

**WOMEN'S REPORTS OF THEIR MALE ROMANTIC PARTNER'S PORNOGRAPHY
USE AS A CORRELATE OF THEIR PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTRESS, RELATIONSHIP
QUALITY, AND SEXUAL SATISFACTION**

**A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville**

**Destin Nicole Stewart
August 2012**

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the advancement and advocacy of women everywhere. I want to thank my advisor, Dr. Dawn Szymanski for aiding throughout this process. Her support and knowledge has been invaluable. I am appreciative to the Counseling Psychology faculty and the staff at the University of Tennessee Counseling Center for their overwhelming support and interest in my studies and clinical work. Finally, I am very grateful for my husband, John Richardson, for his encouragement and understanding while I have worked on my dissertation and throughout the entire Ph.D. program.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I want to acknowledge the researchers who have contributed to the field of women's studies, feminist literature, and pornography use. I also want to recognize the previous qualitative research that helped inform the current project.

ABSTRACT

Pornography is both prevalent and normative in United States' culture; however, little is known about the psychological and relational effects that it can have on women involved in heterosexual romantic relationships in which their male partners view pornography. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between men's pornography use on their heterosexual female partner's psychological and relational well-being among 311 undergraduate women. In addition, psychometric properties for the Partner's Pornography Use Scale are provided. Results revealed women's reports of their male partner's pornography use were negatively associated with their self esteem, relationship quality, and sexual satisfaction. Partner's pornography use was not related to female participants' self-objectification, body-shame, nor depression. Finally, results revealed that relationship length moderated the relationship between partner's pornography use and sexual satisfaction, with significant dissatisfaction being associated with longer relationship length.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
CHAPTER I - INTRODUCTION	1
Theorized Psychological, Relational, and Sexual Correlates of Men's Pornography Use on their Female Romantic Partners	3
Current Study	8
CHAPTER II – METHOD.....	10
Participants.....	10
Measures	10
Procedure	14
CHAPTER III - RESULTS.....	16
Partner's Pornography Use Scale Psychometrics.....	16
Pornography Use and Psychological and Relational Outcomes	17
CHAPTER IV - DISCUSSION	22
Limitations	24
Directions for future research	25
Clinical Implications	26
REFERENCES	28
APPENDIX.....	36
VITA.....	46

CHAPTER I – INTRODUCTION

Pornography refers to the “the explicit description or exhibition of sexual subjects or activity in literature, painting, pictures, books, films, etc., in a manner intended to stimulate sexual excitement rather than aesthetic feelings” (Oxford English Dictionary, June, 2008). The issue of pornography is a controversial one, as even the mention of the topic elicits strong reactions from most individuals. In recent years, pornography has gained attention from many political, religious, and moral groups, allowing for heated debate (Lottes, Weinberg, &Weller, 1993). Pornography and its corresponding promotion of body evaluation are both prevalent and normative in United States’ culture; however, little is known about the psychological and relational effects that it can have on women (Kozee, Tylka, Augustus-Horvath, & Denchik, 2007). In fact, very little attention has been paid to the issue of pornography in leading research journals (Carroll, Padilla-Walker, Nelson, Olson, McNamara-Barry, & Madsen, 2008), which is surprising given the overwhelming increase of pornography use over the last couple of decades. In addition, young adulthood can be viewed as a particular time of interest to researchers because it includes an exploration of sexuality and identity in and out of romantic relationships and often involves more sexual risk taking as well (Arnett, 2006). Young adults may experiment and use pornographic materials more; however, little research on pornography has focused on this population.

‘Sex’ is one of the most searched for words and/or topics on the internet and access to pornography is quite simple via video rentals and sales, the internet, and magazines; the three most popular forms of pornography in the United States (Ackman, 2001; Cooper, Delmonico, & Burg, 2000; Ropelato, 2007). In addition, consumption of pornography has increased over the past decade and pornographers are the leading developers within the ever-expanding, fairly

unregulated internet industry (Hughes, 1999; Ropelato, 2007). The pornography industry continues to be one of the most lucrative economies, generating an estimated annual income of more than \$13 billion dollars in the United States alone and having greater revenues than Google, Yahoo, Microsoft, Apple, Amazon, eBay, and Netflix combined (Ropelato, 2007).

Pornography has now become privatized with the help of cable television and the internet, allowing more individuals to view such material without the stigma of purchasing pornography in public (i.e., video stores). The pervasiveness and ease of access to such materials is most definitely linked to technological advances within our current society (Carroll et al., 2008). For example, access to pay-per-view movies via cable television began in the early 1990s and access to the internet began in the mid 1990s (Buzzell, 2005a). In today's society, almost every household has cable television and internet, making pornography readily available (Mitchell, Finkelhor, & Wolak, 2005). In addition, computer and internet access are available not only in homes and in the workplace, but also in public libraries, restaurants, and other "wi-fi hotspots" (e.g., coffee shops).

Due to the contentious nature of pornography, several studies have been conducted examining individuals' use of and attitudes toward pornography. For example, a study using a college student sample, found that the majority of participants believed that adults should have access to sexually explicit materials; however, students differed in their reactions to this material with women, religious participants, less sexually active participants, and those participants who reported they had not been exposed to pornography endorsing more negative evaluations of such materials (Lottes, Weinberg, & Weller, 1993). Similarly, Shaw's (1999) study examining female's experiences and perceptions regarding pornography found that the majority of women reported negative attitudes towards pornography (Shaw, 1999). Another study of 876 adolescent

and young adult participants found that most respondents had viewed pornography; however, the youngest males (age 15 years old) reported viewing the most pornography. In addition, males reported using pornography to masturbate, while the females reported viewing it out of curiosity (Wallmyr & Welin, 2006). Relatedly, Carroll et al. (2008) found that young adult males reported more use and acceptance of pornography than females, with about 1 out of 5 males reporting daily or almost-daily usage. Finally, Peterson and Hyde's (2010) meta analysis of research studies on gender differences in sexuality from 1993-2007 revealed that men were more likely than women to report using pornography and this difference produced a large effect size.

Taken together, previous research suggests that pornography use has increased over the past decade, males tend to use pornography more than females, and women tend to feel more negatively about pornography than men. With the abundance and wide-spread use of pornography, we have to question how this affects women, the main "characters" in heterosexual pornography. However, very little research exists examining the psychosocial, relational, and sexual correlates of men's pornography use on women in romantic heterosexual relationships. Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between men's pornography use on their heterosexual female partner's self-objectification, body shame, self-esteem, depression, relationship satisfaction, and sexual satisfaction.

Theorized Psychological, Relational, and Sexual Correlates of Men's Pornography Use on their Female Romantic Partners

Objectification Theory (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997) provides a useful framework for understanding how men's pornography use may be related to their female romantic partners' psychological, relationship, and sexual problems. Objectification Theory postulates that the socialization and general day-to-day experiences fundamental to being female often involve

occurrences of being treated like a sexual object (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). Sexual objectification occurs when a female is reduced to her body or body parts and/or sexual functions, and she is observed primarily as a physical object of male sexual desire (Bartky, 1990). Sexual objectification takes on both external and internalized forms. External sexual objectification manifests in a variety of ways such as practices of some men checking out a woman's "goods," whistles or cat calls, depictions of women as sexual objects in various forms of media, and sexual victimization (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997; Kozee et al., 2007). Objectification Theory posits that an accumulation of external sexual objectification experiences may account for various mental health risks that disproportionately affect women, such as depression, disordered eating, and sexual dysfunction (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997).

