"Send Nudes?": Risk Factors for the Perpetration of Inappropriate Intimate Image Based Behaviours and Impacts on Victim Mental Health

By

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Abstract

In 2015 Canada introduced a new law criminalizing the non-consensual distribution of intimate images (s.162.1, Canadian Criminal Code), however, to date the empirical literature surrounding non-consensual distribution of intimate images has been scare. Therefore, two studies examined four inappropriate intimate image-based behaviours (IIIBB; coerced sexting, entertainment-driven distribution of intimate images, revenge pornography and sextortion) in young adults. In total 630 participants aged 18-25 were recruited to participate in an online survey. Originally designed as a two-wave longitudinal study, these studies were reduced to one-wave due to high attrition and low base-rates for IIIBB. Study one examined correlates associated with the perpetration of IIIBB. Logistic regressions demonstrated that are different correlates for the different IIIBB behaviours. Study two demonstrated that all forms of IIIBB victimization are associated with psychological distress and PTSD symptoms, however, the impact on social life did not mediate the relationship.

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With this, I dedicate this thesis to every little girl who learns a little differently, or who was told she was not capable enough to achieve her dreams. You can, and you will.

Table of Contents

Tables Page

Figures Page

List of Appendices

Chapter 1: Thesis Introduction

Introduction

Young adulthood is often considered the transformational years that occur before adulthood when individuals are exploring, experimenting, and beginning to understand themselves (Vasilenko, Linden-Carmichael, Lanza, & Patrick, 2017). Most pertinent to the present thesis is that during this time individuals are beginning to develop their own sexual identities and form patterns of sexual behaviour (Brown, 2002; Vasilenko et al., 2017). In 2010, results from the Canadian Community Health Survey indicated that 68% of 18 and 19-year-olds and 86% of 20 to 24-year-olds were sexually active. While sexuality is a normative aspect of development, understanding the patterns of sexual behaviours among young adults is important as decisions made in young adulthood may have implications for healthy sexuality in adulthood (Tolman & McClellan, 2011). For example, engaging in risky sexual behaviour is fairly common in young adults, such as the early initiation of sexual encounters, multiple sexual partners, unprotected sex and casual sex (Dehne & Reidner, 2005; Gebresllasie, Tsadik, & Berhane, 2017). For many youth, casual sexual relationships (i.e., sexual encounters outside of committed romantic relationships) are not uncommon, with 38% of sexually active teenagers reporting they have had a casual sexual experience in their lifetime (Manning, Longmore & Giordano, 2005). This number increases in young adulthood, with 58% of young adults reporting a casual sexual experience over their lifetime and 39% reporting casual sexual experiences during the last two years (Giordano, Longmore & Manning, 2011). These behaviours may increase the risk of contracting a sexually transmitted infection; wherein young adults constitute 50% of individuals diagnosed with any sexually transmitted infections, and yet they only represent 27% of the sexually active population (Wilson et al., 2010). Understanding sexual behaviours among young adults is important when considering empirical-based education programs and the best approach to risky, or problematic sexual behaviours.

Technology can be used by people to learn about their sexuality and witness sexual behaviour. Research from the Pew Research Centre (2010) suggests that young adults are engaging with technology frequently (Lenhert, Purcell, Smith & Zickhur, 2010). For example, 81% of young adults aged 18-29 years old are wireless internet users, with 55% accessing the internet on a laptop or cellphone. Additionally, young adults are the most likely age cohort to own a cellphone (93%) and 72% of young adults use social media networking websites. With increased access to internet-enabled devices (e.g., laptops) and social media networks, it is perhaps unsurprising that technology is being increasingly used for sexual purposes (Strassberg, Rullo & Mackaronis, 2014). For instance, while erotic material has existed for many years, the internet has facilitated easier access (Bakker & Taalas, 2007). In the same regard, the internet is used as a means of accessing sexual information, sexual entertainment (such as sending nude images or videos) and finding sexual or romantic partners (Cooper, Griffin-Shelley, Delmonico, & Mathy, 2001). To a much lesser degree, the internet is also used for illegal sexual activity, though most individuals do not use it for such purposes (Cooper, Morahan-Martin, Mathy, & Maheu, 2002; Cooper, Galbreath, & Becker, 2004).

Much of the attention in the area of technology and sexuality has concentrated on adolescence and how their sexual identities are altered with the freedom of the internet (Henry & Powell, 2015a). There has been a particular focus on safety concerns related to internet usage (see e.g. Bryce, 2010), with safety campaigns focused on warning adolescents about the permanence of their 'digital footprints' and how inappropriate internet conduct (i.e., racy or sexual posts) can alter one's reputation (Henry & Powell, 2015a). There has also been an explicit emphasis on 'sexting' in youth in the literature (Draper 2012). Sexting involves the creation and distribution of nude or semi-nude images and videos using mobile phones, applications and the internet (Draper, 2012; Lee & Crofts, 2015). Definitions of sexting have expanded to include sexualized text messages, in addition to images and videos (Chalfen, 2009; Hasinoff, 2013). In the literature, there is significant attention given to the dangers of sexting if images are sent around or get into the hands of people who use them for harm, such as child pornography (Hassinoff, 2013).

Despite this primary focus on sexting amongst youth, there has been less research on sexting behaviours (both risky and otherwise) among young adults. Based on the research that exists, young adults engage in sexting quite frequently with international estimates suggesting that as many as 68% of young adults have sexted in their lifetime (Dir & Cyders, 2015). While some researchers propose that sexting is a normal way to express intimacy and sexual desire (Doring, 2014; Ferguson, 2011), others have suggested that sexting is associated with more risky physical sexual behaviours (Gordon-Messer, Bauermeister, Grodzinski, & Zimmerman, 2012). As young adults are of legal age, consensual sexting is not inherently problematic, however, trouble still arises when images or videos are obtained through coercion, extortion or when intimate images or videos are used to humiliate an individual.

Trouble arises when intimate images or videos are obtained through coercion, extortion, or are distributed without consent. These behaviours fall under the all-encompassing term ‘technology-facilitated sexual violence (TFSV),” which is a term used to describe sexually aggressive behaviors facilitated by technology (Henry & Powell, 2015b, 2016). This term includes several different behaviors, such as online sexual harassment, child pornography, gender and sexuality-based harassment, sexual exploitation, non-consensual distribution of intimate images, virtual rape (virtually describing or persuading someone to perform sexual acts against another without consent) and using technology as a means of committing a crime (Henry & Powell, 2015b; 2016). Despite the myriad of behaviours captured by the term TFSV, the focus of the current thesis is on behaviours that relate primarily to sexting and the non-consensual distribution of intimate images among young adults. The behaviours examined in the present thesis are coerced sexting, entertainment-driven distribution of intimate image (EDDII; distributing an intimate image without consent as a means of social connection or entertainment), revenge pornography and sextortion (further described below). While revenge pornography and sextortion fit the descriptive behaviours of TFSV, we are cautious to conceptualize coerced sexting and EDDII as “sexual violence.” Therefore, for clarity, the four observed behaviours will be referred to collectively as *inappropriate intimate image-based behaviours (IIIBB)* throughout the thesis [1].

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[1] Inappropriate intimate image-based behaviours (IIIBB) refers to coerced sexting, EDDII, revenge pornography and sextortion collectively. However, the non-consensual distribution of intimate images refers to when images or videos are distributed or uploaded without consent when the motive or exact behaviour is unknown (i.e., unknown whether it is EDDII, revenge pornography, or sextortion).

Understanding IIIBB among young adults is important, because preliminary literature on IIIBB suggests that young adults may face mental health, relationship and employment consequences when images are spread or used without their consent (Bates, 2017; Bloom, 2014; Kitchen, 2015; Ryan, 2010). The non-consensual distribution of intimate images and videos predates the advancement of technology (see e.g., Dodge, 2019 for case law breakdown). Nevertheless, technology and the use of the internet have amplified and exacerbated this behaviour, as it allows content to reach larger audiences, it more easily accessed and it can more easily distributed (Boyd, 2011). Research by Dodge (2019) suggested that legal professionals in Canada view the use of technology as an aggravating factor for cases of non-consensual image and video sharing. The internet was designed for content sharing, and thus allows explicit images and videos to be shared with ease (Dodge, 2019). Furthermore, once images are posted on the internet, it becomes difficult to remove them, thus creating a permanence to the image (Bates, 2017).

Given these negative consequences, it is no surprise that Canadian law has slowly evolved to capture the ways in which technology can be used to offend against adults. In 2015, a federal law was implemented under section 162.1 in the Canadian Criminal Code criminalizing the ‘non-consensual distribution of intimate images’ (see appendix A for the Criminal Code law). These provisions protect against any visual recording of a person (photography, film, and video) where the person had reason to believe reasonable privacy at the time of the recording and at the time the image/video was distributed (s.162.1, Canadian Criminal Code). It would appear that revenge pornography and sextortion would be covered under this law. Nonetheless, it is unclear if EDDII is captured under this legislation if there is no physical act of uploading or sending the image, but rather just showing the image to one's social group using their phone or computer. Coerced sexting, while arguably inappropriate, is not covered by this law as the images are not distributed without consent, however, other Canadian laws may capture this behaviour depending on the individual circumstances. The introduction of the new law is an indicator that this behaviour is considered a serious violation against others. Therefore, understanding perpetration patterns and the effects of victimization is imperative for future policy development and to better assist clinicians in assessment and intervention with young adults engaging in IIIBB.

At present, research in the area of IIIBB has been very limited, however, it is gaining more traction. The present thesis aims to better understand risk factors and consequences of IIIBB among young adults. Understanding IIIBBs among young adults is important for two main reasons. First, individuals over the age of 18 could be charged as adults and research on sexual offending often examines youth (12-17) and adults separately. Explicit adult images and youth images are also handled differently in the legal system (Criminal Code, RSC 1985). Young adults are also frequent users of various internet devices, especially where sexting and risky sexual behaviour is not considered uncommon among the age cohort (Dehne & Reidner, 2005; Dirs & Cyders, 2015; Lenhart et al., 2010). Therefore, understanding their experiences with IIIBB is important, as they may be an at-risk population. The thesis adds to the literature by examining different forms of IIIBB separately which is important as risk factors and consequences of victimization may be differentially associated with distinct IIIBBs. By separating the behaviours, it is possible to begin understanding if behaviours involving the non-consensual distribution of intimate images are similar in their motive, or if there are unique factors that differentiate them.

The thesis is comprised of two studies. The aim of study 1 is to lay the foundation for understanding perpetration patterns for various forms of IIIBB to see if there are differences in risk factors for these behaviours. To inform the selection of risk factors, study 1 drew on the work of Mann, Hanson, and Thornton's (2010) work on dynamic risk factors for contact sexual offending to see if these correlates generalize to IIIBB. With a newly introduced law, it is important to better understand risk factors for perpetration, which can assist us in understanding the development of the behaviour, which can directly inform risk assessment and intervention. This is particularly important, given that young adults may be referred to forensic programs for assessment and treatment and there is limited research on whether research on contact sexual offending would generalize to IIIBB.

Study 2 examines the consequences of IIIBB victimization. It builds on what is known about the impact of IIIBB victimization on mental health, as qualitative research suggests that that IIIBB is associated with a multitude of mental health concerns (e.g., anxiety and depression) and has a negative impact on social functioning (see e.g., Bates, 2017). Study 2 is the first quantitative study to examine potential mental health consequences of IIIBB and whether a negative impact on social life as a result of victimization mediates the relationship between victimization and mental health. It also addresses previous limitations in the literature by controlling for the effect of other forms of victimization that could explain negative mental health functioning.

Continuum Model of Inappropriate Intimate Image-Based Behaviour

IIIBB can be argued to exist on a continuum of severity (Kelly, 1987), ranging from less intrusive (coerced sexting) to more intrusive behaviours (sextortion; see proposed continuum at Figure 1.0). Although sexting is often a consensual act, some studies have shown that young adults often feel pressured into sending nude images or videos to their peers or partners (see e.g., Drouin, Ross, & Tobin, 2015; Englander, 2015). Research indicates that feeling pressured may act as a key motivator for why people engage in sexting (Drouin, et al., 2015; Englander, 2015). Thus, *coerced sexting* is operationalized as feeling pressured to engage in sexting. Although coerced sexting does not necessarily include the distribution of images, the use of coercion negates one's willingness and voluntary consent. Fisher (2015) indicates that if one repeatedly asks or pushes someone to engage in a behaviour, it is not true consent. Although it important to improve our understanding of coerced sexting, it is acknowledged that coerced sexting is not an illegal behaviour, though it is arguably inappropriate.

Further, sexting may have further negative outcomes for young adults if the photos are not kept private and are shared amongst friends, colleagues and strangers on the internet (e.g., Döring, 2014). IIIBB has been gaining attention in both the media and in academic literature, however, the empirical literature on IIIBB is quite limited, especially regarding motivations for why someone may share intimate images without consent. The focus has been on malicious intent, such as in the cases of revenge pornography and sextortion; however, one area that has not been explored are instances when intimate images are distributed without consent, but the distribution is done without intentional malice or as an attempt to humiliate the person. Although virtually no research has specifically looked at non-malicious motives for sharing intimate images or video without consent, it is proposed that young adults may share intimate images or videos of others as a source of entertainment, bonding, showing off or "fitting in" amongst their peers. Therefore, this concept of perpetrating as a means of social engagement was explored under the name *entertainment driven distribution of intimate images* (EDDII). EDDII is problematic because it violates initial consent and the expectation of privacy, though it is possible that the victim would be unaware that their images have been shown to others. Again, it is unclear whether a person showing their friends someone's images, without uploading or distributing, would constitute illegal behaviour under s.162.1 of the Criminal Code and there is currently no legal precedent about these types of scenarios. Although the intention of the EDDII may not be innately malicious, it could have similar consequences to other, more intrusive, IIIBB behaviours.

The third behaviour that is examined is *revenge pornography*, which has been inconsistently defined within the literature. In the majority of research, the term revenge pornography has become a catch-all phrase for all forms of IIIBB (e.g., Burris, 2014; Citron & Franks, 2014); however, in other literature, revenge pornography occurs when intimate images of an individual are distributed, often by a vengeful ex-partner, as a means of revenge (Bates, 2017; Dawkins, 2015; Matsui, 2015; Osterday, 2016). Yet, restricting revenge pornography to only romantic relationships is problematic, as there may be many reasons that someone might distribute intimate images beyond the dissolution of a relationship (e.g., DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 2016; McGlynn & Rackley, 2016). Complicating the definition further, some definitions state revenge pornography occurs when the images are uploaded online (Citron & Franks, 2014; Stroud, 2014) while others argue that revenge pornography occurs when images have been disseminated to places of employment, to friends, and to new romantic partners (Bates, 2017). In the present thesis, *revenge pornography* refers to the dissemination of intimate images, regardless of relationship status, as a means of seeking revenge and/or humiliation of the victim.

The final form of IIIBB that will be examined is sexual extortion. Sexual extortion, colloquially known as sextortion, is a form of blackmail that involves someone threatening to expose an intimate image as a means of coercing the victim into doing something, such as sending more nude photos (Wolak & Finkelhor, 2016). There are multiple ways that sextortion can occur. In some cases, romantic partners may be the aggressors, and threaten to expose images to keep the prevent a break-up (Korchmaros, Ybarra, Langhinrichsen-Rohling, Boyd, & Lenhart, 2013; Van Ouystel, Ponnet, & Walrave, 2016). Nonetheless, sextortion does not necessarily include disgruntled romantic partners. There have been instances where perpetrators have gained access to intimate photos of a person by hacking their computer, and then using those photos to blackmail the victim into money or into more pornographic videos and photos (Wittes, Poplin, Jurecic, & Spera, 2016a). While there are certainly parallels between revenge pornography and sextortion, the difference is that sextortion uses the threat of distributing images as a way of receiving favors, whereas revenge pornography aims to enact humiliation through the distribution of images as a form of payback.

Review of the Literature on Inappropriate Intimate Image-Based Behaviour

Overall Prevalence of Non-Consensual Intimate Image Sharing. At this time, understanding the prevalence estimates for the different forms of IIIBB discussed above is difficult to determine, as terms are operationalized differently across studies. Therefore, the prevalence of non-consensual intimate image sharing is first reviewed prior to discussion of the specific behaviours outlined in the continuum model. Adolescents have both higher rates of perpetration and victimization compared to adults for non-consensual intimate image sharing (Walker & Sleath, 2017). Some have argued that this is a result of greater technology use in adolescents compared with adults (Valkenburg & Peter, 2011). If this were the case, it could be speculated that young adults would be close enough in age to adolescents to have similar rates of perpetration and victimization, however, these trends have yet to be explored. Additionally, this does not explain the counterintuitive finding that some studies indicate that adults sext more often than adolescents (e.g., National Campaign to Prevent Teen and Unplanned Pregnancy, 2008; Klettke et al., 2014) and if this is the case, adults may be more likely to be impacted by IIIBB.

Studies have found that there are few gender differences in perpetration of non-consensual image and video sharing more broadly. Reed, Tolman and Ward (2016) found that 0.7 % of males admitted to sharing someone's intimate photos without their permission in the past year or over their lifetime. Meanwhile, 0.5% of females reported sharing intimate images non-consensually within the last year and 1.1% admitted to sharing intimate images over their lifetime (Reed et al., 2016). In a sample of adults aged 18-54 years old, McAfee (2013) found that just over a tenth of their respondents had their personal content leaked without their permission. When someone threatened to disseminate the photos, they carried out with the threats over half of the time (McAfee, 2013).

In adult populations, the prevalence of males who have had their photos distributed without their consent is somewhere between 1.8% - 10.4% (Gámez-Guadix, Almendros, Borrajo, & Calvete, 2015; Priebe & Svedin, 2012). The prevalence of females who have had their photos shared non-consensually is lower between 0.5% and 3.3% (Gamex -Gaudix et al., 2015; Priebe & Svedin, 2012). These results are similar to the national survey "Sex & Tech" by the National Campaign to Prevent Teen and Unplanned Pregnancy (2008) which found that men were more likely than women to have their private images distributed. In a large sample (n = 1182), McAfee (2013) found men were more likely than women to be threatened with IIIBB, and to have these threats carried out. Academic literature continues to support this as a study by Borrajo, Gámez-Guadix, and Calvete (2015) found significant gender differences, with men being more likely to have their images distributed than women. So, while it appears females are more likely to feel pressured and coerced into sexting (Englander, 2015) and to be victims of sextortion (Wolak & Finkelhor, 2016; Wittes et al., 2016a), men are more likely to have their images distributed without consent more generally (i.e., motive is unknown). This is important because it highlights potential demographic differences across the different of IIIBB, which could have implications for our understanding of risk factors for perpetration and on the societal views of victims.

Understanding Coerced Sexting. Several studies have examined the motivations behind sexting behaviour in young people. Among these studies, the most common motivations for sexting were that young people sexted to flirt, to experiment, to gain the attention of someone they were interested in, make a significant other happy, for fun, and to prove they trusted someone (Albury & Crawford, 2012; Englander, 2012; Englander, 2015; Mitchell, Finkelhor, Jones, & Wolak, 2012). As previously stated, these functions are not problematic and suggest that sexting might have a positive effect on individuals and their relationships (Döring, 2014).

Although there are positive benefits to sexting Englander (2012, p. 3) indicated that, "indisputably, the most important motivation for sexting revealed in this study (and others) was pressure or coercion." A study by Lenhart (2009) did not find any gender differences in sexting prevalence yet noted that girls often feel pressured into sexting more often than boys. Aligned with Lenhart's (2009) findings, studies have shown that women also feel coerced or pressured into sexting more often than men (e.g., Englander 2012, 2015; Ringrose, Gill, Livingstone, & Harvey, 2012). Englander's (2015) survey indicated that over half (58%) of respondents, aged 18-19 years old, felt coerced into sexting at least once. Only women responded to feeling coerced into sexting every time they did it (12%; Englander, 2015). At the present time, there have been no studies that examine the impact of being coerced into sending nude images or videos.

