

AN EXAMINATION OF PORNOGRAPHY USE AS A PREDICTOR OF FEMALE SEXUAL  
COERCION

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by

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## ABSTRACT

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Approximately 20% of women and 1.5% of men report experiencing rape during their lifetime and 19% of undergraduate women report they experienced attempted or completed sexual assault since starting college (Center for Disease Control, 2012). These are only a few numbers that indicate the prevalence of sexually aggressive behaviors and highlight the importance of understanding predictors of related constructs like sexual coercion. Definitions of sexual coercion range across studies, but most notably involve verbal or physical means to force someone into unwanted sexual acts. Prior research explored a multitude of predictors for males who engage in sexual coercion; however, little is known regarding female sexual coercion. Previous studies examined marital status, rape myth acceptance, age of first sexual intercourse, psychopathy, and history of sexual victimization experiences. There is no research to date that examines pornography use and pornography modality as predictors of sexual coercion for females. The current study incorporates both the previously indicated empirical predictors in addition to the novel variables of pornography use and modality. The current sample included 744 undergraduate females. Results indicated pornography use and modality were significant predictors of both verbal sexual coercion and an average of verbal and illegal sexual coercion. However, logistic regression results indicate pornography use was no longer a significant predictor after controlling for other variables while pornography modality remained a significant predictor. These results suggest pornography use may not be related to sexual coercion in the same way it is for males after controlling for specific

variables. Additionally, psychopathy was associated with higher likelihood of engaging in verbal, illegal, and the average of verbal and illegal sexual coercion and was the strongest predictor of engaging in verbal and average sexual coercion across the regression models. These results add to the limited literature on females who engage in sexual coercion and offer insight into pornography use's association with these behaviors.

**KEY WORDS:** Female, Pornography use, Sexual coercion.

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## CHAPTER I

### Introduction

Sexual coercion is defined as "using verbal or physical pressure to obtain sex from someone who does not desire it" (Faulkner, Kolts, & Hicks, 2008, p. 139). Notably, victimization data suggest sexual coercion occurs across both men and women. According to the Center for Disease Control (i.e., CDC), 13% of women and 6% of men reported they experienced sexual coercion at some point in their lifetime (Center for Disease Control, 2012). Further, sexual assault is considered one of the most serious forms of sexual coercion. Approximately 1 in 5 (18.3%) women and 1 in 71 men (1.4%) reported experiencing rape during their lifetime and 19% of undergraduate women reported they experienced attempted or completed sexual assault since they began college (CDC, 2012). Based on this information, sexual coercion is particularly salient when it comes to college campuses and also demonstrates the importance of understanding more about perpetrators of sexual coercion. Researchers found 14% to 24% of sexually abused males and 6% to 14% of sexually abused females report their abusers were female (Green, 1999). Moreover, 39% of male childhood sexual abuse victims and 6% of female victims in another study reported being sexually abused by a female perpetrator (Dube et al., 2005). These numbers illustrate the importance of understanding female sexual coercion and establishing predictors of these behaviors.

Research appears limited on predictors of female sexual coercion, and a majority of the studies available compare males and females on a variety of constructs (Bouffard, Bouffard, & Miller, 2016). Key significant predictors include relationship status, sexual victimization history, rape myth acceptance, narcissism, psychopathy, and exposure to

pornography (Tomaszewska & Krahé, 2015; Logan, 2008; Kjellgren, Priebe, Svedin, Mossige, & Långström, 2011; Blinkhorn, Lyons, & Almond, 2015; Ottesen Kennair & Bendixen, 2012). However, there continues to be a gap in the literature regarding female perpetrators of sexual coercion. One area that warrants further exploration is related to pornography use's association with female sexual coercion. In a study of attitudes and behavior regarding pornography across approximately 27,000 adults, rates of pornography consumption were found to rise over time from the 1970s until 2012, and this pattern is especially true regarding those ages 18 to 26 years-old (Price, Patterson, Regnerus, & Walley, 2016). Of note, pornography consumption rates for women ages 18 to 26 years-old have risen steadily from 28% in 1973 to 35.7% in 2012 (Price et al., 2016). With this rise in consumption, an examination of pornography use's association with perpetrating sexual coercion appears warranted.

