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Victim Blaming and the Swedish Consent Law

A Swedish vignette experiment investigating the effectiveness of the Law of Consent on normative attitudes towards victim blaming

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Master's Thesis in Economics, 30 HEC
Spring 2021
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Acknowledgements

There are a number of individuals we would like to express our deepest and most sincere gratitude for on their contribution throughout the completion of this thesis.

To our supervisor, Annika Lindskog, for her helpful insights and feedback during the writing process.

To Eva Ranehill for her eye-opening suggestions, valuable critique, and endless encouragement and support from the conception of our idea to its culmination.

To our fellow Handels classmates for lending their invaluable time to offer us the necessary feedback, reassurance, and inspiration.

To our dearest friends who have continually cheered us on and have been a source in boosting our serotonin.

Finally, to our beloved families. We owe it all to you.

A special dedication to my late Lolo Delfin B. Rosario - K. R.

Abstract

Victim blaming is the misplacement of blame, to a degree, on the victim. This can cause heavy societal and economical burdens on the victim, especially when the victim is a woman. This study contributes to an expanding literature on social norms, the law, and economics, focusing on the expressive effect of the law as one of the main channels that can shape societal norms. An online vignette survey was conducted, randomly allocating respondents to either a treatment or control group, whereby one group received information about the Swedish law of consent and the other did not, respectively. This was conducted in a Swedish context using students from a variety of educational institutions in Västra Götaland's county (N=1,410). This study has found that being informed of the law did not have any statistical significance on reducing victim blame compared to not being informed. Nevertheless, we find strong evidence that women place less victim blame than men.

Keywords: *norms, law, economics, consent, victim blame, rape, beliefs, attitudes, behaviour, vignette, expressive effect*

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1 Introduction

In light of gender issues increasingly garnering greater importance, particularly those regarding women's issues, this paper investigates a persistent subject: victim blaming. Victim blaming, as the name suggests, is understood to attribute the blame for an offence, at least to some degree, to the victim (Adolfsson & Strömwall, 2017), regarding all degrees of physical, mental, emotional, and sexual abuse. Whereby, victim blaming has been found to be more prevalent in rape cases than other types of crime (Bieneck & Krahé, 2011) and what this study will have its focus on. In recent years, and in light of the #MeToo movement[1], increasingly more victims are coming forward with their stories of abuse. However, this is being met with backlash from individuals who construe the "delay" in reporting the incident to correlate with the unlikelihood of the incident. This misplacement of blame towards the victim, especially a female victim, can cause them to be ostracised and mistreated by those that surround them.

Several statistics such as Miller, Cohen, and Wiersema (1996); Peterson, DeGue, Florence, and Lokey (2017) and Peterson et al. (2018) has shown that the societal and individual costs of rape are a huge problem. Miller et al. (1996) state that the annual economic losses of rape in the United States (US) alone is estimated to be more costly than any other type of crime at a staggering $127 billion in 1993. The total amount is based on the statistics that there were approximately 1.5 million victims of rape, which personally accounted for $87,000 loss as a result of the rape. Next, Peterson et al. (2017) has found that a minimum of 25 million adults in the US has been raped and that the total economic cost for the society, across the lifetime of a victim, was $3.1 trillion in 2014. Of these $3.1 trillion, 52% represented wage loss, 39% went to medical costs, 8% to criminal justice activities and 1% categorised as other costs. Furthermore, Peterson et al. (2018) observe that both male and female victims of sexual violence, stalking, physical violence, and psychological aggression can be calculated to a societal short-term cost (i.e. the immediate effect of missing out of work of school) of loss in productivity at a total of $110 billion in 2016. In addition, the authors state that looking at the individual economic burden culminate to nearly $122,461 across the lifetimes of survivors.

According to the health care coordinator Evelius (2019), the severe increase in mental illness in Sweden account for an estimated cost of 200 billion SEK annually, making up for 5% of the country's

[1] A social movement that went viral in 2017, drawing attention to the magnitude of the problem of sexual harassment, especially amongst prominent figures in the media, entertainment, and political atmosphere. This was intended to create a platform in solidarity of survivors and a decisive campaign for more effective policymaking (Frye, 2018)

GDP. In addition, the World Health Organization (WHO, 2011) predicts that depression will be the most common disease burden, globally, by the year 2030. Hence, all individuals should do what is in their power to prevent these causes, such as the psychological impact those victims of rape crimes experience (Peterson et al., 2017). Moreover, Insel (2008) and Knapp (2003) identify that the costs of mental disorders are classified under the category of indirect costs. A cost that is often overlooked and constitute several substantial economic repercussions such as a reduction in labour supply, public income support payments, social care, reduced educational attainment, etc. Similarly, Doran and Kinchin (2017) found that mental illnesses also reduce, in addition to what has already been mentioned, the likelihood of a good quality of life. The importance of these indirect costs being addressed is that they make for good indications in the formation of public policy, despite being difficult to quantify (Insel, 2008).

Investigating the Swedish aspect further, The Swedish Gender Equality Agency states in Sweden's gender equality policy that both women and men should have the same power to form the society and their own lives. This does, for example, include an equal distribution of economic opportunities and working terms by having the same right to health care the deterrence of male violence against women (Jämställdhetsmyndigheten, 2021). Between the years 2015 and 2017, Sweden had roughly 150 convicted rape crimes per the Swedish National Council for Crime Prevention, BRÅ (2020a, 2020b). And on July 1, 2018, the Swedish government implemented the Law of Consent (i.e., Samtyckeslagen [SFS 1962:700]) defining the absence of consent between two parties in a sexual engagement as cause for conviction and is thus termed as negligent rape. This term is comparable to its more severe counterpart, rape crime, where the determinant of this conviction is based on the occurrence of violence, threat, force, or being in a particularly vulnerable situation. The implementation of this law in 2018 allows us enough time to investigate the potency of the law on attitudes towards victim blaming, thereby seeing the effectiveness that a formal institution has on adjusting informal institutions. Through the adjustment of societal norms, the development of laws on stricter consequences of committing rape may lead to a reduction in this crime being committed. Additionally, shifting the perceptions of blame towards the victim to the perpetrator instead.

Since the law of consent was implemented, the number of convicted rape crimes increased from approximately 200 cases during 2018 to about 300 in 2019. The amount convicted of negligent rape is relatively low compared to the convicted rape crimes (BRÅ, 2020a, 2020b). According to (BRÅ, 2020a), cases of reported rape, in 2019, were 92% against women/girls and 8% against men/boys. This

seemingly overwhelming crime against women may be over-or underestimated considering the number of crimes that go unreported, the number of failed convictions, and other unreliable rape statistics. This has proven to be the case in, for example, the US criminal justice system (RAINN, 2020), where they show that the majority of sexual assault cases (310 out of 1,000, or more than 2 out of 3) go unreported. Some of the top underlying reasons behind this are that victims fear retaliation and lack of action. Even though convicted negligent rapes have not increased as much as convicted rape crimes after the law was implemented, the consent law seems to have had a greater effect than expected according to Stina Holmberg (Research and Investigation Council BRÅ). Holmberg believes that fewer victims blame themselves for what happened and that it is possibly one reason for the increase in both prosecuted and convicted rape cases (BRÅ, 2020b). More so, it can be argued that the statistics show that the law can act as a signal that may have an impact on numerous factors such as the perception of rape in terms of police approach to rape victims, or that perpetrators are held more accountable and thus sentenced more, to name a few.

The current state of the literature on this topic could be identified as sparse. Sparse in the sense that the topic of norms and their importance in the economic field, in terms of policymaking, is yet to be fully explored. Currently, there is also no determined or consistent variables used to measure victim blame that can be directly compared between research articles and in different contextual forms. We bridge the gap by being one of the first, to the extent of our knowledge, of exploring the effects of the Swedish consent law on victim blaming. As well as expanding the diversity and proportion of our sample by observing individuals at different educational backgrounds and levels, albeit still being a student sample.

It is in our belief that our research is highly relevant in the current social climate and contributes to another perspective on the strife to gender equality in society and the detriments of policymaking in shifting societal norms, and vice versa. The increase in attention on the development of gender equality, especially the displacement of blame and maltreatment of female victims in sexual abuse cases, as well as the downplaying of consequences and perpetrator responsibility, drove our fascination to investigate the economic complications and the potency of legislative solutions. Our epistemological position is that receiving information about the law of consent should lead to a reduction of victim blame in the individual's responses when answering questions concerning a vignette. Similarly, that women, regardless of the group they are assigned to, should place less victim blame than their male counterparts. The research question that guides this paper is, therefore, "does being informed about the

law of consent have an impact on the individual's measured degree of victim blaming?".

Without readily accessible data, such as a census, we implement an online vignette survey experiment randomly assigning students from different levels and fields of educational background to either a treatment or control group. Our final sample size is 1,410 respondents from all educational institutions within the Västra Götaland county. The treatment group receives information regarding the Swedish consent law before the vignette of a hypothetical rape scenario, whilst the control group does not receive this information. Two of our main hypotheses focus on the reduction in victim blaming whereby differences between treatment and control group is identified by the provision of information, as well as differences between women and men is identified. Furthermore, we analyse whether there are any significant effects on the perception of whether the hypothetical scenario would be considered as rape between said groups.

Our results indicate that we cannot, with certainty, conclude that there is any statistically significant effect of the information transmission received by those allocated to the treatment group in the reduction of victim blame. However, we do find that the results indicate that women are less likely to place blame on the victim than do their male counterparts. Interestingly, we also find that individuals in the treatment group are significantly less likely to consider the scenario as rape to a greater extent than those in the control group.

The paper is outlined as follows; in Section 2, the literature review describes previous research carried out within the area of victim blaming, as well as the norms and law from an economic perspective. This is followed by a comprehensive look into the theoretical basis of social norms in economics and the hypotheses drawn from the literature in Section 3. Next, Section 4 outlines the data collection process and the methodology chosen in line with the equations complementing the stated hypotheses. Section 5 presents the results and a thorough analysis of our tested hypotheses. Lastly, Section 6 begins with a discussion of the possible explanations behind the results retrieved relating to previous findings, then highlighting the limitations of the study, ethical considerations, and suggestions for further research.

2 Literature Review

A large strand of literature has addressed victim blaming by commonly using fictive rape scenarios as a measure (Acock & Ireland, 1983; Adolfsson & Strömwall, 2017; Bieneck & Krahé, 2011; Grubb & Harrower, 2008; Strömwall, Alfredsson, & Landström, 2013; Ståhl, Eek, & Kazemi, 2010). The

following literature on victim blaming is more frequently done in the field of psychology rather than economics. However, we note that the literature on victim blaming can also be translated into an economic context with the integration of laws and norms.

To be able to understand the full extent of what is meant by blame attribution, and more specifically victim blaming, the definition set by Adolfsson and Strömwall (2017) provides us with the foundation for our study stating that, "victim blaming is understood as attributing the blame for an offence, at least to some degree, to the victim" (p.527). They also extend the degree of victimisation by categorising it between risks of primary and secondary victimisation, whereby the first is the actual crime being exposed to, and the latter is what will be mostly focused on in our study, which includes victims being mistrusted, blamed, or badly treated by people in their surroundings, by the justice system, and by mental healthcare professionals. The risk of primary victimisation is undoubtedly also of immense importance, as it addresses the physical and psychological sexual transgression by the victim that can lead to an array of illnesses, but in the context of economics and the field of our study, it is out of our scope.

Nearly all studies mentioned below share the same essence of investigating blame attribution on victims in rape cases, but there is no consistent assessment of the methodology, nor the variables of interest used for each study. For example, the study by Grubb and Harrower (2008) looked simply into victim blaming in rape scenarios using brief vignettes and interviews. Their result shows that men to a greater extent than women blame the victim. Nevertheless, Grubb and Harrower (2008)'s result is not optimal in terms of observed effects due to several factors either being very small or inconsistent. Additionally, several other works of literature have found that women place less victim blame than their male counterparts (Adolfsson, 2018; Kleinke & Meyer, 1990; Kanekar, Pinto, & Mazumdar, 1985; Brekke & Borgida, 1988; Calhoun, Selby, & Warring, 1976; Deitz, Littman, & Bentley, 1984). However, in its entirety, there have been no conclusive results on any particular gender differences on the attribution of victim blame, especially within Swedish research (Adolfsson & Strömwall, 2017; Strömwall et al., 2013).

Another instance, the studies were done by Strömwall et al. (2013) and Adolfsson and Strömwall (2017) investigating blame attributions on victims by looking at effects of the belief in a just world, gender and age of the participant, sympathy for the victim, trust in the justice system, acceptance of rape myths, and the level of victim-perpetrator relationship. The results found in Strömwall et al. (2013) showed that the effect of participant age and gender presented mixed results, whilst personal beliefs and

attitudes were more important in explaining levels of attributed blame than situation-specific variables. These studies were conducted in a Swedish context providing a firm basis for our analysis as we also conduct our study in Sweden.

In the study by Bieneck and Krahé (2011), they examined the hypothesis of a special leniency bias in rape cases by comparing them to cases of robbery. The descriptions of both rape and robbery cases used was a female victim and a male perpetrator, as well as varying scenarios concerning the prior relationship (strangers, acquaintances, ex-partners) and coercive strategy (force vs. exploiting victim intoxication). They find that more blame was attributed to the victim and less blame was attributed to the perpetrator for rape than robbery, and that information about the prior relationship had increased victim blame and decreased perpetrator blame in the rape cases, but not in the robbery. Other studies that have investigated combinations of the victim and perpetrator relationships (Adolfsson & Strömwall, 2017; Grubb & Harrower, 2008; Strömwall et al., 2013) have also found mixed results, whereby in some cases more blame is attributed to victims of stranger relationships and in others, more blame is attributed to victims of intimate relationships.

Another perspective is a study investigated by Perilloux, Duntley, and Buss (2014) where they assessed whether there were differences in perceptions of blame and causality of sexual victimisation between victims and third parties. Three groups of women were examined: women who reported a completed rape that occurred after the age of 13, women who experienced attempted sexual victimisation after the age of 13, and women who indicated that they knew a woman who had experienced any (completed or attempted) sexual victimisation after the age of 13. They find that third parties were less likely to blame the victim than the victim themselves and assigned nearly all blame to the perpetrator. This result is an important indication to encourage victims of sexual victimisation to come forward due to the tendency for rape to be overwhelmingly under-reported. Moreover, victims' engagement in self-blame is influenced mostly by behaviours of alcohol intoxication and physical resistance, rather than character flaws.

Ståhl et al. (2010), in particular, studied individual attitudes towards female rape victims by measuring modern sexist attitudes defined as "a scale designed to measure denial of continuing gender discrimination, antagonism towards women's demands, and resentment towards special favours for women" (p.244). These modern sexist attitudes have been found to contribute to victim blaming of rape victims, notably amongst men, and imply that victim blaming is used as a justification for gender inequalities. On the other hand, no correlation was found between modern sexism and victim blaming

amongst women. However, their conclusions only draw from a small number of observations (N=36), as well as only including undergraduate students from one university in Skövde, Sweden, making it difficult to draw any general conclusions. This study is one of the initial sources of inspiration for our research, especially the scenario used whereby it was adapted to our survey.

