A Q-METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH TO AUDIENCE RECEPTION OF PUBLIC AWARENESS MESSAGES ON SEXUAL VIOLENCE

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of Masters in Counselling Psychology

Rhodes University

by RACHEL BENNIE

Supervised by Mr Werner Böhmke

DATE: 21/06/2019

Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and that any information derived from the published and unpublished work of others has been rightly and properly acknowledged in the text and the included reference list. The thesis is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement for Masters in Counselling Psychology at Rhodes University.

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Rachel Bennie

DATE: 21/06/2019

Abstract

Public awareness poster campaigns are an often-used method for raising awareness about, and engaging audiences on the topic of rape and other forms of sexual violence (Potter, 2012). However, poster campaigns, as social artefacts, operate in a public arena in which numerous discourses about a phenomenon are produced, reproduced and interact with each other, with sometimes unintended/unanticipated discursive consequences (Böhmke, Bennie, Minnie, Moore, Pilusa & Pollock, 2015). How messages aimed at raising awareness of sexual violence are framed has the potential to reproduce dominant social narratives and gendered subject positions in ways that reinforce notions of men as active sexual agents and potential perpetrators, and women as sexually passive and potential victims (Gavey, 2005). Other approaches, such as bystander intervention, seek to move away from a focus on victims and perpetrators to emphasise the role that community members can play in risk detection, safety promotion and the prevention of sexual violence (McMahon & Banyard, 2012). Since a range of possible messages about sexual violence can be communicated through poster campaigns, it is important to critically examine the content and orientation of campaign material. This study focused on intended audience views regarding messages about sexual violence contained in anti-sexual violence poster materials. The purpose was to collaborate with a selected audience to better understand which messages are effective and which strategies of communication are perceived to be less so. Through the use of Q-methodology, volunteer participants were invited to express their opinions in relation to messages about sexual violence from a range of posters from several international campaigns. The analysis focused on uncovering the discursive subject positions that participants' express in their attitudinal responses to the poster messages, providing not only a description of these positions, but also illustrating the level of resonance that the poster messages may find with intended audiences. The aim of the study is to potentially inform the development of more focused campaign material, tailored to the specific context from which participants were drawn. Analysis shows clear patterns of audience resistance towards stereotypical representations of sexual violence and messages that are geared towards the simple prohibition of behaviours. The findings highlight the need for the development of alternative strategies of engagement that focus on specific engagement with understandings of sexual violence in the context of intimate and/or acquaintance relationships and which are aimed at inviting audiences to take up a position in relation to sexual violence phenomena that troubles the reproduction of received notions of gendered subjectivities and (hetero) sexuality.

Keywords: sexual violence, sexual violence prevention, bystander intervention, discourse analysis, poster campaigns, discourse, discursive subject positions, heterosexuality.

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This thesis is dedicated to all those in Zimbabwe, in your own quiet way; you have kept my soul and energies going throughout my journey.

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Chapter One: Introduction and Context

1.1 Introduction:

This thesis outlines the analysis of audience reception of a range of sexual violence awareness campaign posters. Selected posters were analysed for the messages about sexual violence they contained. These messages were distilled into a series of statements presented to volunteer research participants in a ranking and sorting exercise in which participants ordered the statements according to their level of agreement and/or disagreement. The resulting patterns of ranking were then analysed using Q-methodology. The results of the analysis show clear patterns of audience orientation towards the messages contained in sexual violence awareness posters that will be useful in the future design of effective and targeted public awareness materials.

As a point of departure, this thesis is organised into five chapters. In brief, chapter 1 places the study in context and locates it within existing research on rape and sexual violence in South Africa. This section includes an overview of the prevalence and patterns of sexual violence, and approaches to sexual violence prevention. Additionally, this chapter is concerned with the way in which sexual violence is understood within the South Africa context and explicates how such understandings are underpinned by various discourses of gender, sex and sexuality. It is this section that provides a rationale for the study and forms the basis for the subsequent theoretical chapter. Chapter 2 explicates the broadly, post-structuralist, discursive perspective employed in this study and provides an understanding of the social constructionist perspective adopted in relation to Q-methodology's stated focus on subjectivity.

Chapter 3 outlines how Q-methodology was employed to elicit the discursive subject positions that participants' express in their attitudinal responses to poster messages regarding sexual violence. Chapter 4 is a discussion of the analysis process, which identifies the most commonly occurring aggregate patterns of sorted statements and describes these factors as representing various discursive positions adopted by participants in relation to the constructions of sexual violence in the poster materials. Chapter 5 brings together the findings pertaining to how participants oriented themselves towards sexual violence awareness of prevention messages and provides suggestions for discursive and rhetorical strategies that may be effective in the specific

South African University context. The term “effective” is used throughout this thesis to refer to the extent to which messages regarding sexual violence in poster campaigns serve to undermine stereotypical understandings of gender, sexuality, relationships and accountability (Knowles, 2016).

1.2 Gender-Based Violence in the South African Context:

South Africa has come to be characterised by high levels of gender-based violence (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002; Seedat, Van Nierkerk, Jewkes, Suffla & Ratele, 2009). For South African women, intimate partner and sexual violence are the most commonly experienced forms of violence (Jewkes, Dunkle, Nduna & Shai, 2010; Seedat et al., 2009). Research studies in South Africa indicate that between 25% and 55% of women have experienced physical intimate partner violence (Jewkes, Penn-Kekana, Levin, Ratsaka & Schreiber, 2001), and the rate of female homicide by an intimate partner is six times the global average (Gordon & Collins, 2013; Seedat et al., 2009). For the period 2017/2018, crime statistics released by the South African Police Service (SAPS) show 50 108 documented cases of sexual offences perpetrated against women (Africa Check, 2018). It is noted that this figure has increased slightly when compared with the 2016/2017 statistics of 49 660 (Africa Check, 2018).

Literature would seem to suggest that official statistics pertaining to rape and sexual assault are inaccurate due to various factors including; difficulties collating data, problematic police reporting, unclear definitions of rape and a high level of unreported rapes (particularly when intimate partners are involved) (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002; Macleod, Böhmke, Mavuso, Barker & Chiweshe, 2017). Research studies highlight a reporting rate of approximately 1 in 9 rapes (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002). Various material, institutional, social and relational barriers to reporting have been identified that cast doubt on recorded numbers that reflect the actual extent of the phenomenon (Jewkes & Morrell, 2010; Sigsworth, 2009). Barriers to reporting typically include a fear of stigma or not being believed, a fear of retaliation by the perpetrator(s), a fear of the legal processes and other issues related to problems of physical access to services and justice (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002). Clearly, there is an important need to problematise the scale of sexual violence in South Africa; to try to shift violence-supportive beliefs and to challenge the localised practices and belief systems about interpersonal relationships that are fuelling this violence.

The literature on rape in South Africa often highlights how high levels of sexual violence are linked to the country's legacies of violent political struggles and militarisation, which form an important background to interpersonal and criminal violence (Sigsworth, 2009). As such, it is argued that the current socio-sexual landscape is a product of the country's colonial and apartheid past (Morrell, Jewkes & Lindegger, 2012). While these considerations must be brought to bear when understanding high levels of sexual violence in modern South Africa, such an understanding has been found lacking when considering the dramatic increase in rates of reported sexual violence in the years following the country's transition to democracy (Gqola, 2015; Moffett, 2006). In this way, it is argued that South Africa's democratic transition destabilised and challenged certain notions of masculinity, fuelling levels of sexual and intimate partner violence against women (Sigsworth, 2009; Walker, 2005). Importantly, the notion of "masculinity in crisis" has been critiqued in the literature for problematising black sexuality and patriarchal black masculinities (Buiten & Naidoo, 2016). It is noted that the role of race in the perpetration of sexual violence has not successfully been established in the literature (Sigsworth, 2009). Nevertheless, there is evidence highlighting how assumptions of race are deeply entrenched in the social consciousness and associated understandings of sexual violence (Dosekun, 2013; Gqola, 2015). However, it is argued that such a focus serves to demonise previously disadvantaged black African men and obscures understandings of sexual violence connected to issues of gender (Moffett, 2006).

Furthermore, explanations for the high levels of sexual violence in South Africa often point to the historical normalisation of violence within the country and the manifestation of normative cultural expectations regarding gendered behaviour (Gqola, 2015; Morrell, Jewkes, & Lindegger, 2012), in conjunction with the structural features of the country's social, political and economic landscape, which continue to maintain various intersecting social inequalities (Gqola, 2015; Seedat et al., 2009). Additionally, socio-economic and racialised inequalities intersect with heterosexuality, age, and gender in ways that render particular groups of multiply marginalised women at greater risk of experiencing sexual violence (Macleod et al., 2017; Seedat et al., 2009). Finally, societal norms supportive of sexual violence also play a crucial role in perpetuating broader gender inequality, rape and other forms of sexual violence (Shefer, Strebel & Foster,

2000). Thus, it is strongly argued that violence has become normative, or a deeply engrained cultural feature of South Africa life (Gqola, 2015).

It is important to note that research studies consistently report high levels of rape and sexual violence within university settings in South Africa (Gordon & Collins, 2013; Macleod et al., 2017). It is estimated that 1 in 4 female university students in South Africa will have experienced a form of sexual assault during their university career (Clowes, Shefer, Fouten, Vergnani & Jacobs, 2009). It is argued that factors for experiencing sexual violence within the university setting, including socio-economic vulnerabilities, the commodification of sex and alcohol usage (Gordon & Collins, 2013; Macleod et al., 2017). In this way, universities as institutional settings have been identified as important sites for sexual violence prevention and many universities have attempted to develop educational programmes aimed at raising awareness of, and reducing rates of sexual violence (De Klerk, Klazinga & McNeill, 2007; Gordon & Collins, 2013). Given the nature and extent of rape in South Africa, there is an important need to critically examine approaches to the prevention of sexual violence and associated intervention strategies utilised within the South African context.

1.3 Explanatory Model of Sexual violence:

The literature would seem to suggest that sexual violence is frequently conceptualised as a public health concern, where issues of typology are presented alongside the social ecological model (Sigsworth, 2009). Within this model, sexual violence is conceptualised as a result of interlinked factors that operate on the individual, interpersonal and community level (Sigsworth, 2009). As such, sexual violence prevention strategies seek to address risk and protective factors at the individual, interpersonal, community and societal level (Heise, Ellsberg & Gottmoeller, 2002). In brief, risk factors for individual victimisation include being female and having experienced past sexual victimisation (Sigsworth, 2009). It is argued that risk factors for perpetration include being male, male sexual entitlement, negative peer group influence and hostile attitudes toward women (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002; McMahon & Banyard, 2012). Importantly, the support of sexual aggression by peers has been found to greatly influence beliefs and behaviours surrounding sexual violence and abuse (McMahon & Banyard, 2012). Finally, societal and social risk factors include male sexual entitlement, poverty intersecting with high levels of inequality, transactional sex, HIV, alcohol and substance abuse (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002; Sigsworth, 2009). Within this model,

societal and social factors are viewed as important contributors to sexual violence phenomena and intervention strategies are proposed at multiple levels (Heise, Ellsberg & Gottmoeller, 2002). Drawing on this approach, this thesis begins by explicating patterns and prevalence rates of sexual violence in the South African context in order to form the basis for understanding what might constitute effective intervention strategies for sexual violence.

1.4 An Overview of Sexual violence Prevention Strategies:

Attempts to address sexual violence frequently take the form of public health initiatives aimed at problem definition, extent measurement, risk factor identification and the testing and implementation of interventions (Heise, Ellsberg & Gottmoeller, 2002). Within this framework, sexual violence prevention efforts are typically targeted at three different levels of prevention; primary, secondary and tertiary (Sigsworth, 2009). As such, intervention strategies targeting sexual violence can take the form of (a) rape avoidance and prevention aimed at potential victims and perpetrators respectively (primary prevention), (b) prevention of assaults in progress (secondary prevention), and (c) interventions in the aftermath of an assault that has already occurred (tertiary prevention) (McMahon, Postmus & Koenick, 2011; Morrison, Ellsberg & Bott, 2007). In recent years, it is argued that public health approaches to the prevention of sexual violence have almost exclusively focused on reducing the risk among potential victims or perpetrators (Burn, 2009; McMahon & Banyard, 2012). Such approaches typically aim to institute changes in sexual assault-related attitudes and behavioural intentions through awareness-raising and the dissemination of information highlighting attitudes and behaviours associated with sexual violence (Breitenbecher, 2000; McMahon & Banyard, 2012). However, it has been found that these programmes yield modest results at best and reductions in rape-supportive attitudes have not been empirically linked to subsequent reductions in the incidence of sexual violence (Breitenbecher, 2000).

Importantly, it is argued that sexual violence prevention programmes have the potential to be significantly more effective when they adopt a broader-based approach to prevention by addressing social and societal norms that support and normalise sexual violence and sexually aggressive behaviours (Banyard & McMahon, 2012; Casey & Lindhorst, 2009). Such an approach is arguably relevant for application in the South African context where culturally sanctioned gender roles and notions of male sexual entitlement are linked to the perpetration of sexual

violence (Strebel et al., 2006). However, sexual violence prevention approaches in South Africa typically seek to focus on providing services for victims and criminal justice measures (tertiary prevention) and thus fail to address prominent societal values and practices that perpetuate the phenomena (Seedat et al., 2009). In this way, women assume a prominent role in sexual violence prevention efforts as the primary targets of educational programmes and other intervention strategies aimed at addressing sexual violence in South Africa (Bonnes, 2013).

1.4.1 Bystander Intervention: A renewed approach to Sexual violence Prevention:

Literature highlights a recent paradigm shift in sexual violence prevention efforts from a focus on addressing individual attitudes to a consideration of the role that community members can play in risk detection, safety promotion and the prevention of sexual violence (Banyard, Moynihan & Plante, 2007; Knowles, 2016). This form of intervention has resulted in what is termed “bystander intervention” and integral to the approach is evidence to suggest that people’s willingness to intervene and prevent acts of sexual violence are largely linked to their perceptions of others’ willingness to do so (Katz, Olin, Herman & DuBois, 2013). It is suggested that bystander intervention aligns well with social-ecological models of sexual violence prevention, which aim to move beyond changing individual attitudes to shifting wider community norms and behaviours (Casey & Lindhorst, 2009). Importantly, bystander intervention seeks to encourage community peers to speak out against norms and behaviours that support and normalise rape and other forms of sexual violence (Banyard, Moynihan, & Plante, 2007).

Within the bystander framework, sexual violence is conceptualised as occurring on a continuum, which ranges from overt violence, rape and sexual assault on the one end and sexually degrading verbal comments and harassment on the other end (McMahon & Banyard, 2012). This theoretical framework provides a model for bystander intervention where community members can play an important role in interrupting: (a) situations that could lead to assault (primary prevention), (b) assault in progress (secondary prevention), and (c) the aftermath of an assault that has already occurred (tertiary prevention) (Banyard, Plante & Moynihan, 2004; McMahon & Banyard, 2012). In this way, bystander intervention strategies provide opportunities for individuals to engage in all three levels of sexual violence prevention. Importantly, it has been found that bystander strategies are more effective in engaging with men as a target population accruing from the way in which

the approach seeks to address men as allies rather than potential perpetrators (McMahon & Banyard, 2012). It is noted that research into bystander intervention is still in its infancy and its efficacy in terms of reducing levels of sexual violence has yet to be positively established within the literature (Banyard, Moynihan & Plante, 2007; McMahon & Banyard, 2012). However, studies have shown improvements in knowledge, attitudes and behaviour and a greater willingness to intervene on the behalf of both college-aged men and women who have taken part in bystander sexual violence interventions (Coker et al., 2011; McMahon & Banyard, 2012). Furthermore, bystander interventions for sexual violence making use of poster campaigns have shown success in shifting violence supportive attitudes (Katz et al., 2013; Potter, Moynihan, Stapleton & Banyard, 2009).

Literature would seem to suggest that public awareness poster campaigns are a versatile and cost-effective approach for raising awareness about, and engaging audiences on, the topic of rape and other forms of sexual violence (Knowles, 2016; Potter, 2012). Such campaigns constitute a crucial tool in sexual violence intervention and prevention strategies aimed at the dissemination of information and ideas that are envisaged to lead to attitude and behaviour change associated with sexual violence (Potter, 2012). However, there is an important need for further investigation into how the use of poster campaigns against sexual violence translate in reducing levels of sexual violence. Importantly, there is evidence to suggest that individuals may fail to intervene in acts of sexual violence not because of a lack of willingness but because of a lack of awareness of the range of bystander opportunities that exist along the continuum of sexual violence (McMahon & Banyard, 2012). Additionally, it has been found that greater rape myth acceptance acts as a significant deterrent to bystander behaviour accruing from how a range of rape myths operate to negatively impact people's perceptions of rape victims' "worthiness" and their "responsibility" for their own assault (Burn, 2009; McMahon, 2010). Together, this highlights the need for greater congruency between people's understandings of sexual violence and conceptualisations of what constitutes the spectrum of bystander opportunities and active bystander behaviours along the continuum of sexual violence (McMahon & Banyard, 2012).

1.5 Understandings of Sexual Violence and Standards of Consent:

> "There is the rule of law where it says that it is rape even if you do it to your girlfriend…You are penetrating her against her will, it is rape; and it is not acceptable. You would also think of it as it were happening to your sister… but there is no rape with your girlfriend. The law can say it is rape, yes, it is just the law. When we are discussing this we are not applying the law, we are talking about something that comes from the heart" (Wood, Lambert & Jewkes, 2007, pp. 29).