Understanding Revenge Pornography. Revenge pornography is arguably the most recent addition to the list of growing IIIBB behaviours. It first made it into the public eye in 2010, when the first revenge pornography website by the name of IsAnyoneUp.com was created by Hunter Moore (Stroud, 2014). Revenge pornography websites, such as IsAnyoneUp.com, allow guests to upload sexual photos of their ex-partners as a means of revenge and then website visitors can comment derogatory things about the victims (Bates, 2017). In addition to spaces for comments, often the victims' personal information is provided, such as their name, links to their social media accounts, their address and their place of employment (Stroud, 2014). IsAnyoneUp.com was popular enough to generate a revenue, with Moore admitting to earning $8,000 to $30,000 monthly from advertising (Hill, 2011, 2012). In a three-month period, Moore received over 10,000 submissions from website users who sought revenge on their partner (Stroud, 2014). Moore eventually sold his website citing “legal pressures” as the reason (Vissor, 2012). At the moment, there are estimated to be roughly 3000 revenge pornography websites in operation (DeKeseredy & Schwartz, 2016). Yet, revenge pornography has grown from strictly uploading photos to websites to a series of other violating scenarios, such as sending the photos to employers, friends and social media (Bates, 2017). Additionally, it is proposed that there could be financial motives for revenge pornography (e.g, IsAnyoneUp.com generated a large salary). It is unclear at this time whether someone is paid for uploading videos or photos to revenge pornography websites. If someone benefits financially from revenge pornography, this might become a strong motive for this type of behaviour.

When examining the literature, it is hard to fully understand the patterns of revenge pornography, because each study has used inconsistent terminology and different measures to assess the phenomenon (Walker & Sleath, 2017). A literature review by Walker and Sleath (2017) indicated a broad range of prevalence estimates depending on how the study was conducted and how revenge pornography was operationalized (0%-35.3%). Some studies have measured revenge pornography in the context of “cyber” dating violence (see e.g., Reed, Tolmam & Ward, 2016; Vagi et al., 2015), others ave drawn on information from the literature on sexting (Klettke, Hallford, & Mellor, 2014; Mitchell et al., 2012), but very few have looked at revenge pornography as an isolated issue (Bates, 2017; Sirianni, 2015). Therefore, it is difficult to understand the prevalence of revenge pornography.

Understanding Sextortion. Similar to revenge pornography, the prevalence of sextortion differs across studies due to varies operationalizations and study methods. However, Patchin and Hinduja (2018) found that approximately 5% of adolescents in their middle school sample had been the victim of sextortion, while about 3% admitted to perpetrating sextortion. Moreover, there appears to be two contexts in which sextortion is discussed in the literature. The first context occurs online, where victims are targeted by people that they have met on the internet and may have never met the perpetrator in person (Wolak & Finkelhor, 2016). There are many examples of this type of sextortion (Wolak & Finkelhor, 2016; Wittes et al., 2016a), such as: perpetrators threatening to edit/manipulate sexualized images of victims and publish them online; threatening to disseminate nude photos if the victim no longer wants to continue sexting; recording victims without their knowledge and then threatening to publish the images in an attempt to blackmail for more images; perpetrators lying about who they are to obtain images; and perpetrators hacking remote computers, taking photos and uploading them.

The prevalence of victimization for online sextortion is unknown. One survey of 1,631 sextortion victims found that 41% of sextortion victims were targeted through online interactions (Wolak & Finkelhor, 2016). Online sextortion is of rising concern, as some research has shown there are large number of victims per perpetrator. For example, in a study by the Brookings Institute (2016), court dockets and documents were examined to find over 80 cases where people had used technology and intimate images to extort someone, with roughly 3000 victims (Jurecic, Spera, Wittes & Poplin, 2016).

A second way in which sextortion has been examined is through face-to-face relationships (Wolak & Finkelhor, 2016). Face-to-face sextortion represents the more common form of sextortion (face-to-face versus online), and involves perpetrators known to the victim (Wolak & Finkelhor, 2016). In these cases, current or former romantic or sexual partners use the threat of image distribution as a means of keeping a failing relationship together (Wolak & Finkelhor, 2016). Wolak and Finkelhor (2016) had aimed to study the retrospective sextortion experiences of adolescents, with a sample of 1,631 victims; however, they found that half of their respondents reported being victimized between the ages of 18-25 years old (young adulthood) instead and that the majority (71%) of the perpetrators were also 18-25 years old. This suggests that sextortion may occur more frequently among young adults.

Very little is known about the perpetration of sextortion. Patchin and Hinduja (2018) found that in a sample of middle school children, that males were more likely to be both perpetrators and victims of sextortion. McGlynn, Rackley, and Houghton (2017) similarly concluded that the majority of sextortion perpetrators are male; however, they reported that their victims are often women and children, which is consistent with McGlynn and colleagues (2017) argument that sextortion is a form of gendered sexual abuse. Wittes and colleagues (2016a) examined various convicted cases of sextortion, found that men were the only perpetrators in their study. They also found that women and children were disproportionately victims, suggesting that sextortion may be a gendered crime issue (Wittes et al., 2016a). Wolak and Finkelhor (2016) found similar information for face-to-face sextortion, suggesting that men perpetrated 89% of the sextortion cases, while females accounted for 87% of victims; however, in the cases of online sextortion, the identities of perpetrators were inaccurate or incomplete, which did not allow for perpetration estimates (Wolak & Finkelhor, 2016).

Similarly, there have been studies that suggest that, while it may follow similar gendered characteristics to other sexual crimes, sextortion can also occur in relationships as a form of dating violence and as a way to control romantic partners in relationships (Vagi et al., 2015; Wolak & Finkelhor, 2016). For example, Wolak and Finkelhor (2016) found that 3 out of 5 victims knew their perpetrator beforehand, indicating that sextortion occurs more commonly in the context of relationships than as a form of "stranger danger."

Conceptualizations of IIIBB

Conceptualizing IIIBB as a specific 'offence-type' is difficult and may vary depending on the type of IIIBB being examined. In the policy literature, it has been suggested that IIIBB is a form of intimate partner violence, i.e. a method of controlling or manipulating one's partner (see e.g., Citron & Franks, 2014). Similarly, the onslaught of publicized cases involving the distribution of intimate images, including images of sexual assault, has sparked discussions about whether IIIBB is a form of cyber-bullying (e.g., Shariff & DeMartini, 2015). Finally, more recent research in the area of revenge pornography has suggested that, due to the sexual nature of the images, it is a form of sexual violence.

In study 1 the literature on contact sexual offending is used to inform the selection of risk factors for IIIBB and several of the risk would appear particularly relevant because IIIBB is sexual in nature (e.g., sexual preoccupation). Furthermore, many risk factors for different offence types are similar (e.g., antisociality is a major risk factor discussed across alltypes of offending; Bonta & Andrews, 2007). Study 2 examines the mental health correlates of IIIBB and drew more on the cyber-bullying literature to inform the study hypotheses. Although there is an established literature on the mental health correlates of contact sexual victimization, Study 2 relied on the cyber-bullying literature because of the online nature of the behaviour.

Chapter Two - Study 1: Risk Factors for the Perpetration of IIIBB

To date there have been relatively few studies on risk factors for the perpetration of IIIBB in young adults. Further, there are no studies that individually examine risk factors for perpetration of coerced sexting, EDDII, sextortion, and revenge pornography, as sextortion and revenge pornography are often studied together under the moniker of revenge pornography (see e.g., Sirianni, 2015). It is possible that different forms of IIIBB have different correlates and the present study aimed to examine risk factors for the different forms of IIIBB.

Prior to discussing potential risk factors, it is important to clarify the term risk factor. For something to be considered a true risk factor, it must precede the outcome (Kraemer et al., 1997). Many studies examine "risk factors," but examine the outcome cross-sectionally. As such, these studies are unable to establish the temporal sequencing of the variables as they cannot establish whether the risk factor precedes the onset or persistence of the behaviour. In essence, cross-sectional studies measure a *correlate,* which is a variable that may be associated with a behaviour, but the temporal association is unknown (Kraemer et al., 1997). A risk factor, then, is a correlate that occurs before a given behaviour and increases the likelihood of the behaviour. To study candidate risk factors for IIIBB, the present study attempted to apply a similar design to Hermann (2015) by utilizing a short-wave longitudinal methodology in hopes of testing the temporal sequencing of the risk factors. Unfortunately, the study became a cross-sectional study due to high-attrition rates and low base-rates for behaviours, leaving only wave 1 data available for analyses (see methods for further information).

Dynamic Risk Factors for Inappropriate Intimate Image-Based Behaviour

Due to limited research on risk factors for IIIBB, it is possible to draw from the literature on contact sexual offending to inform the selection of potential candidate risk factors for IIIBB. Therefore, the comprehensive meta-analysis of Mann, Hanson and Thornton (2010) which examined dynamic risk factors for contact sexual offending was used to identify possible candidate risk factors for IIIBB. The Mann et al. (2010) paper was chosen to guide the selection of dynamic risk factors for three reasons: their criterion for selecting risk factors used both theory and strong empirical evidence, it is a well-cited paper, it is one of the most recent meta-analyses on risk factors for sexual recidivism; and their psychologically meaningful risk factors address dynamic risk factors (i.e., changeable risk factors).

For the purposes of the present study, the risk factors that were categorized as psychologically meaningful risk factors (heavily supported based on three previous meta-analyses) in the Mann et al. (2010) paper will be examined. The risk factors outlined in the meta-analysis that are likely relevant to the various forms of IIIBB are sexual preoccupation (abnormally intense interest in sex), specific atypical sexual interests (anomalous sexual interests in people, objects, or activities), offence-supportive attitudes (beliefs that excuse, justify, or minimize sexual offending), difficulty with intimate relationships, and difficulties with self-regulation (impulsivity, recklessness; Mann et al., 2010).

Sexual Preoccupation. *Sexual preoccupation* refers to intrusive, almost obsessive, sexual cognitions and/or an abnormally intense interest in sexual activity, fantasies, urges and behaviours (Lee & Forbey, 2010; Mann et al., 2010). Sexual preoccupation often includes high rates of masturbation, pornography use, and lengthy promiscuity or frequent sexual intercourse with multiple partners (Jaisoorya, Janardhan Reddy, & Srinath, 2003; Kafka, 2010; Kingston & Bradford, 2013; Långstrom & Hanson, 2006). Research has uncovered that high levels of sexual preoccupation was correlated with sexual recidivism (e.g., Hanson & Morton-Bourgon, 2005; Mann et al., 2010; Marshall & Marshall, 2001).

Sexual preoccupation may be related to IIIBB, particularly sextortion, as there have been instances where individuals have blackmailed someone using their intimate images as a means of securing additional explicit material or retaining a sexual relationship (Jurecic et al., 2016). Further, those higher scoring higher on sexual preoccupation may be at a higher risk for coerced sexting since sexual preoccupation is correlated with higher sexual drive and riskier sexual behaviours (e.g., Kafka, 2010; Långstrom & Hanson, 2006).

Atypical Sexual Interests. Atypical sexual interests, also known as paraphilias, are sexual interests in persons, objects, or activities that are considered outside the realm of normative sexual interests (American Psychological Association [APA], 2013). Although many forms of atypical sexual interests (ASIs) have been explored in the context of sexual offending, particular ASIs may be more frequently endorsed in IIIBB, namely sexual sadism and voyeurism.

Sexual sadism is sexual pleasure derived from inflicting pain and humiliation onto a partner (Lalumière & Quinsey, 1994). Sexual sadism is important in risk assessment as acts of severe sexual violence, such as rape and sexual homicide, may be the result of unmanaged sexual sadism (Mokros et al., 2010). Sexual sadism may be a risk factor for

IIIBB because of the degrading and humiliating content of the behaviours. In accordance with the definition of revenge pornography, a key element is that the act is done as a means of humiliating someone, suggesting that a subset of individuals who perpetrate revenge pornography might be motivated by sadism.

The second ASI that may be associated with IIIBB is voyeurism. Voyeurism is the sexual interest in watching or observing an unknowing person while they are naked, undressing, or engaging in sexual activity (APA, 2013). Revenge pornography and sextortion incorporate elements of voyeurism; however, this does not necessarily mean that a perpetrator is motivated by voyeurism as a sexual interest and behavior are not necessarily synonymous. During both of these behaviours, victims may be watched or filmed in a sexually vulnerable position without their knowledge. This may be particularly relevant for those who upload photos to the internet or who seek revenge pornography out on the internet for sexual pleasure. Further, in the case of sextortion, there are instances where victims have had their computer hacked or victims are watched via webcam, and their photos are used in a threatening context or to blackmail the person. Voyeurism may specifically be a risk factor for sextortion, especially in instances where a computer is hacked, and individuals are filmed without their knowledge.

Offence-Supportive Attitudes. Another candidate risk factor is offence-supportive attitudes, which are attitudes that excuse, justify, or rationalize sexual offending behaviours (Murphy, 1990). These offence-supportive attitudes are considered a form of cognitive distortion (Murphy, 1990). Cognitive distortions are defined as inaccurate conceptualizations of the world (Beck, 1963) and have long been a part of treatment targets for sexual offenders (e.g., Finkelhor, 1984; Stinson, Sales, & Becker, 2008; Ward & Siegert, 2002).

Mann and colleagues (2010) found that offence-supportive attitudes are psychologically meaningful risk factors for sexual violence. Helmus, Hanson, Kelly, Babchishin, and Mann (2013) studied offence-supportive attitudes and confirmed they were predictive of sexual offending. Similarly, Hermann (2015) found that explicit evaluations of rape had moderate to strong positive relationships with sexually aggressive behaviour using a short-wave longitudinal design. If we applied this to IIIBB, a perpetrator may justify what they are doing because it is non-contact, no one is physically harmed and because adults may have consented to sending their photos at some point. Further, they may feel entitled to the images, as they have justified that the person should have known better. Moreover, one study done by Powell, Henry, Flynn and Scott (2019) examined predictors of perpetrating "image-based abuse," which was similarly defined as IIIBB. They found that those with offence-supportive attitudes towards image-based abuse were more likely involved in some form of IIIBB perpetration over their lifetime. It is hypothesized then that it is likely that offence-supportive attitudes that are specific to IIIBB might be associated with all forms of IIIBB.

Difficulty with Romantic Relationships. Mann and colleagues (2010) also proposed difficulty with romantic relationships as a risk factor for contact sexual offending. Difficulty with romantic relationships can manifest in two ways: where the person has no history of intimate relationships and is isolated, and the other is when there is a history of significant interpersonal conflict in their relationships (Mann et al., 2010). In terms of difficulty with interpersonal conflict, revenge pornography (with sextortion occasionally included in the definition) has been examined from the perspective of difficult romantic relationships as a form of interpersonal violence (e.g., Citron & Franks, 2014; McGlynn & Rackley, 2016). Citron and Franks (2014) speculate that revenge pornography and sextortion are often used as manipulation tactics to maintain control within a romantic relationship. Similarly, if a person is feeling isolated, they may use sextortion and coerced sexting to blackmail and/or coerce someone into sending nude images or videos as a means of accessing the intimacy they perceive is lacking. As a result, it would be expected that difficulties in romantic relationships might be associated with coerced sexting, revenge pornography and sextortion.

Antisociality. The last risk factor included in Mann and colleagues' (2010) review is lifestyle impulsivity and difficulty with self-regulation, which consists of characteristics such as poor self-control, chronic instability in employment, inconsistent housing, impulsivity, and irresponsible decision-making. Although not explicitly stated, these characteristics have often been referred to in the risk assessment literature as 'antisocial orientation' or antisocial traits' which are important predictors of recidivism (e.g., Hanson & Morton-Bourgon, 2005) and are considered indicators of a general criminal lifestyle (Gendreau, Little, & Goggin, 1996; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). Antisociality has been correlated with risky decision-making and a tendency to act impulsively to reduce negative feelings (Anestis, Anestis, & Joiner, 2009; Dean et al., 2013). From the perspective of revenge pornography and sextortion it is possible that the threat of a relationship breakdown is enough to trigger those negative feelings and for the person to act impulsively by uploading or spreading the photos around.

In terms of operationalizing antisociality in this study, it is proposed that the Dark Triad may be a risk factor to IIIBB. Similar to impulsivity and antisociality, the Dark Triad is an empirically studied set of personality traits, that include erratic psychopathy (Hare, 1999), grandiose narcissism (Kernberg, 1985) and strategic Machiavellianism (Paulhus & Williams, 2002). These traits have also been correlated with criminal behaviour (Hare & Neuman, 2008). Although these personality traits are similar to one another, there are differences. Unlike antisociality, Machiavellianism involves calculated planning over impulsive behaviour to avoid undesirable consequences (Cooper & Peterson, 1980; Jones, 2014). Those high on Machiavellianism are strategic planners and masters of social manipulation, with a proclivity to exploit others (Jones & Paulhus, 2011). Those high in narcissism, however, tend to show more aggressive behaviours when they feel attacked, deprived, excluded or insulted (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; Bushman, Bonacci, Van Dijk & Baumeister, 2003; Twenge & Campbell, 2003). The Dark Triad personality traits have been found to predict higher levels of relational aggression in young adults, a behaviour that involves damaging or threatening to damage someone's social reputation or relationships through manipulative social tactics such as purposeful ignoring or spreading rumours (Knight, Dehlen, Bullock-Yowell, & Madson, 2018; Werner & Crick, 1999). Knight et al. (2018) examined various personality traits, including the Dark Triad, and found that increased peer relationship aggression was associated with higher psychopathic traits and vulnerable narcissism. Vulnerable narcissism is referring to someone who possesses low self-esteem, interpersonal sensitivity, shame and worthlessness (Pincus & Lukowitsky, 2010). Interestingly, higher grandiose narcissistic traits were negatively correlated with relational aggression (Knight et al., 2018).

In one study, Pina, Holland, and James (2017) examined how the Dark Triad personality traits correlated with propensity to engage in revenge pornography. Propensity to engage in revenge pornography was defined as the likelihood to perpetrate revenge pornography in the future. They found that each of the Dark Triad traits were correlated with an increased likelihood to perpetuate revenge pornography. Therefore, the present study measured these traits as candidate risk factors for all forms of IIIBB, which extends past findings by examining the Dark Triad as a correlate of perpetration and not simply the likelihood it will occur.

Present Study

To our knowledge, there have been no studies that have examined the risk factors for perpetration of different types of IIIBB with the exception of one study by Powell and colleagues (2019) who examined the role of offence-supportive attitudes in the context of IIIBB. With the introduction of a new Canadian law that criminalizes some of these behaviours, understanding the factors that are correlated with different types of IIIBB perpetration is important because they may assist in informing our understanding of the most salient factors to assess. These salient factors can then be used assist with intervention via the selection of potential treatment targets.

Prior to conducting the main set of analyses, exploratory analyses were conducted to examine different demographic characteristics (e.g., age, gender) in relation to the different forms of IIIBB. There are several specific hypotheses which are as follows:

H1: Sexual preoccupation will serve as a risk factor for coerced sexting and sextortion.

H2: Sexual sadism will be a risk factor for revenge pornography and sextortion.

H3: Voyeurism will also be a risk factor for sextortion and revenge pornography.

H4: Offence-supportive attitudes will be a risk factor for all forms of IIIBB.

H5: Difficulty with romantic relationships will be a risk factor for all forms of IIIBB.

H6: Impulsivity and the Dark Triad will be risk factors for all forms of IIIBB.

Although there are several specific hypotheses, exploratory analyses will be conducted to examine how the identified risk factors are associated with different forms of IIIBB. Lastly, we will enter all significant correlates into one model to see whether a combination of risk factors can identify distinct forms of IIIBB perpetration.

Methodology

Sample

Wave 1. This sample included 911 participants who were recruited from a university and a community population. The present sample is a convenience sample. To recruit the university sample (*n*= 217), this study was published on SONA which is a student bonus-point system for participating in psychology studies. The community sample (*n*= 413) was recruited through social media and snowball sampling. Participants were excluded from analyses if they were outside the age range of 18 to 25 years old or if they did not complete all portions of the survey. Further, participants were excluded from analysis if they took less than 10 minutes to complete the study, which was done to avoid collecting data from those who rushed through the survey and may not have adequately attended to items. After applying all exclusion criteria, the total number of participants for analyses was reduced to 630 participants between the ages of 18 and 25 (M_{age} = 21.18, *SD* = 2.21). The average completion time for the questionnaire was 74.77 minutes (*SD* =

40.39 minutes).