Pornography use was previously shown to be related to male perpetration of sexual coercion in a multitude of studies (Malamuth, Addison, & Koss, 2000; Simons, Simons, Lei, & Sutton, 2012; Stanley et al., 2016). Further, researchers illustrated rape myth acceptance and pornography use were predictive of sexual coercion in a male college sample (Carr & VanDeusen, 2004). Based on this information, some researchers theorize "many of the same factors associated with sexual aggression in men are also linked to sexual aggression in women" (Oswald & Holmgreen, 2013 p. 83). In a sample of 318 Polish male and female university students, pornography use was predictive of sexual aggression since the age of 15 until approximately one year prior to the study and within the last year (Tomaszewska & Krahé, 2016). The limited research on females who engage in sexual coercion appears to be lacking due to smaller sample sizes or lower

offense rates than their male counterparts (Simons et al., 2012; Bouffard et al., 2016). It can be difficult to study sexual coercion within female samples given these lower base rates. Due to the shortage of research on pornography use as a predictor for female sexual coercion, it is important to consider the nature of this complex relationship.

### **Prevalence of Females Who Engage in Sexual Coercion**

There are varying prevalence rates of sexual coercion perpetration found across genders. In one study of college students, 27% of male participants and 20% of female participants indicated they verbally coerced someone into sex in the previous year, and 2.4% of male students and 1.8% of female students physically forced someone to have sex during that time period (Gamez-Guadix, Straus, & Hershberger, 2009). Moreover, researchers demonstrated about 10% of women forced a man to participate in sexual acts unwillingly, and 5% "attempted to do so" which emphasizes the necessity "of incorporating the study of women's sexual aggression into the mainstream of sexual aggression research" (Krahé, Waizenhöfer, & Möller, 2003, p. 229). Within romantic relationships, 10.5% of female respondents reported engaging in sexual coercion within their relationship and experiencing sexual coercion perpetrated by their partners (Hines & Saudino, 2003). Further, 3% reported being the sole perpetrator of sexual coercion within their relationship (Hines & Saudino, 2003). There is also great variability in these prevalence rates across the globe. In a study of over 4,000 Norwegian and Swedish young adult females, 0.8% reported engaging in sexual coercion including pressuring someone into sex or using force to have sex (Kjellgren et al., 2011). However, another study included 356 female Polish college students wherein 6.5% reported perpetration of sexual coercion (Tomaszewska & Krahé, 2015). As indicated, many of the differences illustrated

here may depend on the definitions of sexual coercion used across research studies examining gender (Oswald & Holmgren, 2013). Examples of the different definitions include outcomes such as unwanted sexual contact (e.g., attempts at kissing, fondling, or touching in an intimate way), unwanted vaginal, anal, or oral intercourse, and techniques such as use of verbal persuasion, alcohol or drugs, or physical force to have sex with someone (Banyard et al., 2007; Krahe et al., 2003; Bouffard et al., 2016). Given these rates and the dearth of knowledge regarding females who engage in sexual coercion, it is imperative to consider predictors of this behavior.

### **Predictors of Female Perpetrated Sexual Coercion**

As indicated previously, a large body of research exists examining males who engage in sexual coercion and the females who are victims of these behaviors (Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001). For example, in a study of over 400 college students, high extraversion and low childhood self-esteem were associated with female sexual victimization (Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001). Further, mother's physical aggression within the family was the most important predictor for male sexual coercers and female victims (Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001). In light of these findings, it is important to consider this study was particularly homogeneous in terms of ethnicity and age (i.e., solely European American and between the ages of 17 and 22; Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001).

Within another study of a female only sample, participants listened to an audio vignette wherein a man and woman were engaging in sexual activity and the man tries to convince the woman to have sexual intercourse through increasing verbally and physically coercive behaviors (Faulkner et al., 2008). This study involved different

relationship conditions wherein a male boyfriend of six months, first date, or graduate teaching assistant tries to convince a woman to have sexual intercourse with him through gradually more coercive tactics (Faulkner et al., 2008). Those who were in the relationship condition were more likely to let the audio-vignette of a sexual coercion scenario continue versus those who were in a "first date" or "graduate teaching assistant" condition (Faulkner et al., 2008). These authors relate this finding to the notion "that the length of time a woman knows a male could be a predictor of the likelihood of her being coerced into sex or raped" (Faulkner et al., 2008, p. 147). Additionally, results from a study on Polish college students illustrate across males and females, "higher frequencies of perpetration were found in relationships with victims known to them than with strangers" (Tomaszewska & Krahé, 2015, p. 13). Other researchers also found greater levels of sexual coercion against a relationship partner in a sample of adolescent males and females from the Netherlands (Slotboom, Hendriks, & Verbruggen, 2011). This research highlights the importance of examining type of perpetrator-victim relationship in consideration of sexually coercive behaviors.

Moreover, sexual coercion is not solely a heterosexual phenomenon, as 14% of 70 self-identified gay and lesbian college student participants reported forcing their partners to have sex and 43% reported they were victims of forced sex in their relationships (Waterman, Dawson, & Bologna, 1989). Additionally, research illustrates a higher proportion of lesbian, gay, and bisexual youth reported perpetrating sexual coercion (4%) than heterosexual peers (2%; Dank, Lachman, Zweig, & Yahner, 2014). Participants included over 3700 middle and high school students ages 12 to 19, and combined the sexual minority (i.e., lesbian, gay, bisexual) youth together for analyses (Dank et al.