Objectification Theory posits that the influence of external sexual objectification on poorer mental health outcomes may also be indirect in that it is mediated by internalized sexual objectification, also known as self-objectification, and body shame. Self-objectification occurs when women internalize others' views of themselves, treating their bodies as they presume others would (McKinley, 1998; Noll & Fredrickson, 2006). Self-objectification occurs when a woman scrutinizes and treats herself according to the messages of others. Internalizing this third-party perspective of oneself leads to preoccupation and even obsession with physical appearance, as physical appearance is what others see from the "outside" (Fredrickson et al., 1998). Body shame occurs when women evaluate themselves in relation to cultural standards of beauty and come up short (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). Several studies have found support for the direct and indirect links (via self-objectification and body shame) between women's sexual objectification experiences and poorer mental health outcomes including disordered eating, depression, substance abuse, and lowered self-esteem (c.f., Carr & Szymanski, 2011;

Fredrickson, Roberts, Noll, Quinn, & Twenge, 1998; Kozee et al., 2007; Mercurio, & Landry, 2008; Moradi, Dirks, & Matteson, 2005; Szymanski & Henning, 2007; Tiggemann & Kuring, 2004).

Pornography is a form of external sexual objectification, in that women are often portrayed merely as objects for sexual pleasure and immediate gratification. The *Longford Report* (as cited in Linton, 1979, p. 57), differentiated pornography from erotica by stating that pornography “treats sexual practices divorced from any tender consideration for one’s partner,” whereas erotica “deals with the pleasure and art of sexuality, but always in terms of a positive emotional relationship.” Mainstream pornography often features women as props for male sexual pleasure: giving oral sex to men, receiving anal sex, and as participants in (or victims of) gang bangs and "double penetration" (Jensen, 2007). Men's anger toward women is increasingly present in mainstream pornography. For example, in a content analysis of top selling pornography videos, Sun, Bridges, Wosnitzer, Scharrer, and Liberman (2008) found that verbal and physical aggression were common, women were the primary targets of aggression, and negative reactions to aggression were scarce. In addition, a steady rise in hard core pornography over the past decade has been documented (Ropelato, 2007). Finally, mainstream pornography often creates fantasy relationships with the illusion of an attractive, thin, voluptuous, perfect, but realistically non-existent, woman.

Several, mostly qualitative studies, have begun to examine the links between pornography and women’s self-objectification, body shame, psychological, relational, and sexual health. For example, Shaw (1999) interviewed women about their reactions to magazine pornography and to their male partner’s pornography use. She found that women often had feelings of inadequacy and lowered self-esteem relative to these magazines. In addition, many

women complained that the images in pornographic magazines are unrealistic, in that very few women look like the women in the photos. Participants commented about how these images of ideal women and sexy bodies made them feel inadequate and unhappy with their own bodies. Shaw's study found the following statements to be typical of female respondents in reference to their partners' pornography use:

It makes you think that you're supposed to look really good, and that that's a very important thing. It makes it seem as if it's one of the most important things. (p. 206)

These men look at these pictures and say, 'Look at her. She's just beautiful. Why can't you be like that?' (p. 206)

In another qualitative study, Bergner and Bridges (2002) found that the vast majority of women in their sample reported that their male partners' pornography viewing made them feel sexually undesirable. Participants used descriptors of themselves such as "fat" or "ugly," in reaction to their partners' preference for pornography. The resounding message was one of inadequacy and an inability to measure up to the images of perfection depicted in pornographic media. Similarly, Zitzman (2007) asked married women to discuss the emotional ramifications of their husbands' pornography usage. Representative comments made by the women were:

I felt like . . . I wasn't pretty enough, or I wasn't skinny enough, or I wasn't . . . what he wanted. (p.48)

I feel like I'm in competition with skinnier, prettier girls, you know that are on the internet or in movies or whatever. Just how the world and Hollywood portrays women and makes me feel like, Well, if I was prettier, if I was sexier, or this or that, then he wouldn't have this problem." That's been hard for me. (p.48)

Although not focused specifically on pornography, women's exposure to various forms of sexually objectifying media (e.g., television ads, television programs, music videos) has consistently been found to related to their self-objectification, body shame, appearance anxiety, internalization of cultural standards of beauty, body dissatisfaction, and disordered eating

symptoms (for a review, see Moradi & Huang, 2008). Taken together, it seems that externally sexually objectifying sources such as pornography can lead to a woman feeling objectified, which begets psychologically distressing issues such as poor body image, lowered self-esteem, depression, and a pressure to live up to unrealistic standards of beauty and attractiveness. Women may be left with greater psychological distress after experiencing these issues in their personal lives.

In addition to psychological consequences, qualitative research also indicates that men's pornography use may negatively affect their female partner's relationship quality and sexual satisfaction. In Bergner and Bridges' (2002) study, women were asked to post letters to an online message board about their partner's pornography use; the majority of women described their partner's viewing of porn as "betrayal" and an "affair". The women participants in this study typically experienced their partner's pornography use as infidelity and expressed in their letters themes that the love between couples should only be shared between those two individuals and not countless "fantasy women." These women also reported feeling very isolated from their partners upon discovering their pornography usage; they felt their partner had an entire secret life that was separate and barred from them. Relatedly, Zitzman (2007) found that after wives discovered their husband's pornography use, themes of uncertainty, lack of confidence, and loss of trust in the relationship arose, which generally damaged their relationship. In addition, the results suggested that pornography use by a spouse can have a tremendously devastating impact on the marriage relationship and on a general sense of well-being, because the women whose male partners viewed porn felt betrayed, isolated, and confused.

In terms of sexual satisfaction, Shaw (1999) reported lowered sexual interest after discovering a partner's use of pornographic materials as fairly common among female participants. To illustrate, one of her participants reported:

One thing I hate about it . . . say my husband had a long day at work . . . he'll tell me he'll look at *Playboy* . . . and if he wants to have sexual relations with me it turns me off completely. I hate it. I don't know why . . . psychologically. If you have to be turned on by somebody else beside me, I don't like it at all. (p. 207).

Relatedly, a study by Bergner and Bridges (2002) found that when women continued to be sexual with their partners after the discovery of their partner's pornography use, they often felt their partner was using them as a "warm body" or thinking of other women depicted in pornography resulting in dissatisfaction with their sex life. Drawing from Objectification Theory (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997) it may be that men's pornography use has both direct and indirect effects (via self-objectification and body shame) on their female partner's self-esteem, depression, relationship quality, and sexual satisfaction (see Figure 2).

Finally, the relationship between men's pornography use on their female partner's relational outcomes may be moderated/intensified by relationship length. That is, the relationship between men's pornography use and their female partner's relationship quality and sexual satisfaction may be stronger for women who have been in their relationship for a long time versus those who have been in their relationship for a short time. Because longer relationships have more shared history and are more likely to exhibit stronger commitment and trust levels, participants in shorter relationships may be less emotionally and psychologically affected by their partner's behavior and attitudes.

Current Study

In sum, pornography is both prevalent and normative in United States' culture; however, little is known about the psychological, relational, and sexual influences that it can have women

in heterosexual romantic relationships. The purpose of this study was to begin examining some of these links. More specifically, we examined the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Women's reports of their male romantic partners' pornography use will be positively related to their self-objectification, body shame, and depression, and negatively related to their self-esteem, relationship quality, and sexual satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2: Women's reports of their male romantic partners' pornography use will lead to more self-objectification which in turn leads to more body shame which leads to poorer psychological and relational outcomes (i.e., lower self-esteem, more depression, less relationship quality, and less sexual satisfaction; see Figure 1).

Hypothesis 3: Relationship length will moderate the relationship between women's reports of their male romantic partners' pornography use and relationship quality and sexual satisfaction.

CHAPTER II – METHOD

Participants

The initial sample comprised 330 female participants who completed an online survey. One self-identified male, four self-identified bisexual participants, six participants who indicated that they were not in a current relationship or their relationship duration was for less than three months, one participant who failed a validity check item (3 were included in the survey), and seven participants who left at least one measure completely blank were eliminated from the dataset, which resulted in a final sample of 311 participants. There was no other missing data.

Participants ranged in age from 18 to 42 years, with a mean age of 19.02 years ($SD = 2.78$). The sample was 7% African American, 3% Asian American/Pacific Islander, 86% White, 2% Multiracial, and 2% Other. All participants were currently enrolled in college, with 72% being first year undergraduates, 14% Sophomores, 8% Juniors, 4% Seniors, 2% Graduate Students, and 1% Other. Participants reported being a member of the following social classes: 3% Wealthy, 38% Upper-Middle Class, 46% Middle Class, 10% Lower-Middle Class, and 3% Working Class. Twenty four percent of participants indicated that they were first generation college students. Relationship length ranged from .25 to 15.25 years, with a mean relationship length of 1.60 years ($SD = 1.60$). Participants reported hearing about the study from their undergraduate psychology course/psychology department's HPR system (96%), a friend or colleague (3%), and from a student group, organization or listserve (1%). Percentages may not add up to 100% due to rounding.