In this sample, 66.8% identified their gender as female (*n* = 421), 30.0% as male (*n* = 189) and 2.7% as a gender minority (e.g., transgendered; *n* = 17). Most participants were Caucasian (*n* = 479; 77.0%) and heterosexual (*n* = 470; 76.5%). Further, most participants reported being in some form of a committed relationship (committed relationship, common-law, married, etc.; 47.5% *n* = 295). In the sample, 37.8% of participants were single (*n* = 235) and 14.7% were dating (*n* = 91; 14.7%). Most participants reported having some form of post-secondary education (*n* = 625; 80.4%). For a complete summary of demographic information, refer to Table 1.0. For a complete demographic questionnaire, refer to Appendix B.

The demographic data from the community and student samples were compared using chi-square analyses to ensure that they were similar in composition. The only demographic variables that were significantly different between the two samples were gender and sexual orientation. In the student sample, there were more females and fewer males than expected with the opposite pattern found in the community sample. These differences are to be expected given the well-documented gender imbalances in university student samples, wherein women are overrepresented (Dickinson, Adelson & Owen,2012). Moreover, for the sexual orientation differences, the university sample found fewer heterosexual participants and more sexual minority participants than expected. An opposite finding was found for the community sample. Lastly, chi-square tests of independence were run between the community and SONA sample and the IIIBB for the perpetration outcome variables. No significant differences were found. Thus, it was decided that these samples were enhanced by combining them, as it increased the overall representativeness of the sample.

Wave 2. Participants were recruited from the same sample that completed wave 1 and who opted to participate in a follow-up survey. Participants who were interested in completing wave 2 were able to leave their e-mail address in an external website so that they could be contacted in four months' time. From the total sample, 26.8% of participants left their email to be contacted about wave 2. Out of the participants who left their email, 116 participants completed wave 2, which accounts for 12.7% of the original sample. Of the wave 2 sample, 60.9% identified their biological sex as female (n = 63) and 56.9% identified as heterosexual (n = 66). Further, this sample was 82.7% Caucasian (N = 91), and the majority (n = 91, 79.8%) had some form of post-secondary education. Lastly, 53.7% of participants were in a committed relationship (n = 58).

Measures

IIIBB Perpetration. Seven items were created to assess perpetration of the four types of IIIBB (coerced sexting, entertainment driven distribution of intimate images, revenge pornography and sextortion). The items were created because there is currently no scale that examines perpetration for the different forms of IIIBB. Responses were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1= never, 3= twice, 5= more than 3 times) that assessed the frequency of perpetration for coerced sexting, EDDII, revenge pornography and sextortion. One item asked explicitly about coerced sexting, two items asked about non-consensual image sharing, one item asked about revenge pornography and two items asked about sextortion (Appendix C contains the full scale). For the purposes of our study, these variables were then dichotomized, ‘0’ being never perpetrated and ‘1’ being perpetrated.

To measure EDDII, participants were asked the question, *"How often have you sent or shown someone's sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) images or videos without their permission to your acquaintances, friends, or family”* As this is the first time EDDII has been operationalized in research, an open-ended question was used gauge the reason people showed their acquaintances, friends or family intimate images of another person. The text responses were reviewed and EDDII was determined to be present if the person indicated showing their acquaintances, friends and family as a means of bragging, fun, gossiping, showing off or fitting in. EDDII was measured on a dichotomized scale, ‘0’ = never perpetrated EDDII or ‘1’= perpetrated EDDII at least once over a lifetime. It was not possible to run reliability between these items, as each item measured its own concept (i.e., coerced sexting, EDDII) and some concepts were only measured by one item (see Appendix C).

Sexual Compulsivity Scale. The Sexual Compulsivity Scale (SCS; Kalichman et al., 1994) is a 10-item scale that assesses sexual compulsivity (referred to as sexual preoccupation in the Mann et al., 2010 paper). The scale measures the presence of intrusive sexual behaviours and thoughts and is measured on a four-point Likert scale, from “not at all like me to “very much like me.” A total continuous score was used, with higher scores indicating higher levels of sexual compulsivity.

Previous research has demonstrated that both the reliability and the validity of the SCS are adequate, making it an acceptable measure to assess sexual preoccupation (Benotsch, Kalichman, & Pinkerton, 1999; Kalichman, Greenber & 1997; Kalichman &

Rompa, 1995). The SCS demonstrated significant positive correlations with the Sexual Sensation Seeking Scale ($r = .44$, $p < .001$) indicating that it has convergent validity as well (Ballester-Arnal, Gómez-Martinex, Llario, Salmeró-Sánches, 2013). A more recent study has demonstrated that the SCS has high levels of internal consistency (Chronbach's alphas) across 30 different studies (Hook, Hook, Davis, Worthington & Penberthy, 2010). In the present study the Chronbach's alpha was acceptable at $\alpha = .87$.

The Paraphilia Scale. The Paraphilia Scale (Seto, Lálumiere, Harris, & Chivers, 2012) was used to assess different types of atypical sexual interests. It is an 80-item scale with two subsections. Part one was used to assess sexual arousal for different paraphilias and part two examines lifetime behaviours for the same paraphilias. In the present study, only part one was used as we were primarily interested in paraphilic interests as opposed to paraphilic behaviour. Further, the 80-item scale is quite long so part two was not included to limit the amount of time the study took participants to complete.

ASIs were assessed by asking participants to indicate how arousing different stimuli were on a 7-point scale, from repulsive (-3) to very arousing (3). This total score on the scale is continuous, and a higher score indicates a greater number of ASIs. For this scale, the total ASI score was examined in addition to the individual subscale scores for voyeurism and sadism. Although the psychometric properties of the measure have not been exhaustively examined, it has been used in a number of previous studies and is one of the few comprehensive measures of ASIs (e.g., Chivers, Roy, Grimbos, Cantor, & Seto, 2013; Dawson, Bannerman, & Lalumière, 2016; Seto et al., 2012). For this study, internal consistency was excellent with Chronbach's alpha at $\alpha = .93$. The voyeurism subscale was only measured by one item, and thus examining internal consistency was not possible. Internal consistency was excellent for the sexual sadism subscale α = .85.

IIIBB Victim-Blaming Scale. The Illinois Rape Myth Acceptance Scale (IRMA; Payne, Lonsway, & Fitzgerald, 1999) was used as a guide to create an offence-supportive attitude scale for IIIBB offence-supportive attitudes. The measure was adapted because there is currently no measure that assesses offence-supportive attitudes for IIIBB. The original scale consists of 3 subscales: (1) They Asked for It, (2) It Wasn't Really IIIBB, (3) They Didn't Mean To. Subscale 1: "They Asked For It" consists of 3 items that examine victim-blaming behaviours around IIIBB. These same subscales were used to create questions for relevant offence-supportive attitudes for IIIBB (Appendix D includes the adapted scale). Subscale 2: "They Didn't Mean To" assesses minimization of IIIBB and contains 3 items. Subscale 3: "It Wasn't Really IIIBB" is the largest subscale with 6 items that assess cognitive distortions surrounding the perpetration of IIIBB. The scale consists of 12 items in total and is measured on a five-point Likert scale from "1" strongly agree to "5" strongly disagree. To score this scale, a cumulative total score was calculated with higher scores indicating a higher engagement of victim-blaming behaviour, or more offence-supportive attitudes. This measure demonstrated acceptable internal consistency with α = .78.

UCLA Loneliness Scale - Version 3. The UCLA Loneliness Scale (Russel, 1996) was used to measure a participant's subjective feelings of isolation and social loneliness. It is a 20-item scale with the response key on a four-point scale, from 1 (Never) to 4 (Often). This scale is continuous and higher scores indicate a greater degree of loneliness. Internal consistencies in previous studies have suggested that the measure is highly reliable (α=.89 to .94; Russel 1996). The scale was tested with in multiple samples, college students (*n* = 489), nurses (*n* = 310), teachers (*n* = 316), and elderly (*n* = 310), yielding high consistency across various populations (Russell, 1996). In the college sample, convergent validity was established using the NYU Loneliness Scale and the Differential Loneliness Scale. In the present sample, internal consistency was α = .94, which is considered to be excellent.

The Revised Conflict Tactic Scale – Short (CTS2S). The Revised Conflict Tactic Scale (Straus. Hamby, Boney-McCoy, & Sugannan, 1996) is one of the most widely used scales to measure the tactics people use when resolving conflict among their intimate relationships. For our purposes, the CTS2S was used to assess whether a participant has had difficulties within their romantic relationships.

As the Revised Conflict Tactic Scale (CTS2; Straus et al., 1996) is a 78-item scale, we have opted to use the Short Version of the Revised Conflict Tactic Scale (CTS2S; Straus & Douglas, 2004) which includes 20 questions. The 20 items include a likert scale from *"this has never happened to me"* to this has happened "*more than 20 times in the past year."* For the study purposes, the CTS2 was used to assess whether a participant has engaged in intimate partner aggression. Thus, a cumulative score was taken for the physical, psychological, injurious and sexual coercion subscales.

The CTS2S has concurrent validity, with correlation coefficients between .65 (sexual coercion) and .94 (injuries) when comparing the CTS2 and the CTS2S. Furthermore, there was a high correlation between the short and long form version of each CTS2 scale (Straus et al., 1996). Internal consistency in the present study was considered good, α = .76.

Barratt's Impulsivity Scale Brief (BIS-Brief). The Barratt's Impulsivity Scale - 11 (Patton, Standford & Barratt, 1995; Stanford et al., 2009) is a self-report measure consisting of 30 self-report items that examine a participant's level of impulsivity. The brief version, Barratt's Impulsivity Scale-Brief (BIS-Brief; Steinberg, Sharp, Stanford & Tharp, 2013) was utilized in the present study. This is an 8-item scale measured on a four-point Likert scale. The 4-point Likert-Scale, ranges from 1 being "rarely/never" to 4 being "almost always/always." For scoring, a cumulative total score was used, with a higher score indicating more impulsive tendencies.

The BIS-11 is one of the most commonly used scales to assess impulsivity (Spinella, 2007). Cronbach's alpha in published studies has been between 0.70 and 0.83 (Steinberg et al., 2013). It was tested across three samples at creation: 1) adults in the community, 2) adults exposed to domestic violence, 3) and a psychiatric inpatient sample of teens and young adults. For each sample, reliability was shown, with Cronbach's alpha scores of .81, .74, .83 respectively (Steinberg & al., 2013). Construct validity was found to be similar between both the BIA-11 and the BIS-Brief scores (Steinberg et al., 2013). Internal consistency was also demonstrated in this study as good with $\alpha = .80$.

The Short Dark Triad. The Short Dark Triad (SDT-3; Jones & Paulhus, 2014) is a 27-item self-report scale that was used to assess each facet of the Dark Triad Personality Traits; psychopathy, Machiavellianism and narcissism. Each portion has 9-items, and they are scored on a 5-point Likert scale, 1 (''disagree strongly'') to 5 (''agree strongly''). A total score was used for this scale, with higher scores indicating scoring higher in each of the Dark Triad Behaviours; psychopathy, narcissism and Machiavellianism. Both an overall score of Dark Triad personality traits and a score on the individual subscales for psychopathy, narcissism and Machiavellianism were used throughout this study.

Previous research on the SDT-3 suggests that the scales are reliable: Machiavellianism α = 0.75; psychopathy α = 0.72; and narcissism α = 0.73 (Jones & Paulhus, 2014). Previous research has indicated there is internal consistency among dimensions, and additionally convergent validity with external variables (Furnham, Richards, & Paulhus, 2013; Jones & Paulhus 2014; Lee & Ashton 2005). The subscales of the SD3 have Cronbach's alpha coefficients that range from .70 to .80, as well as a retest reliability of .77 to .84 (Paulhus & Jones, 2011; 2015). The scale has demonstrated adequate intercorrelations with ranges from .22 to .55 (Jones & Paulhus, 2014). For the present study, subscales had acceptable internal consistency: Machiavellianism α = 0.78; psychopathy α = 0.71; and narcissism α = 0.70.

Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. The Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) is a self-report measure used to measure social desirability. It was included to provide a means of controlling for socially desirable responding in participants, given the nature of the survey. The original scale consisted of 33 items in the final version and had good psychometric properties (internal consistency = 0.88, test–retest r = 0.89; Barger, 2002). Convergent and discriminant validity were also acceptable (Barger, 2002).

In the present study, the 13-item short form of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale was used, which has been shown to be the strongest of the short versions (Sârbescu, Costea, & Rusu, 2012; Zook & Sipps, 1985). Answers marked as true are coded with "1" while answers marked with false are "0." A higher score indicates that a participant is more likely to respond in a socially desirable manner. This measure had acceptable internal consistency, α = 0.64.

Procedure

The university psychology student population was recruited from a Canadian university using the psychology department's bonus-point system called SONA. SONA allows students to participate in psychology research in exchange for bonus points that are applied towards a psychology class. In the present study, students were granted .75 bonus points towards a psychology course for their participation.

The community sample was recruited using the internet, specifically Twitter, Reddit, and Facebook. The study was posted on Twitter and Facebook accounts of the author and her supervisor. Reddit was also used, which is a website designed for content sharing and discussion comprised of multiple forums known as subreddits. The authors shared the post on approximately 10 different subreddits which included "r/Sex," "r/SampleSize," and "r/Relationships." The other subreddits were local university and town subreddits such as "r/Halifax," "r/Dalhousie" and "r/NovaScotia." For their participation, community members had the opportunity to be entered into a draw for one of five (5) $200 prepaid VISA gift cards if they participated in both waves of the study.

Prior to their participation, both groups of participants reviewed an online consent form. If the participant chose to complete the study after reviewing the consent form, they first completed basic demographic questionnaires. Following the completion of the demographic questionnaire, participants were asked a series of six personal, yet anonymous, informational questions about themselves that are constant throughout time (i.e., your birth month; see Table 2 for full questions and examples). These Self-

Generated Identification Codes (SGICs) were used to match participants anonymously with their previous data between wave 1 and wave 2. These questions were used strictly to generate an identity profile and were not used for analyses in the present study. This approach has been used successfully in the past in a similar manner during a longitudinal study by Hermann (2015) that examined the relationship between implicit and explicit evaluations of rape and sexually aggressive behaviour. After completing their SGICs, participants completed the remainder of the study.

Once participants completed the questionnaire, they were invited to participate in the second wave that occurred four months after their initial questionnaire completion. Additionally, this procedure followed the methodology of Hermann's (2015) study on contact sexual violence which utilized this time period as well. To maintain confidentiality between responses and contact information, participants were given a separate link to a survey to fill in their contact information. The second survey confirmed participants wished to participate in the follow-up study, asked for their contact information and how they best preferred to be contacted or reminded in the future. Finally, the participant saw a debriefing form that reiterated resources in the community and around the university.

For wave 2, participants who had opted in to participate in wave 2 were invited to partake in the follow-up study using their preferred method of contact. All participants indicated email as their preferred method. Participants were emailed after four months inviting them to participate in wave 2. The email consisted of the link to the new survey and the researcher contact information. Participants were then reminded two weeks after the initial wave 2 email to participate. Questionnaires surrounding sexting behaviours, perpetration and victimization were altered to ask how frequently the participant had engaged in a behaviour or experienced IIIBB in the last 4 months. All other questionnaires remained the same.

Unfortunately, at wave 2, only 116 (12.7%) of participants completed the survey. Of the wave 2 data, only 6.5% (*n* = 7) of participants endorsed perpetrating coerced sexting over te past four months, 6.5% (*n* = 7) endorsed perpetrating EDDII in the last four months, and 0.9% (*n* = 1) admitted to uploading someone's intimate images without their permission to social media or to a workplace over the past four months. None of the participants reported revenge pornography or sextortion perpetration within the last four months. Due to such high attrition and low rates of perpetration, it was not possible to conduct the longitudinal analyses intended for the project. As such, wave 2 dataset was excluded, and wave 1 data was examined. Since temporal sequencing could not be studied, the risk factors are referred to as correlates from here onward.

Results

Main Analyses

For descriptive and item analyses, the means, standard deviations, ranges of the total score, confidence intervals and subscale scores were computed. For each of the measures, skewness and kurtosis were also calculated. Skewness values of over 2 and kurtosis values over 7 were used as reference values for determining substantial non-normality. As such, the CTS2S scale (skewness = 3.76, kurtosis = 20.52) was problematic and Spearman's rho was used to examine its correlation with the different forms of IIIBB. See Table 3.0 for full descriptive analysis of the measures and subscales.

The same statistical approach was utilized to examine the correlates of each of the different forms of IIIBB. First, in order to determine if there were any demographic differences in perpetration for each of the IIIBB behaviours, chi-squares were utilized. The following demographic variables were examined: gender, ethnicity, relationship status, sexual orientation and education level. Secondly, to examine whether or not the proposed correlates were associated with IIIBB perpetration, bivariate Pearson's correlations were conducted between all of the candidate correlates and the IIIBB behaviours. Lastly, correlates that were significant at the bivariate levels were entered into a logistic regression to demonstrate which correlates remained significant when accounting for all other significant correlates.

Descriptive Statistics

Most participants reported that they had sent a sext in their lifetime (80.6%; n=508) and 78.1% reported that they had received a sext in their lifetime (n = 492). Frequencies were examined for each of the IIIBB perpetration behaviours (see Table 4.0). Frequencies indicated that 19.7% of the sample endorsed coerced sexting perpetration (n = 124) in their lifetime and 14.9% endorsed EDDII perpetration (n = 94). The sample size for each of these variables was sufficient to conduct subsequent analyses.

For the three more serious IIIBB behaviours, the rate of perpetration was very low: 3.2% reported uploading someone's nude images or videos online, to social media (n =15) or to the victims' place of work (n = 8); 1.6% of participants endorsed revenge pornography perpetration (n = 10); and 1.6% of participants reported sextortion perpetration (n = 10). Based on the low base rate for revenge pornography and sextortion, it was not possible to conduct the initially planned analyses for these individual behaviours. Therefore, the three perpetration variables for sextortion, revenge pornography, and uploading images to social media or sending them to friends without consent were combined into one variable referred to as the *'illegal distribution of intimate images'* (5.1%, n = 32)[2]. Although the sample size for the illegal distribution of intimate images still fell below 10%, the variable was retained for the purposes of exploratory analyses.

Prior to conducting the main set of analyses, correlations between social desirability and the outcome variables (the three IIIBB behaviours) were conducted to establish whether social desirability should be controlled for in analyses. Bivariate correlation between coerced sexting and social desirability, r (628) = -.047, p = .24, was not significant; however the correlations between EDDII and social desirability, r(628) = -.118, p = .003, and the illegal distribution of intimate images and social desirability, r(626) = -.119 , p = .003, were significant. Therefore, social desirability was controlled for in analyses examining EDDII and the illegal distribution of intimate images in the logistic regression analyses.

Coerced Sexting

Chi-square tests of independence were conducted between all the demographic variables and coerced sexting. A significant association was found between the perpetration of coerced sexting and gender. Standardized residuals revealed that significantly more males and significantly less females perpetrated than expected.

[2] Upon further inspection, it was decided that two of IIIBB Perpetration Scale items (item 2 and item 3) originally created to capture revenge pornography did not fully encapsulate the revenge and humiliation motive behind the behaviour. Thus, item 2 *"How often have you uploaded someone's sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) images or videos online or to social media?"* and item 3 *"How often have you sent someone's sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) images or videos to their employers, employe*

Another significant association was found between relationship status and the perpetration of coerced sexting; however, further examination of the standardized residuals was not significant. A full table of the chi-square tests of independence results are included in Table 5.0.