Other unrelated yet highly relevant past literature addresses correlations between prostitution and rape myth acceptance (Jakobsson & Kotsadam, 2011; Suarez & Gadalla, 2010; Cotton, Farley, & Baron, 2002; Basow & Campanile, 1990) and its impact on the moral attitudes of individuals. In most cases, they find that rape and/or prostitution myth acceptance is a lot more prevalent amongst men than women and have impacts on the predicted propensity to blame the victim. Furthermore, several theories such as Melvin Lerner's just-world theory (Strömwall et al., 2013) and the attribution theory (Grubb & Harrower, 2008) has also appeared to make strong statistical significance in victim blame attributions.

Moreover, several pieces of literature (Bursztyn, González, & Yanagizawa-Drott, 2020; Amirapu, Asadullah, & Wahhaj, 2019; Krupka & Weber, 2013) addressing the relationship between laws, norms, and economics in the provision of information have proven to have substantial effects in the correction of beliefs. The study by Bursztyn et al. (2020), for example, found that simple information provision amended beliefs of the underestimation of the level of support by married men on views that women should work outside of the home. The correction of this belief has thus had a positive effect on the impact of women's labour supply. The study by Amirapu et al. (2019) investigated whether changes in formal law influences attitudes towards views on child marriage when law enforcement is weak. They found that whilst information provision led to a change in the individual's attitudes and behaviour on the subject, this was not adequate to change the beliefs in the community.

A common shortcoming to these research studies is the underwhelming number of participants used, ranging from just a staggering 36 to 877. This questions the generalisability of their results and whether the relationships found are sufficient to indicate reliable conclusions on blame attribution. To add, although some results found are in line with what has already been discovered they are still mixed results. Another common shortcoming is the lack of variation in their sample of participants in terms of using only undergraduate students, which again relates to the question of generalisability of the studies. These shortcomings are what we will contribute to by collecting a greater and more varied sample of the population in Sweden, aiming to collect at least 1,000 observations, and covering a range of individuals.

3 Theoretical Framework

The theoretic framework is divided into three main parts, beginning with the definition of social norms and first- and second-order beliefs. Thereafter, the connection between social norms and law within the area of economics will be discussed, including how norms affect our behaviour. Lastly, the central hypotheses investigated in this paper will be stated.

3.1 Definitions

3.1.1 Social Norms

According to Elster (1989), and an array of authors who share a similar opinion (Cooter, 1998; Bettenhausen & Murnighan, 1991; Krupka & Weber, 2009; Fehr & Gächter, 2000; Ostrom, 2000; Sunstein, 1996; López-Pérez, 2008; Pettit, 1990; McAdams, 1997a, 2000a; Lane & Nosenzo, 2019; R. A. Posner & Rasmusen, 1999), social norms are an indication of what one should or should not do implying that they are not dependent on the outcome, but only on the behaviour itself. The activation of a social norm within society should be collectively perceived by the individuals within that population as a certain way of doing things. In addition, sustaining a social norm depends highly on whether individuals in the society give their approval or disapproval towards the behaviour; individuals in violation of the norm should be accompanied by feelings of embarrassment, shame, guilt, or anxiousness for said norm to hold. Drawing from this definition, the population of individuals whose social norms we have chosen to observe are students from different levels and fields of educational background located in Västra Götalands county, Sweden.

3.1.2 First- and Second-Order Beliefs

First- and second-order beliefs together represent an individual's beliefs, where first-order beliefs are the individual's own beliefs or attitudes, and second-order beliefs are what the individual view to be of others' beliefs. Ultimately, people have imperfect information about what others' beliefs are and therefore do not know for certain (McAdams, 2000). Applying this on norms, one can assume that the first-order beliefs is what an individual believes is the right thing to do, while second-order beliefs is what an individual believes that others in the society believe is the right thing to do. Noteworthy is that individuals may state one level of victim blame while thinking that it is not the right thing to do. As a result, in this paper, it will be assumed that respondents state their first-order beliefs as what they think is the right thing to do.

Krupka and Weber (2013) investigated second-order beliefs within social norms by letting respondents answer after what they think others find appropriate. The respondents were provided with explanations of different actions and for each action, they responded on a four-point scale from "very socially inappropriate" to "very socially appropriate". Through this method, the authors could conduct the jointly recognised social norms within the sample. Furthermore, the result shows that social appropriateness influences behaviour so that a change in social appropriateness results in a change in behaviour. In other words, that if social norms vary over time, which in addition Carbonara, Parisi, and von Wangenheim (2008) and Cooter (1998) proves, then the societies behaviour should be affected as well.

So, given that law influence norms, and those norms, in turn, affect an individual's behaviour, our study should find a difference between the individuals who received information about the law at the beginning of the questionnaire and those who did not.

3.2 Social Norms and Law in Economics

The importance of laws and norms in the field of economics has increased, especially norms that have garnered attention after been largely ignored up until the 1990s (R. A. Posner, 1997; Krupka & Weber, 2013; Kostritsky, 2013). Law and economics started to receive criticism regarding lack of richness around the year 1989 (Ellickson, 1989). Becker (1996) criticise the economic approach, more precise the fact that behaviour claims to be driven by just self-interest or material payoff. The author claims that there is much more behind economic choices, for example, that individuals most likely take into consideration their loyalty, altruism, or spitefulness, when making decisions. Another weakness of the economic approach is that individuals behaviour are assumed to be consistent over time (Becker, 1996; Kostritsky, 2013) which brings to question important economic foundations.

One can wonder why the criticism started when it did, and how norms could be ignored up until the '90s, however, McAdams (1997b) claims that it is difficult to predict trends, such as the significance of norms, within academia. Hence it may be difficult to determine exactly why norms have become such a significant part of economics. Nevertheless, several authors (R. A. Posner, 1997; Becker, 1996; Kostritsky, 2013; Ellickson, 1989, 1998) highlights the importance of norms within the law and/or economics. R. A. Posner (1997) asserts that a full understanding of the law cannot be achieved without the consideration of norms. Laws and norms are inherently similar in that they are rules that are regularly complied with and the relationship between the two are closely intertwined; laws originate from a set of norms and norms are said to be "a source of law and often a cheap and effective substitute of law –

and sometimes they are an antagonist to law" (p.365). The significant difference between the two is that laws are legally enforced whilst norms are not, however, each has its consequence mechanisms. As Axelrod (1986) explains, despite norms often being preceded by the law, the persistence of these norms in society can lead to the formalisation of it and thus structure the creation or adaption of formal institutions. In addition, the author Ellickson (1989, 1998) believes that law and economics would be enriched by including a more psychological and sociological view into the analysis and argues that social norms within economics are a complement, not a threat. The usage of norms has now become a central part of law and economics and are here to stay (McAdams, 1997b).

3.2.1 Expressive Effect of the Law

As mentioned in the introduction, Stina Holmberg beliefs that the Swedish law of consent may be signalling how to behave in society (BRÅ, 2020b) and according to McAdams (2000a), a law can use the expressive effect to change the behaviour by just signalling the underlying attitudes in society. The expressive effect affects people's behaviour through what the law says, and not what it does. People's desire for approval, or avoid disapproval, is what makes the expressive effect of law possible. Meaning that if the law sent a message about how we should behave in society, people tend to follow the law simply because they believe that what others think is the right thing to do, even though they do not know if that is the case. Likewise, Sunstein (1996) examined the expressive function of law and describes the effect using the words "making statements" to control behaviour. In other words, individuals tend to support the law simply because of the statements made by the law. Except for McAdams (2000a) and Sunstein (1996), there are several authors who emphasise the expressive role of law (Bénabou & Tirole, 2011; Kahan, 1997; E. A. Posner, 1998; Cooter, 1998, 2000; Amirapu et al., 2019; McAdams, 1997a, 2000b; Platteau, Camilotti, & Auriol, 2017; Lane & Nosenzo, 2019; Galbiati & Vertova, 2008).

For example, the authors Amirapu et al. (2019) investigate how a formal law can influence behaviour and social attitudes and claims that one of the possible ways is through the laws expressive effect and that it is expected that the law will affect not only the individuals' beliefs about what others think is right but also their own beliefs. To test this, the authors used a randomised information treatment where the respondents were randomly divided into treatment and control groups. One treatment group received information about the law and during the interview, the respondents applied to three different vignettes followed by questions regarding what the respondent would do in that exact situation.

Following this theory, this study will investigate whether individuals who receive and read the

information regarding the law of consent will be affected when presenting their level of victim blaming.

3.2.2 Utility Framework

Presently, it has become more common to investigate social norms using a utility framework (Krupka & Weber, 2013; Bénabou & Tirole, 2011). In this paper, a similar approach will be taken to understand and explain social norms further. Krupka and Weber (2013) developed a framework where an individual's utility for action, or behaviour, depends on the value of a monetary payoff as well as the individual's concern for social norms and what the social norm says. Through the framework, the authors show that a change in social norms should lead to a change in the population's behaviour. Their framework inspired Lane and Nosenzo (2019) who made their interpretation of the utility framework, as follows:

$$U_i(a_i) = V_i(a_i) + \gamma_i N(a_i)$$

The function tells us that the utility an individual gain from an action equals the value for an individual's material payoff for the action, plus the degree of how important the individual finds it to follow the social norm, times the social norm. To clarify, $U_i(a_i)$ tells us the utility that a specific individual gains from choosing an action, a_i, and $V_i(a_i)$ stands for the individual's valuation of the material payoffs. The term $N(a_i)$ gives us the social norm and to which degree a special action is being jointly recognised as something that can be viewed to be approved or disapproved. The degree is given by $N(a_i)$ taking any value between minus one and one, where a positive value indicates that the action is socially acceptable, and a negative value indicates the opposite. Lastly, the term γ_i tells us to which degree the individual cares about the social norm. In other words, an individual can know about the social norm and how to behave according to the norm, but simply choose to deviate. Hence, even though there is an explicit social norm, not all individuals care to follow it. Nevertheless, as mentioned in Section 3.1.1, the social norm must be sustained by feelings of embarrassment, shame, etc. if in violation of the norm, so that γ_i must be more than zero to sustain the social norm. To summarise, the higher material payoff, $V_i(a_i)$, and degree of appropriateness of the action, $N(a_i)$, the higher utility the individual gains from the action and the more likely it is for the action to occur.

Additionally, Lane and Nosenzo (2019) suggest that given this framework, implementing a new formal law can affect behaviour in two different ways. The first way is that the law can influence the payoff, using fine or prison. The size of the effect can be determined by the size of, for example, the fine. Nevertheless, this is not relevant in this paper since victim blaming is not illegal and therefore

cannot affect an individual's payoff. However, the other way a law can affect behaviour is if the law instead influences the norm function. If that is the case, it probably is through the expressive effect of law, more specifically, information transmission, meaning that the law signals information regarding how to behave in society. Ideally, this would mean that in our experiment when an individual receives information about the law, their behaviour, i.e., level of victim blaming, will be affected so that the implementation of a new law will directly change the social norms and thereby people's behaviour. Given that this is true, this should lead to a decrease in victim blaming in the treatment group, controlling for if they had heard of the law before.

Above, Lane and Nosenzo (2019) claim that law affects behaviour through social norms. In line with this, Krupka and Weber (2009) found evidence that social norms in fact influence behaviour. They got inspired by psychology and look deeper into focusing influence and informational influence where focusing influence indicates that an individual's behaviour can be affected if their attention is being drawn towards the norm. While informational influence has an impact on people's behaviour depending on the number of times they observe behaviours that are consistent with the norm. Similar to the information transmission, brought up by Lane and Nosenzo (2019), the evidence regarding focusing influence should hopefully result in a difference between the treatment group and control group. Since the respondents in the treatment group are being informed about the law of consent their attention is being drawn towards the law or "norm", so this should impact their behaviour when answering the vignette, i.e., their level of victim blaming.

In line with Krupka and Weber (2009) and Lane and Nosenzo (2019), McAdams (1997a, 2000a) describes that given disapproval for violating the social norm will be a cost for the individual, while an accepted action will give a benefit. The individual needs to take into consideration what others approve or disapprove of to maximise their utility. The framework shows that behaviour which gives a higher payoff or is more socially approved is more likely to occur. Similar to the authors mentioned, there are several other authors (R. A. Posner, 1997; Platteau et al., 2017; Lane & Nosenzo, 2019) who emphasise that changing the benefit or cost of action can affect the norms by the usage of laws. In other words, by increasing the cost of following a bad norm through, for example, fines or prison, individuals should be changing their behaviour.

3.3 Hypotheses

The theories stated above lay the foundation for the hypothesis below which will be explored and investigated through this paper. Beginning with stating the two main hypotheses investigating the level of victim blame.

3.3.1 Main Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

Firstly, we want to test the main null hypothesis that the respondents in the treatment group, receiving information about the law of consent right before the vignette study, give less blame to the victim. Resulting in the following null hypothesis:

H_0: Being informed of the law of consent will not reduce victim blaming between treatment and control groups

Hypothesis 2

Secondly, the other main null hypothesis that will be tested is if there are differences between women and men's answers in the vignette study. Formulating the null hypothesis as follows:

H_0: There are no differences in victim-blaming between women and men

3.3.2 Exploratory Hypotheses

The two main hypotheses tests for differences between treatment and control groups, as well as between women and men, regarding the level of victim-blaming. For the exploratory hypotheses, the two groups relationship toward second-order beliefs and considered rape will be investigated.

Hypothesis 3

The third null hypothesis test whether there will be a difference between treatment and control groups looking at the respondent's belief of what others answer in the vignette study, i.e., level of victim blaming among others.

H_0: Being informed of the law of consent will not reduce second-order beliefs between treatment and control groups

Hypothesis 4

The fourth null hypothesis tests if there are any differences between treatment and control group when looking at to which degree the scenario was considered as rape.

H_0: There are no differences in considering the scenario as rape between treatment and control groups

Hypothesis 5

Furthermore, the fifth null hypothesis tells us if there are any differences in what the respondents believe others' level of victim-blaming is, depending on the respondents' gender.

H_0: There are no differences in second-order beliefs between women and men

Hypothesis 6

Lastly, the sixth null hypothesis will test for differences between women and men regarding which degree the scenario was considered rape.

H_0: There are no differences in considering the scenario as rape between women and men

4 Data & Methodology

This section is dedicated to describing the data and methodology that will be used. We will first indicate the participants we will reach out to, the effect size and the design of the survey experiment used to collect the data. This is followed by a more extensive description of the methodology and the transformation of the data into variables.

4.1 Data

4.1.1 Cohen's D

To ensure that the size of the treatment effect is inherently large between the control and treatment group, the use of Cohen's D is carried out to control for these estimates. The preferred value of this estimation should lie between 0.5 and 1 for the effect to be medium or higher, indicating a large difference between the treatment and control groups that can be further investigated. As observed in Table 4.1, the effect size estimated between the treatment and control group is 0.020 revealing that there will be a very small difference between the groups, as well as being an influencing factor in the minimum number of observations to be retrieved to be able to infer a relationship between the groups, which is roughly around 600 observations in each group. (Cohen, 1988)

Table 4.1: Cohen's D by Treatment Group

Effect Size	Estimate	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Treat	-0.020	-0.124	0.085

4.1.2 Participants

Ideally, in this situation, we would strive to visit schools to make sure that the data collection is being correctly collected. However, due to the COVID-19 pandemic, we considered that the best alternative is to reach out to students in the county of Västra Götaland through email by participating in an online survey. The targeted group of students are studying at the high school, folk high school, vocational university, or universities where education level was divided into 3rd-year high school, bachelor, master, or PhD candidate. Due to the sensitivity of the study, the respondent is required to be over the age of 18 years old, hence the youngest students invited to partake were those studying their last year of high school.

