjectivity.
H5	The sexual subjectivity of young people is related to undesired sex among young people in the Netherlands.
H6	The sexual subjectivity of young women is stronger related to undesired sex than the sexual subjectivity of young men in the Netherlands.
H7	The sexual subjectivity of young people is related to sexual violence among young people in the Netherlands.
H8	The sexual subjectivity of young women is stronger related to sexual violence than the sexual subjectivity of young men in the Netherlands.

3 Quantitative method

3.1 Research design

Quantitative research offers the opportunity to examine the extent to which the sexual subjectivity of young people is related to undesired sex and sexual violence. By doing so, the first research question is answered: *'To what extent is sexual subjectivity related to sexual violence in the Netherlands?'*. The aim of this quantitative section is to gain insight into the relationship between sexual subjectivity and sexual violence in the Netherlands.

For this part, data are used from the study 'Seks onder je 25^e 2017', which is a large national study in the Netherlands on the relational and sexual health of young people. Rutgers Kenniscentrum Seksualiteit and Soa Aids Nederland conducted the study in collaboration with 15 GGD's and the RIVM. 'Seks onder je 25^e 2017' a quantitative cross-sectional study that measures the attitudes, beliefs, and behavioural patterns of young people in 15 regions in the Netherlands every 5 years. The main goal of 'Seks onder je 25^e 2017' is to gain insight into the sexual activity and relationships of Dutch young people. The dataset contains information on several topics like sexual start, sexual orientation and gender identification, sexual experiences, reproductive health, STD and HIV, sexual harassment, and social media.

3.2 Research population

The study 'Seks onder je 25^e 2017' consists of a sample of n= 20.840 young people between the age of 12 and 25 who completed a digital questionnaire. The sample was conducted through secondary schools as well as a random sample drawn by Statistics Netherlands from the Municipal Personal Records Database (BRP). With the sample size and random selection, the reliability of the study is maintained. Participants who reported experiencing sexual violence before the age of 12 were excluded, because research indicates that after experiencing sexual violence, victims often report minimised sexual subjectivity (Papadopoulos, 2010). When someone experiences sexual violence before the age of 12, it is more likely that they developed minimised sexual subjectivity after experiencing sexual violence instead of the other way around. After this exclusion, the final size consisted of n= 20.494 participants.

3.3 Operationalisation

The following variables were used to execute the analysis:

Undesired sex (Dependent variable [DV])

In this study, undesired sex was analysed by the following question from the questionnaire of 'Seks onder je 25^e 2017': 'Ever had an unwanted experience against my will with manual, oral, anal sex or sexual intercourse?'. This question could be answered with 0 'Never' or 1 'At least one time'.

Sexual violence (DV)

In this study, sexual violence was analysed with the following question from the questionnaire of 'Seks onder je 25^e 2017': 'Ever had an unwanted experience against my will with manual, oral, anal sex or sexual intercourse involving some form of coercion (from words to violence)?'. This question could be answered with 0 'Never' or 1 'At least one time'.

Sexual subjectivity (Mediator)

In this study, sexual subjectivity was measured by combining multiple statements of the questionnaire of 'Seks onder je 25^e 2017'. Sexual subjectivity is about the perception of being sexually active and the experience thereof, which includes desire, pleasure, and agency (Horne & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2005). Therefore, the variable 'sexual subjectivity' was formed using the following statements: 'I felt good during sex', 'I know what I like about sex', and 'I think sex is important'. These statements were answered with 1 'Totally disagree', 2 'Disagree', 3 'Neutral', 4 'Agree', or 5 'Totally agree'. The scale of sexual subjectivity is reliable (three items: $\alpha = 0.73$).

Self-esteem (Independent variable [IV])

According to Barker and Bornstein (2010), self-esteem can be predicted using someone's satisfaction with their own appearance and body. Therefore, in this study, self-esteem was measured with the question from the questionnaire of 'Seks onder je 25^e 2017': 'Your appearance in general. How satisfied are you with your body?'. The answer options were: 1 'Very unsatisfied', 2 'Unsatisfied', 3 'Neutral', 4 'Satisfied', or 5 'Very satisfied'.

Media (IV)

In this study, social media was used to analyse the sexualisation and the internalisation of heteronormative expectations, which occurs via media and affects sexual subjectivity (Papadopoulos, 2010). Social media use was measured by time spent on social media, assessed using the following question from the questionnaire of 'Seks onder je 25^e 2017': 'How much time do you spend on social media on average?'. This question could be answered with 1 'Less than 1 hour a day', 2 '1–3 hours a day', 3 '3–5 hours a day', 4 '5–10 hours a day', and 5 '10 hours or more a day'.

Quality sex education (IV)

Because the quality of sex education is low, heteronormative expectations are often internalised whereby sexual subjectivity of young women becomes minimised (Fields, 2008; Fine & McClelland, 2006). In this study, the quality of the received sex education was considered by analysing participant opinions with the question from the questionnaire of 'Seks onder je 25^e 2017': 'What is your opinion about the information you received at school about relationships and sex?'. This question could be answered with an ascending grade from 1 to 10.

Gender (IV)

In this study, the differences of gender on sexual subjectivity and the differences of gender on the relationship between sexual subjectivity and sexual violence have been considered. Gender was measured with the question from the questionnaire of 'Seks onder je 25^e 2017': 'What is your gender?', answered with 0 'Male' or 1 'Female'.

Control variables

Age and *sexual activity* are used as control variables because they could obscure the effects of sexual subjectivity on sexual violence.

First, *age* was used as a control variable to identify whether sexual subjectivity increases over time. Additionally, age was used as a control variable for the experience of undesired sex and sexual violence, because with age, it becomes more likely that someone has experienced this. Age was measured with the question from the questionnaire of 'Seks onder je 25^e 2017': 'How old are you?', answered by providing the absolute age.

Second, *sexual activity* was used as a control variable to identify whether someone was sexually active, which was a requirement for the development of sexual subjectivity (Horne &

Zimmer-Gembeck, 2005). Even though, how sexual activity is filled in can differ for people, in this study ‘masturbation’ is used to measure whether someone is sexually active because this is clearly questioned in the questionnaire of ‘Seks onder je 25^e 2017’. Sexual activity was measured with the question: ‘Have you ever masturbated?’, with answers 0 ‘No, never’ or 1 ‘Yes, I have’.

3.5 Analysis

To analyse the collected quantitative data, IBM SPSS Statistics 26 was used. First, the descriptive statistics were requested for each variable, as presented in Table 2. The descriptive statistics were followed by a linear regression analyses, which provided insight into the effect on the independent variables on the dependent variables. Before performing the analyses, the assumptions for performing a regression analysis were checked. These assumptions were met.

The first regression model tested the effect of self-esteem, gender, media exposure, and quality of sex education on sexual subjectivity with a linear regression. The second regression model included the effect of the control variables ‘age’ and ‘sexual activity’. The third regression model tested the effect of sexual subjectivity on undesired sex with a logistic regression analysis. The fourth regression model included the effect of gender, age, and sexual activity on undesired sex. The fifth regression model included the interaction effect of sexual subjectivity and gender on undesired sex. The sixth model tested the effect of sexual subjectivity on sexual violence with a logistic regression analysis. The seventh regression model included the effect of gender, age, and sexual activity on sexual violence. Last, the eighth model included the interaction effect of sexual subjectivity and gender on sexual violence.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of variables

	N	Mean/ proportion	Std. Deviation	Min.	Max.
Undesired sex	20418	7.1%		0	1
Sexual violence	20494	6.1%		0	1
Sexual subjectivity	12421	4.16	0.65	1	5
Self-esteem	20494	2.32	0.83	1	5
Media	20399	2.43	0.94	1	5
Sex education	19724	5.77	1.83	1	10
Gender (1 = female)	20494	59.4%		0	1
Age	20494	18.91	3.6	12	25
Education level	20351	7.72	2.93	1	11
Sexual activity	20494	71.9%		0	1

3.6 Ethical aspects

The study ‘Seks onder je 25^e 2017’ made use of an informed consent form that participants signed before participating in the study. Because the research population of the study consisted partly of children between the age of 12 and 16, parents received an information letter, whereafter they could indicate that their child would not participate.