Pearson's correlations were computed to assess the relationship between each correlate and the perpetration of coerced sexting (first column of Table 6.0). In support of H_1, results indicated that there was a positive correlation between sexual compulsivity and coerced sexting. Additionally, $H_{4,}$ $H_{5,\text{ and}}$ H_6 garnered support, as offence-supportive attitudes, conflict in interpersonal relationships and the Dark Triad were all positively correlated with coerced sexting. In fact, there were small positive correlations between almost all possible correlates and coerced sexting, except for loneliness and impulsivity.

Significant bivariate correlates were entered into a logistic regression. The analysis was performed to assess the combined impact of these correlates on the likelihood of coerced sexting perpetration. The model containing all significant correlates of coerced sexting was significant, χ^2 (df=*8, n* = 557) = 52.22, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .140$. For every one-point increase on the sexual compulsivity scale, there was a 1.06 greater likelihood of perpetrating when controlling for the other variables. Additionally, the likelihood of perpetrating coerced sexting increased by 1.209 for every one-point increase on the voyeurism subscale when controlling for the other correlates. None of the other correlates were significantly associated with coerced sexting when the other significant bivariate correlates were accounted for (see Table 7.0).

EDDII

To gather an understanding of demographic differences in the perpetration of EDDII, chi-square tests of independence were conducted; however, none of the results were significant (see Table 8.0). Pearson's correlations were next computed to assess the relationship between each of the potential correlates and EDDII. In line with H_4, H_5, and H_6, there were significant, yet weak, positive correlations between EDDII and conflict in relationships and the Dark Triad. Further, both voyeurism and sadism were positively correlated with EDDII; however, the total score on the paraphilia scale was not correlated with EDDII. Full results can be found in the second column of Table 6.0

Lastly, a logistic regression was used to further analyze the data. As social desirability was significantly correlated with the perpetration of EDDII, it was controlled for in step 1, and yielded a significant result, χ^2 ($df=1$, n = 557) = 6.941, p = .008, R^2 = *.22.*. For step 2, the full model containing all predictors was statistically significant, χ^2 ($df=9$, n = 550) = 39.232, p < .001, R^2 = *.119*. The results suggested that for every one-point increase on the offence-supportive attitudes scale, there was a 1.039 greater likelihood of perpetrating EDDII, when controlling for the other correlates. Secondly, for every one-point increase in difficulty in romantic relationships, there was a 1.027 greater likelihood of perpetrating EDDII when controlling for the other correlates. Finally, while each of the Dark Triad traits were correlated with perpetrating EDDII, only narcissism was associated with EDDII in a logistic regression after accounting for the other correlates. As narcissism increased by one-point, there was a 1.05 greater likelihood of perpetrating EDDII when controlling for other factors. Full logistic regression results depicted in Table 9.0.

Illegal Distribution of Intimate Images. Chi-square tests of independence were conducted to understand the relationship between the demographic variables and the illegal distribution of intimate images. There was a significant relationship found between relationship status and perpetration of the illegal distribution of intimate images, however, upon further inspection, there appears to be no significant groups driving the effect. None of the other results were significant. Full results are outlined in Table 10.0.

Pearson's correlations indicated that there were relationships between many of the correlates and the illegal distribution of intimate images. Consistent with H_1, a higher endorsement of sexual compulsivity was positively correlated with the illegal distribution of intimate images. Additionally, as predicted by H_2 and H_3, sexual sadism and voyeurism were both positively associated with the illegal distribution of intimate images. Similar to the correlation analyses for the perpetration of coerced sexting and EDDII, there was a positive association between the illegal distribution of intimate images and offence-supportive attitudes and Dark Triad traits. These findings support H_4, and H_6. While the Dark Triad was correlated overall with the illegal distribution of intimate images, only Machiavellianism and psychopathy, were positively correlated when examining each trait in isolation. Table 6.0 depicts the full correlation table.

A logistic regression was used to analyze the combined ability of the correlates to identify the perpetration of the illegal distribution of images. As social desirability was associated with the illegal distribution of images, it was controlled for in step one of the analyses. Step 1 containing social desirability was significant, χ^2 ($df=1$, n = 562) = 7.950, p = .005, $R^2 = .043$. After controlling for social desirability, the full model containing all predictors on the second step was also statistically significant, χ^2 ($df=8$, n = 562) =

34.259, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .181$, indicating that the model was able to distinguish the various risk factors among the likelihood of illegally distributing intimate images. Based on odds ratios, for every one-point increase in conflict in their romantic relationships, there was a 1.06 greater likelihood of illegally distributing someone's intimate images when controlling for other factors. . Table 11.0 depicts a full logistic regression table

Discussion

Summary

In summary, this study sought to explore the risk factors for engaging in IIIBB. To our knowledge, aside from revenge pornography, there are no empirical studies that have examined these behaviours in an individualized manner. Therefore, the present study addressed a gap in the literature by clearly identifying multiple forms of IIIBB and examining potential correlates associated with the perpetration of each behaviour. Most of the potential correlates were significantly associated with the different forms of IIIBB at the bivariate level; however, these were mostly weak positive correlations. Consistent with the logic of the present study, the logistic regression results suggested a different pattern of correlates for each form of IIIBB after accounting for all significant correlates at the bivariate level. Those whom endorsed sexual compulsivity and voyeurism had a higher likelihood of perpetrating coerced sexting over their lifetime after accounting for all correlates that were significant at the bivariate level. Meanwhile, those scoring higher in offence-supportive attitudes, interpersonal conflict in relationships, and narcissism were at an increased likelihood of perpetrating EDDII after accounting for all significant correlates at the bivariate level. When examining the illegal distribution of intimate images, only conflict in romantic relationships was associated with this behaviour when controlling for other significant correlates; however, the low base rate of this behaviour suggests the results were likely underpowered.

Prevalence of Sexting and IIIBB

Consensual sexting is very common and arguably normative in young adults (Drouin, Vogel, Surbey & Stills, 2013). In this sample, 81.6% reported that they sent a sext in their lifetime, while 78.1% reported having received one. These rates are substantially higher than previous research, which has suggested that anywhere from one-third to one-half of young adults have sexted in their lifetime (see e.g., Drouin et al., 2013; Gordon-Messer et al., 2012; Reyns et al., 2013). This considerable difference may be because technology has been steadily increasing in pervasiveness. For example, there has been an increase in the introduction and popularity of applications such as Snapchat, a mobile phone application that sends self-destructing image messages and videos (Snapchat, 2011). These applications alert users when someone has taken a screen-shot, and the sent photos are only accessible for a total of ten seconds before deleting from servers (Snapchat, 2011). An alternative possibility is that participants who sext more often may have self-selected into this study as well.

Rates of IIIBB perpetration indicated that both coerced sexting and EDDII were more frequently endorsed than the illegal distribution of intimate images. One-fifth of the participants reported coerced sexting perpetration over their lifetime, which is consistent with what is known about coerced sexting (Kernsmith, Victor and Smith-Darden, 2018). For example, Kernsmith and colleagues (2018) examined the perpetration rates of coerced sexting among dating partners in a sample of young adolescents (6^{th} and 9^{th} grade). They reported that 8% of their sample reported pressuring someone into sexting within a twelve-month period (Kernsmith et al., 2018). While this percentage is quite a bit lower than what was found in this study, this may be a result of their participant age range, wherein it would be expected that not only do young adolescents have less accessibility to technology, but their dating priorities and relationships would be different. Outside of coerced sexting perpetration, research in the area of verbal sexual coercion (pressuring, insisting or threatening physical sexual behaviour) suggests that perpetration rates are between 6.3% and 27% in adolescent and young adult samples (Gámex-Gaudix, Straus & Hersheberge, 2011; Poitras & Lavoie, 1995). This may demonstrate that, due to the increased prevalence of sexting, coerced sexting may be a technologically based form of verbal sexual coercion.

Further, this study explored the notion that people may non-consensually distribute intimate images as a means of social connection or bragging. Evidence from this study indicates that this maybe a common reason why people engage in IIIBB, as 15% of our sample admitted to sharing someone's intimate image without their consent as means of bonding, showing off, entertaining or conforming to their friend-groups. Research in this area is novel and therefore, making the connection with prior studies is more difficult since other researchers have not explicitly examined this. Nonetheless, the high frequency suggests that it may be important to discuss the problematic nature of this form of behaviour with young adults in an effort to deter it.

For the more serious behaviours of IIIBB, 5.1% of the sample reported engaging in some form of illegal distribution of intimate images. More specifically, 3.2% reported uploading someone's nude images or videos online, to social media or to the victims' place of work, 1.6% of participants reported perpetrating revenge pornography and 1.6%

of participants reported perpetrating sextortion. Overall, these rates are quite consistent with research on the prevalence of non-consensual distribution of intimate images. For example, in a recent study of adults between the ages of 18-49 years old, Powell et al. (2019) studied various non-consensual image-based behaviours and reported that 6.4% of their participants distributed an intimate-image without permission and/or threatened to distribute one (4.9%). While the revenge pornography literature is developing quickly, much of what is published currently uses the word ‘revenge pornography’ as an all-encompassing term for all forms of non-consensual image sharing and therefore, establishing the prevalence of revenge pornography in previously published research is more difficult. As such, it is difficult to compare the rates of revenge pornography found in the present study to other studies. Nonetheless, sextortion has been studied individually, wherein prevalence rates are somewhere between 3% (sample of middle school children; Patchin & Hinduja, 2018) and 4.9% (adult sample; Powell et al., 2019), which are somewhat higher than the rates found in our sample.

Coerced Sexting

When Bivariate correlations were conducted between coerced sexting perpetration and each of the potential correlates, it revealed that there was significant correlation between perpetrating coerced sexting almost all of the potential correlates, aside from loneliness and impulsivity. In support of the first hypothesis, logistic regression analyses revealed that sexual compulsivity was associated with coerced sexting when all other significant correlates were controlled for. This finding is in line with previous research, which has demonstrated that sexual preoccupation is associated with more problematic sexual behaviours (Kafka, 2010). Sexual compulsivity encompasses a range of excessive sexual behaviours on the internet, such as the excessive use of masturbation to online pornography, more online sexual partners and using the internet to engage in cybersex (Karila et al., 2014). Thus, as previously hypothesized, coerced sexting may serve as a way to cope with increased sexual drives, urges and fantasies using increasingly used technological mediums.

Additionally, voyeurism was found to be predictive of coerced sexting perpetration when accounting for other significant correlates. This finding is somewhat surprising, yet, the connection may be embedded in what is known about atypical sexual interests and overall sexual offending. Research on atypical sexual interests suggests that there is an overrepresentation of effectively all studied paraphilias in those who sexually offend compared with the general offender population (see Krueger, 2010; Seto, 2008). While coerced sexting is not illegal under Canadian law, it is still inappropriate because it challenges the standard of free consent. Instinctively, the links between at least some atypical sexual interests and coerced sexting seems expected. Peculiarly though, voyeurism's definition does not align with coerced sexting, as the person being pressured is aware that their image will be watched or viewed. Perhaps then, it is the permanence of the image, which allows the material to be viewed multiple times, that is connected to voyeuristic interests as the person may not know how often their image or video is being viewed.

Entertainment-Driven Distribution of Intimate Images

The analyses on correlates of EDDII were largely exploratory. Bivariate correlations revealed positive correlates for each of the potential correlates and EDDII, except for loneliness and impulsivity. Nonetheless, it was hypothesized that offence-supportive attitudes, difficulty with romantic relationships and the Dark Triad would be correlated with all forms of IIIBB, including EDDII. Logistic regressions revealed significant positive associations between EDDII and offence-supportive attitudes, interpersonal conflict, and narcissism when considering all of the significant correlates from the bivariate analyses. It would appear that these three correlates paint an affiliation between EDDII and overall relational problems, such as entitlement, lack of respect, and conflict in relationships. The relationship between conflict in relationships and EDDII aligns with previous research, wherein other forms of interpersonal conflict have been associated with IIIBB behaviours (Powell et al., 2019).

Furthermore, in relationship people who score higher in narcissism tend to act more selfishly, they lack respect for their partners and have low tolerance or empathy (Brunell & Campbell, 2011; W.K Campbell, Bonacci, Shelton, Exline, & Bushman, 2004; Campbell, Burnell, & Finkle, 2006). Additionally, narcissistic individuals are often seen as ‘attention seekers,’ wherein they engage in behaviour that elicits more praise and attention (Carpenter, 2012). In this study, EDDII was operationalized as bragging, showing-off, fitting in amongst peers and gossiping. Thus, perpetrating EDDII may be driven by narcissistic tendencies to brag, and the desire to be admired. Overall, EDDII appears to be the result of lacking empathy and respect for others, wherein it acts as an extension of relationship conflict, or there is a sense of entitlement allowing perpetrators of EDDII to utilize these images for personal social gain.

Illegal Distribution of Intimate Images

Lastly, revenge pornography and sextortion were initially going to be examined separately as the underlying motives for these behaviours may differ resulting in distinct correlates. When these behaviours were combined under a new name, "illegal distribution of intimate images" there was a small positive association with all correlates (aside from loneliness and impulsivity). Nonetheless, only conflict within romantic relationships remained significant in the logistic regression when all significant correlates were entered into the model. This is unsurprising, as Powell et al. (2019) found that the perpetration of non-consensual intimate image sharing occurs most frequently against romantic partners and it is likely that relationship conflict would extend to online mediums in the digital age. Further, policy-literature has often considered non-consensual intimate image sharing as a means of manipulation and an extension of other interpersonal violence (see e.g., Citron & Franks, 2014).

The lack of support for an association between the Dark Triad and illegal distribution of images in the logistic regression model when accounting for other correlates deserves additional consideration. It was hypothesized that the Dark Triad would be associated with revenge pornography, as Pina et al. (2017) demonstrated that the Dark Triad personality traits were correlated with the propensity to engage in revenge pornography. This study presents evidence that the Dark Triad is not only correlated with the inclination of engaging in the behaviour, but with actual perpetration of revenge pornography as well. Yet, it is important to outline that while there was a small positive correlation with the Dark Triad, this was was no longer significant in the logistic regression once all other correlates were accounted for. It was not possible to examine revenge pornography and the analyses that examined the illegal distribution of intimate image were underpowered. Therefore, the amalgamation of this variable to include revenge pornography and sextortion may result in different findings than if one was to study revenge pornography in isolation.

Correlates of IIIBB

Although correlates of IIIBB were selected based on past literature on contact sexual offending, there may be stronger correlates of IIIBB. This assertion is based on the weak bivariate correlations. It is important to note that the small positive associations may be reflective of shared method variance, which means that the variance accounted for across analyses may be a result of the self-report method, rather than a result of the constructs the scales were designed to measure (Podsakoff, Mackenie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). When data is affected by shared method variance, it can inflate the correlations (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

There are likely other potential correlates that are better predictors of IIIBB. For example, revenge pornography and sextortion have been speculated to be a manipulation tactic to maintain control in a romantic relationship (Citron & Franks, 2014). Moreover, many of these IIIBB behaviours occur over the internet and much of the policy-centred literature focuses on the bullying-component to IIIBB. For this reason, investigating further in the cyber-bullying and cyber-harassment literature may be more relevant for discussing potential risk factors. For example, Mishna, Kourby-Kassbri, Gadalla, and Daciuk (2012) reported that risk factors for the involvement of cyber-bulling among school-aged adolescents were previous verbal or physical aggression, higher internet usage, and unsafe internet practice (such as, giving out passwords). Further, self-esteem, status, and peer-rejection have also been found to be related to the perpetration of cyber-bullying (Patchin & Hinduja, 2010; Modecki, Barber & Vernon, 2013). As such, these variables may serve as potential correlates for different forms of IIIBB. Overall, there are similarities between the known risk factors for both the intimate partner violence and cyber-bullying perpetration; for example, the use of offline violence is a risk factor for both certain IIIBB behaviours and cyber-bullying. Therefore, a key area of exploration in this area may be to examine the risk-factor literature for other forms of violence in relation to IIIBB.

Study Limitations

This study had several limitations. Although a two-wave longitudinal methodology was originally proposed to test whether certain behaviours were 'true' risk factors for various forms of IIIBB, it was not possible to conduct longitudinal analyses to identify risk factors for IIIBB due to high attrition and the low base rate for IIIBB at wave 2. As a result, the temporal sequencing of the variables in relation to IIIBB is unknown. Furthermore, the base rates of the more serious forms of IIIBB were very low even at wave one, including when the various IIIBB distribution behaviours were combined into one item. Unfortunately, this study could not examine each of the more serious IIIBBs in isolation due to these low base rates.

Further, the study relied on self-report data and a convenience sample recruited from both online forums (Reddit, Twitter and Twitter) and through an online university research pool. As such, these results may not generalize to the public as participants may self-select to participate if they had an interest in the topic. Further, self-report data does not allow authors to gather whether participants have actually perpetrated any of the IIIBB behaviours and it is possible that participants did not endorse certain behaviours that they have perpetrated. Another issue with self-report is that some of the responses from the open-ended question were targeted at gathering the reasons why participants showed their social circle someone's intimate image without their consent (targeting the EDDII variable) but they may not have fully captured the reasons. Participants may have written the first idea that came to their mind or wrote a more socially desirable response. Therefore, their true motives may have been more similar to revenge pornography and sextortion, but they were not comfortable disclosing these reasons. Furthermore, the prevalence of EDDII may be higher, as some participants may not have answered the questions fully, and therefore it could not be determined that their motive was targeted at social-interaction and bonding.

Lastly, it was not possible to examine the psychometric properties of the IIIBB Perpetration Scale, which is significant as IIIBB was the main outcome of interest. The IIIBB perpetration scale was the first of its kind to directly measure the four IIIBB behaviours. Some of these behaviours were only measured by one item. Similarly, the voyeurism subscale was only measured by one item. Therefore, internal consistency, reliability and validity were unknown. Additionally, the association between IIIBB and offence-supportive attitudes may have garnered stronger support in this study if general antisocial offence-supportive attitudes were measured over ones specifically designed for IIIBB.

Conclusion.

The present study was the first of its kind to: 1) examine distinct forms of IIIBB, and 2) examine several potential correlates for engaging in these behaviours. As Canada has recently included the non-consensual distribution of intimate images into its Criminal Code (under s. 162.1), developing a better understanding potential correlates for perpetration is important. Our findings indicate that sexual compulsivity, offence-supportive attitudes, conflict in interpersonal relationships, and the Dark Triad personality traits may important factors in understanding IIIBB. When applied to a logistic regression model that controlled for significant bivariate correlates, a different pattern of associations emerged for each of the IIIBB behaviours. Coerced sexting was associated with sexual compulsivity and voyeurism and EDDII was associated with more undesirable relationship traits when controlling for other factors. The illegal distribution of intimate images was associated only with conflict in romantic relationships. There were small correlations between most of the correlates and the different forms of IIIBB, which suggests that other factors may account for these behaviours. Nonetheless, the present study serves as an important first step in beginning to better understand different types of IIIBB.

Chapter Three - Study 2: Effects of IIIBB on Victim Mental Health

Despite legal and political attention to IIIBB, there is relatively limited academic literature that looks at the mental health impact for victims. Although Bates (2017) examined the impact of IIIBB on victim mental health from a qualitative perspective, there have been no studies that have examined the experiences of victims from a quantitative perspective. Therefore, the second study of this thesis aims to better understand how victims are impacted psychologically by IIIBB.

Cyber-victimization

Study two focused on the cyber-victimization literature over the contact sexual victimization literature to inform the discussion of mental health correlates of IIIBB due to the online nature of IIBBB behaviours. Cyber-victimization (CV) is a form of online victimization, which includes any behaviour falling under the conceptualization of IIIBB (Slonje & Smith, 2008; Williams & Guerra, 2007). While the definition of cyber-victimization is broad, it is often looked at in the context of cyber-bullying and cyber-harassment. To understand the impact of cyber victimization on mental health, it is possible to draw on what is known about cyber-bullying and cyber-harassment's effects on psychosocial behaviour and mental health.