Research studies indicate the presence of varied understandings of rape and sexual violence in the South Africa context (Dosekun, 2013; Reddy & Potgieter, 2006; Van der Bijl & Rumney, 2009). Importantly, it is noted that understandings of sexual violence often revolve around the notion of consent and the concept is frequently drawn on in sexual violence prevention campaigns (Beres, 2014; Knowles, 2016). Integral to this approach is literature regarding the 'miscommunication hypothesis', which links miscommunication in (hetero) sexual relationships to the perpetuation of sexual violence and therefore highlights the need for improvements in communication during sexual relations (Beres, 2014). However, there is also evidence to suggest that consent is communicated differently depending on variables such as age, sex and the nature of the relationship between the parties involved (Beres, 2014). Thus, there is an important need for further investigation into people's understanding of the concept of consent and the dynamics that underpin communications of consent in order to inform the development of intervention strategies for sexual violence that resonate with people's understanding of sex and relationships.

In the South African context, it is noted that the legal definition of rape has changed several times (Du Toit, 2012; Van der Bijl & Rumney, 2009). According to section 1 of the *Sexual Offences Act 32 of 2007*, rape is committed when any person unlawfully and intentionally commits an act of sexual penetration with another individual without their consent (with consent defined as voluntary or un-coerced agreement) (in the *Sexual Offences Act 32 of 2007*). Importantly, it was proposed that the criminal act of rape be defined as unlawful and intentional sexual penetration and in terms of coercive circumstances (without reference to consent) (Du Toit, 2012; Van der Bijl & Rumney, 2009). Nevertheless, the *Sexual Offences Act 32 of 2007* retained the notion of consent in its definition of rape, which has led to a critique of definitions of rape that frame the criminal act in terms of consent instead of coercive circumstances (Du Toit, 2012).

Firstly, it is argued that defining rape in terms of consent effectively means that the onus is placed on the victim to prove that they did not consent to sexual relations (Du Toit, 2012). Such an understanding is problematic for implying that by not saying no, or resisting the imposition of sexual relations, the survivor is complicit in their own assault (Du Toit, 2012; Van der Bijl & Rumney, 2009). Therefore, this definition has been critiqued for the focus that it places on the behaviour of the rape complainant (in order to prove the absence or presence of consent), instead of the potentially wrongful actions of the perpetrator (Du Toit, 2012). Additionally, it has been argued that this definition of rape fails to provide any recognition of how perpetrators routinely employ methods of coercion to ensure the submission of their victims (Du Toit, 2012). Thus, on the one hand, the *Sexual Offences Act 32 of 2007* declares a commitment to understandings of sexual violence irrespective of gender and explicitly emphasises 'vulnerable' persons, namely women and children in its understanding of sexual violence (Du Toit, 2012; Van der Bijl & Rumney, 2009). However, it does so, without any recognition of the gendered power relations that render young girls and women vulnerable to sexual violence victimisation, which reinforces notions of female sexuality as passive and reactive to men's inherent, dominating sexuality (Du Toit, 2012; Reddy & Potgieter, 2006).

1.5.1 Rape Myths:

Within the literature, rape myths are understood as prejudicial attitudes and stereotyped beliefs about rape, rape victims and rape perpetrators that are generally false yet widely and persistently held (Burt, 1980; Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1994). Common examples of rape myths include beliefs that a) husbands cannot rape their wives, b) women routinely lie about rape, c) only certain women are raped, d) women ask to be raped by their dress or behaviour, e) it is not rape unless a weapon or physical force is involved (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Additionally, the belief that 'stranger danger' constitutes the most prevalent form of sexual assault (in comparison to 'acquaintance rape') is another common rape myth (Bonnes, 2013).

Despite shared cultural patterns, it is important to note that rape myths are culturally determined patterns of behaviour (Ryan, 2011). Gqola (2015) highlights a number of important rape myths relative to the South African socio-sexual landscape, which include beliefs that; (a) perpetrators are monsters who are abusive all of the time; (b) rape is an inappropriate form of sex; (c) there are

particular ways to respond to being raped; (d) rape is when a man rapes a woman using his penis to forcibly penetrate her vagina; (e) rape is about male arousal and the need to have sex; (f) women that dress a certain way or are visibly drunk invite rape; (g) rapists are stranger men who abduct women in public and rape them in unknown places; (h) women are accidently raped because they play "hard-to-get"; (i) sex workers "cannot" be raped. The 'virgin cleansing' myth is also prevalent within the South African context, perpetuating the belief that HIV/AIDS can be cured through sexual intercourse with a virgin (Jewkes, Martin & Penn-Kekana, 2002). It is widely reported that both men and women who adhere to rape myths are more likely to conceptualise and accept narrow definitions of what constitutes rape (Ryan, 2011). Adherence to rape myths has also been associated with increased rates of self-reported likelihood to rape and higher levels of sexual aggression in men (Flood, 2005).

Research studies undertaken in South Africa suggest that the word 'rape' is often confined to describing acts of sexual assault perpetrated by strangers, particularly violent sexual assaults or acts of gang rape (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002; Wood, Lambert & Jewkes, 2007). Sikweyiya, Jewkes, and Morrell (2007) note how male participants in their study understood rape as only having occurred in instances where; (a) the victim got pregnant, (b) physical force was used (particularly the use of weapons), and (c) if the women (or survivor) showed physical signs of resistance. However, there is evidence to highlight a range of circumstances (not limited to violent acts of rape), where women perceive themselves to have been severely violated and coerced into sexual relations (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002; Wood, Lambert & Jewkes, 2007). Another reoccurring theme in the literature pertains to disputes over the term "rape" and "forced sex" (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002; Reddy & Potgieter, 2006). Research indicates that the category of "forced" sex is differentiated from "rape" on the basis of falling on the other side of the continuum of sexually coercive practices, including verbal tactics, persuasion and coercion, and various physical strategies (Wood, Lambert & Jewkes, 2007).

Literature highlights how greater rape myth acceptance is linked to the increased perpetration of rape in any society or culture (Suarez & Gadalla, 2010). It is argued that rape myths operate to create a sense of immunity and a reduction in culpability on the behalf of perpetrators (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Furthermore, rape myths serve as an important common-sense resource for

individuals to draw on in their sense-making of the circumstances of sexual violence and the associated categories of "perpetrator" and "victim" (Bonnes, 2013). According to Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1994) rape myths often reflect and reproduce stereotypical understandings of sexual violence according to variables such as age, race, class, and gender. It is asserted that overt expressions of rape myth have become socially less acceptable; however, many of the underlying beliefs that inform such myths still exist in covert expressions, such as the media and jurisdiction (McMahon, 2010). Research indicates that media portrayals of rape in South Africa are influenced by notions of race, class and gender, and typically imply that rapists are non-White males of the lower socio-economic class (Moffett, 2006; Reddy & Potgieter, 2006).

From a feminist perspective, rape myths are conceptualised as existing in relation to larger patterns of gender inequality and the social control of women (Anderson & Doherty, 2008; Lea & Auburn, 2001). Within this framework, rape myths contribute to a rape culture that minimises and excuses sexual violence and violence perpetrated against women. From this perspective, rape myths operate primarily to regulate women's behaviour and censor the expression of female sexuality, setting up social standards that women are expected to adhere to in order to avoid sexual violence victimisation (Lea & Auburn, 2001). Furthermore, it is argued that rape myths produce and perpetuate victim blaming attitudes and practices and therefore function in a larger ideological and patriarchal context (Lea, 2007). From a feminist approach, it is strongly argued that sexual violence and rape is inevitable and this approach highlights the important need for sexual violence prevention strategies to not only address problematic individual attitudes but wider social and societal norms (Lea & Auburn, 2001).

Various models and theoretical perspectives on sexual violence have been explored from the point of view of developing sexual violence intervention, prevention, and awareness raising strategies that address broader societal norms and engage target audiences. As previously discussed, bystander intervention to sexual violence prevention has increasingly been utilised to inform strategies that address broader-based norms and target communities in sexual violence prevention efforts (Potter, 2012). However, small-scale bystander-themed interventions have been critiqued for being cost prohibitive and limited in their overall capacity to engage wider audiences (Potter, 2012). Given these considerations, public awareness poster campaigns have become an

increasingly popular method of engaging audiences on sexual violence prevention and augmenting smaller, bystander intervention programmes to maximise intervention effectiveness (Potter, 2012).

Poster campaigns typically make careful use of high-impact imagery and easily remembered catchphrases and slogans to address sexual violence issues (Knowles, 2016). Research studies indicate that public awareness poster campaigns have proven successful in increasing people's knowledge and attitude towards sexual violence but there is little evidence to suggest behaviour change as a related outcome (Knowles, 2016). This is an important consideration given how reductions in rape-supportive attitudes have not been empirically linked to subsequent reductions in rates of sexual violence (Breitenbecher, 2000). However, studies undertaken in the United States of America with university-aged participants highlight how greater exposure to bystander themed poster campaigns has led to greater awareness of sexual violence (contemplation) and increased willingness to engage in actions aimed at reducing sexual violence (action) (Potter et al., 2009). Given promising outcomes presented in international literature, there is a need for further investigation into how messages regarding sexual violence in public awareness campaigns are received by audiences in the local South African context.

Chapter Two: Research Paradigm/ Theoretical Orientation

2.1 Introduction:

This chapter provides a discussion of the theoretical orientation that underpins the conceptualisation of Q-methodology employed in this study and outlines the theoretical approach to the research questions. This study used Q-methodology, employed within a broadly poststructuralist, discursive perspective. Foucauldian genealogy (Parker, 1992) was drawn on to analyse sexual violence poster campaigns for the messages they contained using a basic version of discourse analysis (Parker, 1992; Parker, 1994). Together, this approach seeks to discern the discursive subject positions that participants express in their attitudinal responses to messages regarding sexual violence in a range of international sexual violence poster campaigns. The perspective adopted in relation to Q-methodology's stated focus on subjectivity is that the attitudinal positions identified are viewed as social constructions that participants orient towards, as opposed to being reflections of their individual cognitions or attitudes (Stainton Rogers, 1995).

2.2 A 'Turn' to Discourse: A Critique of Traditional Approaches to Rape Perception Research

Literature would seem to suggest that much of the social science research on the topic of rape and sexual violence has been undertaken from an individualistic and cognitivist approach, focusing on people's attitudes towards sexual violence and locating these phenomena as internal cognitions that are studied empirically (Anderson & Doherty, 2008; Gavey, 2005). This approach has been critiqued on the basis that it fails to take into consideration important social values, norms and practices that normalise and perpetuate sexual violence (Anderson & Doherty, 2008; Gavey, 2005; Lea, 2007). Thus, recognition of how people draw on cultural resources (e.g. rape myths) and shared social perceptions in understanding sexual violence phenomena has led to a paradigm shift away from an individualistic approach to a consideration of the socially and culturally mediated nature of sexual violence (Anderson & Doherty, 2008). This paradigm shift has resulted in a shift to focus on the role that language and discourse plays in the meaning-making and construction of social ideas surrounding sexual violence and how this informs individual understandings of sexual violence (Anderson & Doherty, 2008; Avdi & Georgaca, 2007).

It is noted that a “turn to language” took place in the social science discipline during the mid-1980s, which resulted in the emergence of discursive orientations towards the study of psychological phenomena and the development of Foucauldian-inspired discourse analytic techniques (Anderson & Doherty, 2008; Avdi & Georgaca, 2007). When applied to research on the topic of rape and sexual violence, the former concerns itself with discursive practices and the way in which people draw on language in order to negotiate and create meaning in order to make sense of sexual violence (Avdi & Georgaca, 2007; Gavey, 2005). The latter emphasises issues of power and ideology in the construction of objects and subjects and addresses the role that discourse and subjectivity plays in maintaining social practices and norms that contribute to sexual violence (Avdi & Georgaca, 2007, Gavey, 2005). In this study, theoretical tenets of social constructionism and Foucauldian discourse analysis have been drawn on to explore the discursive subject positions that participants express in their attitudinal responses to messages regarding sexual violence in poster campaigns. The section below explicates the post-structuralist, discursive perspective adopted in this study.

2.3 Language, Discourse & Meaning:

As a point of departure, discourse is broadly defined as a system of meaning that is related to the interactional and wider socio-cultural context (Avdi & Georgaca, 2007). Discourse analysis therefore seeks to focus on wider social systems of meaning-making and associated social practices, subjectivities, institutions and power relations (Gavey, 2005). Within this framework, the assumption is that language is constitutive of meaning and that dominant ways of speaking about social phenomena reproduce particular meanings, forms of knowledge, practices, and social organisation in relation to these phenomena (Gavey, 2005). In this way, language is viewed as a phenomenon that mediates, produces and reproduces meaning independently from the intentions of individual language users (Parker, 1994). Furthermore, subjectivities are seen not only as constituted and informed by the ways in which we speak them but also by how we position ourselves, act, and interpret our own and others actions in relation to discourse (Parker, 1994). Drawing on this framework, the focus is on the constructional and functional role of discourse in providing subject positions that people adopt in their sense-making of social phenomena such as sexual violence (Anderson & Doherty, 2008; Avdi & Georgaca, 2007). This study draws on the constructionist assumption that the establishment and maintenance of sexual violence is related to

discursive processes that contribute to social practices and behaviours that normalise sexual coercion in certain relationships and circumstances (Avdi & Georgaca, 2007; Gavey, 2005).

2.4 A Foucauldian Approach to Discourse:

A Foucauldian approach emphasises the role of discourse and discursive practices in the construction of objects and subjects, highlighting how the construction of subjectivity takes place within a dynamic of power and resistance, as effected through discourse (Avdi & Georgaca, 2007; Gavey, 2005). This approach proceeds from the assumption that it is within discourse that subject positions are provided, which have implications for how individuals experience their sense of self, and the behaviours and relationships that they are expected to enact (Avdi & Georgaca, 2007). From this perspective, discourse is viewed as an instrument and effect of power, enabling certain versions of reality and identity, whilst marginalising others and maintaining social practices and norms that support sexual violence (Avdi & Georgaca, 2007; Potter & Wetherell, 1987).

As previously discussed, it is argued that systems of power, knowledge and practices (i.e. discourses), are reproduced through language. Furthermore, it is also proposed that discourses circulate through the popular collective imagination via representations in academic literature, the mass media and everyday talk (Anderson & Doherty, 2008; Böhmke et al., 2015). Given these considerations, this study is concerned with the discursive constructions of the phenomena of sexual violence and the associated discursive subject positions made available through messages regarding sexual violence portrayed in sexual violence poster campaigns. In an attempt to engage with this, Foucauldian discourse analysis (Parker, 1992) has been drawn on to discern the depictions of sexual violence portrayed in sexual violence poster campaigns and the discursive subject positions that intended audiences adopt in relation to constructions of sexual violence contained in posters.

2.5 The Social Construction of Sex, Sexuality and Sexual Violence:

From a social constructionist perspective, discourses of gender, sex and sexuality are crucially tied to the power relations that create and maintain behaviours and norms that perpetuate sexual violence (Anderson & Doherty, 2008; Gavey, 2005). From this perspective, dominant and taken-for-granted ways of talking about sexuality and gender operate to enable and normalise certain

behaviours in sexual practices and relationships that contribute to sexual violence (Gavey, 2005). Specifically, it is argued that normative constructions of (hetero) sexuality presuppose important and inherent sexual differences between men and women, with the effect that sexual practices are enacted along strict gender lines (Shefer, Strebel & Foster, 2000). Given these considerations, there is an important need to explore the discourses that contribute to producing certain forms of knowledge and social practices that are implicated in perpetuating sexual violence and gender violence (Anderson & Doherty, 2008; Gavey, 2005; Lea & Auburn, 2001).

2.5.1 Discourses of Heterosexuality:

Hollway's (1984) research on gender relations provides a useful framework for understanding how heterosexuality is constructed in the service of normalising men's power over women in sexual relations. Hollway (1984) proposes two dominant discourses of heterosexuality which contribute to a social template along which heterosexual relations are patterned and performed, including (i) the "male sexual drive" discourse and, (ii) the "have/hold" discourse.

The "male sexual drive" discourse depicts an understanding of male sexuality based on the notion that the desire or "need" for men to have sex is a strong, biological drive that exists in all 'healthy' men (Hollway, 1984). This discourse works in conjunction with the "have/hold" discourse to depict female sexuality as passive and receptive to male desire (Hollway, 1984). It is argued that these discourses operate simultaneously to create a relational template that men and women draw on in understanding sex and relationships – that is that men are naturally sexually dominant and aggressive and that women are passive, emotional and reactive to male sexual needs (Hollway, 1984). It is noted that dominant notions of male and female sexuality have been produced and reproduced through various media outlets and social institutions (Bonnes, 2013).

Research studies indicate that the male sexual drive discourse has been widely reported in the South African context (Shefer & Foster, 2001). It is argued that men routinely draw on this discourse and notions of male sexual entitlement to justify and explain acts of male sexual aggression, particularly in heterosexual relations (Strebel et al., 2006). Studies also indicate that women frequently draw on the 'have/hold' discourse when attempting to normalise experiences of sexual coercion, which emphasises the importance of women consistently meeting the sexual needs of their male partners (Strebel & Foster, 2001). Studies also show that some cultural

practices and social institutions in South Africa play an important role in upholding dominant discourses of heterosexuality and men's power over women in sexual relations (Strebel et al., 2006). It has been found that traditional practices such as *ukuthwala* (bride capture) serve to normalise sexual coercion and male sexual dominance in heterosexual relationships (Wood, Lambert & Jewkes, 2007). Clearly, certain social behaviours and sexual practices are socially and culturally mediated in ways that serve to maintain the power relations that perpetuate sexual violence and unequal gender power relations and feature in the South African context.