An email with the link to the online survey was sent to a total of 170 schools across the county (see Appendix B for a complete list), whereby 518 teachers and educational staff were emailed, 107 of those had replied, and from that 44 were willing to either conduct the survey with their students or forward it to them (see Table B1). The total number of observations obtained from the survey was 1,473. From this sample, we drop the following number of observations, 16 observations for those who did not consent to participate in the survey, one observation for those who were below the age of 18, 27

observations for those who did not answer either male or female as gender, five observations for those who did not fit any of the fields of study categories, and 14 observations who did not fit the level of education categories. Thus, the penultimate sample size used for the following statistical tests is 1,410 with 718 randomly allocated to the control group and 692 randomly allocated to the treatment group.

4.1.3 Survey Experiment

The collection of data is conducted using a survey experiment distributed online, making it easy to implement and include as many participants as possible. Another advantage of using a digital survey experiment is that the randomization between treatment and control is done by a computer, making it more reliable. However, one disadvantage is the self-selection appearing when the respondent knows what the survey is about, and get to choose if they want to participate or not. Nevertheless, to increase the incitements to participate, a 1000 SEK prize was included in a lottery.

Prior to the actual survey sent, we conducted a pilot survey with 27 respondents from the economics department. The feedback received from the pilot group aided us in removing biases such as leading words and trigger statements, as well as the overall design and length of the survey. The entire survey is comprised of eight components, all compulsory for the respondents to fill in if wanting to complete the questionnaire. The end of the survey presents the respondent with a separate link redirecting to the lottery to maintain the anonymity of the respondent. Below we describe each part of the survey in detail, see Appendix A for the complete design layout.

Part I - Introduction. To begin with, we introduce ourselves by names and where we study at. Then we inform the reader about the age limit of 18 years, the length of the questionnaire, and the anonymity of the respondent. Last, we inform the reader that there will be a lottery in the end if they wish to participate.

Part II - Consent Form. To address ethical concerns, a consent form is included at the very beginning to ensure that respondent's consent to their participation. This section also includes benefits and risks with participating, where the benefits refer to a lottery and the risks refers to the sensitive subject of the vignette. Lastly, a paragraph regarding confidentiality is covered, informing that information provided is solely being collected for research purposes and that their identity will remain completely anonymous during the entire questionnaire. Even though the respondent chooses to participate in the lottery draw and their contact information will be stored until the lottery is ended, their participation in the lottery

will not in any way be connected to their survey responses.

Part III - Demographic Questions. Before going any further into the survey, the respondent is asked several demographic questions. The questions asked are the respondents age, gender, being an international student or not, field of study, and on what level they study today. Note that when the respondent receives the gender question, they are given four alternatives: male; female; prefer not to say; and a text box where they can fill in for other genders. Nevertheless, in Section 5, the variable representing gender is only including women and men due to the hypothesis comparing women and men.

Part IV - Law of Consent, General Information and Cheap-Talk. To begin with, the treatment group is now given information about the Law of Consent, whilst the control group is not. Next, all respondents are given brief, but very detailed, instructions and information regarding the following section, the vignette, which is the main part of the experiment. Here it will be stated that the vignette they will read is fictional and is not a direct reference or reflection of any particular individual or situation in reality. However, they are encouraged to answer as closely as to how they would respond if the vignette had been an actual case and disregard its hypothetical nature. This is done by implementing the mechanism of a short cheap-talk script to mitigate the issue of hypothetical bias and obtain true and realistic valuations of the respondents' answers on victim blame (Cummings & Taylor, 1999).

Part V - Vignette Study. The collection of two of our main variables for victim blame and second-order beliefs will be retrieved in this component of the survey through a vignette. The vignette, which is further explained in Section 4.2.1, describes a hypothetical rape scenario with a female victim and a male perpetrator. Respondents are then given three questions to answer on a scale between 1 to 6 relating to victim blaming, i.e., the first-order beliefs. Next, the respondents are asked to answer the three questions again, but this time answer what they believe that the average person living in Sweden would have answered. These are the respondents' second-order beliefs. To analyse the effect of being informed about the law, respondents in the treatment group, given the information regarding the law of consent before the vignette is presented, will be compared to the respondents in the control group, who proceed with the vignette directly with no prior information.

Part VI - Social Desirability Scale. To strengthen the answers given in the previous section a short version of the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR) will be conducted. The idea is to make an analysis exploring whether the level of victim blame would be lower for individuals who

express a lot of social desirability. Thus, the respondents are given 14 statements to answer on a scale between 1 to 8 where seven of the statements measure self-deceptive enhancement, and seven of the statements measure impression management. The social desirability scale will be further explained in Section 4.2.2.

Part VII - Control Questions. To ensure that when running statistical tests, we include sufficient factors that can be controlled for that may alter the interpretation of our results, in addition to the demographic questions already asked. The questions asked to the treatment group are whether the respondent knew/were aware of the law of consent before receiving the information, and a question asking what the main point of the law of consent is. The latter is to control for the respondent to read the information received. The question given to the control group was whether the respondent ever heard of the law of consent before. This is to control if there is a difference between the respondents who heard of the law or not. Lastly, both the treatment and control groups were asked to what extent the rape scenario given was considered rape.

Part VIII - End of survey message. When having finished the questionnaire, the respondent is sent to the end page. On this page, the respondent is being thanked for the participation and given our email addresses if having any questions. This is also where further information about the lottery and a repetition of their anonymity is given, as well as the link to the lottery. If the respondent does not want to participate in the lottery, they can now leave the page.

4.2 Methodology

4.2.1 Vignette

As mentioned, a vignette study is included in the survey, measuring individuals' level of victim blaming. The reason why a rape scenario is used in the vignette is that it is a common measure of examining victim blame (Acock & Ireland, 1983; Grubb & Harrower, 2008; Ståhl et al., 2010; Adolfsson, 2018; Richardson & Campbell, 1982), but also since the law of consent is the direct legislation of rape cases. A vast majority of studies have criticised the use of vignettes for fear of artificiality in depicting rape scenarios (Grubb & Harrower, 2008), but this can be argued to be less of a concern when researching on victim blame attribution as Ståhl et al. (2010) suggests that "people frequently do not form judgments about rape incidents based on interactions with the victims themselves. Rather, they more often hear about these incidents in the media or from their peers."

Swedish statistics received from BRÅ (2020a), acknowledges that 95% of the reported rapes against adults in 2019 were against women and 97% of the suspects for sexual crime in 2018 were men. Therefore, the vignette in this paper consists of a scenario with a female victim and a male perpetrator, see Appendix A. It is expected that individuals that do not obtain information regarding the law of consent may place greater blame on the victim, not knowing that the law demands consent before engaging in sexual intercourse and that it is no longer acceptable to imply that the victim did not say no. Nevertheless, the respondent who is given the information may be reminded that the victim has to say yes for it to not be accounted for as rape and thereby answer differently.

Based on comments received from respondents, the scenario may be experienced a quite indistinct since there are not many details about Sara in the vignette. However, this is a conscious decision made to prevent the respondent from placing additional victim blame due to Sara's clothes, alcohol consumption or other unimportant details. Thus, the only thing of importance should be whether or not Sara gave her consent or not. In other words, to avoid affecting the participant's judgments regarding the scenario, personal characteristics are excluded. (Richardson & Campbell, 1982)

Noteworthy is that even though this paper defines rape as negligent rape, the word *rape* is never used in the scenario. The survey aims to see what the participants think of the scenario and not what is right or wrong out of a legal prospect, and in addition, to what degree the respondents think of the vignette as rape or not. (Adolfsson & Strömwall, 2017)

4.2.2 Social Desirability Scale

As was iterated by Krupka and Weber (2013), social norms are difficult to quantify or measure. In addition, when individuals respond to socially sensitive content, the result most likely will be affected by socially desirable responses (SDR). In this paper, the respondents self-report their level of victim blaming; thus, their reported level of victim blame can be affected by the fact that others may see the answer and thereby state an answer that the individual believes is acceptable by others in the society (i.e., social norms). As a result, a social desirability bias arises. In other words, there is a tendency that the individual answers as what would be socially desirable instead of the individual's actual beliefs (Grimm, 2010; Crowne & Marlowe, 1960; Paulhus, 1991; Paulhus & Reid, 1991; de Mortel, 2008).

To detect and control for this bias, a social desirability scale (SDS) will be used in the survey, improving the questionnaire's validity. Several different methods can be used to examine the bias, such

as Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI), Marlowe-Crowne (M-C) SDS, and Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR). The BIDR is developed by the researcher Paulhus (1984, 1986, 1991; 1991) and BIDR is a development of M-C SDS and arises due to the criticism given to M-C SDS. The criticism is directed toward the inability to distinguish the difference between an individual answering more socially desirable intentionally, or if overestimating the positive side of themselves unconsciously. The two scales within BIDR are referred to as impression management, IM, and self-deceptive enhancement, SDE (Davis, Thake, & Vilhena, 2010; Paulhus, 1984, 1986, 1991; Paulhus & Reid, 1991).

One solution to the SDR problem is to provide the respondent with complete anonymity. Nevertheless, depending on if the respondent has answered more socially desirable due to impression management or self-deception, anonymity will have different effects. Paulhus (1991) claims that the greater anonymity, the less problem with impression management. In other words, if having total anonymity, the individuals no longer have the incitements to consciously answer according to the norms. Logical, since the respondents answering more favourable conscious will then know that no one will know who answered, and thereby do not need to make themselves look better. This is most likely not the case for self-deception since they unconsciously make themselves look more favourable when responding. Hence, anonymity will not solve the problem with self-deception enhancement bias.

Taking the self-deception enhancement bias into consideration, there is still a risk that the respondents do not answer the questions based on their individual beliefs and instead based on following the norms and law (Grimm, 2010). To ensure that this paper controls for social desirability bias, the BIDR-16 is implemented. The method was introduced by Hart, Ritchie, Hepper, and Gebauer (2015) and is a short version of the BIDR, or BIDR-40, created by Paulhus (1991). Whereas the BIDR-40 includes 40 items, the short version instead includes 16 hand-picked statements, eight from each motivation: impression management and self-deception. There are items such as “I sometimes tell lies” (IM) and “I never regret decisions” (SDE), see Appendix A for all items. The respondent will then respond on a scale between 1 and 8, where 1 is “Totally Disagree”, and 8 is “Totally Agree”. After the respondent has answered, extreme answers such as 7 and 8 are assigned with a value of one. Hence, the minimum value is 0 and the maximum value is 16. The higher the total value, the higher score on the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding.

In this study, however, there will be 14 statements instead of 16 due to inappropriateness dealing with this subject. The two statements that have been removed are “I have sometimes doubted my

ability as a lover" (SDE) and "There have been occasions when I have taken advantage of someone" (IM). Based on a pilot survey conducted, we found that respondents misunderstood or misjudged the statements due to the connection to the vignette and could therefore not give an accurate response. Moreover, the balance of the number of statements in each scale, IM and SDE, is still maintained.

4.2.3 Equations

The following three equations will be used to obtain the results. Firstly, Equation 1 displays the regression used to prove the main hypothesis, Hypothesis 1 and 2, using victim blame as the dependent variable. Displayed in the equations below are the variables of interest; treatment group, woman, and the interaction term between them both. When running the regressions, the independent variables will be added successively, until all control variables are included, see Table 5.4. The variable W_i represents the variables for BIDR-14, second-order beliefs, heard of law and considered rape, while Z_i includes the variables for age, being an international student, field of study and level of education. All variables are included and explained in Table C2.

$$vicblame_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * treat_i + \beta_2 * woman_i + \beta_3 * treatwoman_i + \beta_4 W_i + \beta_5 Z_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (1)$$

Secondly, the dependent variable, *vicblame2*, representing second-order beliefs, are displayed in Equation 2. The independent variables captured in X_i are the variables representing having heard of the law, victim blame and considered rape, while Z_i is the same as in Equation 1. To estimate the relationship between the continuous outcome variables representing victim blame and second-order beliefs, an ordinary least squares (OLS) regression will be used. In other words, the OLS regression will show if there are any statistically significant relationships between the dependent and independent variables.

$$vicblame2_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * treat_i + \beta_2 * woman_i + \beta_3 * treatwoman_i + \beta_4 X_i + \beta_5 Z_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (2)$$

Lastly, to test our fourth and sixth hypotheses, to what degree the scenario was considered to be rape, the ordered logit regression will be used. The dependent variable representing to what degree the scenario was considered rape is an ordinal variable. Meaning that the variable is a categorical variable with more than two categories where the numbers represent a level, such as the extent of considering the scenario as rape. There are two important things to know about when using an ordered logit model, first, the model is interpreted by taking the predicted probabilities and differences in predicted probabilities,

hence the coefficient shows the probability of something occurring. Secondly, using an ordered logit model, the magnitude of the coefficient cannot be interpreted, only the sign and significance level. Since the logit regression is used, marginal effects are provided in Table G1 and G2 to show the strength between the independent and dependent variables for each level of the dependent variable (Norton, Dowd, & Maciejewski, 2019). In Equation 3, the independent variables in Y_i are representing having heard of the law, second-order beliefs, and victim blame.

$$c\_rape_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * treat_i + \beta_2 * woman_i + \beta_3 * treatwoman_i + \beta_4 Y_i + \beta_5 Z_i + \varepsilon_i \tag{3}$$

5 Results & Analysis

This section will begin by describing the distribution of data. Thereafter, a Mann-Whitney U-test and OLS test will be applied to see how the independent variables correlate with the dependent variables for victim blame and second-order beliefs, and finally, the ordered logit model will provide the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable for considering the scenario as rape.

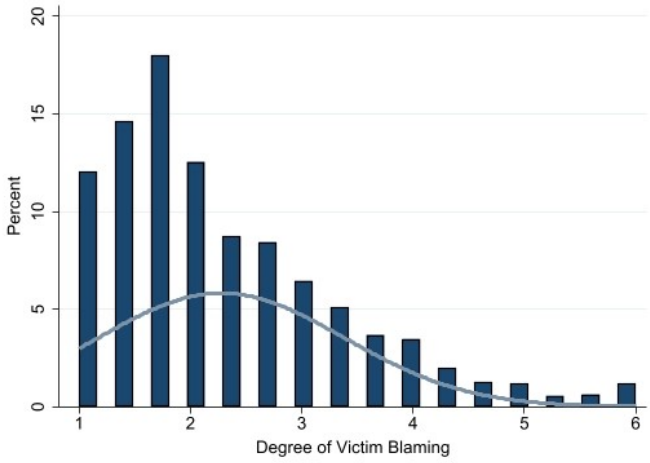
5.1 Distribution of Data

Statistical tests often make assumptions to be successful. For one of the main tests in this research, the OLS regression, the distribution of the data is assumed to be normally distributed. Although, the OLS controls for additional individual characteristics, adding value to our analysis. The Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon U-test, however, does not make any assumption about the data being normally distributed. Hence, in the following sections, both will be used to prove the hypotheses using OLS. To begin with, simple summary statistics will be provided.