The effects of cyber-bullying victimization have been well-established in the scientific literature. Although focused on non-sexual cyber-crime, Smith et al. (2008) found that online victimization can have greater negative psychological impact than victimization that occurs offline. In terms of cyber-bullying, young adults who have been victimized often avoid going to work and school as a result of experiencing higher levels of embarrassment, insecurity and self-blame (Beran, Rinaldi, Bickham, & Rich, 2012;

Klomek, Sourander, & Gould, 2010). The mental health consequences on youth of cyber-bullying are widespread with victimized individuals feeling higher levels of anxiety, poor self-esteem, and depression (Annerbäck, Sahlqvist, & Wingren, 2013; Baier et al., 2018) as well as engaging in higher levels of suicidal behaviour (Klomek, Sourander, & Gould, 2010). In a study by Bernan and colleagues (2012), university-aged victims of cyber-bullying reported that anger, sadness, embarrassment and anxiety were the most common reactions to victimization, followed by substantial impact on academic performance due to poor concentration and absenteeism. Therefore, by connecting what we know about cyber-victimization to IIIBB, it is expected that one may experience various adverse mental health effects such as depression and anxiety, as well as an assortment of social impacts as a result of victimization. It is important to characterize and understand the mental health correlates associated with IIIBB victimization to begin laying the framework to inform, and lead evidence-based preventions and interventions.

Victimization Consequences on Mental Health

From the literature that exists on consequences of IIIBB victimization, there has been a failure to distinguish between various forms of IIIBB, such as sextortion and revenge pornography. Thus, it is difficult to pinpoint the impact of each distinct form of IIIBB behaviour on mental health. As most of the published literature on mental health correlates of IIIBB victimization has focused on revenge pornography, there will be an emphasis on revenge pornography in this literature review.

Bates (2017) found that the consequences of revenge pornography on mental health is similar to other forms of sexual assault. For example, victims predominately mentioned having higher levels of anxiety and depression, as well as post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), all of which are also considered potential outcomes of sexual assault (Bates, 2017). Furthermore, the initial shame and humiliation reportedly led them to have trust issues and reputational damage (Bates, 2017). Participants also expressed their anxiety and distress stemmed from feelings of losing control and a loss of sexual agency (Bates, 2017). This loss of agency may be particularly characteristic of IIIBB where, unlike offline sexual crimes, there is a permanent record of their victimization and easier accessibility to the images (Bloom, 2016). Additionally, there has been some research to suggest that victims of IIIBB are at an increased risk for suicide (e.g, Bloom, 2016). For example, as outlined in Bloom (2016), a study for the Cyber Rights Initiative found that 47% of revenge pornography victims contemplated suicide. Bates (2017) also remarked that one participant had attempted suicide after her victimization.

These findings suggest that there is a clear need to better understand the effects of IIIBB on victim mental health. Despite the importance of Bates' (2017) study, it was not without limitations. It was a qualitative interview study, which did not control for any previous contact sexual victimization that could potentially account for mental health difficulties. Therefore, there is a need to quantitatively examine consequences on victim mental health, while controlling for various other forms of victimization.

The Effect of Social Ramifications on Mental Health

The association between IIIBB and mental health symptoms is likely complex and explained by different mediator variable. This study specifically examined whether a negative consequence on social life mediated the association between different types of IIIBB victimization and negative mental health symptoms. Research in the area of cyber-bullying suggests that various forms of social impact, such as social support, may mediate the association between cyber-victimization and negative mental health symptomology (see e.g., Frison et al., 2016). Support for the mediation effect of social factors comes from the Social Support Deterioration Model (Barrera, 1986). The Social Support Deterioration (or Mediation) model conceptualizes social support is as a mediating factor between stressful experiences and psychological impairment (Barrera, 1986). In other words, stress predicts psychological distress through altering, diminishing or hindering access to perceived social support (Kaniasty & Norris, 1993).

There has been strong empirical evidence in support the Social Support Deterioration Model, suggesting that a reduction of literal, or perceived, social support accounts for the association between stress and an individual's well-being (Gjesfjeld, Greeno, Kim & Anderson, 2010; Kwag et al. 2011; Lee, Anderson, Horowitz & August, 2009). Further, the applicability of this model in the context of victimization also has empirical support. For example, social support acts as a mediating variable between dating violence victimization and psychological well-being (Salazar, Wingood, DiClemente, Lang & Harrington, 2004).

The purpose of the present study is to apply a similar mediation model to test whether negative social impacts mediates the association between victimization and mental health symptoms. Research on IIIBB victimization has suggested that victimization comes with unique, or significant, social ramifications (e.g., impact on professional and academic careers; Bates, 2017). For example, Bates (2017) interviewed 18 adult women about their revenge pornography experiences. One participant reported that, as a result of intimate images being distributed to her workplace without consent, her 25-year career was ruined and her doctorate degree was considered to be useless (Bates, 2017). Negative social response may stem around the fact that once photos are uploaded to the internet anyone may access them, which can have continual negative ramifications on social interactions and support (Bloom, 2016). For example, employers rely on the internet to help screen for potential new employees. If employers then search a potential candidate's name who has also been a victim of revenge pornography, search engines may link them to their explicit images (Bloom, 2016). Although not an empirical study, Bloom (2016) discusses that there is a permanence to these images being uploaded, and as such, the impact to one's social functioning and coping is detrimental. In the context of the Social Support Deterioration model, these negative impacts on social life could account for the association between victimization and mental health symptoms.

Present Study

Studies have demonstration relationships between non-consensual image sharing and negative mental health consequences (see e.g., Bates, 2017), albeit the literature to date has been qualitative in nature and has not controlled for other victimization experiences. Secondly, the Social Support Deterioration Model suggests that a negative impact on social life accounts for the associations between victimization and negative mental health symptoms, however, this has yet to be examined in the context of IIIBB. Therefore, this study aims to deepen the understanding of the mental health consequences of different forms of IIIBB using a quantitative lens. Study 2 has several hypotheses:

H1: Victimization will be associated with negative psychological effects such as symptoms of psychological distress and PTSD.

H2: Victimization occurring between wave 1 and wave 2 will be associated with an increase in reported negative mental health consequences, particularly higher levels of anxiety, and depression, even when controlling for previous contact victimization.

H3: It is hypothesized that negative impacts on social life will mediate the relationship between IIIBB victimization and symptoms of psychological distress and PTSD.

Methodology

The methodology for Study 2 used the same recruitment strategies and procedure as Study 1. Readers are referred back to the participants and methodology section in Chapter 2 for further information about the sample. The methodology contained herein focused on the additional questionnaires that assessed mental health and social consequences.

Measures

IIIBB Victimization Scale. Seven items were created to assess victimization across the four types of IIIBB as discussed (coerced sexting, EDDII, revenge pornography and sextortion). The items were the same as those reported in Study 1, except they asked about victimization. Answers were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1= never, 3= twice, 5= more than 3 times) that assessed frequency of victimization for coerced sexting, revenge pornography and sextortion. An example of these questions is *"How often have you felt pressured or coerced into sending a sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) image or video?"* See Appendix D for the full scale. For this thesis' analyses, this scale was dichotomized, '1' being 'have been a victim and '0' having never been a victim.

EDDII victimization was measured by a separate question that asked, *"How* *often has someone else sent or shown your sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) images or videos without your permission to their acquaintances, friends, or family?"* If participants answered anything other than "never," they were directed to an open-ended question and asked, *"Why do you believe someone would share your sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) image or video to their acquaintances, friends, or family without your permission?"* Those who replied that they believed their intimate image or video was distributed as a way of bragging, showing-off, fitting in or proving themselves were marked as having been a victim of EDDII. As these questionnaires were created for the purposes of this study, there were no pre-established psychometric findings. Internal consistency was not examined as most of the constructs were assessed by a single item on this questionnaire.

Brief Symptom Inventory. The Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI-18; Derogatis, 2000) is an 18 item self-report scale that measures participant's depression, anxiety and somatization scores over the previous week. The BSI-18 measured the mental health correlates that were hypothesized to be most prevalent for IIIBB victimization, known in this study as psychological distress symptoms. The scale has three dimensions (depression, anxiety and somatization) and is scored on a 5-point Likert scale from 0 (not at all) to 4 (extremely). The dimensions scores range from 0-24 per dimension, with a grand score of 72. To score this scale, the total score was used, with higher levels indicating a greater degree of psychological distress symptoms.

The BSI-18 has reported an acceptance internal consistency with scores ranging for all dimensions (anxiety= .79, depression = .84, somatization =.74; Derogatis, 2017). Furthermore, it is reported to have concurrent validity with the full Symptom Checklist

90-Revised (Derogatis, 2000). Internal consistency for this study was excellent with α = .94.

The PTSD Checklist -5. The PTSD Checklist -5 (PCL-5; Weathers et al., 2013) is an instrument designed to measure the symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), consistent with the clinical diagnostic criteria for PTSD from the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (*DSM-5;* APA, 2013). The PCL-5 is a self-report measure consisting of 20-items that assesses each of the 20 criteria for PTSD in the DSM-5. For our purposes, the PCL-5 was used as a continuous scale with higher scores indicating a greater degree of PTSD-like symptoms.

The PCL-5 has demonstrated satisfactory internal consistency, with Cronbach's alpha ranges between 0.56 to 0.77 (Sveen, Bondjers, & Willebrand, 2016). Furthermore, it has demonstrated convergent validity with other trauma measures (Sveen, Bondjers, & Willebrand, 2016). Internal consistency in the present study was excellent, α = .95.

Impact on Social Life. One question was created to assess whether a participant has experienced any negative social consequences as a result of IIIBB. The question states, "Please select all that apply: As a result of having my nude images (either partial or full) shared without my consent, I have: lost friends; had rumours started about me; lost my job; got in trouble from my family, found my images online; had someone comment about my nude images; felt blamed; was bullied; switched jobs; had trouble finding a job because they saw my photos and made fun of because of my photos." As this was the variable used for mediation, it was treated as a continuous variable with each item on the scale equal to one point. Higher scores indicate an increased social impact as a result of victimization. Internal consistency was acceptable, α = .77.

Controlling for Other Forms of Victimization. One item from the Brief Trauma Questionnaire (The BTQ; Schnurr, Vielhauer, Weathers, & Findler, 1999) was used to control for contact sexual offence victimization: *"Has anyone ever made or pressured you into having some type of unwanted sexual contact? **Note:** By sexual contact we mean any contact between someone else and your private parts or between you and some else's private parts."* To control for domestic violence, the Revised Conflict Tactic Scale (Straus et al., 1996) was used (see Study 1 for a more detailed description of the scale).

Results

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics for each of the measures was examined. For each of the measures, skewness and kurtosis were also calculated. Skewness values of over 2 and kurtosis values over 7 were used as reference values for determining substantial non-normality. The Social Impact scale was not normally distributed. This measure was transformed using a log transformation (adding a constant of 1 to address '0' values) to account for the non-normality, from there, skew adjusted to 1.730 and kurtosis changed to 2.603. The transformed social impact variable was entered in the mediation analyses. Table 12.0 demonstrates the descriptive statistics for all variables of interest.

To test our hypotheses, chi-squares were first conducted between each of the demographic questions (gender, sexual orientation, ethnicity, relationship status and education level) and the IIIBB variables to test if there were any significant differences between demographic variables and IIIBB victimization. Secondly, bivariate Pearson's correlations were run to examine whether there was a correlation between each form of IIIBB victimization and mental health symptoms (both psychological distress and PTSD symptoms). If either of the mental health symptoms were correlated with IIIBB victimization, a mediation analysis was conducted using the Hayes (2012) PROCESS model. This mediation model was conducted to see whether negative social impact would mediate the relationship between mental health symptoms and IIIBB victimization. For mediation analyses, if the confidence intervals cross zero, this indicates that there is no mediation.

Descriptive Statistics

Frequencies were examined to determine how many participants had been a victim in their lifetime for the different IIIBB behaviours (coerced sexting, EDDII, illegal distribution, revenge pornography and sextortion). Table 13.0 demonstrates the frequencies of endorsement for each item of the scale[3]. Each item had adequate base rate for analyses. Over half of the sample (55.7%) endorsed having been coerced or pressured into sexting (*n*=351) at least once in their lifetime. For EDDII victimization, 14.6% (*n*=92) of the sample endorsed having their intimate images shared without their consent as a means of bragging, fitting-in, gossiping, and/or proof amongst friends. Additionally, 14.0% of the sample (*n* = 88) indicated that their images had been distributed to their social media networks, to their place of work or to their place of education. Moreover, 11.4% of the sample (*n* = 72) reported being victims of revenge pornography and 17.3% reported being a victim of sextortion (*n* = 109).

[3] As discussed in study 1, three items were originally designed to capture revenge pornography; however upon further reflection items 2 and 3 did not appear to capture the humiliation or revenge motive that was operationalized as revenge pornography. Thus, a new IIIBB category was examined, which was named the illegal distribution of intimate images and is the same as study 1. In the sample, 26.7% (n = 167) were victims of IIIBB.

As this sample included both a community sample and university sample (explained more in Study 1), further analyses were conducted to demonstrate that combining these samples was acceptable. Gender and sexual orientation were found to be significantly different between the community and SONA samples. Victimization rates were also compared between the two samples using Chi-square tests of independence and there were no significant differences found between the two samples.

Once again, the wave 2 dataset was removed from analyses due to low-base rates and attrition, as only 116 participants (12.7% of the original sample) participated in the study at wave 2. From this, 20.6% (n = 22) of participants said they had been pressured or coerced into sending nude images within the previous 4-month period, while 5.6% (n = 6) of participants reported being a victim of EDDII. In terms of the more serious behaviours, 1.9% (n = 2) of participants had their images uploaded to social media or their place of employment, 1.9% (n = 2) of participants reported being victims of revenge pornography and 1.9% (n = 2) of participants endorsed being victims of sextortion.

For the control variables, 51.3% reported being the victim of contact sexual victimization and the mean score on the intimate partner violence scale was 7.84 (range between 0 and 140; SD = 12.09). We examined the correlation between these control variables and the outcome measures (BSI-18 and PTSD Checklist) to determine if it was necessary to control for these forms of victimization in mediation analyses. Previous contact sexual victimization was correlated with both the BSI-18, r (611) =.298, $p < .001$, and the PTSD Checklist, r (615) =.317, $p < .001$. Domestic violence victimization was also correlated with the BSI-18, r (597) =.140, $p < .001$, and PTSD Checklist, r (599) =.149, $p < .001$. Therefore, these measures were controlled for in all mediation analyses.

Coerced Sexting Victimization

Chi-square tests of independence were conducted between each of the demographic variables and coerced sexting victimization. Results indicated that there was a difference between coerced sexting victimization by gender. Females had been victims significantly more and males had been victim significantly less than expected. Lastly, a significant association was found for education level with those with a high-school or post-secondary education having a higher rate of coerced sexting victimization than expected. Full chi-square results can be found in Table 14.0.

Bivariate Pearson's correlations examined between coerced sexting victimization and mental health symptoms. In line with our first hypotheses, there was a small significant relationship found between coerced sexting victimization and symptoms of psychological distress $r(613) = .260$, $p < .001$ as well as PTSD symptomology $r(615) = .253$, $p < .001$.

Hypothesis 3 proposed that negative impacts on social life would mediate the relationship between victimization and mental health. Further, both previous contact sexual victimization and domestic violence victimization were controlled for in the mediation analyses. The results of the mediation analyses are contained in Figure 3.0. Mediation (I) tested the relationship between coerced sexting and psychological distress using impact on social life as a mediator. The control variables, contact sexual victimization and domestic violence victimization, were significantly associated with symptoms of psychological distress. There was a significant direct effect between coerced sexting victimization and symptoms of psychological distress and coerced sexting victimization and social impact; however, impact on social life did not mediate this association.

In mediation (II), the relationship between previous contact sexual victimization and PTSD symptomology was significant; however, domestic violence victimization was not significant. There was also support for an association between coerced sexting and higher PTSD symptoms. As per hypothesis three, there was evidence that impact on social life mediated the association between coerced sexting and PTSD symptoms.

EDDII Victimization

Chi-square tests of independence were once again conducted between demographic variables and EDDII victimization. Results suggested that males were less likely to be victims of EDDII than expected. None of the other demographic variables were associated with EDDII victimization. Full chi-square results can be found in Table 15.0.

Pearson's correlations revealed a significant association between EDDII victimization and the two mental health variables (psychological distress symptoms, as well as PTSD symptomology). In line with our first hypotheses, there was a small yet significant relationship found between EDDII victimization and psychological distress $r(613) = .126$, $p = .002$ as well as PTSD symptomology $r(615) = .156$, $p < .001$.

Mediation (III) (see Figure 4.0) tested the relationship between EDDII and psychological distress using impact on social life as a mediator. The control variable of previous contact sexual victimization was significantly associated with psychological distress, but domestic violence victimization was not significant. The direct effect between EDDII victimization and psychological distress was not significant, nor did an impact on social life mediate the association between EDDII and psychological distress.

Similar findings were demonstrated in mediation (IV), which tested the relationship between EDDII victimization and PTSD symptoms through the impact on social life. The control variables of contact sexual victimization and domestic violence victimization were significantly associated with PTSD symptoms. The direct effect was not significant between EDDII victimization and PTSD symptoms, though there was an association between EDDII victimization and a greater impact on social life. The impact on social life variable did not mediate the association between EDDII and PTSD symptoms.

Revenge Pornography. Chi-square tests of independence were conducted between each of the demographic variables and revenge pornography victimization. Three significant chi-squares were found. Firstly, people who belonged to a gender minority group were victims of revenge pornography more than expected, while males were victims significantly less than expected. Secondly, there was a difference in revenge pornography victimization and sexual orientation, wherein those belonging to a sexual minority group were victims significantly more than expected. Lastly, a significant association was found between relationship status and revenge pornography victimization which suggested those who were casually dating were victims more than expected. Full chi-square results can be found in Table 16.0.

There was a small yet significant correlation between psychological distress and revenge pornography victimization, $r(611) = .253$, $p < .001$. A small correlation was found between revenge pornography and PTSD symptoms, $r(613) = .282$, $p < .001$. As demonstrated with victimization from each of the other IIIBB behaviours, there is a correlation between victimization and negative mental health outcomes.

Two mediation analyses were conducted, and the results are presented in Figure 5.0. Mediation (V) tested the relationship between revenge pornography victimization and psychological distress. The control variable of previous contact sexual victimization was significantly associated with higher psychological distress, but domestic violence victimization was not. This mediation found that the direct effect was significant between revenge pornography and psychological distress and social impact, however, impact on social life did not mediate the association between revenge pornography victimization and psychological distress symptoms.

Likewise, mediation (VI) tested the association between revenge pornography and PTSD symptoms using impact on social life as the mediator. The control variable of contact sexual victimization was significant, but domestic violence victimization was not. The direct effect between revenge pornography and PTSD symptoms was significant as was the association between revenge pornography and social impact. Nonetheless, impact on social life did not mediate the association between revenge pornography and symptoms of PTSD.

Sextortion Victimization. Chi-square tests of independence were conducted between each of the demographic variables and sextortion victimization. Similar to revenge pornography, three significant chi-squares were found. Firstly, results demonstrated a significant difference for gender, as males were victims significantly less than expected, while females were victims significantly more than expected. Secondly, those who identified as a sexual minority were victims of sextortion more often than expected. Lastly, a significant association was found between relationship status and sextortion victimization; however, none of the standardized residuals met the 1.96 threshold of significance. Full chi-square results can be found in Table 18.0.

Bivariate correlations between sextortion victimization and mental health outcomes were examined. Similar to each of the other IIIBB victimization types, a small correlation was demonstrated between sextortion victimization and symptoms of psychological distress, $r(611) = .223$, $p < .001$ and between sextortion victimization and PTSD symptoms, $r(613) = .229$, $p < .001$. Therefore, the first hypothesis was supported, as each of the IIIBB victimization types were positively correlated with negative mental health symptoms.

The mediation analyses (Figure 6.0) examined whether an impact on social life due to victimization would mediate the relationship between sextortion victimization and psychological distress or PTSD symptoms. For both models, the control variable of contact sexual victimization was significant, but domestic violence victimization was not. The direct effect between sextortion victimization and psychological distress symptoms was significant, as was the association between sextortion and a greater impact on social life. Mediation (VII) found that impact on social life did not mediate the association between sextortion and psychological distress.