2.5.2 Discourse, Power and Resistance:

As previously discussed, different discursive subject positions provide different versions of reality, degrees of accountability and serve a variety of functions in provide meaning-making and understanding (Avdi & Georgaca, 2007). Crucially, some discourses have greater dominance and therefore more influence over the social production of ideas, objects and subjectivity (Barry & Proops, 1999; Stainton Rogers, 1995). Given these considerations, it is argued that people are likely to be positioned within dominant discourses of (hetero) sexuality and cannot entirely resist such discourses without being somewhat marked by them (Bacchi, 2000; Gavey, 2005). However, the presence of dominant discourses does not preclude the potential for social objects to be reconfigured such that alternative (and perhaps previously marginalised) discourses emerge (Gavey, 2005; Stainton Rogers, 1995). In this way, it is argued that dominant discourses are crucial in the serving to normalise and maintain sexual violence, however, discourse can also be employed as a point of resistance in working towards changing the norms and behaviours associated with sexual violence, and negotiations of subjectivity within sexual relations (Gavey, 2005; Knowles, 2016; Shefer & Foster, 2001).

It is important to note that resistance to normative prescriptions of male and female sexuality has become more prominent in modern day society (Gavey, 2005; Shefer, Strebel & Foster, 2000). Given the "permissive turn" in the 1960s which lead to increased freedom for women regarding the control of sexual reproduction, resistance (primarily from women themselves) has been noted towards traditional, dominant and patriarchal constructions of female sexuality (Shefer & Foster, 2001). However, acts of resistance towards traditional notions of female sexuality have historically been framed as direct challenges to male dominance in the South African context, often resulting in censure or punishment (often of a physical and/or sexual nature) (Gqola, 2015; Shefer, Strebel

& Foster, 2000). This demonstrates the powerful effect of discourses in enabling male dominance and male sexual entitlement and restricting female sexual agency and desire in the service of maintaining gendered power relations (Gavey, 2005). Additionally, female sexuality has been constructed as “unpredictable” and “dangerous” and therefore in need of strict regulation, which further contributes to patterns of intimate partner and sexual violence (Shefer, Strebel & Foster, 2000).

In exploring sexual violence prevention in the context of developing effective intervention poster campaigns, it is important to consider the fluidity and malleability of discourse (Bacchi, 2000; Gavey, 2005). That is, that at any one point in time and history, there is a multiplicity of discourse available to individuals and the potential for discourses to shift and mutate to create new forms of knowledge and social practices (Avdi & Georgaca, 2007; Gavey, 2005). Importantly, it is argued that as social artefacts, public awareness poster campaigns serve as a crucial tool in sexual violence prevention efforts, providing alternative subject positions that operate to undermine dominant discourses that contribute to the perpetuation of sexual violence (Knowles, 2016; Potter, 2012). However, poster campaigns addressing sexual violence are sometimes limited in their potential effectiveness when their messages are geared towards the simple prohibition of behaviours associated with sexual violence, as this sort of strategy amounts to an injunction to not behave in certain ways, or to subject oneself to surveillance and discipline (Böhmke et al., 2015; Potter, 2012). As such, there is an important need to investigate how messages regarding sexual violence are received by audiences to inform the development of alternative strategies of engagement aimed at inviting audiences to take up a critical and ethical position in relation to sexual violence phenomena.

Chapter Three: Methods

3.1 Introduction:

This chapter presents the research questions upon which this study is based, followed by a discussion of the methodological approach employed. This involves a description of Q-methodology and the application of these principles in designing and conducting the study. Finally, ethical procedures are outlined, as well as details about conducting data collection and analytical procedures.

3.2 Research Aims:

This study focused on audience views regarding messages about sexual violence in poster materials aimed at raising awareness about, or attempting to reduce/prevent the occurrence of sexual violence. The purpose of the study was to collaborate with a selected audience to better understand the discursive subject positions that audiences inhabit in response to messages regarding sexual violence in the poster materials and the concomitant subjectivities. Principally, the study addresses four central questions: What are the discursive subject positions that participants adopt in relation to messages regarding sexual violence contained in poster campaigns addressing sexual violence? What understandings of sexual violence do participants' draw upon in understanding sexual violence phenomena and the parties involved in them when responding to messages about sexual violence? What level of resonance do the poster messages find with intended audiences? Finally, how effective are such poster campaigns in developing depictions of sexual violence that trouble normative notions of sexuality and gendered subjectivity? The overall aim is to be able to inform the development of more focused awareness-raising or intervention material, tailored to the specific context from which participants were drawn.

3.3 Overview of Q-Methodology:

Q-methodology was originally developed by William Stephenson in the 1930s and sought to provide a scientific framework to the study of subjectivity (Finchilescu & Muthal, 2019; Watts & Stenner, 2012). Q-methodology has been described as an attempt "to analyse subjectivity, in all its forms, in a structured and statistically interpretable form" (Barry & Proops 1999, pp. 338-339). Stephenson termed the methodology "Q" in order to distinguish it from "R" methodology, which is more closely associated with the tradition of individual psychology (Watts & Stenner, 2005). In

R methodology, individuals are tested with respect to a pre-defined concept (e.g. a psychological trait or characteristic) and their score is ranked relative to other people's scores (Mckenzie, 2009). It is noted that Stephenson made two crucial innovations to "invert" R methodology in his development of the principles of Q-methodology (Watts & Stenner, 2012). Firstly, Stephenson suggested that data in Q-studies be considered in terms of subjective rankings of items (self-reference) as opposed to objective definitions (Kitzinger, 1999; Mckenzie, 2009). Secondly, Stephenson proposed that data obtained be analysed in terms of holistic responses, instead of identifying patterns among people (Coogan & Herrington, 2011; Kitzinger, 1999).

In terms of the theoretical principles, Stephenson argues that subjectivity is meaningful, relational and transformable into operant factor structures through the process of Q-methodology (Finchilescu & Muthal, 2019). That is, Q-methodology presents a set of stimuli (typically statements) to respondents to rank-order that represents all possible views regarding the topic under investigation (Barry & Proops, 1999; Finchilescu & Muthal, 2019). Respondents are asked to rank-order the stimuli along a dimension that is meaningful within a forced distribution, such that every statement is sorted or evaluated in relation to every other statement (Barry & Proops, 1999). As such, respondents "operationalise" their viewpoint through a self-referencing procedure and their subjectivity is explored in terms of the self-referent understandings (Finchilescu & Muthal, 2019; Kitzinger, 1999).

Q-methodology proceeds from the assumption that not all respondents will understand and rank-order the statements in the same way and therefore each respondent could potentially produce a differing account (ordering of statements) based on their subjective viewpoint (Barry & Proops, 1999). It is argued that Q-methodology is unlike traditional psychometric scales (e.g. attitude scales), accruing from the way in which it desists from placing respondents on a predetermined dimension in relation to the topic under investigation and rather requires that the individual applies their own framework of understanding to the set of stimuli (Finchilescu & Muthal, 2019). In this way, Q-methodology is arguably suited towards the study of complex and controversial topics in the way in which it seeks to identify multiple perspectives on the issue under investigation and provides respondents with the opportunity to make sense of the topic from their own viewpoint (Davis & Michelle, 2011; Watts & Stenner, 2005). Literature highlights how Q-methodology has

been successfully used to study many diverse and socially contested psychological topics, including child abuse, jealousy, and attitudes towards environmental issues (Watts & Stenner, 2005).

3.4 The Application of Q Methodology: A Discursive Approach

Literature highlights how there are two distinct theoretical orientations of Q-methodology (Watts & Stenner, 2005). Briefly, the "SSS-school" originates from the work of Stephenson and typically uses Q-methodology for constructivist purposes and the associated theories form the cognitive focus of much of social science research into attitudes (Watts & Stenner, 2012). This approach conceptualises and seeks to empirically study attitudes as cognitive and fixed properties of individual's (Watts & Stenner, 2012). On the other hand, a discursive approach to Q-methodology is generally constructionist in nature and aims to study attitudes as socially mediated and discursively framed (Stainton Rogers, 1995). Underlying the latter approach is the assumption that there exists a degree of commonality or sharing of discourses between individuals with shared experiences, social and cultural backgrounds (Barry & Proops, 1999).

Furthermore, the theoretical perspective espoused by a discursive approach to Q-methodology draws on post-structuralist thinking that lived experience is mediated through language and socially constructed (McKeown & Thomas, 2013). Within this framework, it is assumed that the operation of discourse goes beyond individual intentions, influencing the social production of ideas and shaping subjectivity (Mckenzie, 2009; Parker, 1992). This perspective resists the idea that people are active constructors of meaning and rather emphasises the normative force of discourse in shaping lived experience and social reality (Mckenzie, 2009). Importantly, this perspective is oriented towards enabling a range of discursive positions to emerge and exploring the discursive forces that sustain them, which is understood as the discursive field of possibility that surrounds any social topic or phenomena (Stainton Rogers, 1995). It is this application of Q-methodology which focuses on the interplay of discourse that marks out a critical agenda for Q-methodology in this study as opposed to a liberal pluralist approach that treats all accounts as merely expressions of different points-of-view (Stainton Rogers, 1995). It is my contention that this perspective aligns well with the theoretical orientation of the study, which involves elucidating some of the multiple ways in which sexual violence is discursively understood by participants in response to messages regarding sexual violence in awareness or intervention poster campaigns. Specifically, a discursive

approach to Q-methodology, which draws on a nuanced and discourse-based understanding of sexual violence was configured from available ways of speaking and acting in the discursive context from which participants were drawn (Stainton Rogers, 1995; Watts & Stenner, 2005).

3.5 Unit of Analysis:

Literature highlights how stereotypical accounts of rape (e.g. a violent attack at the hands of a "predatory" stranger) have assumed greater dominance in public discourse and have become taken-for-granted wisdom on the topic (Dosekun, 2013; Gavey, 2005). Importantly, dominant discourses of rape and sexual violence have been produced and reproduced through media outlets and provide a common-sense resource for individuals to draw upon in understanding incidents of sexual violence (Bonnes, 2013; Lea & Auburn, 2001). Given these considerations, there is an important need for sexual violence awareness materials to shift from reproducing dominant accounts of sexual violence to allow for marginalised, alternative conceptions of sexual violence to emerge (Anderson & Doherty, 2008; Gavey, 2005). Thus, Q-methodology was employed to elicit the range of discourses that an intended audience draw on in responding to messages regarding sexual violence contained in sexual violence poster campaigns.

To address the questions posed by the research, participants were invited to express their positions in relation to messages about sexual violence in a range of sexual violence awareness/prevention posters from several international campaigns. Thus, the focus of analysis was uncovering the discursive subject positions that participants express in their attitudinal responses to the poster messages. Importantly, the approach taken up in relation to Q-methodology's stated focus on subjectivity is that the attitudinal positions identified by the analysis are, "constructions and representations of a social kind" (Watts & Stenner, 2005, pp. 71) that participants orient towards, as opposed to being reflections of their individual cognitions or attitudes (Stainton Rogers,1995). The analysis focused on uncovering and providing a description of these positions, as well as illustrating the level of resonance that the poster messages found with the participant sample (Stainton Rogers, 1995). The factors that emerged from the study are understood as collective patterns of arrangements in discourse and explicate the social discourses associated with sexual violence that are at work within the posters (McKeown & Thomas, 2013; Stainton Rogers, 1995). In this way, the extracted factors (discourses) were viewed as reflecting culturally available ways

of drawing on language and discourse that participants adopted in their response to poster messages regarding sexual violence (Stainton Rogers, 1995).

3.6 Sampling Procedures:

3.6.1 Developing the Concourse:

Q-methodology proceeds from the assumption that for each social object of interest (e.g. rape and sexual violence) there is a flow of communicability surrounding it called the concourse (Brown, 1993). That is, that every topic has its own concourse that contains everything that can be said and done in relation to it (Watts & Stenner, 2012). Based on this assumption, Q-studies commence with the development of a representative list of statements (i.e. the concourse) related to the topic under investigation (Akhtar-Danesh, Baumann & Cordingley, 2008). The list of statements constituting the concourse can be derived from a variety of sources, including academic literature, popular texts, formal interviews, informal discussions and pilot studies (Watts & Stenner, 2005). However, a guiding principle is that the list statements should be broadly representative of the topic under investigation (Watts & Stenner, 2005). It is suggested that a representative list of statements can be generated from various sources through the identification and classification of statements under broad categories and/or themes (Akhtar-Danesh, Baumann & Cordingley, 2008). The selected group of statements is then condensed to a reduced set of statements that is called the "Q-set", which is representative of all the major ideas, viewpoints, feelings and opinions related to the topic under investigation (Akhtar-Danesh, Baumann & Cordingley, 2008). It is noted that the actual number of statements to constitute the Q-set has been variously debated in the literature on Q-methodology (Brown, 1980; Stainton Rogers, 1995; Watts & Stenner, 2012). However, it is proposed that a Q-set of somewhere between 40 and 80 statements is considered satisfactory (Stainton Rogers, 1995; Watts & Stenner, 2005).

The material to constitute the Q-set in this study was selected from a range of public, international poster campaigns employed in awareness-raising or intervention activities over the past ten years. The poster campaigns were accessed through an established online search tool, Google. An inclusive online Google image search was conducted using the search term "anti-rape poster campaign". This search was refined according to particular poster campaigns, so that several examples of posters used in each suitable identified campaign were then selected. Finally, posters were selected on the basis of analytic interest and the degree to which they reflected the discursive trends operating across the

campaigns from which they were drawn. The poster campaigns selected primarily originated from the United Kingdom and the United States and were sourced from police forces, local councils, rape crisis services, government agencies and non-profit organisations. The selected posters were drawn from poster campaigns such as “Real Men Don’t Rape”, “Consent”, “Don’t be That Guy”, “My Strength is not for Hurting”, “We Can Stop It”, “No Excuse”, “Where do You Stand?” and “Make Your Move!” shown in Appendix 3.

The selected posters were analysed for the messages they contained using a basic version of discourse analysis (Parker, 1992; 1994), which focused on the representations of sexual violence, “perpetrator” and “victim” subjectivities, notions of “risk” and “responsibility”, as well as the rhetorical stance adopted towards the audience. This discursive analytic process made it possible for messages regarding sexual violence represented in international poster campaigns that address sexual violence to be distilled into a series of statements about the social reality of sexual violence as reflected by the posters that were analysed (Appendix 1). It is noted that the typical kinds of social representations regarding the associated subjectivities that were found in the awareness campaigns were related to issues of definitions of sexual violence, notions of consent, constructions of (hetero-)sexuality and gendered identity, rape myths as well as bystander intervention. It is argued that these categories present as socially circulating discursive resources and are the field against which individual poster campaigns become intelligible and which formed the background knowledge for the identification of the discursive themes contained in the poster campaigns.

A total number of 153 statements were initially generated. Statements with duplicate content were removed and the remaining statements were thematically grouped according to related ideas about sexual violence, including issues of consent; rape being about sex; constructions of sexual violence; men and masculinity; women and femininity; perpetrators; victims; vulnerability, prevention, and responsibility, and alcohol (reference to this analytic process found in Appendix 1). As a result of this basic discursive analysis, a reduced set of 48 statements about sexual violence were extracted for the study’s Q-set. Finally, statements were edited where necessary to improve readability and each statement was randomly assigned a number on a printed piece of cardboard. The full Q-set is shown in Table 2.

3.6.2 Recruitment of Participants:

The sampling procedure in Q-methodology is premised on the notion of a finite diversity of views, which is directed at ensuring that a range of views is represented through participant recruitment (Stainton Rogers, 1995). Thus, it is the representation of different viewpoints about the topic under investigation that is the primary aim of participant sampling in Q-studies (Akhtar-Danesh, Baumann & Cordingley, 2008; Watts & Stenner, 2005). In this study, participants were recruited via public advertisements placed on residence and department notice-boards around Rhodes' University campus (Appendix 5). Participants were also sought by presenting the research topic at a number of first-year Psychology lectures at Rhodes University. Recruitment procedures involved highlighting the fact that the topic of rape and sexual violence is a sensitive and controversial topic to ensure that potential participants thoughtfully considered what participation would involve. Importantly, participation was voluntary and informed. Furthermore, the recruitment criteria required participants to be between the ages of 18-25 years of age and to be registered as a student at Rhodes University. Permission was sought and gained from the Registrar of Rhodes to gain access to students for recruitment purposes. The Research Projects and Ethics Review Committee (RPERC) in the Rhodes University Psychology Department approved all procedures for this study (Appendix 4). In this study, twenty-three volunteer participants were recruited. The demographic details of the participants are described below.