Measures

Women's reports of their male romantic partner's pornography use. To date, there have been no validated scales that measure women's reports of their male romantic partner's

pornography use, as all studies focused on this topic have been qualitative in nature. In addition, studies examining men's self-reports of their pornography use typically use a one item question to assess frequency of use (c.f., Carroll et al., 2008) and studies on problematic pornography use have been qualitative in nature. Thus, women's reports of their male romantic partner's pornography use was assessed via a 17 item scale developed for this study, the Partner's Pornography Use Scale, which includes nine items assessing frequency of use and eight items assessing problematic use (see Appendix A for scale items and response options). Items were developed based on a review of the literature on pornography use and were reviewed by two doctoral level counseling psychologists and one doctoral level counselor educator; thus, providing support for content validity. Means scores are used with higher scores indicating more pornography use.

Self-objectification. Self-objectification was measured by the Body Surveillance subscale of the Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (OBCS; McKinley & Hyde, 1996), which consists of eight items that assess the amount that a woman self-objectifies herself by constantly looking at her body and thinking about her body in the way that it may appear to others. Example items include "During the day, I think about how I look many times" and "I often worry about whether the clothes I am wearing make me look good." Each item is rated on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Mean scores are used with higher scores representing higher levels of self-objectification. Reported alpha for scores on this subscale with an undergraduate sample was .89. Structural validity was supported by exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. Construct validity of scores on the OBCS full scale and subscales was supported by its positive correlations with disordered eating, private self-consciousness, and

social anxiety and negative correlations with body esteem (McKinley & Hyde, 1996). Alpha for the current sample was .79.

Body shame. Body shame was assessed with the Body Shame subscale of the Objectified Body Consciousness Scale (McKinley & Hyde, 1996), which includes eight items that reflect how badly a woman feels if she does not meet cultural standards in regard to her body. Example items are, “I feel like I must be a bad person when I don't look as good as I could” and “I would be ashamed for people to know what I really weigh.” Each item is rated on a 7-point Likert scale that ranges from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Mean scores are used with higher scores representing higher levels of body shame. Reported alpha for scores on this subscale with an undergraduate sample was .84. Structural validity was supported by exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. Construct validity of scores on the OBCS full scale and subscales was supported by its positive correlations with disordered eating, private self-consciousness, and social anxiety, as well as its negative correlations with body esteem (McKinley & Hyde, 1996). Alpha for the current sample was .83.

Self-esteem. Self-esteem was assessed using the Rosenberg (1965) Self-Esteem Scale (RSE), which consists of 10 statements reflecting self-worth and self-acceptance. Example items include, “On the whole, I am satisfied with myself,” and, “I take a positive attitude toward myself.” Each item is rated on a 4-point Likert scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 4 (*strongly agree*). Higher mean scores indicate greater self-esteem. Reported reliability coefficient of reproducibility was .93 and scalability was .73 for scores on the RSE. Validity of RSE scores was supported by its positive correlations with measures of peer-group reputation and negative correlations with anxiety and depression (Rosenberg, 1965). Alpha for the current sample was .88.

Depression. Depression was assessed with the Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale (CES-D; Radloff, 1977), which consists of 20 items assessing depressive symptoms experienced during the past week. Example items are “I had crying spells,” and, “I felt that everything I did was an effort.” Each item is rated on a 6-point Likert scale that ranges from 1 (*never*) to 6 (*always*). Mean scores are used with higher scores indicating higher levels of depression. Internal consistency estimates ranged from .85 to .90. Validity was supported by its high positive correlations with other self-report measures of depression, clinician’s ratings of depression, and negative life events, by its ability to discriminate between non-clinical and clinical samples, and by demonstrating that it is conceptually distinct from social desirability (Radloff, 1977). Alpha for the current sample was .87.

Relationship quality. Relationship quality was assessed using the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS; Spanier, 1976), which consists of 32 items reflecting the quality of adjustment in romantic relationships along four dimensions: Dyadic Consensus, Dyadic Satisfaction, Dyadic Cohesion, and Affectional Expression. Participants are asked to rate the extent of agreement between themselves and their partner on a variety of items such as “handling family finances and “leisure time interests and activities.” Mean scores are used with higher scores indicating greater relationship quality. Reported alpha for scores on the DAS was .96. Validity was supported by expert judges, positive correlations between the DAS and other measures of relationship adjustment, and discriminating between divorced and married individuals on each item (Spanier, 1976). Alpha for the current sample was .91.

Sexual satisfaction. Sexual satisfaction was assessed using the sexual satisfaction subscale of the Multidimensional Sexuality Questionnaire (MSQ; Snell, Fisher & Walters, 1993), which consists of five items measuring the tendency to be highly satisfied with the sexual aspects

of one's life. Examples items include, "I am very satisfied with the way my sexual needs are currently being met" and "My sexual relationship is very good compared to most." Each item is rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (*not at all characteristic of me*) to 4 (*very characteristic of me*). Mean scores are used; higher scores indicate more sexual satisfaction. Reported alpha for scores on the sexual satisfaction subscale was .90 and test retest reliability was .76 (Snell, Fisher, & Walters, 1993). Validity was supported via exploratory factor analysis and by demonstrating that scores on the MSQ subscales were related in the expected directions to sexual attitudes, sexual behaviors, contraceptive behaviors, exchange and communal approaches to sexual relations, and other instruments conceptually similar to the MSQ (Fisher & Snell, 1995; Snell, Fisher, & Walters, 1993). Alpha for the current sample was .95.

Social desirability. Social desirability was assessed using the short-form of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (MCSDS; Crowne & Marlow, 1960; Reynolds, 1982), which consists of 13 true-false items assessing culturally approved behaviors with a low probability of occurrence. Examples of items include "I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way," and "No matter who I am talking too, I am always a good listener." Mean scores are used with higher scores indicating greater socially desirable responding. Validity was supported by factor analysis and positive correlations between the MCSDS short-form with the original 33 item MCSDS and another social desirability measure (Reynolds, 1982). Alpha for the current sample was .72.

Procedure

Participants were primarily recruited through the University of Tennessee's Department of Psychology human research pool. In addition, participants were also recruited by a research announcement sent via email to the contact person of a variety of university organizations and

student groups who were asked to forward the research announcement to their student group, listserv, and/or eligible friends. Those participants recruited through the department of psychology's human research pool received course credit in their undergraduate classes or the option to enter a raffle awarding a \$100 Amazon.com gift card to ten randomly selected participants. In addition, participants recruited outside of the human research pool system (student groups/listserves) were able to enter the \$100 Amazon.com gift card raffle.

Participants completed an online web-based survey, which included a demographic questionnaire and the aforementioned randomly ordered measures. Once respondents went to the first page and read the informed consent they indicated consent to take the survey by clicking a button. Then they were directed to the webpage containing the survey. Procedures for this website survey were based on published suggestions (Buchanan & Smith, 1999; Michalak & Szabo, 1998; Schmidt, 1997). Methods for protecting confidentiality included having participants access the survey via a hypertext link rather than e-mail and the use of a separate course credit/gift certificate raffle database so there was no way to connect a person's on-line course credit/gift certificate raffle submission with her submitted survey. Methods used for ensuring data integrity included the use of a secure server protected with a firewall to prevent tampering with data and programs by "hackers" and inadvertent access to confidential information by research participants.