To ensure anonymity, personal information irrelevant for this study was excluded from the dataset. Considering confidentiality, data were only released in an aggregate form, and the dataset was not publicly accessible. Moreover, the dataset was saved in a highly secured digital environment at Rutgers. This environment was only accessible to the researchers involved, who could access the document with a password. The personal data will be saved in this environment for 10 years; thereafter, it will be automatically destroyed.

Additionally, the study ‘Seks onder je 25^e 2017’ was inspected by a medical ethics committee who declared the study free from medical ethical permission, and the use of ‘Seks onder je 25^e 2017’ in this study was approved by the Ethics Review Board of the Faculty of Social & Behavioural Sciences of Utrecht University (reference number 21-0859).

4 Quantitative results

4.1 Sexual subjectivity

Table 3. Linear regression analyses for predicting sexual subjectivity

	Model 1		Model 2	
	B	SE	B	SE
Constant	4.321***	.030	3.715***	.048
Self-esteem	.016**	.007	.015*	.007
Female	-.144**	.012	-.123**	.012
Quality of sex education	-.004	.202	-.002	.587
Media exposure	-.035**	.006	-.019**	.006
Age			.015**	.002
Sexual activity			.146*	.015
R^2	.129***		.199***	
F	51.42		83.83	

Note. *** = $p < .001$, ** = $p < .01$, * = $p < .05$

Table 3 presents two linear regression models. The overall regression of Model 1 was significant ($F(4, 12170) = 51.42, p < .001$), whereby 12.9% of the variance is explained by self-esteem, gender, media exposure, and quality of sex education. The overall regression of Model 2 was also significant ($F(6, 12168) = 83.83, p < .001$), whereby 19.9% of the variance is explained by self-esteem, gender, media exposure, quality of sex education, age, and sexual activity.

First, the results show a significant effect of self-esteem ($B = .016, P < .01$). Thus, participants with higher self-esteem also reported higher sexual subjectivity, participants with lower self-esteem reported lower sexual subjectivity, which supports the first hypothesis. Second, the results show a significant effect of gender on sexual subjectivity. Women have significantly lower sexual subjectivity than men ($B = -.144, p < .001$). Hereby, there is also support for the second hypothesis. Third, low quality sex education does not have a significant lowering effect on sexual subjectivity ($B = -.004, p = .202$); thus, the third hypothesis is rejected. Fourth, results show a significant effect of media on sexual subjectivity as well ($B = -.035, p < .01$). Hereby, the fourth hypothesis is confirmed, stating that media exposure lowers young people's sexual subjectivity. Fifth, the control variable 'age' has a significant effect on sexual subjectivity ($B = .015, p < .01$). Thus, with age, the level of sexual

subjectivity increases. Last, the control variable 'sexual activity' has a significant effect on sexual subjectivity ($B = .146, p < .05$). Thus, the more sexually active a participant, the higher the sexual subjectivity.

Table 4. Logistic regression analyses for predicting undesired sex

	Model 3			Model 4			Model 5		
	B	SE	Exp (B)	B	SE	Exp (B)	B	SE	Exp (B)
Constant	-1.213***	.172	.297	-4.141***	.328	.016	-3.329***	.595	.036
Sexual subjectivity	-.192***	.041	.825	-.127**	.044	.881	-.319*	.127	.727
Female				1.899***	.093	6.682	.998	.565	2.713
Age				.022	.012	1.022	.022	.012	1.022
Sexual activity				.379***	.095	1.460	.372***	.095	1.451
Sexual subjectivity*Female							.216	.135	1.241
Nagelkerke R^2		.003			.099			.099	

Note. *** = $p < .001$, ** = $p < .01$, * = $p < .05$

Table 5. Logistic regression analyses for predicting sexual violence

	Model 6			Model 7			Model 8		
	B	SE	Exp (B)	B	SE	Exp (B)	B	SE	Exp (B)
Constant	-1.426***	.184	.240	-4.673***	.354	.009	-4.375***	.693	.013
Sexual subjectivity	-.186***	.044	.830	-.126**	.047	.881	-.196	.148	.822
Female				1.974***	.104	7.202	1.648*	.662	5.198
Age				.030*	.013	1.031	.030*	.013	1.031
Sexual activity				.431***	.103	1.539	.429***	.103	1.536
Sexual subjectivity*Female							.078	.156	1.081
Nagelkerke R^2		.003			.097			.097	

Note. *** = $p < .001$, ** = $p < .01$, * = $p < .05$

4.2 Undesired sex

Table 4 presents two logistic regression models for predicting undesired sex. From the results, it appears that sexual subjectivity, being female, and sexual activity appear to be significant predictors for experiencing undesired sex.

First, the odd of experiencing undesired sex is 0.8 times lower when having higher sexual subjectivity (OR = .825, $p < .001$). Hereby, the fifth hypothesis is confirmed, stating that sexual subjectivity of young people is related to undesired sex among young people in the Netherlands. Second, the results show that the odd for experiencing undesired sex for young women is 6.7 times higher than for young men (OR = 6.682, $p < .001$). Third, the control variable 'age' does not show a significant effect on undesired sex (OR = 1.022, $p = .061$). This contradicts what was expected, considering that with age, the likelihood of engaging in undesired sex generally grows. Fourth, the odd for experiencing undesired sex is 1.5 times higher when someone is sexually active (OR = 1.460, $p < .001$). Last, there is no significant interaction effect of the sexual subjectivity and gender on undesired sex (OR = 1.241, $p = .109$). Hereby, the sixth hypothesis is rejected. Looking at Nagelkerke R^2 of the models of Table 4, it can be concluded that both Models 4 and 5 explain more than Model 3. However, the addition of the interaction component in Model 5 does not explain more than the factors included in Model 4.

4.3 Sexual violence

Table 5 presents two logistic regression models for predicting sexual violence. From the results, it appears that sexual subjectivity, being female, age, and sexual activity are significant predictors for experiencing sexual violence.

First, the odd of experiencing sexual violence is 0.8 times lower when having higher sexual subjectivity (OR = .830, $p < .001$). Hereby, the seventh hypothesis, which states that sexual subjectivity of young people is related to sexual violence among young people in the Netherlands, is confirmed. Second, the results show that the odd for experiencing sexual violence for young women is 7.2 times higher than for young men (OR = 7.202, $p < .001$). Third, the odd for experiencing sexual violence is 1.3 times higher for older participants (OR = 1.031, $p < .05$). This entails that with age, the likelihood of experiencing sexual violence increases. Fourth, the odd of experiencing sexual violence are 1.5 times higher when someone is sexually active (OR = 1.539, $p < .001$). Therefore, the more sexually active a participant, the higher the chance that the participant experienced sexual violence. Last, there is no

interaction effect of sexual subjectivity and gender on for experiencing sexual violence (OR = 1.081, $p = .619$). Hereby, the eighth hypothesis is rejected. Looking at Nagelkerke R^2 of the models of Table 5, it can be concluded that both Models 7 and 8 explain more than Model 6, but the addition of the interaction component in Model 8 does not explain more than the factors included in Model 7.

5 Qualitative theoretical background

To study how policy be made regarding sexual subjectivity to prevent sexual violence in the Netherlands, it is important to investigate current policies regarding sexual violence. This section first highlights how currently sexual violence is prevented by policies in the Netherlands, whereafter policy recommendations of previous literature are highlighted. These recommendations from the previous literature could be addressed during the interviews held with experts to discuss how policy can be made regarding sexual subjectivity to prevent sexual violence in the Netherlands.