Table 1: Demographic data for P-set

Participant	Age	Gender	Race	Occupation
Post01	19	Male	African	Student
Post02	22	Female	White	Student
Post03	23	Female	White	Student
Post04	20	Male	African	Student
Post05	21	Male	White	Student
Post06	24	Male	White	Student
Post07	27	Male	African	Student
Post08	23	Male	African	Student
Post09	25	Female	African	Student
Post10	22	Female	African	Student
Post11	20	Female	Coloured	Student
Post12	28	Male	White	Student
Post13	26	Female	African	Student
Post14	23	Female	African	Student
Post15	24	Male	Coloured	Student
Post16	23	Female	Coloured	Student
Post17	26	Male	White	Student
Post18	26	Male	African	Student
Post19	28	Male	White	Student
Post20	29	Female	Indian	Student
Post21	38	Female	African	Student
Post22	27	Male	African	Student
Post23	39	Female	White	Student

The literature on Q-methodology generally recommends between 40-60 participants (Watts & Stenner, 2010). It is noted that after two rounds of attempting data collection only 23 participants volunteered to take part in the study. This would seem to suggest that low response rates and oversaturation with messages regarding sexual violence might be an issue of concern in this study as the target population was largely accessible. Furthermore, the fact that only 23 participants were recruited in this study effectively means that I was not able to conform to the Q-methodological literature regarding accepted recommendations for the P-set. The limitations of the small data set will be further discussed in the section that outlines the limitations of the study. Nevertheless, in terms of the composition of the P-set, 11 participants self-identified as black African, 8 as white, 3 as coloured, and 1 as Indian. Furthermore, 3 participants self-identified as International students: 2 Zimbabwean nationals and 1 French-Mauritian. In this way, the participant sample does not claim to be representative of the population from which participants were drawn and nor does it claim to transferable to other settings, but rather it seeks to explicate diversity of views on sexual violence. Additionally, it is argued that in exploring the development of sexual violence awareness-raising or prevention materials tailored to the specific context, it is helpful to access

some of the views concerning sexual violence directly from the students comprising the student body. Finally, it is noted that there is more or less equal numbers of men and women that volunteered to participate in the study. Given findings that suggest that sexual violence prevention programmes in South Africa are typically directed at women, the composition of this participant sample might indicate willingness on the behalf of men (specifically young men in the university context) to engage on the topic of sexual violence and rape. Thus, it is argued that this highlights the importance of including male participants in future studies on the topic under investigation.

3.7 Collection of Material:

3.7.1 Administering the Q-sort:

In Q-methodology, data is collected in the form of individual Q-sorts (rank-orderings of items or statements pertaining to the topic under investigation by participants) (Watts & Stenner, 2005). In this study, a Q-set consisting of 48 statements regarding sexual violence was presented to volunteer research participants in a ranking and sorting exercise, the Q-sort. Each participant was given a 'Q-set' in the form of a pack of randomly numbered cards (each card containing one of the statements about sexual violence derived from the Q-set) (Van Exel & de Graaf, 2005). Initially, participants were asked to sort the deck of cards into three piles; (i) those they agreed with, (ii) those they disagreed with, and (iii) those they were undecided or uncertain about (Barry & Proops, 1999). Thereafter, participants were asked to rank-order the statements in a forced distribution pattern according to their level of agreement and/or disagreement using an 11-point scale, ranging from (-6), to strongly agree (+6) shown in Appendix 2 (Watts & Stenner, 2012).

To facilitate the rank-ordering process, participants were given the option of using a 'back-and-forth' strategy to complete the Q-sort exercise (Anthony, 2011). Participants were given the opportunity to re-read the statements from the "agree" pile and select the two items with which they most agreed; re-read the statements in the "disagree" pile and pick out the two statements that they disagreed with the most and place them accordingly in the sorting grid (Anthony, 2011). With the most extreme columns filled, participants were instructed to return to their "agree" pile and identify the three statements from all those remaining with which they most agreed (Anthony, 2011). When the cards from the "agree" and "disagree" piles were placed and recorded, participants were asked to move onto their "undecided" pile and identify statements with which they most or least agreed depending on which

side of the distribution needed to be filled in (Anthony, 2011). Each card contained a random number (1 through to 48); written on the bottom right-hand corner and the researcher recorded its placement in the quasi-normal distribution in a Q-sort template (Appendix 2) (Watts & Stenner, 2005).

After the completion of the ranking and sorting activity, a post-sort questionnaire was given to each participant (Dziopa & Ahern, 2011; Watts & Stenner, 2012). The post-sort questionnaire enquired into the following (i) please comment on the statements you most strongly agreed with, (ii) please comment on the statements that you most strongly disagreed with, (iii) please comment on the statements you found particularly difficult to decide on, or statements that you found difficult to understand and, (iv) please suggest possible additional statements to be included in the Q-set (Appendix 7) (Watts & Stenner, 2005). This questionnaire sought to provide clarification on the rank/ordering patterns that participants produced in order to aid the latter interpretation stage (Stenner, Watts & Worrell, 2008; Watts & Stenner, 2012). The post-sort questionnaire also included a four-item questionnaire that asked participants to identify their sex, age, race and home-language to collect demographic information on the participants. All participants were de-briefed following the completion of the Q-sort exercise and as a token of the researcher's appreciation lunch and refreshments were provided. All participants left the data collection site with paper copies of the informed consent form (Appendix 6).

The Research Projects and Ethics Review Committee (RPERC) in the Rhodes University Psychology Department approved the abovementioned procedures for the study (Appendix 4). All participants completed the study during a scheduled one-hour time slot. The facilitation of the Q-sort exercise occurred in a private room in the Rhodes Department of Psychology during regular university hours. When a participant arrived at the location, the researcher verbally reviewed informed consent procedures and participants were assured of confidentiality and privacy (Anthony, 2011). Participants were given time to read through the informed consent form individually and were given the opportunity to ask questions about the study before signing the informed consent form (Anthony, 2011). It is noted that no participant declined to participate in the study and no participant chose to terminate his/her participation early. Finally, no participants reported experiencing any harm or distress as a direct result of participating in the study.

3.8 Analysis of Material:

3.8.1 Introduction:

Data analysis in Q-methodology typically involves the sequential application of by-person correlation, factor analysis and the computation of factor scores (Stainton Rogers, 1995; Watts & Stenner, 2005). This means that each individual sorting pattern is compared with all of the other sorting patterns and aggregate values for the position of each statement arrived at (Stenner, Watts & Worrell, 2008; Watts & Stenner, 2005). The analysis produces a set of factors onto which participants load on the basis of the configuration that they produce during the Q-sort (Watts & Stenner, 2005). The factors that emerge represent groups of participants who make sense of (and who hence Q-sort) the set of items/statements in comparable ways (Watts & Stenner, 2005). It is noted that there are several statistical software programmes available to facilitate data input, automatically generate the initial by-person matrix and make processes of factor extraction, rotation and estimation straightforward (Watts & Stenner, 2012). In this study, PCQ for windows software package was employed as it is specifically tailored to the requirements of Q-methodology (Watts & Stenner, 2012).

3.8.2 Statistical Analysis:

Table 2: Factor Arrays with Q-sort Values for each Statement

No.	Statement	Factor Arrays 1	2	3	4	5	6
1	All men can recognize when consent is absent	0	-1	0	2	0	-1
2	Drinking alcohol undermines the capacity to consent	-3	0	-1	0	-2	0
3	Consent means the ability to say no to sex	-2	3	-2	2	-5	0
4	Consent is also about enthusiastically saying "yes"	0	0	-3	-1	-4	0
5	Consent is always conditional	5	-1	-3	0	2	0
6	Consent is the difference between sex and rape	1	0	-2	4	0	0
7	Consent is a joint decision	-3	0	5	-4	0	0
8	A person's wish to not have sex takes precedence	0	5	3	5	3	-3
9	Perpetrators cannot recognize where consent is missing	-2	0	-3	-1	-1	0
10	Men put pressure on their partners to have sex	2	0	-4	0	0	1
11	Men are capable of controlling their sexual desires	-1	1	0	0	3	2
12	Sexual violence is committed by sexual predators	-2	-4	-4	-1	0	-4
13	Sexual violence frequently happens in the university context	-4	2	-2	1	0	0
14	Sexual violence mostly happens between men and women	0	2	0	-4	4	4
15	Sexual violence is not only heterosexual	3	4	1	1	4	4
16	There are no excuses for Sexual violence	1	-1	0	3	4	5
17	Sexual violence always includes physical assault	-4	-3	-4	-5	-2	-4
18	Sexual violence is a horrific experience	2	1	3	3	3	2
19	Men are expected to be the initiators of sex	-5	0	-5	-3	-3	-2
20	Men often feel entitled to sex	0	-1	-2	0	1	3
21	Sexual violence happens when men cannot control their sexual desires	-4	0	-5	-1	-1	-1
22	Men will often take advantage of vulnerability	3	-1	0	-1	-3	-1
23	Men should respect sexual refusals from women	5	3	4	2	5	3
24	Masculinity can take numerous forms	0	0	0	1	0	1
25	Men are capable of showing sexual restraint	0	1	1	4	1	0
26	Dominant forms of masculinity are problematic	0	5	0	-3	-2	0
27	Standing up to peer groups is hard	1	0	-1	0	-1	5
28	Men should not tolerate abusive behaviour from other men	2	1	2	0	-5	1
29	Men should intervene to stop sexual harassment	-1	2	1	0	0	1
30	Women are the victims of sexual violence	-2	1	2	-2	0	2
31	Women should protect themselves against sexual violence	-1	2	0	0	1	-4
32	Women should avoid drinking too much	-5	-4	0	-4	-4	-2
33	Women struggle to deal with unwanted attention	-1	-2	0	-2	-1	-1
34	Women do not ask to be sexually victimized	0	4	0	4	2	0
35	Women can intervene in sexual violence	1	0	0	1	0	-3
36	Men are the perpetrators of sexual violence against women	3	0	0	1	0	1
37	Perpetrators use alcohol as a date rape drug	0	-2	-1	0	1	2
38	Rapists are psychologically disturbed	0	-2	-1	-3	2	0
39	Perpetrators of sexual violence have no emotional literacy	0	-2	-1	5	-2	-5
40	Perpetrators choose to rape	-3	-4	4	3	-4	3
41	Men can be victims of sexual violence	4	4	4	5	5	5
42	It is our responsibility to look out for our friends	0	0	0	0	1	0
43	People will take advantage of vulnerability	4	-3	2	0	0	-3
44	Sexual violence is inevitable	1	-5	2	0	2	-2
45	Everyone has a role to play in preventing sexual violence	4	3	5	2	0	4
46	Alcohol is a risk factor for sexual violence	2	0	3	0	-3	-1
47	Public drinking spaces are dangerous spaces	0	-3	0	-2	0	-2
48	Drinking is being reckless with safety	-1	5	1	-2	-1	0

Table 3: Unrotated Factor Matrix with Eigenvalues and % expl. Variance

	Factors					
Sorts	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
Post01M	0.7240	0.0617	0.0315	-0.080	0.0328	0.2963
Post02F	0.8133	-0.1046	-0.1576	0.2324	0.1774	0.1734
Post03F	0.7967	-0.0534	-0.1575	0.3093	-0.0800	-0.0803
Post04M	0.6780	0.0077	0.2957	-0.0873	-0.1706	0.3645
Post05M	0.7704	-0.0459	0.0967	-0.3347	0.0341	-0.0462
Post06M	0.5255	0.3178	-0.1384	-0.1451	-0.1983	0.1359
Post07M	0.8030	-0.0459	-0.2449	-0.0572	0.0297	0.0684
Post08M	0.4491	0.0468	0.7099	0.1467	-0.3169	0.2481
Post09F	0.7840	-0.1104	0.0626	-0.2153	-0.3165	-0.0492
Post10F	0.6315	-0.2546	0.1173	0.5163	0.1465	-0.0512
Post11F	0.6620	-0.4134	-0.1532	-0.0536	-0.0921	-0.2308
Post12M	0.4561	0.0792	0.4188	0.3298	0.4044	-0.4058
Post13F	0.6131	0.4551	0.1115	-0.0251	-0.0727	-0.0950
Post14F	0.5810	-0.0081	0.0179	0.0259	0.2378	0.0883
Post15M	0.6196	0.1484	-0.3458	-0.0423	0.2663	0.3127
Post16F	0.5912	0.0582	0.3351	-0.4617	-0.0527	-0.3535
Post17M	0.8062	-0.3260	-0.1514	0.0097	-0.0677	-0.0563
Post18M	0.8727	-0.1638	-0.1007	-0.1703	0.2008	-0.0689
Post19M	0.8535	-0.2157	-0.0610	-0.2214	0.1249	-0.0563
Post20F	0.6230	-0.2158	-0.2121	0.2231	-0.3918	-0.1229
Post21F	0.5827	-0.1240	-0.3607	0.0101	0.4398	0.1605
Post22M	0.6316	0.6511	-0.1410	0.1081	-0.0341	-0.1514
Post23F	0.6707	0.6434	-0.1428	0.1135	-0.0303	-0.1158
Eigenvalues	10.8191	1.6914	1.4438	1.1087	1.0486	0.8950
% expl.Var.	47	7	6	5	5	4

Table 4: Factor Matrix with * Indicating a Defining Sort

	Loadings					
QSORT	1	2	3	4	5	6
Post01M	0.2768	0.2775	0.3486	0.2859	0.0040	0.1687
Post02F	0.5297	0.2525	0.1344	0.5585	0.1352	-0.0909
Post03F	0.1794	0.3619	0.1419	0.6875*	0.1829	0.0641
Post04M	0.4083	0.2654	0.6387*	0.2393	-0.1429	0.2270
Post05M	0.5394	0.1927	0.1660	0.3151	0.0218	0.4791
Post06M	0.0046	0.1638	0.1013	0.1780	-0.0426	0.1418
Post07M	0.4603	0.2165	0.0138	0.5262	-0.0150	0.1338
Post08M	0.0713	0.0183	0.8809*	0.1139	0.2170	0.1388
Post09F	0.1721	0.1957	0.3165	0.5229	-0.0841	0.5370
Post10F	0.0050	0.1256	0.3707	0.6886*	0.3356	-0.0160
Post11F	0.1939	-0.0449	-0.0409	0.6938*	0.0808	0.3755
Post12M	0.1847	0.1660	0.1038	0.1334	0.8850*	0.1415
Post13F	0.3105	0.4287	0.1826	0.1455	0.2127	0.1100
Post14F	0.0896	0.0486	0.0947	0.2086	0.2866	0.2218
Post15M	0.3288	0.3338	-0.0455	0.2013	-0.0897	0.0242
Post16F	0.1298	0.1787	0.1765	0.1090	0.2007	0.8476*
Post17M	0.2892	0.0549	0.0821	0.7092*	0.0611	0.2850
Post18M	0.6492	0.2198	0.0020	0.5007	0.0945	0.3421
Post19M	0.5972	0.1956	0.0631	0.5054	0.0260	0.4200
Post20F	0.1286	0.1645	0.1257	0.7987*	-0.0468	0.0258
Post21F	0.7254*	-0.0019	0.2874	0.0971	0.3624	0.0577
Post22M	0.1062	0.9150*	0.0738	0.1613	0.0990	0.1483
Post23F	0.1155	0.8969*	0.0935	0.1803	0.1045	0.1418
% expl.Var.	12	11	8	19	6	9

To analyse the 23 completed Q-sorts and extract the underlying factors, each individual Q-sort arrangement was captured and manually entered into the PCQ software package by the researcher and an initial correlation matrix of each Q-sort with every other Q-sort was automatically performed (Watts & Stenner, 2012). The resulting correlation matrix provided in Table 3 depicts the extent to which participants sorted the statements similarly (McKeown & Thomas, 2013). A case-by-case factor analysis was conducted and each individual sort pattern was compared with all of the others and aggregate values for the position of each statement arrived at (Barry & Proops, 1999). This correlation matrix was factor analysed by principal components analysis, producing a range of factors onto which participants loaded according to their individual item configurations (Watts & Stenner, 2012). These factors were rotated using a varimax rotation and the software package re-expressed the extracted factors as the "best-estimate" or factor array of the Q-sorts that represented them shown in Table 2 (Barry & Proops, 1999; Watts & Stenner, 2005). Varimax rotation procedure is consistent with the aim of the study which was, to reveal a range of viewpoints expressed by the participant group in response to messages regarding sexual violence

(Watts & Stenner, 2010). The results of analysis provide an indication of which statements in the Q-set are most frequently agreed with and which are most frequently disagreed with, together with a sense of how strongly these attitudinal positions are held (McKeown & Thomas, 2013). Additionally, analysis identified the most commonly occurring aggregate patterns of sorted statements (Watts & Stenner, 2012). In this study, these patterns are referred to as factors and can be understood as representing various discursive positions in relation to the constructions of sexual violence in the poster materials.

3.8.2 Factor Interpretation:

Literature on Q-methodology stipulates that factors are identified as significant on the basis of having an Eigenvalue greater than one (Watts & Stenner, 2012). A second standard requirement states that an interpretable Q-methodological factor must ordinarily have at least two Q sorts that load significantly upon it (Watts & Stenner, 2012). As such, the aggregate factor patterns identified in the analysis must be representative of at least two of the individual cases in the data set (Stenner, Watts & Worrell, 2008). In this study, some of the factors identified would have ordinarily been excluded by the conventional guidelines for establishing significance according to established literature (Watts & Stenner, 2012). However, due to the small data set it was deemed necessary to identify factors in the analysis that did not necessarily have an Eigenvalue greater than 1 or that had at least two q-sorts significantly loading onto them in order to provide a fruitful discussion of the range of views expressed by participants. In this way, I was over inclusive of identified factors and deviated from the established literature on Q-methodology, which means that it is possible that some aspects of the factors may be overstated (Watts & Stenner, 2010). As such, factor strength in this study does not claim to represent a position that is descriptive of the general population but provide an insight into some of the views expressed by the participant group (Stainton Rogers, 1995). However, it is argued that such measures are justified in order, to extract and explicate what would be termed “minority’ discourses or positions. This was deemed suitable given the exploratory nature of the study and the overall aim to provide a more in-depth view on the range of discursive positions revealed by analysis. The cut-off point for significance was established when 6 factors were selected that had an Eigen value that was a close approximate to 1 and these were represented by their best-estimate Q-sort (Watts & Stenner, 2012).