Figure 5.1 is a histogram representing the distribution of the degree of victim blame, in per cent. The addition of a normal-density plot on the graph shows that this variable is not normally distributed. The distribution instead shows a positive skewness, indicating that students in our sample have a degree of victim blame that is centred to the left. This is in line with the mean value of 2.278, stated in Table 5.1, providing descriptive statistics.

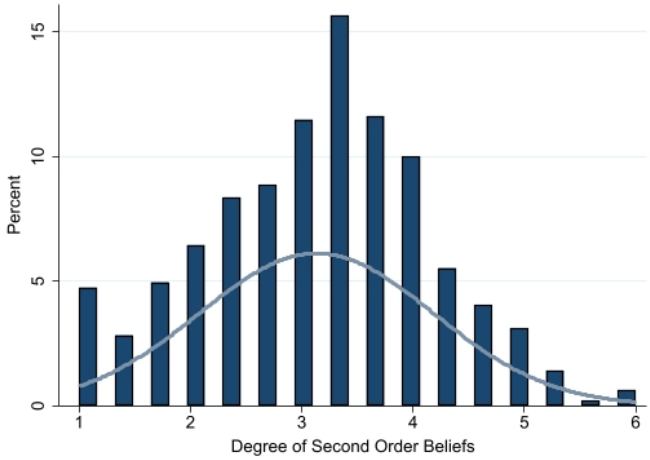
Figure 5.2 instead graphs the distribution of second-order beliefs. The graph shows that this variable is close to being normally distributed. Investigating this further, the variable has a skewness of -0.0548, approximately zero, indicating a normally distributed variable. Hence, students in our sample have a

Figure 5.1: Distribution of Degree of Victim Blaming



stated second-order belief that is centred to the middle. This is confirmed with a mean value of 3.133, stated in Table 5.1.

Figure 5.2: Distribution of Second-Order Beliefs



As mentioned above, Table 5.1 includes the descriptive statistics of the main variables used to test the hypotheses are presented. The table displays the variables mean value, standard deviation, and range. Looking at the table, none of the variables stands out. What is interesting, however, is the mean for victim blame which hints those individuals in this sample report victim blame below the midpoint, which is also shown in Figure 5.1. In addition, second-order beliefs have a mean around the midpoint (Figure 5.2 and looking at the mean for considered rape, the respondents considered the scenario to

be rape above the midpoint. Lastly, almost all respondents were certain that they had heard of the law before entering the survey, looking at the mean value of 2.793 of 3. This will be addressed in the discussion (6.1) and a full summary of the variables representing the field of study and current level of education is presented in Table C1.

Table 5.1: Summary Statistics of Main Variables

Variable	Observations	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Victim Blame	1,410	2.278	1.106	1	6
Second-order Beliefs	1,410	3.133	1.052	1	6
Considered Rape	1,410	4.811	1.052	1	6
BIDR-14	1,410	3.501	2.451	0	14
Treatment	1,410	0.491	0.5	0	1
Woman	1,410	0.635	0.481	0	1
Age	1,410	25.116	6.443	18	59
Heard of Law	1,410	2.793	0.569	1	3
International Student	1,410	0.1929	0.3947	0	1

To report whether respondents have been successfully randomly assigned between treatment and control groups, an additional summary statistic of the mean values is reported in Table 5.2. In nearly all instances, the mean values of each variable across the groups are approximately the same. In addition, a simple t-test is included to test if there are any statistically significant differences between the two mean values. The test shows that the p-values for all variables, with the exception of second-order beliefs and considered rape, exceeds the statistical significance level of 10%, hence we can reject the alternative hypothesis that the difference is not zero, proving that randomisation has been completed.

Table 5.2: Baseline Comparison: Control vs. Treatment

	All	Control	Treatment	Difference	p-value
Observations	1,410	718	692		
Victim Blame	2.28	2.27	2.29	-0.02	(0.714)
	(1.11)	(1.10)	(1.11)		
Second-order Beliefs	3.13	3.06	3.21	-0.15	(0.007)
	(1.05)	(1.05)	(1.05)		
Considered Rape	4.81	4.87	4.75	0.12	(0.080)
	(1.31)	(1.30)	(1.31)		
BIDR-14	3.50	3.46	3.54	-0.08	(0.557)
	(2.45)	(2.42)	(2.48)		
Woman	0.64	0.63	0.64	-0.00	(0.889)
	(0.48)	(0.48)	(0.48)		
Age	25.12	25.22	25.01	0.21	(0.544)
	(6.44)	(6.50)	(6.39)		
Heard of Law	1.21	1.20	1.21	0.01	(0.730)
	(0.57)	(0.56)	(0.58)		

5.2 Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon U-test (MWW)

To test for any statistical differences in victim blaming between different groups, we conduct a Mann-Whitney Wilcoxon U-test. The U-test is a non-parametric test that does not make any assumptions about normally distributed data. Applying this test, differences between control and treatment groups, as well as between women and men, can be analysed (Jaggia & Kelly, 2013).

To begin with, the average victim blaming between the treatment and control group are stated in Table 5.2. The table shows that the treatment group, on average, place slightly more blame on the victim than respondents in the control group which is unexpected. The U-test shown in Table D1 shows a p-value of 0.6764 which reveals that there is no statistically significant difference between treatment and control group regarding the level of victim blame. Meaning that there is no evidence of any differences between the groups. However, this does not prove that there is no difference at all.

Another aspect is to look at to what extent the scenario is considered rape instead of looking at the degree of victim blaming, equivalently Hypothesis 4. In Table 5.2 we observe that respondents in the control group consider the scenario to be rape to a greater extent, on average, than respondents in the

treatment group. Testing if there is a statistically significant difference between treatment and control group when questioned to what degree the scenario is considered to be rape, the p-value of 0.0426 indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the groups at the 5% level (Table D3). Nevertheless, the U-test does not show the direction of the difference, hence we restrain any further conclusions before the regressions are conducted.

Furthermore, Table 5.2 illustrates that respondents in the treatment group have higher second-order beliefs than respondents in the control group. Implying that if receiving the information about the law of consent right before the vignette study, the respondent beliefs that the average person living in Sweden would give more blame to the victim, compared to if being in the control group. Testing this with the Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon U-test, Table D2, there is a statistically significant difference between the groups at the 1% level.

Next, Table 5.3 shows the distribution of average victim blame between women and men, as well as the whole sample mean. One can see those men, on average in our sample, place more blame on the victim compared to women. When testing if the difference is statistically significant (Table D4) the difference is proven to be the case at the 1% level, indicating a difference in genders on victim blaming. Furthermore, the average second-order beliefs are shown to be higher for women, indicating that women on average in our sample beliefs that the average person living in Sweden would place more blame on the victim than men in our sample beliefs. The differences in second-order beliefs between women and men are proven by the Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon U-test, Table D5. Lastly, looking at the average degree of considered rape in Table 5.3, women do to a greater extent consider the scenario as rape. The difference is proven by the Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon U-test, Table D6.

Table 5.3: Average Victim Blame, Second-Order Beliefs and Considered Rape by Gender

Gender	Average Victim Blame	Average Second-Order Beliefs	Average Considered Rape	Freq.	Percent.
Woman	2.042039	3.242188	5.02567	896	63.55
Man	2.689364	2.942283	4.435798	514	36.45
Total	2.278014	3.13286	4.810638	1,410	100.00

5.3 Victim Blame and Second-Order Beliefs as Dependent Variables

A standard OLS Regression using the variables for the level of victim blame and second-order beliefs as the dependent variables will be used to investigate if any statistically significant relationships between the independent variables will arise. Before running the regressions, both dependent variables are tested for heteroskedasticity. First by graphing the residuals against the fitted value to see if the residuals are constant no matter the fitted values. Secondly, a Breusch-Pagan test for heteroskedasticity was conducted. Both tests indicate that the variable representing the level of victim blame have a problem with heteroskedasticity, see Figure E1 and Table E1 for the result. The same tests for second-order beliefs are not as clear, see Figure E2 and Table E2. With a p-value of 0.1332, the hypothesis saying that the residuals have a constant variance cannot be rejected. Indicating that the residuals may be constant, but it cannot be stated for certain. Hence, when running the regressions, robust standard errors will be included to prevent the eventual problems with heteroskedasticity. In addition, for all regressions, a 5% significance level will be used.

Firstly, we run hierarchical regressions using the level of victim blame (Cronbach's alpha[2]=0.81) as the dependent variable and the results can be seen in Table 5.4. Beginning with the variables of interest, the variable representing treatment has a coefficient that is statistically insignificant throughout all four columns, hence we cannot comment on the connection between being in the treatment group and the level of victim blame. Next, the variable representing gender, *woman*, has a negative coefficient which is statistically significant at the 1% level and maintains that way for all specifications, indicating a robust variable. The coefficient has the value -0.645 demonstrating that holding everything else constant, women on average in our sample place 0.645 less blame on the victim compared to men. Furthermore, the interaction term between treatment and woman is statistically insignificant through all three outputs, hence we cannot say anything about the effect of being a woman in the treatment group.

Moreover, the variable for BIDR-14 is statistically significant at the 1% level in both specifications (columns 3 and 4). The coefficient has a value of 0.0377 in column 3, illustrating that when the respondent increases their number of extreme answers in the BIDR-14 by one-unit, their level of victim blaming increases by 0.0337. The coefficient for having heard of the law of consent before answering the survey has a value of -0.342, suggesting that the more certain the respondent is that they have heard of the law, the less blame is placed on the victim. The coefficient is statistically significant at the 1%

[2]Cronbach's alpha measures internal consistency and a usual scale for reliability in the formation of items to one group, whereby an alpha above 0.70 is revealed to be the standard reliability coefficient (Bruin, 2011)

level in both outputs (see columns 3 and 4).

The variable for second-order beliefs (Cronbach's alpha=0.82) has a coefficient with the value of 0.101 and is statistically significant at the 1% level. In other words, individuals who think that the average person living in Sweden places one-unit more blame on the victim will in turn place 0.101 units more blame on the victim themselves. Moreover, the coefficient for considered rape is -0.511, illustrating that a one-unit increase to the extent the scenario is considered to be rape, ceteris paribus, then the level of victim blame by the respondent decreases by 0.511.

Lastly, the control variables representing age and being an international student, both have coefficients changing the significance level from significant to insignificant across the outputs, implying unreliable variables. The same applies to the control variables representing the field of study and level of education. For the complete output, see Table F1.

Table 5.4: Regression using Victim Blame as Outcome Variable

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Treatment	0.0216		0.0292	0.0239	-0.0737
	(0.0589)		(0.105)	(0.102)	(0.0768)
Woman		-0.647***	-0.645***	-0.613***	-0.342***
		(0.0622)	(0.0859)	(0.0845)	(0.0648)
Treatment*Woman			-0.0330	0.0286	0.0151
			(0.123)	(0.120)	(0.0917)
Age			0.0213***	0.0196***	0.00452
			(0.00593)	(0.00583)	(0.00475)
International Student			0.387***	0.164*	0.0734
			(0.0826)	(0.0918)	(0.0683)
BIDR-14				0.0377***	0.0433***
				(0.0131)	(0.0102)
Heard of Law				-0.342***	-0.200***
				(0.0648)	(0.0480)
Second-order Beliefs					0.101***
					(0.0227)
Considered Rape					-0.511***
					(0.0230)
Constant	2.267***	2.689***	2.456***	3.370***	5.123***
	(0.041)	(0.053)	(0.318)	(0.356)	(0.297)
Observations	1,410	1,410	1,410	1,410	1,410
R^2	0.000	0.080	0.131	0.163	0.505

Robust Standard errors in parentheses

$^{***}\, p < 0.01, \quad ^{**}\, p < 0.05, \quad ^{*}\, p < 0.10$

Secondly, the regressions using second-order beliefs as the dependent variable are shown in Table 5.5. Beginning with the variables of interest, it can be observed that the variable for treatment is statistically significant in the first specification (column 1) only for it to become insignificant in the following specifications. The reason behind the result is probably that gender instead explains the connection to victim blame that was before explained by the treatment variable. This questions whether the randomisation between the treatment and control groups is not completely randomised by gender. Nevertheless, looking at Table 5.2, one can see that the share of women is approximately the same in the treatment group as in the control group and proven to be successfully randomised. In addition, the variable for being a woman is statistically significant at the 1% level across all three outputs (see columns 2-4). The coefficient denotes those women, from both treatment and control groups, assume that the average person living in Sweden would have placed 0.293 more blame on the victim, in comparison to men. It can also be observed that the coefficient for the interaction term, *treatment*woman*, is statistically insignificant for all following regressions thereby we cannot comment on the magnitude or sign.

Furthermore, the coefficients for heard of the law is positive and statistically significant, first at the 10% level and then at the 1% level. This implies that the more certain the individual is about hearing about the law the more victim blame the respondent believes that the average person living in Sweden would have placed on the victim. Furthermore, the coefficient for victim blame is positive and statistically significant at the 1% level suggesting that a one-unit increase of the respondent's victim blame, will then affect what they assume the average person living in Sweden to place 0.156 more victim blame. Nevertheless, the coefficient for considered rape is statistically insignificant and thus the result cannot be interpreted.

Next, the coefficients for the variables representing age, being an international student, and reading a bachelor, all vary in significance level as the model specification varies indicating that the variables are untrustworthy. Worth mentioning however is the variable representing studying at the master level, which is negative and statistically significant at the 1% level at first and then at the 5% level. The result implies that studying at the master level leads to the respondent's beliefs that the average person living in Sweden would have placed 0.274 less blame on the victim, in comparison to if studying at the 3rd year high school level. For the complete output, see Table F2.

Table 5.5: Regression using Second-Order Beliefs as Outcome Variable

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Treatment	0.151***		0.136	0.141	0.142
	(0.0559)		(0.0913)	(0.0915)	(0.0913)
Woman		0.300***	0.293***	0.288***	0.365***
		(0.0577)	(0.0807)	(0.0808)	(0.0825)
Treatment*Woman			0.0327	0.0271	0.0259
			(0.114)	(0.115)	(0.114)
Age			-0.00819	-0.00807	-0.0102*
			(0.00539)	(0.00540)	(0.00535)
International Student			-0.138*	-0.0694	-0.0915
			(0.0751)	(0.0858)	(0.0851)
Heard of Law				0.119*	0.163***
				(0.0624)	(0.0630)
Victim Blame					0.156***
					(0.0395)
Considered Rape					0.0353
					(0.0306)
Constant	3.059***	2.942***	3.131***	2.787***	2.105***
	(0.0393)	(0.046)	(0.263)	(0.314)	(0.388)
Observations	1,410	1,410	1,410	1,410	1,410
R^2	0.005	0.019	0.056	0.059	0.076

Robust Standard errors in parentheses

$^{***}\ p < 0.01, \quad ^{**}\ p < 0.05, \quad ^{*}\ p < 0.10$

5.4 Considered Rape as Dependent Variable

As mentioned earlier, the ordered logit regression will be used to test our fourth and sixth hypotheses due to the dependent variable being an ordinal variable. In addition, the coefficient will be interpreted as predicted probabilities, and only the sign and significance level will be commented on. Compared to the OLS regressions, the ordered logit regression does not care whether there is a problem with heteroskedasticity, hence no further tests regarding this will be conducted (Stoltzfus, 2011).