5.1 Policy regarding sexual violence

On a national level, the current prevention policy of sexual violence consists of three components: primary intervention, secondary intervention, and help for victims and perpetrators. Primary prevention occurs within sex education in schools by offering teaching lesson packages. Primary prevention also includes counselling programmes and training courses that have been developed for several groups with, for example, packages for practical education that aim to improve communication between sex partners. Additionally, primary prevention consists of selective prevention, which is aimed at vulnerable groups who run an extra risk of experiencing sexual transgressing behaviour or who transcend boundaries themselves (RIVM, 2018).

Secondary prevention concerns the timely identification of sexual violence and making it a topic of discussion. In 2013, the government introduced the Domestic Violence and Child Abuse Reporting Code, which obliges professionals in education, care, social work, and the judiciary to apply a step-by-step plan in the event of suspected violence in dependency relationships, including sexual violence. For advice or reporting, people can turn to Veilig Thuis, the central advice and reporting centre. Furthermore, various tools have been developed for professionals to signal sexual transgression or sexual violence, such as the Sensoa Flag System, which has been widely implemented in the Netherlands by Movisie. There are also protocols to support institutions in developing policies for sexuality and the prevention of sexual violence. When it comes to help for victims and perpetrators, adequate shelter is needed to prevent revictimization and recidivism, respectively (tertiary prevention). There are various facilities for shelter and treatment, including the sexual violence centres for acute care, and care institutions such as trauma centres, mental health care institutions, sexology practices, and independent care providers that offer various forms of treatment.

Victims of sexual violence can also visit centres for sexual violence, who provide initial care, testing for STDs, and referrals in a short chain. Offenders are treated in forensic care (RIVM, 2018).

Subsequently, an action plan has been drawn up to promote sexual health for 2018–2022, including the prevention of sexual violence. In this action plan, the themes ‘desire’ and ‘boundaries’ are a structural point of attention at all schools in primary education, secondary education, and university. Additionally, the plan describes that the prevention of sexual harassment should be discussed more often than once in a school career. Secondly, monitoring the quality of education regarding sexual resilience and respectful intercourse and research among the target group is necessary. Third, structural attention must be given to healthy sexual development and the prevention of sexually transgressive behaviour in vocational education aimed at care professions and educators through further training. Fourth, existing substantiated interventions should be implemented and, if necessary, the further development thereof, for the prevention of experiencing and committing sexually harassment behaviour among young adults. Moreover, the implementation and upscaling of interventions for special focus groups is necessary. Lastly, research is necessary to study the effectiveness of the interventions (RIVM, 2018).

Remarkably, to date, there is no policy present, or anything specifically mentioned about sexual subjectivity when it comes to the prevention of sexual violence in the Netherlands. From the theory section in Chapter 2, it became clear that sexual subjectivity could play a role in experiencing undesired sex and sexual violence (Kettrey, 2018; Tolman, 2002). Therefore, the minimised sexual subjectivity of young women has consequences for society as a whole but is apparently not seen as a priority in policies regarding sexual violence.

5.2 Recommendations from previous literature for policy regarding sexual subjectivity

As has become clear in the above paragraph, there are only a few policies regarding sexual subjectivity. However, in the literature, there are lots of recommendations for the implications of policy.

Various research emphasises the importance of considering sexual subjectivity and sexual development when it comes to policy (Beasley, 2008; Kettrey, 2018; Lamb, 2010; Mullen et al., 2002). Mullen et al. (2002) indicate that sex education mostly focusses on sexual risk-taking behaviour. Only focussing on risk-taking behaviour alone has short-term, moderate effects on reducing adolescent sexual risk behaviour, but it has a limited effect on positive sexual development. Therefore, sex education should focus more on sexual development, including sexual subjectivity, to reduce adolescent sexual risk behaviour such as sexual violence (Mullen et al., 2002). Additionally, sexual violence education should shift the emphasis from educating women on preventative measures to educating both men and women about the untruth heteronormative expectations of men and women (Kettrey, 2018).

Lamb (2010) further states that far too often, sex education only focusses on making the right choices for oneself. The other person is often ignored, which does not benefit feeling other people's wishes and limits, and causes confusion and uncertainty about how to follow the advice to wait until one is ready and clearly wants to have sex (Lamb, 2010).

Subsequently, Beasley (2008) mentions that the recognition of women's sexual pleasure, a component of sexual subjectivity, results in the greater involvement of women in the negotiation of sexual practices. This fact offers implications for strategies regarding sexual violence (Beasley, 2008). When women's sexual pleasure is recognised and more included in policy, it could benefit the number of victims of sexual violence.

Lastly, Armstrong et al. (2006) mention that programmes to prevent sexual violence focus mainly on education 'but culture develops in response to institutional arrangements. Without change in institutional arrangements, efforts to change cultural beliefs are undermined by the cultural common sense generated by encounters with institutions' (p. 495). This is especially important when it comes to the heteronormative expectations being carried by society as a whole. Thus, the efforts to combat sexual violence should target all levels, constituencies, and processes simultaneously (Armstrong et al., 2006). However, no specific implications are provided on how this institutional and cultural change should be maintained.

5.3 Summary of policy and recommendations

To summarise, in the Netherlands, the policies that aim to prevent sexual violence consist of primary prevention – sex education in schools – and secondary prevention – the timely identification of sexual violence and help for victims and perpetrators (RIVM, 2018).

In the literature, there are many recommendations for policy implications regarding sexual subjectivity. It is recommended to consider sexual subjectivity and sexual development, recognise the sexual pleasure of women, and not only focus on education but to include all levels, constituencies, and processes simultaneously (Armstrong et al., 2006; Beasley, 2008; Lamb, 2010; Mullen et al., 2002).

6 Qualitative method

6.1 Research design

A qualitative methodology offers the opportunity to speak with experts in greater detail and identify how policy to make that focuses on sexual subjectivity to prevent sexual violence (Evers, 2015). In doing so, the following policy question can be answered: *'How can policy be made regarding sexual subjectivity to prevent sexual violence in the Netherlands?'*

Sensitising concepts have been used as interpretive starting points for this study. Sensitising concepts offer space to investigate a new topic without formulating clear hypotheses. A disadvantage of using sensitising concepts is that it could guide the researcher and overly focus on validating information towards these concepts, thereby ignoring other useful information. It is important to be aware of this in order for the researcher to keep an open mind and not let their own opinions and ideas play a role in collecting and analysing the results (Boeije, 2005). These sensitising concepts constructed a topic list for the conduction of semi-structured expert interviews. The interviews were conducted using telephone or Skype and Microsoft Teams.

6.2 Research population

Five expert interviews were conducted. The inclusion criteria for the participants were as follows: working in the field of sexual violence, having knowledge of sexual subjectivity, or working in the field of policy regarding sexual violence. Participants were recruited by e-mail or telephone. Two participants were recruited via personal connections. These personal connections caused a snowball sample, which yielded two more additional participant. One disadvantage of recruiting participants via personal connections and using a snowball sample is that by these methods, the internal validity is endangered, and they could lead to a one-sided sample. This issue was partly addressed by recruiting one more participant through selective sampling. With selective sampling, an international participant was recruited to limit any one-sidedness. Because the selective sample not only consisted of personal connections, the heterogeneity of the target group and, thus, internal validity was preserved as much as possible (Boeije, 2005). Table 6 provides an overview of the characteristics of the participants.

Table 6. Overview of the interviewed participants

Participant	Gender	Career
1	Female	Programme employee sex education
2	Female	Therapist sexual wellbeing
3	Female	Programme manager sexual violence
4	Female	Teacher biology and sex education
5	Female	Public health adviser and working at the pleasure project

6.3 Operationalisation

A topic list was used during the interviews, constructed on the basis of the sensitising concepts and derived from the theoretical background (Appendix A). The topic list is attached in Appendix B. For each main topic in the topic list, sub-topics discussed are described, as they provided the interviews with more structure and increased the internal validity by discussing the topics questioned in each interview (Boeije, 2005).