CHAPTER III – RESULTS

Partner's Pornography Use Scale Psychometrics

To establish structural validity for the Partner's Pornography Use Scale, an exploratory factor analysis using principal axis factoring (PAF) with promax rotation was conducted. The chi-square test of sphericity was significant ($p < .001$), which indicates that the data was appropriate for factor analysis (Kahn, 2006). The Kaiser-Meyer-Okin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy yielded a value of .91, which indicates that the sample size was large enough to evaluate the factor structure (Kahn, 2006). Five criteria were used to determine the number of factors to be extracted and rotated for the final solution: (a) parallel analysis, (b) Velicer's minimum average partial (MAP) test, (c) a minimum loading of three items on each factor, (d) percentage of total variance explained by each factor, and (e) interpretability of the solution, using a factor loading cutoff of .40 and no cross-loadings with less than .15 difference from an items' highest factor loading (Kahn, 2006; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006).

Results of the parallel analysis and Velicer's MAP test conducted using O'Connor's (2000) programs for SPSS both indicated a two factor solution that accounted for 64% of the variance. Because we assumed that the factors would be correlated we used promax rotation. Inspection of the factor correlation matrix supported this choice with the two factor solution at .33 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). All the pornography frequency of use items loaded on Factor 1 and accounted for 43% of the variance. All of the problematic pornography use items loaded on Factor 2 and accounted for 21% of the variance. Table 1 shows factor loadings, possible range, means, and standard deviations for the Partner's Pornography Use Scale items. Factor loadings

ranged from .55 to .94 for the frequency of use subscale and .46 to .92 for the problematic use subscale. Internal consistencies (alpha) for scores were .92 for the frequency of use subscale, .90 for the problematic use subscale, and .91 for the full scale. Initial evidence for construct validity was provided by positive correlations between the frequency of pornography use and problematic pornography use subscales ($r = .37, p < .05$). In addition, discriminant validity was supported by no significant relationships between the frequency of pornography use subscale, problematic pornography use subscale, and pornography use full scale and social desirability ($r_s = -.05, -.10, -.09, p_s > .05$) and relationship length ($r_s = .06, -.04, .01, p_s > .05$).

Pornography Use and Psychological and Relational Outcomes

Means, standard deviations, skewness, kurtosis, and correlations among the study variables are presented in Table 2. Examination of the distributions revealed that many of the main variables (frequency of pornography use, problematic pornography use, self-objectification, self-esteem, depression, relationship quality, sexual satisfaction and relationship length) had significant skew and/or kurtosis at the $p < .05$ level; however, these are unlikely to make a substantive difference in the analyses given this study's large sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Subsequently, transformations (square root or log) of these variables resulted in acceptable, non-significant values for skew and kurtosis for self-objectification, self-esteem, depression, relationship quality, and relationship length. The frequency of pornography use, problematic pornography use, and sexual satisfaction were still skewed but much improved by the transformation (i.e., for frequency of pornography use skew was reduced from 1.21 to .86, standard error = .28, and kurtosis was reduced from 1.17 to -.06, standard error = .28; for pornography problematic use skew was reduced from 1.62 to .79, standard error = .28, and

kurtosis was reduced from 2.61 to -.23, standard error = .28, and for sexual satisfaction skew was reduced from -1.047 to .72, standard error = .28 and kurtosis was went from .07 to -.64 standard error = .28).

Next, all the analyses were conducted first with non-transformed data and then again with the transformed values. Significance levels and the directions of the relationships (i.e., signs on the beta weights) did not change meaningfully from those obtained with the non-transformed data. Thus, for clarity in presentation of the data and because the transformation process did not alter the results, the statistical results that were obtained using the non-transformed data are presented.

To test hypothesis 1, a Pearson *r* correlation was conducted to examine the relationship between women's reports of their male romantic partners' pornography use and women's self-objectification, body shame, self-esteem, depression, relationship quality, and sexual satisfaction. Results from the analyses revealed that greater frequency of pornography use by a male partner was negatively correlated with relationship quality ($r = -.16, p < .05$). More problematic use of pornography was negatively correlated with self-esteem ($r = -.13, p < .05$), relationship quality ($r = -.20, p < .05$), and sexual satisfaction ($r = -.26, p < .05$). These results are consistent with our hypothesis that the greater use of pornography will be negatively related to self-esteem, relationship quality, and sexual satisfaction. Contrary to our hypotheses, no significant correlations were found between pornography use, both frequency and problematic use, and self-objectification, body shame, and depression.

To test hypothesis 2, path analyses were used to examine the mediational roles of self-objectification and body shame in the links between women's reports of their male romantic partner's pornography use and the theorized outcomes. For mediation to be interpreted there

must be a significant relationship between the predictor and the criterion and a significant indirect relationship between the predictor and the criterion through the mediators. Note that scholars have recently observed that it is not necessary for both the component paths of the indirect effect to be statistically significant (Mallinckrodt, Abraham, Wei, & Russell, 2006). As noted above, partner's frequency of pornography use was only significantly related to relationship quality and partner's problematic pornography use was only significantly related to self-esteem, relationship quality, and sexual satisfaction. None of the other theorized predictor-criterion relationships were significant. Thus, the theorized mediational relations of self-objectification and body shame were conducted for only these relationships.

To test whether these four-step chains of mediation were significant (see Figure 1) bootstrap analyses were conducted to create 1,000 bootstrap samples from the dataset and to compute 95% confidence intervals (CI) for the hypothesized indirect relations. If the 95% CI does not include 0, then the indirect link is statistically significant at $p < .05$. Results indicated that the self-objectification to body shame link (unstandardized coefficients for indirect path = .008; $se = .006$ and for 95% CI = -.002 - .025) did not mediate the relationship of partner's frequency of pornography use and women's relationship quality. Results also indicated that the self-objectification to body shame link did not mediate the relationship of partner's problematic pornography use and women's self-esteem (unstandardized coefficients for indirect path = .028; $se = .021$ and for 95% CI = -.009 - .074); relationship quality (unstandardized coefficients for indirect path = .008; $se = .006$ and for 95% CI = -.002 - .025), nor sexual satisfaction (unstandardized coefficients for indirect path = .009; $se = .009$ and for 95% CI = -.002 - .039).

To test hypothesis 3, a series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine the potential moderating role of relationship length in the links between pornography

use, both frequency and problematic use, and relationship quality and sexual satisfaction. Reported sample power analyses based on Aiken and West (1991) suggested that the sample size of 311 was large enough to detect an interaction of large and moderate effect sizes but well under what is needed to detect a small effect size. Prior to these analyses, scores for measures of frequency of pornography use, problematic pornography use, and relationship length were centered (i.e., put into deviation units by subtracting their sample means to produce revised sample means of zero) to reduce multicollinearity between the interaction terms and other predictor variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The centered scores were used to create the interaction terms. Absolute value correlations were all below .90, variance inflation factors were all below 10, and condition indexes were all below 30, confirming that multicollinearity was not a problem (Myers, 1990; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Main effects were entered at Step 1 and interaction effects at Step 2. Evidence for a moderator effect is noted at Step 2 by a statistically significant increment in R^2 and beta weight. Results from the analyses predicting relationship quality are presented in Table 3. Contrary to the hypothesis, relationship length did not moderate the frequency of pornography use-relationship quality link, and relationship length did not moderate the problematic pornography use-relationship quality link.

Results from the analyses predicting sexual satisfaction are presented in Table 4. Contrary to the hypothesis, relationship length did not moderate the frequency of pornography use-sexual satisfaction link. Supporting the hypothesis, relationship length did moderate the relationship between problematic pornography use and sexual satisfaction, $R^2 = .10$, $F(1, 307) = 11.51$, $p < .05$. Problematic pornography use ($\beta = -.28$) and the interaction of problematic pornography use and relationship length ($\beta = -.19$) were the only significant predictors of sexual

satisfaction (see Table 4). The interaction of problematic pornography use and relationship length accounted for 3.5 % of the variance above and beyond that accounted for by the variables entered at step 1. Relationship length was not a significant predictor of sexual satisfaction.