Six factors were extracted and explicated, accounting for 65% of the total variance in the rotated correlation matrix (Table 4). A summarising account was formulated for each factor through the process of, (i) examining the items given in the extreme scores in the factor array (+6, +5, +4 and -6, -5, -4), (ii) noting the differences between factor scores, and (iii) drawing on the qualitative descriptive data from participants' responses to the post-sort questionnaire (Watts & Stenner, 2012). Additionally, consensus statements (those statements where there was no significant difference between any factors) and distinguishing statements (those statements placed in statistically significant locations between any two factors) were noted to highlight areas of commonality and difference between the various factor formations for further insight (Van Excel & de Graaf, 2005; Watts & Stenner, 2012). Each factor was conceptualised in this way and given a name in light of relevant literature (Watts & Stenner, 2012).

3.9 Additional issues related to the application of Q-methodology:

In this study, as the researcher I was actively involved and vested in the process of analysis and interpretation. In this way, there is an important need to reflect on my role as the primary researcher and how this may have influenced aspects of the research material attended to and/or produced. Thus, reflexivity is an important consideration in this study, particularly in relation to the analysis and interpretation stages. The notion of reflexivity has been variously described as the ability of the researcher to remain attentive to their role in the generation of research data and cognisant of the associated body of knowledge produced through the research (Avdi & Georgaca, 2007). Drawing on this understanding, the steps taken in the preliminary analysis and the conceptual categories employed in the development of the Q-set are made explicit to readers (Parker, 2005). Furthermore, my role as the researcher involved constructing summarising accounts of the factors and explicating the discursive subject positions that participants adopted in relation to messages regarding sexual violence. Given these considerations, it is important to acknowledge my own positionality in relation to intersecting issues of race, gender, culture and class, and how these considerations might have influenced the process of factor analysis and interpretation (Parker, 2005).

In terms of my own positioning, prominent themes for reflection include my identity as a young, white female, international student as well as intern psychologist. It is noted that these multifaceted and important aspects of my identity and subjectivity might have led to a focus on certain

discourses and discursive themes. Specifically, of personal and professional interest is the oppressive nature of dominant narratives of masculinity and heterosexuality on the lived experience of young men. Thus, I have sought to acknowledge how this interest may have translated into an analytic interest and focus on particular discourses and discursive themes related to masculinity and the potential for bystander intervention when working with young male audiences. However, the results of this study do not seek to provide an exhaustive list of discursive positions and associated intervention strategies but rather seeks to draw out commonalities and within discourse as it pertains to the research questions (Gavey, 2005). As such, I acknowledge the possibility of mapping other discursive positions concerning audience reception of the poster messages elicited and deconstructed in this study considering the fluidity and multiplicity of discourse (Willig, 2003).

Furthermore, the post-sort questionnaire provided participants with the opportunity to engage with, and comment on their experience of the Q-sort activity. In terms of this feedback, it is noted that a commonality expressed by participants is the sense of frustration experience in response to the task of rank-ordering statements regarding sexual violence within a forced distribution template. However, participants also demonstrated general agreement with the fact that the unique and challenging nature of the activity prompted critical engagement with the topic of rape and sexual violence that might not have been achieved through a straightforward question and answer format. Overall, it is my contention that the findings of the study highlight important and alternative methods for researching and engaging audiences on the topic (in comparison to commonly used, traditional positivist approaches e.g. Likert scale and rape-myth acceptance scales). This opens up the possibility for further application of Q-methodology in future studies on the topic.

3.10 Ethical Considerations:

Finally, ethical considerations have been considered and accounted for throughout the thesis. It is noted that participation was entirely voluntary and informed. It is hoped that this approach to participant sampling would result in the recruitment of participants who showed a general interest in the topic under investigation. However, it is also acknowledged that many participants may have already experienced a degree of conscientisation around sexual violence issues given the recent history of protests and dialogue carried out on university campuses in South Africa (Macleod et

al., 2017). Nevertheless, participants were assured that all information collected during the study would remain confidential and that any data collected would be secured on password protected electronic files. Furthermore, participant code numbers were used to protect participants' identities in any written, recorded and/or published material. No personal experiences of sexual violence were discussed during the study and participants were made aware of the counselling services offered at the university Counselling Centre prior to participation. A short debriefing session was provided at the end of the research session and participants were given the option to have access to feedback in the form of sections of analysed data and an equivalent copy of the research findings if they requested.

Chapter Four: Results and Interpretation

4.1 Introduction:

This study explored audience reception of messages regarding sexual violence in public awareness poster campaigns. Specifically, analysis sought to uncover the discursive subject positions that participants express in their attitudinal responses to messages about sexual violence contained in a range of posters. To facilitate discussion, the findings of the study are organised into two separate but interlinked chapters (chapter 4 and 5). The first broad section (chapter 4) identifies and describes the factors that emerged from the study and provides insight into the level resonance that certain messages about sexual violence found with the participant sample. The final section (chapter 5), relates to a second interrelated aim, which was to provide recommendations to inform the development of more effective and focused intervention strategies and sexual violence awareness material, tailored to the specific context from which participants were drawn.

In looking at the fluidity and multiplicity of discourse and discursive strategies, it is argued that discourse is never entirely uniform, coherent or consistent (Parker, 1992). The discursive orientation to Q-methodology adopted by this study, views extracted factors as positions in discourse rather than cognitive structures or individual attitudes (Anderson & Doherty, 2008; Lea & Auburn, 2001). Within this framework, analysis highlights the commonalities and differences between and within the extracted factors. While the discursive themes are presented categorically for the sake of clarity in this chapter, they should not be read as fixed and separate entities (Parker, 1992). Therefore, the factors elicited are viewed as shared collective expressions and positions in discourses that participants orient towards. It must be noted that what is presented below provides a brief summary of the findings from the analysis. The analysis revealed six significant factors, accounting for 65% of the variance in the data set. The section below presents each of these factors in turn. Additionally, quotes considered most relevant to illustrate the findings of the analysis have been highlighted.

4.2 Factor One: Resisting Sexual Violence Stereotypes

Table 5: Q-set Statements for Factor 1 Ranked by Z-Scores

No.	Statement	Z-Score
5	Consent is always conditional	2.006
23	Men should respect sexual refusals from women	2.006
41	Men can be victims of sexual violence	1.605
43	People will take advantage of vulnerability	1.605
45	Everyone has a role to play in preventing sexual violence	1.605
15	Sexual violence is not only heterosexual	1.204
22	Men will often take advantage of vulnerability	1.204
36	Men are the perpetrators of sexual violence against women	1.204
10	Men put pressure on their partners to have sex	0.802
18	Sexual violence is a horrific experience	0.802
28	Men should not tolerate abusive behaviour from other men	0.803
46	Alcohol is a risk factor for sexual violence	0.802
6	Consent is the difference between sex and rape	0.401
16	There are no excuses for sexual violence	0.401
27	Standing up to peer groups is hard	0.401
35	Women can intervene in sexual violence	0.401
44	Sexual violence is inevitable	0.401
20	Men often feel entitled to sex	0.000
24	Masculinity can take numerous forms	0.000
25	Men are capable of showing sexual restraint	0.000
26	Dominant forms of masculinity are problematic	0.000
34	Women do not ask to be sexually victimised	0.000
14	Sexual violence mostly happens between men and women	0.000
8	A person's wish to not have sex takes precedence	0.000
37	Perpetrators use alcohol as a date rape drug	0.000
38	Rapists are psychologically disturbed	0.000
39	Perpetrators of Sexual violence have no emotional literacy	0.000
42	It is our responsibility to look out for our friends	0.000
4	Consent is also about enthusiastically saying "yes"	0.000
1	All men can recognise when consent is absent	0.000
47	Public drinking spaces are dangerous spaces	0.000
33	Women struggle to deal with unwanted attention	-0.401
11	Men are capable of controlling their sexual desires	-0.401
29	Men should intervene to stop sexual harassment	-0.401
31	Women should protect themselves against Sexual violence	-0.401
48	Drinking is being reckless with safety	-0.401
9	Perpetrators cannot recognise where consent is missing	-0.802
3	Consent means the ability to say no to sex	-0.802
30	Women are the victims of sexual violence	-0.802
12	Sexual violence is committed by sexual predators	-0.802
7	Consent is a joint decision	-1.204
40	Perpetrators choose to rape	-1.204
2	Drinking alcohol undermines the capacity to consent	-1.204
17	Sexual violence always includes physical assault	-1.605
13	Sexual violence frequently happens in the university context	-1.605
21	Sexual violence happens when men cannot control their sexual desires	-1.605
32	Women should avoid drinking too much	-2.006
19	Men are expected to be the initiators of sex	-2.006

There were NO Distinguishing Statements for Factor 1

4.2.1 Factor Outline:

Factor 1 explains 12% of the total sample variance and has one participant sort loading significantly onto it and an Eigenvalue of 10.8 (Table 3; Table 4). The participant loading onto this factor is female.

4.2.2 Factor Description:

The overarching theme of Factor 1 revolves around disagreement with understandings of Sexual violence that are built upon stereotypical representations of rape involving unknown, or predatory and male perpetrators preying on vulnerable female victims. Such constructions of sexual violence are problematic as they perpetuate rape myths, and social attitudes and beliefs that minimise the harm of sexual violence, normalise and naturalise sexually violent behaviours and hold victims responsible (Anderson & Doherty, 2008). Furthermore, stereotypical depictions of sexual violence render many other forms of sexual coercion and violence invisible and reinforce the idea of "stranger danger", which highlights sexual violence as sexual predation in public spaces (Hall, 2005). It is noted that this thematic response was evident to varying degrees within all of the other factors identified, indicating that such stereotypical representations of sexual violence generally do not seem to resonate with this participant sample.

In examining factor scores along with statements scored in the extreme and central poles of the factor array (Table 2), the account, factor 1, resisted stereotypical representations of sexual violence. The participant who loaded significantly onto this factor disagreed quite strongly with the message that sexual violence always involves a physical assault (17: -4), and agreed with the statement that men can also be victims of sexual violence (41: 4). Additionally, the participant loading onto this factor moderately agreed with the idea that sexual violence is not only a heterosexual phenomenon (15: 3). This participant (participant 21) highlights how "*sexual violence does not always need to be a physical assault; it can be emotional and verbal abuse too*". Furthermore, statements constructing perpetrators as psychologically disturbed (38: 0) and emotionally illiterate (39: 0) were ranked as neutral, suggesting that such depictions of sexual violence do not find purchase with the participant loading onto this factor. "*Any person can commit sexual violence; they are not necessarily sexual predators*" (participant 21). Importantly, there was quite strong disagreement with messages that promote strict behaviour monitoring, such as limiting one's drinking behaviour if you're a woman (32: -5), and resistance to messages that link sexual violence to male sexuality and its propensity for violence (21:

-4; 19: -5). The participant loading onto this factor also highlights how "*it is not the responsibility of women to avoid acts of sexual violence by not drinking too much or not being provocative*". Overall, this pattern of response indicates disagreement with the idea that sexual violence is always committed by sexual predators and resists a position that holds individual's responsible for avoiding victimisation.

It is noted that this factor shows quite strong disagreement with the statement that sexual violence frequently happens in the University context (13: -4). It is argued that such sentiments are somewhat surprising, given the university sample and context for this research. However, this understanding of sexual violence may indicate audience resistance to, or saturation with sexual violence messages that rely on the use of statistics to emphasise high levels of sexual violence on university campuses. It is reported that risk reduction strategies often rely on the presentation of questionable statistics as a "scare tactic" (Carmody, 2005; Hall, 2004). However, such strategies have been critiqued for flattening out and normalising the risk of sexual violence by implying that all women are at equal risk of victimisation and fails to address the victimisation of young boys and men (Campbell, 2005). Thus, it could be said that by strongly disagreeing with the idea that sexual violence frequently occurs in the university context, this factor might be demonstrating resistance towards rape avoidance and risk reduction strategies that disseminate generalisable information surrounding the risk of sexual violence (Carmody, 2005).

Finally, this account showed strong agreement with the notion that the prevention of sexual violence is a collective responsibility (45: +4) as well as the idea that men should adopt socially responsible and ethical positions in sexual relations (23: +5). However, patterns of response in this factor did not particularly agree that dominant forms of masculinity are problematic (26: 0), or that masculinity can take numerous forms (24: 0). Similarly, statements about looking out for one's friends (27: 1), or standing up to peer groups when they display sexist behaviours (42: 0) did not find resonance with the participant loading onto this factor. Importantly, a lack of engagement with specific strategies for addressing sexual violence prevention is a theme that is repeated within other factors and will therefore be discussed in more detail below.

4.3 Factor Two: Hegemonic masculinity, not alcohol

Table 6: Q-set Statements for Factor 2 Ranked by Z-Scores

No.	Statement	Z-Score
8	A person's wish to not have sex takes precedence	2.013
26	Dominant forms of masculinity are problematic	2.013
15	Sexual violence is not only heterosexual	1.610
34	Women do not ask to be sexually victimised	1.610
41	Men can be victims of sexual violence	1.610
3	Consent means the ability to say no to sex	1.208
23	Men should accept sexual refusals from women	1.208
45	Everyone has a role to play in preventing Sexual violence	1.208
13	Sexual violence frequently happens in the university context	0.624
14	Sexual violence mostly happens between men and women	0.624
29	Men should intervene to stop sexual harassment	0.624
31	Women should protect themselves against sexual violence	0.624
18	Sexual violence is a horrific experience	0.583
25	Men are capable of showing sexual restraint	0.583
11	Men are capable of controlling their sexual desires	0.583
30	Women are the victims of sexual violence	0.583
28	Men should not tolerate abusive behaviour from other men	0.403
9	Perpetrators cannot recognise where consent is missing	-0.000
19	Men are expected to be the initiators of sex	-0.000
21	Sexual violence happens when men cannot control their sexual desires	-0.000
7	Consent is a joint decision	-0.000
24	Masculinity can take numerous forms	-0.000
10	Men put pressure on their partners to have sex	-0.000
2	Drinking alcohol undermines the capacity to consent	-0.000
27	Standing up to peer groups is hard	-0.000
6	Consent is the difference between sex and rape	-0.000
4	Consent is also about enthusiastically saying "yes"	-0.000
35	Women can also intervene in sexual violence	-0.000
36	Men are the perpetrators of sexual violence against women	-0.000
42	It is our responsibility to look out for our friends	-0.000
46	Alcohol is a risk factor for sexual violence	-0.000
20	Men often feel entitled to sex	-0.403
22	Men will often take advantage of vulnerability	-0.403
5	Consent is always conditional	-0.403
16	There are no excuses for Sexual violence	-0.403
1	All men can recognise when consent is missing	-0.403
37	Perpetrators use alcohol as a date rape drug	-0.805
38	Rapists are psychologically disturbed	-0.805
39	Perpetrators of sexual violence have no emotional literacy	-0.805
33	Women struggle to deal with unwanted attention	-0.805
17	Sexual violence always includes physical assault	-1.208
43	People will take advantage of vulnerability	-1.208
47	Public drinking spaces are dangerous spaces	-1.208
40	Perpetrators choose to rape	-1.610
12	Sexual violence is committed by sexual predators	-1.610
32	Women should avoid drinking too much	-1.610
44	Sexual violence is inevitable	-2.013
48	Drinking is being reckless with safety	-2.013

Table 7: Distinguishing Statements for Factor 2 (P < .05)

		Factors							
		1		2		3		4	
No.	**Statement**	**Q-SV**	**Z-SV**	**Q-SV**	**Z-SV**	**Q-SV**	**Z-SV**	**Q-SV**	**Z-SV**
4. Sexual violence is inevitable		1	0.40	-5	-2.01	2	0.71	0	-0.31
		Factors							
		5		**6**					
		Q-SV	**Z-SV**	**Q-SV**	**Z-SV**				
		2	0.80	-2	-0.80				

4.3.1 Factor Outline:

Factor 2 accounts for 11% of the total sample variance and there are two participant sorts loading significantly onto it and an Eigenvalue of 1.69 (Table 3; Table 4). There are one female and one male participant loading onto this factor.

4.3.2 Factor Description:

Participants loading onto Factor 2 articulated an alcohol positive perspective in relation to their understanding of sexual violence. It is noted that the relationship between alcohol-use and sexual violence is a theme often referred to in the sexual violence posters that were analysed in this study. This factor demonstrates how the explicit linking of alcohol use to risk exposure received no traction from the participants loading onto this factor (46: 0), whilst statements emphasising the dangers of drinking in relation to sexual violence due to increased vulnerability were disagreed with (48: -5; 47: -3; 43: -3), as were statements that emphasised women's responsibility for risk management (31: 2; 32: -4). *"The construction of men being sexual, primal and desiring sex more than women, who are either positioned as weak or reckless in their behaviour silences women's voices and agency"* (Participant 23). This factor also resists messages regarding sexual violence that draw on stereotypical representations of sexual violence, emphasising risk management and promoting strict behaviour monitoring (32: -4; 34: +4). Importantly, this pattern of response indicates a degree of opposition to victim blaming discourse. It is argued that such sentiments are not surprising, given the university context for this research, where drinking-positive attitudes are to be expected (Young & De Klerk, 2008).