The advantage of working with semi-structured interview is that the interviewer has enough space to discuss the topics and it offers space to include relevant topics that were not considered in advance. In such a case, a semi-structured interview offers enough flexibility for the interviewer to respond (Bryman, 2012). What must be considered here is that interviews may be influenced by the researcher. The researcher plays a significant role in the collection and interpretation of data; thus, the reliability of the qualitative research may be lower than that of quantitative research (Doorewaard et al., 2015). Additionally, internal validity in interviews can be threatened because respondents can provide socially desirable answers. To reduce this bias, the confidentiality of the information and anonymity were guaranteed by removing specific information whereby a participant could be identified. Furthermore, the interview consisted as much as possible of open questions.

6.4 Analysis

To analyse the interviews, the programme Nvivo version 12.6 was used. The sensitising concepts were used as preliminary codes when analysing the data. Two rounds of coding occurred. First, the data were analysed with the primary codes. Subsequently, the coded fragments were analysed in relation to each other. During the analysis, subjects that did not fall within the theoretical codes but were important for the research were coded with emerging codes. The ultimate code tree that arose is attached in Appendix C.

The interviews were transcribed as soon as possible after the interviews were conducted. Member validation occurred with all participants to avoid threats to the reliability of the study (Boeije, 2005). After the interview was transcribed, it was sent by email to the respondent for review and approval. In the transcript of the interviews, fragments were marked per topic in Nvivo. The fragments are listed per topic. Subsequently, the data were analysed by means of Nvivo to determine whether there was a pattern in the data. An answer to the research question was formed based on the presence of this pattern.

6.5 Ethical aspects

To secure the privacy of the participants and their opinions, prior to the interview, participants were informed about the purpose of the research, the duration of the interview, and the implementing organisation by means of an informed consent form (Appendix D). The informed consent form was sent to the participants via email, and they could return the informed consent or a picture of it. The privacy of the respondents was guaranteed by anonymising data. After completion of the research, the study was available for the respondents. Finally, member validation was used to both increase the reliability of the research and assess whether all information from the respondent was properly interpreted and elaborated. The transcripts of the interviews were stored on a secured hard drive to ensure that the files were not accessible to third parties. This research methodology was approved by the Faculty of Social Sciences at Utrecht University (reference number 21-0858).

Subsequently, it is important for the researcher to be aware of the sensitiveness of the subject of sexual violence. Even though the interviews were held with experts who discuss sexual violence regularly, it is important to be aware of the sensitiveness of the subject. When the researcher noticed that a respondent was visibly struggling, the researcher emphasised that the respondent may always choose not to answer a question or to stop the interview.

7 Qualitative results

7.1 Heteronormative expectations

Each participant mentioned the heteronormative expectations that society carries, which also came forward in several studies (Giordano et al., 2006; Kettrey, 2018; Lamb & Peterson, 2012; Oswald et al., 2005; Tolman et al., 2003). All participants described that these heteronormative expectations entail that differences in gender, leading to the expectation that men are always being interested in sex and never refuse sexual activity while women long for emotional relationships and reject sex. This corresponds to the theories of Kettrey (2018) and Lamb and Peterson (2012), which state that young men are expected to have strong sexual desires and fulfil these desires by engaging in sexual activity with women who have less desire.

However, Participant 2 mentions the untruth of these heteronormative expectations:

'It's not that we think the genders are different, that's a wrong assumption. But because we have that assumption, it means that we have fewer opportunities for women and people with a different sexuality or gender identity to also achieve sexual equality.'

In several studies, the untruth of these heteronormative expectations is also addressed (Giordano et al., 2006; Oswald et al., 2005; Tolman et al., 2003).

A consequence of these heteronormative expectations is that women who have sex with numerous men are rejected, but men who have sex with many women are praised for it. *'That means if a girl kisses 5 guys in one night she's a whore and if a guy kisses 5 girls, then he's the king but that means if so then it justifies treating that girl or woman in a different way. In a way that is not necessarily helpful to her safety. Both physically and emotionally. While that boy can actually gain more self-confidence and so those differences actually only get bigger'* (Participant 2).

The consequence for women is also underlined by the other participants. Participant 1 further stated that a woman's dignity is determined by whether she conforms to these heteronormative expectations. When a woman does not conform to these heteronormative expectations – for example, by having sex with many different men – she is held accountable because she is disgraced. Therefore, heteronormative expectations can be used as a power to shame people.

Besides the disadvantages of these heteronormative expectations for young women, Participant 1 also emphasised the disadvantage of these incorrect heteronormative expectations for young men:

'But the limitation that those standards entail are of course also very unpleasant for boys. Because those standards actually say: 'You always want sex with everyone'. (...) With as many women as possible and as often as possible. And you always can, you always want to. And if something happens, it can hardly be against your wishes.' (Participant 1)

7.2 Sexual subjectivity

The participants were mostly unanimous about the factors that play a role in the development of sexual subjectivity. Participant 3 stated:

'We already know quite a lot from research and what is important to achieve well. For example, a pleasant childhood, being well attached to your parents. Have a good basis, say now. Information is essential.'

Participant 4 adds that openness and knowing that nothing is weird are important elements as well.

'Well, that you know everything is normal. It's just increasing tolerance. So, if you just think that the students are more tolerant of the gender and orientation of others. Or that you may recognise yourself in what is being taught about. So that's where some kind of acceptance arises.' (Participant 4)

Additionally, Participants 2 and 4 describe how important it is to have the vocabulary to talk about sex, explain or emphasise one's boundaries and discuss one's preferences.

'You need to have real vocabulary to talk about sexuality. [...] Because otherwise you cannot, for example, emphasise your boundaries or something like that. Knowing the right names for your genitals or what you like. So, if you've never talked about that, if you've never put those words in your mouth, it is very difficult to suddenly do it at such a moment.' (Participant 4)

The above-mentioned important elements do not specifically appear the theory section. The theory focusses more on the influence of self-esteem, which is not explicitly mentioned by the participants, but the elements for the development of sexual subjectivity mentioned by the participants might influence self-esteem (Horne & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2005). Additionally, the theory section emphasises the importance of knowing when one wants to consent or not as a crucial element for the development of sexual subjectivity (Tolman, 2002). All participants agree on the importance of knowing when one wants to consent as a crucial element for the sexual subjectivity.

The difference between the sexual subjectivity of young women and young men is addressed by Participant 1 and 3. They both mentioned that often, the sexual subjectivity of young women is minimised compared to men, while the sexual subjectivity of men is taken

for granted. The theories of Horne and Zimmer-Gembeck (2005), Gavey (2012), Tolman (2002), and Morokoff (2000) state the same.

Furthermore, all the participants addressed that the media and the common approach to sex education complicate the development of young people's sexuality, including sexual subjectivity. Additionally, there is a difference between young women and young men:

'Girls are very much taught how to guard your boundaries and boys are very much taught how to recognise the boundaries of girls. How can I recognise aggression? So, it is actually in our information. Do we assume that girls have limits and boys have wishes? As bad as you can see, it is much more difficult for a girl to make a wish.' (Participant 1)

The influence of sex education corresponds to the theories of Fields (2008) and Fine and McClelland (2006), which explain that through educational systems, heteronormative expectations are spread, impacting sexual subjectivity such that young women are positioned as the potential victims of male aggression. Hereby, a certain fear is spread of girls being sexually active, minimising their sexual subjectivity. Participant 2 explains:

'Maybe it's just easier to talk about boundaries and about reproduction and other things, like condoms, things that are outside of ourselves than talking about pleasures of our body. We find that complicated, especially with young people and hormones, what will happen?' (Participant 2)

Participant 4 provides sex education herself and explains that by discussing several case studies, providing information about all sorts of sexualities, and including pleasure, sex education actually benefits the development of the sexual subjectivity of young people.