To interpret the statistically significant interaction, regression lines for the full sample were plotted using Aiken and West's (1991) procedure. Sexual satisfaction scores for problematic pornography scores of one standard deviation below and above the mean and low relationship length (one standard deviation below the mean) versus high relationship length (one standard deviation above the mean) were plotted on a graph (see Figure 2). Aiken and West's (1991) simple slope analysis showed that partner's problematic pornography did not predict sexual satisfaction for women with low relationship length, whereas partner's problematic pornography use did predict sexual satisfaction for women with high relationship length, $\beta = -.489$, $t = -5.686$, $p < .001$.

CHAPTER IV-DISCUSSION

The findings of the current study revealed that women's reports of their male partner's problematic pornography use were negatively associated with their self-esteem, relationship quality, and sexual satisfaction. In addition, frequency of pornography use was also negatively related to relationship quality. These findings are consistent with previous qualitative descriptions of women's experiences after they discover their male partner's heavy involvement in pornography. For example, Bergner and Bridges (2002) reported a common theme among female participants was that felt they could not compete with the sexual and physical ideals portrayed in pornographic materials, resulting in conflictual feelings about their self-worth. Relatedly, perceived negative effects of pornography on relational and sexual outcomes were evident in qualitative studies conducted by Shaw (1999) and Zitman (2007).

The findings of the present study also suggest that perceptions of a partner's problematic pornography use may be more important than perceptions of the partner's frequency of use on their feelings about themselves and their romantic relationships. One explanation for this finding may be that some pornography use by males is considered normative in U.S. culture and it is only when the use becomes problematic and begins to interfere with day to day functioning that it may have damaging effects. In addition, men who view pornography compulsively or addictively may be more likely to become isolated and emotionally detached from their female partner's experiences and needs, which in turn, leads to lower relationship quality and less sexual satisfaction (Cooper, Griffin-Shelley, Delmonico, & Mathy, 2001).

Conversely, results revealed no significant correlation between pornography use and self-objectification, body shame, and depression. This is quite contrary to the literature, as several studies (Bergner & Bridges, 2002; Shaw, 1999; Zitzman, 2007), reported women's increased

body dissatisfaction and psychological distress after the discovery of their male partner's use of pornography. One explanation for this finding is that when male partners view pornography they are not being directly objectified, rather their male partners are objectifying other women, which may not translate into negative effects on body image and mental health. In addition, young adult women already experience self-objectification, body shame, and depression as a result of living in a culture saturated by objectification and this additional objectifying experience may have no effect on their self-objectification, body shame, and depression (Gervais, Vescio, & Allen, in press; Moradi & Huang, 2008). Alternatively, it may be that our sample of female participants were a unique group in which due to age ($M = 19$ years) and perhaps less investment or commitment in the relationship, were less likely to experience self-objectification, body shame, and depression. Previous studies have tended to sample women in an older age group and women in married or longer-term partnerships than the current study. Perhaps samples using more committed and long-term relationships would yield significant results. Finally, given that self-objectification and body shame were not related to perceptions of a partner's pornography use it is not surprising that the hypothesized mediational models were not supported.

The current study examined the potential moderating role of relationship length in the links between pornography use, both frequency and problematic use, and relationship quality and sexual satisfaction. The only significant finding occurred for the interaction of problematic pornography use and relationship length in predicting sexual satisfaction. The results indicated that significant risk or dissatisfaction was associated with high relationship length. This is consistent with the notion that participants in shorter relationships may be less affected by their partner's behavior and attitudes. Future research might examine actual commitment or

relationship investment levels as potential moderators in the partner pornography use-relational quality and sexual satisfaction links.

The findings of the present study provide initial support for the reliability and validity of the Partner's Pornography Use Scale for assessment of women's reports of their male partner's frequency and problematic pornography use. Structural validity was supported via exploratory factor analysis. Construct validity was supported by expert review, positive correlations between the frequency of pornography use and problematic pornography use subscales, and by theorized negative correlations between pornography use and self-esteem and relational outcomes. Discriminant validity was supported by demonstrating that pornography use was conceptually distinct from social desirability and relationship length. While the results of the current study are encouraging, further support for reliability and validity for the Partner's Pornography Use Scale is needed. Future research is needed to examine test-retest reliability of scores of the Partner's Pornography Use Scale. Additional support for structural validity could be accomplished through confirmatory factor analysis and cross-validation using more diverse female samples.

Limitations

The current study is limited by a convenience sample that was predominately White, highly educated, financially privileged, and in predominantly short term relationships; therefore generalizability of findings may be limited to women in these demographic groups. In addition, women in shorter or less committed relationships may have less awareness of their partner's behavior and attitudes due to the nature of the relationship. For example, in a marital or more long-term, committed relationship, partners may live together, share a space, and be more aware of each other's behaviors and interpersonal patterns. Partners in a close relationship tend to share goals and plans with their significant other in addition to developing a pattern of communicating

(Simpson, 1987). College students may not experience as much commitment, intimacy, and awareness of another person during this developmental stage of life. Acker and Davis (1992) reported that participants indicated greater levels of commitment in married or more serious relationships versus unmarried relationships.

Additionally, college students, particularly students just leaving high school and their hometowns may find themselves in a long-distance relationship. The physical separation experienced in these relationships may also contribute to less intimacy or closeness, and in return, less awareness of a partner's general behaviors and patterns. The current study did not inquire about long-distance relationship status, although previous research reports that approximately 66% of college students in long-distance relationships did not believe their partnerships would endure for the remainder of the school-year (Helgeson, 1994). Furthermore, participants in long-distance relationships reported less relational satisfaction when they spent time with their partner for less than one visit a month (Holt & Stone, 1988).

Finally, individual differences regarding attitudes and beliefs about pornography may have contributed to participant's endorsement of survey items. For example, Senn (1993) found that women's attitudes about pornography ranged from anti-pornographic and scathing to mildly positive. It is likely that our sample consisted of women who experience different attitudes and beliefs about pornography; therefore, their feelings about their partner's pornography use may have been viewed as non-problematic, acceptable, or even positive. Finally, given the restricted sample and distribution of scores on the partner's pornography use measure, it is likely that Pearson's r may have underestimated the magnitude of the relationship between partner's pornography use and psychological and relational outcomes assessed in this study (Kirk, 1990).

Directions for Future Research

Clearly, more research about how women are affected by their partner's use of pornography is needed. Future research should include samples of longer-term relationships, married women, women living with their partners, more varied age ranges, and groups recruited from other contexts (e.g., church groups, community organizations, professional organizations, counseling and psychological centers). In addition, investigations are needed that assess men's reports of their pornography use as predictors of their female partner's psychological, relational, and sexual outcomes.

While much of the previous literature indicates that women's views about pornography are generally less favorable than men, assessing women's perspectives about pornography may give a clearer picture of how pornography affects them. As such, future research might examine the potential moderating effects of women's attitudes toward pornography in the link between their male partner's pornography use and psychological and relational outcomes. For example, the link between pornography use and relational and sexual satisfaction may be stronger for women who hold more negative views toward pornography. Building on the findings from qualitative research (Bergner & Bridges, 2002; Shaw, 1999; Zitzman, 2007), future research might examine the mediational roles of attachment styles and relationship commitment, trust, betrayal, and conflict in the link between partner's pornography use and psychological distress, relationship quality, and sexual satisfaction.

Clinical Implications

The current study's findings may aid clinicians when working with women who are or who have experienced problems related to their male romantic partner's pornography use. Counseling interventions might first focus on assessing the extent to which a female client perceives her male partner's pornography use. Then counselors might facilitate the exploration

of how this pornography use may be related to their client's feelings about themselves and their relationships. Educating clients about the connections between male partner's pornography use and their women's self-esteem, relationship quality, and sexual satisfaction might also be helpful.

In conclusion, the current study adds to the burgeoning body of qualitative research demonstrating the negative impact that a male partner's problematic pornography use can have on their female partner's self-esteem, relationship quality, and sexual satisfaction. This study extends prior research by using a multiple-item measure to assess pornography use, a large non-clinical sample of women, and a quantitative design. The results of this study also support the use of the Partner's Pornography Use Scale as a research tool to further our understanding of the impact of a male partner's pornography use on women in heterosexual relationships.