Further, mediation (VIII) tested the relationship between sextortion victimization and PTSD symptoms with the impact on social life as a mediation. The direct effect between sextortion and PTSD symptoms was significant. The association between sextortion and a greater impact on social life was also significant, however, the impact on social life did not mediate the relationship between sextortion victimization and PTSD symptoms.

Illegal Distribution of Intimate Images

As Study 1 examined revenge pornography, sextortion and the other illegal intimate image behaviours (distributing to social media, employment and work) as one variable due to low base-rates, this study examined the same variable for consistency. First, females and gender minorities were victims significantly more than expected, while males were victims significantly less than expected. Further for sexual orientation, sexual minority groups were more likely to be victims than expected. Lastly, a significant association was found between relationship status and victimization, as those who said they were casually dating were more likely to be victims than expected (see Table 18.0 for full results).

There was a small, yet significant, correlation found between psychological distress scores and being a victim of illegal distribution of intimate images, $r(608) = .209$, $p < .001$. There was also a small but significant correlation found between PTSD symptoms and illegal distribution of intimate images, $r(610) = .242$, $p < .001$. These findings support H_1, that victimization from any of the IIIBB behaviours is correlated with increased negative mental health symptoms.

The results of the mediation analyses for the illegal distribution of intimate images are contained in Figure 7.0. Once again, previous contact sexual victimization and domestic violence victimization were controlled for, but only previous contact sexual victimization was significantly associated with mental health symptoms (both psychological distress and PTSD symptoms). For mediation (IX), there was social impact did not mediate the association between illegal distribution of intimate images and psychological distress, however, the direct effect between illegal distribution of intimate images and psychological distress was significant, as was the association with the impact on social life.

Mediation (X) tested the relationships between illegal distribution of intimate images victimization and PTSD symptoms using social impact as a mediator variable. The direct effect between illegal distribution and PTSD symptoms was significant, however, there was no mediation for impact on social life. Therefore, hypotheses 3 was not supported.

Discussion

Summary

Previous research suggests that IIIBB is associated with mental health troubles (such as anxiety and depression) and has significant impacts on one's social life (see e.g., Bates, 2017). Nonetheless, past research has been qualitative in nature and was unable to account for the impact of contact victimization. Further, the Social Support Deterioration model suggests that a negative impact on social life might mediate the association between victimization and negative mental health symptomology (e.g., Frison et al., 2016).

In the present study, each of the IIIBBs were significantly correlated with symptoms of psychological distress symptoms and PTSD at the bivariate level. Within each of the mediation analyses, the direct effect between each of the IIIBB behaviours and the mental health correlates were significant, except for EDDII. This is important as the analyses accounted for the impact of previous sexual contact victimization and domestic violence. Despite the hypotheses, there was limited support for the Social Support Deterioration Model in the context of IIIBB victimization, as impact on social life that arose from IIIBB did not mediate the relationship between victimization and negative mental health symptoms.

Prevalence and Demographic Correlates of IIIBB

Similar to study 1, coerced sexting had the highest prevalence rate of all forms of IIIBB victimization. Most participants (55.7%) reported that they had been coerced or pressured into sexting at least once in their lifetime. Further, chi-square results demonstrated that women were more often coerced into sexting compared with men. These findings align with what is known about coerced sexting in the literature. Previous research has indicated that feeling pressured into sending sexts is a common motivation for why young women sext (Englander 2012, 2015; Lenhart, 2009; Ringrose et al., 2012). For example, Englander's (2015) survey indicated that over half (58%) of respondents, both male and female, aged 18-19 felt coerced into sexting at least once.

For the prevalence of EDDII, 14.6% of participants described that the motive behind why the perpetrator non-consensually shared their intimate images was to brag, fit in, gossip, and/or prove something among their friends. Nonetheless, the true prevalence of EDDII victimization is hard to capture as it requires the victim to know that someone showed their image and then understand why the perpetrator behaved in this manner. As such, it is expected that the prevalence of EDDII is higher than what is highlighted in this study.

Overall, almost 30% of participants said they have been a victim of at least one form of illegal distribution of intimate images; 14.9% have had their images distributed to their social media networks, to their place of work or to their place of education. Meanwhile, 11.4% reported being victims of revenge pornography and 17.3% reported being a victim of sextortion. These numbers are quite high and concerning, while also being inconsistent with previous research that suggests much lower victimization prevalence rates between 0.5%-10.4% depending on the behaviour or where the image was distributed (Gámez-Guadix et al., 2015; Patchin & Hinduja, 2018; Marganski & Melander, 2018). The reason for such a large difference in prevalence rates between this study and previous research may be attributed to the fact that it is likely some participants self-selected if they have had experience with IIIBB. Further, prevalence may be higher in young adults, wherein most studies have primarily focused on adolescents.

This study also revealed two demographic variables that may be related to victimization. Chi-squares revealed that females were more often the victims of all types of IIIBB than males, which is consistent with studies that have demonstrated that women are victims of IIIBB more often than men (e.g. Wood, Barter, Stanley, Aghtaie, & Larkins, 2015). Nonetheless, previous findings are somewhat contradictory as some studies have found that men were more likely to be victims (e.g. Gámez-Guadix et al., 2015; Priebe & Svedin, 2012) and other studies demonstrated no gender differences (e.g. Henry & Powell, 2016; Reed, Tolman, & Ward, 2016).

This study also revealed that people who identified as belonging to gender and sexual minority groups were more likely to be victims of more serious forms of IIIBB, most notably revenge pornography and the illegal distribution of intimate images. These results are consistent with past research that found sexual minorities often reporting that they have had their intimate images or videos shared without their consent more often than heterosexual participants (e.g. Priebe, & Svedin, 2012).

Impact of IIIBB on Mental Health and the Effect of Social Impact

Hypothesis one suggested that there would be an association between victimization and negative psychological effects. This hypothesis was supported, as each form of IIIBB demonstrated positive, yet small, correlations with increased mental health symptoms (psychological distress and PTSD symptoms). In the mediation analyses, each of the behaviours remained associated with both psychological distress and PTSD symptoms, aside from EDDII, which was no longer associated with a higher degree of mental health symptoms. This study supports the findings of Bates (2017) and extends these earlier findings by suggesting that IIIBB is associated with negative mental health symptoms even when controlling for contact victimization.

Although not the focus of the present study, over half of the participants reported having experienced contact sexual assault. Previous contact sexual victimization was associated with psychological distress, which is consistent with a wide body of literature that supports an association between sexual victimization and psychological distress (see e.g. Briere & Jordan, 2004; Plichta, 2004; Resnick, Acierno, & Kilpatrick, 1997). Additionally, research has shown that those who have been sexually victimized are more likely to be victimized again in the future (see e.g., Classen, Palesh & Aggarwal, 2005) and it is possible that a subset of this sample was exposed to multiple forms of victimization in their lifetime. Therefore, this connection should be examined in future studies. Nonetheless, the results suggested that even when controlling for the impact of past contact sexual victimization and domestic violence victimization, there continued to be a significant association between most forms of IIIBB and mental health symptoms.

Hypothesis three suggested that negative impacts on social life would mediate the relationship between victimization and negative mental health. Based on the Social Support Deterioration Model, it was hypothesized that IIIBB victimization hinders, alters, and changes one's access or connection to their social support, thus eliciting negative mental health consequences after stressful situations like victimization occurs. This model was supported in only one of the mediation analyses and the overwhelming conclusion is that impact on social life did not mediate the association between IIIBB and mental health symptoms. This is an interesting finding given the past literature that has found empirical evidence for this model under an array of contexts (see e.g., Gjesfjeld et al., 2010; Kwag et al., 2011; Lee, Anderson, Horowitz & August, 2009; Salazar et al., 2004). The differences in these findings may be attributed to the way in which the social impact scale was designed. It is possible that the social impact measurement included "impacts" that were not relevant to this age group, such as losing a job. Thus, items on this scale may have been more strongly endorsed if there were other, more relevant, 'impacts' listed on the scale. It is also possible that using a strong measure of loss of social support may have altered the findings, as the social impact scale was created for the present study.

Limitations

This study had several limitations. Similar to Study 1, this study could not utilize data from wave two as the attrition rate was high, with only 116 (12.7%) participants returning between waves. This ultimately resulted in very low base-rates for victimization when examining wave two data. Secondly, this study could not capture whether participants met the diagnostic criteria for any mental health disorder as outlined by the American Psychological Associated (2013), as it is not possible infer the presence of psychological disorders based solely on self-report measures. Furthermore, participants were asked if they had been a victim of any form of IIIBB over the course of their lifetime which resulted in participants having to retrospectively consider their experiences and symptoms as victims. It is therefore possible that their self-report did not accurately reflect the degree of problems that were present at that time of the actual victimization.

Lastly, as this research utilized correlational data, it was not possible to determine causality or the direction of the relationships. This is important given research that suggests that victimization has a bidirectional relationship with mental health symptoms. For example, psychological distress may occur after experiencing violent victimization, or psychological distress may increase vulnerability to victimization (Burczycka, 2018). Secondly, bidirectional findings have suggested that not only do social reactions predict PTSD symptoms but that PTSD symptoms also predict subsequent social reactions (see e.g., Ullman & Peter-Hagene, 2016). Lastly, similar to study 2, the IIIBB Victimization Scale was developed for this study as no previous research has measured these constructs. Therefore, the psychometric properties were unknown.

Conclusion

This study aimed to broaden the understanding of how exactly victims of IIIBB are impacted using a quantitative two-wave longitudinal design. The results indicated that IIIBB was associated with symptoms of psychological distress symptoms and PTSD. For most of the analyses, these associations persisted even when controlling for contact sexual victimization and domestic violence victimization. It was also hypothesized that an increase in negative social impacts would mediate the relationship between IIIBB victimization and mental health symptoms; however, support for this hypothesis was limited across all but one mediation analysis. It appears that, despite various motivations for perpetration of IIIBB, the impacts of victimization are similar across all forms of IIIBB.

Chapter Four: Concluding Discussion

Summary

This thesis was the first study to examine distinct IIIBB behaviours individually, with the intention of understanding more about correlates of perpetration and the experience of victims. Study 1 suggested that, while coerced sexting appears to be more strongly associated with problems with sexuality, EDDII appears to be perpetrated as a symptom of overarching relationship problems when accounting for other significant correlates. For the more serious forms of IIIBB, almost all of the correlates were significant (yet small) but did not remain that way when applied to a logistic regression. The only significant correlate in the logistic regression for the illegal distribution of intimate images was conflict in romantic relationships, which aligns with previous research suggesting the revenge pornography and sextortion may be extensions of interpersonal violence (Citrons & Franks, 2014). Nonetheless, these small correlations suggest that there may be correlates that are better fit for IIIBB that have yet to be discovered.

In terms of victimization, previous research has suggested that there is various negative mental health and social impacts that are associated with being a victim of IIIBB (see e.g., Bates, 2017; Bloom, 2016). The findings from study 2 suggest that being a victim of IIIBB is associated with various negative mental health and social impacts. It was hypothesized that an increase in negative social impact, such as being gossiped about and losing friends or a job, would mediate the relationship between negative mental health symptoms; however, there was little support for this hypothesis in Study 2. This study highlights the need to continue research into the relationship between victimization, coping mechanisms, and ultimately, mental health symptoms.

Future Research Directions

Longitudinal Research. This study was originally designed with the intention of examining IIIBB via a longitudinal design, however this was altered to a cross-sectional design that utilized wave one data due to low base-rates of IIIBB at wave two and high attrition. A successful longitudinal design would have allowed for two research questions to be answered; 1) whether the proposed potential correlates were true risk factors for the perpetration of the IIIBB behaviours and 2) the direction of the relationship between mental health, the impact on a victim's social life and overall victimization. Future research should examine both perpetration and victimization using a longitudinal design to address these questions. Further, there is a need to develop measures with strong psychometric properties to assess various IIIBB constructs for perpetration, victimization and offence-supportive attitudes.

The study methodology could be strengthened in three ways in the future. One way to strengthen the present study in future research would be to increase the age range for participants. This study garnered interest from people outside of the 18-25-year-old age range and including them in the study may have increased the base-rates of perpetration. Further, the second wave should occur with a longer time between wave 1 and wave 2. The authors initially selected 4 months as this was successful in previous research (see e.g., Hermann, 2015). Increasing the time period would potentially increase the base rates of IIIBB, particularly the more severe forms of behaviour and allow for more sophisticated analyses. Lastly, increasing the motivation to participate by compensating participants more generously may have been more effective in reducing attrition rates. Participants were entered into a draw to win one of five $200 prepaid visa gift-cards. Perhaps paying for participation in each wave, even a slight amount, would have increased retention rates. Future research is needed to establish the temporal sequencing of the correlates found in the study.

Examination of other potential risk factors. Study one found small but significant correlations for each of the potential correlates of IIBB. This finding suggests that there are likely other potential correlates that are more strongly associated with IIIBB and may better explain some of the behaviours. Future research should continue to examine other correlates to build a more fulsome understanding of IIIBB. For example, the perpetration of IIIBB may be an extension of relationship violence, such as a mechanism to maintain control or to manipulate one's romantic partner (see e.g., Citron & Franks, 2014). This study supports this by finding that difficulty with romantic relationships in the form of conflict was associated with the illegal distribution of intimate imageswhen accounting for the other variables. Second, policy-related literature suggests that IIIBB may be a form of cyber-bullying. Research suggests that risk factors for the involvement of cyber-bulling among school-aged adolescents are previous verbal or physical aggression, higher internet usage, and unsafe internet practice (such as, giving out passwords). Further, self-esteem, status, and peer-rejection have also been found to be related to the perpetration of cyber-bullying (Mishna et al., 2012; Modecki et al., 2013; Patchin & Hinduja, 2010). Perhaps then, examining predictors from both the interpersonal violence literature and cyber-bullying literature may hold valuable answers to better understanding risk factors for perpetrating IIIBB.

Impact of IIIBB on Mental Health. Future research in this area should aim to deepen the understanding of how IIIBB relates to mental health. Qualitative data in this area suggests that mental health is severely impacted by victimization (see e.g., Bates, 2017). While our study did support that victimization was associated with negative mental health symptoms, the effect was small and there was a much larger effect for contact sexual victimization. Further, it was surprising that, for the majority of IIIBB behaviours, the negative impact on one's social life did not mediate the relationship between victimization and negative mental health. This suggests a need to better understand both how people are socially impacted, but also, how that relates to their mental health. Researchers are also encouraged to examine the protective factors literature, especially as it relates to positive social support and connection, as these factors may mediate against negative mental health impacts. An interesting area of research, that has yet to be examined, is how people react to receiving or witnessing non-consensual intimate image sharing. Secondly, future research may wish to explore how stigmatized these behaviours are. Researchers could examine whether being a victim increases stigma, and whether that exacerbates mental health symptoms. Future work should specifically examine the relationship between stigma and mental health issues for victims of IIIBB. This may contribute to a better understanding of *how* victims are impacted, and whether the social reactions are in fact similar to that of other non-consensual sexual transgressions.

Examining the victim/perpetrator relationship. Research by Powell et al. (2018) found a relationship between previous victimization of IIIBB and perpetration, suggesting that a relationship exists between victimization and perpetration. This link has been well-documented in similar, yet different, areas of research as well. For example, in terms of contact sexual victimization, the victim-to-perpetrator relationship is well establishied (see e.g., Glasser et al., 2001). Likewise, within adolescent and children bullying literature, research has demonstrated that those who have been both bullies and victims (known as 'bully-victims') have worse psychological and social outcomes than those who were strictly victims (see e.g. Copeland, Wolke, Angold & Costello, 2013). Understanding how IIIBB perpetrator-victims are impacted is important, especially if they are similar to bullying literature, wherein their psychological outcomes are worse (Copeland et al., 2013). Overall, research in the area of IIIBB should continue to investigate and understand IIIBB victimization, IIIBB perpetration and those who are perpetrator-victims to better understand the impact of IIIBB on mental health symptoms.

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Table 1.0

Demographic Variables for Study 1 and 2 (n = 630)

	Sample % *(n)*	Mean (SD)
Age	*N* = 630	21.18 (2.21)
18	15.2% (96)	
19	11.4% (72)	
20	14.4% (91)	
21	16.7% (105)	
22	11.6% (73)	
23	11.9% (75)	
24	9.0% (57)	
25	9.7% (61)	
Gender		
Female	66.8% (421)	
Male	30.0% (189)	
Gender minority (e.g., trans)	2.7% (17)	
Ethnic Background		
Caucasian	77.0% (479)	
Asian	8.0% (50)	
African American	3.4% (21)	
Indigenous	1.1% (7)	
East Indian	1.0% (6)	
Mixed Race/Other	9.5% (59)	
Highest Level of Education Achieved		
High-School Education	21.4% (124)	
Post-Secondary Education	78.6% (455)	
Relationship Status		
Single	37.8% (235)	
Dating	14.7% (91)	
Committed relationship	47.5% (295)	
Sexual Orientation		
Heterosexual	76.5% (470)	
Sexual Minority (Gay, Bisexual, Asexual)	23.5% (144)	

Note. Some of the frequencies do not equal 630 because there is missing data for some of the demographic variables.

Table 2.0

Self-Generated Identification Code (SGICs) Questions and Examples

Question	Response Format	Example
1. How tall are you in feet and inches?	Text box	5 feet 5 inches
2. What month were you born?	Drop down box	March
3. What month was your mother born?	Drop down box	January
4. What month was your father born?	Drop down box	October
5. Number of older brothers	Text Box	2
6. Last letter of your last name	Drop down box	T

Note: The SGICs were used a means of anonymously connecting participants' answers from Wave 1 to their answers at Wave 2.