Subsequently, all participants mentioned that media influences young women's sexuality, including sexual subjectivity by objectifying girls.

'Media is a reflection of the common cultural standard and I think especially if you follow that norm, girls must be sexy. You have to be sexy, but especially not sexual. That what you see on social media, for example, very, very reinforced say... images to be desirable, and sexually wanted. Yes, and if you go beyond that and are too sexy or too sexually active, then just say that suddenly you are a slut.' (Participant 1)

The influence of media on young women's sexuality mentioned by all participants corresponds to the theories of Kettrey (2018), Egan (2013), Papadopoulos (2010), and Egan and Hawkes (2007), which explain that through the media, young girls learn that sexualised behaviours and appearances are rewarded. Thus, girls become self-sexualising subjects, leaving them at greater risk of minimised sexual subjectivity.

7.3 Sexual subjectivity in relation to undesired sex and sexual violence

In general, all the participants agreed about the influence of minimised sexual subjectivity on undesired sex and sexual violence. Each participant explained that the influence of sexual subjectivity stems from knowing one's own boundaries and addressing them. Because of these heteronormative expectations, young women are told how to act and behave, which disconnects them from their own desires.

'Because it is only a very fine line as to where you as a woman are allowed to be sexual but if you're not sexually expressing yourself, then you are a prude. (...). There is only a very fine line between which you are allowed to move.' (Participant 4)

Tolman (2002) similarly notes that young women are expected to speak in a world where they have to be sexually available but not sexually in control of themselves. Participants 1, 2, and 3 stated that hereby, young women engage in sex that they do not desire because they do not know what sex they do desire.

'Look, you can only really say no if you can really say YES.' (Participant 1)

All the participants emphasised that good attachment to one's own body works as a preventative factor for sexual violence, as young women thus know better their sexual preferences and thereby engage less in sexual activities that are not desired. The preventative factor of good attachment corresponds to the theories of Bay-Cheng and Eliseo-Arras (2008), Phillips (2000), and Tolman (2002), who all explain that young women with minimised sexual subjectivity engage more often in undesired sex and are more frequently victims of sexual violence. Knowing one's boundaries is part of sexual agency, which is included in sexual subjectivity. Young women who do not know what they desire could therefore have minimised sexual subjectivity, thereby causing undesired sex or sexual violence.

Furthermore, Participant 2 explained that young men's confidence grows when they have sex with many different partners, while young women are shamed when they do so. She explains that the differences between young men and women are thus growing, and the consequences for women who do not conform to these heteronormative expectations are worse. Even though this is not specifically mentioned in the theoretical background, it partly overlaps with the theories of Morokoff (2000) and Gavey (2012), which emphasise the different heteronormative expectations for young men and women.

Lastly, Participant 1 also noted that undesired sex and sexual violence are a source of power because in that way, women can be shamed.

'Look girls are very vulnerable because we made them very vulnerable. Because sex is a shame. (...) We hardly shame men and boys and of course sexing, unwanted sexing with boys.'

If it weren't so shameful, it wouldn't be so bad to share a nude photo. (...) It's still cross-border to share, but the consequences would be less severe if being naked or having sex were not an activity for women to be ashamed of.' (Participant 1)

Shaming of women by men corresponds with Tolman's (2003) theory that young women learn to grow comfortable with a power hierarchy where men are at the top.

7.4 Prevention of sexual violence

In general, all the participants mentioned that to prevent sexual violence, these heteronormative expectations present in society and given to young people must be changed. An institutional, cultural shift is required by society as a whole to change these heteronormative expectations.

'This is something that we as a society give as a society to young people in a kind of context. This is the field in which you must move. And this is in that context, nor can you leave it to young people to change that. At least, they clearly play an important role... But if you want that to change, it takes all of us to change the social standard that is set.' (Participant 1)

This corresponds to the study from Armstrong et al. (2006), focusing on institutional changes targeting heteronormative expectations to prevent sexual violence but not the current policy regarding sexual violence present in the Netherlands (RIVM, 2018). The current policy does not specifically target a shift in culture or a shift of these heteronormative expectations. However, the participants do not know how to bring about this change because it must occur on such a large scale, but they do hold that schools, the media, and parents can contribute.

Furthermore, from the interviews, it became clear that sex education plays a key role, and by taking a different approach, it could better prevent sexual violence. The participants agreed unanimously that the principles for sexual education must not only focus on the negative consequences that could occur but also the positive side of sexual activity and information about gender and relationships.

'Sex education that has to, by default, talk about what people want to get from their sex lives, you know, using the definition of pleasure, inclusive sexual health that we've set up. (...) I've seen a lot of interventions that say that the intervention is about empowerment and particularly focussing on young women. And then when I go through those interventions, it does a whole range of training sessions with young women that basically teaches them to say no, to the extent of like how to get out of that situation, how to stop it.... It doesn't say now this is what you might want to say yes to. (...) We'll support the reduction of sexual violence because young men and young women will know what they want. If you're suppressing it and

talking about no, then they will potentially not be able to explore safely what activities and what type of consensual, satisfying relationships they want. (Participant 5)

The change of sex education is addressed by the theories of Kettrey (2018), Beasley (2008), and Lamb (2010), which state that education should shift its emphasis from educating women on preventative measures to educating both men and women about the falsity of the heteronormative expectations on men and women, the recognition of women's sexual pleasure, and a component of sexual subjectivity. These components result in the greater involvement of women in the negotiation of sexual practices, while far too often, sex education only focusses on making the right choices for oneself while the other person is often ignored, which does not benefit other people's wishes and limits. Therefore, sex education should not only focus on own's feelings and desires but also that of the other person (Lamb, 2010).

However, Participant 2 added that it is not enough to have a fixed hour where sexuality is discussed. She has a completely different approach where all teachers should be able to discuss and signal sexual topics. Participants 3 and 5 shared this opinion.

'Sexual development does not take place in that hour, so I think you should signal much broader.... If you have used drugs in your school then it is not that you talk about it somewhere in your lesson, but you constantly notice that. (...) Why can't we do that with sexuality? All teachers should actually know something and be able to identify it.' (Participant 2).

Participant 2 further explained that for each teacher to discuss topics regarding sexuality with young people, teachers should be taught how to discuss sexuality with young people and to notice when something regarding their sexual development goes wrong. This differs from the current approach of sex education, which mostly focusses on the dangerous side of sexual intercourse, such as becoming a victim of sexual violence, getting pregnant at an early age, or getting a STD (Armstrong et al., 2006; RIVM, 2018).

Three participants mentioned another important aspect of sex education: teaching the use of the proper terminology and having the vocabulary to talk about boundaries and wishes. If young people do not know how to name their wishes or boundaries, talking about it becomes more difficult.

Lastly, all the participants addressed the importance of equal access to honest and open media. Young people should be equally exposed to explicit media where heteronormative expectations are propagated and media where these heteronormative expectations are countered – for example, female friendly porn, relationship forms other than

heterogenous ones, and relationships between people of different sizes and colours. In this way, young people can develop a broader frame of context whereby their self-esteem and sexual subjectivity is less minimised. However, Participant 5 also mentions the benefits of explicit media:

‘Some women will say that it can be quite empowering to see sexually explicit media because it helps them understand what they might want.’ (Participant 5).

Though every participant acknowledged the influence of explicit media and the propagation of heteronormative expectations, they all believed that putting restrictions on explicit media was not a proper solution and hard to fulfil.

Overall, from the interviews, it became clear that to prevent undesired sex and sexual violence, policy regarding sexual subjectivity should focus on four topics: culture and institutions, education, professionals, and media. Table 7 provides an overview of all the policy suggestions provided by the participants.

Table 7. Policy suggestions

Topic	Policy suggestions
Culture and institutions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ A cultural and institutional change of heteronormative expectations should be implemented.
Education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Different approaches to sex education; no fixed hours but an ongoing approach whereby every teacher can handle topics regarding sexuality. ○ Principles for sexual education must not only focus on the negative consequences that could occur; they should also include the positive side of sexuality and discussing sexual diversity.
Professionals	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ All teachers should be trained to discuss sexuality with young people and notice when something in their development goes wrong.
Media	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Support media where the heteronormative expectations are countered.