REFERENCES

- Acker, M. & Davis, M.H. (1992). Intimacy, passion and commitment in adult romantic relationships: A test of the triangular theory of love. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 9(21), 21-50.
- Ackman, D. (2001, April). How big is porn? *Forbes Magazine*.
- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Arnett, J.J. (2006). Emerging adulthood in Europe: A response to Bynner. *Journal of Youth Studies*, 9(1), 111-123.
- Bartky, S. L. (1990). *Femininity and domination*. New York: Routledge, Chapman & Hall.
- Bergner, R. M. & Bridges, A. J. (2002). The significance of heavy pornography involvement for romantic partners: Research and clinical implications. *Journal of Sex and Marital Therapy*, 28(3), 193-206.
- Buchanan, T., & Smith, J. L. (1999). Using the Internet for psychological research: Personality testing on the World Wide Web. *British Journal of Psychology*, 90, 125-144.
- Buzzell, T. (2005a). Demographic characteristics of persons using pornography in three technological contexts. *Sexuality & Culture*, 9, 28-48.
- Carr, E. R., & Szymanski, D. M. (2011). Sexual objectification and substance abuse in young adult women. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 39, 39-66.
- Carroll, J.S., Padilla-Walker, L.M., Nelson, L.J., Olson, C.D., McNamara Barry, C, & Madsen, S.D.(2008). Generation XXX: Pornography acceptance and use among emerging adults. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 23(1), 6-30.
- Cooper, A., Delmonico, D.L., & Burg, R. (2000). Cybersex uses, abusers, and compulsives: New

- findings and implications. In Al Cooper (Ed.), *Cybersex: The dark side of the force* (pp. 5-19). Philadelphia, PA: Brunner-Routledge.
- Cooper, A., Griffin-Shelley, E., Delmonico, D.L., & Mathy, R. M. (2001). Online sexual problems. Assessment and predictive variables. *Sexual Addiction and Compulsivity*, 8, 267-285.
- Cramer, D. (1998). *Close relationships: The study of love and friendship*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Crowne, D. P., & Marlowe, D. (1960). A new scale of social desirability independent of psychopathology. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 24, 349-354.
- Fisher, T. D., Snell, W. E., Jr. (1995). *Validation of the Multidimensional Sexuality Questionnaire*. Unpublished manuscript, The Ohio University at Mansfield.
- Fredrickson, B. L. & Roberts. T. A. (1997). Objectification theory: Toward understanding women's lived experiences and mental health risks. *Psychology of Women's Quarterly*, 21(2), 173-206.
- Fredrickson, B. L., Roberts, T. A., Noll, S. M., Quinn, D. M. & Twenge, J. M. (1998). That swimsuit becomes you: Sex differences in self-objectification, restrained eating, and math performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75(1), 269-284.
- Gervais, S. J., Vescio, T. K., & Allen, J. (in press). When what you see is what you get: The consequences of the objectifying gaze for women and men. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*.
- Helgeson, V. S. (1994). The effects of self- beliefs and relationship beliefs on adjustment to a relationship stressor. *Personal Relationships*, 1, 241-258.

- Holt, P. A. & Stone, G. L. (1988). Needs, coping strategies, and coping outcomes associated with long-distance relationships. *Journal of College Student Development*, 29, 136-141.
- Hughes, D. (1999). The Internet and the Global Prostitution Industry. In S. Hawthorne & R. Klein (Eds.), *Cyberfeminism: Connectivity, Critique, and Creativity* (pp.157-184). North Melbourne, AU: Spinifex Press.
- Jensen, R (2007). *Getting off: Pornography and the end of masculinity*. Boston, MA: South End Press.
- Kahn, J. H. (2006). Factor analysis in counseling psychology research, training, and practice: Principles, advances, and applications. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 34, 684-718.
- Kirk, R. E. (1990). *Statistics: An introduction (3rd Edition)*. Fort Worth, TX: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
- Kozee, H.B., Tylka, T.L., Augustus-Horvath, C.L., & Denchik, A. (2007). Development and psychometric evaluation of the Interpersonal Sexual Objectification Scale. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 31(2), 176-189.
- Linton, D. (1979). Why is pornography offensive? *The Journal of Value Inquiry*, 13(1), 57-62.
- Lottes, I., Weinberg, M, & Weller, I. (1993). Reactions to pornography on a college campus: For or against? *Sex Roles*, 29, 69-89.
- Mallinckrodt, B., Abraham, W. T., Wei, M., & Russell, W. (2006). Advances in testing the statistical significance of mediation effects. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 53, 372-378.
- McKinley, N. M. (1998). Gender differences in undergraduates' body esteem: The

- mediating effect of objectified body consciousness and actual/ideal weight discrepancy. *Sex Roles*, 39(1-2), 113-123.
- McKinley, N.M., & Hyde, J.S. (1996). The Objectified Body Consciousness Scale: Development and validation. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 20, 181-215.
- Mercurio, A. E., & Landry, L. J. (2008). Self-objectification and well-being: The impact of self-objectification on women's overall sense of self-worth and life satisfaction. *Sex Roles*, 58, 458-466.
- Michalak, E. E., & Szabo, A. (1998). Guidelines for internet research: An update. *European Psychologist*, 3(1), 70-75.
- Mitchell, K.J, Finkelhor, D., &Wolak, J. (2005). The internet and family and acquaintance sexual abuse. *Child Maltreatment*, 10(1), 49-60.
- Moradi, B., Dirks, D., & Matteson, A. V. (2005). Roles of sexual objectification experiences and internalization of standards of beauty in eating disorder symptomology: A test and extension of Objectification Theory. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 52, 420-428.
- Moradi, B., & Huang, Y. (2008). Objectification Theory and Psychology of Women: A decade of advances and future directions. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 32, 277-398.
- Myers, R. (1990). *Classical and modern regression with application* (2nd ed.). Boston: Duxbury.
- Noll, S. M. & Fredickson, B. L. (2006). A mediational model linking self-objectification, body shame, and disordered eating. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 22(4), 623-636.
- O'Connor, B. P. (2000). SPSS and SAS programs for determining the number of components using parallel analysis and Velicer's MAP test. *Behavior Research Methods, Instrumentation, and Computers*, 32, 396-402.

- Petersen, J. L., & Hyde, J. S. (2010). A meta-analytic review of research on gender differences in sexuality, 1993–2007. *Psychological Bulletin*, 136, 21-38.
- Oxford English Dictionary (2008). Pornography. Retrieved March 31 2010, from http://dictionary.oed.com/cgi/entry/50184353?single=1&query_type=word&queryword=pornography&first=1&max_to_show=10
- Radloff, L.S. (1977). The CES-D scale: A self report depression scale for research in the general population. *Applied Psychological Measurement*, 1, 385-401.
- Reynolds, W. M. (1982). Development of reliable and valid short forms of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 38, 119-125.
- Ropelato, J. (2007). *Internet pornography statistics*. Retrieved March 8, 2010, from <http://internet-filter-review.toptenreviews.com/internet-pornography-statistics.html>
- Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Schmidt, W. C. (1997). World-Wide Web survey research: Benefits, potential problems, and solutions. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments & Computers*, 2, 274-279.
- Senn, C.Y. (1993). Women's multiple perspectives and experiences with pornography. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 17, 319-341.
- Shaw, S. M. (1999). Men's leisure and women's lives: The impact of pornography on women. *Leisure Studies*, 18(3), 197-212.
- Simpson, J.A. (1987). The dissolution of romantic relationships: Factors involved in relationship stability and emotional distress. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 53(4), 683-692.