In terms of sexual violence prevention, the distinguishing statement for this account (Table 7) shows strong resistance towards the notion that sexual violence is inevitable (44: -5). Furthermore, it would seem that the responsibility for the perpetration of sexual violence is instead located in normative constructions of masculinity (26: +5). *"The culture of hegemonic masculinity and rape cannot be separated from socio-economic conditions and past inequalities in South Africa, men need to interrogate each other's masculinity"* (Participant 22). However, statements to the effect that alternative forms of masculinity are possible and desirable (24: 0; 26: 1), did not receive much traction from the participants loading onto this factor. Clearly, the understanding of sexual violence drawn on in this factor resolves around the issue of violent masculinities playing a significant role in the perpetration of sexual violence. It is argued that this pattern of response can be made sense of against a body of literature highlighting how unequal gender relations in conjunction with dominant masculinities play a pivotal role in the high levels of sexual violence in South Africa (Macleod et al., 2017). Additionally, research studies have found that men often attribute notions of male sexual entitlement, peer pressure and the punishment of women as important motives for rape (Macleod et al., 2017). However, in this factor, there seems to be a lack of engagement with specific strategies that might be employed to disrupt violent masculinities and interrogate dominant forms of masculinity. Thus, there is an important need for sexual violence awareness-raising or intervention strategies to provide counter-narratives to hegemonic, (hetero)-normative and sexually aggressive ways of being a man in order to engage male audiences with alternative masculine subjectivities that provide ethical ways of relating in sexual relations.

4.4 Factor Three: Ambivalent Bystander

Table 8: Q-set Statements for Factor 3 Ranked by Z-Scores

No.	Statement	Z-Score
45	Everyone has a role to play in preventing sexual violence	2.142
7	Consent is a joint decision	1.938
23	Men should accept sexual refusals from women	1.800
41	Men can be victims of sexual violence	1.699
40	Perpetrators choose to rape	1.293
18	Sexual violence is a horrific experience	1.256
8	A person's wish to not have sex takes precedence	1.155
46	Alcohol is a risk factor for sexual violence	1.017
30	Women are the victims of sexual violence	0.951
28	Men should not tolerate abusive behaviour from other men	0.915
43	People will take advantage of vulnerability	0.915
44	Sexual violence is inevitable	0.712
15	Sexual violence is not only heterosexual	0.472
25	Men are capable of showing sexual restraint	0.371
29	Men should intervene to stop sexual harassment	0.371
48	Drinking is being reckless with safety	0.269
11	Men are capable of controlling their sexual desires	0.233
16	There are no excuses for sexual violence	0.233
47	Public drinking spaces are dangerous spaces	0.168
26	Dominant forms of masculinity are problematic	0.131
36	Men are the perpetrators of sexual violence against women	0.030
1	All men can recognise when consent is missing	0.030
31	Women should protect themselves against sexual violence	-0.072
32	Women should avoid drinking too much	-0.072
33	Women struggle to deal with unwanted attention	-0.072
34	Women do not ask to be sexually victimised	-0.072
35	Women can intervene in sexual violence	-0.072
22	Men will often take advantage vulnerability	-0.072
24	Masculinity can take numerous forms	-0.173
42	It is our responsibility to look out for our friends	-0.312
2	Drinking alcohol undermines the capacity to consent	-0.348
37	Perpetrators use alcohol as a date rape drug	-0.413
38	Rapists are psychologically disturbed	-0.413
39	Perpetrators of sexual violence have no emotional literacy	-0.478
27	Standing up to peer groups is hard	-0.515
3	Consent means the ability to say no to sex	-0.551
13	Sexual violence frequently happens in the university context	-0.551
20	Men often feel entitled to sex	-0.616
6	Consent is the difference between sex and rape	-0.689
5	Consent is always conditional	-0.754
9	Perpetrators cannot recognise where consent is missing	-1.298
4	Consent is also about enthusiastically saying "yes"	-1.436
12	Sexual violence is committed by sexual predators	-1.502
10	Men put pressure on their partners to have sex	-1.640
17	Sexual violence always includes physical assault	-1.879
19	Men are expected to be the initiators of sex	-1.944
21	Sexual violence happens when men cannot control their sexual desires	-1.981

There were NO Distinguishing Statements for Factor 3

4.4.1 Factor Outline:

Factor 3 accounts for 8% of the total sample variance and has two participant sorts loading onto it and an Eigenvalue of 1.44 (Table 3; Table 4). The two participants loading onto this factor are both male.

4.4.2 Factor Description:

As mentioned above, there is a relatively high degree of overlap regarding prominent themes across many of the factors in this study. It is noted that Factor 3 is similar in some respects to Factor 1 and 2 in demonstrating resistance towards stereotypical representations of sexual violence and the explicit emphasis on alcohol usage as a risk factor for exposure to such violence (7: +5; 15: +1; 41: +4). Additionally, messages to the effect that men are not are capable of sexual restraint were strongly resisted by the participants loading onto this factor (19: -5; 21: -5). It is noted that both participants in this factor are male and thus the positions that they adopt might be aimed towards opposing the idea that men cannot control their sexual urges and therefore should not be held accountable for the consequences of their naturally aggressive and urgent biological drives (Knowles, 2016).

Importantly, the distinguishing feature of this factor is the articulation of participants' orientation towards sexual violence prevention. Specifically, statements scored in the extreme poles, as indicated in Table 3, emphasise strong agreement with the message that it is everyone's responsibility to engage with addressing sexual violence issues (45: +5). *"Everyone should play a role in stopping sexual violence, both men and women; men should also play an active role in stopping other men from inflicting such violence"* (Participant 8). As previously discussed, the notion of collective responsibility for sexual violence is an integral strategy drawn upon in bystander approaches to violence prevention (Banyard, Plante & Moynihan, 2004).

Furthermore, in some respects to Factor 2, participants' responses in this factor demonstrate a lack of engagement with specific strategies for bystander intervention. Statements to the effect that men should intervene to stop sexual harassment (29: 1), or that men should not tolerate abusive behaviour displayed by other men (28: 2) did not elicit strong reactions from the participants loading onto this factor. Similarly, in this factor, statements about looking out for one's friends (27: -1), or standing up to peer groups when they display sexist behaviours (42: 0) did not find much resonance with the two participants. Participant 12 highlights this issue by stating that "*any man can stand up to coercive*

practices but it takes education to know and recognise these behaviours – all men are capable of this with education". This suggests that while there is overall agreement with sentiments underpinning bystander intervention, participants may not enact these sentiments in practice due to a lack of knowledge around specific pro-social bystander behaviour (McMahon & Banyard, 2012). It is argued that such a disjuncture between "attitudes" and behaviour may need further exploration, and could reflect either participants need for impression management and/or the genuine need to develop bystander intervention skills and competencies (McMahon & Banyard, 2012).

Finally, responses to sexual violence messages in this factor show somewhat of a distinctive perspective on the issue of consent in their articulation of sexual violence. Whilst there was some agreement with the message that the wishes of the person who does not want to have sex takes precedence over those of the person who does (8: +3), this factor also shows disagreement with the notion that consent is the difference between sex and rape (6: -2), or that consent must be given and received every time two people engage in sexual contact (5: -3). Additionally, there was strong agreement with the idea that consent is a joint decision in this account (7: +5). This pattern of response indicates a degree of ambiguity around participants' understanding of the complex topic of consent. This suggests that rape awareness and sexual violence prevention strategies should include a focus on increasing audience understanding of the concept of consent and enhancing emotional literacy within sexual relations.

4.5 Factor Four: Consent Matters

Table 9: Q-set Statements for Factor 4 Ranked by Z-Scores

No.	Statement	Z-Score
8	A person's wish to not have sex takes precedence	1.799
41	Men can be victims of Sexual violence	1.660
34	Women do not ask to be sexually victimised	1.628
6	Consent is the difference between sex and rape	1.620
25	Men are capable of showing sexual restraint	1.615
40	Perpetrators choose to rape	1.573
18	Sexual violence is a horrific experience	1.499
16	There are no excuses for Sexual violence	1.239
23	Men should respect sexual refusals from women	1.116
1	All men can recognise when consent is missing	1.072
3	Consent means the ability to say no to sex	0. 069
45	Everyone has a role to play in preventing Sexual violence	0.855
24	Masculinity can take numerous forms	0.666
13	Sexual violence frequently happens in the university context	0.524
35	Women can intervene in Sexual violence	0.514
15	Sexual violence is not only heterosexual	0.383
36	Men are the perpetrators of Sexual violence against women	0.359
5	Consent is always conditional	0.275
11	Men are capable of controlling their sexual desires	0.256
29	Men should intervene to stop sexual harassment	0.192
28	Men should not tolerate abusive behaviour from other men	0.144
37	Perpetrators use alcohol as a date rape drug	0.000
27	Standing up to peer groups is hard	-0.129
43	People will take advantage of vulnerability	-0.203
10	Men put pressures on their partners to have sex	-0.249
44	Sexual violence is inevitable	-0.306
2	Drinking alcohol undermines the capacity to consent	-0.349
46	Alcohol is a risk factor in Sexual violence	-0.375
20	Men often feel entitled to sex	-0.430
42	It is our responsibility to look out for our friends	-0.437
31	Women should protect themselves against Sexual violence	-0.457
22	Men will often take advantage of vulnerability	-0.484
12	Sexual violence is committed by sexual predators	-0.526
4	Consent is about enthusiastically saying "yes"	-0.535
21	Sexual violence happens when men cannot control their sexual desires	-0.610
9	Perpetrators cannot recognise where consent is missing	-0.658
47	Public drinking spaces are dangerous spaces	-0.689
33	Women struggle to deal with unwanted attention	-0.756
30	Women are the victims of Sexual violence	-0.805
48	Drinking is being reckless with safety	-0.999
26	Dominant forms of masculinity are problematic	-1.122
38	Rapists are psychologically disturbed	-1.180
19	Men are expected to be the initiators of sex	-1.183
32	Women should avoid drinking too much	-1.218
14	Sexual violence mostly happens between men and women	-1.349
7	Consent is a joint decision	-1.494
39	Perpetrators of Sexual violence have no emotional literacy	-1.641
17	Sexual violence is always a physical assault	-1.874

Table 10: Distinguishing Statements for Factor 4 (P < .05)

		Factors							
		1		**2**		**3**		**4**	
No.	**Statement**	**Q-SV**	**Z-SV**	**Q-SV**	**Z-SV**	**Q-SV**	**Z-SV**	**Q-SV**	**Z-SV**
6. Consent is the difference between sex and rape		1	0.40	0	-0.00	-2	-0.69	+4	0.14
		Factors							
		5		**6**					
		Q-SV	**Z-SV**	**Q-SV**	**Z-SV**				
		0	0.00	0	0.00				

4.5.1 Factor Outline:

Factor 4 accounts for 19% of the total sample variance and has five participant sorts loading onto it and an Eigenvalue of 1.11 (Table 3; Table 4). There are four female participants and one male participant loading onto this factor.

4.5.2 Factor Description:

In exploring the extracted factor array (Table 2), Factor 4 represents a common discursive thread amongst the sample in this study. In this way, it is noted that key themes identified in factor 4 are echoed in some of the other factors. Specifically, Factor 4 is similar in some respects to Factor 1 in looking at the way in which participants articulate their understanding of sexual violence and the associated categories of victims and perpetrators. The factor scores along with statements scored in the extreme and central poles of the factor array (Table 2), indicate that participants loading onto this factor distanced themselves from stereotypical representations of sexual violence (14: -4; 17: -5; 41: +5) and constructions of perpetrators as emotionally illiterate and psychologically disturbed (38: -3; 39: +5). Participant 3 highlights how "*many cases of sexual violence include emotional abuse, as well as verbal, if one is verbally pressured into sex or emotionally manipulated then it must be considered a form of sexual violence*". Such an understanding aligns itself with a continuum-based understanding of sexual violence, which highlights actions and behaviour that tend to be more commonly accepted, but which nonetheless contribute to the existence of sexual violence (Gavey, 2005). In this way, there is an important need for sexual violence awareness materials to educate audiences on the continuum of sexual violence and those actions and behaviours that are not widely recognised and yet connected to sexual violence, and which can be incorporated into bystander strategies (McMahon, Postmus & Koenick, 2011).

A second thematic response to messages about sexual violence in this factor involves the notion of consent, and participants' articulations of their understandings of this topic. The distinguishing statement (Table 10) in this account indicates that consent, or rather the lack thereof, is a determining factor when defining sexual violence as demonstrated by the participants loading onto this factor. As such, it would seem that participants understand consent as the difference between sex and rape (6: +4), and disagree with the notion that consent is a joint decision (7: -4), in that the wishes of the person who does not want to have sex takes precedence over those of the person who does (8: +5). Additionally, the explicit linking of alcohol use as a risk factor that undermines consent (2: 0) did not resonate with the participants loading onto this factor. Participant 3 confirms that *"if an individual decides to ignore another individual's decision not to have sex, and forces them to have sex, he/she is essentially robbing the other individual of choice and freedom"*.

However, it is noted that this factor indicates agreement with a relatively one-dimensional understanding of consent, negatively framed in terms of "the ability to say no to sex" (3: +2). It is argued that this pattern of response gives the impression that what seems to be missing from this perspective is the idea that consent should be enthusiastic and should incorporate saying yes to sex (4: -1), or that consent should be an on-going negotiation (+5: 0). Furthermore, it is argued that this discursive position adopted in relation to consent is limited in providing audiences with an understanding of sexual violence that incorporates the spectrum of sexual violence and fails to provide any recognition of how tactics of coercion are often employed (Gavey, 2005). As such, this factor highlights the important need for increased awareness of audience understandings of the concept of consent, particularly enthusiastic consent, in rape awareness materials and sexual violence prevention strategies. Given considerations previously discussed around the prominence of coercive sex within the South African context (Du Toit, 2007), increased awareness of the concept of consent might necessitate a focus on coercive circumstances in the broader definition of sexual violence to counteract simplistic understandings of consent based its presence or absence (Du Toit, 2007).

4.6 Factor Five: Individual Perpetrators

Table 11: Q-set Statements for Factor 5 Ranked by Z-Scores

No.	Statement	Z-Score
23	Men should respect sexual refusals from women	2.006
41	Men can be victims of sexual violence	2.006
14	Sexual violence mostly happens between men and women	1.605
15	Sexual violence is not only heterosexual	1.605
16	There are no excuses for sexual violence	1.605
8	A person's wish to not have sex takes precedence	1.204
11	Men are capable of controlling their sexual desires	1.204
18	Sexual violence is a horrific experience	1.204
5	Consent is always conditional	0.802
34	Women do not ask to be sexually victimised	0.802
38	Rapists are psychologically disturbed	0.802
44	Sexual violence is inevitable	0.802
20	Men often feel entitled to sex	0.401
25	Men are capable of showing sexual restraint	0.401
31	Women should protect themselves against Sexual violence	0.401
37	Perpetrators use alcohol as a date rape drug	0.401
42	It is our responsibility to look out for our friends	0.401
6	Consent is the difference between sex and rape	0.000
13	Sexual violence frequently happens in the university context	0.000
29	Men should intervene to stop sexual harassment	0.000
30	Women are the victims of Sexual violence	0.000
10	Men put pressure on their partners to have sex	0.000
35	Women can intervene in Sexual violence	0.000
36	Men are the perpetrators of Sexual violence against women	0.000
7	Consent is a joint decision	0.000
43	People will take advantage of vulnerability	0.000
12	Sexual violence is committed by sexual predators	0.000
45	Everyone has a role to play in preventing Sexual violence	0.000
47	Public drinking spaces are dangerous spaces	0.000
33	Women struggle to deal with unwanted attention	-0.401
21	Sexual violence happens when men cannot control their sexual desires	-0.401
9	Perpetrators cannot recognise where consent is missing	-0.401
27	Standing up to peer groups is hard	-0.401
48	Drinking is being reckless with safety	-0.401
39	Perpetrators of sexual violence have no emotional literacy	-0.802
2	Drinking alcohol undermines the capacity to consent	-0.802
17	Sexual violence always includes physical assault	-0.802
26	Dominant forms of masculinity are problematic	-0.802
22	Men will often take advantage of vulnerability	-1.204
19	Men are expected to be the initiators of sex	-1.204
46	Alcohol is a risk factor for Sexual violence	-1.204
32	Women should avoid drinking too much	-1.605
4	Consent is also about enthusiastically saying "yes"	-1.605
40	Perpetrator choose to rape	-1.605
3	Consent means the ability to say no to sex	-2.006
28	Men should not tolerate abusive behaviour from other men	-2.006

Table 12: Distinguishing Statements for Factor 5 (P < .05)

		Factors											
		1		2		3		4		5		6	
No.	Statement	Q-SV	Z-SV	Q-SV	Z-SV	Q-SV	Z-SV	Q-SV	Z-SV	Q-SV	Z-SV	Q-SV	Z-SV
28.	Men should not tolerate abusive behaviour from other men	2	0.80	1	0.40	2	0.91	0	0.14	-5	-2.01	1	0.40

4.6.1 Factor Outline:

Factor 5 explains 6% of the total sample variance and has one participant sort loading onto it and an Eigenvalue of 1.05 (Table 3; Table 4). The participant loading onto this factor is male.