8 Discussion

8.1 Conclusion

This research provides new insights into the scientific discourse around the relationship between sexual subjectivity, undesired sex, and sexual violence, as well as the opportunities for policy. The following research questions were central: (1) *'To what extent is sexual subjectivity related to undesired sex and sexual violence among young people in the Netherlands?'* and (2) *'How can policy be made regarding sexual subjectivity to prevent undesired sex and sexual violence in the Netherlands?'* The second research question is answered in the next chapter, where policy recommendations are provided.

From the quantitative data results, it can first be concluded that sexual subjectivity and undesired sex, as well as sexual subjectivity and sexual violence, are related such that when sexual subjectivity lowers, the chances of young people in the Netherlands experiencing undesired sex and sexual violence increases. These findings align with findings of Bay-Cheng and Eliseo-Arras (2008), Kettrey (2018), Phillips (2000), and Tolman (2002), who explain that when sexual subjectivity is minimised, young people are more likely to cross their boundaries. Furthermore, Tolman (2002) explains that young people grow comfortable with the hierarchy established by heteronormative expectations, and thus young men grow comfortable crossing the boundaries of young women. Young women, however, learn to grow comfortable with their borders being crossed (Tolman, 2002). During the interviews, all the participants also emphasised that the sexual subjectivity of young people is related to undesired sex among young people in the Netherlands. Hereby, it is important to emphasise that the relationship between sexual subjectivity, undesired sex, and sexual violence never, in any kind of way, means that the victim of undesired sex or sexual violence is to blame.

Second, contradictory to what was expected, this relationship between sexual subjectivity, undesired sex and sexual violence does not appear to be significantly stronger for young women than young men. Meaning that lower sexual subjectivity has the same effect on undesired sex and sexual violence for young women and young men. An explanation could be that there are not only heteronormative expectations of young women affecting their sexual subjectivity, but that these heteronormative expectations could also influence the sexual subjectivity for young men. According to the interviewed participants, minimised sexual subjectivity provokes sexual violence among young women because young people become separated from their feelings and desires. Hereby, young people behave according to what is heteronormatively expected of them: young men initiating sexual activity and young women holding off sexual activity. This could indicate that these heteronormative expectations not

only formulate strict rules for young women, but also for young men, who have a standard they must meet, which can influence their sexual subjectivity. An expert who participated in this study also mentioned the strict rules for young men. However, to date, there is limited information available about these rules and the relationship between heteronormative expectations and the sexual subjectivity of young men. An important additional notion that must be made here is that the data of ‘Seks onder je 25^e 2017’ show that young women on average scored lower on sexual subjectivity than young men. Therefore, even though sexual subjectivity appears to have the same effect for both young women and young men, it is likely that, because the sexual subjectivity of young women is lower, young women experience undesired sex and sexual violence more often.

Third, it can be concluded that lower self-esteem is related to lower sexual subjectivity, which corresponds to findings of Horne and Zimmer-Gembeck (2005) and Martin (1996), who explain that when people have low self-esteem, they act more often out of uncertainty and pressure from others than for their interest, which does not benefit their sexual subjectivity.

Fourth, the results indicate that the sexual subjectivity of young women is lower than the sexual subjectivity of young men in the Netherlands. This result aligns with findings from Gavey (2012), Horne and Zimmer-Gembeck (2005), Morokoff (2000), and Tolman (2002); thus, young women have more difficulty developing their sexual subjectivity because of these heteronormative expectations, as they still receive messages where male sexual values are emphasised. All experts that participated in this study confirmed the influence of heteronormative expectations on behaviour and the assessment of behaviour differently for young women and young men, whereby young women are disadvantaged in terms of sexual subjectivity.

Fifth, the results demonstrate that sex education does not relate to young people’s sexual subjectivity; thus, sex education does not improve or minimise sexual subjectivity. This contradicts the findings of Fields (2008), Fine and McClelland (2006), and Kettrey (2018), which state that sex education spreads particular fears about girls being sexually active, and so the focus does not lie on developing their pleasure or sexual subjectivity. The results also contradict the opinions of the interviewed experts. Participants emphasised that sex education focussing only on preventative and protection of sexual activity could minimise sexual subjectivity. This difference in the findings could be explained by the operationalisation of the quality of sex education. The quality of sex education in this research was only measured by analysing the assessment different topics discussed during sex

education, which does not equal the quality of sex education. However, considering the experts' opinions that participated in this study and the above-mentioned studies, the impact of sex education on sexual subjectivity is still considered great.

Last, the results demonstrate that media exposure lowers young people's sexual subjectivity, aligning with findings from Kettrey (2018), Papadopoulos (2010), and Egan (2013), which state that because of the media, young women engage in self-objectification, minimising sexual subjectivity. The experts participating in this study acknowledged the same influence of media on sexual subjectivity.

Given the large sample of 'Seks onder je 25^e 2017', the quantitative results are estimated to be representative for Dutch young people between the ages of 12 and 25. However, the proportions of variances explained by the independent variables are considered to be low. Therefore, though the quantitative and qualitative results and the theory mostly overlap with each other, the results must be interpreted with caution.

8.2 Strengths and limitations

In terms of strengths, the sample size of 'Seks onder je 25^e 2017' ensures that the results are estimated to be generalisable to the target group. Another strength of this study is its mixed-method approach. This approach offered the opportunity to gain both quantitative and qualitative results; as such, the qualitative results supplemented and confirmed the quantitative results, strengthening the results (Boeije, 2005). However, there are several limitations to this study.

First, this study could be improved by focussing on undesired sex or sexual violence instead of including both concepts. From the results, it could be concluded that there was no apparent difference between undesired sex and sexual violence since both concepts are very similarly operationalised. They were only distinguished by coercion that occurs with sexual violence but not undesired sex. Consequently, both terms overlapped great and were insufficiently distinguished from each other to draw specific implications.

Secondly, the data of the study 'Seks onder je 25^e 2017' are cross-sectional data. With cross-sectional data, it is not clear whether someone who has experienced undesired sex or sexual violence already had minimised sexual subjectivity or developed minimised sexual subjectivity after experiencing undesired sex or sexual violence. According to Sarkar and Sarkar (2005), many victims of sexual violence have lower sexual subjectivity after their experience of sexual violence. While people who experienced sexual violence before the age of 12 are excluded, there is still a chance that people who developed minimised sexual

subjectivity after they undesired sex or sexual violence were included in this study. Therefore, a longitudinal study should be executed to ensure that someone experienced minimised sexual subjectivity prior to undesired sex or sexual violence.

Third, this study could be improved by analysing undesired sex and sexual violence among all genders identities instead of focussing on only young men and women. Due to the available data of 'Seks onder je 25^e 2017', this study only focused on young women and young men, but this is not a complete representation of society. Additionally, it is within these heteronormative expectations that gender only includes 'man' and 'woman' (Habarth, 2015). Including only man and woman is a limitation but also an example of how deeply entrenched these heteronormative expectations are.

Lastly, this study could be improved by examining a larger, heterogenetic group of respondents for the interviews. Data are more reliable for a larger respondent group but also when both women and men are included; thus, the participants of the interviews would be more heterogenetic, and internal validity would be higher (Boeije, 2005). Including both men and women is especially important for topics as undesired sex and sexual violence, a subject where gender inequality is underlying; otherwise, the results remain one- sided (Rahman & Jackson, 2010).

8.3 Recommendations for future research

Besides examining longitudinal data, including all genders identities, a larger heterogeneous sample for conducting interviews, future research could focus on the consequences of heteronormative expectations on the sexual subjectivity of young men. This information can provide more insight into the consequences of these heteronormative expectations, as they are still underexposed for young men and could also influence undesired sex and sexual violence.