Table 3.0

Descriptive Statistics for all Study 1 Correlates

Scale	Mean	*SD*	Min.	Max	Skew	Kurtosis
Sexual Compulsivity Scale	4.90	5.24	0	30	1.76	3.60
The Paraphilia Scale	91.67	32.85	38	266	.80	1.21
Voyeurism Subscale	2.54	1.92	1	7	.83	-.84
Sadism Subscale	20.24	8.08	6	42	.14	-.66
IIIBB Victim Blaming Scale	19.79	6.83	11	55	1.40	3.21
UCLA Loneliness Scale	49.28	12.97	23	83	.16	-.66
CTS2S	7.83	12.09	0	112	3.76*	20.52*
BIS-Brief	16.72	4.27	8	30	.33	-.40
SDT-3	69.79	12.42	43	120	.39	.32
Machiavellianism Subscale	26.65	5.97	11	45	.13	.07
Narcissism Subscale	23.88	5.57	9	42	.12	.05
Psychopathy Subscale	19.23	5.31	9	41	.38	.09
Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale	7.15	1.90	0	13	-.11	.17

Note: IIIBB = Inappropriate Intimate Image Based Behaviours

Table 4.0

Frequencies for each item of the IIIBB Perpetration Scale

Item	Never perpetrated		Perpetrated over lifetime	
	n	%	*n*	%
1. How often have you pressured or coerced someone into sending you a sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) image or video?	506	80.3%	124	19.7%
2. How often have you uploaded someone's sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) images or videos online or to social media?	615	97.6%	15	2.4%
3. How often have you sent someone's sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) images or videos to their employers, employees, place of work or place of education?	622	98.7%	8	1.3%
4. How often have you distributed someone's sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) images as a way of seeking revenge on them or humiliating them?	620	98.2%	10	1.6%
5. How often have you threatened to distribute someone's sexually explicit nude (either full or partial) images or videos to the public, to their friends, or via social media as a means of gaining something from them (e.g., more nude images, money, stop them from ending a relationship)?	620	98.4%	8	1.3%
6. How often have you blackmailed someone by using their sexually explicit nude (either full or partial) images or videos?	623	98.9%	7	1.1%

Table 5.0

Chi-square Test of Independence Results Between Demographic Variables and Coerced Sexting Perpetration

		Perpetration of Coerced Sexting				
	Sample Size	**Did not perpetrate** % (*n*)	**Perpetrated** % (*n*)	χ^2	*V*	*Fisher's Exact Test*
Gender	*n=627*				.20	22.90***
Female		85.3% *(359)*	14.7% *(62)*			
Male		68.3% *(129)*	31.7% *(60)*			
Other (trans, etc.)		88.2% *(15)*	11.8% *(2)*			
Sexual Orientation	*n=614*			1.66	.05	
Heterosexual		79.1% *(372)*	20.9% *(98)*			
Sexual Minority		84.0% *(121)*	16.0% *(23)*			
Ethnicity	*n=622*				.06	2.31
African American		76.2% *(16)*	23.8% *(5)*			
Asian		78.0% *(39)*	22.0% *(11)*			
Caucasian		81.2% *(389)*	18.8% *(90)*			
East Indian		83.3% *(5)*	16.7% *(1)*			
First Nations		85.7% *(6)*	14.3% *(1)*			
Other		74.6% *(44)*	25.4% *(15)*			

Relationship Status	*n=621*	85.5% *(201)*	14.5% *(34)*	9.03**	.12
Single		82.4% *(75)*	17.6% *(16)*		
Casually Dating		75.3% *(222)*	24.7% *(73)*		
Committed Relationship					
Education	*n=601*			.33	.02
High school		79.0% *(98)*	21.0% *(26)*		
Postsecondary		81.3% *(370)*	18.7% *(85)*		

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Table 6.0

Bivariate Pearson's Correlations for Each of the IIIBB Behaviours and the Candidate Correlates

	Coerced Sexting	EDDII	Illegal Distribution of Intimate Images
Sexual Compulsivity	.24***	.15***	.14***
Offence-supportive Attitudes	.12**	.12**	.10*
Paraphilic Interests	.13**	.05	.14**
Voyeuristic Interests	.24***	.11**	.10*
Sadism Interests	.14**	.09*	.12**
Difficulty with Romantic Relationships	.06	-.02	.02
Loneliness			
Difficulty with Romantic Relationships	.14**	.15***	.07
Conflict+			
Dark Triad	.20***	.19***	.18***
Machiavellianism	.15***	.14**	.12**
Narcissism	.12**	.14***	.08
Psychopathy	.16***	.15***	.18***
Impulsivity	.06	.06	.11**

Note. To examine the relationship between difficulty with romantic relationships and the perpetration variables, a Spearman's Rho correlation was computed instead as the CTS2S was not normally distributed

*$p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 7.0

Logistic Regression Between Perpetration of Coerced Sexting and Correlates

			95% CI for Adjusted Odds Ratio	
	B (SE)	Odds Ratio	Lower	Upper
Block 1				
Intercept	-4.32(.72)			
Sexual Compulsivity	.06 (.02)*	1.06	1.02	1.12
Offence-supportive Attitudes	.03 (.02)	.99	.99	1.06
Voyeuristic Interests	.19 (.06)**	1.21	1.07	1.36
Sadism Interests	.01 (.02)	1.01	.98	1.04
Difficulty with Relationships *Conflict*	.02 (.01)	1.02	1.00	1.04
Machiavellianism	.01 (.02)	1.01	.97	1.06
Narcissism	.04 (.02)	1.04	1.00	1.08
Psychopathy	-.01 (.03)	.99	.94	1.05

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Table 8.0

Chi-square Test of Independence Results Between Demographic Variables and EDDII Perpetration

		EDDII				
	Sample Size	**Did not perpetrate** % *(n)*	**Perpetrated** % (Stand. Residual)*(n)*	χ^2	*V*	*Fisher's Exact Test*
Gender	*n=627*				.02	.50
Female		85.5% *(360)*	14.5% *(61)*			
Male		84.1% *(159)*	15.9% *(30)*			
Other (trans, etc.)		82.4% *(14)*	17.6% *(3)*			
Sexual Orientation	*n=614*			.39	.03	
Heterosexual		84.7% *(398)*	15.3% *(72)*			
Sexual Minority		86.8% *(125)*	13.2% *(19)*			
Ethnicity	*n=622*				.05	2.61
African America		81.0% *(17)*	19.0% *(4)*			
Asian		88.0% *(44)*	12.0% *(6)*			
Caucasian		85.2% *(408)*	14.8% *(71)*			
East Indian		83.3% *(5)*	16.7% *(1)*			
First Nations		71.4% *(5)*	28.6% *(2)*			
Other		83.1% *(49)*	16.9% *(10)*			
Relationship Status	*n=621*			1.27	.05	
Single		83.0% *(195)*	17.0% *(40)*			
Casually Dating		86.8% *(79)*	13.2% *(79)*			
Committed Relationship		86.1% *(254)*	13.9% *(41)*			

Education	*n=579*			.07	.01
High school		83.9% (-.1) *(104)*	16.1% (.2) *(20)*		
Postsecondary		84.8% (.0) *(386)*	15.2% (-.1) (69)		

* p < .05, ** *p* < .01, *** *p* < .001.

Table 9.0

Logistic Regression Analyses Between Perpetration of EDDII and Correlates

			95% CI for Odds Ratio	
	B (SE)	Odds Ratio	Lower	Upper
Block 1**				
Intercept	-1.08(.05)**			
Social Desirability	-.12(.05)	.89	.81	.97
Block 2**				
Intercept	-4.45(.92)**			
Social Desirability Scale	-.10 (.05)	.91	.82	1.00
Sexual Compulsivity	.02 (.03)	1.02	.98	1.07
Offence-supportive Attitudes	.04 (.02)*	1.04	1.00	1.08
Voyeuristic Interests	.06 (.07)	1.07	.93	1.22
Sadism Interests	.01 (.02)	1.01	.98	1.05
Difficulty with Relationships *Conflict*	.03 (.01) **	1.03	1.01	1.05
Machiavellianism	.01 (.06)	.96	.96	1.06
Narcissism	.05 (.02) *	1.05	1.01	1.10
Psychopathy	-.01(.03)	.99	.93	1.05

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Table 10.0

Chi-square Test of Independence Results Between Demographic Variables and the Illegal Distribution of Intimate Images

		Illegal Distribution of Intimate Images				
	Sample Size	**Did not perpetrate** % (*n*)	**Perpetrated** % (*n*)	χ^2	*V*	*Fisher's Exact Test*
Gender	*n=625*				.01	.37
Female		95.0% *(399)*	5.0% *(21)*			
Male		94.7% *(178)*	5.3% *(10)*			
Other		94.1% *(16)*	5.9% *(1)*			
Sexual Orientation	*n=612*			.96	.04	
Heterosexual		94.5% *(443)*	5.5% *(26)*			
Sexual Minority		96.5% *(138)*	3.5% *(5)*			
Ethnicity	*n=620*				.08	4.10
African America		90.5% *(19)*	9.5% (2)			
Asian		90.0% *(45)*	10.0% *(5)*			
Caucasian		95.4% *(455)*	4.6% *(22)*			
East Indian		100% *(6)*	0.0% *(0)*			
First Nations		100% *(7)*	0.0% *(0)*			
Other		94.9% *(56)*	5.1% *(3)*			

<u>Relationship Status</u>	*n=619*	93.6% *(220)*	6.4% *(15)*		.08	4.10*
Single		98.9% *(89)*	1.1% *(1)*			
Casually Dating		95.6% *(281)*	4.4% *(13)*			
Committed Relationship						
<u>Education</u>	*n=599*			.22	.64	
High school		94.4% (*117)*	5.6% *(7)*			
Postsecondary		95.4% *(432)*	4.6% *(28)*			

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 11.0

Logistic Regression Between Correlates and the Illegal Distribution of Intimate Images

			95% CI for Odds Ratio	
	B (SE)	Odds Ratio	Lower	Upper
Block 1 **				
Intercept	-1.89 (.40)			
Social Desirability	-.21 (.08)	.81	.70	.94
Block 2 ***				
Intercept	-6.29 (1.29)**			
Social Desirability	-.14 (.09)	.87	.7	1.02
Sexual Compulsivity	-.08(.04)	.97	.90	1.06
Offence-supportive Attitudes	.02 (.03)	1.02	.96	1.08
Voyeuristic Interests	.12 (.11)	1.13	.91	1.39
Sadism Interests	.03 (.03)	1.03	.98	1.09
Difficulty with Relationships *Conflict*	.03** (.01)	1.04	.10	1.06
Machiavellianism	.02 (.04)	1.02	.94	1.10
Psychopathy	.07 (.05)	1.07	.07	1.18

$^{*}p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 12.0

Descriptive Statistics for Variables in Study 2

Scale	*M*	*SD*	Min.	Max	Skew	Kurtosis
Brief Symptom Inventory -18	38.96	15.25	18	90	.84	.16
PTSD Checklist	23.61	18.4	0	80	.85	.05
Social Impact Score	0.67	1.46	0	13	3.67	17.10
Social Impact Score Transformed	.14	.23	0	1.15	1.73	2.60

Table 13.0

Frequencies for Each Item of the IIIBB Victimization Scale

Item	Never been a victim		Been a victim at least once in their lifetime	
	n	%	*n*	%
1. How often have you felt pressured or coerced into sending a sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) image or video?	279	44.3%	351	55.7%
2. How often have your sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) images or videos been uploaded online or to social media?	542	86.0%	88	14.0%
3. How often have your sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) images or videos been sent to your employers, employees, place of work or place of education?	616	97.8%	13	2.1%
4. How often has someone distributed your sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) images as a way of seeking revenge on you or humiliating you?	556	88.3%	72	11.4%
5. Has anyone ever threatened to distribute your sexually explicit nude (either full or partial) images or videos as a means of gaining something (e.g., money, relationship security, more intimate images) from you?	530	84.1%	100	15.9%
6. Has anyone ever blackmailed you by using your sexually explicit nude (either full or partial) images or videos?	547	86.8%	81	12.9%

Table 14.0

Chi-square Test of Independence Results Between Demographic Variables and Coerced Sexting Victimization

		Coerced Sexting Victimization				
	Sample Size	**Never been a victim** % (*n*)	**Been a victim at least once** % (*n*)	χ^2	*V*	*Fisher's Exact Test*
Gender	*n=627*				.35	77.95***
Female		32.3% *(136)*	67.7% *(285)*			
Male		70.4% *(133)*	29.6% *(56)*			
Other (trans, etc.)		52.9% *(9)*	47.1% *(8)*			
Sexual Orientation	*n=614*			2.32	.06	
Heterosexual		46.8% *(220)*	53.2% *(250)*			
Sexual Minority		39.6% *(57)*	60.4% *(87)*			
Ethnicity	*n=622*				.04	1.33
African America		47.6% *(10)*	52.4% *(11)*			
Asian		48.0% *(24)*	52.0% *(26)*			
Caucasian		44.1% *(211)*	55.9% *(268)*			
East Indian		50.0% *(3)*	50.0% *(3)*			
First Nations		42.9% *(3)*	57.1% *(4)*			
Other		39.0% *(23)*	61.0% *(36)*			

<u>Relationship Status</u>	*n=621*			2.18	.06
Single		46.4% *(109)*	53.6% *(126)*		
Casually Dating		37.4% *(34)*	62.6% *(57)*		
Committed Relationship		44.4% *(131)*	55.6% *(164)*		
<u>Education</u>	*n=579*			6.03**	.10
High School		34.7% *(43)*	65.3% *(81)*		
Postsecondary		47.0% *(214)*	53.0% *(241)*		

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 15.0

Chi-square Test of Independence Results Between Demographic Variables and EDDI Victimization

		EDDII Victimization				
	Sample Size	**Never been a victim** % (*n*)	**Been a victim at least once** % (*n*)	χ^2	*V*	*Fisher's Exact Test*
Gender	*n=627*				.11	8.11**
Female		83.1% *(350)*	16.9% *(71)*			
Male		91.0% *(172)*	9.0% *(17)*			
Other (trans, etc.)		76.5% *(13)*	23.5% *(4)*			
Sexual Orientation	*n=614*			.50	.03	
Heterosexual		86.4% *(406)*	13.6% *(64)*			
Sexual Minority		84.0% *(121)*	16.0% *(23)*			
Ethnicity	*n=622*				.08	5.06
African America		85.7% *(18)*	14.3% *(3)*			
Asian		92.0% *(46)*	8.0% *(4)*			
Caucasian		85.6% *(410)*	14.4% *(69)*			
East Indian		83.3% *(5)*	16.7% *(1)*			
First Nations		71.4% *(5)*	28.6% *(2)*			
Other		79.7% (47)	20.3% *(12)*			

Relationship Status	*n=621*			4.90	.09
Single		89.4% *(210)*	10.6% *(25)*		
Casually Dating		82.4% *(75)*	17.6% *(16)*		
Committed Relationship		83.1% *(245)*	16.9% *(50)*		
Education	*n=579*	84.7% *(105)*	15.3% *(19)*	.08	.01
High School		85.7% *(390)*	14.3% *(65)*		
Postsecondary					

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 16.0

Chi-square Test of Independence Results Between Demographic Variables and Revenge Pornography Victimization

		Revenge Pornography Victimization				
	Sample Size	**Never been a victim** % (*n*)	**Been a victim at least once** % (*n*)	χ^2	*V*	*Fisher's Exact Test*
Gender	*n=625*				.14	12.60**
Female		86.7% *(364)*	13.3% *(56)*			
Male		94.1% *(177)*	5.9% (*11*)			
Other (trans, etc.)		70.6% *(12)*	29.4% *(5)*			
Sexual Orientation	*n=612*			9.58**	.13	
Heterosexual		91.7% *(429)*	8.3% *(39)*			
Sexual Minority		82.6% (-.9) *(119)*	17.4% *(25)*			
Ethnicity	*n=620*				.09	4.15
African America		100% *(21)*	0% *(0)*			
Asian		89.8% *(44)*	10.2% *(5)*			
Caucasian		88.5% *(423)*	11.5% *(55)*			
East Indian		100% *(6)*	0% *(0)*			
First Nations		85.7% *(6)*	14.3% (*1*)			
Other		84.7% *(50)*	15.3% (*9*)			

<u>Relationship Status</u>	*n=619*			14.58**	.15
Single		92.8% *(218)*	7.2% (*17)*		
Casually Dating		77.8% *(70)*	22.2% (*20)*		
Committed Relationship		88.8% *(261)*	11.2% (*33)*		
<u>Education</u>	*n=577*			2.87	.07
High School		84.7% *(105)*	15.3% *19)*		
Post-secondary		90.1% *(408)*	9.9% *(45)*		

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 17.0

Chi-square Test of Independence Results Between Demographic Variables and Sextortion Victimization

	Sample Size	Sextortion Victimization **Never been a victim** % (*n*)	 **Been a victim at least once** % (*n*)	χ^2	*V*	*Fisher's Exact Test*
Gender	*n=625*				.18	22.92**
Female		78.3% *(329)*	21.7% *(91)*			
Male		93.1% *(175)*	6.9% *(13)*			
Other (trans, etc.)		76.5% *(13)*	23.5% *(4)*			
Sexual Orientation	*n=612*			10.33***	.13	
Heterosexual		86.3% *(404)*	13.7% *(64)*			
Sexual Minority		75.0% *(108)*	25.0% *(36)*			
Ethnicity	*n=620*				.08	3.33
African America		85.7% *(18)*	14.3% *(3)*			
Asian		88.0% *(44)*	12.0% *(6)*			
Caucasian		82.6% *(394)*	17.4% *(83)*			
East Indian		100% *(6)*	0% *(0)*			
First Nations		85.7% *(6)*	14.3% *(1)*			
Other		76.3% *(45)*	23.7% *(14)*			
Relationship Status	*n=619*			7.45*	.11	
Single		87.1% *(203)*	12.9% *(30)*			
Casually Dating		74.7% *(68)*	25.3% *(23)*			
Committed Relationship		81.7% *(241)*	18.3% *(54)*			

Education	*n=577*			1.13	.04
High School		79.8% *(99)*	20.2% *(25)*		
Post-secondary		83.9% *(380)*	16.1% *(73)*		

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 18.0

Chi-square Test of Independence Results Between Demographic Variables and Victimization from the Illegal Distribution of Intimate Images

		IDII Victimization				
	Sample Size	**Never been a victim** % (*n*)	**Been a victim at least once** % (*n*)	χ^2	*V*	*Fisher's Exact Test*
Gender	*n=622*				.21	29.02***
Female		69.0% (*289*)	31.0% *(130)*			
Male		86.0% *(160)*	14.0% *(26)*			
Other (trans, etc.)		41.2% *(7)*	58.8% *(10)*			
Sexual Orient.	*n=609*			13.98***	.15	
Heterosexual		78.1% *(363)*	21.9% *(102)*			
Sexual Minority		62.5% *(90)*	37.5% *(54)*			
Ethnicity	*n=617*				.07	3.07
African America		61.9% *(13)*	38.1% *(8)*			
Asian		67.3% *(33)*	32.7% *(16)*			
Caucasian		73.9% *(351)*	26.1% *(124)*			
East Indian		83.3% *(5)*	16.7% *(1)*			
First Nations		85.7% *(6)*	14.3% *(1)*			
Other		74.6% (*44)*	25.4% *(15)*			

Relation. Status	*n=616*			10.06**	.13
Single		78.4% *(182)*	21.6% *(50)*		
Casually Dating		61.1% *(55)*	38.9% *(35)*		
Committed Relationship		73.8% *(217)*	26.2% *(77)*		
Education	*n=574*			1.54	.05
High School		69.4% *(86)*	30.6% *(38)*		
Post-Secondary		74.9% *(337)*	25.1% *(113)*		

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

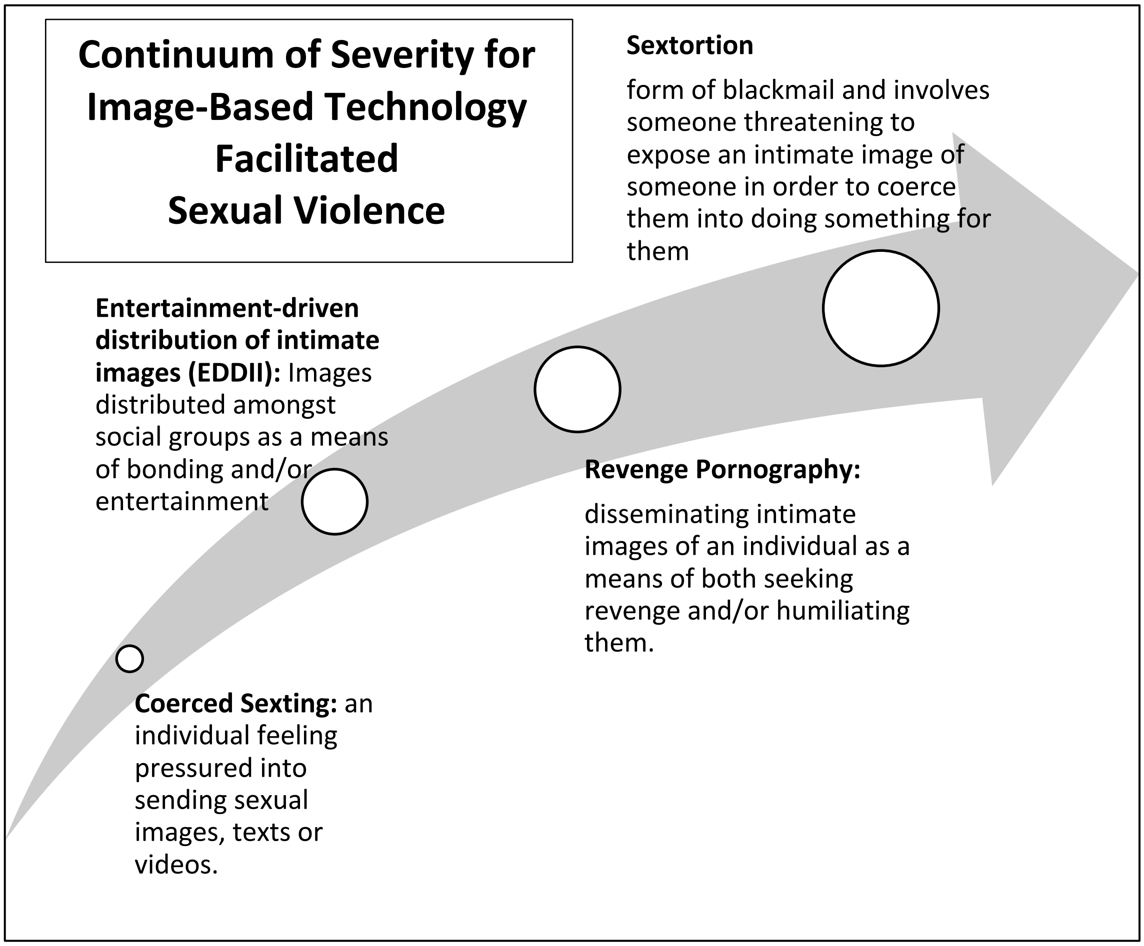
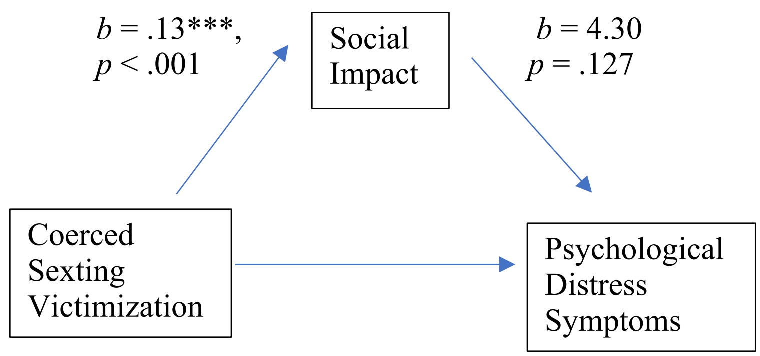


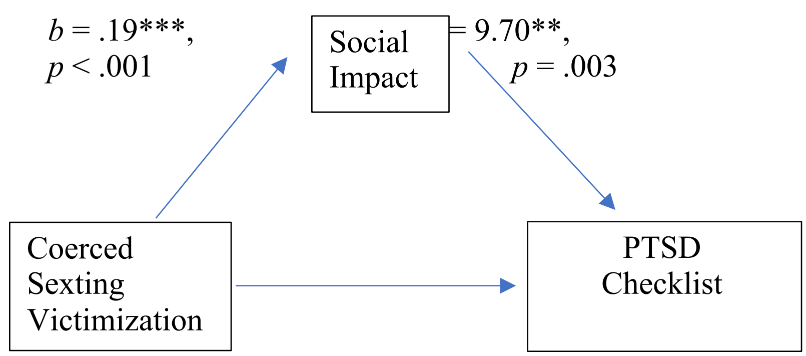
Figure 1.0: Demonstration of the continuum of severity for technology facilitated sexual violence where sexting and image-distribution are involved.