Furthermore, the marginal effects for being in the treatment group are provided in Table G1 and for being a woman in Table G2. As mentioned in Section 4.2.3, the marginal effect provides the predicted probability for each level of the dependent variable while holding every other independent variable constant. The marginal effect gives the predicted probability of going from one category to another for a respondent in the treatment group, compared to a respondent in the control group. Unfortunately, the marginal effects are statistically insignificant, both for the treatment group, Table G1, and for if being a

woman, Table G2 (Norton et al., 2019).

Starting with the variables of interest, the variable for treatment is statistically significant at the 5% level in the first output (column 1) and then becomes insignificant in the three last outputs (columns 3-5). Since the coefficient turns insignificant, the variable cannot be trustworthy. Looking at the variable for woman the coefficient is shown to be positive and statistically significant at the 1% level. Whereby, in the three first outputs, implying that being a woman view the scenario as rape to a greater extent compared to being a man. Nevertheless, the coefficient becomes insignificant in the last output (see column 5), hence the result cannot be fully trusted. In addition, the interaction term between treatment and woman is statistically insignificant and maintains that way through all outputs.

What is more, the variable for age is negative and statistically significant through all regressions with the significance level at 1% in columns 2 and 3, and then 5% in column 4. The coefficient is interpreted as a one-unit increase in age will decrease the probability of to which extent the scenario should be considered as rape. Furthermore, the coefficients representing being an international student, having heard of the law, studying a bachelor or master, do not have consistent statistically significant levels throughout the regressions, so the variables are inaccurate.

Lastly, the variable for victim blame is statistically significant at the 1% level and demonstrating that with one-unit increase in victim blaming, there is a reduced probability of considering the scenario as rape to a greater extent when the respondent places more victim blame. For the complete output, see Table F3.

Table 5.6: Ordered Logit Regression using Considered Rape as Outcome Variable

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Treatment	-0.196**		-0.147	-0.142	-0.200
	(0.0970)		(0.161)	(0.161)	(0.165)
Woman		0.843***	0.933***	0.908***	0.212
		(0.101)	(0.146)	(0.146)	(0.153)
Treatment*Woman			-0.127	-0.134	-0.09481
			(0.205)	(0.204)	(0.211)
Age			-0.0426***	-0.0428***	-0.0250**
			(0.00971)	(0.00997)	(0.0103)
International Student			-0.450***	-0.223	-0.110
			(0.135)	(0.153)	(0.152)
Heard of Law				0.391***	-0.0176
				(0.113)	(0.112)
Victim Blame					-1.520***
					(0.0788)
Second-order Beliefs					0.0546
					(0.0526)
/cut1	-3.715***	-3.160***	-3.719***	-2.622***	-9.021***
	(0.176)	(0.174)	(0.490)	(0.578)	(0.692)
/cut2	-2.835***	-2.272***	-2.822***	-1.721***	-7.730***
	(0.124)	(0.125)	(0.481)	(0.568)	(0.652)
/cut3	-1.720***	-1.137***	-1.666***	-0.555	-5.975***
	(0.0889)	(0.0916)	(0.476)	(0.568)	(0.622)
/cut4	-0.719***	-0.108	-0.608	0.513	-4.395***
	(0.0747)	(0.0824)	(0.473)	(0.566)	(0.601)
/cut5	0.257***	0.903***	0.432	1.560***	-2.958***
	(0.0721)	(0.0851)	(0.471)	(0.566)	(0.591)
Observations	1,410	1,410	1,410	1,410	1,410

Robust Standard errors in parentheses

$^{***}\ p < 0.01, \quad ^{**}\ p < 0.05, \quad ^{*}\ p < 0.10$

6 Discussion & Conclusions

6.1 Discussion

To begin our discussion, we address the first main null hypothesis which states that respondents in the treatment group, who have received information about the law of consent prior to stating their level of victim blame, shall place less blame on the victim. By first conducting the Wilcoxon U-test, we document that there were no statistically significant differences between the treatment and control groups. This is then further supported in Table 5.4 presenting no statistically significant results in any of the outputs, hence we cannot reject the null hypothesis that being informed of the law of consent will not reduce victim blaming. The result obtained here is not in line with previous literature (Mariotti & von Wangenheim, 2019; Lane & Nosenzo, 2019; Bursztyn et al., 2020), where individuals assigned to a treatment group should, on average, place less blame on the victim. In like manner, the findings

relating to the expressive function of law affecting an individual's behaviour was neither what we had expected (McAdams, 2000a; Sunstein, 1996; Amirapu et al., 2019).

On the other hand, the statistically significant and positive results for the variable representing whether the respondent had heard of the law of consent prior to the survey (see Table 5.4) may suggest that the greater certainty of having heard of the law then the greater the effect in the reduction of victim blame. To investigate this further, we conduct separate additional regressions according to the certainty of respondents who have had heard of the law.

For the respondents who had not heard of the law before, Table F5 shows that being assigned to the treatment group has insignificant effects on the level of victim blame despite the combination of variables being controlled for. Again, this result is not in line with previous research regarding the expressive function of law (McAdams, 2000a; Sunstein, 1996; Bénabou & Tirole, 2011; Kahan, 1997; E. A. Posner, 1998; Cooter, 1998, 2000; Amirapu et al., 2019; McAdams, 1997a, 2000b; Platteau et al., 2017; Lane & Nosenzo, 2019; Galbiati & Vertova, 2008). This could suggest that receiving the information about the law immediately before the vignette is not merely enough to impact the individual's behaviour and beliefs of social norms and that the individual needs more time for the information of the law to manifest. Another explanation is that the number of observations (N=112) in this group is insufficient to conclude with certainty that there is no effect of being informed about the law of consent for the first time.

Observing the results for those who were certain that they had heard of the law before in Table F4 also show no statistically significant effect being assigned to a treatment group on the level of victim blame. The number of observations in this group (N=1,230) is far greater than those who had not heard of the law before and based on this the result could thereby indicate that being reminded of the law of consent does not have an effect on the level of victim blaming. An unexpected outcome since research by Krupka and Weber (2009) and Lane and Nosenzo (2019) argued that an individual's behaviour can be affected if their attention is being drawn towards the norms, or in our case, the law which influences the norms.

To reiterate the claims of Krupka and Weber (2013); Carbonara et al. (2008); Cooter (1998) and in combination with the results that we have obtained, we can infer that since the law has already been implemented three years ago then the effect of the law has already integrated with the society's norms. As a result of this, the participants' behaviour may have already changed, leading to their

indifference in whether they receive the information about the law or not with regards to victim blame. Another possibility is that it may instead be the long-standing societal norm in Sweden that has led to the formation of the law of consent. Strictly speaking, there is a possibility that the social norm and the behaviour and attitudes of the population has already been established years before the law of consent came into discussion.

The second null hypothesis leads with the Wilcoxon U-test showing that there is a statistically significant difference between women and men on their stated level of victim blame. Investigating this further, the OLS results confirm that there is a statistically significant difference at the 1% level in all model specifications (Table 5.4), indicating a robust result. This result proves that women, in general, contained in our sample, places less blame on the victim compared to men, hence, we can reject the null hypothesis and claim that there is a difference in victim-blaming between women and men.

Granting all this, as mentioned in Section 2, many of the studies investigating differences between genders regarding the level of victim blame lead to inconsistent results in terms of the variables, the methodology used and contextual differences (Grubb & Harrower, 2008), albeit exploring the aspect of victim blame judgements by the participants of these studies. Nevertheless, the result, i.e. that women places less blame than men, is consistent with previous literature such as Adolfsson (2018); Kleinke and Meyer (1990); Kanekar et al. (1985); Brekke and Borgida (1988); Calhoun et al. (1976); Deitz et al. (1984). Arguing further, the results were as we would expect considering it is a Swedish sample that we are observing. Also based on our experiences that Sweden is one of the most prominent countries in advocating and constantly striving for equality, as well as being a strong feminist society. Another possible way of seeing the result could be that women have the tendency to sympathise with the female victim, as several authors have found (Perilloux et al., 2014; Grubb & Harrower, 2008).

Next, the four exploratory null hypotheses will be discussed looking into any differences between treatment and control groups and between women and men on their responses to second-order beliefs and the degree to which they consider the scenario as rape. Examining the results based on the third null hypothesis focusing on second-order beliefs, Table 5.2 hints that participants in the treatment group have higher average second-order beliefs than participants in the control group. Furthermore, the Wilcoxon U-test indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between treatment and control groups regarding the level of second-order beliefs at the 1% level. This could indicate that receiving information about the law of consent may have an effect on the participant's beliefs that, the average person living in Sweden places more blame on the victim. On the other hand, the OLS outputs

cannot provide further indications that being in the treatment group would reduce second-order beliefs (Table 5.5). Thereby, resulting in the failure to reject the null hypothesis that being informed about the law of consent may not reduce second-order beliefs.

The fourth null hypothesis investigates any differences between treatment and control group with regards to the degree that the scenario was considered to be rape. To begin with, Table 5.2 illustrate those participants in the control group, on average, do to a greater extent consider the scenario as rape in comparison to those in the treatment group. The Wilcoxon U-test indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the treatment and control groups at the 5% level. These results are consistent with the first specification (column 1) in Table 5.6, using the variable considered rape as the dependent variable and treatment as the independent. Although, as we run additional model specifications controlling for other variables the relationship between the two becomes statistically insignificant, illustrating that the variable is not robust to changes. Therefore, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, and we conclude that there are no differences in considering the scenario as rape between the treatment and control groups.

Examining the fifth null hypothesis indicating whether there are any differences in second-order beliefs based on the respondent's gender, the Wilcoxon U-test indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between women and men at the 1% level. Observing Table 5.5, all model specifications suggest that, at the 1% significance level, women respondents believe that the average person living in Sweden would place more blame on the victim, compared to men. The null hypothesis can thereby be rejected showing evidence is a difference in second-order beliefs between women and men. Possible reasoning behind this result may be connected to the previous result found that women place less blame on the victim compared to men. Therefore, if both genders are aware of the difference in the distribution of victim blame then it would be logical to assume that women believe that the average person living in Sweden would place more blame on the victim and vice versa for men.

Observing our sixth and final null hypotheses looking at the degree to which the scenario was considered rape, the Wilcoxon U-test shows that there is a statistically significant difference between men and women at the 1% level. Moreover, the regression outputs demonstrate that women view the scenario as rape to a greater extent than men do. Admittedly, this result is only statistically significant in the first three specifications in Table 5.6, so given that woman is not statistically significant in the last specification we cannot with confidence reject the null hypothesis that there are no differences in the degree of considering the scenario as rape between women and men.

After all discussions of the null hypotheses, it is interesting to look at the relationship between first- and second-order beliefs. The outputs in Table 5.4 and Table 5.5 show that second-order beliefs and victim blame have a positive correlation. The reason behind this result can only be inferred, whereby a possible explanation may be that the respondent thought about what others would have answered when stating the attitudes towards victim blaming, which would be in line with previous findings found by Krupka and Weber (2013). Simply put, the respondent may have been influenced by their second-order beliefs when stating their first-order beliefs. Another possible explanation is that the respondent simply thinks that others share the same attitude towards victim blaming with themselves, thus providing a similar answer on their second-order beliefs. In other words, the respondent may be affected by their first-order beliefs when stating their second-order beliefs. The latter mentioned is partly what Dustan, Koutout, and Leo (2020) found in their research, however, we cannot draw exact conclusions as to whether this positive relationship constitutes.

Another finding worth mentioning is the relationship between the level of victim blame and the degree to which the respondent considered the scenario as rape. Relating to Table 5.6, we observe that the relationship is negative indicating that the less victim blames the participant places on the victim, the greater extent the participant considers the scenario as rape. This result is to be expected, since an individual who does not distribute as much blame to the victim may also understand that the scenario is defined as rape, according to the Swedish consent law.

6.1.1 Ethical Considerations

The nature of this research touches upon the very sensitive topic of rape. The inclusion of a hypothetical rape scenario in the questionnaire may have led to psychological harm for the participant, especially for those who have had prior experience of a similar situation. To ensure that proper ethical considerations were put in place to reduce the risk of activating any sort of stress, pain, anxiety, invasion of privacy, or diminished self-esteem, we provided a consent form in the survey outlining and emphasising that the participation was fully voluntary, respondents could withdraw their participation at any time, and that their responses would be treated with full confidentiality and anonymity.

6.1.2 Limitations and Future Directions

One of the greatest limitations of this study is that we did not have the opportunity to investigate the level of victim blame before and after the implementation of the law of consent. Hence, our sample is over-represented by individuals who have heard of the Swedish consent law before carrying out the

questionnaire, which most likely has led to inconclusive differences between treatment and control group. To add, we could not control for whether individuals have had prior knowledge of the law of consent before inviting them to our study, both due to administrative limitations and that this would have supplemented our sampling bias further. Albeit expanding our sample to a wider range of students and a greater number of observations has been retrieved, we believe that this sampling bias has contributed to the unexpected results whereby further studies should include a more general population (Grubb & Harrower, 2008).

Concerning our sampling limitations, we also wanted to investigate gender and relationship status combinations between the victim and perpetrator to see if various combinations would lead to less or more victim blaming. However, this would have required a substantial number of observations and unfortunately, this was out of our scope and resources considering the time frame and economic constraints. The use of the female victim and male perpetrator acquaintance dynamic may also have contributed to some of our inconclusive results since it is only one of the many combinations that are persistently depicted in all forms of private and public outlets.

Another limitation of this paper is that the theoretical framework aims to connect social norms, law, and behaviour from the perspective of first-order beliefs. It can thus be argued that the stated first-order beliefs are not the same as the individuals' behaviour. In other words, their stated level of victim blame may not be the same as how they would behave if they met an actual victim of rape. Although, as mentioned in Section 4.2.1, individuals seldom meet the victim in person and instead is more common to attribute victim blame when hearing or reading about rape cases (Ståhl et al., 2010).

Moreover, our approach in the measurement of victim blaming still has great disparities in terms of the methodology used and the factors observed that can be used to compare across studies and different contextual backgrounds. An interesting aspect that can be suggested in future research, and what we also consider as a limitation of our study, is to include more relevant variables that have been proven to offer statistical significance and importance in the explanation behind victim blame attribution, such as the belief in a just world theory and rape myth acceptance. Although it may be far-reaching and complicated to apply consistent measures due to the nature of norm variation in, for example, different countries it can offer more of a coherent and undemanding comparison across studies.

6.2 Concluding Remarks

Summarising the findings made in this paper, we find strong, robust evidence that there is a difference between men and women regarding the level of victim blame, more explicitly that women place less blame on the victim. Moreover, evidence has shown that women believe the average person living in Sweden tend to place more blame on the victim (second-order beliefs), compared to men in this sample. On account of these results, and in the Swedish context, this study has provided a conclusive indication of gender differences in victim blaming that previous studies (Adolfsson & Strömwall, 2017; Strömwall et al., 2013) could not.

Focusing on our main variable of interest and the purpose of this study, we find that there is no compelling evidence proving that receiving information about the law of consent had any impact on the level of victim blame. This has also proven to be the case in the lack of statistical differences between being assigned to a treatment or control group investigating either second-order beliefs or in considering the scenario as rape. Nevertheless, indications of less victim blame are found amongst respondents who have heard of the law prior to the survey, calling for the expressive function of law to be implemented earlier in order to have any substantial effects.