4.6.2 Factor Description:

This account (Factor 5) is similar in some respects to Factor 3 in looking at participants' resistance towards messages that reinforce stereotypical representations of sexual violence (15: +4; 32: -4; 41: +5; 46: -3). It is important to note that the statement suggesting that sexual violence frequently happens in the university context received no traction from this participant (13: 0). Instead, it was emphasised how *"rape most often happens in contexts like prisons where males and females are raped on a regular basis"* (participant 12 comment). Thus, this account seems to demonstrate awareness of sexual violence issues beyond the university context and highlights other institutional spaces, such as prisons, as prominent contexts in which sexual violence manifests. However, it is also noted that this perspective seemingly denies the seriousness of so-called "every-day" rape as a widespread issue in society by ignoring the regularity of sexual violence outside of the prison context.

Another thematic response to messages about sexual violence in this factor involves the notion of consent, and participants' articulations of their understandings of this topic in relation to sexual violence issues. This account shows agreement with the notion that a person's wish to not have sex takes precedence (8: +3). However, the statement to the effect that consent is the difference between sex and rape did not receive any traction from the participant loading onto this factor (6: 0). Furthermore, in this account, there was strong disagreement with the notion that consent

constitutes the ability to say no to sex (3: -5). Interestingly, there was also quite strong disagreement with messages highlighting the importance of enthusiastic consent and actively saying yes to sex (4: -4). Participant 12 elaborates that "*consent is too complex an issue to reduce to simple yes and no, what happens when consent is given or assumed and then retracted?*" In this way, this account highlights the complexity and ambiguity surrounding the topic of consent and the importance of effective and on-going communication of consent in sexual relations.

Participants' overarching understanding of sexual violence, reflected by the distinguishing statement in this account (Table 12), indicates resistance to the notion of collective responsibility for sexual violence. In terms of sexual violence prevention, the distinguishing statement in this account shows strong disagreement with the message that men should not tolerate abusive behaviour displayed by other men (28: -5). Similarly, statements to the effect that men should intervene to stop sexual harassment (29: 0) or look out for one's friends (27: 0), or that currently hegemonic and socially valued forms of masculinity underpin sexual violence (26:-2) did not elicit strong reactions from this participant. Furthermore, the participant loading onto this factor did not particularly agree with the notion that it is everyone's responsibility to engage with addressing sexual violence issues (45: 0). Participant 12 elucidates how "*one man should not be held responsible for the actions of another as that limits the ability of individual men to be held accountable*". Instead, this account shows agreement with understandings of sexual violence that locate the causes of sexual violence in relation to men's disregard for sexual refusals (11: +3; 19: -3; 23: +5). Additionally, it is noted that within this account, there is evidence suggesting strong disagreement with the message that perpetrators choose to rape (40: -4). Such sentiments are surprising given abovementioned comments that show agreement with the notion of holding perpetrators accountable for their actions and behaviour. As such, the issue of perpetrator accountability and responsibility is something that requires further investigation and it would seem that bystander strategies that encourage individuals and communities to speak out on norms that contribute to sexual violence might be useful.

Finally, there was quite strong agreement with the notion that there are no excuses or mitigation for sexual violence demonstrated by the participant loading onto this factor (16: +4). However, it would seem that the understanding of sexual violence articulated by this factor focuses on the issue

of individual perpetration to the neglect of acknowledging the role of the social and cultural context in which sexual violence and gender inequality play out. Importantly, the participant loading onto this factor identified as male and therefore might show resistance towards messages that were perceived as holding only men responsible for addressing sexual violence issues. However, given that this factor only accounts for 6% of the total sample variance; this understanding should not be overstated.

4.7 Factor Six: Zero Tolerance

Table 13: Q-set Statements for Factor 6 Ranked by Z-Scores

No.	Statement	Z-Score
16	There are no excuses for sexual violence	2.006
41	Men can be victims of sexual violence	2.006
14	Sexual violence mostly happens between men and women	1.605
15	Sexual violence is not only heterosexual	1.605
45	Everyone has a role to play in preventing sexual violence	1.605
20	Men often feel entitled to sex	1.204
23	Men should accept sexual refusals from women	1.204
40	Perpetrators choose to rape	1.204
11	Men are capable of controlling their sexual desires	0.802
18	Sexual violence is a horrific experience	0.802
30	Women are the victims of sexual violence	0.802
37	Perpetrators use alcohol as a date rape drug	0.802
10	Men put pressures on their partners to have sex	0.401
24	Masculinity can take numerous forms	0.401
28	Men should not tolerate abusive behaviour from other men	0.401
29	Men should intervene to stop sexual harassment	0.401
36	Men are the perpetrators of sexual violence against women	0.401
13	Sexual violence frequently happens in the university context	0.000
6	Consent is the difference between sex and rape	0.000
7	Consent is a joint decision	0.000
3	Consent is the ability to say no to sex	0.000
25	Men are capable of showing sexual restraint	0.000
26	Dominant forms of masculinity are problematic	0.000
4	Consent is also about enthusiastically saying “yes”	0.000
9	Perpetrators cannot recognise where consent is missing	0.000
34	Women do not ask to be sexually victimised	0.000
38	Rapists are psychologically disturbed	0.000
2	Drinking alcohol undermines the capacity to consent	0.000
42	It is our responsibility to look out for our friends	0.000
5	Consent is always conditional	0.000
48	Drinking is being reckless with safety	0.000
33	Women struggle to deal with unwanted attention	-0.401
21	Sexual violence happens when men cannot control their sexual desires	-0.401
1	All men can recognise when consent is absent	-0.401
22	Men will often take advantage of vulnerability	-0.401
46	Alcohol is a risk factor for sexual violence	-0.401
32	Women should avoid drinking too much	-0.802
19	Men are expected to be the initiators of sex	-0.802
44	Sexual violence is inevitable	-0.802
47	Public drinking spaces are dangerous spaces	-0.802
43	People will take advantage of vulnerability	-1.204
35	Women can intervene in Sexual violence	-1.204
8	A person’s wish to not have sex takes precedence	-1.204
17	Sexual violence always includes physical assault	-1.605
12	Sexual violence is committed by sexual predators	-1.605
31	Women should protect themselves against Sexual violence	-1.605
27	Standing up to peer groups is hard	-2.006
39	Perpetrators of sexual violence have no emotional literacy	-2.006

Table 14: Distinguishing Statements for Factor 6 (P < .05)

		Factors							
		1		2		3		4	
No.	Statement	Q-SV	Z-SV	Q-SV	Z-SV	Q-SV	Z-SV	Q-SV	Z-SV
27. Standing up to peer groups is hard		1	0.40	0	-0.00	-1	-0.51	0	-0.13
		Factors							
		5		6					
		Q-SV	Z-SV	Q-SV	Z-SV				
		-1	-0.40	+5	-2.01				

4.7.1 Factor Outline:

Factor 6 explains 9% of the total sample variance and has one participant sort loading onto it and an Eigenvalue of 0.89 (Table 3; Table 4). The participant loading onto this factor is female.

4.7.2 Factor Description:

As previously discussed, factor 6 is viewed as a minority discursive position as it does not have an Eigenvalue greater than 1. However, this discursive position has been included in the analysis for the purpose of providing greater insight into the range of discursive positions on sexual violence in this study.

Furthermore, it is argued that had there been more participants included in the data set, this factor may have reached a level of significance in terms of its Eigenvalue. Additionally, this factor seems to provide somewhat of a unique position accruing from how the participant loading onto this factor did not view the issue of consent as being pertinent to its articulation of sexual violence. Briefly, it is noted that none of the statements concerning consent in the Q-set got any real traction, either positive or negative, from the participant loading onto this factor. It would seem that this is an interesting finding given how patterns of responses featured in the other factors seem to more or less focus on the notion of consent in their articulation of sexual violence. On the one hand, however, this pattern of response might indicate audience saturation with sexual violence messages that focus on increasing audiences understanding of the concept of consent. In this way, the importance of consent may already be so ingrained and taken-for-granted that the participant loading onto this factor did not feel the need to articulate the issue any further. Nevertheless, it would seem that there is an important need for further research into how to effectively communicate and articulate issues concerning consent in

sexual violence awareness/intervention poster materials in a way that resonates with intended audiences.

In terms of sexual violence prevention, the distinguishing statement in this factor shows strong disagreement with the idea that standing up to peer groups is hard shown in Table 14 (27: -5). However, statements pertaining to specific mechanisms with which to challenge problematic peer behaviour did not gain much traction (28: +1; 29: +1). Additionally, what seems to be missing from this account is recognition of the possibility of alternative masculine subjectivities that openly and actively play a role in addressing sexual violence issues (24: +1). Finally, of central importance is the fact that the participant loading onto this factor agreed strongly that sexual violence cannot be excused (16: +5), and that everyone has a role to play in preventing sexual violence (45: 4). "*Excuses are what perpetuates rape culture and silences survivors of sexual violence; the act of a rape is a conscious decision made on the behalf of someone denying someone else's dignity – perpetrators too often rely on discourses that excuse their behaviour and this should not be tolerated"* (participant 16). In this way, this factor shows agreement with the notion of collective responsibility for sexual violence and highlights the important need for sexual violence intervention strategies that provide specific bystander techniques to engage audiences with the task of challenging problematic peer and social behaviour.

4.8 Summary:

Overall, in looking at patterns of audience subjectivity, the analysis revealed strong disagreement with stereotypical notions of sexual violence and messages that represent sexual violence as premeditated sexual predation in public spaces. Instead, participants' patterns of responses indicate agreement with messages that represent sexual violence as a phenomenon that occurs within the context of an intimate relationship and/or acquaintance relationships. Specifically, constructions of sexual violence that highlight women's inherent vulnerability and messages that explicitly warn women of the behaviours that they should not engage in (e.g. the use of alcohol and the flaunting of their sexuality), generally did not find purchase amongst this participant sample. Furthermore, analysis reveals patterns of responses that show disagreement with messages that locate the cause of sexual violence in the seemingly uncontrollable sexual urges of men. Additionally, messages that construct the perpetrators of sexual violence as sexual deviants or psychologically pathological were to a large degree strongly

disagreed with and there was resistance to the idea that sexual violence is inevitable demonstrated by participants. Importantly, participants in this study largely adopted discursive positions that locate the cause of sexual violence in dominant and violent masculinities. This pattern of response to messages about sexual violence would seem to indicate general agreement with the idea that sexual violence is not exclusively a heterosexual phenomenon and that many aspects of hetero-normative heterosexuality and associated masculinities are complicit in the perpetration of sexual violence.

Another striking feature of participants' patterns of responses was agreement with understandings of sexual violence that hinge on legalistic definitions of rape that concern the issue of consent, or the lack thereof. However, participants in this study seemed to adopt varied and somewhat contradictory positions on the topic of consent. It has been argued that this highlights the important need for poster messages about sexual violence to engage audiences in dialogue concerning communication and developing a culture of enthusiastic consent to replace one of assumed consent and entitlement, and notions of consent that are framed negatively as the ability to say no to sex. Overall, patterns of audience subjectivity show more nuanced recognition of the complexity of sexual violence and the many positions adopted by participants resist the reproduction of a pathologising discourse regarding the perpetrators of sexual violence. Importantly, participants in this sample also show critical reflection on some of the taken-for-granted assumptions about sex and relationships and highlight the need to challenge the way in which masculinities are enacted in the context of addressing sexual violence issues.

Finally, it is important to note that certain patterns of responses indicate ambiguity concerning how men might engage critically with interrogating their own position in relation to sexual violence phenomena. It would seem that this position was demonstrated by a number of male participants in this study. This highlights the need for messages about sexual violence contained in poster campaigns to more explicitly invite audiences to engage in honest and continual communication in relationships and sexual relations. This effectively means shifting the discourses that are contained in poster campaigns from offering audiences a prohibition on behaviours in order to offer a more active engagement and clear articulation of what ethical and/or moral ways of being might entail in sexual relationships. Specifically, there is the need for messages regarding sexual violence to invite male audiences to reflect on their own relationship behaviours and what sorts of dynamics of coercion they

may be complicit in reproducing and to engage in ways in which masculinities might be enacted differently. Given what might indicate resistance on the behalf of certain male participants in this study, it is argued that this sort of ethical position should be framed in such a way that it invites both male and female audiences to critically reflect on the ways in which relationships and sex might be enacted differently.

Chapter Five: Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1 Introduction:

The previous chapter included a section on the results from the analysis of audience reception of messages about sexual violence, highlighting some of the subject positions that participants adopted in relation to messages about sexual violence contained in a range of sexual violence awareness and prevention posters. The findings from the analysis sought to discern some of the ways in which sexual violence messages were taken up or responded to by an intended audience. Given these considerations, this final chapter provides some recommendations to potentially inform the development of focused intervention strategies and rape awareness material, tailored to the specific context from which participants were drawn. It must be noted that these recommendations are conditional and should be carefully evaluated against specific and on-going contextual circumstances and needs. Firstly, some of the strengths and limitations of the study will be outlined below.

5.2 Summary of the Findings:

5.2.1 Resisting Stereotypical Constructions of Sexual Violence:

Overall, it emerged that participants strongly disagreed with understandings of sexual violence that are built upon stereotypical representations of rape involving unknown, or predatory and male perpetrators preying on vulnerable women victims. Literature highlights a steadfast tradition in anti-rape poster campaigns to highlight sexual violence as sexual predation in public spaces (with women typically conceived as victims and men as perpetrators) (Carmody, 2005; Hall, 2005). Such depictions serve as a straight-forward reproduction of culturally held rape-myths concerning 'stranger-danger' (the idea that sexual violence is committed by sexual predators, who are unknown to victims) (Carmody, 2005). It is argued that such stereotypical constructions of sexual violence are complicit in perpetuating victim-blaming attitudes, rape myths and discourses of gender, sex and sexuality that contribute to sexual violence (Anderson & Doherty, 2008).

As discussed, the analysis revealed that stereotypical constructions of sexual violence do not seem to resonate with this participant sample in the context of responding to messages about sexual violence contained in poster campaigns. Therefore, it is argued that sexual violence intervention or prevention strategies should desist from reproducing social representations of sexual violence premised on the

notion of ‘stranger-danger’ and underlying hetero-normative discourses. This effectively means a shift from a reliance on risk avoidance strategies that typically target women to focus on addressing the complex and multifaceted nature of circumstances surrounding sexual violence (Campbell, 2005). Specifically, it is argued that depictions of what constitutes sexually violent behaviour in rape awareness material needs to be made more inclusive of the spectrum of sexually harassing, coercive and violent behaviours, as well as different types of relationships, sexual orientations, settings and possibilities for categories of victims and perpetrators. This suggestion aligns well with literature highlighting sexual violence as a continuum of coercive behaviours that often form part of (hetero) sexual relations (Gavey, 2005).

Furthermore, it is argued that in order to reframe issues of risk in relation to sexual violence, there is a need to move toward a specific engagement with understandings of sexual violence in the context of intimate and/or acquaintance relationships. In this way, sexual violence should be highlighted as an issue often related to the dynamics of communication in relationships and the level of emotional literacy on the behalf of both parties involved (Moore, 2015). Furthermore, intervention strategies should make visible the possibility of sexual violence outside the confines of heterosexual relations and provide representations of sexual violence circumstances, victims and perpetrators that are more inclusive of various social identities. This means explicitly troubling stereotypical constructions of sexual violence, including normative understandings of heterosexuality, and male and female sexuality in constructions of sexual violence portrayed in sexual violence awareness materials.

5.2.2 Reframing Consent:

A popular approach within many sexual violence prevention programmes focuses on increasing audience understandings of the concept of consent as a primary means of reducing rates of sexual violence (Beres, 2014). Integral to this approach is literature concerning the “miscommunication hypothesis”, which asserts that miscommunication is highly prevalent within heterosexual relationships and ultimately leads to instances of sexual coercion (Beres, 2014). In this study, a common discursive theme highlights agreement with the notion that consent, or rather its absence, is a determining factor when defining sexual violence. As such, it is noted that the many ways that participants spoke about sexual violence articulate an understanding of consent as the difference between rape and consensual sex. These findings would seem to suggest that it might be useful for

intervention or awareness-raising strategies to utilise consent as a tool for engaging target audiences on sexual violence to increase audience understandings of this complex topic.

Nevertheless, it is noted that participants largely articulated their understanding of consent negatively framed, that is, as “the ability to say no to sex”. Therefore, it is argued that there is an important need to increase audience understandings of the concept of consent to specifically include more positive definitions. In this way, sexual violence intervention strategies should attempt to shift discussions of consent from a focus on simply communicating the message “no” to a focus on communicating an enthusiastic and conditional “yes”. This effectively means that there is a need for sexual violence awareness materials to foreground and place emphasis on the important need for audiences to engage in on-going and enthusiastic negotiations of consent in sexual relations. As such, intervention strategies and messages about sexual violence should place emphasis on the active negotiation of a conditional, positive and enthusiastic “yes” to sexual activity, involving all parties.

