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Profile of young victims of unwanted sexual experiences: A gender comparison using a Swiss national survey.

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Compliance with ethical standards

Ethical approval: All procedures performed in studies involving human participants were in accordance with the ethical standards of the Ethics committee in research of the canton of Vaud and with the 1964 Helsinki declaration and its later amendments or comparable ethical standards.

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Abstract

Purpose Youths are particularly at risk of experiencing sexual victimization but research tends to focus on the most violent forms (i.e. rape or child sexual abuse) and on female cases. This study aimed at identifying factors associated to different types of unwanted sexual experiences (USE) among young females and males as well as estimating probabilities of experiencing sexual victimization among gender.

Methods Data were drawn from a cross-sectional survey on sexual health and behaviors using a nationally representative sample of youths aged 24-26 living in Switzerland. Respondents (N=5290) were divided in three categories of reported USE, ordered by conceptualized severity. The fourth group was constituted of those never having experienced any. Weighted bivariate and multivariate analyses were performed using demographic characteristics and risk behavior indicators.

Results At the multivariate level, the higher the severity of USE the higher the number of associated factors, revealing the complexity of this issue. Females had a higher probability of experiencing sexual victimization than of never experiencing any, with a probability of two out of three. They faced higher probabilities of sexual victimization than males, although males' probability of USE were not as marginal as expected, further considering that they are found to face higher rates of non-disclosure than females.

Conclusion When investigating sexual victimization, there is a need to consider the diverse forms of USE and adopt a gendered approach in order to better comprehend sexual victimization and effectively intervene on the social, legal and public health levels to prevent sexual victimization among youths.

Keywords:

Youths; sexual victimization; sexual health; risks; Switzerland

Sexual victimization is increasingly recognized as a major public health issue, leading to harmful consequences on health and disproportionally targeting youths (Dukers-Muijrers, Somers, De Graaf, Meijer, & Hoebe, 2015; Macdowall et al., 2013; Mohler-Kuo et al., 2014). Research has highlighted the adverse effects of sexual victimization, such as later effects on mental and physical health as well as adoption of risky behaviors by victims (Depraetere, Vandeviver, Beken, & Keygnaert, 2018; Leeners et al., 2007; Liebermann et al., 2018; Macdowall et al., 2013; Turchik, 2012). There is a broad range of unwanted sexual experiences (USE) on the spectrum of sexual victimization, the most severe form corresponding to the legal definition of rape (Koss et al., 2007). The definition of USE includes other sexual acts such as sexual harassment, intimate partner violence, unwanted sexual attention, sexual coercion, or sexual fondling (Akre, Chabloz, Belanger, Michaud, & Suris, 2013; Macdowall et al., 2013). Adolescence is a crucial period during which sexuality and sexual health are developing and defined and young people are particularly at risk of experiencing USE (Dukers-Muijrers et al., 2015; Hamby, Finkelhor, & Turner, 2013; Kavanaugh, 2013; Livingston, Hequembourg, Testa, & Vanzile-Tamsen, 2007; Macdowall et al., 2013). During the transition from childhood to adulthood, adolescents are constructing their own sexual boundaries and learning to respect those of others (Akre et al., 2013; Ngo, Veliz, Kusunoki, Stein, & Boyd, 2018). They may demonstrate difficulties expressing their own limits as it may not be clearly defined at early stages of sexual health development. Also, they may accept sexual activities to meet expectations, fulfill the norms of their peer group and position themselves as a desirable partner. This may lead them to encounter less severe forms of USE such as sexual compliance (i.e. the act of consenting to unwanted sexual activity) (Darden, Ehman, Lair, & Gross, 2019). Furthermore, several types of USE may be prompted by environmental factors and associated behaviors which go along with the adolescent lifestyle, such as parties and binge drinking (Kavanaugh, 2013; Livingston et al., 2007).

The direct comparison of lifetime prevalence of sexual victimization across studies is difficult, mainly due to the lack of homogenization of what constitutes sexual victimization (i.e. definition used), ways to measure it (i.e. operationalization, survey design) and population of interest (e.g. college students

or particular age range) (Coxell & King, 2010; Depraetere et al., 2018; Dukers-Muijrers et al., 2015; Gruber & Fineran, 2016; Macdowall et al., 2013; Mohler-Kuo et al., 2014; Schönbucher, Held, Mohler-Kuo, Schnyder, & Landolt, 2011). Furthermore, self-identification as a sexual victim by respondents may differ across countries, potentially reflecting disparities in cultural and legal norms.

To date, research tends to focus on women's experiences of sexual victimization (Coker, Austin, & Schuster, 2010; Coxell & King, 2010; Depraetere et al., 2018; Hamby et al., 2013; Macdowall et al., 2013; Stemple & Meyer, 2014; Sundaram, Laursen, & Helweg-Larsen, 2008; Turchik, 2012). Moreover, most studies focused on certain forms of USE only (Depraetere et al., 2018; Hamby et al., 2013; Macdowall et al., 2013), especially on more serious sexual crimes like rape (Kavanaugh, 2013). The aim of this study is to extend current knowledge of sexual victimization by analyzing various types of USE and by using a gender perspective using a large representative sample of young people. We seek to determine what are the risks of experiencing USE and which factors are associated to each type separately for females and males. We hypothesize that the most severe forms are associated with several risky behaviors, sexual or not, and particularly affect vulnerable populations (e.g. females, sexual minorities) (Dukers-Muijrers et al., 2015; Macdowall et al., 2013). Also, we expect females to face higher risks of sexual victimization than males, and we took into consideration that disclosure behaviors might vary across gender. Indeed, underreport is especially expected among males, mainly explained by the feeling of embarrassment, the fear of not being believed or of being emasculated (Stemple & Meyer, 2014).

Methods

Data were drawn from a self-administered online survey on sexual behaviors of young adults living in Switzerland conducted in 2017. The Swiss Federal Office of Statistics provided the initial random sample of youths aged 24 to 26 years in 2016, the population of interest. Potential participants received a letter explaining the goals of the study and the security rules / confidentiality concerns, and provided a link to the website to access the online questionnaire, and a unique randomly created 8character ID required to enter the questionnaire. All data were anonymous as there was no way to connect the name of the person with the code. The code was only used to avoid persons outside the sample enter the survey. The final sample included 7142 respondents, with a response rate of 15.1% and a mean age of 26.3 years. Data were weighted as female respondents and French-speaking regions were slightly over-represented. As the aim of the study was to obtain a broad picture of adolescent' sexuality, a retrospective approach was adopted with a Life History Calendar (LHC) technique. LHC helped visualizing life course through milestone events (such as age of entry in secondary school or year of first job), guiding respondents to situate special occasions regarding their sexuality during their lifetime. This methodology enables more accuracy than conventional retrospective question lists and thus limits potential recall bias (Belli, 1998; Morselli, Berchtold, Granell, & Berchtold, 2016). Ethics committee in research of the canton of Vaud gave ethic clearance in agreement with the Swiss law. A detailed description of data collection and survey methodology can be found elsewhere(Barrense-Dias et al., 2018).

- Measures

• Outcome variable

Among participating youths, 5290 answered the questionnaire part on unwanted sexual experiences that included several questions assessing diverse forms of USE. We classified respondents having reported USE at least once into one of the following categories: those answering "yes" to the question *Have you ever accepted sexual intercourse without really wanting*? were categorized in the Sexual Compliance group (N=1312, 24.8%); those answering "yes" to the question *During your lifetime, were some of your sexual contacts or intercourses unwanted*? were assigned to the Unwanted Sexual Intercourses or Contacts (USI/C) group (N=505, 9.6%); and those responding "yes" to *Have you ever been sexually assaulted or abused*? were classified in the Sexual Assault group (N=489, 9.2%). As already observed in previous studies (Turner, Finkelhor, & Ormrod, 2010) an important part of respondents reported polyvictimization. We assigned them to the group associated to the most severe reported form, severity range being conceptualized as: Sexual Compliance<USI/C<Sexual Assault. For instance, a person reporting both sexual compliance and sexual assault experiences was assigned to

the Sexual Assault group. Finally, those not having reported USE were classified in the No USE group (N=2984, 56.4%).

• Independent variables

Sociodemographic characteristics included gender (male/female), place of birth (Switzerland/other) and place of residence (rural/urban). We used a proxy for socioeconomic status (SES), assessed with the question Compared to other families in Switzerland, your family's financial situation when you were 15 was... and dichotomized the seven possible answers into average or above and below average (Hibell, Guttormsson, Ahlström, Balakireva, & Bjarnason, 2009). Sexual orientation was assessed by using a multidimensional definition, allowing to reflect its complexity as recommended by several authors (Coker et al., 2010; Priebe & Svedin, 2013), including: self-identification, sexual attraction and sexual behavior. We assessed self-identification through the question How would you describe yourself, with the following possibilities: heterosexual, homosexual, bisexual, I don't know/I am not sure and other. Attraction was measured with the question What best describes how you feel, with possibilities ranging from attracted only to people of the same sex as me, to attracted only to people of the opposite sex. Finally, the sexual behavior dimension was assessed with the partners' sex with whom they performed diverse sexual acts (sexual contact and oral, vaginal or anal sex). Combining those three dimensions of sexual orientation allowed creating a dummy variable distinguishing those being exclusively heterosexual - all aspects were reported as heterosexual - from those identified as non-exclusively heterosexual - at least one dimension was categorized as non-heterosexual.

The potentially risky sexual behavior category included three binary variables regarding sexual intercourse (SI): SI with an individual met on the Internet; SI while intoxicated; and a one-night stand SI, separately dichotomized (never/ever). Then, the number of lifetime sexual partners was assessed with the following categories: one, two or three, four to seven and more than seven. Finally, proxies for risky behaviors included four dummy variables assessing substance use: tobacco (non-smoker/ever smoker), as well as cannabis, other illegal drugs and drunkenness episode (never/ever).

- Statistical analysis

We performed analyses at the bivariate and multivariate levels. At the bivariate level, we performed chi-square tests in order to observe potential differences in the prevalence of covariates across the different groups of USE. We then included the statistically significant variables (p<0.05) in a multinomial logistic regression (MNLR), using No USE as the reference group and only keeping the covariates with a p-value below 5%.

Coefficients obtained in the MNLR are relative risk ratios (RRR) referring to the reference group (No USE). As we were interested in the probabilities to be exposed to USE as well as in factors affecting the absolute probability of being in the various groups, we performed further analyses. Using results from the MNLR, we were able to estimate the probabilities of being in the different groups of USE (summing up to one) separately for females and males through average adjusted prediction (AAP). We then performed a comparison across gender of factors associated with the groups of USE, by running separate MNLR conditional on gender and comparing average marginal effects (AME) of the covariates, rather than RRR, following the recommendation of Mood (Mood, 2010). AME allows identifying which factors are significantly associated with the probability of being in each group, including factors associated with the probability of never experiencing any USE, which cannot be formally assessed through MNLR using No USE as the reference category. All analyses were performed using STATA 14.0 (StataCorp, College Station, TX, USA).

Results

Bivariate analysis

As shown in Table 1, prevalence of USE was higher among females and increased with USE severity. Indeed, 85% of sexual assault victims were females and two thirds of those having never experienced USE were males. Overall, those having experienced any form of USE, regardless of the severity, were on average more likely (p<0.05) to be females and non-exclusively heterosexual, to evaluate their SES as below average, to be foreign born, to live in an urban area and to have ever used the assessed substances. With the exception of drunkenness episodes, the prevalence of those indicators increased with USE severity. Regarding sexual risky behaviors, they were more likely to have had at least four or more sexual partners in their lifetime and experienced at least once one particular form of SI.

Multivariate analysis

Multinomial logistic regression (MNLR)

In the regression analysis (Table 2), we observed that the most important factor of the diverse forms of USE was being a female, and that the relative importance of the factor increased with the severity of USE. Thereby, women were 4.1 times more likely to have experienced Sexual Compliance over No USE than men and their relative risk ratio was 16.3 times higher to have experienced Sexual Assault. All other covariates included in the regression were positively associated with the probability of being exposed to any form of USE over No USE (RRR>1) and strengthened with severity, although not all significantly (p>0.05).

Average Adjusted Predictions (AAP) of gender

According to the AAP, females had 2 probabilities out of 3 (65%) of experiencing at least once any form of USE (Fig. 1). They had the same probability (i.e. overlapping confidence intervals) of never experiencing USE and experiencing Sexual Compliance (of about 35% each). Furthermore, they had the same probabilities of experiencing more severe forms of USE, with a probability of 14% of experiencing USI/C and 16% of being a victim of Sexual Assault or abuse. Regarding males, they were twice more likely than women of never experiencing USE (72%). Further, they had a cumulative probability of almost 10% of experiencing severe forms of USE (6% USI/C and 3% sexual assault), three times lower than for females.

Average Marginal Effects (AME)

Factors associated with the probability of No USE

The graphical representations of the AME of the covariates on the outcome are presented in Figure 2. We observed rather similar patterns of associations across gender regarding the probability of never experiencing USE. Indeed, all factors included in the regression analysis were negatively associated with the probability of being in the No USE group, although not all significantly. Females were less likely to have experienced No USE if they were non-heterosexual, reported a below average SES, had had more than one sexual partner or had SI while intoxicated. The profile of males less likely to have experienced No USE included those having reported a non-heterosexual orientation, their family SES as below average, more than seven sexual partners, SI with a person met online or while intoxicated, and having ever smoked.

- Factors associated with the probability of Sexual Compliance

There was no factor significantly associated with the probability of experiencing Sexual Compliance for females. The profile of males more at risk of experiencing this type of USE included those with a non-heterosexual orientation, that had SI with a person met on the Internet or while intoxicated.

- Factors associated with the probability of USI/C

The factors significantly associated with females' probability of being a USI/C victim were having had more than one sexual partner in their life and having reported SI while intoxicated. The profile of males included those who reported a non-heterosexual orientation, more than seven sexual partners and SI while intoxicated.

Factors associated with the probability of Sexual Assault

Finally, the profile of females significantly more at risk of being victims of Sexual Assault included those who reported a non-heterosexual orientation, a lower perceived family SES, more than one sexual partner, a SI with a person met online, and had used other illegal drugs. For males, the factors accounting in the probability of experiencing Sexual Assault were being non-heterosexual and having used marijuana.

Discussion

As emphasized by literature, our results confirm that being female is the most important predictor of sexual victimization (Banyard et al., 2007; Hamby et al., 2013; Ngo et al., 2018; Sundaram et al., 2008). We observed that females had the same probability of experiencing Sexual Compliance than of never experiencing any USE. Likewise, they had a similar probability of being a victim of USI/C and of Sexual Assault. Overall, females had a higher probability of experiencing USE than No USE, regardless of

severity, with two risks out of three. Thus, young females seem to face a higher risk of ever being exposed to USE than of never being, thereby suggesting that the situation of never experiencing sexual victimization is not what most females could expect (i.e. the norm).

Males had a straightforward pattern, as the probability of USE declined with severity. They had one probability out of five of experiencing Sexual Compliance and twice less of experiencing at least once a severe or rather severe form of USE. Thus, risks to be exposed to USE were lower for males compared to females' situation, with one probability out of four, but not as marginal as expected regarding the general lack of interest for the study of sexual victimization of this population. Furthermore, underreport is especially expected among males (Hidaka et al., 2014; Sundaram et al., 2008; World Health Organization, 2003). A possible explanation lies in social norms such as gender roles and heterosexual scripts, which describe men as the sexually dominant gender, preventing them to self-identify as victims (Banyard et al., 2007; Depraetere et al., 2018; Sundaram et al., 2008). Likewise, adherence to these norms may hamper researchers to conceptualize males as potential sexual victims and therefore as relevant subjects of study.

Among males, we observed a systematic positive association between an identified non-heterosexual orientation and the diverse forms of the assessed USE. This factor decreased by almost one-fifth males' probability of never experiencing any form of sexual victimization. A reported non-heterosexuality by females increased their probability to encounter Sexual Assault, but not other forms of sexual victimization. These results are consistent with those from a meta-analysis (Friedman et al., 2011) that found disparities regarding sexual victimization of sexual minorities disfavoring males. Sexual minorities' youths are considered at increased risk of sexual victimization compared to their heterosexual counterparts (Friedman et al., 2011) and are most often targeted because of their sexual orientation (Button, O'Connell, & Gealt, 2012). Furthermore, internalization of homophobic stigmatization may lead this population to engage in negatives outcomes such as binge drinking or substance use (Button et al., 2012) that are known risk factors for sexual victimization (Kavanaugh, 2013). It is also possible that men with a non-heterosexual orientation were more prone to reveal USE

victimization than their heterosexual peers. This may be explained by lower adherence to the norms that conceptualized heterosexual males as the dominant in intimate relationships, materializing in the inability for them to self-identify as a victim or discouraging them to report sexual victimization.

For females, having reported more than one sexual partner was positively associated with the probabilities of USI/C and Sexual Assault, this association strengthening with the number of sexual partners. For males, the positive association between USI/C and the number of sexual partners was significant for those having reported more than seven partners only, but no association was found with other forms of USE, or with less than eight sexual partners. As directionality cannot be assessed here, gender disparities in behavioral factor associations may suggest differences in adverse consequences following victimization or differences in causes or contexts leading to sexual victimization. Thus, females' results may be explained by the coping strategy they may develop after sexual victimization, as promiscuity is a known consequence of USE (Browne & Finkelhor, 1986). Alternatively, females with a higher number of sexual partners may face a higher probability of encountering a sexually aggressive one (Walker, Messman-Moore, & Ward, 2011), knowing that males' behavior is found to be more aggressive (Hamby et al., 2013).

Results showed no significant association between the probability of Sexual Compliance victimization and the assessed factors in female cases. This result may indicate that there is no particular profile targeted by this form of sexual victimization, suggesting a kind of inevitability for any women to experience Sexual Compliance. Also, it may suggest that this less severe type of USE may not lead to adoption of risky behaviors. Some authors (Hlavka, 2014; Kavanaugh, 2013) suggest that this type of USE is normalized (i.e. expected) by women, attributed to the blurring of definitional boundaries regarding what constitutes a normal heterosexual behavior versus sexual victimization. Also, several qualitative studies (Bay-Cheng & Eliseo-Arras, 2008; Kavanaugh, 2013; Sundaram et al., 2008) underscore that females having experienced Sexual Compliance tend to minimize their negative experiences by making sense of it, such as blaming themselves for it or considering them as learning experiences. Other researchers highlight the role of normalized expectations for females to maintain relationships through participation in sexual activity that may not always be wanted (Conroy, Krishnakumar, & Leone, 2015; Katz & Tirone, 2010). For males, the probability of reporting Sexual Compliance victimization was associated with having reported particular forms of SI such as with a person met on the Internet or while intoxicated. These last two situations may reveal potential contexts of occurrence of this form of USE for men. The use of substances may alter judgment or the ability to refuse and lead to SI that were not really wanted (Turchik, 2012). Likewise, meeting a person only previously met on Internet may lead to SI by compliance, by adherence to the belief that men are always willing to have sex, as their sexuality is mainly associated with competition and conquest (Kavanaugh, 2013).

Finally, indicators assessing substance use were marginally associated with USE for both gender as they only concerned Sexual Assault. Among females, we only found a significant association with the use of other illegal drugs, and for males the use of marijuana. These results may suggest that the most severe types of USE may occur more easily in contexts where substances are used.

Overall, females' pattern of factor associations with the diverse forms of USE highlighted that the higher the severity, the higher the number of associated factors. This result confirms our initial hypothesis that some populations are more vulnerable to USE – such as females, those having a low SES or a non-heterosexual orientation – and that more severe forms are associated to a complex combination of individual and societal factors. This result underscores that sexual victimization must be considered as a multifaceted and multilevel embedded construct - at the social, structural, cultural and individual levels - what is reflected trough the identification of several phenomena surrounding sexual victimization, such as revictimization (Classen, Palesh, & Aggarwal, 2005) or adoption of risky behaviors following victimization.

A major strength of this study is that we investigated various forms of USE, thereby highlighting the plurality of forms sexual victimization may take. The study of the interconnection of different types of sexual victimization using a gender perspective may lead to more comprehensive and accurate models and thus deepen our understanding of sexual victimization, rather than restraining the flow of

information when focusing on only one or two forms of USE (Hamby et al., 2013). However, this study also presents some limitations. First, the low response rate (15.1%), was expected based on similar studies (Jørgensen, Maindal, Christensen, Olesen, & Andersen, 2015), sexuality being a sensitive topic. For this reason, we started with a very large initial sample so that we would finally obtain a large enough representative sample. Second, this study is cross-sectional and causality cannot be formally assessed. Finally, the subgroup of male respondents in the Sexual Assault group was small (N=66), suggesting that interpretation of the relative results of AME should be taken with caution.

Conclusion

We observed differences across gender in factor associations and in risk to experience sexual victimization. The gendered pattern in sexual victimization is often associated to gender norms and stereotypes, which makes females vulnerable and easy victims and males designed predators. These attitudes and beliefs are likely to affect the way we study and so comprehend sexual victimization. Furthermore, norms and beliefs that conceptualize males as sexually dominant may hamper to consider themselves as victims, materializing in lower rates of disclosure than females. Also, the Swiss legal definition of rape - a coerced vaginal penetration by a penis - exclude males as potential victims and contributes to the cultural idea that does not acknowledge or even conceive their experience of sexual violence. There is a need for enlargement of the legal definition of sexual victimization, extending to other forms of USE and including males as victims. There is a need to deconstruct these norms and beliefs from the youngest age, and values of respect, consent and communication should be spread for promoting a positive approach of sexuality among adolescents. Thus, there is an urgent need of intervention at the social, legal and public health levels in order to efficiently prevent sexual victimization as a whole.

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		Sexual	Sexual		
	No USE	Compliance	USI/C	Assault	
	(N=2984)	(N=1312)	(N=505)	(N=489)	
	%	%	%	%	P-value
Demographic characteristics					
Gender (female)	34.21	62.94	66.9	84.72	<0.001***
Sexual orientation (non-heterosexual)	11.05	20.47	24.37	34.49	<0.001***
SES (below average)	13.5	16.13	17.89	26.03	<0.001***
Foreign-born (yes)	10.54	11.45	14.39	14.43	0.012*
Residence (urban)	51.24	55.32	53.85	56.14	0.037*
Risky sexual behaviors					
SI with individual met on Internet (at					
least once)	24.9	32.1	34.5	35.7	<0.001***
SI while intoxicated (at least once)	45.3	55.6	64.8	58.4	<0.001***
One night stand SI (at least once)	57.0	64.8	73.7	69.1	<0.001***
Number of lifetime sexual partners					<0.001***
1	19.7	13.0	7.0	7.5	
2 or 3	25.0	18.2	17.4	19.6	
4 to 7	27.0	28.4	22.7	25.7	
>7	28.4	40.4	52.8	47.2	
Risk behaviors					
Tobacco (current or past smoker)	36.28	46.96	48.74	53.32	<0.001***
Drunkenness episode (at least once)	86.9	91.4	91.2	88.2	<0.001***
Marijuana consumption (at least					
once)	58.92	69.1	70.64	70.11	<0.001***
Other illegal drugs consumption					
(at least once)	13.8	19.37	21.57	26.15	<0.001***

Table 1: Bivariate comparison of the four groups of USE

Note: * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p \leq 0.001

USI/C = Unwanted Sexual Intercourse or Contact

USE:= Unwanted sexual experience

SI= Sexual intercourse

SES= Socioeconomic status

Covariates	Sexual Compliance			USI/C		Sexual Assault			
	RRR	[95% CI]	p-value	RRR	[95% CI]	p-value	RRR	[95% CI]	p-value
Gender (female)	4.13	[3.53-4.83]	<0.001***	5.55	[4.32-7.13]	<0.001***	16.26	[11.79-22.43]	<0.001***
Sexual orientation (non-heterosexual)	1.58	[1.27-1.97]	<0.001***	1.78	[1.34-2.37]	<0.001***	2.72	[2.06-3.58]	<0.001***
SES (below average)	1.25	[1.00-1.56]	0.046*	1.39	[1.03-1.88]	0.029**	2.28	[1.73-3.00]	<0.001***
Number of lifetime sexual partners									
2 or 3	1.09	[0.86-1.39]	0.480	1.96	[1.27-3.03]	0.002**	2.08	[1.35-3.20]	0.001***
4 to 7	1.38	[1.08-1.77]	0.009**	1.84	[1.19-2.84]	0.006**	2.00	[1.29-3.11]	0.002**
>7	1.71	[1.31-2.22]	<0.001***	3.75	[2.42-5.81]	<0.001***	2.79	[1.78-4.39]	<0.001***
SI with person met on the Internet (at									
least once)	1.31	[1.08-1.58]	0.006**	1.21	[0.94-1.57]	0.137	1.59	[1.22-2.07]	0.001***
SI while intoxicated (at least once)	1.37	[1.15-1.63]	0.001***	1.87	[1.45-2.41]	<0.001***	1.38	[1.06-1.79]	0.015*
Tobacco (ever smoker)	1.16	[0.98-1.38]	0.088	1.05	[0.83-1.35]	0.675	1.28	[0.99-1.65]	0.064
Marijuana use (at least once)	1.11	[0.92-1.33]	0.286	1.11	[0.85-1.45]	0.426	1.18	[0.89-1.57]	0.258
2 or 3 4 to 7 >7 SI with person met on the Internet (at least once) SI while intoxicated (at least once) Tobacco (ever smoker)	1.38 1.71 1.31 1.37 1.16	[1.08-1.77] [1.31-2.22] [1.08-1.58] [1.15-1.63] [0.98-1.38]	0.009** <0.001*** 0.006** 0.001*** 0.088	1.84 3.75 1.21 1.87 1.05	[1.19-2.84] [2.42-5.81] [0.94-1.57] [1.45-2.41] [0.83-1.35]	0.006** <0.001*** 0.137 <0.001*** 0.675	 2.00 2.79 1.59 1.38 1.28 	[1.29-3.11] [1.78-4.39] [1.22-2.07] [1.06-1.79] [0.99-1.65]	0.002** <0.001*** 0.001*** 0.015* 0.064

Table 2: Multinomial logistic regression with the USE groups, No USE as the reference group

Other illegal drugs consumption (at									
least once)	1.22	[0.97-1.52]	0.087	1.16	[0.86-1.56]	0.340	1.80	[1.32-2.44]	<0.001***
Constant	0.11	[0.09-0.14]	<0.001***	0.02	[0.01-0.03]	<0.001***	0.01	[0.00-0.01]	<0.001***

Note: * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p ≤ 0.001

The constant refers to the estimated probability of being in the group for the reference category (i.e. a male, heterosexual, with at least average SES, with one

lifetime sexual partner, etc.)

The reference category for the variable number of lifetime sexual partners is one

RRR= Relative Risk Ratio; CI= Confidence Intervals

SI = Sexual Intercourse; USI/C = Unwanted Sexual Intercourse or Contact; SES= Socio-Economic Status; USE=Unwanted sexual experience

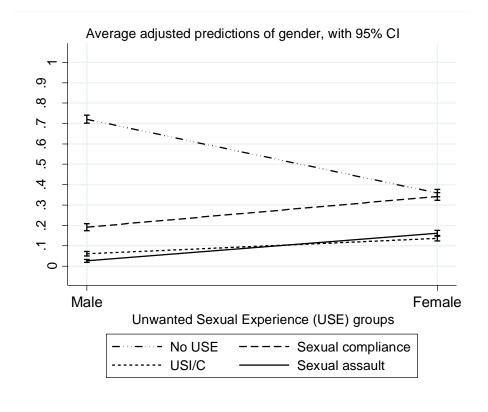
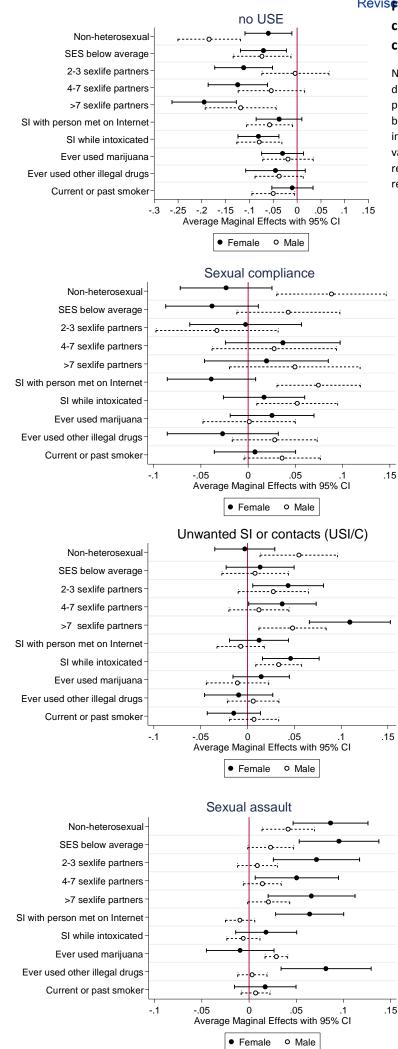


Figure 1: Predicted probabilities of being in the USE groups by gender

Note: The connected lines indicate the decline or rise in probability to be part in a group across

gender, facilitating the reading of the figure.

CI = Confidence intervals



Note on interpretation: Average marginal effects describe the change in the probability - expressed in percentage points - of the outcome "success" (i.e. being part of the group) induced by a discrete change in the covariate – from 0 to 1 in the case of a dummy variable – maintaining the effect of other covariates reflecting their average distribution among respondents.