- Snell, W.E., Fisher, T.D. & Walters, A.S. (1993). The multidimensional sexuality questionnaire: An objective self-report measure of psychological tendencies associated with human sexuality. *Annals of Sex Research*, 6, 27-55
- Spanier, G.B. (1976). Measuring dyadic adjustment: new scales for assessing the quality of marriage and similar dyads. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 38, 15-38.
- Sun, C., Bridges, A., Wosnitzer, R., Scharrer, E., & Liberman, R. (2008). A comparison of male and female directors in popular pornography: What happens when women are at the helm? *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 32, 312-325.
- Szymanski, D.M. & Henning, S.L. (2007). The role of self-objectification in women's depression: A test of Objectification Theory. *Sex Roles*, 56, 45-53.
- Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *Using multivariate statistics* (4th ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Tiggeman, M., & Kuring, J. K. (2004). The role of body objectification in disordered eating and depressed mood. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 43, 299- 311.
- Wallmyr, G., & Welin, C. (2006). Young people, pornography, and sexuality: Sources and attitudes. *The Journal of School Nursing*, 22(5), 290-295.
- Wei, M., Russell, D.W., Mallinckrodt, B., & Vogel, D.L. (2007). The experiences in close relationship scale (ECR)- short form: Reliability, validity, and factor structure. *Journal Of Personality Assessment*, 88(2), 187–204
- Worthington, R. L., & Whittaker, T. A. (2006). Scale development research: A content analysis and recommendations for best practices. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 34, 806-838.
- Zitzman, S.T. (2007). *Pornography viewing as attachment trauma in pair-bond relationships—A*

theoretical model of mechanisms. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah.

APPENDIX

PARTNER'S PORNOGRAPHY USE SCALE

Frequency of Use Subscale

1. Circle the statement that most accurately describes your situation;
 - a. To my knowledge, my partner has NOT used pornographic materials (including online, magazines, DVD/videos/movies).
 - b. To my knowledge, my partner HAS used pornographic materials (including online, magazines, DVD/videos/movies)

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Most of the time
1	2	3	4	5

2. How frequently does your boyfriend/partner view sexually explicit materials/pornography via adult magazines (e.g., Playboy, Hustler)?

3. How frequently does your boyfriend/partner view sexually explicit materials//pornography via adult videos, movies, and/or films?

4. How frequently does your boyfriend/partner view sexually explicit materials/pornography via the Internet?

5. Taken together, how frequently does your boyfriend/partner view sexually explicit/pornographic material (such as magazines, movies, and/or Internet sites)?

6. More specifically, how frequently your boyfriend/partner view sexually explicit/pornographic material (such as magazines, movies, and/or Internet sites)?

0 = none

1= once a month or less

2 = 2 or 3 days a month

3 = 1 or 2 days a week

4 = 3 to 5 days a week

5 = everyday or almost everyday

7. Taken together, how many hours per week does your boyfriend/partner viewview sexually explicit/pornographic material (such as magazines, movies, and/or Internet site)?

0 = none

1 = about 1 hour per week

2 = between 2 and 4 hours per week

3 = between 4 and 6 hours per week

4= between 6 and 8 hours per week

5 = more than 8 hours per week

8. When using/viewing sexually explicit/pornographic materials (including online, magazines, DVD/videos/movies) in one sitting, your boyfriend/partner spends approximately _____ amount of time doing such

0 = He does not ever use/view such materials

1= less than 15 minutes

2 = between 15 minutes and 30 minutes

3 = between 31 minutes and 60 minutes

4= between 61 minutes and 90 minutes

5 = more than 90 minutes

9. I do not have any awareness of my partner's use of pornography (including online, books/magazines, DVD/videos), at this time.

True, False

Problematic Pornography Use Subscale

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

10. My boyfriend/partner uses sexually explicit materials/pornography (including online, magazines, DVD/videos) more than I would like him to.

11. My boyfriend/partner's use of sexually explicit materials/ pornography (including online, magazines, DVD/videos) has interfered with certain aspects of his life.

12. My boyfriend/partner's use of sexually explicit materials/ pornography (including online, magazines, DVD/videos) use has interfered with certain aspects our relationship.

13. I wish my boyfriend/partner would stop using sexually explicit materials/pornography.

14. My boyfriend/partner's use of sexually explicit materials/ pornography is a problem in our relationship currently.

15. I believe that my boyfriend/partner uses pornography more than what would be considered a "normal" or "average" amount.

16. My boyfriend/partner's use of sexually explicit materials/ pornography has negatively affected me.

17. I believe my boyfriend/partner is addicted to sexually explicit materials/pornography.

Table 1 Items, Factor Loadings, Possible Range, Means, and Standard Deviations for the
Partner's Pornography Use Scale

Item No.	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Possible Range	Mean (SD)
6	More specifically, how frequently does your boyfriend/partner view sexually explicit/pornographic material (such as magazines, movies, and/or Internet sites)?	.94	-.09	1-6	1.92 (1.16)
5	Taken together, how frequently does your boyfriend/partner view sexually explicit/pornographic material (such as magazines, movies, and/or Internet sites)?	.87	-.01	1-5	1.63 (.89)
4	How frequently does your boyfriend/partner view sexually explicit materials/pornography via the Internet?	.85	.02	1-5	1.67 (.93)
8	When using/viewing sexually explicit/pornographic materials (including online, magazines, DVD/videos/movies) in one sitting, your boyfriend/partner spends approximately _____ amount of time doing such.	.81	-.02	1-6	1.70 (.87)
7	Taken together, how many hours per week does your boyfriend/partner view sexually explicit/pornographic material (such as magazines, movies, and/or Internet site)?	.78	.06	1-6	1.37 (.72)
1	Circle the statement that most accurately describes your situation; a. To my knowledge, my partner has NOT used pornographic materials (including online, magazines, DVD/videos/movies). b. To my knowledge, my partner HAS used pornographic materials (including online, magazines, DVD/videos/movies)	.75	-.09	1-2	1.43 (.50)
3	How frequently does your boyfriend/partner view sexually explicit materials//pornography via adult videos, movies, and/or films?	.69	.11	1-5	1.44 (.73)
9	I do not have any awareness of my partner's use of pornography (including online, books/magazines, DVD/videos), at this time.	.62	-.07	1-2	1.42 (.50)

2	How frequently does your boyfriend/partner view sexually explicit materials/pornography via adult magazines (e.g., Playboy, Hustler)?	.55	.14	1-5	1.32 (.61)
12	My boyfriend/partner's use of sexually explicit materials/ pornography (including online, magazines, DVD/videos) use has interfered with certain aspects our relationship.	-.04	.92	1-5	1.49 (.92)
14	My boyfriend/partner's use of sexually explicit materials/ pornography is a problem in our relationship currently.	-.10	.92	1-5	1.42 (.85)
11	My boyfriend/partner's use of sexually explicit materials/ pornography (including online, magazines, DVD/videos) has interfered with certain aspects of his life.	-.07	.90	1-5	1.36 (.81)
16	My boyfriend/partner's use of sexually explicit materials/ pornography has negatively affected me.	-.07	.86	1-5	1.55 (.97)
17	I believe my boyfriend/partner is addicted to sexually explicit materials/pornography.	-.01	.77	1-5	1.28 (.73)
15	I believe that my boyfriend/partner uses pornography more than what would be considered a "normal" or "average" amount.	.09	.57	1-5	1.55 (.97)
10	My boyfriend/partner uses sexually explicit materials/pornography (including online, magazines, DVD/videos) more than I would like him to.	.35	.53	1-5	1.95 (1.21)
13	I wish my boyfriend/partner would stop using sexually explicit materials/pornography.	.18	.46	1-5	2.45 (1.37)

Note: Factor 1 = Frequency of Pornography Use; Factor 2= Problematic Pornography Use

Table 2 Descriptives and Correlations among Pornography Use and Theorized Psychological and Relational Outcomes

Variable	<i>M (SD)</i>	Skew Statistic/ Std Error	Kurtosis Statistic/ Std Error	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Frequency of Pornography Use	1.55 (.62)	1.21/.14	1.17/.28	---						
2. Problematic Pornography Use	1.63 (.76)	1.61/.14	2.61/.28	.37*	---					
3. Self- objectification	4.78 (1.04)	-.39/.14	-.11/.28	-.03	-.09	---				
4. Body Shame	3.87 (1.04)	.06/.14	-.28/.28	-.05	.01	.83*	---			
5. Self-esteem	3.20 (.50)	-.41/.14	.33/.28	.01	-.13*	-.46*	-.59*	---		
6. Depression	1.72 (.45)	.92/.14	.90/.28	.02	.08	.32*	.39*	-.57	---	
7. Relationship Quality	4.59 (.54)	-.84/.14	.23/.28	-.16*	-.20*	-.13*	-.16*	.31*	-.31*	---
8. Sexual Satisfaction	3.94 (1.17)	- 1.05/.14	.07/.28	-.09	-.26*	-.03	-.80	.18*	-.06	.41*

Note: * $p < .05$.