Be that as it may, we would like to highlight again that it is possible that the consent law has already been integrated into the norms of the Swedish society and the population's behaviour and attitudes towards victim blaming, making the treatment and control group indistinguishable. Or that it may be the other way around, whereby the societal norms have adapted towards attributing less blame to victims even before the law was in discussion. With this thesis, we hope to raise greater awareness of victim blaming and the underestimated economic and societal burdens it possesses in both the research and political atmosphere.

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Appendix

Appendix A

Welcome

You are invited to participate in an anonymous web-based survey on Norms. This is a research project conducted by Kristen Rosario and Stina Öman, Master Students at Handelshögskolan Göteborg.

In order to participate in this survey, **you must be at least 18 years old**. It should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. Notice that it is important that you answer as truthfully as possible. Please refrain from discussing your answers with others until the very end of the survey.

If you have any questions or if you are interested in reading our thesis, please feel free to contact us. Our emails will be provided at the end of this survey. Furthermore, a link to the lottery will be provided after completing the survey, where you will have the opportunity to win a 1000kr gift card from any store of your choosing.

Thank you, your participation means a lot to us and for future research.

Before getting started we will provide you with a consent form. See next page.

Survey consent form

PARTICIPATION Your participation in this survey is voluntary. You may refuse to take part in the research or exit the survey at any time without penalty. You are free to close the survey if you do not wish to answer for any reason.

BENEFITS Your responses may help us learn more about Norms. By participating in the survey you have the possibility of winning a lottery prize.

RISKS There is a risk that you may find some of the questions to be sensitive and/or that some questions may cause emotional discomfort.

CONFIDENTIALITY Your survey answers will be sent to a link at qualtrics.com where data will be stored in a password protected electronic format. Qualtrics does not collect identifying information such as your name, email address, or IP address. Therefore, your responses will remain anonymous. No one will be able to identify you or your answers, and no one will know whether or not you participated in the study.

However, if you choose to participate in the lottery you will be redirected to another site where only your contact information will be stored. After the lottery winner is contacted your information will be deleted permanently. This cannot associate you with your survey responses.

Choices: (I consent; I do not consent [redirected to end of the survey])

About You

To begin with, we have a few questions about you.

Age

Choices: drop-down list “below 18”-”99”

Gender

Choices: male; female; other [text box]; prefer not to say

Are you an International Student?

With ”International Student” we mean someone that is studying or has studied in Sweden for a total maximum of two years.

Choices: yes; no

Field of Study

If you feel uncertain, please choose ”other” and specify.

Choices: architecture and design; business, economics, and management; engineering and technology; environmental and sustainability; fine and performing arts; humanities; international studies and social science; law; medicine and health; science; other (please specify) [text box]

What is your current level of education?

i.e., on what level do you study today?

Choices: 3rd Year High School (Gymnasiet); Bachelor (Undergraduate); Master (Graduate); PhD Candidate; Folk High School (Folkhögskola); Vocational University (Yrkeshögskola); Other (please specify) [text box])

We will now begin the next part. We are interested in your opinion, hence there are no right or wrong answers. Please answer as truthfully as possible.

Treatment Group: With Law of Consent

Law of Consent

The Swedish government implemented a new law called The Law of Consent (i.e., Samtyckeslagen) on the 1st of July, 2018. The law implies that both participants must give consent to the sexual intercourse, otherwise, the guilty individual can through this law be convicted for negligent rape. The guilty individual is said not to have gained consent from the other involved person before or during the sexual intercourse. To clarify, sexual intercourse must be voluntary for both participants during the entire intercourse. The guilty individual does not need to use violence, threats nor their position of power in order for it to be called negligent rape.

Hypothetical Scenario

Next, a hypothetical scenario will be provided. Although this is a hypothetical scenario, you are asked to read the scenario carefully and answer the questions that follow as if it were an actual case. Feel free to leave the questionnaire if you feel uncomfortable.

Control Group: Without Law of Consent

Hypothetical Scenario

Next, a hypothetical scenario will be provided. Although this is a hypothetical scenario, you are asked to read the scenario carefully and answer the questions that follow as if it were an actual case. Feel free to leave the questionnaire if you feel uncomfortable.

Scenario

It is a Friday night; Sara is at a private party together with her friends and some other people that she does not know. The evening proceeds and everyone is having a very good time. Sara is dancing with Mikael, a boy she has met at other parties, but does not really know that well. Sara's friends eventually decide to leave the party and they ask her whether she will join them. As she's having such a good time dancing, Sara tells them that she will stay a bit longer.

Later on, Sara is feeling tired and Mikael shows her to a room where she can lie down and rest. Mikael lies down next to her on the bed and starts talking, but Sara does not really listen. Mikael then starts touching her. Mikael

proceeds by taking Sara's skirt off. Sara does not do or say anything. He takes off his own clothes and has sexual intercourse with Sara. In the morning Sara thinks through everything that happened during the night and then goes to the police to report that she has been raped.

Note: This scenario will be provided before each question. Hence, there is no need to take notes or remember the text.

To what extent did Sara do anything wrong?

Choices: To an Extremely Small Extent; To a Very Small Extent; To a Small Extent; To a Large Extent; To a very Large Extent; To an Extremely Large Extent

Scenario

To what extent can Sara be blamed for her actions?

Choices: To an Extremely Small Extent; To a Very Small Extent; To a Small Extent; To a Large Extent; To a very Large Extent; To an Extremely Large Extent

Scenario

To what extent could Sara influence the situation?

Choices: To an Extremely Small Extent; To a Very Small Extent; To a Small Extent; To a Large Extent; To a Very Large Extent; To an Extremely Large Extent

For the next part, you will be provided with the same hypothetical scenario as before. This time you are asked to answer what you believe the average person living in Sweden would have answered.

Scenario

Given the same scenario, what do you think the average person living in Sweden would have answered? To what extent did Sara do anything wrong?

Choices: To an Extremely Small Extent; To a Very Small Extent; To a Small Extent; To a Large Extent; To a Very Large Extent; To an Extremely Large Extent

Scenario

Given the same scenario, what do you think the average person living in Sweden would have answered? To what extent can Sara be blamed for her actions?

Choices: To an Extremely Small Extent; To a Very Small Extent; To a Small Extent; To a Large Extent; To a Very Large Extent; To an Extremely Large Extent

Scenario

Given the same scenario, what do you think the average person living in Sweden would have answered? To what extent could Sara influence the situation?

Choices: To an Extremely Small Extent; To a Very Small Extent; To a Small Extent; To a Large Extent; To a Very Large Extent; To an Extremely Large Extent

Statements

For this part, there will be some statements where you will be asked to answer to what extent you agree on a scale between ”Totally disagree” to ”Totally agree”. This is not related to the previous section. Please answer as truthfully as possible.

I have not always been honest with myself.

Choices: Totally disagree; Disagree; Mildly disagree; Slightly disagree; Slightly agree, Mildly agree; Agree, Totally agree

I always know why I like things.

Choices: Totally disagree; Disagree; Mildly disagree; Slightly disagree; Slightly agree, Mildly agree; Agree, Totally agree

It’s hard for me to shut off a disturbing thought.

Choices: Totally disagree; Disagree; Mildly disagree; Slightly disagree; Slightly agree, Mildly agree; Agree, Totally agree

I never regret my decisions.

Choices: Totally disagree; Disagree; Mildly disagree; Slightly disagree; Slightly agree, Mildly agree; Agree, Totally agree

I sometimes lose out on things because I can't make up my mind soon enough.

Choices: Totally disagree; Disagree; Mildly disagree; Slightly disagree; Slightly agree, Mildly agree; Agree, Totally agree

I am a completely rational person.

Choices: Totally disagree; Disagree; Mildly disagree; Slightly disagree; Slightly agree, Mildly agree; Agree, Totally agree

I am very confident in my judgements.

Choices: Totally disagree; Disagree; Mildly disagree; Slightly disagree; Slightly agree, Mildly agree; Agree, Totally agree

I sometimes tell lies if I have to.

Choices: Totally disagree; Disagree; Mildly disagree; Slightly disagree; Slightly agree, Mildly agree; Agree, Totally agree

I never cover up my mistakes.

Choices: Totally disagree; Disagree; Mildly disagree; Slightly disagree; Slightly agree, Mildly agree; Agree, Totally agree

I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.

Choices: Totally disagree; Disagree; Mildly disagree; Slightly disagree; Slightly agree, Mildly agree; Agree, Totally agree

I have said something bad about a friend behind his or her back.

Choices: Totally disagree; Disagree; Mildly disagree; Slightly disagree; Slightly agree, Mildly agree; Agree, Totally agree

When I hear people talking privately, I avoid listening.

Choices: Totally disagree; Disagree; Mildly disagree; Slightly disagree; Slightly agree, Mildly agree; Agree, Totally agree

I never take things that don't belong to me.

Choices: Totally disagree; Disagree; Mildly disagree; Slightly disagree; Slightly agree, Mildly agree; Agree, Totally agree

I don't gossip about other people's business.

Choices: Totally disagree; Disagree; Mildly disagree; Slightly disagree; Slightly agree, Mildly agree; Agree, Totally agree

You are almost done! We have some final questions for you and then you get the chance to participate in our lottery.

Control Questions - Treatment Group

To what extent was the scenario you were given considered rape?

Choices: To an Extremely Small Extent; To a Very Small Extent; To a Small Extent; To a Large Extent; To a Very Large Extent; To an Extremely Large Extent

Had you heard of the Swedish Law of Consent (Samtyckeslagen) before reading the information provided?

Choices: yes; no; uncertain

What was the main point of the Swedish Law of Consent (Samtyckeslagen)?

Choices: [text box]

Control Questions - Control Group

To what extent was the scenario you were given considered rape?

Choices: To an Extremely Small Extent; To a Very Small Extent; To a Small Extent; To a Large Extent; To a Very Large Extent; To an Extremely Large Extent

Have you heard of the Swedish Law of Consent (Samtyckeslagen)?

The Law of Consent is a Swedish law that was implemented on the 1st of July, 2018. The law implies that both participants must give consent to the sexual intercourse, otherwise, the guilty individual can through this law be convicted for negligent rape. The guilty individual is said not to have gained consent from the other involved person before or during the sexual intercourse. To clarify, sexual intercourse must be voluntary for both participants during the entire intercourse. The guilty individual does not need to use violence, threats nor their position of power in order for it to be called negligent rape.

Choices: Yes; No; Uncertain

Thank you for taking the time to participate in our survey! We truly appreciate it and look forward to presenting our results in the near future.

If there are any further questions, feel free to contact us: ***removed in compliance with GDPR***

Lottery

Would you like to participate in our amazing lottery where you can have the chance of winning a 1000kr gift card from a place of your choosing?

The link below will redirect you to a site where you can fill in your contact details. This is to ensure that your participation in the lottery is not connected to the responses you have given in this survey.

You will be contacted towards the end of May/early June on whether or not you have been chosen! Best of Luck!

Follow this link to win a 1000kr gift card!

Lottery Survey

We greatly appreciate your participation in our survey and now offer you the chance of being rewarded!

This part is voluntary, only answer if you would like to participate in the lottery to win a prize. Please enter your e-mail or mobile number in order to be contacted in the case you are picked. All personal details are subject to GDPR and will be deleted after the lottery has been drawn. Good Luck!

The prize is a **1000kr gift card** from any store of your choosing!

Please enter your details carefully.

First and Last Name

Choices: [text box]

E-Mail

Choices: [text box]

Phone Number

Choices: [text box]

Thank you for your participation! We will be in contact with you towards the end of May/beginning of June whether you have been selected or not. All the best!

Table A1: Questions on Victim Blame

Question						
	To an Extremely Small Extent	To a Very Small Extent	To A Small Extent	To A Large Extent	To a Very Large Extent	To an Extremely Large Extent
To what extent did Sara do anything wrong?	1	2	3	4	5	6
To what extent can Sara be blamed for her actions?	1	2	3	4	5	6
To what extent could Sara influence the situation?	1	2	3	4	5	6

Table A2: BIDR-14 Statements

Statements								
	Totally Disagree	Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Mildly Agree	Ágree	Totally Agree
Self-Deceptive Enhancement								
I have not always been honest with myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I always know why I like things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
It's hard for me to shut off a disturbing thought.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I never regret my decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I sometimes lose out on things because I can't make up my mind soon enough.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I am a completely rational person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I am very confident of my judgements.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Impression Management								
I sometimes tell lies if I have to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I never cover up my mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I have said something bad about a friend behind his or her back.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
When I hear people talking privately, I avoid listening.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I never take things that don't belong to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I don't gossip about other people's business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

Appendix B

Table B1: Survey Statistics

	High School	University	Folk High School	Vocational High School
Schools Contacted	135	5	6	24
Teachers Contacted	241	198	6	73
Replies	38	56	0	13
Teachers Participating	20	21	0	3
Number of Observations	275	1,080	14	41