As previously discussed, there is a need for future research into how to effectively communicate and increase audience understandings of the complex topic of consent in a way that resonates with their understandings of sex and relationships. It is important to note that the notion of consent (typically defined in terms of the absence or presence of consent) is often undermined or rendered impossible by structural and gender power relations within the South African context (Du Toit, 2007). As such, it has been argued that the notion of consent relies too much on an assumption of individual agency, which is potentially compromised by aspects of gendered power relations (Du Toit, 2007). Given these considerations, participants’ articulations of their understandings of consent might indicate some uncertainty concerning how to actively navigate consent in sexual relations marked by male power, male sexual entitlement and other subtle forms of coercive. In this way, it is argued that any construction of consent should be communicated in such a way that resonates with people’s understanding of sex and relationships and that is experienced as meaningful and relevant to a particular context (Beres, 2014). Thus, it might be useful for messages about sexual violence to focus on highlighting aspects and dynamics of coercive sexual circumstances as an alternative strategy for educating audiences on the topic of consent.

5.2.3 Risk and Alcohol Use:

In this study, participants reiterated an alcohol positive perspective in relation to their understanding of sexual violence. This pattern of response is not surprising given the research context from which participants were drawn, within which drinking-positive attitudes are to be somewhat expected (Young & De Klerk, 2008). As such, it is argued that the focus on alcohol as a risk factor for sexual violence in many public awareness materials focused on sexual violence may be alienating target audiences, particularly those constituting university-aged populations. Furthermore, participants' resistance to such messages might indicate the limitations of messages about sexual violence that draw on moralistic discourses of behaviour regulation and risk avoidance strategies (Campbell, 2005). Additionally, it is argued that risk reduction and avoidance strategies of this type might be limited in their overall effectiveness in the way in which they focus on targeting potential victims, rather than addressing the drinking behaviours of potential perpetrators (Campbell, 2005). Literature would also seem to suggest that messages about sexual violence that perpetuate discourses of risk avoidance might also have the effect of reproducing victim-blaming attitudes and beliefs (Gavey, 2005).

Nevertheless, it is noted that whilst alcohol related discourses in sexual violence awareness materials are limited in their overall effectiveness; this is not to deny that alcohol usage does indeed constitute a risk factor for exposure to sexual violence, particularly within a university population which might exhibit high-risk behaviour (Young & De Klerk, 2008). Given these considerations, there is an important need to raise awareness of how alcohol is used to facilitate sexual violence. However, messages about sexual violence that highlight the link between alcohol usage and the exposure to sexual violence should be constructed in such a way that does not perpetuate victim-blaming attitudes and alienate potential audiences.

5.2.4 Pro-Social Bystander Behaviour:

The research findings indicate that bystander intervention strategies to sexual violence are potentially useful in terms of engaging potential audiences on the topic of rape and other forms of sexual violence. As previously discussed, participants in this sample strongly disagreed with stereotypical representations of sexual violence and associated rape myths. This is an important consideration given research that highlights greater rape myth acceptance as a significant deterrent to bystander intervention (Burn, 2009; McMahon, 2010). Nevertheless, participants' responses indicate a clear lack

of awareness about what constitutes effective bystander actions and behaviour. Therefore, there is an important need to incorporate more pro-social behaviour modelling within such campaigns. Research in the university context in the United States suggests that poster campaigns using the bystander approach may be effective at encouraging pro-social behaviour change in relation to sexual violence (Potter et al., 2012). Importantly, it has been found that the effectiveness of such interventions relies on audiences' ability to develop a sense of personal and collective responsibility as well developing bystander competencies to identify high-risk situations (McMahon & Banyard, 2012). In this way, skills development is a vital component of effective bystander intervention to facilitate a shift from bystander apathy to proactive bystander behaviour (McMahon & Banyard, 2012). While there is recognition that sexual violence awareness and prevention posters, as a part of bystander intervention, will not solely achieve the aim of reducing rates of sexual violence (Potter et al., 2012). It is argued that developing bystander themed posters aimed at reducing sexual violence can contribute towards shifting public and community ethos that supports such behaviour change.

5.2.5 Addressing Male Peer Culture:

It has been highlighted throughout this thesis how the South African context is characterised by high levels of violence and coercive sexual practices, particularly within intimate partner relationships (Seedat et al., 2009). Furthermore, hetero-normative and patriarchal social values within South African society have resulted in unequal gender power relations that facilitate gender violence as a normalised aspect of everyday life (Gqola, 2015). Give these considerations, the findings from this study highlight the important need for anti-sexual violence poster campaigns aimed at attitude and behaviour change to pose critical questions regarding the assumed normalcy of currently dominant masculine ways of being and relating within relationships. Furthermore, it is argued that interventions need to find ways of engaging South African men, particularly, about many of the aspects of contextually located masculinities that are complicit in the perpetuation of a violent culture. As such, it might be useful for intervention strategies to seek to deconstruct and trouble hetero-normative and patriarchal constructions of masculinities and femininities as well as provide more flexible and gendered subjectivities to audiences. However, this should be undertaken in a way that stresses the interconnectedness of individual behaviours and broader socio-cultural value systems that perpetuate sexual violence within a particular context. Overall, it is argued that poster campaigns targeting sexual violence need to more directly engage audiences on aspects of individual and peer-group norms that

contribute to sexual violence phenomena. Furthermore, in seeking to encourage men to acknowledge that sexual coercion may not be a problem concerning "other" men, such an approach may be effective in prompting individual men to reflect on, and interrogate their own behaviours and behaviours.

5.3 Limitations of the Research:

This section will outline some limitations to this study. Firstly, one of the important the limitations of the study pertains to the fact that the P-set consisted of only 23 participants. Aforementioned is the fact that participants were difficult to recruit. It is argued that the extremely prominent issue of sexual violence and the problematising of sexual violence in the national media may have influence low response rates where oversaturation with debates about sexual violence amongst the target population might have negatively impacted participation as people may feel fatigued with such debates.

Therefore, I was inclusive in my discussion of identified factors for the sake of engaging in a fruitful discussion of the results. Importantly, a consequence of being overinclusive is that I may have overstated the strength of factors in the interpretation and the results should therefore be viewed with some caution in terms of suggestions and implications for future studies. Furthermore, the small participant sample effectively means that the number of participants linked to each factor was relatively small. Therefore, it is argued that a larger number of participants might have provided a greater range of discursive subject positions and insight into the attitudinal positions that potential audiences might express in relation to messages regarding sexual violence in sexual violence awareness materials. As such, the participant sample does not claim to be representative of the population from which participants were drawn but rather seeks to elicit and explore a diversity of views on sexual violence.

Another issue concerns the transferability of the findings of this study. As previously discussed, the statements that constituted the Q-set in this study were distilled from a range of international poster campaigns against sexual violence. While such international poster campaigns may not directly reflect local understandings of sexual violence, it is argued that the findings from this study provide some insights into the discursive subject positions that an intended audience express in their attitudinal responses to the messages regarding sexual violence, and that might be useful in informing the

development of more effective and focused intervention strategies and sexual violence awareness materials tailored to the specific context from which participants were drawn.

5.4 Concluding Comments:

By way of conclusion, it is useful to reflect on ways in which the various discursive positions on sexual violence identified in this study may be drawn on, adopted or responded to in the development of intervention poster materials aimed at sexual violence in the local, South African context. The analysis of messages regarding sexual violence in this study highlights some potential recommendations for the development of such poster campaigns tailored specifically to the local context which will be discussed below.

The findings also suggest that the focus on the potential for sexual violence within the context of intimate relationships is a useful aspect of the discourses drawn on by participants, particularly in relation to the strong emphasis placed on the development of a consent culture. Furthermore, it has been noted that the South African context is one in which traditional ideals of masculinities are noted (Böhmke et al., 2015; Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002; Gqola, 2015) and thus the task of attitude and behaviour change is arguably much more difficult to achieve if it requires the complete reinvention of the wheel in terms of cultural ideals and expectations for gender performance. In this way, drawing on characteristics of and ideals already associated with the socially desirable performance of masculinity, such as strength, assertiveness, self-control and agency in the service of developing attitudes and behaviours in relationships that do not support sexual violence appears to be an promising strategy that could be further developed locally (Böhmke et al., 2015).

Clearly, it is important to remain cognisant of the potential consequences of uncritically or unintentionally reproducing notions of gendered subjectivities that are complicit in the perpetuation of the sexual violence phenomenon. I have argued that it is important for messages regarding sexual violence to resist reproducing characterisations of masculine hetero-sexuality that naturalise sexually aggressive and coercive behaviours alongside notions of femininity as passive, vulnerable, and ultimately responsible for managing the risk of sexual violence, such as have been highlighted in the analysis section. Such constructions are arguably unhelpful and make it possible to reproduce victim-

blaming attitudes and practices, and a sense that the perpetrators of sexual violence cannot be individually held accountable for their actions.

Overall, it is argued that messages aimed at the presentation of an ethical subject position for audiences to take up a critical stance in relation to sexual violence are preferable as a means of engaging audiences with issues related to sexual violence and consent over strategies that seek to regulate behaviours through messages of prohibition. Consequently, it is important to ensure that discursive strategies that aim to challenge or trouble the ways in which collective understandings of sexual violence phenomenon avoid reproducing messages concerning sexual violence that reproduce fixed constructions of “perpetrator” or “victim”, or certain forms of behaviour and practices. It is my contention that such openness in the discursive constructions drawn on the depiction of sexual violence in sexual violence awareness or prevention poster campaigns may prove to be a useful way to keep dialogue open to poster audiences to engage critically with their own assumptions regarding sexual violence and the nuance and complexity of the issues surrounding rape and sexual violence in the South African context.

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APPENDIX 1

Figure 1: Development of the Q-set (Thematised list of statements extracted from poster campaigns)

Posters	Discursive Theme	Statements developed for the Concourse
	Alcohol as Risk Factor	Drinking alcohol undermines the capacity to consent
		Alcohol is a risk factor for Sexual violence
		Public drinking spaces are dangerous spaces
		Drinking is being reckless with safety
		Women should avoid drinking too much
		Perpetrators use alcohol as a date rape drug
	Consent	Consent means the ability to say no to sex
		Consent is also about enthusiastically saying "yes"
		Consent is always conditional
		Consent is the difference between sex and rape
		Consent is a joint decision
		A person's wish to not have sex takes precedence
		All men can recognize when consent is absent
		Men put pressure on their partners to have sex
	Sexual Predation	Sexual violence is committed by sexual predators
		Sexual violence frequently happens in the university context
	Sexual violence as Trauma	Sexual violence always includes physical assault
		Sexual violence is a horrific experience
	Hegemonic Masculinities	Men are expected to be the initiators of sex
		Men often feel entitled to sex
		Sexual violence happens when men cannot control their sexual desires
		Men will often take advantage of vulnerability
		Dominant forms of masculinity are problematic

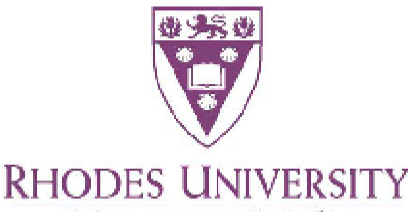
	Alternative Masculinities	Masculinity can take numerous forms
		Men are capable of showing sexual restraint
		Men should respect sexual refusals from women
	Bystander Interventions	Standing up to peer groups is hard
		Men should not tolerate abusive behaviour from other men
		Men should intervene to stop sexual harassment
		Everyone has a role to play in preventing Sexual violence
		Women can intervene in Sexual violence
		It is our responsibility to look out for our friends
		Women struggle to deal with unwanted attention
	Psychological Deviance	Rapists are psychologically disturbed
		Perpetrators of sexual violence have no emotional literacy
		Perpetrators cannot recognize where consent is missing
		Perpetrators choose to rape
	Stereotypical Representations	Men are the perpetrators of Sexual violence against women
		Women are the victims of Sexual violence
		Sexual violence mostly happens between men and women
		Sexual violence is inevitable
		People will take advantage of vulnerability
		Women should protect themselves against Sexual violence
	Alternative representations	Men can be victims of Sexual violence

APPENDIX 2

Figure 2: Q-sort grid

-6						
-5						
-4						
-3						
-2						
-1						
1						
2						
3						
4						
5						
6						

APPENDIX 3: ETHICAL CLEARANCE LETTER



RHODES UNIVERSITY

Grahamstown • 6140 • South Africa

PSYCHOLOGY DEPARTMENT • Tel: (046) 603 8500 / 85001 • Fax: (046) 622 4032 • e-mail: psychology@ru.ac.za

RESEARCH PROPOSAL AND ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

17 May 2018

Rachel Bennie
Department of Psychology
RHODES UNIVERSITY
6140

Dear Rachel
ETHICS APPLICATION: PSY2018/23

This letter confirms your ethical protocol with tracking number PSY2018/23 and title, 'A Q-Methodological approach to audience reception of public awareness messages on sexual violence', was reviewed by the Research Proposal and Ethics Review Committee (RPERC) of the Psychology Department of Rhodes University on 26 April 2018. The committee decision was APPROVED WITH STIPULATIONS. The stipulations are that gatekeeper permission must be sought and evidence of this permission forwarded to this committee.

The RPERC is a subcommittee of RUESC and therefore this decision will be ratified at the next RUESC meeting.

Please ensure that the RPERC is notified should any substantive change(s) be made, for whatever reason, during the research process. This includes changes in investigators. This clearance is valid for 12 months from the date of this letter.

Yours sincerely

Prof Lisa Saville Young
CHAIRPERSON OF THE RPERC

Tel: (046) 603 8500/8501 e-mail: psychology@ru.ac.za

APPENDIX 4: PARTICIPANT RECRUITMENT POSTER

PARTICIPANTS NEEDED FOR PSYCHOLOGY MASTER'S RESEARCH ON SEXUAL VIOLENCE AWARENESS POSTERS

This project aims is to develop an understanding of how sexual violence prevention material is received by intended audiences and how they take up discursive positions in relation to this material.

Primary Researcher: Rachel Bennie, Masters in Counselling Psychology student.

Research Supervisor: Werner Böhmke, Lecturer in the Department of Psychology

Participants should be:

- Registered students at the University, between the ages of 18 to 25 years.
- Prepared to participate in a guided group discussion activity lasting approximately 45mins

*Refreshments and a light lunch will be provided during the data collection

Please take careful note of the following:

- The project has been given ethics clearance from both the Research Projects and Ethics Review Committee (RPERC) in the Psychology Department.
- **Participation is completely voluntary** and you will have the right to withdraw from the study at any time.
- **No identifying information will be collected** and your identity will be protected in any written, recorded and published material.
- **No personal experiences of sexual violence will be discussed**.
- Individuals who have had experiences of sexual violence will not necessarily be excluded from the study. **The topic of Sexual violence is, however, a sensitive issue. If you anticipate that you may find participation in research of this nature triggering or upsetting, please do not volunteer to take part**.
- Should participants at any point become aware that **participation in the research (during or after data collection) is causing them distress, they are advised to contact the Rhodes' student counselling centre for support** on 046 603 7070 or counsellingcentre@ru.ac.za.
- For more information, or to volunteer, please contact:
  Rachel Bennie: g12b1586@campus.ru.ac.

APPENDIX 5: PARTICIPANT INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I ____ agree to participate in the research project of Rachel Bennie on "A Q-Methodological approach to audience reception of public awareness messages on sexual violence".

I understand that:

1) The researcher is a student conducting the research as part of the requirements for a Master's degree in Counselling Psychology at Rhodes University. The researcher may be contacted on g12b1586@campus.ru.ac.za. The research project is under the supervision of Mr Werner Böhmke in the Psychology Department at Rhodes University, who may be contacted on W.R.Bohmke@ru.ac.za. The project has been given ethics clearance from both the Research Projects and Ethics Review Committee (RPERC) in the Psychology Department.

2) The purpose of the study is to explore audience reception of messages regarding sexual violence in a range of sexual violence awareness materials. The main aim of the study is to develop an understanding of how sexual violence prevention material is received by intended audiences and how they take up discursive positions in relation to this material.

3) I will be required to participate in a guided group discussion activity lasting approximately 45minutes.

4) I understand that participating in the research to deliberate issues pertaining to sexual violence may augment my understanding of the phenomenon of sexual violence.

5) I understand that there is the potential risk that participating in the research may cause me or others a degree of emotional distress or discomfort due to the sensitive and controversial nature of the topic under investigation.

6) I understand that the primary researcher has considered and will take the necessary precautions to avoid causing undue harm or discomfort to research participants.

7) I am aware that a short debriefing session will take place at the end of the session and that I am invited to voice to the primary researcher any concerns I have about my participation in the study, or consequences I may experience as a result of my participation and to have these addressed to my satisfaction. A counselling centre may be contacted for further support on 046 603 7070 or counsellingcentre@ru.ac.za.

8) I am free to withdraw from the study at any time – however I commit myself to full participation unless some unusual circumstances occur, or I have concerns about my participation which I did not originally anticipate.

9) I understand that no personal experiences of sexual violence will be discussed during the research. The content of the group session will not be discussed outside of the session to maintain confidentiality of the other participants.

10) I understand that participant code numbers will be used to protect my identity in any written, recorded and published material and I am aware of the researcher's rights to publish sections of data collected, subject to the requirements of participant confidentiality and anonymity.

11) I understand that the data collected will be secured on password protected electronic files and I am aware that this data will be stored for possible re-use.

Signed on (Date):

Participant: ___________________________

Researcher: ___________________________

APPENDIX 6: POST-SORT QUESTIONNAIRE

A Q-Methodological approach to audience reception of public awareness messages on sexual violence.

Gender:

Age:

Race:

Home Language:

1) Please comment on the statements you most strongly agreed with.
2) Please comment on the statements you most strongly disagreed with.
3) Please comment on the statements you found particularly difficult to decide on.
4) Please suggest possible additional statements to be included in the set.