Mediation (I)



Direct effect, *b* = 3.79**, *p* = .006
Indirect effect, *b'* = .56, 95% CI [-.17, 1.33]
Previous Contact Sexual Victimization: *b* = 6.96***, *p* < .001
Domestic Violence Victimization: *b* = .09**, *p* =.066

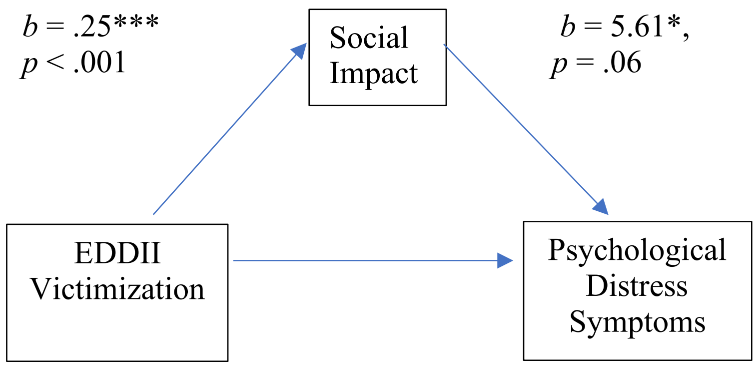
Mediation (II)



Direct effect, *b* = 3.52*, *p* = .03
Indirect effect, *b'* = 1.24, 95% CI [.28, 2.24]
Previous Contact Sexual Victimization: *b* = 9.20***, *p* < .001
Domestic Violence Victimization: *b* = .10, *p* =.09

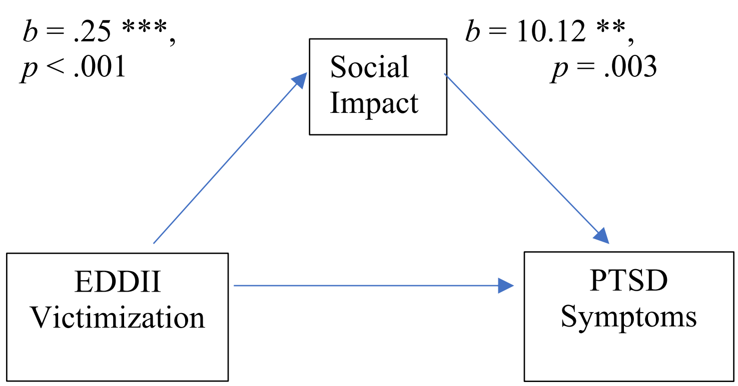
Figure 2.0: Mediation Diagrams Using Hayes' (2012) PROCESS Module for Coerced Sexting Victimization. Previous contact sexual victimization and domestic violence was controlled for in the model, * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, *** *p* < .001.

Mediation (III)



Direct effect, $b = 1.21$, $p = .52$
Indirect effect, $b' = 1.40$, 95% CI [-.15, 2.91]
Previous Contact Sexual Victimization: $b = 8.29$*** $p < .001$
Domestic Violence Victimization: $b = .09$, $p = .07$

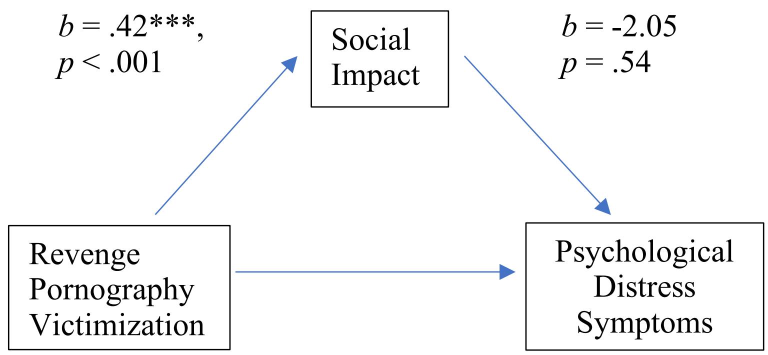
Mediation (IV)



Direct effect, $b = 2.26$, $p = .30$
Indirect effect, $b' = 2.53$, 95% CI [.64, 4.61]
Previous Contact Sexual Victimization: $b = 10.41$***, $p < .001$
Domestic Violence Victimization: $b = .10$*, $p = .09$

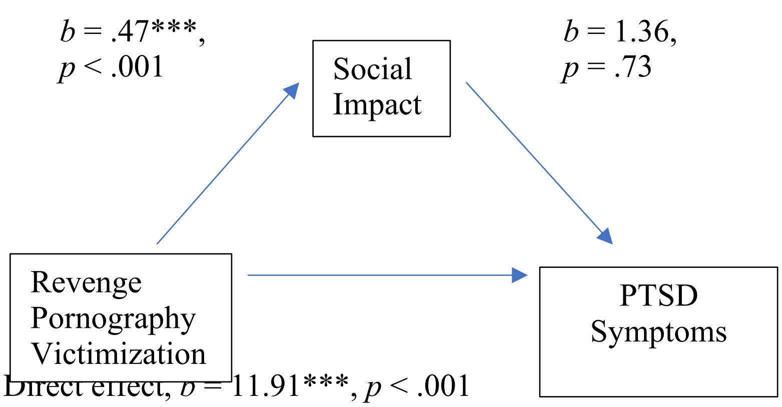
Figure 3.0: Mediation Diagrams Using Hayes' (2012) PROCESS Module for EDDII Victimization. Previous contact sexual victimization and domestic violence victimization were controlled for in the model, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Mediation (V)



Direct effect, *b* = 10.03***, *p* < .001
Indirect effect, *b'* = -.86, 95% CI [-3.67, 2.09]
Previous Contact Sexual Victimization: *b* = 7.98***, *p* < .001
Domestic Violence Victimization: *b* = .08, *p* =.12

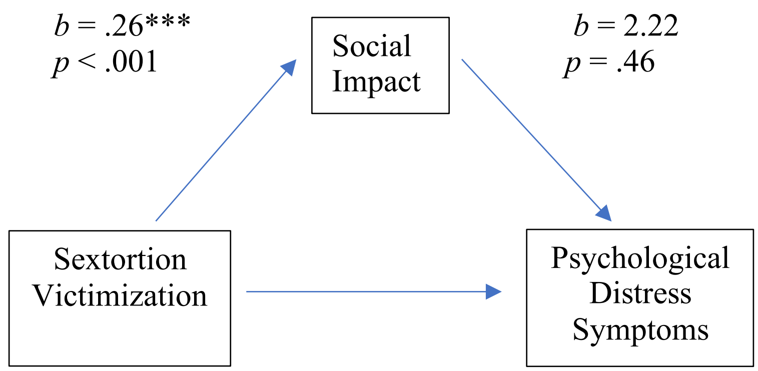
Mediation (VI)



Direct effect, *b* = 11.91***, *p* < .001
Indirect effect, *b'* = .59, 95% CI [-2.78, 3.99]
Previous Contact Sexual Victimization: *b* = 10.17***, *p* < .001
Domestic Violence Victimization: *b* = .09, *p* =.11

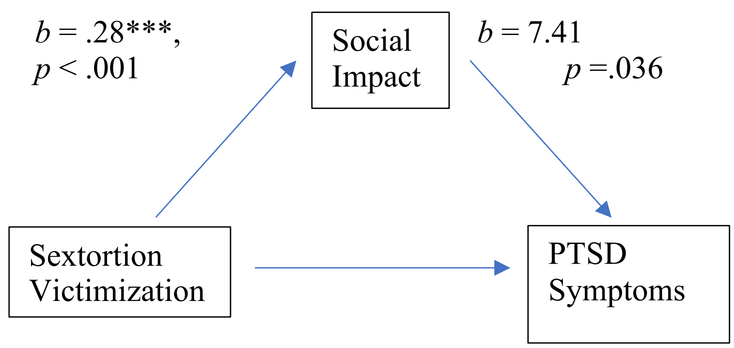
Figure 4.0. Mediation Diagrams Using Hayes' (2012) PROCESS Module for Revenge Pornography Victimization. Previous contact sexual victimization and domestic violence was controlled for in the model, * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01, *** *p* < .001.

Mediation (IX)



Direct effect, b = 5.74**, *p =.001*
Indirect effect, b' = .57, 95% CI [-.94, 2.08]
Previous Contact Sexual Victimization: b = 7.90***, p < .001
Domestic Violence Victimization: b = .08, p = .12

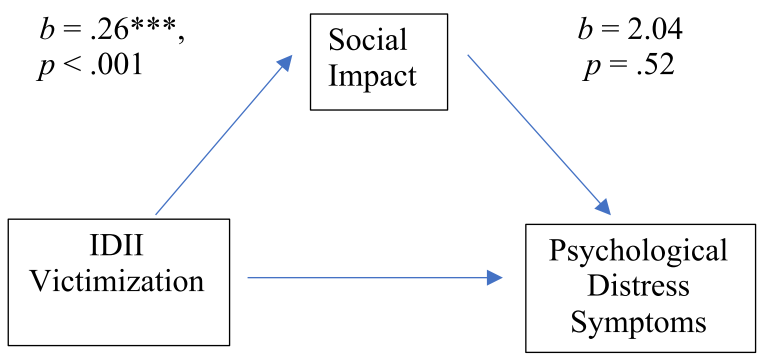
Mediation (X)



Direct effect, b = 5.61**, p = .008
Indirect effect, b' = 1.97, 95% CI [-.015, 3.99]
Previous Contact Sexual Victimization: b = 10.03***, p < .001
Domestic Violence Victimization: b = .10, p = .12

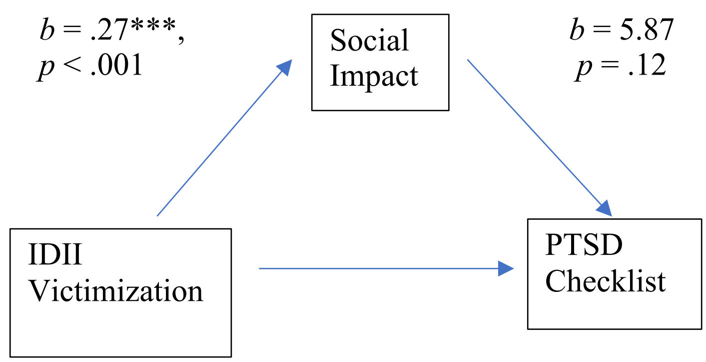
Figure 5.0. Mediation Diagrams Using Hayes' (2012) PROCESS Module for Sextortion Victimization. Previous contact sexual victimization and domestic violence was controlled for in the model, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Mediation (V)



Direct effect, $b = 4.32^{**}$, $p = .008$
Indirect effect, $b' = .54$, 95% CI [-1.17, 2.16]
Previous Contact Sexual Victimization: $b = 7.91^{***}$, $p < .001$
Domestic Violence Victimization: $b = .09$, $p = .10$

Mediation (VI)



Direct effect, $b = 5.56^{**}$, $p = .004$
Indirect effect, $b' = 1.57$, 95% CI [-.65, 3.68]
Previous Contact Sexual Victimization: $b = 9.98^{***}$, $p < .001$
Domestic Violence Victimization: $b = .10$, $p = .08$

Figure 5.0. Mediation Diagrams Using Hayes' (2012) PROCESS Module for Illegal Distribution of Intimate Images Victimization. Previous contact sexual victimization and domestic violence was controlled for in the model, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Appendix A

The Legal Definition of "Non-Consensual Distribution of Intimate Images"

Publication, etc., of an intimate image without consent

162.1 (1) Everyone who knowingly publishes, distributes, transmits, sells, makes available or advertises an intimate image of a person knowing that the person depicted in the image did not give their consent to that conduct, or being reckless as to whether or not that person gave their consent to that conduct, is guilty

- **(a)** of an indictable offence and liable to imprisonment for a term of not more than five years; or
- **(b)** of an offence punishable on summary conviction.

Definition of *intimate image*

(2) In this section, *intimate image* means a visual recording of a person made by any means including a photographic, film or video recording,

- **(a)** in which the person is nude, is exposing his or her genital organs or anal region or her breasts or is engaged in explicit sexual activity;
- **(b)** in respect of which, at the time of the recording, there were circumstances that gave rise to a reasonable expectation of privacy; and
- **(c)** in respect of which the person depicted retains a reasonable expectation of privacy at the time the offence is committed.

Defence

(3) No person shall be convicted of an offence under this section if the conduct that forms the subject-matter of the charge serves the public good and does not extend beyond what serves the public good.

Question of fact and law, motives

(4) For the purposes of subsection (3),

- **(a)** it is a question of law whether the conduct serves the public good and whether there is evidence that the conduct alleged goes beyond what serves the public good, but it is a question of fact whether the conduct does or does not extend beyond what serves the public good; and
- **(b)** the motives of an accused are irrelevant.

2014, c. 31, s. 3

Appendix B

Please answer the following questions :

Age : _____________

The sex you were assumed at birth :

- Male
- Female
- Other: Please Specify
- I do not wish to answer

The gender you identify with :

- Woman
- Man
- Transwoman
- Transman
- Gender fluid/gender queer
- None of these apply to me: (Please specify)
- I do not wish to answer

Ethnic Background:

- African American
- Asian
- Caucasian
- East Indian
- First Nations
- Other: Please Specify
- I do not wish to answer this question.

Relationship Status:

- Single
- Dating
- Committed relationship
- Common law or living together
- Engaged
- Married
- Divorced
- Widowed
- Other: please specify
- I do not wish to answer this question

Sexual Orientation

- Heterosexual (straight)
- Mostly Heterosexual (mostly straight)
- Bisexual
- Mostly Homosexual (mostly gay/lesbian)
- Homosexual (gay/lesbian)
- Asexual
- Other: please specify
- I do not wish to answer this question

What is the highest level of education you have?

- Secondary School/High School
- Part of an undergraduate degree
- Undergraduate Degree
- PhD
- Technical School
- Parts of a college diploma
- College diploma
- None of the above

Appendix C

IIIBB Perpetration Scale

At Wave 1, these questions were asked about behaviours within the lifetime. At wave 2, these questions were specified for behaviours within the last four months.

- Coerced sexting item
- EDDII item
- Illegal distribution of intimate images
- Revenge pornography item
- Sextortion item

	1 Never	2 Once	3 Twice	4 Three Times	5 More than 3 Times
1. How often have you pressured or coerced someone into sending you a sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) image or video?					
2. How often have you sent or shown someone's sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) images or videos without their permission to your friends, or family?					
3. How often have you uploaded someone's sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) images or videos been online or to social media?					
4. How often have you sent someone's sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) images or videos been sent to their employers, employees, place of work or place of education?					
5. How often have you distributed someone's sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) images as a way of seeking revenge on them or humiliating them?					
6. How often have you threatened to distribute someone's sexually explicit nude (either full or partial) images or videos to the public, to their friends, or to social media as a means of gaining something (ex:					

more nude images, money, stop them from ending a relationship) from them?					
7. How often have you blackmailed someone by using their sexually explicit nude (either full or partial) images or videos?					

Appendix D

IIIBB Victim Blaming Scale – Adapted from McMahon & Farmer (2011)

Item	1 Strongly Agree	2	3	4	5 Strongly Disagree
Subscale 1: They Asked For It					
1. If someone sends a nude image or video to someone else, they are partly to blame if the photo is sent around to places they don't want.					
2. If someone sends nude images or videos, they are asking for trouble.					
3. If someone shows their face or identifying features (such as a tattoo) in their nude images or videos, they are to blame if someone recognizes them.					
Subscale 2: They Didn't Mean To					
4. When someone posts a lot of promiscuous photos on social media, it is okay to send their nude images or videos around because they are okay exposing themselves publically.					
5. It is okay to share an attractive person's nude images or videos because it does not hurt them.					
6. It is okay to share someone's sexually explicit images or photos without their permission as long as there is an attempt made to hide their identity.					
Subscale 3: It Wasn't Really IIIBB					
7. If a photo is only shown amongst close friends, it is better than if it was shared on the internet or with the public					
8. Sending someone's nude images or videos around or uploading them on the internet is less harmful than physically assaulting someone					
9. If a person doesn't know their sexual images and videos have been shown to others, it is not harmful.					
10. It's okay to send or upload someone's nude images or videos to the internet if they have really hurt you or made you upset.					
11. If a person is asked repetitively to send nude photos, and they eventually say yes and send one, that is consent.					
12. Once given access to someone's nude images or videos, it is your property and you can do what you want with it.					

Appendix E

IIIBB Victimization Scale.

At Wave 1, these questions will be asked about behaviours within the lifetime. At wave 2, these questions will be specified for behaviours within the last four months.

Coerced sexting item
EDDII item
Illegal distribution of intimate images
Revenge pornography item
Sextortion item

	1 Never	2 Once	3 Twice	4 Three Times	5 More than 3 Times
1. How often have you felt pressured or coerced into sending a sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) image or video?					
2. How often has someone sent or shown your sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) images or videos without your permission to their friends, or family?					
3. How often have your sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) images or videos been uploaded online or to social media?					
4. How often have your sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) images or videos been sent to your employers, employees, place of work or place of education?					
5. How often has someone distributed your sexually explicit nude (either partial or full) images as a way of seeking revenge on you or humiliating you?					
6. Has anyone ever threatened to distribute your sexually explicit nude (either full or partial)					

images or videos as a means of gaining something (e.g., money, relationship security, more intimate images) from you?					
7. Has anyone ever blackmailed you by using your sexually explicit nude (either full or partial) images or videos?					