Table B2: High Schools Contacted

Amerikanska Gymnasiet Göteborg	Donnergymnasiet
Drottning Blankas Gymnasieskola Borås	Drottning Blankas Gymnasieskola Göteborg Gårda
Drottning Blankas Gymnasieskola Göteborg Centrum	Drottning Blankas Gymnasieskola Skövde
Drottning Blankas Gymnasieskola Trollhättan	Drottning Blankas Gymnasieskola Uddevalla
Framtidsgymnasiet Göteborg	Gullmarsgymnasiet
Jensen Gymnasium Göteborg	Kitas Gymnasium
Klara Teoretiska Gymnasium Göteborg Postgatan	Klara Teoretiska Gymnasium Göteborg Vallgatan
Kunskapsgymnasiet Göteborg	LBS Kreativa Gymnasiet Göteborg
LBS Kreativa Gymnasiet i Borås	LBS Kreativa Gymnasiet Trollhättan
Mediegymnasiet Göteborg	NTI Gymnasiet Johanneberg
NTI Gymnasiet Kronhus	NTI Gymnasiet Skövde
Nösnäsgymnasiet	Praktiska Gymnasiet Borås
Praktiska Gymnasiet Göteborg	Praktiska Gymnasiet Skövde
Praktiska Gymnasiet Trollhättan	Rytmus Göteborg
Sjölins Gymnasium Göteborg	Thoren Innovation School Göteborg
Thoren Innovation School Uddevalla	Yrkesgymnasiet Ale
Yrkesgymnasiet Borås	Yrkesgymnasiet Göteborg
Yrkesgymnasiet Munkedal	Academy of Music and Business Vara
Ale Gymnasium	Alingsås Yrkesgymnasium
Almåsgymnasiet	Alströmergymnasiet
Angeredsgymnasiet	Aniaragymnasiet
Aspero Idrottsgymnasium Göteborg	Bergslenagymnasiet
Bernadottegymnasiet Göteborg	Birger Sjöbergsgymnasiet
Bollebygds Gymnasieskola	Bräckegymnasiet
Burgården GS	Burgårdens Gymnasium
Bäckängsgymnasiet	Center för språkintroduktion
Dahlstiernska Gymnasiet	De La Gardiegymnasiet
Dinglegymnasiet	Ekdungeskolan
Ester Mosessons Gymnasium	Folkuniversitets Gymnasium i Trollhättan
Franklins Gymnasium	Frejagymnasiet
Fridagymnasiet Mölnlycke	Fridagymnasiet Vänersborg
GTIS Gymnasieskola	Gymnasieakademin
Gymnasieskola Kunskapskällan	Gymnasium Skövde Kavelbro
Gymnasium Skövde Västerhöjd	Göteborgs Högre Samskola
Göteborgs Waldorfgymnasium	Göteborgsregionens Tekniska Gymnasium
Hulebäcksgymnasiet	Hvitfeldtska Gymnasiet
IHGR International High School of the Gothenburg Region	Ingrid Segerstedts Gymnasium
International IT College of Sweden Göteborg	Introduktionsprogram i Svenljunga
Karlbergsgymnasiet	Katedralskolan i Skara
Katrinelundsgymnasiet	Krokslättgymnasiet
Kunskapens Hus	Lagmansgymnasiet
Lerums Gymnasium	Lichron Teknikgymnasium Skövde
Lindholmens Tekniska Gymnasium	LM Engströms Gymnasium
Magnus Åbergsgymnaiset	Marks Gymnasieskola
Mimers Hus Gymnasium	Motorbranschens Tekniska Gymnasium
Munkeröds Utbildningscenter	Naturbruksskolan Svenljunga
Naturbruksskolan Sötåsen	Naturbruksskolan Uddetorp
Nils Ericsongymnasiet	Nuntorpsgymnasiet
Olinsgymnasiet Götene	Orust Gymnasieskola
Partille Gymnasium	Peabskolan i Göteborg
Polhemsgymnasiet	Processtekniska Gymnasiet
Realgymnasiet Borås	Realgymnasiet Göteborg
Realgymnasiet Trollhättan	Rosenhöjd Gymnasiesärskola
Rudbecksgymnasiet Tidaholm	Schillerska Gymnasiet
Sigrid Rudebecks Gymnasium	SKF:s Tekniska Gymnasium
Strömkullegymnasiet	Strömma Naturbrukscentrum
Strömstad Gymnasium	Sundlergymnasiet
Sven Eriksongymnasiet	Tanums Gymnasium
Tingsholmsgymnasiet	Tranemo Gymnasieskola
Trekungagymnasiet Mimers Hus	Uddevalla Gymnasieskola
Utsikten, Dals-Eds Gymnasieskola	Vadsbogymnasiet
Viskastrandsgymnasiet	Volvogymnasiet
Vänergymnasiet	Västsvneska Gymnasiet
Ållebergsgymnasiet	Öckerö Seglande Gymnasieskola

Table B3: Universities Contacted

Göteborg Universitet	Handelshögskolan	Chalmers
Högskolan Väst	Högskolan i Borås	Högskolan i Skövde

Table B4: Folk High Schools Contacted

Bilströmska folkhögskolan	Dalslands folkhögskola	Fristads folkhögskola
Grebbestads folkhögskola	Göteborgs folkhögskola	Vara folkhögskola

Table B5: Vocational High Schools Contacted

Teknikhögskolan	Campus Mölndal	IT-högskolan
SKY IHM	SMH	Affärshögskolan
Yrgo	Uddevalla Vuxenutbildning	Skövde yrkeshögskola
Hermods	Handelsakademin, NBI	Folkuniversitetet
YA	Partille Vuxenutbildning	Campus Västra Skaraborg
Newton	KYH	Lernia
JENSEN yrkeshögskola	EC Utbildning	Medieinstitutet
Goteborgs Tekniska College	Stenungssund Kommun	Campus Varberg
Kunskapsförbundet	Lärcenter	Falköping
Svensk Pilotutbildning	YHHS	Nordiska Textilakademin
Steneby	FEI	Movant YH
Tibro Hantverksakademi		

Appendix C

Table C1: Summary Statistics of Remaining Variables

Field of Study	Observations	Percent(%)
Architecture & Design	18	1.28
Business, Economics, & Management	354	25.11
Engineering & Technology	125	8.87
Environmental & Sustainability	73	5.18
Fine & Performing Arts	29	2.06
Humanities	126	8.94
International Studies & Social Science	226	16.03
Law	109	7.73
Medicine & Health	93	6.60
Science	219	15.53
Teacher, Education & Pedagogy	38	2.70
Total	**1,410**	**100**
Education Level	Observations	Percent(%)
High School	257	19.50
Bachelor	640	45.39
Master	401	28.44
PhD Candidate	39	2.77
Folk High School	14	0.99
Vocational High School	41	2.91
Total	**1,410**	**100**

Table C2: Full Description of Variables

Name	Variable	Measuring	Form	Value	Purpose
Victim Blaming	vicblame	Degree of victim blaming	Continuous	Between 1 and 6	Dependent
Second-Order Beliefs	vicblame2	Respondent's second-order beliefs	Continuous	Between 1 and 6	Dependent (Control)
Considered Rape	c_rape	To what degree the scenario was considered rape or not	Discrete	1=To an extremely small extent 6=To an extremely large extent	Dependent (Control)
Treatment Group	treat	Received information about the law of consent prior to vignette	Binary	1=Received information 0=Did not receive information	Independent
Respondent's Gender	woman	Women/Men	Binary	1=Woman 0=Man	Independent
Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding	BIDR14	Degree of socially desirable response	Discrete	0=No extreme answers 14=All extreme answers	Control
Respondent's Age	age	Respondent's age	Continuous	From 18 & above	Control
International Student	intstud	If respondent is an international student or not	Binary	1=International Student 0=Not an International Student	Control
Current Education Level	educ	Respondent's current education level	Categorical	Between 1 and 6 High School is the reference group	Control
Study Programme	field	Respondent's field of study	Categorical	Between 1 and 11 Architecture & Design is the reference group	Control
Heard of the Law	heardlaw	If the respondent knew about the law prior to the survey	Categorical	1=No 2=Uncertain 3=Yes	Control
Main Point of the Law	mainpointlaw	If the respondent actually read the information about the law	Binary	1=Read the information 2=Did not read the information	Control

Appendix D

Table D1: Two-Sample Wilcoxon Rank-Sum (Mann-Whitey) Test for Victim Blame by Treatment and Control Group

$H_0 : vicblame(treat == 0) = vicblame(treat == 1)$
z = -0.419
Prob $>$ |z| = 0.6764

Table D2: Two-Sample Wilcoxon Rank-Sum (Mann-Whitey) Test for Second-Order Beliefs by Treatment and Control Group

$H_0 : vicblame2(treat == 0) = vicblame2(treat == 1)$
z = -2.772
Prob $>$ |z| = 0.0056

Table D3: Two-Sample Wilcoxon Rank-Sum (Mann-Whitey) Test for Considered Rape by Treatment and Control Group

$H_0 : c\_rape(treat == 0) = c\_rape(treat == 1)$
z = 2.027
Prob $>$ |z| = 0.0426

Table D4: Two-Sample Wilcoxon Rank-Sum (Mann-Whitey) Test for Victim Blame by Women and Men

$H_0 : vicblame(woman == 0) = vicblame(woman == 1)$
z = 10.770
Prob $>$ |z| = 0.0000

Table D5: Two-Sample Wilcoxon Rank-Sum (Mann-Whitey) Test for Second-Order Beliefs by Women and Men

$H_0 : vicblame2(woman == 0) = vicblame2(woman == 1)$
z = -5.171
Prob $>$ |z| = 0.0000

Table D6: Two-Sample Wilcoxon Rank-Sum (Mann-Whitey) Test for Considered Rape by Women and Men

$H_0 : c\_rape(woman == 0) = c\_rape(woman == 1)$
z = -8.338
Prob $>$ |z| = 0.0000

Appendix E

Figure E1: Residual-versus-Fitted Plot for Victim Blame

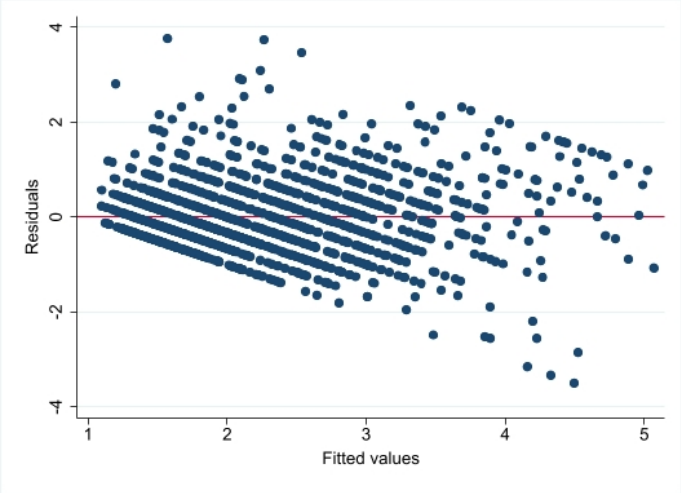

Figure E2: Residual-versus-Fitted Plot for Second-Order Beliefs

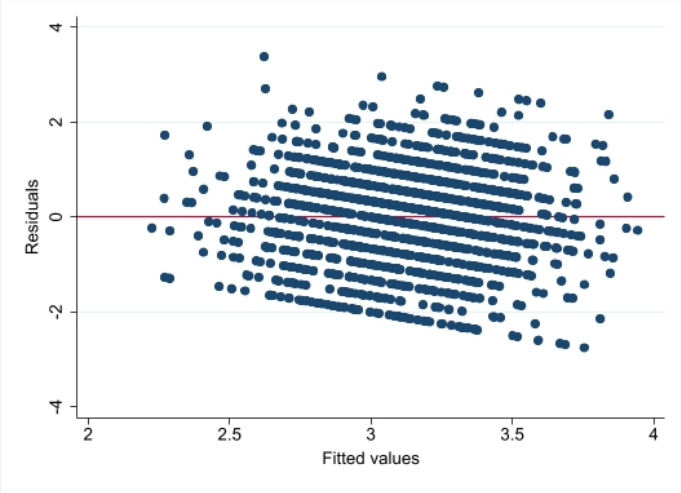

Table E1: Breusch-Pagan Test for Heteroskedasticity for Victim Blame

H_0 : *Constantvariance*
Variables: fitted values of vicblame
chi2(1) = 184.48
Prob > chi2 = 0.0000

Table E2: Breusch-Pagan Test for Heteroskedasticity for Second-Order Beliefs

H_0 : *Constantvariance*
Variables: fitted values of vicblame2
chi2(1) = 2.26
Prob > chi2 = 0.1332

Appendix F

Table F1: Complete OLS Regression using Victim Blame as Outcome Variable

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Treatment	0.0216		0.0292	0.0239	-0.0737
	(0.0589)		(0.105)	(0.102)	(0.0768)
Woman		-0.647***	-0.645***	-0.613***	-0.342***
		(0.0622)	(0.0859)	(0.0845)	(0.0648)
Treatment*Woman			-0.0330	0.0286	0.0151
			(0.123)	(0.120)	(0.0917)
Age			0.0213***	0.0196***	0.00452
			(0.00593)	(0.00583)	(0.00475)
International Student			0.387***	0.164*	0.0734
			(0.0826)	(0.0918)	(0.0683)
Business, Economics, and Management			-0.161	-0.157	-0.0788
			(0.276)	(0.252)	(0.184)
Engineering and Technology			-0.274	-0.263	-0.0866
			(0.281)	(0.257)	(0.188)
Environmental and Sustainability			-0.195	-0.199	-0.165
			(0.304)	(0.284)	(0.203)
Fine and Performing Arts			-0.443	-0.433	-0.218
			(0.350)	(0.327)	(0.269)
Humanities			-0.398	-0.386	-0.230
			(0.281)	(0.258)	(0.189)
International Studies and Social Science			-0.383	-0.356	-0.167
			(0.278)	(0.254)	(0.184)
Law			-0.293	-0.262	-0.173
			(0.283)	(0.261)	(0.190)
Medicine and Health			0.120	0.0808	0.0822
			(0.295)	(0.272)	(0.200)
Science			-0.193	-0.194	-0.106
			(0.279)	(0.255)	(0.186)
Teacher Education and Pedagogy			-0.0103	0.0108	0.107
			(0.335)	(0.319)	(0.228)
Bachelor			-0.186**	-0.201***	-0.0640
			0.0800)	(0.0779)	(0.0603)
Master			-0.218**	-0.297***	-0.104
			(0.0945)	(0.0937)	(0.0691)
PhD			-0.328	-0.350*	-0.157
			(0.202)	(0.199)	(0.141)
Folk High School			-0.475**	-0.456**	-0.266
			(0.230)	(0.215)	(0.267)
Vocational University			-0.189	-0.143	0.0174
			(0.216)	(0.210)	(0.150)
BIDR-14				0.0377***	0.0433***
				(0.0131)	(0.0102)
Heard of Law				-0.342***	-0.200***
				(0.0648)	(0.0480)
Second Order Beliefs					0.101***
					(0.0227)
Considered Rape					-0.511***
					(0.0230)
Constant	2.267***	2.689***	2.456***	3.370***	5.123***
	(0.0411)	(0.053)	(0.318)	(0.356)	(0.297)
Observations	1,410	1,410	1,410	1,410	1,410
R^2	0.000	0.080	0.131	0.163	0.505

Robust Standard errors in parentheses

$^{***}\, p < 0.01, \quad ^{**}\, p < 0.05, \quad ^{*}\, p < 0.10$

Table F2: Complete OLS Regression using Second-Order Beliefs as Outcome Variable

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Treatment	0.151***		0.136	0.141	0.142
	(0.0559)		(0.0913)	(0.0915)	(0.0913)
Woman		0.300***	0.293***	0.288***	0.365***
		(0.0577)	(0.0807)	(0.0808)	(0.0825)
Treatment*Woman			0.0327	0.0271	0.0259
			(0.114)	(0.115)	(0.114)
Age			-0.00819	-0.00807	-0.0102*
			(0.00539)	(0.00540)	(0.00535)
International Student			-0.138*	-0.0694	-0.0915
			(0.0751)	(0.0858)	(0.0851)
Business, Economics, and Management			0.0248	0.0173	0.0332
			(0.230)	(0.227)	(0.228)
Engineering and Technology			0.301	0.293	0.317
			(0.240)	(0.238)	(0.238)
Environmental and Sustainability			0.185	0.179	0.203
			(0.250)	(0.248)	(0.247)
Fine and Performing Arts			0.134	0.123	0.171
			(0.298)	(0.296)	(0.306)
Humanities			0.193	0.180	0.223
			(0.242)	(0.240)	(0.241)
International Studies and Social Science			0.0751	0.0587	0.0971
			(0.234)	(0.231)	(0.232)
Law			0.351	0.335	0.364
			(0.243)	(0.241)	(0.241)
Medicine and Health			0.0419	0.0425	0.0233
			(0.247)	(0.244)	(0.245)
Science			0.0864	0.0807	0.101
			(0.234)	(0.231)	(0.232)
Teacher Education and Pedagogy			0.192	0.175	0.161
			(0.282)	(0.279)	(0.276)
Bachelor			-0.142*	-0.138*	-0.116
			(0.0789)	(0.0790)	(0.0779)
Master			-0.274***	-0.249***	-0.215**
			(0.0913)	(0.0916)	(0.0903)
PhD			-0.315	-0.306	-0.262
			(0.221)	(0.221)	(0.215)
Folk High School			0.145	0.148	0.209
			(0.248)	(0.251)	(0.252)
Vocational University			-0.0909	-0.113	-0.104
			(0.205)	(0.204)	(0.205)
Heard of Law				0.119*	0.163***
				(0.0624)	(0.0630)
Victim Blame					0.156***
					(0.0395)
Considered Rape					0.0353
					(0.0306)
Constant	3.059***	2.942***	3.131***	2.787***	2.105***
	(0.0393)	(0.046)	(0.263)	(0.314)	(0.388)
Observations	1,410	1,410	1,410	1,410	1,410
R^2	0.005	0.019	0.056	0.059	0.076