Additionally, considering that young people rate their sex education as an average of 5.8, it is recommended to qualitatively study young people's opinions about sex education because sex education could contribute to the prevention of sexual violence (Fields, 2008; Fine & McClelland, 2006; Tolman, 2002). Qualitative research offers the ability to investigate the motivators behind this rate, points of improvement and gain more understanding of the opinion of young people and how to connect to this (Evers, 2015).

Last, it is recommended to further investigate how cultural and institutional change of heteronormative expectations can be established, which is expanded upon in the next chapter.

9 Policy recommendations

Following the findings of this research, policy recommendations are provided on four different topics: culture and institutions, education, professionals, and media. Hereby the second research question is answered: *'How can policy be made regarding sexual subjectivity to prevent undesired sex and sexual violence in the Netherlands?'*

First, this research discovered that focussing policy only on sexual subjectivity might not be enough to prevent sexual violence because heteronormative expectations appear to be the core of the problem instead of sexual subjectivity (Kettrey, 2018). Therefore, it is recommended to focus policy on a cultural and institutional shift whereby heteronormative expectations can be changed. However, even though all the experts participating in this study and research acknowledged that cultural and institutional change is necessary, it remains mostly unclear how this change should be initiated because of the many factors involved (Armstrong et al., 2006). Therefore, knowledge must be gathered about how the heteronormative expectations present in the Dutch culture and institutions can be changed, how these changes can be implemented, and which institutions and actors in society play a role in the development of sexuality and can contribute to this change. Studies show that there could be implications for parents because they play a key role in the development of their children's sexuality (Schouten et al., 2007; Striepe & Tolman, 2003). Parents could, for example, receive guidance in making sexuality a topic for discussion, but opportunities for parents need to be explored further.

Second, besides parents, there are also implications for the role of schools in cultural and institutional change. Several experts that participated in this study and the study of Walpot and Boendermaker (2018) recommended a different approach to sex education. Instead of only focussing on sexuality, according to these experts, lessons should focus on both sexuality and sexual diversity. These lessons should take an ongoing approach where every teacher can handle topics regarding sexuality and discuss them when they come up during class instead of fixed hours. Additionally, these lessons should include the positive side of sexual activity, discussing gender, relationships and what someone wants from their sex life, rather than contraceptives, pregnancy, and STDs. In this way, boundary recognition and the ability to speak openly are improved and help preventing undesired sex and sexual violence. An important additional aspect is teaching proper terminology and having the vocabulary to talk about boundaries and wishes. According to the experts that participated in this study, young people should know proper terminology to express their boundaries well. In

this way, discussing sexuality and heteronormative expectations are normalised, and young people have a more complete and comprehensive knowledge of gender, sexual diversity, and sexuality. More extensive implications for the content of these lessons can be found at the organisation 'The case for her' (The case for her, 2021).

However, there are also opposing sides to this approach. Namely, with subjects that are taboo, like sexuality, it might feel unsafe to discuss them at any time with every teacher. This could jeopardise the openness and confidentiality required for discussing these topics (Walpot & Boendermaker, 2018). Additionally, this approach means that every teacher must be able to teach topics related to sexuality and sexual diversity, a significant role, that not every teacher may feel comfortable with. A teacher's discomfort can also mean that a safe atmosphere and openness cannot be guaranteed.

Furthermore, it is currently obligatory for schools to pay attention to sex education for primary, secondary, and special education. However, there are no requirements to this obligation (Seksuele Vorming, 2012). An important notion here is that, in the Netherlands, there are many types of schools based on different religions. Thus, not every school may support this approach because it could collide with their perceptions. In the Netherlands, there is the fundamental right of freedom of education (De Nederlandse Grondwet, 2021). Thus, if there are no legal embedded requirements for discussing sexuality and diversity, they do not have to teach it. Therefore, since according to the experts participating in this study, taking another approach to sex education could help prevent sexual violence, requirements for schools to pay attention to sexuality and diversity should be investigated. Otherwise, without requirements it will remain dependent on schools themselves how they want to teach sexuality and diversity. Besides, experimental studies should be executed to test the effectiveness and practical implications of this different ongoing approach to sex education.

Third, from the previous recommendation, it became clear that teachers play a crucial role in providing education about sexuality and sexual diversity; therefore, it is recommended that all teachers receive proper training on how these topics can be discussed, but also how to notice when something is wrong with the sexual development of young people. Additionally, it is recommended to train teachers how to deal with the taboo that rests on sexuality. According to an expert interviewed in this study, now teachers' discomfort often wins over discussing the positive sides of sexual diversity, and sexuality. There are already training courses available for teachers provided by the Gemeentelijke Gezondheids Diensten (GGD) that teach how sexuality and sexual diversity can be discussed, but they are not obligatory for all teachers (GGD, 2021). It is recommended that preferably every teacher, but at least all

teachers who discuss sexuality and sexual diversity with children and young people, to follow such a course.

Last, this study recommends supporting media where heteronormative expectations are countered. Countering heteronormative expectations involve spreading the message that every gender can have any role. Experts participating in this study expected that when this kind of media is supported, young people will have a broader frame of reference, whereby they are less limited by what is heteronormatively expected of them. According to these experts, media that counters heteronormative expectations combats gender inequality and sexualization of girls, whereby undesired sex and sexual violence will reduce.

Various institutions and actors can take up this recommendation. The government is responsible for upholding fundamental rights, including equality and public health (Parlement, 2021). Additionally, the government has the task of protecting the quality and diversity of the media offer (Ministerie van Algemene Zaken, 2021). The government could commit to her tasks by for instance, supporting media that counters heteronormative expectations through subsidies. This is previously done by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science with supporting the Coalition Beeldvorming in de media. This coalition aims to obtain a more balanced representation of Dutch society in the media whereby stereotypes are countered (Womeninc, 2020). Additionally, other organisations in civil society, including Rutgers Kenniscentrum Seksualiteit, can create programmes that focus on countering these heteronormative expectations. A good example is ‘Gewoon Bloot’, which focuses on providing a truth-based reflection of sexuality and sexual diversity to children (Omroep NTR, 2021). Similar programmes could be developed for young people. Given the major consequences of sexual violence, it is of great importance that these recommendations are further investigated and expended.

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Appendix

Appendix A Sensitising concepts

The theory section shows that sexual subjectivity of young women is often minimized compared to young men. The minimization of young women's sexual subjectivity is caused by media, educational systems, and parents. Because of this, young women become more often victims of sexual violence or experience in undesired sex. Therefore, these subjects are included as sensitizing concepts.

Additionally, preventative policies targeting sexual violence, consist of primary intervention which consist of sex education in school which mostly focus on negative aspects of sexual intercourse (becoming a victim of sexual violence), secondary prevention: the timely identification of sexual violence and help for victims and perpetrators. Therefore, primary intervention, secondary intervention and care for victims and perpetrators are sensitizing concepts as well (RIVM, 2018). Finally, including sexual subjectivity and sexual development in sex education, recognize sexual pleasure of women and including all levels, constituencies, and processes simultaneously are sensitizing concepts because in other studies, they are presented for policy implications (Armstrong et al., 2006; Beasley, 2008; Lamb, 2010; Mullen et al., 2002).

The sensitizing concepts are:

Sexual subjectivity: the perceptions of pleasure from the body and the experience of being sexually active (Horne & Zimmer- Gembeck, 2005).

Causes of minimized sexual subjectivity:

- Media: Via media young girls become sexualized; what fuels minimized sexual subjectivity (Egan, 2013).
- Education systems: Through sex education, young women are positioned as victims what plays a role in minimized sexual subjectivity (Fine & McClelland, 2006; Tolman, 2002).

Sexual violence: any sexual act or attempted sexual act by the use of force or coercion, involving manual, oral, vaginal or anal sex (Van Berlo & Twisk, 2017).