Table 3 Summary of Hierarchical Regressions Predicting Relationship Quality

Step	Variables	β	t	R^2	R^2 change	Sig. F change	df
1	Frequency of Pornography Use	-.157*	-2.77	.025	.025	.021	(2, 308)
	Relationship Length	-.006	-.11				
2	Frequency of Pornography Use X Relationship Length	.024	.42	.025	.001	.675	(1, 307)
1	Problematic Pornography Use	-.211*	-3.76	.042	.042	.001	(2, 308)
	Relationship Length	-.030	-.53				
2	Problematic Pornography Use X Relationship Length	-.062	-1.10	.046	.004	.271	(1, 307)

Note. β and t reflect values from the final regression equation, * $p < .05$.

Table 4 Summary of Hierarchical Regressions Predicting Sexual Satisfaction

Step	Variables	β	t	R^2	R^2 change	Sig. F change	df
1	Frequency of Pornography Use	-.093	-1.65	.009	.009	.259	(2, 308)
	Relationship Length	.022	.39				
2	Frequency of Pornography Use X Relationship Length	-.099	-1.75	.019	.010	.081	(1, 307)
1	Problematic Pornography Use	-.278*	-5.11	.066	.066	.000	(2, 308)
	Relationship Length	-.021	-.39				
2	Problematic Pornography Use X Relationship Length	-.190*	-3.47	.101	.035	.001	(1, 307)

Note. β and t reflect values from the final regression equation, * $p < .05$.

Figure 1 Objectification Theory Mediation Model for Consequences of Men's Pornography Use on Women

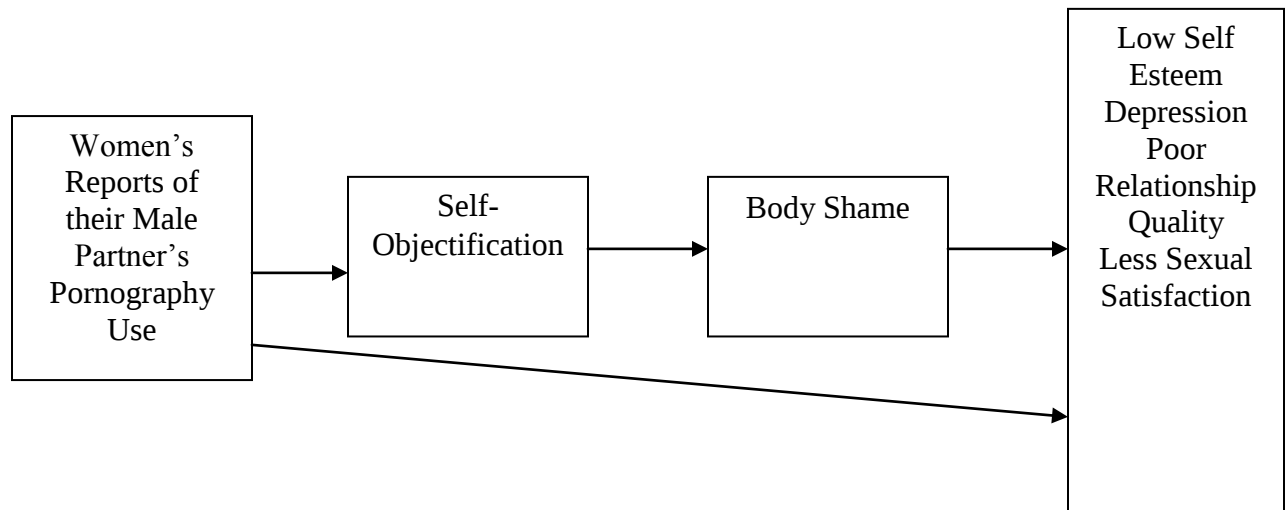
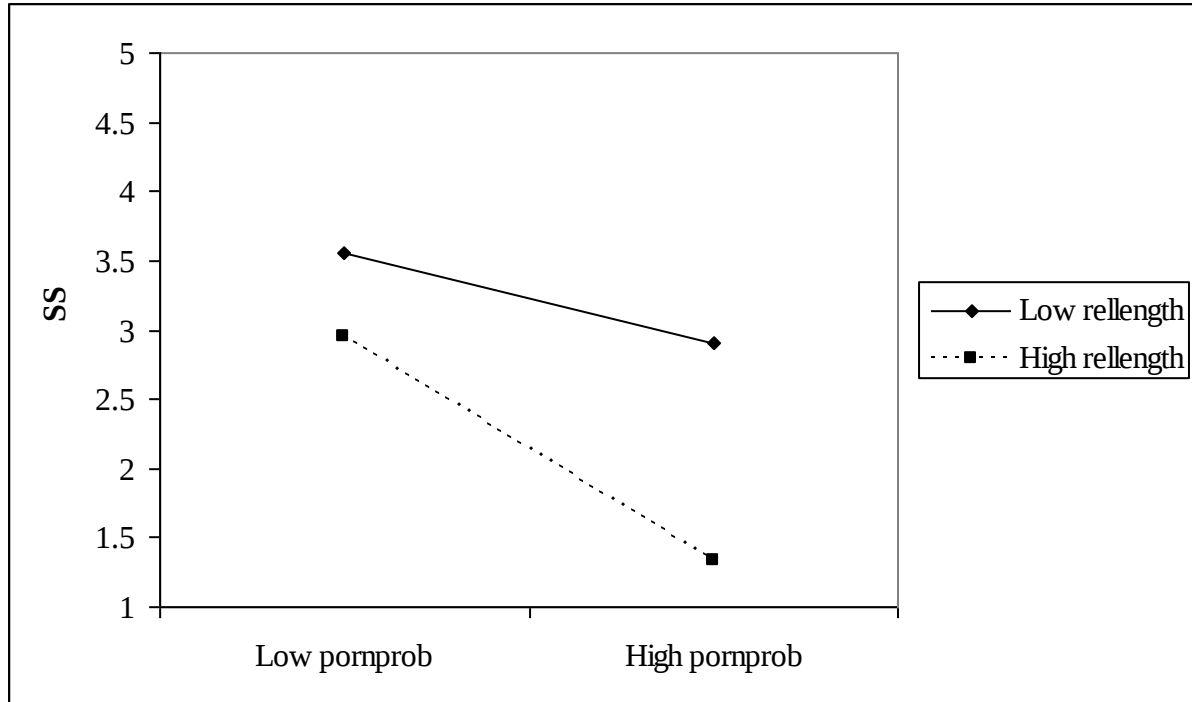


Figure 2 Interaction of Partner's Problematic Pornography Use and Relationship Length on Women's Sexual Satisfaction



Note: SS= Sexual Satisfaction; relength = relationship length; pornprob= partner's problematic pornography use

VITA

Destin Nicole Stewart was born in Memphis, TN on July 14, 1983. She was primarily raised in Destin, FL and attended Fort Walton Beach High School in 2002. From there, she went to Florida State University in Tallahassee, FL and graduated with a B.S. in psychology and a minor in religion in August 2005. Destin then went to Mississippi State University to earn a M.S. in clinical psychology. During that time she worked in inpatient hospitals and behavioral health centers for addiction treatment. After completing her masters degree in August 2007, she went on to enter her doctoral program in Counseling Psychology at the University of Tennessee in Knoxville, TN in the fall of 2007. While in the program, Destin has worked at the University of Tennessee Counseling Center, the University of Tennessee Medical Center, and the Psychology Department Clinic. Destin will complete her Ph.D. within this program following internship at the University of Florida in Gainesville, FL, and anticipates graduation in summer 2012.