Robust Standard errors in parentheses

$^{***}\, p < 0.01, \quad ^{**}\, p < 0.05, \quad ^{*}\, p < 0.10$

Table F3: Complete Ordered Logit Regression using Considered Rape as Outcome Variable

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Treatment	-0.196**		-0.147	-0.142	-0.200
	(0.0970)		(0.161)	(0.161)	(0.165)
Woman		0.843***	0.933***	0.908***	0.212
		(0.101)	(0.146)	(0.146)	(0.153)
Treatment*Woman			-0.127	-0.134	-0.09481
			(0.205)	(0.204)	(0.211)
Age			-0.0426***	-0.0428***	-0.0250**
			(0.00971)	(0.00997)	(0.0103)
International Student			-0.450***	-0.223	-0.110
			(0.135)	(0.153)	(0.152)
Business, Economics, and Management			0.354	0.336	0.181
			(0.414)	(0.417)	(0.369)
Engineering and Technology			0.706	0.690	0.402
			(0.431)	(0.435)	(0.401)
Environmental and Sustainability			0.286	0.264	0.0418
			(0.454)	(0.459)	(0.404)
Fine and Performing Arts			0.938*	0.888	0.582
			(0.561)	(0.562)	(0.518)
Humanities			0.594	0.567	0.126
			(0.434)	(0.438)	(0.392)
International Studies and Social Science			0.708*	0.662	0.248
			(0.419)	(0.422)	(0.377)
Law			0.398	0.360	0.0466
			(0.433)	(0.436)	(0.399)
Medicine and Health			0.121	0.133	0.270
			(0.448)	(0.451)	(0.414)
Science			0.317	0.301	0.0976
			(0.420)	(0.422)	(0.376)
Teacher Education and Pedagogy			0.536	0.511	0.614
			(0.520)	(0.525)	(0.443)
Bachelor			0.293**	0.308**	0.138
			(0.140)	(0.140)	(0.144)
Master			0.354**	0.435***	0.131
			(0.166)	(0.169)	(0.173)
PhD			0.430	0.448	0.00887
			(0.333)	(0.336)	(0.326)
Folk High School			0.600	0.622	0.169
			(0.574)	(0.554)	(0.574)
Vocational University			0.518	0.439	0.390
			(0.342)	(0.346)	(0.343)
Heard of Law				0.391***	-0.0176
				(0.113)	(0.112)
Victim Blame					-1.520***
					(0.0788)
Second Order Beliefs					0.0546
					(0.0526)
/cut1	-3.715***	-3.160***	-3.719***	-2.622***	-9.021***
	(0.176)	(0.174)	(0.490)	(0.578)	(0.692)
/cut2	-2.835***	-2.272***	-2.822***	-1.721***	-7.730***
	(0.124)	(0.125)	(0.481)	(0.568)	(0.652)
/cut3	-1.720***	-1.137***	-1.666***	-0.555	-5.975***
	(0.0889)	(0.0916)	(0.476)	(0.568)	(0.622)
/cut4	-0.719***	-0.108	-0.608	0.513	-4.395***
	(0.0747)	(0.0824)	(0.473)	(0.566)	(0.601)
/cut5	0.257***	0.903***	0.432	1.560***	-2.958***
	(0.0721)	(0.0851)	(0.471)	(0.566)	(0.591)
Observations	1,410	1,410	1,410	1,410	1,410

Robust Standard errors in parentheses

*** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.10$

Table F4: Complete OLS Regression using Victim Blame as Outcome Variable and controlling for having heard of the law before

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Treatment	0.0113	0.0206	0.0124	-0.0584
	(0.0596)	(0.0960)	(0.0958)	(0.0746)
Woman		-0.623***	-0.605***	-0.313***
		(0.0839)	(0.0839)	(0.0668)
Treatment*Woman		-0.00386	0.0117	0.0285
		(0.119)	(0.119)	(0.0922)
Age		0.0199***	0.0189***	0.00308
		(0.00503)	(0.00502)	(0.00396)
International Student		0.301***	0.275*	0.104
		(0.0857)	(0.0859)	(0.0671)
Business, Economics, and Management		-0.0267	-0.0139	-0.106
		(0.265)	(0.264)	(0.205)
Engineering and Technology		-0.0240	-0.0339	0.113
		(0.274)	(0.273)	(0.212)
Environmental and Sustainability		0.0735	0.0479	0.0392
		(0.285)	(0.284)	(0.221)
Fine and Performing Arts		-0.226	-0.246	-0.0278
		(0.328)	(0.327)	(0.255)
Humanities		-0.0471	-0.0722	0.0268
		(0.275)	(0.274)	(0.213)
International Studies and Social Science		-0.124	-0.145	0.0275
		(0.267)	(0.267)	(0.207)
Law		0.0150	-0.00563	0.0449
		(0.276)	(0.276)	(0.214)
Medicine and Health		0.304	0.261	0.241
		(0.281)	(0.280)	(0.218)
Science		0.0379	0.0164	0.104
		(0.269)	(0.268)	(0.209)
Teacher Education and Pedagogy		0.264	0.234	0.368
		(0.310)	(0.309)	(0.240)
Bachelor		-0.154*	-0.159**	-0.0295
		0.0790)	(0.0787)	(0.0614)
Master		-0.241**	-0.245***	-0.0681
		(0.0938)	(0.0935)	(0.0730)
PhD		-0.339*	-0.340*	-0.149
		(0.199)	(0.198)	(0.154)
Folk High School		-0.487	-0.470	-0.260
		(0.301)	(0.300)	(0.234)
Vocational University		-0.0949	-0.113	0.0671
		(0.216)	(0.210)	(0.150)
BIDR-14			0.0354***	0.0403***
			(0.0131)	(0.0102)
Second Order Beliefs				0.0904***
				(0.0221)
Considered Rape				-0.506***
				(0.0184)
Constant	2.172***	2.172***	2.093***	4.332***
	(0.0417)	(0.292)	(0.292)	(0.257)
Observations	1,230	1,230	1,230	1,230
R^2	0.000	0.120	0.126	0.473

Robust Standard errors in parentheses

$^{***}\ p < 0.01, \quad ^{**}\ p < 0.05, \quad ^{*}\ p < 0.10$

Table F5: Complete OLS Regression using Victim Blame as Outcome Variable and controlling for not having heard of the law before

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Treatment	-0.0984	-0.192	-0.199	-0.187
	(0.244)	(0.376)	(0.378)	(0.296)
Woman		-0.868**	-0.866**	-0.734**
		(0.361)	(0.362)	(0.283)
Treatment*Woman		0.0557	0.0776	0.282
		(0.481)	(0.488)	(0.383)
Age		0.0310	0.0299	0.0146
		(0.0212)	(0.0216)	(0.0173)
International Student		-0.228	-0.215	0.115
		(0.302)	(0.307)	(0.242)
Business, Economics, and Management		-1.252	-1.259	-1.273
		(1.325)	(1.332)	(1.050)
Engineering and Technology		-1.524	-1.523	-1.194
		(1.349)	(1.356)	(1.077)
Environmental and Sustainability		-1.775	-1.759	-1.364
		(1.365)	(1.373)	(1.080)
Fine and Performing Arts		-1.899	-1.871	-1.514
		(1.494)	(1.504)	(1.188)
Humanities		-2.334*	-2.334*	-1.782*
		(1.342)	(1.349)	(1.064)
International Studies and Social Science		-1.841	-1.824	-1.411
		(1.336)	(1.344)	(1.064)
Law		-2.127	-2.112	-1.910
		(1.444)	(1.452)	(1.153)
Medicine and Health		-0.701	-0.689	-0.402
		(1.377)	(1.384)	(1.083)
Science		-1.142	-1.135	-1.148
		(1.340)	(1.347)	(1.061)
Teacher Education and Pedagogy		-3.370*	-3.357*	-2.228
		(1.776)	(1.786)	(1.399)
Bachelor		-0.870	-0.865	-0.294
		(0.551)	(0.554)	(0.441)
Master		-0.872	-0.891*	-0.301
		(0.525)	(0.531)	(0.442)
PhD		-0.653	-0.645	-0.0412
		(0.850)	(0.854)	(0.678)
Folk High School		0.140	0.272	0.396
		(1.580)	(1.579)	(1.170)
Vocational University		-0.0416	-0.149	0.210
		(0.860)	(0.862)	(0.647)
BIDR-14			0.0354***	0.0403***
			(0.0447)	(0.0354)
Second Order Beliefs				0.152*
				(0.0904))
Considered Rape				-0.466***
				(0.0616)
Constant	2.970***	5.109***	5.072***	5.761***
	(0.174)	(1.238)	(1.249)	(0.994)
Observations	112	112	112	112
R^2	0.001	0.299	0.300	0.585

Robust Standard errors in parentheses

$^{***}\, p < 0.01, \quad ^{**}\, p < 0.05, \quad ^{*}\, p < 0.10$

Table F6: Complete OLS Regression using Victim Blame as Outcome Variable and controlling for being uncertain of having heard of the law before

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Treatment	0.336	0.392	0.382	0.146
	(0.295)	(0.470)	(0.469)	(0.352)
Woman		-0.134	-0.220	-0.308
		(0.495)	(0.498)	(0.369)
Treatment*Woman		-0.0643	0.128	0.347
		(0.700)	(0.717)	(0.537)
Age		-0.0127	-0.0199	-0.0136
		(0.0282)	(0.0288)	(0.0218)
International Student		-0.228	-0.294	-0.0897
		(0.483)	(0.485)	(0.365)
Business, Economics, and Management		-0.339	-0.601	-0.877
		(1.101)	(1.120)	(0.836)
Engineering and Technology		-0.933	-1.153	-1.152
		(1.047)	(1.060)	(0.785)
Fine and Performing Arts			0.420	-0.385
-0.649				
		(1.864)	(1.982)	(1.482)
Humanities		-1.533	-1.833	-1.906**
		(1.135)	(1.159)	(0.866)
International Studies and Social Science		-0.518	-0.726	-0.836
		(1.111)	(1.121)	(0.837)
Law		-1.026	-1.030	-0.713
		(1.366)	(1.361)	(1.010)
Medicine and Health		-1.146	-1.301	-1.207
		(1.193)	(1.196)	(0.886)
Science		-0.976	-1.149	-1.582*
		(1.106)	(1.112)	(0.825)
Teacher Education and Pedagogy		-0.842	-0.995	-1.703*
		(1.264)	(1.266)	(0.945)
Bachelor		-0.352	-0.310	-0.184
		(0.471)	(0.470)	(0.349)
Master		0.225	0.424	0.103
		(0.598)	(0.621)	(0.471)
PhD		-0.461	-0.260	0.355
		(0.953)	(0.965)	(0.722)
BIDR-14			0.0739	0.0761
			(0.0636)	(0.0470)
Second Order Beliefs				0.253**
				(0.112)
Considered Rape				-0.568***
				(0.0904)
Constant	2.876***	4.184***	4.231***	5.838***
	(0.205)	(1.230)	(1.226)	(1.077)
Observations	68	68	68	68
R^2	0.019	0.214	0.236	0.599

Robust Standard errors in parentheses

$^{***}\, p < 0.01, \quad ^{**}\, p < 0.05, \quad ^{*}\, p < 0.10$

Appendix G

Figure G1: Average Marginal Effects of Treatment with 95% CIs

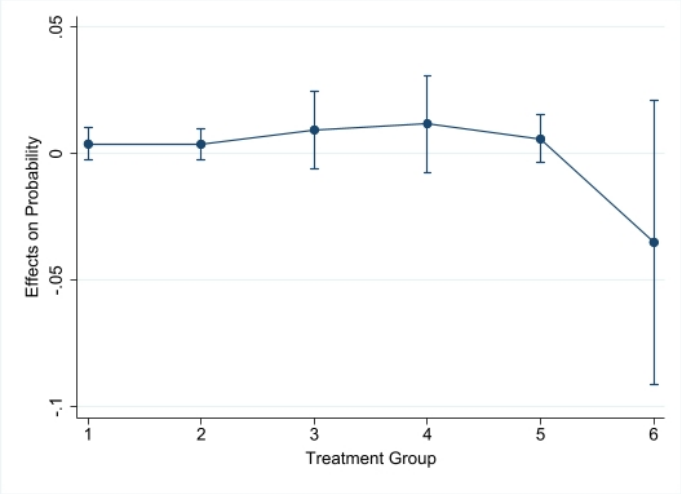

Figure G2: Average Marginal Effects of Woman with 95% CIs

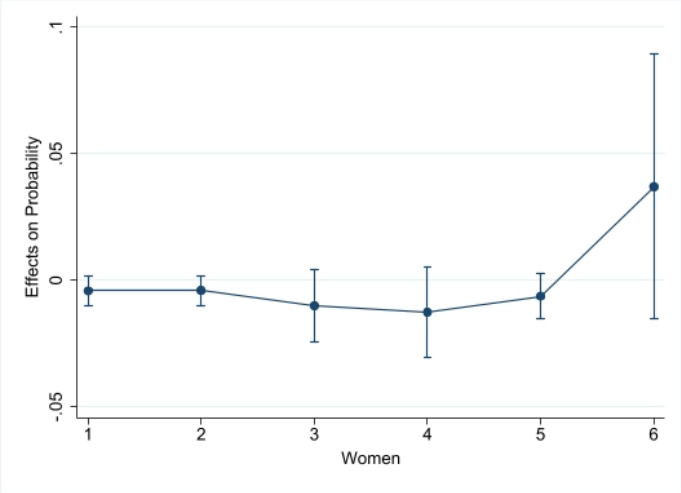

Table G1: Average Marginal Effects of Treatment: Delta-Method

	dy/dx	Std.Err	z	P>z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
predict						
1	0.004	0.003	1.210	0.228	-0.002	0.010
2	0.004	0.003	1.200	0.230	-0.002	0.010
3	0.009	0.008	1.210	0.228	-0.006	0.025
4	0.012	0.010	1.220	0.224	-0.007	0.031
5	0.006	0.005	1.220	0.223	-0.004	0.015
6	-0.035	0.029	-1.220	0.224	-0.091	0.021

Table G2: Average Marginal Effects of Women: Delta-Method

	dy/dx	Std.Err	z	P>z	[95% Conf.	Interval]
predict						
1	-0.004	0.003	-1.370	0.171	-0.010	0.002
2	-0.004	0.003	-1.350	0.176	-0.010	0.002
3	-0.010	0.007	-1.380	0.168	-0.024	0.004
4	-0.013	0.009	-1.380	0.167	-0.030	0.005
5	-0.006	0.004	-1.390	0.164	-0.015	0.003
6	0.037	0.027	1.390	0.166	-0.015	0.089