Undesired sex: sexual activity where a person freely consents to sexual activity with a partner without experiencing a concomitant desire for the initiated sexual activity (O'Sullivan & Allgeier, 1998).

Primary prevention: policy that focusses sex education on schools that aim to prevent sexual violence (RIVM, 2018).

Secondary prevention: policy that focusses on the timely identification of sexual violence (RIVM, 2018).

Victim & perpetrator care: policy that focusses on prevent revictimization and recidivism respectively (tertiary prevention) (RIVM, 2018).

Policy suggestions:

- Including sexual subjectivity and sexual development in sex education (Mullen et al., 2002).
- Recognize sexual pleasure of women (Beasley, 2008; Lamb, 2010;).
- Focussing on including of all levels, constituencies, and processes simultaneously (Armstrong et al., 2006).

Appendix B Topic list

The table below displays the topics discussed during the interviews. These topics arose from the sensitising concepts of the literature study. To answer the research question, we began with demographic information; the current work and career of the participant was discussed to place the participants' answers in context. Thereafter, sexual subjectivity was discussed to identify its meaning to the experts and their practical experiences. Also, the causes of minimised sexual subjectivity were discussed because the causes could offer implications for preventative policies. This was followed by discussing the relationship between minimised sexual subjectivity and undesired sex and sexual violence.

Subsequently, the current policy regarding sexual violence was discussed, and the participants were asked to share their opinion about the points of improvement, and elaboration and effectiveness of the policy. Thereafter, policy options regarding sexual subjectivity to prevent sexual violence were questioned, and the participant's opinion about the recommendations in literature about preventative policy regarding sexual subjectivity to prevent sexual violence was asked.

Finally, an open dialogue about other additional policy implications to prevent sexual violence was encouraged, and the interview concluded.

Topics:
<p>Introduction</p> <p>Introduction, explanation and purpose of research, and informed consent form.</p>
<p>Demographic information</p> <p>Career and current work.</p>
<p>Sexual subjectivity</p> <p>Meaning of sexual subjectivity, experience in practice, causes of minimised sexual subjectivity, and heteronormative expectations and sexual subjectivity.</p>
<p>Undesired sex and sexual violence</p> <p>Meaning of sexual violence, characteristics, causes and experiences in practice</p>
<p>Current preventative policy</p> <p>Participant's opinion about the current preventative policy of sexual violence, good sides, and points of improvement.</p>
<p>Policy regarding sexual subjectivity</p> <p>Participant's opinion about preventative policy regarding sexual subjectivity to prevent sexual violence, requirements, and elaboration.</p>
<p>Policy recommendations of literature</p> <p>Participant's opinion about the recommendations in literature about preventative policy regarding sexual subjectivity to prevent sexual violence.</p>
<p>Open dialogue about preventative policy regarding sexual violence</p> <p>Other additional policy implications to prevent sexual violence.</p>
<p>Rounding up</p> <p>Additions, questions, and thanks.</p>

Appendix C Code tree interviews

- ▼ ● Descriptives
 - ▶ ● Employment
 - ▶ ● Gender
- ▼ ● Emerging codes
 - Existing expectations...
- ▼ ● Heteronormative expecta...
 - Defining finished sex
 - Dubble sexual moral
 - Heteronormative gap
 - Sexuality fundamentally...
 - Typical gender roles
 - ▶ ● Young men
 - ▶ ● Young women
- ▼ ● Media
 - Explicit media helps un...
 - Media in objectification
 - Not be one sides
 - Should be based on fa...
- ▼ ● Policy
 - ▶ ● Culture
 - ▶ ● Education
 - ▶ ● Media
 - ▶ ● Professionals
- ▼ ● Sex education
 - Boys do not receive se...
 - Boys is learned how to...
 - Girls is learned to prot...
 - Only focused on repro...
 - Prevention and sex ed...
 - Punishing finger during...
 - Sex educatio based on...
- ▼ ● Sexual subjectivity
 - 'good sex' for women
 - Differences 'good sex'
 - Men more focused on...
 - Only say yes when kno...
 - Openness
 - Safe base
 - Space for questions
- ▼ ● Sexual violence
 - Going to far against th...
 - Gradual scale sexual vi...
 - Grouppressure
 - Knowing that sexuality...
 - Sexual violence and po...
 - Shaming of women
 - Taking for granted
 - Traditional norms
 - Victim blaming

*Appendix D Informed consent***Onderzoek**

Master Sociology: Contemporary Social Problems -
Universiteit Utrecht



Universiteit Utrecht

Naam onderzoeker: Marieke Meijer

Doel van het onderzoek

Seksueel geweld is een maatschappelijk probleem van grote omvang. In Nederland wordt 22% van de vrouwen en 6% van de mannen slachtoffer hiervan. Uit onderzoek is gebleken dat seksuele subjectiviteit (verlangen, plezier en zelfbeschikking) bij vrouwen vaak geminimaliseerd is ten opzichte van de seksuele subjectiviteit van mannen met als gevolg dat vrouwen hierdoor sneller slachtoffer worden van seksueel geweld. Het doel van dit onderzoek is om te onderzoeken wat de mogelijkheden zijn om beleid te richten op seksuele subjectiviteit om zo seksueel geweld te voorkomen.

Wat wordt er van u verwacht?

Om te onderzoeken wat de mogelijkheden zijn om beleid te richten op seksuele subjectiviteit om zo seksueel geweld te voorkomen zullen interviews worden afgenomen met experts op dit gebied. Deze interviews zullen ongeveer 1 uur duren en zullen plaatsvinden via skype of telefonisch vanwege het heersende COVID-19. Tijdens het interview heeft u altijd de mogelijkheid om een vraag niet te beantwoorden, een pauze te nemen of te stoppen.

Gegevens en dataverwerking

De gegevens van mijn onderzoek worden verzameld via interviews die zorgvuldig zullen worden behandeld. De interviews zullen worden opgenomen met een dictafoon. Naderhand zal deze audio-opname anoniem worden getranscribeerd. Dat betekent dat de gegevens anoniem worden verwerkt en dat niemand in het uiteindelijke verslag op voor derden herkenbare wijze zal worden beschreven. De computer waar de audio-opnamen en transcripten van het interview wordt geslagen is beveiligd volgens de hoogste standaarden en alleen de betrokken onderzoekers hebben toegang tot deze computer. De audio-opnamen worden na afronding van het onderzoek verwijderd. De anonieme transcripten zullen met een beveiligingscode worden beveiligd en worden ten minste 10 jaar bewaard. Dit is in

overeenstemming met de richtlijnen van de VSNU Vereniging van Universiteiten in Nederland. Voor meer informatie over privacy kun je naar de volgende site:

<https://autoriteitpersoonsgegevens.nl/nl/onderwerpen/avg-europese-privacywetgeving>

Onafhankelijk contact en klachten meldpunt

Als u vragen of opmerkingen heeft over het onderzoek, neem dan contact op met

e.jaspers@uu.nl.

Als u een officiële klacht heeft over dit onderzoek, dan kunt u een email sturen naar de klachten officier via klachtenfunctionaris-fetcsocwet@uu.nl.

Mocht u, na het lezen van deze brief, besluiten deel te nemen aan dit onderzoek, dan zou ik u vriendelijk willen verzoeken hier onder uw handtekening te zetten en deze terug te sturen naar de onderzoeker via m.d.j.meijer@students.uu.nl.

Indien u dit wenst (zie hieronder) kan ik u tevens het uiteindelijke onderzoeksverslag of de samenvatting daarvan toesturen. Door dit document te ondertekenen geeft u te kennen dat u akkoord gaat met uw deelname aan dit onderzoek. Ook na ondertekening kunt u nog altijd afzien van uw medewerking. Uw deelname wordt echter zeer op prijs gesteld!

Ik geef toestemming voor deelname aan dit onderzoek,

Naam:.....

Plaats:.....

Handtekening: