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Carolyn Ann Uhl

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THE IMPACT OF GENDER, VICTIM WEIGHT, AND VICTIM RESPONSIBILITY
ON ATTRIBUTIONS OF BLAME AND RESPONSIBILITY IN A CASE OF
NONCONSENSUAL PORNOGRAPHY

by

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A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty

of the

University of North Dakota

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

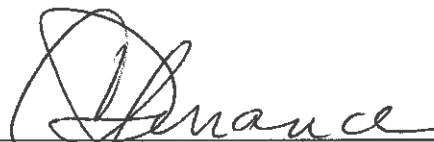
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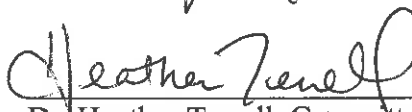
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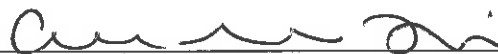
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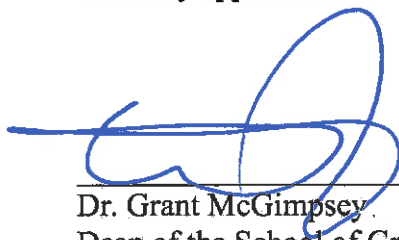


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ABSTRACT

The sharing of sexually explicit messages or photographs, known as sexting, is on the rise. As a result, nonconsensual pornography, commonly referred to as revenge porn, is also increasing. Victims of nonconsensual pornography suffer a variety of negative consequences following the distribution of their photographs. Various case and victim characteristics of nonconsensual pornography cases may alter observer perceptions of these situations. This study utilized a mock police report describing a case in which a former romantic partner distributed nude photographs of the victim online without the victim's consent. The police reports were identical, apart from manipulations of victim gender, victim weight, and the photo's origination. Participants ($n = 692$) found the scenario to be more believable when the victim was female. Participants attributed more blame to the female victim, as opposed to the male victim, when a former partner took the nude photograph. Additionally, there was a significant interaction between victim gender and the victim's responsibility for creating the nude photograph. This interaction revealed that the situation was perceived as more serious when the female victim took a nude photograph of herself than when the male victim took a nude photograph of himself. Women attributed a greater level of blame to the perpetrator, attributed less blame to the victim, and reported more sympathy for the victim than did men. Men were also more likely to endorse beliefs consistent with sexual double standards. Results suggest that extralegal factors, such as how the photograph originated, influence observers' perceptions and decisions in cases of nonconsensual pornography, even though the law

does not specify or discriminate based on these extra-legal factors. Implications are discussed.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

With the increasing progression of technological advances, including increased access to the Internet through smartphones and other portable devices, all forms of materials, including written content and photos, can be more easily distributed (Internet World Stats, 2016; Rice et al., 2012). The number of adolescents who have access to the Internet and own a cell phone or a smartphone has increased to a level such that the majority of adolescents have access to the Internet and own either a cell phone or a smartphone (Stewart & Kaye, 2012). When accounting for multitasking, which is defined as using multiple media devices at the same time, today's youth spends an average of 10 hours and 45 minutes a day using media (Stewart & Kaye, 2012). A substantial amount of this time—between 7.6-10 hours—is spent on a cell phone (Roberts, Yaya, & Manolis, 2014). One consequence of this increase in technological advances is the substantial increase in the practice of engaging in “sexting,” which refers to the exchanging of sexually explicit images using cell phones (Judge, 2012). In fact, one study found that smartphone users were more likely than other cell phone users to engage in the sending, receiving, and forwarding of sexts (Lenhart & Duggan, 2014).

Zemmels and Khey (2014) surveyed 108 undergraduate mass communication students regarding their use of social networking sites and mobile phone sharing. They also evaluated their attitudes toward privacy and trust in these forms of media. They found that the average young adult places a high level of trust in mobile image and video

sharing. Moreover, these young adults believed that what they send to others will remain private. This potentially false sense of security may lead to engaging in sexting behavior under the assumption that only the receiver of the message will see the photo. However, this may not always be the case. These images can be hacked and stolen (e.g., Clare, 2015; Isaac, 2014) and/or posted online without the knowledge or consent of the person in the photo (Chemaly, 2015; Clare, 2015; Citron & Franks, 2014; Powell, 2010). For example, images of nude or semi-nude women filmed without their consent while in their apartments, in changing rooms, in restrooms, and in other public locations have been distributed online (Chemaly, 2015). In the fall of 2014, 100 female celebrities had their explicit photographs stolen via their iCloud accounts and subsequently shared online (Clare, 2015; McCoy, 2014). The incident became known as “the Fappening,” a combination of “The Happening” and “fapping,” which is slang for male masturbation (Clare, 2014, McCoy, 2014). One of these celebrities, Jennifer Lawrence, spoke out following the incident reporting that she believed the incident should not be viewed as a scandal, but instead should be treated as a sex crime. However; despite these risks, adolescents and adults continue to engage in sexting behavior (see Lenhart & Duggan, 2014; National Campaign to Prevent Teen & Unplanned Pregnancy, 2009).

Statistics regarding adolescent sexting range from 10 to 20 percent of adolescents admitting to sharing inappropriate images, referencing sexual activity, or sending nude or semi-nude images of themselves with others (Moreno, Parks, Zimmerman, Brito, & Christakis, 2009; National Campaign to Prevent Teen & Unplanned Pregnancy, 2009). In a study of 1,280 13 to 26-year-olds electronic activity conducted by TRU, a research company dedicated to youth research, it was found that 59% of young adults (aged 20-

26) admitted to sending or posting sexually suggestive messages (National Campaign to Prevent Teen & Unplanned Pregnancy, 2009). Thus, increased access to technology and time spent on social media has led to an increase in sexting (Judge, 2012; Weisskirch & Delevi, 2011). People who engage in sexting risk having their photos shared online. Once an image has been sent, it can easily be posted onto the Internet where it can be difficult, if not impossible, to remove an image from cyberspace. This is because online images can be shared over and over again, very quickly, and often without consent (Judge, 2012; Korenis & Billick, 2014).

Taken together, the increase in access to technology and the trust people place in technology have resulted in a rise in sexting behavior among adults as well (Lenhart & Duggan, 2014). Lenhart and Duggan (2014) found that 22% of adult cell phone users aged 25-34 admitted to sending sexts, but that 34% of users in this same age group reported receiving these messages, which suggests that these images may be sent to more than one person. The availability of erotic images contributes to the likelihood that these images will be distributed online, irrespective of the perpetrator's motivation or the photographed individual's lack of consent. Thus, the potential for these images to be continuously disseminated online makes this area worthy of research.

Given the rapid growth of technology, little research has examined issues relevant to sexting. Furthermore, as cases involving the nonconsensual distribution of these images are being brought to the public's attention by the media, as well as beginning to be tried within the legal system (e.g., Esposito, 2016; Perry, 2015; Rocha, 2014; Vielmetti, 2015), it is important to understand the public's perceptions of these cases. People are quick to assign blame in these situations. In fact, a perusal of comments

directed toward victims whose photographs are posted on nonconsensual pornography websites suggests a high level of victim blame (see Uhl, Rhyner, Terrance, & Lugo, 2017). In addition, research has found that various websites and safety campaign ads instruct girls to hide their gender in their online profiles and to avoid sending and posting sexually provocative photos (Hasinoff, 2013), which seemingly makes it seem as if it is the fault of the sender (Ringrose, Harvey, Gill, & Livingstone, 2013). Thus, research examining community perceptions of these cases provides a critical assessment of victim and offender blame.

Revenge Porn

Nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs, also known as revenge porn, refers to the online distribution of sexually explicit materials without consent (Citron & Franks, 2014). Often times, perpetrators of nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs will post nude images or videos online with the intent to cause harm or embarrassment to or to “get back” at the individual in the images (Stroud, 2014). For example, perpetrators will often include the victim’s full name, e-mail address, physical address, links to social media accounts, and/or other information about the victim along with the images (Clare, 2015; Cyber Civil Rights Initiative, 2014; 2016; Franks, 2011; Uhl et al., 2017). Many revenge porn photos are shared on websites that are created specifically for the purpose of sharing photos of former romantic partners (Stroud, 2014). According to a Cyber Civil Rights Initiative (2014) survey, the majority of revenge porn victims indicated their images were disseminated by an ex-boyfriend (57%). In fact, there have been entire websites created for the specific purpose of posting pictures of ex-wives and ex-girlfriends. In 2010, Hunter Moore created the website, IsAnyoneUp.com (Morris, 2012), which Moore

admitted he created after he and some of his friends had their “hearts broken by a couple of girls” (Mungin, 2014). The website was extremely popular, attracting between 150,000-240,000 unique visitors daily at its peak (Dodero, 2012), and earning Moore somewhere between \$8,000 (Hill, 2012) to \$20,000 (Lee, 2012) per month from advertising.

However, the term revenge porn may be misleading. As Franks (2015) points out, not all perpetrators are motivated to retaliate against a former partner. For instance, while many explicit images that are disseminated without consent may have originated in a consensual manner (e.g., posing for an explicit photograph for a romantic partner), some of the images may have been created without the victim’s knowledge (e.g., through the use of hidden cameras, which is sometimes known as ‘upskirting’ or ‘downblousing’ [Bell, Hemmen, & Steiner, 2006]; images created using Photoshop), or the images may have been covertly stolen from a victim’s digital device or cloud drive via hacking (Clare, 2015; Franks, 2015), as was the case when 90,000 photographs and 10,000 videos containing sexual content were stolen from Snapsaved, which is a program designed to allow users of the popular Snapchat app to save photographs and videos that have been deleted (Clare, 2015). In addition, the term revenge porn suggests that these images are pornographic, yet, in reality, these images are most often created for private exchange within the context of an intimate relationship (Franks, 2015; Perkins, Becker, Tehee, & Mackelprang, 2014) or the purposes of dating and/or finding a love interest (Lenhart & Duggan, 2014, Perkins et al., 2014; Wolak & Finkelhor, 2011).

Regardless of how the images originated or the perpetrator’s motivation, the nonconsensual sharing of sexually explicit photographs can cause harm to the individuals

in the photos (Cyber Civil Rights Initiative, 2014; Rice et al., 2012). For example, potential consequences of sexting may involve feelings of shame or guilt. Additionally, in their brief review on adolescent sexting and cyberbullying, Korenis and Billick (2014) found that the dissemination of explicit photos of adolescents may potentially result in the victim developing depression or anxiety disorders, or being a victim of harassment or cyberbullying. Victims of nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs have been blackmailed, lost jobs, been forced to change their names, been forced to change schools, and been victims of stalking and harassment following the distribution of their photos (Citron & Franks, 2014; Clare, 2015; Cyber Civil Rights Initiative, 2014; Powell, 2010; Zemmels & Khey, 2014). For instance, during their three-year long-distance relationship, Dr. Holly Jacobs sent nude images to her boyfriend, who disseminated these images online following their breakup (Jacobs, 2013). Jacobs, who was a graduate student at the time, suffered harassment and humiliation, changed jobs, changed her name, and contemplated suicide; she became an advocate for revenge porn victims (Jacobs, 2013). Victims of nonconsensual pornography have also committed suicide (e.g., Clare, 2015; Stebner, 2013). Audrie Pott was a 15-year-old girl who was sexually assaulted by a group of boys at a party (Stebner, 2013). These boys took photographs of the assault on their cellphones and the images were spread throughout the school. Following the distribution of these photos, Pott was bullied and harassed. One week later, Pott took her own life.

The nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs has been considered by some to fall within the continuum of sexual violence (Citron & Franks, 2014; Powell, 2010), even going so far as to call it “digital sexual assault” (Wilson, 2015) or “cyber-rape”

(endrevengporn.org; 2016). For example, these images may be taken during a sexual assault to further demean the victim (Culp-Ressler, 2014) or to blackmail the victim in order to prevent the victim from disclosing (Selvaratnam, 2015). These images can be used in situations of intimate partner violence as a way to control victims or if an abuser threatened to distribute the images if a partner leaves or reports the abuse (Chiarini, 2013; National Network to End Domestic Violence, 2014; Simpson, 2014). Nonconsensual pornography images have also been used by pimps and traffickers (U.S. State Department Office to Monitor and Combat Trafficking in Persons, 2007). Additionally, current technology allows for the potential permanence of the digital images in cyberspace, even if the site is disabled. Photos can be copied and shared on multiple sites, without permission, which makes the task of removing the images, once they are shared, almost impossible (Judge, 2012; Korenis & Billick, 2014), resulting in continual revictimization for these individuals.

Despite these potential consequences, currently, only 34 states and the District of Columbia have passed laws concerning the nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs (Cyber Civil Rights Initiative, 2016; State Revenge Porn Laws, 2016). There are many states that still do not have laws to protect victims of nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs and victims in these states have more limited options to seek justice. Research examining nonconsensual pornography and perceptions of these types of cases may help provide a better understanding of nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs and the situations that contribute to victim blaming. A better understanding of these situations may be beneficial in helping to create policies that better protect victims in these types of cases.

Many laws that have already been passed in the United States are inadequate. Currently, many existing nonconsensual pornography laws offer little protection to victims as the laws have narrow applicability and suffer from overly burdensome requirements (Franks, 2015). If victims are unable to seek justice in nonconsensual pornography cases, not only may they struggle to move forward with their own lives, but there is little to serve as a deterrent to disseminating these types of photographs. Because the consequences of nonconsensual pornography can be far reaching, it warrants further investigation.

Despite the potential consequences that may result from engaging in sexting, many young adults continue to participate in sexting. Lenhart and Duggan (2014) found that 15% of adult cell phone users aged 18-24 admit to sending sexts. According to a study of 1652 undergraduate students, men and women reported engaging in sexting behavior at equal rates, but men reported higher rates of receiving nude photos and sharing nude photos with others (Winkelman, Smith, Brinkley, & Knox, 2014). Although both men and women can be victims of nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs, the majority of victims are women (Cyber Civil Rights Initiative, 2014; Franks, 2011; Uhl et al., 2017; Powell, 2010).

While a man or a woman may engage in the behavior willingly by taking or by posing for the photo, his or her consent (or lack thereof) will be of importance to the courts when determining fault in cases of nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs. As stated by Wilson (2015), "Sending a naked picture to a lover who then posts that picture to a public forum is like consenting to sex with one person once and getting a gang bang, over and over again." Furthermore, it is possible that endorsement of sexist

views, as well as an endorsement of sexual double standards for men and women, may be related to not only to the participation in sexting, but these beliefs may also have an impact in attributions of blame and responsibility in cases of nonconsensual pornography. As such, nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs provides an appropriate context for examining the policing of women's sexuality, alongside factors that may contribute to an increase in victim blame.

Sexual Double Standards

Men and women are often perceived differently with regard to their sexual behaviors. Sexual double standards suggest that men are authorized to have more sexual freedom than women (Conley, Ziegler, & Moore, 2011; Jonason, 2007; Jonason & Fisher, 2009; Muehlenhard & McCoy, 1991). These sexual double standards are prevalent within North American culture (Crawford & Popp, 2003) and begin at a young age (Eder, Evans, & Parker, 1995). For example, Eder and colleagues (1995) spent three years observing middle school conversations and noted that male and female adolescents held beliefs that it was socially acceptable for a male to be sexually active, but if a female were to desire to be sexually active, she would be called a “slut” or a “whore.” (p. 131). Research has demonstrated that these beliefs continue into adulthood (e.g., Conley et al., 2011; Crawford & Popp, 2003).

As part of sexual double standards, women are perceived to be the “gatekeepers” of sexual activity (Jozkowski & Peterson, 2013; Sakaluk, Todd, Milhausen, & Lachowsky, 2014; Sanchez, Fetterolf, & Rudman, 2012). This means that men are expected to be the initiators of sexual activity while women are expected to decide whether or not sexual activity should occur, and create a barrier that men must overcome

in order to engage in sexual activity (Muehlenhard & McCoy, 1991; Wiederman, 2005). Therefore, women are expected to merely be “passive recipients” and not demonstrate sexually aggressive behavior (Ussher, 1997). Sanchez and colleagues (2012) argue that this fits the traditional heterosexual sexual script. If women violate this norm, sexual double standards theory suggests that women will be judged more harshly for acting sexually (Bordini & Sperb, 2013), as may be the case in the instance of taking or posing for a nude photograph.

These double standards may have implications for individuals engaging in sexting behavior. If sexual double standards are present in sexting behavior, a woman who is either taking her own photograph or posing for a nude photograph risks being judged more harshly than a man engaging in the same behavior. Sexual double standards suggest that women are viewed as more “inappropriate” when they take or pose for an explicit photograph. In fact, qualitative studies that considered adolescent sexting found that adolescent girls were asked to send these images but then were slut shamed for sending them (Ringrose, Gill, Livingstone, & Harvey, 2012; Ringrose et al., 2013). Thus, the act of taking and sending, or posing for, an explicit photograph, especially for women, may result in an increase in the level of blame attributed to the victim in a case of nonconsensual pornography. This is likely because observers may believe the victim contributed to his or her own victimization by engaging in sexting behavior. By consenting to have their nude images taken, observers may be less sympathetic to claims that the distribution of the image was unwanted.

While an individual may willingly send or pose for a nude photograph, this does not mean the individual necessarily consents to the photograph to be distributed online.

Thus, consent cannot be assumed. This issue of consent is one issue of relevance to the courts when considering these types of cases. Consent is important in these instances because, as Franks (2015) points out, a model law regarding nonconsensual pornography would include statements that an individual knowingly discloses a sexually explicit image of another individual when there was an expectation of privacy (or when the recipient should have known the individual did not consent to dissemination of the image). Franks states that this is necessary in order to avoid prosecuting people who disseminate these images by mistake or who “had no way of knowing that the person depicted did not consent to the disclosure” (p. 5).

Issues of consent may become less clear in cases of nonconsensual pornography because of the previous relationship of the victim and perpetrator. In instances of nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs, it is common for victims to know the perpetrator well. In a study evaluating sexting behavior on a college campus, Perkins and colleagues (2014) found that 64% of the 287 respondents admitted to sending nude or semi-nude photographs for consensual sexual reasons. The majority of these individuals indicated that the sexting occurred within the context of a romantic relationship. Furthermore, in many cases, the victim may have sent a photo because the victim was interested in the person who received the photo (Wolak & Finkelhor, 2011). If the majority of sexting occurs within relationships, it stands to reason that the sender of intimate images has consented for the recipient to receive the photographs with the presumed assumption that the images will remain private.

Taking and sending an explicit photograph may work to increase victim blame because the victim may be perceived to be actively contributing to his or her own

victimization. Although the person clearly gives consent for the receiver to view the explicit photograph, this person did not necessarily consent to have the photo distributed online. Because these cases may be somewhat ambiguous (there is no physical injury, it may be a he said/she said situation, and consent is implied for the intended recipient), making a clear judgment about culpability may be difficult for laypersons. Thus, when the case is ambiguous in nature, victim credibility and perceptions of the victim may become more important (Benson, Charlton, & Goodhart, 1992).

If observers believe women should not be sexually assertive, the initial sending of a nude photo by a female victim may damage her credibility as a legitimate victim in the minds of observers adhering to this notion. It may be that a woman is viewed as acting sexually assertive if she sends a nude photo, which may go against typical gender expectations. In fact, in a study that considered victim gender, victim culpability (varied by the photo's origination), and level of perpetrator motivation (manipulated by a victim's infidelity or lack thereof), results indicated that there were substantial differences in the way male and female victims of nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs were perceived (Rhyner, Uhl, & Terrance, 2017). In this study, participants rated a female victim as more responsible for her victimization than a male victim and were more likely to recommend that a male victim, as opposed to a female victim, seek legal action following the victimization. This effect held true regardless of all other manipulations.

The female victim may have been attributed higher levels of blame than their male counterparts because the act of taking a nude photograph (or allowing a nude photograph to be taken) may be perceived as a violation of acceptable sexual behavior for

women. In this regard, women risk being punished by being viewed as “at fault” for partaking in this sexual behavior. On the other hand, men, who are not violating appropriate gender norms for acceptable sexual behavior are seen as “real victims.” Thus, sexual double standards may be responsible for the increase in the level of victim blame for female victims, as opposed to male victims. Sexual double standards may work not only to restrict women’s sexual freedom, but these beliefs “both reflect and reinforce the subordination of women” (Rudman, Fetterolf, & Sanchez, 2013, p. 250). Given that sexual double standards work to reinforce the subordination of women, one possible explanation for these perceptual differences in evaluating men and women’s sexual behaviors is the theory of ambivalent sexism.

Ambivalent sexism. Glick and Fiske (1996, 2001) propose that, because cultural perceptions of women have been both positive and negative throughout history, sexism exists in two forms—hostile and benevolent. Hostile sexism relates to a negative view of women, such that those who endorse hostile sexism viewpoints would believe women are trying to seize power from men or as being incompetent (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Hostile sexism refers to sexism that meets a classic definition of prejudice (Allport, 1954; Glick & Fiske, 1996). Alternatively, those who endorse benevolent sexism would be affectionate toward women and believe that women are in need of protection and should be cared for. Thus, at its surface, benevolent sexism may appear to be intuitively positive, these beliefs actually work to undermine women’s autonomy, as well as perceptions of women’s competence. In fact, Glick and Fiske (1996) argue that benevolent sexism is still negative because views consistent with benevolent sexism are entrenched in stereotypical perceptions of male dominance. According to ambivalent

sexism theory, benevolent sexism is comprised of three subscales: paternalism, heterosexual intimacy, and support for gender differentiation (Glick & Fiske, 1996; 2001). Paternalism refers to the power differential that exists between a father and his child, which is representative of the societal power difference between men and women (Glick & Fiske, 2011). An example of paternalism exists in the belief that women are in need of protection and men must be the protectors and providers for women.

Heterosexual intimacy refers to the notion that women are sexual objects and that men are dependent on women as sexual partners and need women to be complete (Glick & Fiske, 2011). Gender roles and gender stereotypes support the notion of gender differentiation and work to emphasize the power difference between men and women (Glick & Fiske, 2011). Gender differentiation suggests that women are more suited for caregiving positions because their feminine traits make them more nurturing and empathetic. When both hostile and benevolent sexism are exhibited simultaneously, it is known as ambivalent sexism (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Both hostile and benevolent sexism have been shown to be separately correlated to other perceptions of women. Although previous research has demonstrated that both hostile and benevolent sexism are positively correlated with one another (Glick & Fiske, 1996), Glick and Fiske (1997) found that only hostile sexism was positively correlated with Burt's (1980) Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (of which sexual conservatism is a subscale). Rape myth acceptance refers to an endorsement of beliefs consistent with prejudiced or stereotyped views surrounding rape (Burt, 1980). Alternatively, other research has demonstrated that those who endorse benevolent sexist views show an increase in victim blame, and a decrease in perpetrator blaming (Abrams, Viki, Masser,

& Bohner, 2003; Viki & Abrams, 2002; Viki, Abrams, & Masser, 2004). Chapleau, Oswald, and Russell (2007) found that both hostile and benevolent sexism were correlated with rape myth acceptance. Hostile and benevolent sexism may also predict sexual double standards since they are more specific forms of sexism related to appropriate sexual behavior for men and women. Taken together, previous research suggests that both hostile and benevolent sexism toward women are associated with attitudes about rape.

In addition, in cases of sexual assault, research has demonstrated that there are characteristics of the victim that may contribute to victim blame. While these factors are arguably irrelevant to assigning legal culpability and victim blameworthiness, factors such as the victim's physical attractiveness (Dietz, Littman, & Bentley, 1984), how the victim was dressed (Cassidy & Hurrell, 1995), and the victim's previous sexual history (L'Armand & Pepitone, 1982) have influenced perceptions of blame and culpability. These factors may work to decrease the level of culpability assigned to a perpetrator and increase the level of blame attributed to victims in these situations. One such factor, often considered to be an aspect of physical attractiveness, is the victim's weight.

Victim Weight

According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2015), rates of obesity are climbing. In fact, according to the WHO's website, worldwide obesity rates have doubled since 1980, and there are currently 1.9 billion adults who are overweight (600 million of those would also be characterized as obese). Body Mass Index (BMI) is a common way used to determine whether or not a person is considered obese. A person's BMI is calculated by taking a person's weight (in kilograms) and dividing by the square

of the person's height (in meters) (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2015; WHO, 2015). The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2015) considers someone with a BMI greater than 25 to be overweight and someone with a BMI greater than 30 to be obese. Despite the large number of overweight and obese individuals worldwide, research regarding the stigma faced by overweight and obese individuals is plentiful.

Negative messages about being overweight occur everywhere, including all forms of media (Puhl & Brownell, 2001). For example, in a study that examined portrayals of overweight and obese individuals on prime-time television programs, it was found that the number of overweight and obese television characters was less than half of that found in the general population (Greenberg, Eastin, Hofschire, Lachlan, Brownell, 2003). Further, this study found that overweight and obese characteristics were associated with negative characteristics (e.g., more likely to be shown eating, less likely to be considered attractive or interact with romantic partners). Fat jokes, derogatory content, and opinions of disgust, anger, and alienation are prevalent throughout social media (Chou, Prestin, & Kunath, 2014). Even children's animated cartoons have a tendency to portray overweight characters as unattractive and less likely to participate in romantic contexts (Klein & Shiffman, 2006). Television news programs often depict obesity as a problem resulting from an individual's poor nutrition (Bonfiglioli, Smith, King, Chapman, & Holding, 2007).

Not only are these negative messages occurring over different forms of media, but these negative messages also occur in schools, health care settings, and social settings (Puhl & Brownell, 2001). Some researchers have argued that the stigma faced by those who are overweight is debilitating because, unlike other individual aspects that may be

stigmatized (e.g., atheism, homosexuality), a person's weight cannot be concealed (Crocker, Cornwell, & Major, 1992; Lillis, Luoma, Levin, & Hayes, 2010). Being unable to conceal an aspect of oneself means that this characteristic will likely affect most social interactions (Crocker et al., 1993). Furthermore, many scholars have argued that weight bias is still considered to be a socially acceptable form of discrimination (e.g., Andreyeva, Puhl, & Brownell, 2008; Falkner et al., 1999; Pearl, Puhl, & Brownell, 2012).

Research has found that many people believe weight is controllable and when something is perceived to be under personal control, it is likely that observers will make internal attributions about overweight/obese individuals (e.g., Crandall, 1994; Weiner, Perry, & Magnusson, 1988). Alternatively, if an observer believed that being overweight was outside of an individual's personal control, the observer would instead make an external attribution, by attributing the cause of being overweight to some situational or external force that is outside of the control of the individual, such as an illness. When weight is perceived to be under an individual's personal control, this leads to a strong anti-fat bias (Crandall et al., 2001, Crandall & Schiffhauer, 1998), and often leads to rejection of the overweight individual (Weiner et al., 1988).

Individuals who believe weight is under personal control are likely to assign internal attributions, such as laziness, toward overweight individuals. These same observers would likely perceive overweight individuals as a group deserving of the shame that goes along with being overweight because it is under their control. Internal attributions toward overweight individuals may result in them being perceived as more responsible in other situations, such as in the instance of being victimized by having explicit photographs of themselves distributed online without their consent.

Relentless messages of negativity and controllability have perpetuated negative stereotypes of overweight individuals. Individuals who are obese are often assigned negative stereotypes, including being perceived as unhappy (Vartanian, 2010), unattractive (Hayran, Akan, Özkan, & Kocaoglu, 2013; Zeller, Reiter-Purtill, & Ramey, 2008), lazy, sloppy, lacking in self-control (Crandall, 1994; Hayran et al., 2013; Puhl & Brownell, 2001; 2003; Teachman, Gapinski, Brownell, Rawlins, & Jeyaram, 2003; Vartanian, 2010), less athletic (Hayran et al., 2013; Zeller et al., 2008), and disgusting (Vartanian, 2010). Additionally, there is a strong anti-fat bias present in the media (e.g., Greenberg et al., 2003; Klein & Shiffman, 2006; Puhl & Heuer, 2009). These negative perceptions of overweight and obese individuals may result in outright discrimination.

Discrimination of overweight and obese individuals has been observed in medical and healthcare settings (Brown, 2006; Puhl & Brownell, 2001; Puhl & Heuer, 2009), educational settings (Puhl & Brownell, 2001; Puhl & Heuer, 2009; Puhl, Luedicke, & Heuer, 2011), adoption decisions (Swami, Pietschnig, Stieger, Tovee, & Voracek, 2010), helping decisions (Swami et al., 2010), interpersonal relationships (Puhl & Brownell, 2001; Puhl & Heuer, 2009; Zeller et al., 2008), and in employment decisions (Contreras Krueger, Stone, & Stone-Romero, 2014; Puhl & Brownell, 2001; Puhl & Heuer, 2009; Swami et al., 2010).

Furthermore, previous research has found that women are more likely to experience weight-based bias than men (Bellizzi & Hasty, 2001; Fikkan & Rothblum, 2012; Puhl, Andreyeva, & Brownell, 2008; Puhl & Heuer, 2009). Numerous studies have reported this gender difference has been observed in employment settings (e.g., Bellizzi & Hasty, 2001; Pingitore, Dugoni, Tindale, & Spring, 1994; Swami et al., 2010). In a

study that included 2,290 United States men and women who were surveyed about their experiences of discrimination in a variety of contexts, Puhl, Andreyeva, and Brownell (2008) found that women were three times more likely to report experiencing discrimination due to their weight in employment settings, educational contexts, and in interpersonal relationships than did men of a similar weight category.

Gender differences in weight-based bias were also observed in a study that considered defendant weight and gender (Schvey, Puhl, Levandoski, & Brownell, 2013). In this study, Schvey and colleagues (2013) found that weight influenced participant perceptions of female defendant guilt and responsibility, but defendant weight had no effect for a male defendant. Some researchers have proposed that women are more likely to experience weight-based bias because women are punished more harshly for violating the standards of beauty (Chrisler, 2012; Roehling, 2012; Smith, 2012). As these studies demonstrate, overweight and obese men and women, but especially women, are viewed negatively across many different contexts. Furthermore, as noted by Smith (2012), a significant amount of research devoted to physical attractiveness considers weight as a factor of physical attractiveness, suggesting that individuals who are overweight or obese are perceived to be less attractive. Physical attractiveness has also been found to play a role in cases of sexual assault. Vrij and Firmin (2001) found that a physically attractive victim was found to be less responsible for her assault than a physically unattractive victim.

Despite the overwhelming bias against overweight women (e.g., in employment settings and in interpersonal settings [Puhl et al., 2008]), Clarke and Lawson (2009) found that in a hypothetical case of sexual assault, observers held a thin survivor of

sexual assault more responsible for her sexual assault than an overweight survivor. The authors of this study proposed this surprising result was because participants may have perceived a thin woman as more sexually desirable. In support of this hypothesis, Chen and Brown (2005) found that college men were more likely than college women to make decisions about sexual partners on the basis of weight; in this study, men rated obese women less attractive than women with a sexually transmitted infection, women who were mentally ill, women in a wheelchair, or women who were missing a limb. Clarke and Stermac (2010) suggested that women perceived as sexually desirable might be attributed more blame because they may be perceived as contributing to her assault by “behaving carelessly and/or provocatively” (p. 13).

Sexual double standards may also explain why women experience greater frequencies of weight discrimination and bias. It has been posited that women are punished more harshly for violating the typical standard of beauty (e.g., Chrisler, 2012; Roehling, 2012; Smith, 2012), and research often considers weight to be a factor of physical attractiveness (Smith, 2012). For example, Clarke and Stermac (2010) conducted a study which utilized a vignette that varied the weight of a victim of sexual assault and assessed participants’ levels of rape myth acceptance. They found that when the victim was described as thin, rape myth acceptance did not predict victim responsibility or negative affect toward the victim; however, when the victim was overweight, participants with higher levels of endorsement of rape myth acceptance beliefs attributed more responsibility to the victim and reported greater levels of negative affect toward the victim.

Likewise, Swami and colleagues (2010) found that participants discriminated against both obese and emaciated women in numerous hypothetical situations (i.e., making employment decisions, parental adoption decisions, and helping decisions). Taken together, the results of these areas of research suggest that women are caught in a lose-lose paradox in which they should maintain a high level of physical attractiveness (e.g., not be overweight), while not acting too sexual or provocatively. If women are not physically attractive, they may be more likely to experience bias or be blamed for their situation. Alternatively, if women are viewed as acting in a provocative manner, such as in the case of sending or posing for a nude photograph, they may also be more likely to experience bias, resulting in a greater perceived level of culpability by observers. Thus, it is important to understand how onlookers perceive victims in cases in which there are variations of case characteristics.

Observer Effects

Often, individuals pass judgments on others. In some instances, such as when they serve on jury duty or on a committee or some sort, they may be specifically asked to judge or come to a decision about other individuals. Several studies have found differences between men and women's perceptions of victim and perpetrator blame and their emotional response toward victims and perpetrators. For example, using a vignette that depicted a hypothetical case of sexual assault, Clarke and Stermac (2010) found that male observers reported greater levels of negative affect toward victims and greater levels of sympathy for the perpetrator in a hypothetical case of sexual assault. They also found that women held victims less responsible than men did. Ryckman and colleagues used a vignette that depicted an ambiguous, hypothetical case of sexual assault and found that

female observers saw the female student as more truthful than the male student, and male observers rated the male student as being more truthful than the female observers did (Ryckman, Graham, Thornton, Gold, & Lindner, 1998). In addition, some studies have found that women assigned more blame to perpetrators than did men (Deitz et al., 1984; Jackson, 1991; Kleinke & Meyer, 1990) and/or less blame toward victims (Deitz et al., 1984; Langhinrichsen-Rohling, Shlien-Dellinger, Huss, & Kramer, 2004; Ryckman et al., 1998; Vrij & Firmin, 2001). For example, in a meta-analysis that considered gender differences in 36 mock juror cases of sexual assault and child sexual abuse, Schutte and Hosch (1997) found that women were more likely to vote for perpetrator conviction than were men, which suggests that women were more likely to hold the perpetrator responsible than men. Moreover, studies have found that men are more likely to endorse views that are consistent with rape myth acceptance (Clarke & Stermac, 2010; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Newcombe, Van Den Eynde, Hafner, & Jolly, 2008; Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999; Vrij & Firmin, 2001) and anti-fat prejudice (Clarke & Stermac, 2010; Morrison & O'Conner, 1999). Furthermore, at least one study has found that rape myth acceptance was associated with anti-fat prejudice (Clarke & Lawson, 2009).

Despite previous researchers who have reported gender differences with regard to perceptions of the level of blame attributed to victims and perpetrators, these findings have been inconsistent throughout the literature. For example, while Clarke and Stermac (2010) reported that female observers held more favorable attitudes toward the victim, they found that men and women's attitudes did not significantly differ with regard to perpetrator responsibility, sympathy toward the victim, or negative affect toward the

perpetrator. Additionally, in their comprehensive review of juror judgment in sexual assault research within the field of social psychology, Olsen-Fulero and Fulero (1997) found that when gender differences exist, they often exist within an interaction and that these differences often disappear when controlling for sex-role attitudes.

CHAPTER II

PURPOSE

The potential negative consequences that may result following the nonconsensual distribution of one's explicit photograph can be devastating. Many victims of nonconsensual pornography have developed depression or anxiety disorders (Korenis & Billick, 2014) and have been victims of harassment, stalking, or cyberbullying (Citron & Franks, 2014; Cyber Civil Rights Initiative, 2014; Korenis & Billick, 2014; Powell, 2010; Zemmels & Khey, 2014). Rates of nonconsensual pornography have increased, and media coverage surrounding recent cases involving celebrities (e.g., Jennifer Lawrence [Clare, 2015; Isaac, 2014, McCoy, 2014], Rihanna, Kim Kardashian (Clare, 2015), Paris Hilton, Pamela Anderson [Powell, 2010]) has brought this context national attention, making nonconsensual pornography worthy of study. Furthermore, both personal, such as observer gender, and situational factors, such as a victim's weight or how a photograph originated, may influence how victims are perceived and treated, such as the level of support offered following their victimization. Previous research findings have indicated that various characteristics of the victim, such as how the victim was dressed (e.g., Cassidy & Hurrell, 1995) or the victim's weight (Clarke & Lawson, 2009), have influenced perceptions of blame and culpability. Understanding perceptions of these cases and attributions of blame is important because it can help shed light on how observers believe cases of nonconsensual pornography should be handled.

The principal goal of this project was to better understand situations that may influence perceptions of victim and perpetrator culpability within the context of

nonconsensual distribution of nude photographs. This research aimed to address some of these factors, including weight (an aspect of physical attractiveness) and the victim's sexual agency in taking the photo (whether or not she/he took the photo or allowed it to be taken). In addition, this research also considered whether or not these factors led to differences in perceived victim culpability, emotional response toward the individuals in the scenario, and whether or not legal action was recommended.

To this end, this study utilized a vignette in the style of a mock police report describing a case in which a former romantic partner distributed nude photographs of the victim online without the victim's consent. Police reports were identical, apart from manipulations of victim gender, victim weight, and the photo's origination. Participants' perceptions of the situation were measured using a series of questions related to the vignette. This study used the mock police reports test the influence of the victim's gender, weight, and his or her role in taking the photograph. The study also compared participants' perceptions of victim blame, perpetrator blame, participants' emotional response toward the victim and perpetrator, as well as perpetrator criminal responsibility, in a case of nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs.

Hypotheses

The proposed research project had four main objectives. The first objective considered the influence that the victim's gender and his or her role in the explicit photograph's origination had on perceptions of victim and perpetrator blame. The second objective explored the impact the victim's weight had on participants' perceptions of the case. Objective three was related to observer gender and how it influenced perceptions of the victim and the perpetrator. Lastly, this study utilized scales that assessed anti-fat bias,

sexual double standards, and rape myth acceptance in order to predict victim culpability. Below is a more detailed description of the research objectives and the hypotheses for the current study.

Objective 1. Systematically tested the influence of victim gender and the victim's role in taking the nude photograph (i.e., victim took the photo vs. perpetrator took the photo) on perceptions of victim blame, perpetrator blame, and participants' emotional response toward the victim and perpetrator, as well as perpetrator criminal responsibility, in a case of nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs.

Objective 1 hypotheses. Sexual double standards (Muehlenhard & McCoy, 1991) suggest that female victims will be attributed more blame and responsibility. Thus, it was anticipated that there would be a main effect for victim gender such that both men and women would attribute more blame and responsibility toward a female victim than toward a male victim. In addition, previous research has found that observers perceived female perpetrators in nonconsensual pornography cases to be more culpable than male perpetrators (Rhyner et al., 2017). Thus, it was predicted that a female perpetrator would be assigned more criminal responsibility than a male perpetrator. It was also hypothesized that a victim who initially took the nude photograph would be attributed more blame than a victim who simply allowed the photo to be taken, as a victim in this situation may be perceived to be more directly playing a role in his or her victimization. Finally, it was predicted that there would be an interaction between victim and participant gender such that regardless of participant gender, a female victim would be attributed a higher level of victim blame.

Objective 2. Systematically tested the influence of a victim's weight on perceptions of victim blame, perpetrator blame, and participants' emotional response toward the victim and perpetrator, as well as perpetrator criminal responsibility, in a case of nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs.

Objective 2 hypotheses. It was predicted that there would be a main effect for victim weight such that a perpetrator would be attributed more blame and would be viewed more negatively when the victim is overweight, which is consistent with findings from Clarke and Stermac (2010). There is an abundance of literature that points to an anti-fat bias (see Puhl & Brownell, 2001), which may suggest that an overweight victim, who is likely to face bias in many different contexts of life, would be assigned a higher level of blame as a result. However, in the context of sexual assault, Clarke and Lawson (2009) found, an overweight victim was attributed less blame. They suggested that because a thin victim would be viewed as more sexually desirable, the victim should have known this and taken some precautions to protect themselves. In light of discrepant research findings, no specific directional relationship was predicted for victim blame and emotional response toward the victim on the basis of victim weight.

Objective 3. Determine how observer gender influenced perceptions of victim and perpetrator blame and emotional response toward the victim and perpetrator, as well as perpetrator criminal responsibility, in a case of nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs.

Objective 3 hypotheses. It is anticipated that there would be a main effect for observer gender such that men would exhibit higher levels of victim blaming, as compared to women. In addition, it was anticipated that women would attribute greater

levels of perpetrator blame than would men, which may correspond with women assigning a greater criminal responsibility toward perpetrators. It was also hypothesized that women would report less negative affect toward the victim and more negative affect toward the perpetrator than men would. Consistent with findings by Sakaluk and Milhausen (2012), it was also predicted that men would exhibit a stronger explicit sexual double standard than would women.

Objective 4. Determine how beliefs consistent with anti-fat bias, ambivalent sexism, and sexual double standards predicted emotional response toward the victim and perceptions of victim culpability.

Objective 4 hypotheses. Several studies have found that people who endorse views consistent with rape myths are more likely to blame the victim (Frese, Moya, & Megias, 2004; Vrij & Firmin, 2001). Thus, it was predicted that greater levels of agreement with rape myth acceptance will be related to higher levels of victim blaming, lower levels of assigned blame toward the perpetrator, and less positive feelings toward the victim. Secondly, it was anticipated that a greater endorsement of anti-fat prejudice will be related to higher levels victim blaming, lower levels of assigned blame toward the perpetrator, and less positive feelings toward the victim. This hypothesis is supported by previous research that found anti-fat attitudes were correlated with higher levels of victim blame, greater feelings of negative affect for the survivor, and less sympathy for the victim (Clarke & Stermac, 2010). It was hypothesized that a greater endorsement of views consistent with sexual double standards will be related to higher levels victim blaming, lower levels of assigned blame toward perpetrators, and less positive feelings toward the victim. Finally, it was also anticipated that benevolent and hostile sexism,

sexual double standards, and anti-fat prejudice will all be positively correlated with one another. Previous research by Clarke and Stermac (2010) found that rape myth acceptance and anti-fat attitudes were correlated with one another.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Participants

A total of 692 participants (262 men, 406 women, 1 transgender male, 23 prefer not to respond) were included in analyses. Participants ranged in age from 18-75 years ($M = 28.53$, $SD = 11.67$). Ethnicity was primarily White/Caucasian ($n = 557$), with other categories including Black/African American ($n = 35$), Asian or Pacific Islander ($n = 26$), American Indian/Alaska Native ($n = 8$), Caribbean Islander ($n = 3$), Mexican/Mexican American ($n = 4$), Multi-ethnic ($n = 27$), and “other” ($n = 5$). The majority of participants reported that they were heterosexual ($n = 615$). Participants included undergraduate students recruited via Sona Systems ($n = 319$) and nonstudents ($n = 373$). See Table 1 for a complete breakdown of participant demographics.

Approximately one-third of participants ($n = 229$, 33.10%) reported that they had sent nude photographs of themselves to another person. A small number of participants reported having their explicit photographs shared online with ($n = 23$) or without ($n = 16$) their consent (7 participants reported both having a photograph shared with and without their consent). See Table 2 for complete information regarding participants experience with sexting and nonconsensual pornography.

Undergraduate participants were recruited using the University of North Dakota’s research participant pool, Sona Systems. Students were allowed to choose to participate either online or in-person at a time that was convenient for them. Students who chose to complete the study online were provided with a link to a Qualtrics webpage to complete

the study. Undergraduate students at the University of North Dakota, who were recruited via Sona Systems earned course credit in exchange for their participation.

Participants were also recruited via social media (i.e., Facebook, Amazon's Mechanical Turk [MTurk]), where participants were provided with a link to a Qualtrics webpage where they were able to complete the study. MTurk allows individuals or businesses (aka Requestors) to collect data via online participants (aka Workers). Participants recruited from MTurk come from the general public, which allows for a more diverse pool of participants, while still providing quality data (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Hauser & Schwarz, 2016; Peer, Vosgerau, & Acquisti, 2013). Recruiting participants via MTurk allows for a more representative cross section of the population, which may contribute to a greater generalizability of the findings. At the same time, however, previous research has suggested that participants drawn from university samples or from actual jury pools render similar decisions to the general population (e.g., Bornstein, 1999). On MTurk, workers are able to respond to a Human Intelligence Task (HIT) posted by the Requestor. The HIT included instructions for completing the online survey. Participants recruited from MTurk received monetary compensation, from funds set up by the Requestor, in exchange for their participation. Participants recruited via MTurk were paid \$.50 for their participation.

Materials

Vignette. This study employed a 2 (Victim Gender) X 3 (Victim Weight: obese vs. thin vs. control/average build) X 2 (Victim Responsibility: perpetrator took the photograph vs. victim took the photograph) between subjects factorial design. After consenting (See Appendix A) to participate in the proposed research project, participants

were randomly assigned to read one of 12 vignettes in which they were asked to imagine they are jurors in a case of nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs. Participants were asked to read a mock police report (see Appendix B) filed by a woman named Ashley (or a man named Matthew) alleging that her ex-boyfriend, Matthew (or ex-girlfriend Ashley), distributed a nude photograph of her/him online, without her/his consent, following the dissolution of their relationship.

Using mock police reports is a methodology utilized in previous research studies (e.g., Clarke & Lawson, 2009; Clarke & Stermac, 2010; Jacobson & Popovich, 1983). The vignettes differed depending on the condition the participant was randomly assigned; however, because previous research has found that minor manipulations may have an effect on participants' decision making, apart from the manipulations, the mock police reports were identical. Following the mock police report, participants were asked to answer a series of questions about the scenario. Then, participants were provided with the North Dakota Century Code Section 12.1-17-07.2, which is the North Dakota law created specifically for instances of nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs, in order to aid in their decisions related to criminal responsibility and punishment. The law reads:

A person commits the offense of distribution of intimate images if the person knowingly or intentionally distributes to any third party any intimate image of an individual eighteen years of age or older, if: (a.) The person knows that the depicted individual has not given consent to the person to distribute the intimate image; (b.) The intimate image was created by or provided to the person under circumstances in which the individual has a reasonable expectation of privacy; and (c.) Actual emotional distress or harm is caused to the individual as a result of the distribution under this section.

Questionnaires and measures.

Perceptions of scenario. The majority of the dependent measures (see Appendix C) used a 7-point Likert-type scale, with endpoints that were worded by the item (e.g., 1- *not at all serious*– 7-*serious*) or degree of particular agreement (e.g.; 1 = *completely disagree* – 7 = *completely agree*). Other items included dichotomous variables and open-ended responses. Questions were derived from similar studies (Clarke & Lawson, 2009; Clarke & Stermac, 2010; Jacobson & Popovich, 1983; Rhyner et al., 2017) and were created for the purposes of this study.

Manipulation check. Participants were asked to correctly indicate the victim’s gender, who took the photo, and the victim’s weight. Only participants correctly identified the victim’s gender, the victim’s weight, and how the photograph originated were included in analyses.¹

Believability. Participants completed one item that assessed the level of believability of the vignette. Higher scores reflect greater agreement that the situation was believable.

Seriousness. Participants completed one item that assessed the level of seriousness of the situation. Higher scores reflect greater agreement that the situation was serious.

Victim responsibility and blame. Participants completed five items, which were averaged to create a single score (Cronbach’s alpha = .887), that assessed their agreement that the victim was (a) responsible for, (b) to blame for, (c) could have prevented the situation, (d) is responsible for due to acting carelessly, and (e) is at fault for the situation. Higher scores indicate a greater level of blame attributed to the victim.

Victim sexual assertiveness. Using a Likert-type scale, participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement that the victim was promiscuous, as well as how likely it was that the victim had sent nude photos to other individuals. These items were collapsed to create a single score, $r = .501$. Higher scores indicate a greater agreement that the victim was sexually assertive.

Perceptions of victim attractiveness. Participants were also asked to indicate how healthy (or unhealthy) and how attractive (or unattractive) they perceived the victim. These items were collapsed to create a single score, $r = .738$. Higher scores indicate a greater belief that the victim was physically healthy and attractive.

Negative affect toward victim. Participants completed three items that assessed their agreement with statements that they were (a) angry with Ashley/Matthew, (b) annoyed with Ashley/Matthew, and (c) disgusted with Ashley/Matthew. A composite measure was created from these three items, Cronbach's alpha = .897. Higher scores reflect that participants had greater levels of negative affect toward the victim.

Sympathy for victim. Participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement with three items that assessed their level of sympathy for the victim (i.e., "I feel sorry for Ashley/Matthew, the person whose photos were distributed without consent.", "I feel sympathy for Ashley/Matthew.", and "I feel pity for Ashley/Matthew."). These items were used to create a composite measure that assessed the level of sympathy participants report for the victim, Cronbach's alpha = .865. Higher scores indicate a higher level of sympathy for the victim.

Consequences to victim. Participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement with Ashley/Matthew losing her/his job for being featured in the photo on the

Internet; this item was reverse coded. Participants were also asked, utilizing a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Very Negative Impact* – 7 = *Very Positive Impact*), to indicate the extent to which having an explicit photograph shared online would have an impact on the victim's work, family, social, and dating life, as well as the victim's life in general. These items were collapsed to create a composite measure, Cronbach's alpha = .858. Lower scores indicate that participants perceived a more negative impact on the victim's life.

Perpetrator responsibility and blame. This section asked participants to complete three items that assessed participants' perceptions of how much the perpetrator was (a) at fault, (b) to blame for, (c) is responsible for the situation. Perpetrator responsibility and blame was assessed by collapsing these items to create a single score, Cronbach's alpha = .910. Higher scores indicate a greater willingness to attribute blame to the perpetrator.

Negative affect toward perpetrator. Participants completed three items that assessed their agreement with statements that they were (a) angry with Ashley/Matthew, (b) annoyed with Ashley/Matthew, and (c) disgusted with Ashley/Matthew. These three items were collapsed to create a single measure of negative affect for the perpetrator, Cronbach's alpha = .898. Higher scores indicate that participants had greater levels of negative affect toward the perpetrator.

Sympathy for perpetrator. Participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement with three items, which were averaged to create a single score (Cronbach's alpha = .884), that assessed their level of sympathy for the perpetrator (i.e., "I feel sorry for Ashley/Matthew, the person being accused of posting the nude photos.", "I feel

sympathy for Ashley/Matthew.”, and “I feel pity for Ashley/Matthew.”). Lower scores indicate that participants felt less sympathy for the perpetrator.

Criminal responsibility and legal action. This section asked participants to complete nine items. The first item asked participants to indicate their level of agreement that sharing nude photos without consent should be illegal. Higher scores indicate a greater level of agreement that nonconsensual pornography should be illegal.

Participants were then provided with the North Dakota Century Code 12.1-17-07.2, which is the North Dakota law created specifically for instances of nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs, in order to make their decisions regarding criminal responsibility and punishment. They were then asked to complete items that assessed their level of agreement that legal action should be taken against the person who posted the photo. These first two items were combined to create a composite score, $r = .44$.

Participants were then asked whether or not they believed the perpetrator should face criminal charges (*yes* or *no*). Participants were then asked whether or not the perpetrator should face jail/prison time for distributing the victim’s nude images. Those who indicated “yes” were then asked to recommend a sentence length. Participants then were asked to explain why they made the decisions that they did. Lastly, participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement that it is the responsibility of the police to help in these types of cases, with higher scores indicating a stronger belief that police officers should be helpful in these cases.

Civil cases. Participants were asked to indicate their agreement that a judge should rule in favor of the victim should the victim file a civil case against the

perpetrator. Participants were then asked to specify a dollar amount that the victim be awarded in damages.

Attitude measures. Participants were also asked to respond to five different scales that assessed their anti-fat attitudes, beliefs about the controllability of obesity, sexual double standards, and support for sexism and rape myth acceptance. Each scale is discussed in more detail below.

Anti-Fat Attitudes Questionnaire. The Anti-Fat Attitudes Questionnaire (Crandall, 1994; see Appendix D) is a 13-item measure, which includes three subscales (Dislike [e.g., “Although some fat people are surely smart, in general, I think they tend not to be quite as bright as normal weight people.”], “I really don’t like fat people much.”], Fear of Fat [e.g., “One of the worst things that could happen to me would be if I gained 25 pounds.”], and Willpower [e.g., “People who weigh too much could lose at least some part of their weight through a little exercise.”]), that assesses explicit anti-fat attitudes, including a willingness to interact with fat people and causes of being overweight. Items are rated on a 9-point Likert-type scale. Scores for each subscale are computed by calculating the mean of items associated with each subscale. Crandall (1994) reported the following Cronbach’s alpha results for the three subscales Dislike, .84; Fear of Fat, .83; Willpower, .68. This measure has been used in whole or in part in numerous studies (e.g., Crandall et al., 2001; Swami & Monk, 2013; Swami et al., 2010). In the current study, Cronbach’s alpha scores for the three subscales are as follows: Dislike, .888; Fear of Fat, .842; Willpower, .788.

Beliefs About Obese Persons Scale. The Beliefs About Obese Persons Scale (Allison, Basile, & Yaker, 1991; see Appendix E) includes 8 items and measures beliefs

about the controllability of obesity. The Beliefs About Obese Persons Scale uses a 6-point Likert-type scale (-3 = *I strongly disagree* to +3 = *I strongly agree*). Lower scores on the Beliefs About Obese Persons reflect a stronger belief that obesity is under an obese person's control. Sample items include statements such as "The majority of obese people have poor eating habits that lead to their obesity." This scale is commonly used to assess participants' perceptions regarding the controllability of obesity (e.g., Lillis et al., 2010; Puhl & Brownell, 2006; Swami et al., 2010). Allison et al., (1991) reported an alpha reliability range of .65 to .82 for this scale. In the current study, Cronbach's alpha = .764. Scores are calculated by reverse coding several items. Then, scores are summed and 24 is added to create a final score. Scores in the current study ranged from 0-47. Higher scores indicate stronger beliefs that obesity is not under personal control.

Sexual Double Standards Scale. Muchlenhard and Quackenbush's (1998; see Appendix F) Sexual Double Standards Scale was used to assess participants' agreement with sexual double standards. This 26 item scale asks participants to rate their level of agreement or disagreement with each statement via a 4 point Likert-type scale ranging from "*Disagree Strongly*" (0) to "*Agree Strongly*" (3). The Sexual Double Standards Scale consists of individual items that compare the sexual behaviors of men and women in the same item, as well as paired items that parallel men's and women's sexual behaviors (e.g., "I admire a man who is a virgin when he gets married" and "I admire a woman who is a virgin when she gets married"). The Sexual Double Standards Scale utilizes a formula to determine a final score. Scores can range from -30 (indicating a view of greater sexual freedom for women than for men) to 48 (demonstrating a view consistent with the traditional double standard that men are allowed more sexual freedom

than women). A scale score of 0 would indicate identical standards for men and women. The scores in the current sample ranged from -6 to 42, and the Sexual Double Standard Scale had a Cronbach's alpha = .916.

Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form. The Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form (Payne et al., 1999, see Appendix G) includes 20-items and measures participants' level of rape myth acceptance using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *not at all agree* and 7 = *very much agree*). The Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form is made up of 17 items that assess seven different types of rape myths and includes three filler items. Scores range from 17– 119, with higher scores indicating greater levels of rape myth acceptance. The Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form has been used in numerous research studies (e.g., Chapleau et al., 2007; Girard & Senn, 2008; Palm Reed, Hines, Armstrong, & Cameron, 2015), and this scale has demonstrated adequate reliability and validity in studies by the scale's authors (Payne et al., 1999). The scores in the current sample ranged from 17 to 119, and the had a Cronbach's alpha = .943.

Ambivalent Sexism Inventory. The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory is a 22-item measure that measures levels of sexism according to the two proposed facets in ambivalent Sexism Theory (Glick & Fiske, 2001; see Appendix H). The scale consists of 11 hostile and 11 benevolent statements with Likert-type statements in which participants indicate their level of agreement. High endorsement with hostile sexist statements indicates hostile attitudes toward women. Benevolent sexism items reflect the three dimensions of paternalism, heterosexual intimacy, and support for gender differentiation. A high level of agreement with benevolent sexist statements indicate attitudes toward

women that are may appear positive but are ultimately depreciating. High agreement with both hostile and benevolent item indicates an ambivalent prejudice against women (Glick & Fiske, 2001). In the current study, the hostile sexism items had a Cronbach's alpha = .951, benevolent sexism items had a Cronbach's alpha = .908, and had a Cronbach's alpha = .947 for all items.

Demographics. Participants were also asked to complete a demographic questionnaire (see Appendix I), which asked them to indicate their age, ethnicity, gender, level of education, level of religiosity, sexual orientation, occupation/major in school, marital status, political affiliation, and participants' height and weight, which was be used to calculate participants' body mass index (BMI). Participants were also asked if they have ever sent nude photos of themselves and if they or someone they know has had nude photographs distributed online, with or without consent their consent.

CHAPTER IV

PROCEDURE

The proposed study was completed using an online data collection software called Qualtrics, as well as in person in a laboratory setting. After obtaining informed consent, participants were randomly assigned to read one of 12 possible vignettes, varying the victim's gender, victim's weight, and who originally took the photograph. Following the scenario, participants were asked to respond to a number of items assessing their perceptions of the scenario, victim, and perpetrator, as well as various attitudinal measures including the Anti-Fat Attitudes Questionnaire, Beliefs About Obese Persons Scale, the Sexual Double Standards Scale, the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, and a demographics questionnaire.

All online data was collected in the form of an online survey through Qualtrics Research Suite. The Qualtrics website uses secure sockets layer encryption, which is HIPPA compliant. Participants were identified by a randomly generated number within Qualtrics. The numbers were not linked with names or consent forms. No identifying information (e.g., names, student ID numbers) was collected. Participants' questionnaires are reported in aggregate form.

In person data was collected in room 417 in Corwin-Larimore building located on the University of North Dakota campus. The survey participants completed in the lab was identical to the online version of the survey.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

Believability

The perceived level of believability of the scenario was assessed using a 2 (Victim Gender) X 3 (Victim Weight: obese vs. thin vs. control/average build) X 2 (Victim Responsibility: perpetrator took the photograph vs. victim took the photograph) X 2 (Participant Gender) analysis of variance (ANOVA). There was a marginally significant main effect for victim gender, $F(1, 645) = 3.86, p = .050, \eta^2 = .006$, such that participants perceived the scenario as more believable when the victim was a woman ($M = 6.25, SD = 1.02$), as opposed to a man ($M = 6.11, SD = 1.07$). There was also a main effect for participant gender $F(1, 645) = 13.82, p < .001, \eta^2 = .021$, indicating that women ($M = 6.30, SD = 0.98$) viewed the situation as more believable than men ($M = 6.00, SD = 1.12$). Perceptions of the believability of the scenario did not differ with regard to the victim's weight, $F < 1$, or victim responsibility, $F < 1$. Interactions failed to attain significance. Overall, participants viewed the situation as believable ($M = 6.18, SD = 1.06$), $t(688) = 54.10, p < .001$.

Seriousness

The perception of the severity of the situation was assessed using 2 (Victim Gender) X 3 (Victim Weight: obese vs. thin vs. control/average build) X 2 (Victim Responsibility: perpetrator took the photograph vs. victim took the photograph) X 2

(Participant Gender) ANOVA. Perceptions of the seriousness of the scenario did not differ with regard to the victim's gender, $F(1, 645) = 1.17, ns$; victim's weight, $F < 1$; or victim responsibility, $F(1, 645) = 1.17, ns$. There was a main effect for participant gender, $F(1, 645) = 61.93, p < .001, \eta^2 = .088$, indicating that women ($M = 6.58, SD = 0.79$) viewed the situation as more severe than men ($M = 5.98, SD = 1.15$).

There was a significant interaction between victim gender and the victim's responsibility for creating the photograph, $F(1, 645) = 7.09, p = .008, \eta^2 = .011$ (see Figure 1). Simple effects analysis of victim gender at each level of victim responsibility yielded significance when the victim took the photo, $F(1, 686) = 6.76, p = .010$. Results indicate that situation was perceived as more serious when a female victim took the photograph herself ($M = 6.44, SD = 0.83$) than when a male victim took the photograph himself ($M = 6.16, SD = 1.16$). No other interactions attained significance. Participants generally viewed the situation as serious ($M = 6.33, SD = 1.00$), $t(689) = 61.43, p < .001$.

Victim Responsibility and Blame

Perceptions of victim responsibility were assessed using a 2 (Victim Gender) X 3 (Victim Weight: obese vs. thin vs. control/average build) X 2 (Victim Responsibility: perpetrator took the photograph vs. victim took the photograph) X 2 (Participant Gender) ANOVA. Perceptions of victim responsibility did not differ with regard to the victim's gender, $F(1, 645) = 1.88, ns$, or weight, $F < 1$. There was a main effect for victim responsibility, $F(1, 645) = 65.80, p < .001, \eta^2 = .093$, such that the victim was attributed more blame when the victim took the photograph ($M = 3.46, SD = 1.38$) than when the perpetrator took the photograph ($M = 2.56, SD = 1.35$). There was also a main effect for

participant gender, $F(1, 645) = 19.30, p < .001, \eta^2 = .029$, indicating that men ($M = 3.32, SD = 1.44$) attributed more blame to the victim than did women ($M = 2.85, SD = 1.41$).

There was a significant interaction between victim gender and the victim's responsibility for creating the photograph, $F(1, 645) = 6.65, p = .010, \eta^2 = .010$ (see Figure 2). Simple effects analysis of victim gender at each level of victim responsibility yielded significance when the perpetrator took the photo, $F(1, 684) = 5.21, p = .015$. Results indicate that participants attributed more blame to the female victim whose former boyfriend took the photograph ($M = 2.74, SD = 1.44$) than to the male victim whose former girlfriend took the photograph ($M = 2.39, SD = 1.24$).

There was also a significant interaction between the victim's weight and participant gender, $F(2, 645) = 6.18, p = .002, \eta^2 = .019$ (see Figure 3). Simple effects analysis of participant gender at each level of victim weight yielded significance when the victim was thin, $F(1, 663) = 12.84, p < .001$, and when the victim was obese, $F(1, 663) = 15.22, p < .001$. Results indicate that men attributed more blame to a thin victim ($M = 3.46, SD = 1.34$) than women did ($M = 2.77, SD = 1.37$). Men also attributed more blame to an obese victim ($M = 3.49, SD = 1.57$) than women did ($M = 2.73, SD = 1.39$). No other interactions attained significance. Participants generally did not attribute high level of blame to the victim ($M = 3.06, SD = 1.47$), $t(687) = -17.09, p < .001$.

Multiple linear regression analysis was used to develop a model for predicting the level of blame attributed to the victim based on participants' scores on the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form, Anti-Fat Attitudes Scale, Beliefs Against Obese Persons Scale, Sexual Double Standards Scale, and on the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory. Basic descriptive statistics and regression coefficients are shown in Table 3. Predictors

were entered into the model simultaneously. Each of the predictors had a significant ($p < .05$) zero-order correlation with victim blame. However, only the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory and the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale predictors had significant ($p < .01$) partial effects in the full model. Higher scores on the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory ($\beta = .13, p = .004$), and the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form ($\beta = .34, p < .001$) were associated with attributing a greater level of blame toward the victim. The five predictor model was able to account for 22.46% of the variance in victim blame, $F(5, 621) = 35.98, p < .001, R^2 = .22$.

Victim Sexual Assertiveness

Perceptions of victim sexual assertiveness were assessed using a 2 (Victim Gender) X 3 (Victim Weight: obese vs. thin vs. control/average build) X 2 (Victim Responsibility: perpetrator took the photograph vs. victim took the photograph) X 2 (Participant Gender) ANOVA. Perceptions of victim responsibility did not differ with regard to the victim's gender, $F < 1$, or the victim's weight, $F < 1$. There was a main effect for victim responsibility, $F(1, 645) = 47.10, p < .001, \eta^2 = .068$, such that the victim was perceived as more sexually assertive when the victim took the photograph ($M = 3.28, SD = 1.32$) than when the perpetrator took the photograph ($M = 2.53, SD = 1.36$). A main effect for participant gender, $F(1, 645) = 44.34, p < .001, \eta^2 = .064$, indicated that men ($M = 3.35, SD = 1.39$) perceived the victim as more sexually assertive than did women ($M = 2.65, SD = 1.32$).

There was a marginally significant interaction between victim gender and the victim's responsibility for creating the photograph, $F(1, 645) = 3.84, p = .050, \eta^2 = .006$ (see Figure 4). Simple effects analysis of victim responsibility at each level of victim

gender yielded significance when the victim was female, $F(1, 684) = 15.89, p < .001$, and when the victim was male, $F(1, 684) = 42.33, p < .001$. When the victim was female, participants rated the victim as more sexually assertive when she took the photograph herself ($M = 3.14, SD = 1.44$), as opposed to when her ex-partner took the photograph ($M = 2.57, SD = 1.42$). Likewise, when the victim was male, participants rated the victim as more sexually assertive when he took the photograph himself ($M = 3.41, SD = 1.19$), as opposed to when his ex-partner took the photograph ($M = 2.50, SD = 1.31$). Overall, participants generally did not perceive the victim to be sexually assertive ($M = 2.94, SD = 1.38$), $t(687) = -20.13, p < .001$.

Perceptions of Victim Attractiveness

Perceptions of victim attractiveness were further assessed using a 2 (Victim Gender) X 3 (Victim Weight: obese vs. thin vs. control/average build) X 2 (Victim Responsibility: perpetrator took the photograph vs. victim took the photograph) X 2 (Participant Gender) ANOVA. Perceptions of the victim did not differ with regard to victim responsibility, $F < 1$. There was a main effect for victim gender, $F(1, 644) = 12.20, p = .001, \eta^2 = .019$, such that the female victim was perceived to be more attractive ($M = 4.71, SD = 1.25$) than the male victim ($M = 4.32, SD = 1.24$).

There was a main effect for victim weight, $F(2, 644) = 55.68, p < .001, \eta^2 = .147$. Post-hoc tests using Fisher's LSD test indicated that participants perceived an average weight victim as more attractive ($M = 5.01, SD = 1.05$) than both a thin victim ($M = 4.63, SD = 1.23$) and an overweight victim ($M = 3.88, SD = 1.24$). In addition, a thin victim was perceived as more attractive than a victim who was overweight. There was also a main effect for participant gender, $F(1, 644) = 15.82, p < .001, \eta^2 = .024$, indicating that

women ($M = 4.66$, $SD = 1.23$) perceived the victim as more attractive than men did ($M = 4.29$, $SD = 1.28$).

There was a significant three-way interaction between victim weight, victim responsibility, and participant gender, $F(2, 644) = 4.19$, $p = 0.016$, $\eta^2 = .013$ (see Figure 5). This interaction was deconstructed into two-way interactions of participant gender and victim responsibility at each level of victim weight. Although the two-way interaction involving victim responsibility and participant gender failed to attain significance when the victim was of an average weight, there were significant two-way interactions for when the victim was thin, as well as for the obese victim.

For the thin victim, simple effects of participant gender at each level of victim responsibility yielded significance only when the perpetrator took the photograph, $F(1, 656) = 8.63$, $p = .004$. When the perpetrator took the photograph, women rated the victim more attractive ($M = 4.92$, $SD = 1.18$) than men ($M = 4.21$, $SD = 1.42$). See Table 4 for all means and standard deviations.

For the obese victim, simple effects of participant gender at each level of victim responsibility yielded significance only when the victim took the photograph, $F(1, 656) = 14.19$, $p < .001$. Men rated the overweight victim as less attractive when the victim took the photograph ($M = 3.38$, $SD = 0.93$) compared to women ($M = 4.26$, $SD = 1.25$). See Table 4 for all means and standard deviations. No other interactions attained significance. Participants generally perceived the victim to be attractive ($M = 4.51$, $SD = 1.26$), $t(683) = 10.67$, $p < .001$.

Negative Affect Toward Victim

Participants' negative affect for the victim was assessed using a 2 (Victim Gender) X 3 (Victim Weight: obese vs. thin vs. control/average build) X 2 (Victim Responsibility: perpetrator took the photograph vs. victim took the photograph) X 2 (Participant Gender) ANOVA. Neither the main effects for victim gender, $F < 1$, for victim weight, $F(1, 645) = 2.32, ns$, nor participant gender, $F(1, 645) = 1.57, ns$, attained significance.

There was a main effect for victim responsibility, $F(1, 645) = 12.78, p < .001, \eta^2 = .019$. Participants reported more negative affect toward the victim when the victim took the photograph ($M = 2.54, SD = 1.51$) than when the victim's former partner took the photograph ($M = 2.11, SD = 1.47$).

There was a significant interaction between victim gender and the victim's weight, $F(2, 645) = 3.77, p = .023, \eta^2 = .012$ (see Figure 6). Simple effects analysis of victim gender at each level of victim weight yielded significance when the victim was thin, $F(1, 682) = 5.84, p = .016$. Results indicate participants harbored more negative feelings toward the thin, female victim ($M = 2.45, SD = 1.61$) as opposed to the thin, male victim ($M = 2.01, SD = 1.29$).

There was also a significant interaction between participant gender and the victim's weight, $F(2, 645) = 3.81, p = .023, \eta^2 = .012$ (see Figure 7). Simple effects analysis of victim weight at each level of participant gender yielded significance when the victim was described as overweight, $F(1, 663) = 4.840, p = .029$. Results indicate that men reported more negative affect toward an overweight victim ($M = 2.75, SD = 1.53$) than did women ($M = 2.29, SD = 1.51$). No other interactions attained significance.

Multiple linear regression analysis was used to develop a model for predicting participants' negative feelings toward the victim based on participants' scores on the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form, Anti-Fat Attitudes Scale, Beliefs Against Obese Persons Scale, Sexual Double Standards Scale, and on the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory. Basic descriptive statistics and regression coefficients are shown in Table 5.

Each of the predictors, except for scores on the Beliefs Against Obese Persons Scale, had a significant ($p < .05$) zero-order correlation with negative affect toward the victim; however, only scores on the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form had a significant partial effect in the model. A greater endorsement of rape myths was associated with an increase in negative affect toward the victim ($\beta = .25, p < .001$). The five predictor model was accounted for 11.53% of the variance in participants' feelings of negative affect toward the victim, $F(5, 621) = 35.98, p < .001, R^2 = .12$.

Participants generally did not report negative feelings toward the victim ($M = 2.33, SD = 1.51$), $t(687) = -28.45, p < .001$. In addition, there was a significant negative correlation between negative affect toward the victim and sympathy for the victim, $r = -.16, p < .001$.

Victim Sympathy

A 2 (Victim Gender) X 3 (Victim Weight: obese vs. thin vs. control/average build) X 2 (Victim Responsibility: perpetrator took the photograph vs. victim took the photograph) X 2 (Participant Gender) ANOVA was conducted to assess the amount of sympathy participants assigned to the victim. There were no significant differences found for victim gender, $F(1, 645) = 1.92, ns$, or for victim weight, $F < 1$.

There was a main effect for victim responsibility, $F(1, 645) = 12.60, p < .001, \eta^2 = .019$, such that the participants felt more sympathy for the victim when the victim's former partner took the photograph ($M = 5.44, SD = 1.39$) than when the victim took the photograph ($M = 5.01, SD = 1.36$). There was also a main effect for participant gender, $F(1, 645) = 12.24, p = .001, \eta^2 = .019$, indicating that women ($M = 5.37, SD = 1.34$) felt more sympathy for the victim than men did ($M = 4.98, SD = 1.42$). Interactions failed to attain significance. Overall, participants reported that they generally felt sympathy for the victim ($M = 5.19, SD = 1.41$), $t(687) = 22.11, p < .001$.

Consequences to the Victim

Perceptions of the impact that having a nude photograph shared online might have on the victim's life was analyzed using a 2 (Victim Gender) X 3 (Victim Weight: obese vs. thin vs. control/average build) X 2 (Victim Responsibility: perpetrator took the photograph vs. victim took the photograph) X 2 (Participant Gender) ANOVA. Neither the main effects for victim gender, $F(1, 645) = 1.57, ns$, victim weight, nor victim responsibility, $F's < 1$ attained significance.

There was a main effect for participant gender, $F(1, 645) = 9.17, p = .003, \eta^2 = .014$, such that women were more likely to agree that having nude photograph's distributed online would have a more negative impact on the victim's life ($M = 3.04, SD = 1.19$) than men did ($M = 3.34, SD = 1.09$).

There was a significant interaction between victim gender and the victim's role in taking the photograph, $F(1, 645) = 4.06, p = .044, \eta^2 = .006$ (see Figure 8). Simple effects analysis of victim gender at each level of victim responsibility yielded significance when the victim took the nude photograph, $F(1, 684) = 5.12, p = .024$.

When the victim took his or her own photograph, participants were more likely to agree that there would be a negative impact on the female victim's life ($M = 2.99, SD = 1.02$) than when the male victim took the photograph ($M = 3.28, SD = 1.22$).

There was also a significant interaction between participant gender and the victim's responsibility for taking the nude photograph, $F(1, 645) = 4.77, p = .029, \eta^2 = .007$ (see Figure 9). Simple effects analysis of participant gender at each level of victim responsibility yielded significance when the victim took the nude photograph, $F(1, 665) = 15.41, p < .001$. When the victim took the photograph, women were more likely to agree that having nude photographs shared online would have a negative impact on the victim's life ($M = 2.94, SD = 1.11$) than men did ($M = 3.42, SD = 1.11$). No other interactions attained significance. Overall, participants believed having one's nude photograph distributed online would have a negative impact on the victim's life ($M = 3.16, SD = 1.16$), $t(687) = -88.93, p < .001$.

Perpetrator Responsibility and Blame

Perceptions of perpetrator responsibility were assessed using a 2 (Victim Gender) X 3 (Victim Weight: obese vs. thin vs. control/average build) X 2 (Victim Responsibility: perpetrator took the photograph vs. victim took the photograph) X 2 (Participant Gender) ANOVA. Perceptions of perpetrator responsibility did not differ with regard to the victim's gender, $F < 1$. There was a main effect for victim weight $F(2, 645) = 3.26, p = .039, \eta^2 = .010$. Post-hoc tests using Fisher's Least Squares Difference (LSD) test indicated that participants blamed the perpetrator more when the victim was of average weight ($M = 6.41, SD = 0.93$) than when the victim was thin ($M = 6.21, SD = 1.09$).

A main effect for victim responsibility, $F(1, 645) = 8.31, p = .004, \eta^2 = .013$, indicated that the perpetrator was attributed more blame when he or she took the photograph ($M = 6.44, SD = 0.97$) than when the victim took the photograph ($M = 6.19, SD = 1.04$). There was also a main effect for participant gender, $F(1, 645) = 27.04, p < .001, \eta^2 = .040$, indicating that women ($M = 6.47, SD = 0.87$) attributed more blame to the perpetrator than men did ($M = 6.05, SD = 1.16$).

There was a significant interaction between victim gender and the victim's responsibility for creating the photograph, $F(1, 645) = 5.25, p = .022, \eta^2 = .008$ (see Figure 10). Simple effects analysis of victim responsibility at each level of victim gender yielded significance for the male victim, $F(1, 683) = 15.77, p < .001$. Results indicate that participants attributed more blame to the female perpetrator who took the photograph of a male victim ($M = 6.47, SD = 0.91$) than when the male victim originally took the nude photograph himself ($M = 6.05, SD = 1.13$). No other interactions attained significance. Participants generally agreed that the perpetrator was to blame ($M = 6.30, SD = 1.02$), $t(686) = 59.33, p < .001$.

Multiple linear regression analysis was used to develop a model for predicting the level of blame attributed to the perpetrator based on participants' scores on the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form, Anti-Fat Attitudes Scale, Beliefs Against Obese Persons Scale, Sexual Double Standards Scale, and on the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory. Basic descriptive statistics and regression coefficients are shown in Table 6. Predictors were entered into the model simultaneously. Each of the predictors had a significant ($p < .01$) zero-order correlation with perpetrator blame, but only the Beliefs Against Obese Persons Scale, and the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form

predictors had significant ($p < .05$) partial effects in the full model. Higher scores on the Beliefs Against Obese Persons Scale ($\beta = -.12, p = .001$), and the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form ($\beta = -.43, p < .001$) were associated with attributing less blame toward the perpetrator. The five predictor model was able to account for 20.48% of the variance in perpetrator blame, $F(5, 621) = 32.00, p < .001, R^2 = .205$.

Negative Affect Toward Perpetrator

Participants' negative affect toward the perpetrator was assessed using a 2 (Victim Gender) X 3 (Victim Weight: obese vs. thin vs. control/average build) X 2 (Victim Responsibility: perpetrator took the photograph vs. victim took the photograph) X 2 (Participant Gender) ANOVA. There were no significant differences found for victim gender, $F(1, 644) = 3.12, ns$, or for victim weight, $F < 1$.

There was a main effect for victim responsibility, $F(1, 644) = 6.25, p = .013, \eta^2 = .010$, such that participants reported more negative feelings toward a perpetrator who posted a photograph taken by him or herself ($M = 5.35, SD = 1.75$) compared to perpetrator who posted a photograph taken by the victim ($M = 4.98, SD = 1.78$).

There was a main effect for participant gender, $F(1, 644) = 18.52, p < .001, \eta^2 = .028$, such that the women reported more negative affect toward the perpetrator ($M = 5.40, SD = 1.75$) than men did ($M = 4.78, SD = 1.75$). No interactions attained significance. Participants generally reported negative feelings toward the perpetrator ($M = 5.12, SD = 1.79$), $t(685) = 16.44, p < .001$.

Sympathy for Perpetrator

A 2 (Victim Gender) X 3 (Victim Weight: obese vs. thin vs. control/average build) X 2 (Victim Responsibility: perpetrator took the photograph vs. victim took the

photograph) X 2 (Participant Gender) ANOVA was conducted to assess the amount of sympathy participants assigned to the perpetrator. Neither the main effects for victim gender; victim weight, nor victim responsibility attained significance, F 's < 1 .

There was a main effect for participant gender, $F(1, 641) = 23.18, p < .001, \eta^2 = .035$, indicating that women ($M = 1.40, SD = 0.78$) felt less sympathy for the perpetrator than men did ($M = 1.78, SD = 1.22$). No interactions attained significance. In general, participants did not report feelings of sympathy for the perpetrator ($M = 1.55, SD = 0.99$), $t(682) = -64.42, p < .001$.

Criminal Responsibility and Legal Action

Perpetrator criminal responsibility. A 2 (Victim Gender) X 3 (Victim Weight: obese vs. thin vs. control/average build) X 2 (Victim Responsibility: perpetrator took the photograph vs. victim took the photograph) X 2 (Participant Gender) ANOVA was conducted to assess participants' perceptions of whether or not the perpetrator should face criminal charges. There were no significant differences found for victim gender, $F < 1$, or for victim weight $F(2, 645) = 3.12, ns$. There was a main effect for victim responsibility, $F(1, 645) = 8.85, p = .003, \eta^2 = .014$, such that participants were more likely to agree that the perpetrator should face criminal charges when the perpetrator posted a photograph taken by him or herself ($M = 6.33, SD = 0.88$) compared to the perpetrator who posted a photograph taken by the victim ($M = 6.13, SD = 0.99$). There was also a main effect for participant gender, $F(1, 645) = 51.61, p < .001, \eta^2 = .074$, such that the women were more likely to agree the perpetrator should face criminal charges ($M = 6.43, SD = 0.77$) than men ($M = 5.91, SD = 1.06$). No interactions attained

significance. Participants generally agreed that the perpetrator should face criminal charges ($M = 6.22, SD = 0.93$), $t(686) = 62.89, p < .001$.

A series of Pearson Chi-square tests were conducted to assess whether or not differences in recommending the perpetrator face criminal charges existed between groups based on victim gender, victim weight, victim responsibility, and participant gender. These tests revealed no significant differences with regard to victim gender, $\chi^2(1) = 1.14, p = .285$; victim weight, $\chi^2(2) = 4.47, p = .107$; or victim responsibility, $\chi^2(1) = 1.19, p = .274$. However, there was a significant association between participant gender and whether or not criminal charges were recommended, $\chi^2(1) = 9.02, p = .003$. Based on the odd's ratio, the odds of women recommending the perpetrator face criminal charges were 2.29 times higher than men recommending criminal charges for the perpetrator.

Sentencing. A Pearson Chi-square test that assessed whether or not differences in recommending the perpetrator should face jail or prison time existed between groups based on victim gender, victim weight, victim responsibility, and participant gender was conducted. There was a significant association between victim gender, $\chi^2(1) = 3.94, p = .047$. Based on the odds ratio, participants were 1.36 times more likely to recommend the perpetrator receive jail or prison time when the victim was female (and perpetrator male) as opposed to male (female perpetrator).

There was not a significant association between recommending the perpetrator receive jail or prison time and the victim's weight, $\chi^2(2) = 1.80, p = .407$. However, there was a significant association between recommending the perpetrator serve jail or prison time and the level of victim responsibility, $\chi^2(1) = 15.64, p < .001$. Based on the odds

ratio, the odds of participants recommending jail or prison time for the perpetrator were 1.84 times higher if the perpetrator posted a nude photograph that he or she took.

Lastly, there was also a significant association between participant gender and whether or not jail or prison time was recommended for the perpetrator, $\chi^2(1) = 5.14, p = .023$. Based on the odd's ratio, the odds of women recommending the perpetrator face jail or prison time were 1.43 times higher than men recommending criminal charges for the perpetrator.

Sentence length. Of the 692 participants included in the sample, 50.29% ($n = 348$) indicated that they did not recommend jail or prison time for the perpetrator. Participants who indicated that they would endorse jail or prison time for the perpetrator ($n = 338$) were asked to recommend a sentence length. The length of sentence recommendations varied from 15 days to 164 months. One participant recommended the perpetrator take some sort of class, another recommended probation and/or community service, and one participant recommended a sentence length that was the same as that of a pedophile. The average sentence length recommendation was slightly less than one and a half years ($M = 17.52$ months, $SD = 24.10$ months). The median and mode were both six months. See Table 6 for a breakdown of sentence recommendations.

Monetary fine. Only 50 participants (7.23%) indicated that they did not believe the perpetrator should be ordered to pay a monetary fine for distributing the nude photograph. Participants who indicated that they recommended a monetary fine for the perpetrator were asked to specify a dollar amount. The dollar amount specified varied from \$2 to \$500,000. Eleven participants did not recommend a specific dollar amount, and another seven participants wrote something other than a specific dollar amount (e.g.,

“hard to put a price,” “depends on damages,” “unsure”). The average recommended dollar amount for a monetary fine was \$9,657.11 ($SD = \$35,336.02$). The median fine was \$2,000.00 and the mode was \$5,000.00. See Table 7 for a breakdown of participants’ recommendations for a monetary fine.

A Pearson Chi-square test was conducted to test whether or not differences in recommending a monetary fine for the perpetrator existed between groups based on victim gender, victim weight, victim responsibility, and participant gender. There were no significant differences with regard to victim weight, $\chi^2(2) = 3.72, p = .156$; victim responsibility, $\chi^2(1) < 1$, or participant gender, $\chi^2(1) = 1.27, p = .263$.

However, results indicate that there was a significant association between victim gender and whether or not a monetary fine was recommended for the perpetrator, $\chi^2(1) = 6.99, p = .008$. Based on the odd’s ratio, the odds of recommending a monetary fine for the perpetrator were 2.25 times higher when the victim was male (female perpetrator) than when the victim was female (male perpetrator).

Civil case. Participants’ level of agreement with a judge ruling in favor of the victim if he or she was to bring forth a civil case against the perpetrator was assessed using a 2 (Victim Gender) X 3 (Victim Weight: Obese vs. Thin vs. Control/Average Build) X 2 (Victim Responsibility: Perpetrator Took the Photo vs. Victim Took the Photo) ANOVA. There were no significant differences found for victim gender, $F(1, 645) = 1.23, ns$, or for victim weight $F < 1$.

There was a main effect for victim responsibility, $F(1, 645) = 8.04, p = .005, \eta^2 = .012$, such that participants were more likely to agree that a judge should rule in favor of the victim when the photograph was taken by the perpetrator ($M = 6.21, SD = 1.13$) as

opposed to when the photograph was taken by the victim ($M = 5.93$, $SD = 1.13$). There was also a main effect for participant gender, $F(1, 645) = 14.42$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .022$, such that the women were more likely to agree that a judge should rule in favor of the victim ($M = 6.19$, $SD = 1.05$) than men were ($M = 5.86$, $SD = 1.23$).

There was a significant interaction between victim gender and victim weight, $F(2, 645) = 3.23$, $p = .040$, $\eta^2 = .010$ (see Figure 11). Simple effects analysis of victim gender at each level of victim weight yielded significance only when the victim was thin, $F(1, 680) = 4.84$, $p = .028$. Results indicate that participants were more likely to agree that a judge should rule in favor of a thin victim who is male ($M = 6.17$, $SD = 1.02$) than if the victim were a thin female ($M = 5.87$, $SD = 1.34$). No other interactions attained significance.

A one-sample t -test that evaluated participants' level of agreement with a judge ruling in favor of the victim if he or she was to bring forth a civil case against the perpetrator was assessed against the midpoint yielded significance, $t(685) = 47.52$, $p < .001$. Participants generally agreed that a judge should rule in favor of the victim if the victim were to file a civil suit against the perpetrator ($M = 6.06$, $SD = 1.14$).

Participants were also asked to specify a dollar amount that should be awarded to the victim as restitution. Most participants ($n = 633$, 92.14%) agreed that the victim should be awarded some money if the victim were to pursue a civil case against the perpetrator. Some participants ($n = 12$) wrote things there were not specific dollar amounts (e.g., "all the cost of counseling and things that impact her life." "Enough to compensate for missing work for awhile [*sic*] and legal fees and fees to take the picture down."), but their responses indicated that they recommended a judge rule in favor of the

victim. Specific recommended dollar amounts ranged from \$2.00 to \$5,000,000. The average dollar amount recommended to be awarded to the victim was \$25,491.43 ($SD = \$209,442.25$). The median dollar amount was \$3,500.00, and the mode was \$5,000.00. Only 54 participants (7.86%) recommended the judge award the victim no money. See Table 9 for a complete breakdown of participants' recommendations.

A Pearson Chi-square test was conducted to test if there were differences between groups in recommending money be awarded to the victim in a civil case. This was done between groups based on victim gender, victim weight, victim responsibility, and participant gender. There were no significant differences with regard to victim weight, $\chi^2(2) < 1$; victim responsibility, $\chi^2(1) < 1$, or participant gender, $\chi^2(1) = 1.73, p = .189$.

However, results indicate that there was a significant association between victim gender and whether or not participants recommended a monetary award for the victim in a civil case, $\chi^2(1) = 8.10, p = .004$. Based on the odd's ratio, the odds of recommending a monetary award to the victim if the victim were to bring forth a civil case against the perpetrator were 2.33 times higher when the victim was male (female perpetrator) than when the victim was female (male perpetrator).

Support from police. Participants' perceptions of the level of support police should offer to victims of nonconsensual pornography was assessed using a 2 (Victim Gender) X 3 (Victim Weight: obese vs. thin vs. control/average build) X 2 (Victim Responsibility: perpetrator took the photograph vs. victim took the photograph) X 2 (Participant Gender) ANOVA. There were no significant differences found for victim gender, $F(1, 645) = 1.09, ns$. However, there was a main effect for victim weight $F(2, 645) = 3.54, p = .030, \eta^2 = .011$. Post-hoc tests using Fisher's LSD test indicated that

participants were more likely to endorse the view that police should be helpful in these types of cases when the victim was of average weight ($M = 5.78$, $SD = 1.22$) than when the victim was overweight ($M = 5.51$, $SD = 1.37$).

There was also a main effect for victim responsibility, $F(1, 645) = 15.88$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .024$, such that participants were more likely to agree that the police should be helpful in cases of nonconsensual pornography when the photograph was taken by the perpetrator ($M = 5.85$, $SD = 1.28$) as opposed to when the photograph was taken by the victim ($M = 5.45$, $SD = 1.32$). There was also a main effect for participant gender, $F(1, 645) = 33.26$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .049$, such that the women were more likely to agree that police should be helpful in cases of nonconsensual pornography ($M = 5.87$, $SD = 1.17$) than men were ($M = 5.28$, $SD = 1.44$).

There was a significant interaction between victim gender and victim weight, $F(2, 645) = 3.34$, $p = .036$, $\eta^2 = .010$. Simple effects analysis of victim weight at each level of victim gender yielded significance for the female victim, $F(1, 688) = 3.83$, $p = .022$. Results indicated that participants were more likely to agree that police should be of assistance in cases of nonconsensual pornography when the female victim was of an average weight ($M = 5.98$, $SD = 1.18$) than when the female victim was thin ($M = 5.54$, $SD = 1.34$). No other interactions attained significance. Participants generally agreed that police officers should be helpful in these types of cases ($M = 5.64$, $SD = 1.31$), $t(685) = 32.85$, $p < .001$.

Attitude Measures

Anti-Fat Attitudes Questionnaire. Anti-fat attitudes were positively correlated with the level of blame attributed to the victim, $r = .23$, $p < .001$; negative affect toward

the victim, $r = .20, p < .001$; the victim's perceived level of sexual assertiveness, $r = .25, p < .001$; and the level of perceived consequences on the victim's life, $r = .174, p < .001$. Anti-fat attitudes were also positively correlated with participants' perceptions of the perpetrator, $r = .10, p = .011$; participants' self-reported level of sympathy for the perpetrator, $r = .22, p < .001$; and scores on the Sexual Double Standards Scale, $r = .23, p < .001$; scores on the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, $r = .36, p < .001$; and scores on the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form, $r = .45, p < .001$.

Anti-fat attitudes were negatively correlated with scores on the Beliefs Against Obese Persons scale, $r = -.36, p < .001$; perceptions of the victim, $r = -.11, p = .006$; and the level of blame attributed to the perpetrator, $r = -.17, p < .001$.

On average, men scored higher ($M = 4.23, SD = 1.57$) than women ($M = 3.85, SD = 1.50$) on the Anti-Fat Attitudes (Crandall, 1994), indicating that men expressed more explicit anti-fat attitudes. An independent samples t -test revealed that this was a significant difference, $t(667) = 3.12, p = .002$, which represents a small effect, $d = 0.25$.

Beliefs About Obese Persons Scale. Participant's scores on the Beliefs Against Obese Persons scale were positively correlated with the level of sympathy for the perpetrator, $r = .14, p < .001$; perceptions of the perpetrator, $r = .14, p < .001$; and the level of perceived consequences on the victim's life, $r = .08, p = .04$.

Participants scores on the Beliefs Against Obese Persons scale were negatively correlated with the level of blame attributed to the perpetrator, $r = -.15, p < .001$; the victim's perceived level of sexual assertiveness, $r = -.09, p = .03$; scores on the Anti-Fat Attitudes scale, $r = -.36, p < .001$; scores on the Sexual Double Standards Scale, $r = -.11, p = .004$; and scores on the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, $r = -.12, p = .002$.

On average, men scored lower ($M = 15.55$, $SD = 7.07$) than women ($M = 17.06$, $SD = 8.01$) on the Beliefs About Obese Persons Scale (Allison et al., 1991), which indicates that men were more likely to endorse views consistent with the belief that obesity is under personal control. An independent samples t -test revealed that this was a significant difference, $t(667) = -2.49$, $p = .013$, which represents a small-sized effect, $d = -0.20$.

Sexual Double Standards Scale. Endorsement of sexual double standards was positively correlated with level of sympathy for the perpetrator, $r = .13$, $p = .001$; participants' perceptions of the perpetrator, $r = .09$, $p = .021$; the level of blame attributed to the victim, $r = .25$, $p < .001$; the level of perceived consequences on the victim's life, $r = .14$, $p < .001$; negative affect toward the victim, $r = .13$, $p = .001$; and the victim's perceived level of sexual assertiveness, $r = .25$, $p < .001$. Sexual double standards were also positively correlated with scores on the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form, $r = .39$, $p < .001$; and scores on the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, $r = .44$, $p < .001$.

Endorsement of sexual double standards was negatively correlated with the level of negative affect toward the perpetrator, $r = -.14$, $p < .001$, the level of blame attributed to the perpetrator, $r = -.12$, $p = .002$; participants' perceptions of the victim, $r = -.19$, $p < .001$; the level of sympathy for the victim, $r = -.16$, $p < .001$.

A one-sample t -test evaluating participants' endorsement of sexual double standards (i.e., allowing more sexual freedom for men than for women) against a neutral score of 0 yielded significance, $t(637) = 32.72$, $p < .001$, such that participants generally endorsed views consistent with beliefs in a sexual double standard ($M = 6.29$, $SD = 4.86$).

While this indicates that both men and women were more likely to endorse views consistent with a traditional sexual double standard, on average, men's scores were higher ($M = 7.81$, $SD = 5.68$) than women's scores ($M = 5.46$, $SD = 4.02$) on the Sexual Double Standards Scale (Muehlenhard & Quackenbush, 1998). An independent samples t -test revealed that this was a significant difference, $t(628) = 6.33$, $p < .001$, which represents a medium-sized effect, $d = 0.50$.

An independent samples t -test comparing participants' scores on the Sexual Double Standards Scale (Muehlenhard & Quackenbush, 1998) revealed no significant differences when the victim in the scenario was male ($M = 6.24$, $SD = 4.90$) opposed to female ($M = 6.35$, $SD = 4.82$).

Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form. Rape myth acceptance was positively correlated with level of sympathy for the perpetrator, $r = .45$, $p = .001$; participants' perceptions of the perpetrator, $r = .35$, $p < .001$; the level of blame attributed to the victim, $r = .43$, $p < .001$; the level of perceived consequences on the victim's life, $r = .38$, $p < .001$; negative affect toward the victim, $r = .34$, $p = .001$; and the victim's perceived level of sexual assertiveness, $r = .43$, $p < .001$; and scores on the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, $r = .59$, $p < .001$.

Rape myth acceptance was negatively correlated with the level of negative affect toward the perpetrator, $r = -.24$, $p < .001$, the level of blame attributed to the perpetrator, $r = -.43$, $p < .001$, and participants' perceptions of the victim, $r = -.20$, $p < .001$.

On average, men scored higher ($M = 38.32$, $SD = 18.99$) than women ($M = 27.71$, $SD = 14.47$) on the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form (Payne et al., 1999), meaning men were more likely to believe in rape myths. An independent samples

t-test revealed that this was a significant difference, $t(667) = 8.18, p < .001$, which represents a medium-sized effect, $d = 0.63$.

Ambivalent Sexism Inventory. Scores on the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory were positively correlated with level of sympathy for the perpetrator, $r = .21, p = .001$; participants' perceptions of the perpetrator, $r = .12, p = .002$; the level of blame attributed to the victim, $r = .34, p < .001$; the level of perceived consequences on the victim's life, $r = .22, p < .001$; negative affect toward the victim, $r = .28, p = .001$; and the victim's perceived level of sexual assertiveness, $r = .34, p < .001$.

Scores on the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory were negatively correlated with the level of negative affect toward the perpetrator, $r = -.17, p < .001$, the level of blame attributed to the perpetrator, $r = -.23, p < .001$; participants' perceptions of the victim, $r = -.12, p = .002$, and level of sympathy for the victim, $r = -.23, p = .001$.

Scores on the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 2001) indicate that men scored higher than women on measures of hostile ($M = 2.86, SD = 1.16, M = 2.11, SD = 1.22$, respectively), benevolent ($M = 3.06, SD = 1.10, M = 2.40, SD = 1.23$, respectively), and ambivalent sexism ($M = 4.23, SD = 1.57, M = 3.85, SD = 1.50$, respectively). An independent samples *t*-test revealed a significant difference between men and women's scores for hostile sexism, $t(665) = 7.84, p < .001$, which represents a medium-sized effect, $d = 0.63$. An independent samples *t*-test revealed a significant difference between men and women's scores for benevolent sexism, $t(665) = 7.05, p < .001$, which represents a medium-sized effect, $d = 0.57$. An independent samples *t*-test revealed a significant difference between men and women's scores for ambivalent sexism, $t(665) = 8.35, p < .001$, which represents a small effect, $d = 0.25$.

As predicted, participants' scores on the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory were positively correlated with their scores on the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form, $r = .59, p < .001$; the Sexual Double Standards Scale, $r = .44, p < .001$; Anti-Fat Attitudes Scale, $r = .36, p < .001$. See Table 10 for a complete breakdown of correlations between scales.

Rationale for Decisions.

Participants were asked to describe why they made the decisions that they made. These were split male and female victims and were read for content. When the victim was female, there were 17 statements in which participants made direct reference to placing some blame on the victim. For example, the following statements were considered to have placed blame on the female victim: “Ashley is partially to blame for taking the photo in the first place.” “Ashley is partially culpable in the event because she was willing to have nude photos taken of her and they were not completely in her control, she should have protected the images.” However, there were only nine statements that placed at least some blame on the victim in the instances in which the victim in the scenario was male. These statements included statements such as “Initially taking a nude photograph and sending it to someone, you, the original person should take some of the responsibility. Yes, its [*sic*] a dick move to share to a third party, but if you don't want your nudes out there don't take them in the first place. Ahley [*sic*] violated someones [*sic*] trust more so than the law. The fine should be annoying but not detrimental.” and “I believe that Matthew had a part in this because he sent the photo, so Ashley shouldn't have to go to jail for super long or pay a large fee. However, she did post it without his consent so she should have some consequences.”

Reasons for Engaging in Nonconsensual Pornography

In an open-ended response, participants were asked to “Please identify circumstances (if any) that it is reasonable to distribute a person’s nude image.” A total of 634 participants responded to this question. These responses were coded into 7 categories (see Table 10 for a complete breakdown of frequencies).

Of the 634 responses, 14 responses fit into two or more categories (i.e., a participant provided more than one possible circumstance), and 8 responses were unable to be coded (2 responses included statements about baby photographs [e.g., “A picture of your baby's butt-if that”], 1 response was random letters, 1 was the word “image,” 1 was “pay a fine.”, and 2 responses were unclear). These responses were all coded by the author and by a second rater. Interrater reliability was 100%.

With consent. The most common response to this item was that was acceptable to distribute another’s nude images with the person’s consent ($n = 274$). In order to be coded in this category, the statement must have included some mention of consent. Sample statements under this category include “I don't think there is [*sic*] any circumstances for somebody to distribute a person's nude images other if that person gave consent.” and “I cannot think of an instance where it is reasonable to distribute a nude photo of a person without their express, written consent.”

Never acceptable. The second most common response was that it was never acceptable to do so ($n = 271$). Statements coded in this category were required to reference that it was never acceptable in some way (e.g., “never,” “under no circumstances is it acceptable.”). Sample statements from this category include the following: “I don't think there is a [*sic*] ever a good time to distribute someone's nude

image.” and “I do not believe that there are any circumstances where it is justified to distribute nude photos without someone's consent. I do not even think it is right to do with there [*sic*] consent. It is porn.”

For entertainment/art/money. A number of participants ($n = 49$) stated that it was acceptable to distribute nude photographs for entertainment, art, or money. The majority of statements in this category included reference to the individual working in some capacity in which a nude image might result. For example, several participants mentioned situations in which an individual may work in the pornography industry and/or work as a nude model.

Sample statements that were rated as acceptable to distribute a nude photograph for entertainment included statements such as, “If they give consent to do so for work related needs.”, “If the person was paid for the photos, and signed a consent form as to the usage of the photos, and were not under duress or in a mind altered state when they signed the form.”, “Should never be reasonable [*sic*] unless they're a porn star.”, and “for entertainment.” It is worth noting that the majority of statements within this category made specific reference to consent still being required to distribute the nude photographs ($n = 39$). Additionally, only one participant provided a reason that was purely motivated by money (i.e., “Cash money.”).

Revenge/anger/any. Seventeen statements included a motive of revenge, anger, or for any reason as a circumstance in which it was acceptable to disseminate someone's nude photograph. Examples of statements that were classified as motivated by revenge included “If they did it to you.”, “If my wife or significant other did something really rotten to me - cheating or theft - I would likely consider it.”, “Anger”, “Punishment”, and

“Revenge.” Within this category, there were three responses that mentioned that nude photographs could be distributed for any reason (i.e., “Any”, “Legally if you take it with consent you can do what you want with it.”, and “If you own the photograph, you can do what you want with it. Post away. Just don't be upset when someone thinks you're a douchebag because of it. Whether that is reasonable or not, I'm not certain, I just don't think the courts should be punishing people imply [*sic*] for being assholes...”).

Within this category, there were a number ($n = 5$) of participants that included statements that directly attributed blame to a victim in these situations. Examples of these statements included statements such as “Once that person uploads it to the internet. Its [*sic*] an unspoken understanding that you take the chance of it getting distributed. Don't want it out there? Don't take it.”, “I feel if they are taking pictures nude they understand there may be consequences.”, and “...If the person in the photo knew that she was being photographed (if it wasn't taken by a hidden camnera [*sic*], or without his/her knowledge) then in my opinion you can't complain when your image ends up on the internet.”

Medical/research/educational purposes. Fifteen participants provided reasons that were categorized as being acceptable to disseminate nude photographs for medical, research, or educational purposes. These statements included specific reference to medical purposes, educational, and/or research purposes. For example, the statements “Possibly for research...”, “medical issues?”, “with consent for educational purposes or for the media.”, and “If you have a rash or a medical condition where if examined by the right person it may save your life.” were considered to fall into this category.

Legal reasons. There were 14 statements that included legal reasons as circumstances that it might be acceptable. Legal reasons for distributing a nude photograph included statements such as “to legally identify someone. Like in an autopsy.”, “if the person went missing and its [*sic*] the ONLY image available of the person.”, and “only is [*sic*] ordered by the police or a government body would I distribute.”

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

The increasing access to and development of technology often creates a new set of unforeseen consequences. Due to the increased likelihood that smartphone users will engage in sexting practices (Lenhart & Duggan, 2014), coupled with the fact that people believe images they send will remain private (Zemmels & Khey, 2014), it is likely that the prevalence of nonconsensual pornography will only increase. Thus, it is important to understand perceptions regarding these types of cases, as well as perceptions of the individuals involved.

If victims of nonconsensual pornography are viewed negatively, it may hinder support they receive from others, and even possibly influence legal ramifications for the perpetrator. Because nonconsensual pornography is a relatively recent phenomenon, understanding people's perceptions of victim and perpetrator culpability is essential. Additionally, it is important to understand if extra-legal factors, such as victim or perpetrator gender or the victim's weight, alter perceptions of guilt and/or recommended legal consequences. If these extra-legal factors, which should theoretically be irrelevant, influence victim or perpetrator culpability, it may result in some perpetrators receiving lesser punishments for their crimes (e.g., serve less jail time or ordered to pay a smaller fine) and other perpetrators receiving increased punishments for their crimes.

Understanding factors that contribute to increased victim-blaming may be beneficial for researchers, victims, and those who work with victims. For example, potential employers who work with victims may wish to screen potential employees prior to hiring in order to rule out applicants who may be biased or to target current employees for educational programming. Likewise, attorneys may ask potential jurors to complete questionnaires to identify jurors who might exhibit high levels of victim blaming. This study aimed to examine some of these extra-legal factors in order to better understand perceptions of these types of cases as it is important to attempt to reduce bias within the criminal justice system.

Victim Gender

The first objective of this study considered the influence victim gender had on perceptions of victim and perpetrator blame. Contrary to predictions based on sexual double standards, victim gender did not have a significant impact on victim blame. This finding differs from previous research by Rhyner and colleagues (2017) that found a significant difference in the level of blame attributed to a male and female victim in a case of nonconsensual pornography. However, Rhyner and colleagues utilized a vignette presented in a blog style, as opposed to a mock police report in the current study. It may be the case that a first-hand account of the scenario heavily influenced participants' ratings. The current study instead presented the case in the style of a mock police report, which may have reduced the biased first-hand account of information due to the more objective presentation of information. In addition, the police report utilized in the current study stated that charges were being brought forth against the perpetrator, which may have served to reduce the level of blame attributed to the victim, regardless of condition.

It is noteworthy that when provided the opportunity to give an open-ended response about the circumstances under which it might be acceptable to distribute someone's nude photograph, 14 participants' statements included language that either directly (e.g., "...Don't want it out there? Don't take it.") or indirectly (e.g., "If my wife or significant other did something really rotten to me - cheating or theft - I would likely consider it.") blamed a victim. This finding is noteworthy because these participants attributed blame to a victim, even when they were only asked about the circumstances in which it would be reasonable to distribute a nude photograph. When participants were asked to describe their rationale for why they made the decisions that they did, 17 participants directly placed some blame on the female victim (e.g., "Ashley is partially to blame for taking the photo in the first place." "Ashley is partially culpable in the event because she was willing to have nude photos taken of her and they were not completely in her control, she should have protected the images."), while only nine participants directly placed some blame on the male victim (e.g., "Initially taking a nude photograph and sending it to someone, you, the original person should take some of the responsibility. Yes, its [*sic*] a dick move to share to a third party, but if you don't want your nudes out there don't take them in the first place. Ahley [*sic*] violated someones [*sic*] trust more so than the law. The fine should be annoying but not detrimental."). Taken together, these qualitative findings suggest that even though they did not disseminate their own photographs, victims may still be seen as at least partially culpable for their victimization in cases of nonconsensual pornography. It would be worthwhile for future research to evaluate whether these individual attitudes were to continue to hold true in the case of a jury.

Participants were more likely to rate the situation as believable when the victim was a woman. This is not surprising given that the majority of previous research related to nonconsensual pornography has found that the majority of nonconsensual pornography victims are women (Cyber Civil Rights Initiative, 2014; Franks, 2011; Powell, 2010; Uhl et al., 2017). In addition, participants may have been aware of recent nonconsensual pornography cases involving numerous female celebrities (see Clare, 2015; McCoy, 2014), which may have resulted in them being more likely to rate the situation as believable when the victim was a woman. Likewise, participants were more than twice as likely to fail the gender manipulation when the victim was described as a male. Taken together, these findings suggest that participants may consider nonconsensual pornography to be something that is more likely to happen to women, and therefore more believable when the victim was female. Future research should continue to explore this possibility.

Victim gender was particularly influential as a function of the victim's responsibility for creating the photograph. Results indicated that participants perceived the scenario to be more serious when the female victim took the photograph of herself, compared to when the male victim took the photograph himself. Furthermore, participants rated both a male and female victim as more sexually assertive when they took nude photographs of themselves, as opposed to when their former ex-partners took the photograph. It is not surprising that a victim was viewed as being more sexually assertive when the victim took the nude photograph him or herself. By taking the photograph, the victim clearly takes a more active role in the photograph's origination, as opposed to taking a more passive role when the perpetrator originally took the

photograph. Taken together, these results suggest that participants may have perceived the situation to be more serious when a female victim took a nude photograph of herself, as opposed to when a male victim took a nude photograph of himself, because it may have been perceived as a greater violation of appropriate behavior for a female victim.

This is in line with the theory of sexual double standards (Crawford & Popp, 2003; Muehlenhard & McCoy, 1991). Sexual double standards propose that men are afforded a greater level of sexual freedom than women (Conley et al., 2011; Crawford & Popp, 2003; Jonason, 2007; Jonason & Fisher, 2009; Muehlenhard & McCoy, 1991). This theory holds that women are subject to greater judgment when they violate this norm (Bordini & Sperb, 2013). Thus, participants may have viewed the situation as more serious when the female victim took her own nude photograph because it was perceived as a greater violation of appropriate sexual behavior for a woman.

Interestingly, participants were more likely to place blame on a female victim when her former boyfriend originally took the photograph, compared to a male victim whose former girlfriend took the nude photograph. Perhaps participants placed a greater level of blame on the female victim in this instance because they perceived her as “asking for it” by allowing her former boyfriend to take a nude photograph of her. This idea is supported by the fact that participants’ scores on the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale-Short Form were a significant predictor of victim blame. Participants’ scores on this scale were positively correlated with victim blame, meaning that as participants’ endorsement of rape myths increased, the level of blame they assigned toward the victim also increased.

It was predicted that female perpetrators would be attributed more blame than their male counterparts. This was only partially confirmed via an interaction with victim responsibility. Results of the current study indicate that participants attributed more blame to a female perpetrator who disseminated a nude photograph of a male victim when this photograph was taken by the perpetrator herself, rather than when she posted a nude photograph originally taken by the male victim. It could be that participants attributed more blame to the female perpetrator when she took the photograph because the perpetrator was seen as more directly contributing to the male victim's harm, as opposed to when the victim took the photograph.

Understanding participants' perceptions of blame are especially informative when considering their recommendations for holding perpetrators criminally responsible for their actions. Furthermore, these perceptions likely have a strong influence on specific sanctions that participants deem as an appropriate punishment for such actions. While the vast majority of participants (90.61%) agreed that the perpetrator should face criminal charges, for his or her actions, victim gender played an important role in determining the recommended sanction. Participants were 1.36 times more likely to recommend jail time when the victim was female (and the perpetrator was male) but were 2.25 times more likely to recommend the perpetrator pay a monetary fine when the victim was male (and the perpetrator was female).

This finding might be explained by the theory of ambivalent sexism (Glick & Fiske, 1996, 2001). Participants felt a greater need to punish a perpetrator with jail time for distributing a nude photograph of a female victim. It may be the case that benevolent sexism was working to motivate participants to want to protect a female victim from her

perpetrator. Alternatively, hostile sexism may have motivated participants to be more likely to recommend a female perpetrator be required to pay a monetary fine. Future research should consider a more in depth analysis of how victim gender influences sentencing recommendations.

Victim Weight

The second objective of the current study was to systematically test the influence the victim's weight had on participants' perceptions of victim blame, perpetrator blame, and participants' emotional response toward the victim and perpetrator, as well as perpetrator criminal responsibility, in a case of nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs. Due to contradictory findings in the literature, no directional relationship was predicted for the impact victim weight would have on victim blame. The results of this study found that men attributed more blame to a thin and obese victim than women did. However, this effect did not hold true when the victim was an average weight.

Predictably, participants rated a victim of average weight more attractive than both a thin (with a BMI that placed the victim in the underweight category) and obese (with a BMI of 30) victim. Further, a thin victim was rated more attractive than an obese victim. Participants were also more likely to agree that police should be helpful in these types of cases when the victim was an average weight, as opposed to obese. A significant interaction between victim weight and victim gender indicated that participants were more likely to recommend police be helpful in nonconsensual pornography cases when a female victim is of a normal weight, as opposed to when the victim is a thin woman.

Taken together, these findings are consistent with findings from Swami and colleagues (2010) who found that participants demonstrated a bias against both obese and

emaciated women, and instead favored a woman of an average weight, when making hypothetical occupational, adoption, and helping decisions. Participants in the current study suggest that a victim who was reported to be of an average weight was perceived to be most attractive. It is interesting to note that the current study found similar results in that participants were less likely to agree that police officers should be supportive of nonconsensual pornography victims when the victim was described as obese, despite the lack of an accompanying image in the current study.

In the current study, women perceived the thin victim to be more attractive when the perpetrator took the nude photograph. It is possible that this is because participants may have believed the perpetrator may have wanted to have the image because he or she perceived the victim to be attractive. Interestingly, compared to women, men rated the obese victim as less attractive when the victim took the photograph. In addition, men scored lower on the Beliefs Against Obese Persons Scale (Allison et al., 1991), which suggests that men in this sample are more likely to agree that obesity is under personal control. Together, these findings suggest that men place a greater emphasis on the controllability of a situation. Men perceived the obese victim to be less attractive when the victim took the photograph, meaning the victim had more responsibility for creating the image. Alternatively, by perceiving the victim to be more attractive when the perpetrator took the photograph (and therefore the victim has less responsibility for the creation of the image), men may have placed greater weight on the controllability of the situation. More specifically, men may have believed obese individuals lack personal control, which, when combined with taking and sending a nude photograph, demonstrated an additional lack of control. Vartanian (2010) found that while personal

control and disgust were positively correlated with one another, they were negatively correlated with favorability ratings. Previous research has found that disgust is a strong predictor of attitudes toward obese individuals (Vartanian, 2010). Thus, perhaps men in the current study believed the obese victim less attractive because they were more disgusted that an obese individual would take a nude photograph of him or herself. Future research should consider examining the role of disgust in cases of nonconsensual pornography, especially if considering victim weight as a possible extra-legal factor.

It was predicted that there would be a main effect for victim weight such that perpetrators would be attributed more blame and would be viewed more negatively when the victim is overweight, in accordance with findings from Clarke and Stermac (2010). However, this hypothesis was not confirmed. Instead, results of the current study indicate that participants attributed more blame to the perpetrator when the victim was average weight, rather than thin. It is conceivable that since a victim was perceived as most attractive when the victim was of average weight, participants attributed more blame to a perpetrator that caused harm to an attractive victim. Previous research has found differences in the level of blame attributed to perpetrators due to victim attractiveness. For example, one study found that participants recommended the perpetrator face a harsher sentence when the victim was depicted as attractive, as opposed to unattractive (Erian, Lin, Patel, Neal, & Geiselman, 1998). Similarly, a study using a hypothetical case of child sexual abuse found that the perpetrator was attributed more blame when the victim was perceived as attractive, compared to unattractive (Rogers, Josey, & Davies, 2007). Other research has found that when a female victim is physically attractive, the victim is perceived as less responsible for her rape and evidence against the

defendant is perceived to be stronger (Vrij & Firmin, 2001). Future research should continue to explore how victim attractiveness, specifically victim weight, influences both victim and perpetrator blame.

Victim Responsibility

It was hypothesized that a victim who initially took the nude photograph would be attributed more blame than a victim who simply allowed the photo to be taken. This hypothesis was confirmed. It is conceivable that participants may have perceived a victim who took the nude photograph as playing a more direct role in his or her victimization. This notion is supported by the fact that participants also believed a victim to be more sexually assertive and reported more negative affect toward the victim when the victim took the photograph. In addition, participants also reported a greater level of sympathy for the victim when the perpetrator took the photograph. It is possible that an increase in negative affect toward the victim could impede feelings of sympathy toward the victim. These results support the idea that participants may have endorsed the notion that a victim who took the photograph contributed to his or her own victimization.

Together, these results lend support for Weiner's (1980) attribution-affect-action theory. This theory suggests that attributions result in positive or negative affect toward another individual. In turn, these positive or negative emotions work to increase or decrease the likelihood of helping behavior. In the current study, participants attributed more blame to a victim who took the photograph him or herself. This resulted in an increase in negative affect directed toward the victim. Additionally, there was a negative correlation between negative affect toward the victim and sympathy for the victim. Thus, it is not surprising, given Weiner's (1980) theory, that participants in the current study

were more likely to recommend that police be supportive to victims in cases of nonconsensual pornography when the photograph was taken by the perpetrator. Future research may not only wish to continue to consider how sympathy for the victim influences perceptions of nonconsensual pornography, but may also wish to consider the role that empathy has played, as previous research has found that empathy induction has also had an impact on blame (e.g., Haegerich & Bottoms, 2000; Plumm & Terrance, 2009).

Participants were more likely to agree that having a nude photograph disseminated online would have a negative impact on the victim's life when a female victim took her own nude photograph than when a male victim took his own photograph. This may be explained by sexual double standards, which suggest that women are punished to a greater extent for acting sexually compared to their male counterparts (Bordini & Sperb, 2013). This notion is supported by previous research that has found that adolescent girls are often slut shamed for sending nude images (Ringrose et al., 2012; Ringrose et al., 2013). By taking a more active role in creating the image, it might violate the traditional heterosexual sexual script (Sanchez et al., 2012). It is feasible that participants believed that a female victim who took her own photograph exhibited a greater level of sexual agency and would be punished more for her actions, thus causing a greater negative impact on her life, compared to the male victim.

Participants in the current study reported more negative affect toward the perpetrator when he or she originally took the nude photograph that was distributed online. Not surprisingly, participants also blamed the perpetrator more and were more likely to agree that the perpetrator should be held criminally responsible when the nude

photograph was taken by the perpetrator. In fact, the odds of participants recommending jail or prison time for the perpetrator were 1.84 times higher if the victim's nude photograph was taken by the perpetrator. These results suggest that perpetrators who distribute nude photographs taken by themselves are more likely to be charged in these cases. Likewise, it is possible that they may face harsher penalties for violating nonconsensual pornography laws.

Observer Effects

There were several notable differences with regard to observer gender within the current study. First of all, women viewed the situation as more believable and more serious. This result is unsurprising given that previous research has found that women perceive victimization to be more serious than do men (Pollard, 1992; Yamawaki, Ostenson, & Brown, 2009). Previous research has also found that women perceive a greater variety of behaviors to constitute sexual harassment (e.g., Ekore, 2012). Furthermore, women are more likely to be victims of nonconsensual pornography (e.g., Uhl et al., 2017); thus, it may be the case that women are more likely to perceive the situation as believable and severe because they are at an increased risk of being a victim of nonconsensual pornography. This finding may mean that women have more knowledge of these types of crimes. Likewise, women were also more likely to agree that having the nude photograph disseminated online would have a negative impact on the victim's life. Perhaps the women in this sample were more aware of the various consequences that may result from being a victim of nonconsensual pornography. Future research may wish to consider participants' knowledge of nonconsensual pornography, including the various consequences that may result from this victimization.

The results of this study found that, compared to men, women reported higher levels of sympathy for the victim and lower levels of sympathy toward the perpetrator. Previous research has found that women are more likely to be empathetic (Haegerich & Bottoms, 2000; Plumm & Terrance, 2009; Schult & Schneider, 1991) and sympathetic (Golding, Lynch, & Wasarhaley, 2016) toward victims. Women may be more empathetic and sympathetic toward victims because they are more likely to be victims of a sexual crime. It may be the case that the women in this study perceived the victim as someone with whom they could identify. Previous research has found that those who are more empathetic toward an individual, will attribute less blame to that individual (Sulzer & Burglass, 1968). The results of the current study lend support to this notion.

It was anticipated that there would be a main effect for observer gender such that men would exhibit higher levels of victim blaming, as compared to women. In addition, it was predicted that women would attribute greater levels of perpetrator blame than would men, which would correspond with women assigning a greater criminal responsibility toward perpetrators. The results of this study supported these hypotheses. Consistent with previous literature, women in the current study assigned more blame to perpetrators than did men (Deitz et al., 1984; Jackson, 1991; Kleinke & Meyer, 1990) and less blame toward victims (Clarke & Sterma, 2010; Deitz et al., 1984; Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al., 2004; Ryckman et al., 1998; Vrij & Firmin, 2001). It is possible that men attributed more blame to the victim and less blame to the perpetrator than women did because women are more likely to be victims of nonconsensual pornography (Cyber Civil Rights Initiative, 2014; Franks, 2011; Uhl et al., 2017; Powell, 2010); thus, they may be less likely to identify with the victim.

Because women attributed less blame to the victim and more blame to the perpetrator, it is unsurprising that women were more likely than men to agree that police should be helpful in cases of nonconsensual pornography. Women were also more likely to recommend the perpetrator face criminal charges. In fact, women were 2.29 times more likely to agree that the perpetrator should face criminal charges and 1.43 times more likely to recommend the perpetrator face jail or prison time than men were. These findings support previous research that has found that women are more likely to hold the perpetrator responsible and vote for perpetrator conviction than men (Schutte & Hosch, 1997).

While both men and women in the current sample endorsed views consistent with sexual double standards, men scored significantly higher on the Sexual Double Standard Scale (Muehlenhard & Quackenbush, 1998) than women did. Simply stated, men more strongly supported a sexual double standard than did women. This is consistent with previous research by Sakaluk and Milhausen (2012). As was the case in previous research, men were more likely to endorse views consistent with rape myth acceptance (Clarke & Stermac, 2010; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Newcombe et al., 2008; Payne et al., 1999; Vrij & Firmin, 2001), ambivalent sexism (Wiener, Hurt, Russell, Mannen, & Gasper, 1997), and anti-fat attitudes (Clarke & Stermac, 2010; Morrison & O'Conner, 1999). Consistent with previous research by Clarke and Stermac (2010), men in the current study reported a greater level of anti-fat attitudes and more negative affect toward an obese victim.

It was predicted that participants' scores on the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glicke & Fiske, 2001) would be positively correlated with scores on the Illinois Rape

Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form (Payne et al., 1999), Sexual Double Standards Scale (Muehlenhard & Quackenbush, 1998), and scores on the Anti-Fat Attitudes Questionnaire (Crandall, 1994). This hypothesis was confirmed and is consistent with previous research that has found anti-fat attitudes were associated with a greater endorsement of rape myth acceptance (Clarke & Lawson, 2009; Clarke & Stermac, 2010). It was also predicted that a greater level of agreement with rape myth acceptance, a greater endorsement of anti-fat attitudes, and a higher level of support for sexual double standards would be related to higher levels of victim blaming, lower levels of assigned blame toward perpetrators, and less positive feelings toward the victim. These hypotheses were only partially supported. While rape myth acceptance, anti-fat attitudes, and sexual double standards each had significant zero-order correlations with victim blame, negative affect toward the victim, and perpetrator blame, only participants' scores on the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form had significant effects in each of the full regression models.

In the regression model, participants' scores on the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory and the Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form were significant predictors to explain the variance in victim blame. Previous research has found that men are more likely to hold beliefs that are consistent with rape myths (Clarke & Stermac, 2010; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Payne et al., 1999). Furthermore, research has demonstrated that people who endorse views consistent with rape myths are more likely to blame the victim (Frese et al., 2004; Vrij & Firmin, 2001). Thus, the hypothesis that predicted that greater levels of agreement with rape myth acceptance would be related to higher levels of victim blaming was confirmed.

Despite previous research that has found that both rape myth acceptance (Clarke & Lawson, 2009; Clarke & Stermac, 2010; Frese et al., 2004; Vrij & Firmin, 2001) and anti-fat attitudes (Clarke & Lawson, 2009; Clarke & Stermac, 2010) are correlated with an increase in victim blaming, only rape myth acceptance was a significant predictor in the regression model predicting victim blame in the current study. Previous research has found that rape myth acceptance is associated with other forms of prejudice, such as sexism, homophobia, racism, classism (Aosved & Long, 2006). As such, attorneys may wish to utilize a rape myth acceptance scale during the *voir dire* process in order to identify potential jurors who may exhibit higher levels of victim blaming as an increase in victim blaming may result in shifting some responsibility from the perpetrator and result in a decrease in criminal responsibility or in a reduced sentence. Future research may wish to continue to evaluate the role that rape myth acceptance may play in victim and perpetrator blame, especially in crimes of a sexual nature. Perhaps anti-fat attitudes may have been a significant predictor in the regression models if the manipulation of victim weight had been more salient (e.g., had a picture accompanied the mock police report). It would be worthwhile for future research to examine this possibility.

Limitations

As with any research, the current study is not without its limitations. One potential limitation of this study may be that the manipulation of the victim's weight may not have been sufficiently salient. A number of participants failed the manipulation check regarding the victim's weight. Future research may consider making this manipulation more salient by utilizing images that accompany a vignette. Another potential limitation relates to differences in beauty standards across cultures and

ethnicities (see Padgett & Biro, 2003; Schwartz & Brownell, 2004). Although ethnicity information was collected in the demographic questionnaire, there were not a significant number of participants from different ethnic groups that participated in the current study to consider these differences. Future research should consider evaluating whether or not these group differences exist, as well as to achieve greater external validity.

While it may have been worthwhile to compare those who have been victims of nonconsensual pornography and those who have not, due to the small number of participants reporting victimization, statistical analyses comparing victims and non-victims is inappropriate due to a lack of statistical power. Future research may wish to compare those who have had their explicit images shared online and those who have not in order to explore the influence previous victimization has on perceptions of nonconsensual pornography.

All relationships in the different vignettes in this study depicted a scenario featuring the breakup of a heteronormative relationship to eliminate confounds with what might be perceived to be a nonheteronormative relationship. A sexual minority victim may face additional bias from those who should offer some type of support (e.g., friends, family, police officers). In addition, a sexual minority victim might face more negative consequences, particularly if the victim's sexual orientation has not previously been disclosed. Thus, future research should examine situations of nonconsensual sharing of nude photographs considering nonheteronormative relationships.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSION

Even amidst these limitations, these results are still of value. This research is the first to examine perceptions of how victim weight may impact the level of culpability victims are assigned following the nonconsensual dissemination of their nude photographs. In addition, this study included a male and female victim, which addresses a gap in the literature on weight bias since a common criticism is that the majority of this research utilizes female targets (Graziano, Bruce, Sheese, & Tobin, 2007). The current study has theoretical, conceptual, and practical implications for victims, researchers, attorneys, and those who might serve as a support system to a victim of nonconsensual pornography. For example, because women attribute a greater level of perpetrator responsibility, this may translate to differences in recommended criminal responsibility, which has implications for juries. In addition, it is promising that when asked under what circumstances it would be acceptable to distribute another's nude photograph, the majority of participants responded that it was either never acceptable or that it was only acceptable if the person gave consent.

Overall, in this particular study, participants generally agreed that the situation presented to them was believable, serious, and would have a negative impact on the victim's life. This aids in the generalizability and validity of this study. In general, participants placed little blame on the victim and a high level of blame toward the perpetrator. However, despite the majority of participants agreeing that the perpetrator should face criminal charges, participants' perceptions of the proper level of punishment

for this behavior were less clear. While most participants believed the perpetrator should be required to pay some monetary fine for the dissemination of the explicit photographs, participants were relatively split regarding their recommendation that the perpetrator serve jail/prison time. In fact, nearly half of participants recommended jail/prison time while the other half indicated the perpetrator should not face jail/prison time. Despite the fact that the statute provided to participants does not consider extra-legal factors, such as victim gender or how the photograph originated, these factors influenced participants' perceptions and decisions in this hypothetical case. Future research should continue to explore how minor manipulations of extra-legal factors can influence perceptions of nonconsensual pornography cases.

APPENDICES

Appendix A
Informed Consent—Sona Version (online)

TITLE: Juror Perceptions of a Criminal Case
PROJECT DIRECTOR: Carolyn Uhl
PHONE #: 777-3921
DEPARTMENT: Psychology

A person who is to participate in the research must give his or her informed consent to such participation. This consent must be based on an understanding of the nature and risks of the research. This document provides information that is important for this understanding. Research projects include only subjects who choose to take part. Please take your time in making your decision as to whether to participate. If you have questions at any time, please ask.

Approximately 600 people, students from the University of North Dakota, and various parts of the country will take part in this online study at UND. If you join this study, you will be asked to read a police report and respond to various questions regarding your perceptions of this case. The purpose of this research is to examine how people make judgments in these types of cases.

Your participation in the study will last approximately 30-45 minutes. You may experience frustration that is often experienced when completing surveys. The scenario you are reading, and some of the questions may be of a sensitive nature, and you may therefore become upset as a result. However, such risks are not viewed as being in excess of “minimal risk.” If, however, you become upset by questions, you may stop at any time or choose not to answer a question. If you would like to talk to someone about your feelings about this study, the UND Counseling Center provides services to UND students and for those that live on campus. You may contact them at 701-777-2127. The Counseling Department also operates a clinic that is available to the Grand Forks community, and can also provide referrals. The Counseling Department can be reached at 701-777-3745.

You may not benefit personally from being in this study. However, we hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study because results will provide a better understanding on how people evaluate issues that may occur in relationships.

If you are a student at UND, you may receive extra credit for your time for the psychology course of your choice in which you are currently enrolled. For participants who are from UND, and participating in this study for extra credit, if you choose not to participate in this study you may earn extra credit in your course in other ways. Please ask your instructor, who will provide you with comparable assignments that you may choose to complete (e.g. writing assignments, participation in other research experiments etc.).

You will not have any costs for being in this research study, nor will you receive monetary compensation. University of North Dakota and the research team are receiving no payments from other agencies, organizations, or companies to conduct this research study.

The records of this study will be kept private to the extent permitted by law. In any report about this study that might be published, you will not be identified. Study results will be presented in a summarized manner so that you cannot be identified. Your study record may be reviewed by government agencies, and the University of North Dakota Institutional Review Board. The only other people who will have access to the data are the research investigators (Dr. Cheryl Terrance, Carolyn Uhl) conducting the study.

No identifying information about participants will be reported or kept. Confidentiality will be maintained by storing your responses in a password protected file. Your name is not being collected. Data will be stored on a password protected computer in the Social Psychology Research Lab. Data will be stored for a minimum of three years, after which it will be deleted.

Your participation is voluntary. You may choose not to participate or you may discontinue your participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with the University of North Dakota.

The researcher conducting this study is Carolyn Uhl. If you have questions, concerns, or complaints about the research please contact the research advisor, Cheryl Terrance at 777-3921 during the day. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, or if you have any concerns or complaints about the research, you may contact the University of North Dakota Institutional Review Board at (701) 777-4279. Please call this number if you cannot reach research staff, or you wish to talk with someone else.

If you click continue, this will indicate that this research study has been explained to you, that questions have been answered, and that you agree to take part in this study.

Appendix A
Informed Consent—Sona Version (In-lab)

TITLE: Juror Perceptions of a Criminal Case
PROJECT DIRECTOR: Carolyn Uhl
PHONE #: 777-3921
DEPARTMENT: Psychology

A person who is to participate in the research must give his or her informed consent to such participation. This consent must be based on an understanding of the nature and risks of the research. This document provides information that is important for this understanding. Research projects include only subjects who choose to take part. Please take your time in making your decision as to whether to participate. If you have questions at any time, please ask.

Approximately 600 people, students from the University of North Dakota, and various parts of the country will take part in this online study at UND. If you join this study, you will be asked to read a police report and respond to various questions regarding your perceptions of this case. The purpose of this research is to examine how people make judgments in these types of cases.

Your participation in the study will last approximately 30-45 minutes. You may experience frustration that is often experienced when completing surveys. The scenario you are reading, and some of the questions may be of a sensitive nature, and you may therefore become upset as a result. However, such risks are not viewed as being in excess of “minimal risk.” If, however, you become upset by questions, you may stop at any time or choose not to answer a question. If you would like to talk to someone about your feelings about this study, the UND Counseling Center provides services to UND students and for those that live on campus. You may contact them at 701-777-2127. The Counseling Department also operates a clinic that is available to the Grand Forks community, and can also provide referrals. The Counseling Department can be reached at 701-777-3745.

You may not benefit personally from being in this study. However, we hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study because results will provide a better understanding on how people evaluate issues that may occur in relationships.

If you are a student at UND, you may receive extra credit for your time for the psychology course of your choice in which you are currently enrolled. For participants

Subject’s Initials: _____

Date: _____

who are from UND, and participating in this study for extra credit, if you choose not to participate in this study you may earn extra credit in your course in other ways. Please ask your instructor, who will provide you with comparable assignments that you may choose to complete (e.g. writing assignments, participation in other research experiments etc.).

You will not have any costs for being in this research study, nor will you receive monetary compensation. University of North Dakota and the research team are receiving no payments from other agencies, organizations, or companies to conduct this research study.

The records of this study will be kept private to the extent permitted by law. In any report about this study that might be published, you will not be identified. Study results will be presented in a summarized manner so that you cannot be identified. Your study record may be reviewed by government agencies, and the University of North Dakota Institutional Review Board. The only other people who will have access to the data are the research investigators (Dr. Cheryl Terrance, Carolyn Uhl) conducting the study.

No identifying information about participants will be reported or kept. Confidentiality will be maintained by storing your responses in a password protected file. Your name is not being collected. Data will be stored in a locked file cabinet, separate for consent forms. Data will be stored for a minimum of three years, after which it will be shredded and deleted.

Your participation is voluntary. You may choose not to participate or you may discontinue your participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with the University of North Dakota.

The researcher conducting this study is Carolyn Uhl. If you have questions, concerns, or complaints about the research please contact the research advisor, Cheryl Terrance at 777-3921 during the day. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, or if you have any concerns or complaints about the research, you may contact the University of North Dakota Institutional Review Board at (701) 777-4279. Please call this number if you cannot reach research staff, or you wish to talk with someone else.

Your signature indicates that this research study has been explained to you, that your questions have been answered, and that you agree to take part in this study. You will receive a copy of this form.

Subject's Initials: _____

Date: _____

Signature of Participant

Date

I have discussed the above points with the participant.

Signature of Person Who Obtained Consent

Date

Subject's Initials: _____

Date: _____

Appendix A
Informed Consent—MTurk Version

TITLE: Juror Perceptions of a Criminal Case
PROJECT DIRECTOR: Carolyn Uhl
PHONE #: 777-3921
DEPARTMENT: Psychology

A person who is to participate in the research must give his or her informed consent to such participation. This consent must be based on an understanding of the nature and risks of the research. This document provides information that is important for this understanding. Research projects include only subjects who choose to take part. Please take your time in making your decision as to whether to participate. If you have questions at any time, please ask.

Approximately 600 people, students from the University of North Dakota, and various parts of the country will take part in this online study at UND. If you join this study, you will be asked to read a police report and respond to various questions regarding your perceptions of this case. The purpose of this research is to examine how people make judgments in these types of cases.

Your participation in the study will last approximately 30-45 minutes. You may experience frustration that is often experienced when completing surveys. The scenario you are reading, and some of the questions may be of a sensitive nature, and you may therefore become upset as a result. However, such risks are not viewed as being in excess of “minimal risk.” If, however, you become upset by questions, you may stop at any time or choose not to answer a question. If you would like to talk to someone about your feelings about this study, the UND Counseling Center provides services to UND students and for those that live on campus. You may contact them at 701-777-2127. The Counseling Department also operates a clinic that is available to the Grand Forks community, and can also provide referrals. The Counseling Department can be reached at 701-777-3745.

You may not benefit personally from being in this study. However, we hope that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study because results will provide a better understanding on how people evaluate issues that may occur in relationships.

You will not have any costs for being in this research study. You will be paid \$.50 as compensation for your participation in the study. University of North Dakota and the research team are receiving no payments from other agencies, organizations, or companies to conduct this research study.

The records of this study will be kept private to the extent permitted by law. In any report about this study that might be published, you will not be identified. Study results will be presented in a summarized manner so that you cannot be identified. Your study record may be reviewed by government agencies, and the University of North Dakota Institutional Review Board. The only other people who will have access to the data are the research investigators (Dr. Cheryl Terrance, Carolyn Uhl) conducting the study.

No identifying information about participants will be reported or kept. Confidentiality will be maintained by storing your responses in a password protected file. Your name is not being collected. Data will be stored on a password protected computer in the Social Psychology Research Lab. Data will be stored for a minimum of three years, after which it will be deleted.

Your participation is voluntary. You may choose not to participate or you may discontinue your participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with the University of North Dakota.

The researcher conducting this study is Carolyn Uhl. If you have questions, concerns, or complaints about the research please contact the research advisor, Cheryl Terrance at 777-3921 during the day. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, or if you have any concerns or complaints about the research, you may contact the University of North Dakota Institutional Review Board at (701) 777-4279. Please call this number if you cannot reach research staff, or you wish to talk with someone else.

If you click continue, this will indicate that this research study has been explained to you, that questions have been answered, and that you agree to take part in this study.

Appendix B
Revenge Porn Vignette—Female Victim

Please imagine that you have been selected to be a juror in a trial involving a case in which a former romantic partner shared a nude photo without consent.

Presented below is a copy of the police report filed by the complainant. Please read this information carefully and take a few moments to consider the facts of the case. When you are ready, please answer the questions that follow.

On November 17, 2014, at approximately 12:42 pm, the following complaint was filed with the Manderfield Police Department by Ashley Lynn Phillips. Ashley Phillips is described as a 20-year-old female, approximately 5'4" and 100/125/175 pounds. She has a *thin/average/overweight* build, brown hair, and brown eyes. She is a university student and lives in an apartment in downtown Manderfield with a friend. Ms. Phillips reported that while they were dating, she took a nude photograph of herself and sent it to Mr. Johnson (her then boyfriend took a nude photograph of her). She reports that after the breakup, he distributed the photo online, without consent.

At approximately 8:30 pm on the evening of November 16, 2014, Ashley Phillips received an email from a stranger, followed by several more emails from strangers. Ashley states the emails from strangers include propositions for sex, sexual and derogatory comments about her body, as well as threats of assault. Ashley states that a friend of hers also saw a photo of Ashley that was used to create a fake Facebook profile. Ashley states that she has been contacted at work, gotten messages from people who have threatened to show up at her classes, and been soliciting sexual favors.

Ms. Phillips states that she has contacted the website administrator and tried to have the photo removed, but the person in charge of the site is refusing. She also states that she contacted her ex-boyfriend, Matthew Johnson, who she believes distributed the photo, to remove the photo.

After giving a statement, Ashley Phillips provided detectives with the contact information for Matthew Johnson. Mr. Johnson was brought in for questioning and he stated that the photo belonged to him because she sent it to him/he took the photo himself (he sent it to her/she took the photo herself). After reviewing the evidence, a charge of distributing explicit photos without consent was brought against him.

Appendix B
Revenge Porn Vignette—Male Victim

Please imagine that you have been selected to be a juror in a trial involving a case in which a former romantic partner shared a nude photo without consent.

Presented below is a copy of the police report filed by the complainant. Please read this information carefully and take a few moments to consider the facts of the case. When you are ready, please answer the questions that follow.

On November 17, 2014, at approximately 12:42 pm, the following complaint was filed with the Manderfield Police Department by Matthew David Johnson. Matthew Johnson is described as a 20-year-old male, approximately 5'9" and 120/150/205 pounds. He has a *thin/average/overweight* build, brown hair, and brown eyes. He is a university student and lives in an apartment in downtown Manderfield with a friend. Mr. Johnson reported that while they were dating, he took a nude photograph of himself and sent it to Ms. Phillips (his then girlfriend took a nude photograph of him). He reports that after the breakup, she distributed the photo online, without consent.

At approximately 8:30 pm on the evening of November 16, 2014, Matthew Johnson received an email from a stranger, followed by several more emails from strangers. Ashley states the emails from strangers include propositions for sex, sexual and derogatory comments about his body, as well as threats of assault. Matthew states that a friend of his also saw a photo of Matthew that was used to create a fake Facebook profile. Matthew states that he has been contacted at work, gotten messages from people who have threatened to show up at his classes, and been soliciting sexual favors.

Mr. Johnson states that he has contacted the website administrator and tried to have the photo removed, but the person in charge of the site is refusing. He also states that he contacted his (ex-girlfriend, Ashley Phillips, who he believes distributed the photo, to remove the photo.

After giving a statement, Matthew Johnson provided detectives with the contact information for Ashley Phillips. Ms. Phillips was brought in for questioning and she stated that the photo belonged to her because he sent it to her/she took the photo herself. After reviewing the evidence, a charge of distributing explicit photos without consent was brought against her.

Matthew/Ashley is responsible for what happened because he/she acted carelessly.

Completely Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely agree

Matthew/Ashley is responsible for the nude photo being distributed.

Completely Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely agree

Matthew/Ashley could have prevented the situation from occurring.

Completely Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely Agree

Assessing victim sexual assertiveness.

Matthew/Ashley, the person in the photo, is promiscuous.

Completely Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely Agree

Matthew/Ashley has likely sent nude photos to other individuals.

Completely Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely Agree

Assessing victim attractiveness.

Please rate Ashley/Matthew, the person whose image was distributed online, on the following dimensions.

Physically Unattractive 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Physically Attractive

Unhealthy 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Healthy

Assessing negative affect for victim

I feel angry with Matthew/Ashely.

Completely Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely Agree

I feel annoyed with Matthew/Ashley.

Completely Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely Agree

I feel disgusted with Matthew/Ashley.

Completely Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely Agree

Matthew/Ashley is to blame for what happened.

Completely Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely Agree

Matthew/Ashley is responsible for the distribution of the nude photographs.

Completely Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely Agree

Assessing negative affect for perpetrator

I feel angry with Matthew/Ashley.

Completely Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely Agree

I feel annoyed with Matthew/Ashley.

Completely Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely Agree

I feel disgusted with Matthew/Ashley.

Completely Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely Agree

Assessing sympathy for perpetrator

I feel sorry for Matthew/Ashley, the person being accused of posting the nude photos.

Completely Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely Agree

I feel sympathy for Matthew/Ashley.

Completely Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely Agree

I feel pity for Matthew/Ashley.

Completely Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely Agree

Assessing criminal responsibility and legal action

Posting photos without consent from the person in the photo should be illegal.

Completely Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely Agree

Using the following legal definition as a guide, please answer the following questions using the scales provided.

“A person commits the offense of distribution of intimate images if the person knowingly or intentionally distributes to any third party any intimate image of an individual eighteen years of

age or older, if: (a.) The person knows that the depicted individual has not given consent to the person to distribute the intimate image; (b.) The intimate image was created by or provided to the person under circumstances in which the individual has a reasonable expectation of privacy; and (c.) Actual emotional distress or harm is caused to the individual as a result of the distribution under this section.”

Legal action should be taken against the person who posted the photo.

Completely Disagree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Completely Agree

Matthew/Ashley should face criminal charges for distributing the nude photographs.

Yes No

Matthew/Ashley should face jail/prison time for distributing Ashley/Matthew’s nude photographs.

Yes No

How long of a sentence would you recommend? _____ months _____ years

Matthew/Ashley should have to pay a monetary fine for distributing Ashley/Matthew’s nude photographs.

Yes No

How much of a fine would you recommend? _____ dollars

Why did you make the decision you did? _____

It is the responsibility of the police to help victims in these types of cases.

Completely Disagree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Completely Agree

Civil Cases.

If Ashley/Matthew were to file a civil case against Matthew/Ashely, a judge should rule in favor of Ashley/Matthew.

Completely Disagree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Completely Agree

How much would you recommend Matthew/Ashely be ordered to pay Ashley/Matthew in damages? _____ dollars

Appendix D
Anti-Fat Attitudes Scale

Directions:

Please use the following scale to indicate to what extent you agree/disagree with each of the following statements.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Completely Disagree									Completely Agree

Dislike:

1. _____ I really don't like fat people much.
2. _____ I don't have many friends that are fat.
3. _____ I tend to think that people who are overweight are a little untrustworthy.
4. _____ Although some fat people are surely smart, in general, I think they tend not to be quite as bright as normal weight people.
5. _____ I have a hard time taking fat people too seriously.
6. _____ Fat people make me feel somewhat uncomfortable.
7. _____ If I were an employer looking to hire, I might avoid hiring a fat person

Fear of Fat

1. _____ I feel disgusted with myself when I gain weight.
2. _____ One of the worst things that could happen to me would be if I gained 25 pounds.
3. _____ I worry about becoming fat.

Willpower

1. _____ People who weight too much could lose at least some part of their weight through a little exercise.
2. _____ Some people are fat because they have no willpower.
3. _____ Fat people tend to be fat pretty much through their own fault.

Crandall, C. S. (1994). Prejudice against fat people: ideology and self-interest. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 66(5), 882.

Appendix E
BAOP: Beliefs About Obese Persons Scale

Please mark each statement below in the left margin, according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please do not leave any blank. Use the numbers on the following scale to indicate your response. Be sure to place a minus or plus sign (- or +) beside the number that you choose to show whether you agree or disagree.

-3	-2	-1	+1	+2	+3
I strongly disagree	I moderately disagree	I slightly disagree	I slightly agree	I moderately agree	I strongly agree

1. _____ Obesity often occurs when eating is used as a form of compensation for lack of love or attention.
2. _____ In many cases, obesity is the result of a biological disorder.
3. _____ Obesity is usually caused by overeating.
4. _____ Most obese people cause their problem by not getting enough exercise.
5. _____ Most obese people eat more than nonobese people.
6. _____ The majority of obese people have poor eating habits that lead to their obesity.
7. _____ Obesity is rarely caused by a lack of willpower.
8. _____ People can be addicted to food, just as others are addicted to drugs, and these people usually become obese.

Allison, D.B., Basile, V.C., & Yaker, H. E. (1991). The measurement of attitudes toward and beliefs about obese persons. *International Journal of Eating Disorders, 10*, 599-607.

Appendix F
Sexual Double Standard Scale

For the following statements, please rate the extent to which you agree using the following scale:

0	1	2	3
Disagree Strongly	Disagree Mildly	Agree Mildly	Agree Strongly

1. It's worse for a woman to sleep around than it is for a man
2. It's best for a guy to lose his virginity before he's out of his teens
3. It's okay for a woman to have more than one sexual relationship at the same time
4. It is just as important for a man to be a virgin when he marries as it is for a woman
5. I approve of a 16-year-old girl's having sex just as much as a 16-year-old boy's having sex
6. I kind of admire a girl who has had sex with a lot of guys
7. I kind of feel sorry for a 21-year-old woman who is still a virgin
8. A woman's having casual sex is just as acceptable to me as a man's having casual sex
9. It's okay for a man to have sex with a woman he is not in love with
10. I kind of admire a guy who has had sex with a lot of girls
11. A woman who initiates sex is too aggressive
12. It's okay for a man to have more than one sexual relationship at the same time
13. I question the character of a woman who has had a lot of sexual partners
14. I admire a man who is a virgin when he gets married
15. A man should be more sexually experienced than his wife
16. A girl who has sex on the first date is "easy"
17. I kind of feel sorry for a 21-year-old man who is still a virgin
18. I question the character of a man who has had a lot of sexual partners.
19. Women are naturally more monogamous (inclined to stick with one partner) than are men.
20. A man should be sexually experienced when he gets married.
21. A guy who has sex on the first date is "easy."
22. It's okay for a woman to have sex with a man she is not in love with.
23. A woman should be sexually experienced when she gets married.
24. It's best for a girl to lose her virginity before she's out of her teens.
25. I admire a woman who is a virgin when she gets married.
26. A man who initiates sex is too aggressive.

Muehlenhard, C. L., & Quackenbush, D. M. (1998). Sexual double standard scale. *Handbook of Sexuality-Related Measures*, 186-188.

Appendix H
The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI) (Glick & Fiske, 1995)

Below is a series of statements concerning men and women and their relationships in contemporary society. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement using the scale below:

0 = disagree strongly; 1 = disagree somewhat; 2 = disagree slightly; 3 = agree slightly; 4 = agree somewhat; 5 = agree strongly.

B(I)

1. No matter how accomplished he is, a man is not truly complete as a person unless he has the love of a woman.

H

2. Many women are actually seeking special favors, such as hiring policies that favor them over men, under the guise of asking for "equality."

B(P)

3. In a disaster, women ought to be rescued before men.

H

4. Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist.

H

5. Women are too easily offended.

B(I)

6. People are not truly happy in life without being romantically involved with a member of the other sex.

H

7. Feminists are seeking for women to have more power than men.

B(G)

8. Many women have a quality of purity that few men possess.

B(P)

9. Women should be cherished and protected by men.

H

10. Most women fail to appreciate fully all that men do for them.

H

11. Women seek to gain power by getting control over men.

- B(I)
12. Every man ought to have a woman whom he adores.
- B(I)
13. Men are incomplete without women.
- H
14. Women exaggerate problems they have at work.
- H
15. Once a woman gets a man to commit to her, she usually tries to put him on a tight leash.
- H
16. When women lose to men in a fair competition, they typically complain about being discriminated against.
- B(P)
17. A good woman should be set on a pedestal by her man.
- H
18. Many women get a kick out of teasing men by seeming sexually available and then refusing male advances.
- B(G)
19. Women, compared to men, tend to have a superior moral sensibility.
- B(P)
20. Men should be willing to sacrifice their own well-being in order to provide financially for the women in their lives.
- H
21. Feminists are making unreasonable demands of men.
- B(G)
22. Women, as compared to men, tend to have a more refined sense of culture and good taste.

Scoring:

Total ASI score = average of all items

Hostile Sexism = average of Items 2, 4, 5, 7, 10, 11, 14, 15, 16, 18, 21.

Benevolent Sexism = average of the following items: 1, 3, 6, 8, 9, 12, 13, 17, 19, 20, 22.

Note. Items 3, 6, 7, 13, 18, 21 are reverse-worded in the original version of the ASI (Glick & Fiske, 1996), though not in the version that appears here because reverse-worded items did not perform well in translation to other languages (other than lower factor loading for reversed

items, similar results have been obtained in the United States and elsewhere when both reversed and nonreversed wording have been administered; See Glick et al., 2000, footnote 2). B = Benevolent Sexism; I = Heterosexual Intimacy; H = Hostile Sexism; P = Protective Paternalism; G = Gender Differentiation. Copyright 1995 by Peter Glick and Susan T. Fiske. Use of this scale for non-academic purposes (i.e., activities other than non-profit scientific research and classroom demonstrations) requires permission of one of the authors.

The ASI may be used as an overall measure of sexism, with hostile and benevolent components equally weighted, by simply averaging the score for all items after reversing the items listed below. The two ASI subscales (Hostile Sexism and Benevolent Sexism) may also be calculated separately. For correlational research, purer measures of HS and BS can be obtained by using partial correlations (so that the effects of the correlation between the scales is removed).

Appendix I:
Demographics

1. Age _____
2. Gender
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
 - c. Transgender FTM
 - d. Transgender MTF
 - e. Other
 - f. Prefer not to answer
3. What is your ethnicity? (check all that apply)
 - a. American Indian/Alaska Native
 - b. Asian or Pacific Islander
 - c. Black or African American
 - d. Caribbean Islander
 - e. White or Caucasian
 - f. Mexican or Mexican American
 - g. Multi-ethnic
 - h. Other Latina or Latin American
 - i. Other Race
 - i. Please specify: _____
4. What is your highest Level of School Completed?
 - a. Less than high school
 - b. High school
 - c. Some college/Associate's Degree
 - d. Bachelor's Degree
 - e. Graduate Degree
5. Marital Status
 - a. Single
 - b. Dating
 - c. Engaged
 - d. Cohabiting
 - e. Married
 - f. Divorced
 - g. Separated
 - h. Widowed
 - i. Other
 - i. Please specify: _____
6. What is your sexual orientation?
 - a. Heterosexual

- b. Homosexual
 - c. Bisexual
 - d. Prefer not to answer
7. Politically you are:
- a. Strongly Conservative
 - b. Moderately Conservative
 - c. More Conservative than Liberal
 - d. Middle of the road
 - e. More Liberal than Conservative
 - f. Moderately Liberal
 - g. Strongly Liberal
 - h. None
8. What political party do you identify with?
- a. Democrat
 - b. Republican
 - c. Independent
 - d. Other
 - i. Please specify: _____
9. How religious are you?
- a. Not at all
 - b. Slightly
 - c. Moderately
 - d. Very religious
10. What is your height? _____ feet _____ inches
11. What is your weight? _____ pounds
12. Have you ever sent nude photos of yourself?
- a. Yes
 - b. No
13. If yes - to whom. (type in response) _____
14. Have you ever had nude photos of yourself posted on the internet
- A. With your consent?
 - B. Without your consent?
15. Do you know anyone who has had nude photos posted on the internet
- A. With their consent?
 - B. Without their consent?
16. If so, how many people? _____

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Footnotes

¹ 18 participants quit the survey while reading the scenario or during the manipulation checks, 58 were erroneously excluded due to a glitch within Qualtrics, and 109 participants failed one or more manipulation check items.

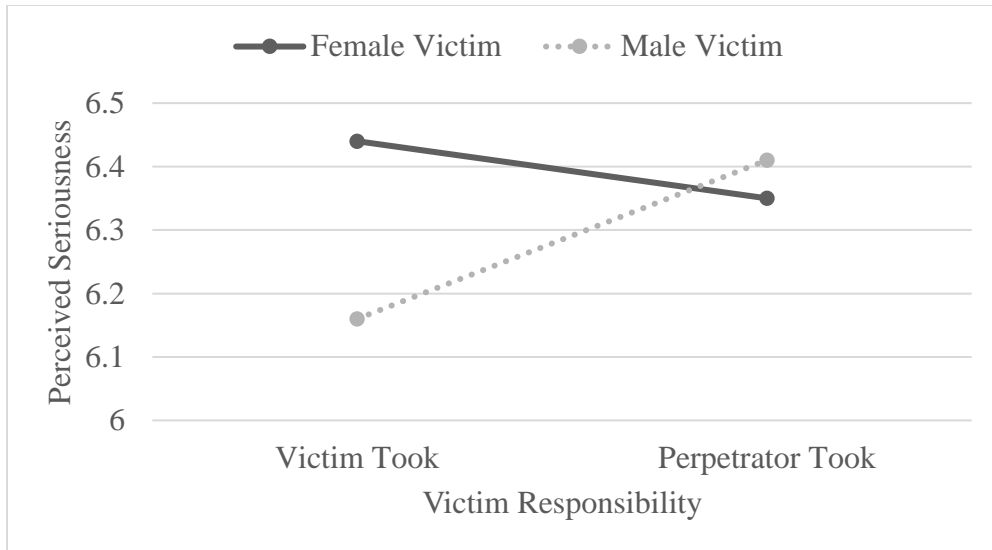


Figure 1. Perceptions of perceived severity of the situation as a result of victim gender and victim responsibility.

Range: 1 “not at all” to 7 “completely”.

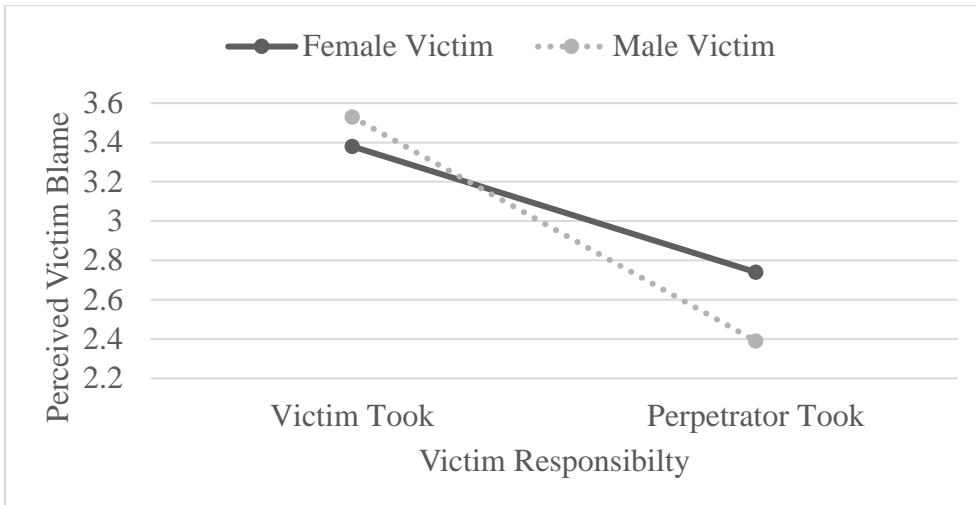


Figure 2. Perceptions of victim blame as a function of victim gender and victim responsibility.

Range: 1 “completely disagree” to 7 “completely agree”.

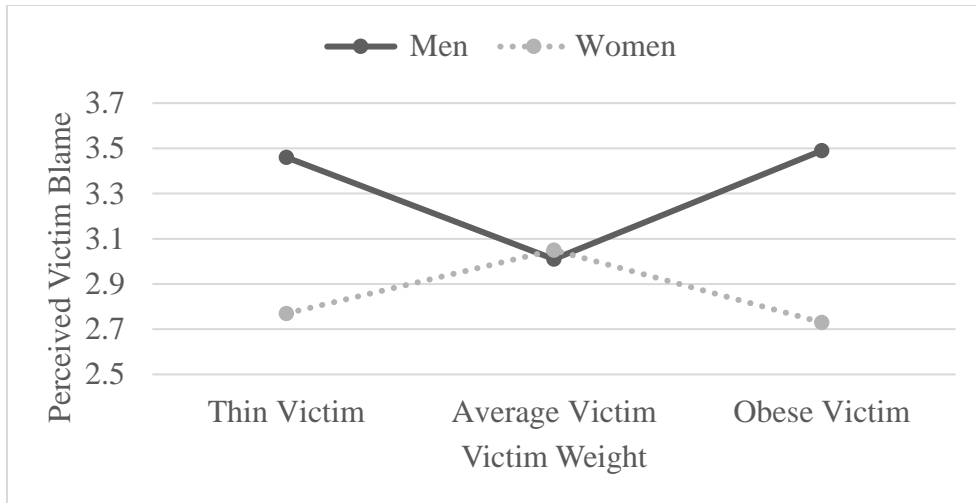


Figure 3. Perceptions of victim blame as a function of victim weight and participant gender.

Range: 1 “completely disagree” to 7 “completely agree”.

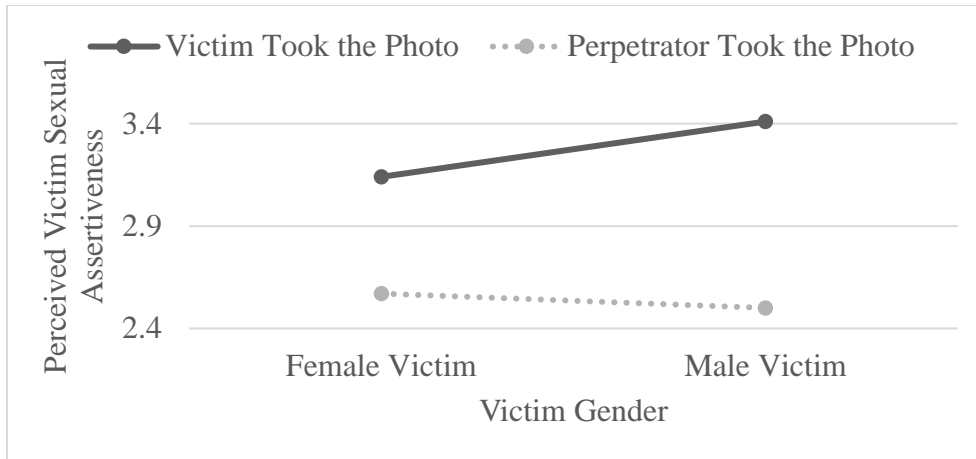


Figure 4. Perceptions of victim sexual assertiveness as a function of victim gender and victim responsibility.

Range: 1 “completely disagree” to 7 “completely agree”.

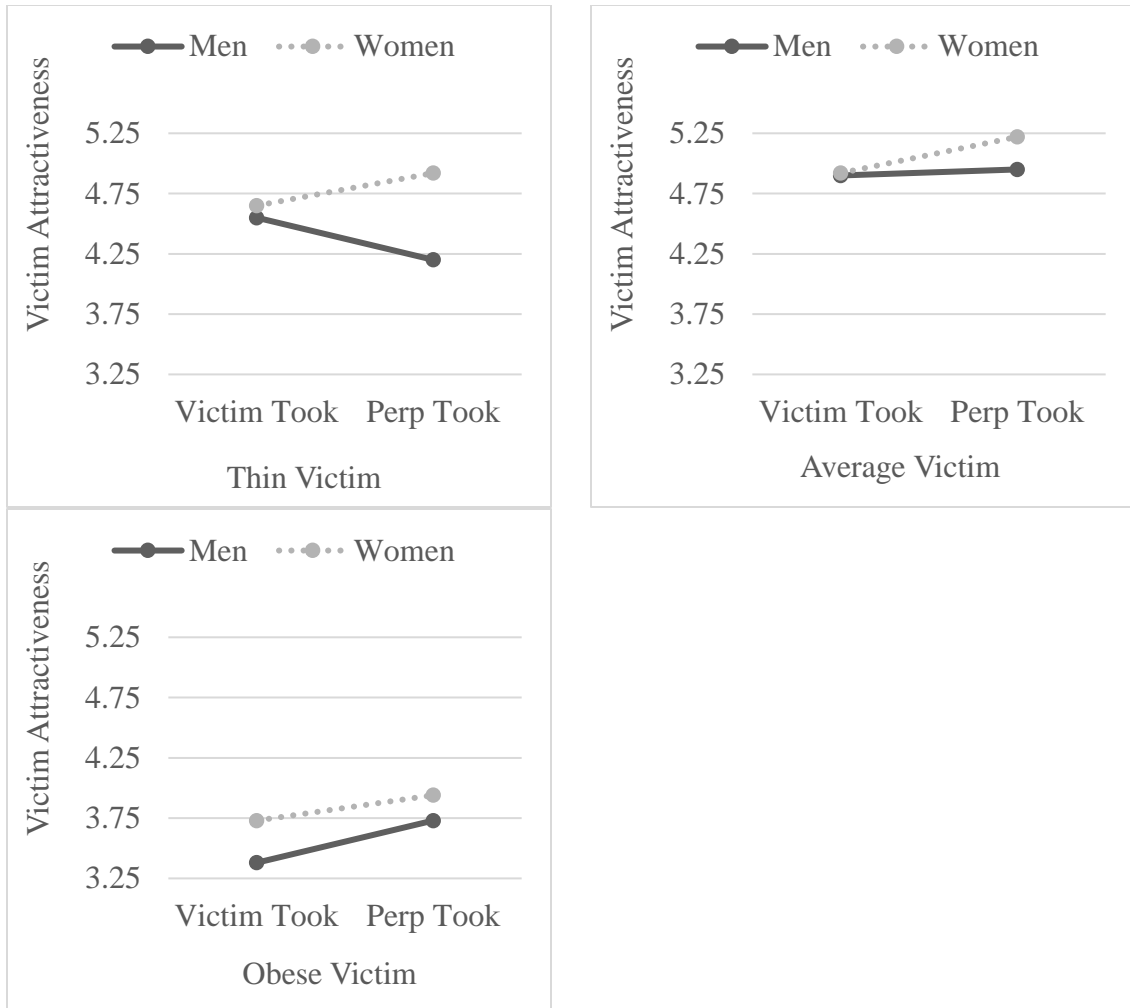


Figure 5. Participants perceptions of victim attractiveness.

Range: 1 “unattractive” to 7 “attractive”.

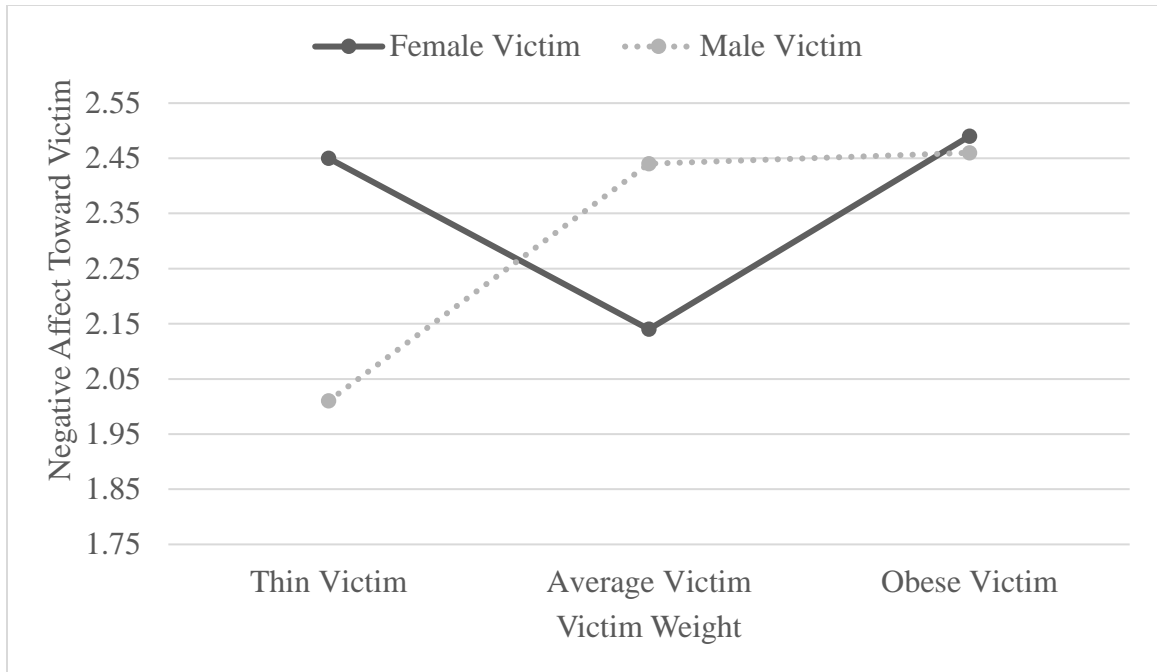


Figure 6. Participants feelings of negative affect toward male and female victims of varying weight.

Range: 1 “completely disagree” to 7 “completely agree”.

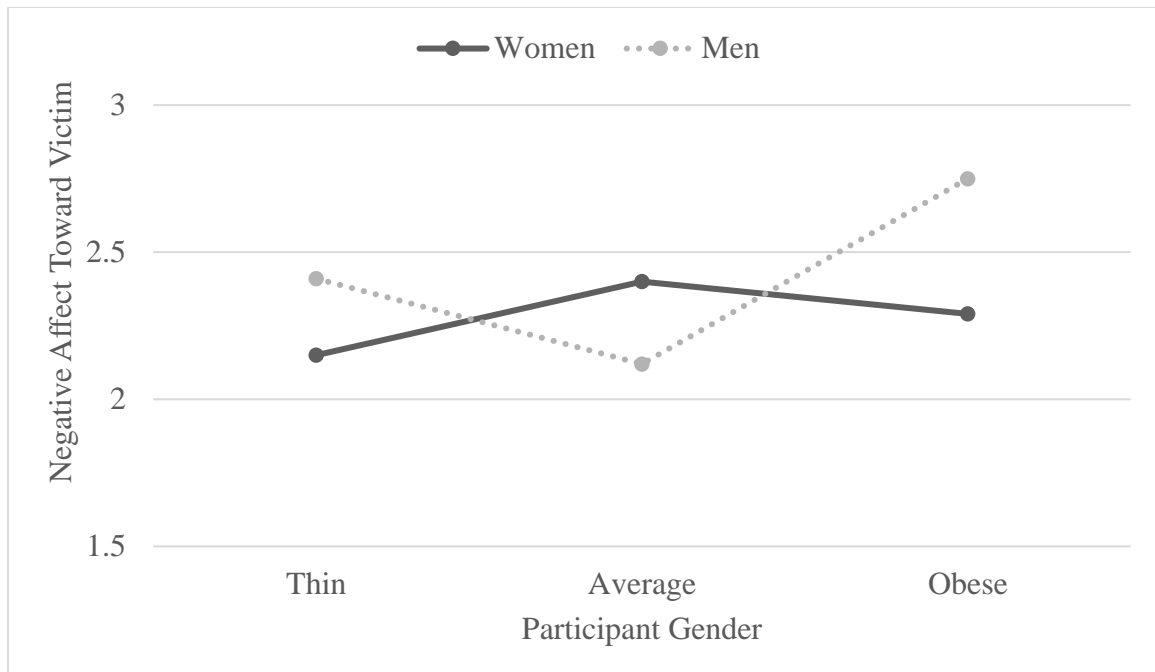


Figure 7. Male and female participants' feelings of negative affect toward victims of varying weight.

Range: 1 "completely disagree" to 7 "completely agree".

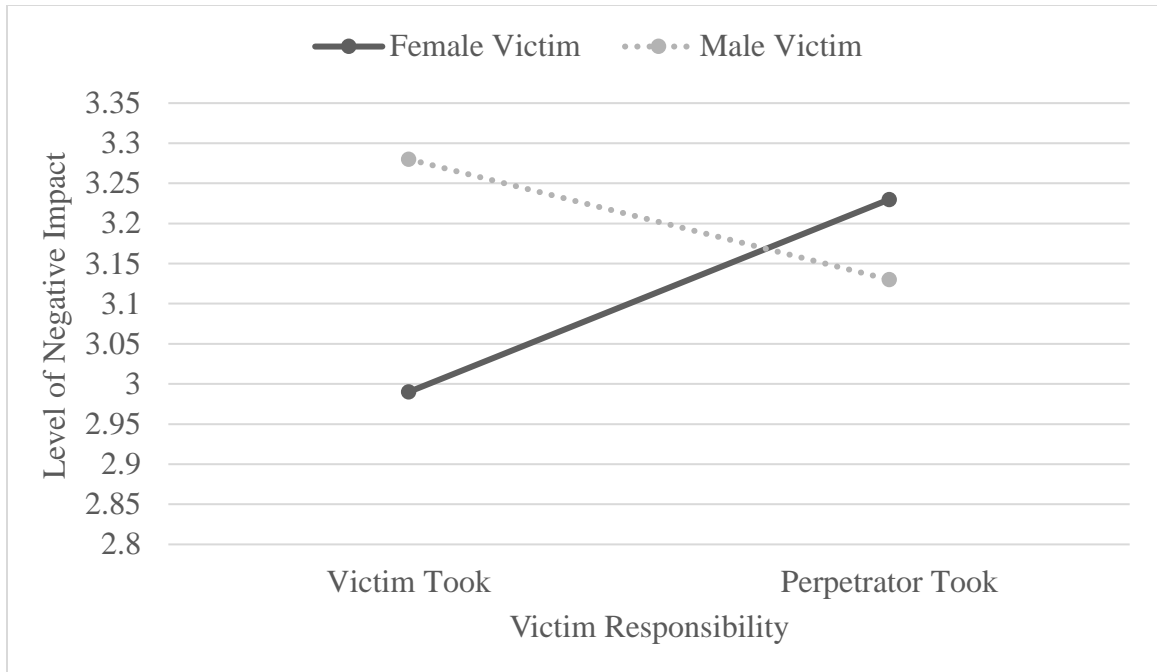


Figure 8. Perceptions of level of agreement that the nude photograph will have a negative impact on the victim’s life as a function of victim gender and victim responsibility.

Note. Lower scores indicate participants perceived more negative consequences.

Range: 1 “very negative impact” to 7 “very positive impact”.

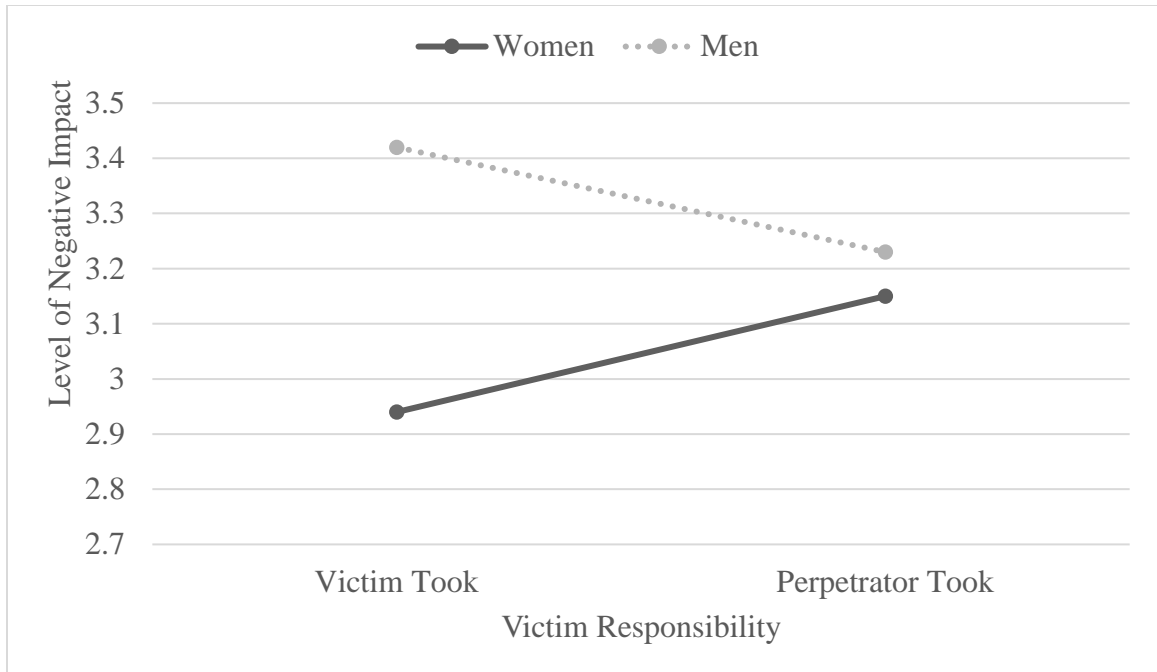


Figure 9. Male and female participants level of agreement that the nude photograph will have a negative impact on the victim’s life.

Note. Lower scores indicate participants perceived more negative consequences.

Range: 1 “very negative impact” to 7 “very positive impact”.

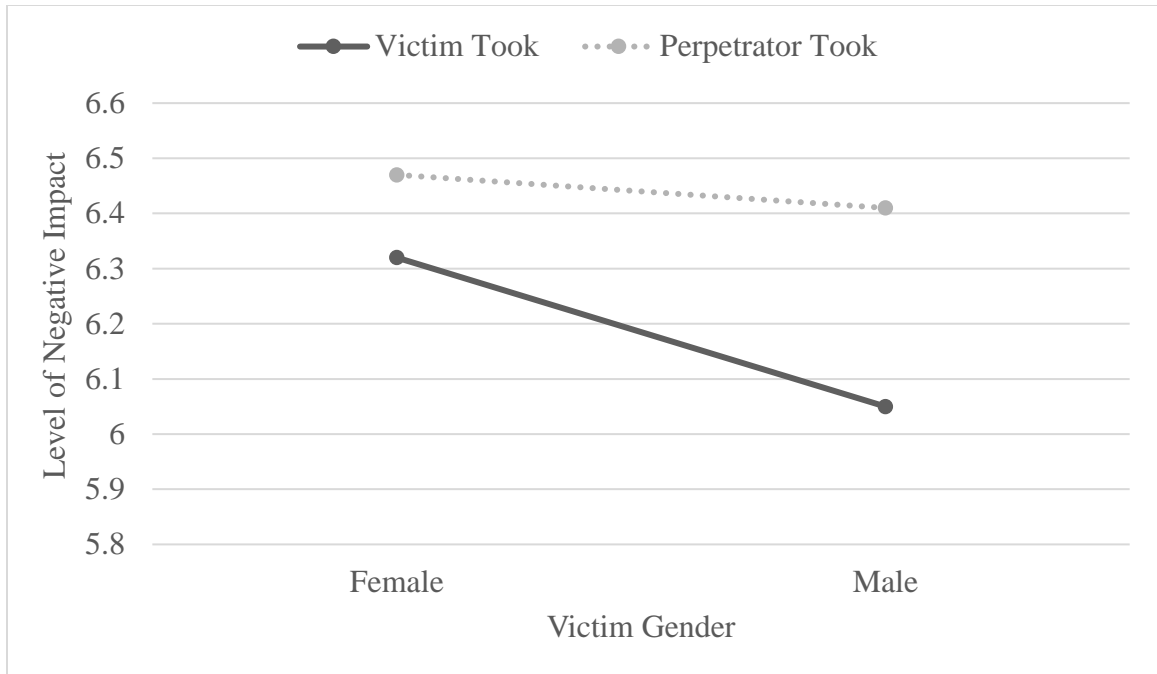


Figure 10. Perceptions of level of perpetrator blame as a function of victim gender and victim responsibility.

Range: 1 “completely disagree” to 7 “completely agree”.

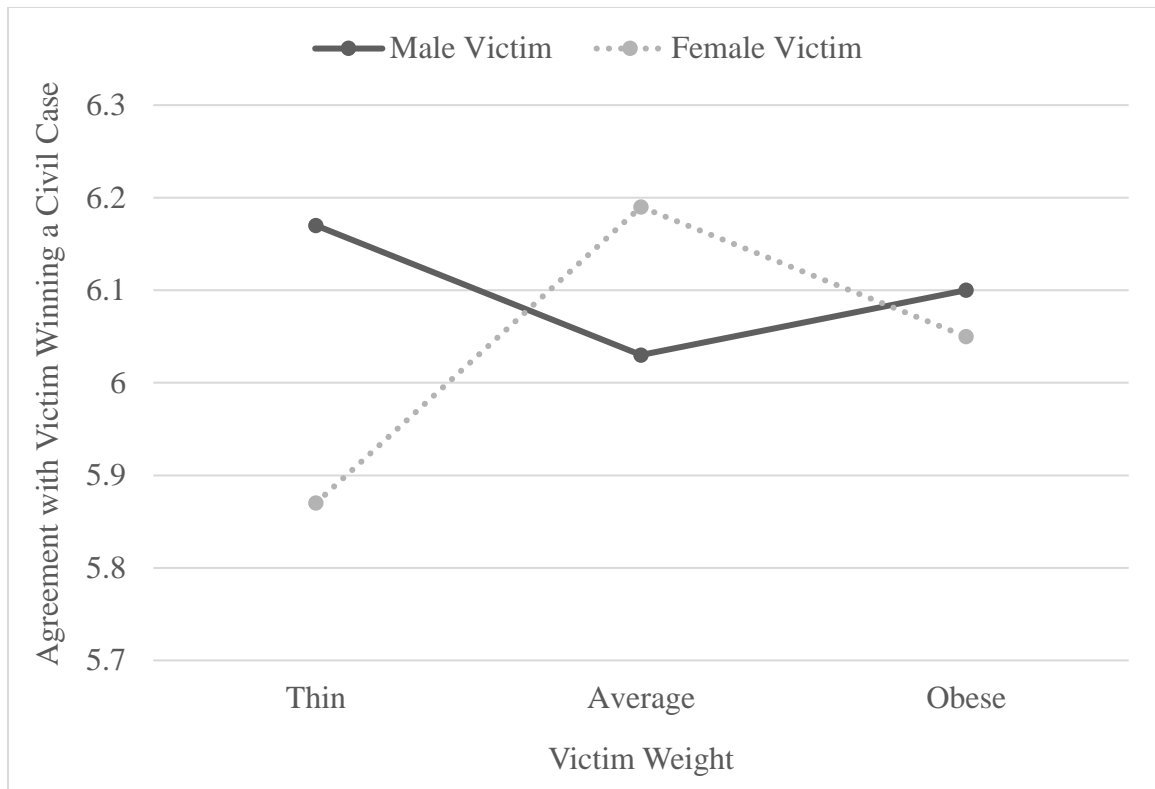


Figure 11. Participants level of agreement that a judge should rule in favor of the victim should the victim file a civil lawsuit against the perpetrator.

Range: 1 “completely disagree” to 7 “completely agree”

Table 1
Participant Descriptive Characteristics

<i>N</i> = 692	<i>N</i>
Gender	
Woman	406
Man	262
Transgender FTM	1
Prefer not to say	23
Age Range	
18-25	353
26-35	158
36-50	109
51+	44
Sexual Orientation	
Heterosexual	615
Bisexual	29
Gay/Lesbian	21
Other/Prefer not to say	4
Race/ethnicity	
White/Caucasian	557
Black/African-American	35
Asian or Pacific Islander	26
American Indian/Alaska Native	8
Mexican or Mexican-American	4
Caribbean Islander	3
Other Latina/Latin American	1
Multi-Ethnic	27
Other	4
Completed Education	
Graduate Degree	56
Bachelor Degree	136
Associate Degree, or some college	309
High School	167
Less than high school	2
Marital Status	
Single	242
Dating	164
Engaged/Cohabiting	70
Married	158
Divorced/Separated	29
Widowed	4
Other/Prefer not to respond	5
Political Affiliation	
Democrat	236
Republican	234
Independent	161
Other/Prefer not to respond	41

Table 2

Participants' Experience with Sexting and Nonconsensual Pornography

	<i>n</i>				
	No	Yes	Yes, with consent	Yes, without consent	Yes, with and without consent
Engaged in sexting	432	229	-	-	-
Participant had nude images shared online	635	-	23	16	7
Participant knew someone whose nude images had been shared online	496	-	133	162	-

Table 3.

Victim Blame Averages Related to Participants' Scores on the IRMA-SF, SDSS, AFA, ASI, and BAOP (N = 627).

Variable	Zero-Order <i>r</i>						β	<i>sr</i> ²	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>
	IRMA-SF	ASI	BAOP	SDSS	AFA	Blame				
AFA						.258***	.027	.022	.028	.040
SDSS					.225***	.248***	.046	.040	.019	.012
BAOP				-.114**	-.351***	-.088*	-.055	-.050	-.010	.007
ASI			-.112**	.436***	.352***	.367***	.132**	.102	.170**	.059
IRMA-SF		.584***	-.011	.389***	.454***	.449***	.341***	.252	.029***	.004
								Intercept =	1.67	.233
Mean	31.86	2.53	16.29	6.30	4.00	3.02				
<i>SD</i>	17.12	1.11	7.54	4.89	1.53	1.43	<i>R</i> ² =	.225***		

Note. IRMA-SF = Illinois Rape-Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form, ASI = Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, BAOP = Beliefs Against Obese Persons Scale, SDSS = Sexual Double Standards Scale, AFA = Anti-Fat Attitudes Scale.

**p* < .05

***p* < .01

****p* < .001

Table 4
Perceived Level of Victim Attractiveness

		Victim Took	Perpetrator Took
		<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>
Thin Victim	Men	4.55 (1.10)	4.20 (1.42)
	Women	4.65 (1.20)	4.92 (1.18)
Average Victim	Men	4.90 (0.88)	4.95 (1.01)
	Women	4.92 (1.08)	5.22 (1.13)
Obese Victim	Men	3.38 (0.93)	3.73 (1.45)
	Women	4.26 (1.25)	3.94 (1.11)

Range: 1 “completely disagree” to 7 “completely agree”.

Table 5.

Negative Affect Averages Related to Participants' Scores on the IRMA-SF, SDSS, AFA, ASI, and BAOP (N = 627).

Variable	Zero-Order <i>r</i>						β	<i>sr</i> ²	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>
	IRMA-SF	ASI	BAOP	SDSS	AFA	Neg. Affect				
AFA						.215***	.089	.073	.087	.045
SDSS					.225***	.129**	-.018	-.016	-.005	.013
BAOP				-.114**	-.351***	-.014	.027	.024	.005	.008
ASI			-.112**	.436***	.352***	.242***	.078	.060	.105	.066
IRMA-SF		.584***	-.011	.389***	.454***	.325***	.246***	.182	.022***	.004
Mean	31.86	2.53	16.29	6.30	4.00	2.31	Intercept =		0.95	.261
<i>SD</i>	17.12	1.11	7.54	4.89	1.53	1.50	<i>R</i> ² =		.115***	

Note. IRMA-SF = Illinois Rape-Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form, ASI = Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, BAOP = Beliefs Against Obese Persons Scale, SDSS = Sexual Double Standards Scale, AFA = Anti-Fat Attitudes Scale, Neg. Affect = Negative Affect Toward Victim

**p* < .05

***p* < .01

****p* < .001

Table 6.

Perpetrator Blame Averages Related to Participants' Scores on the IRMA-SF, SDSS, AFA, ASI, and BAOP (N = 627).

Variable	Zero-Order <i>r</i>					Perp Blame	β	<i>sr</i> ²	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>
	IRMA-SF	ASI	BAOP	SDSS	AFA					
AFA						-.191***	-.055	-.045	-.037	.029
SDSS				.225***		-.121**	.040	.035	.008	.008
BAOP				-.114**	-.351***	-.117**	-.136**	-.124	-.018**	.005
ASI			-.112**	.436***	.352***	-.233***	.003	.002	.02	.042
IRMA-SF		.584***	-.011	.389***	.454***	-.432***	-.426***	-.315	-.025***	.003
Mean	31.86	2.53	16.29	6.30	4.00	6.31	Intercept =		7.50	.167
<i>SD</i>	17.12	1.11	7.54	4.89	1.53	1.01	<i>R</i> ² =		.205***	

Note. IRMA-SF = Illinois Rape-Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form, ASI = Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, BAOP = Beliefs Against Obese Persons Scale, SDSS = Sexual Double Standards Scale, AFA = Anti-Fat Attitudes Scale, Perp Blame = Blame attributed toward perpetrator.

**p* < .05

***p* < .01

****p* < .001

Table 7
Participant Sentence Recommendations

	<i>n</i>	%
No jail time	326	47.11
0-6 months	181	26.16
7-12 months	57	8.24
13-24 months	43	6.21
> 2 years-5 years	49	7.08
> 5 years	16	2.31
Other response	7	1.01

Note. The average sentence length was 17.52 months.

Table 8
Participant Monetary Fine Recommendations

	<i>n</i>	%
No fine	50	7.23
\$1-500	167	24.13
\$501-1,000	119	17.20
\$1,001-2,000	43	6.21
\$2,001-5,000	160	23.12
\$5,001-10,000	62	8.96
\$10,001-50,000	56	8.09
\$50,001+	17	2.46
Other	7	1.01
No response	11	1.59

Note. The average recommended dollar amount for a monetary fine was \$9,657.11 (*SD* = \$35,336.02).

Table 9
Participant Recommendation for Award in a Civil Cases

	<i>n</i>	%
No fine	54	7.80
\$1-\$5,000	423	61.13
\$5,001-\$10,000	86	12.43
\$10,001-\$15,000	10	1.45
\$15,001-\$20,000	17	2.46
\$20,001-\$25,000	22	3.18
\$25,001-\$30,000	2	0.29
\$30,001-\$35,000	0	0
\$35,001-\$40,000	0	0
\$40,001-\$45,000	1	0.14
\$45,001-\$50,000	22	3.18
\$50,001-\$99,999	2	0.29
\$100,000+	35	5.06
No response	18	2.60

Note. The average recommended dollar amount to be awarded to the victim in a civil case was \$23,870.32 (*SD* = \$202,785.42).

Table 10
Correlation Table for Participants' Scale Scores

Correlations Between Scales					
	IRMA-SF	ASI	BAOP	SDSS	AFA
IRMA-SF	1.00	.592*	.004	.390*	.446*
ASI		1.00	-.118	.437*	.357*
BAOP			1.00	-.114*	-.359*
SDSS				1.00	.225*
AFA					1.00

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

Note. IRMA-SF = Illinois Rape-Myth Acceptance Scale—Short Form, ASI = Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, BAOP = Beliefs Against Obese Persons Scale, SDSS = Sexual Double Standards Scale, AFA = Anti-Fat Attitudes Scale.

Table 11
Participant Responses for Circumstances it is Acceptable to Distribute Another's Nude Images

	<i>n</i>
With Consent	274
Never Okay	271
For Entertainment/Art/Money	49
Revenge/Anger/Any	17
Medical/Research/Education Purposes	15
Legal Reasons	14