2014). Again, this suggests important demographic characteristics to consider when discussing female perpetrated sexual coercion.

Also, researchers found among a sample of 346 Canadian male and female university students, the context in which sexual coercion occurs includes: within heterosexual dating, at night in some sort of private setting, and after some amount of consensual sexual activity (O'Sullivan, Byers, & Finkelman, 1998). A notable difference illustrated was females were more likely to use verbal means of sexual coercion whereas men were more likely to coerce physically (O'Sullivan et al., 1998). In addition, communication strategies differ, as ambiguous communication strategies like token resistance (i.e., saying "no" to sexual advances when one really means "yes") and compliance (i.e., saying "yes" when one really means "no") were significantly associated with female sexual coercion (Krahé et al., 2003). Women who communicate ambiguously about their own sexual intentions may assume their partners are behaving like them and are less likely to then take their partner's rejection of their sexual advances at face value (Krahé et al., 2003). Differences exist in the communication of sexual coercion tactics, and it is important to examine other variables affecting these behaviors.

Another significant predictor of female sexual coercion is history of victimization experiences. Previous research demonstrates experiencing sexual victimization is connected to later perpetration of sexual coercion (Kjellgren et al., 2011; Logan, 2008). In a large internationally based sample of male and female university students, sexual abuse, neglect history, and corporal punishment were found to be associated with antisocial behavior, which was also linked to verbally coercing and physically forcing someone to have sex across male and female participants (Gamez-Guadix et al., 2009).

Of note, Gamez-Guadix and colleagues (2009) assessed these variables across both male and female perpetrators of sexual coercion. Furthermore, in a sample of 248 German national female respondents, those who reported a history of childhood sexual victimization were 2.62 times more likely to engage in sexual coercion than females without this history (Krahé et al., 2003). Mathes (2013) also suggests there is a strong correlation between perpetration and being a victim of sexual coercion, and this link is explained by dysfunctional romantic relationships wherein both partners are perpetrators and victims of sexual coercion. Similarly, a study of 209 heterosexual couples indicates childhood sexual abuse, current sexual coercion victimization, and motives of power within the relationship were associated with an increased risk of female perpetration of sexual coercion (Brousseau, Hébert, & Bergeron, 2012). Female perpetrators of sexual coercion were also more likely to "endorse more power and less pleasure motives," suggesting a greater desire for control within their sexual encounters (Brousseau et al., 2012, p. 543).

In addition to sexual victimization history, high levels of sexual activity and peer pressure toward sexual activity were also associated with an increased likelihood of engaging in sexual aggression (Krahé et al., 2003). Further, mental health symptoms, learning difficulties, personality traits of dependency and narcissism, higher levels of aggressive behaviors, depressive symptoms, and substance abuse were also linked to female perpetration of sexual coercion (Kjellgren et al., 2011; Logan, 2008). Related to personality traits, researchers suggest "maladaptive narcissism" (i.e., socially toxic components like entitlement and exploitativeness) is a stronger predictor of female perpetration while adaptive narcissism traits (i.e., components of leadership and

authority) are stronger predictors of male perpetration of sexual coercion (Blinkhorn et al., 2015). Additionally, females high in narcissism, were just as likely as their male counterparts to react with persistence and sexually coercive tactics after being denied during a sexual advance (Blinkhorn et al., 2015).

Related to narcissism is the personality trait of psychopathy. Females with high levels of primary psychopathy (i.e., callousness, deceitfulness, and a lack of remorse) were more likely to use physical methods of sexual coercion when their advances were rejected than their male counterparts (Muñoz, Khan, & Cordwell, 2011). Most notably, previous findings from the same dataset as the present study examining models of female sexual coercion indicate women with a history of sexual victimization, traits of manipulateness, psychopathy, unconventional values, and earlier age of first sexual experience are more likely to engage in sexual coercion (Bouffard et al., 2016). Based on these previous studies, individual differences can play an important role in the prediction of sexual coercion for female perpetrators.

Other research looked at specific sexual attitudes and behaviors as predictors of sexual coercion. One study compared more than 1600 females and males across Norway between the ages of 16 and 26 on sociosexual orientation (i.e., restricted versus unrestricted attitudes and behavior towards having sexual interactions outside of a relationship), sexually coercive attitudes, exposure to pornography, and sexism (Ottesen Kennair & Bendixen, 2012). Female respondents' attitudes and behaviors regarding sex (i.e., number of sexual partners in the last year, number of one night stands, attitude towards casual sex) and pornography exposure were significantly associated with sexually harassing others (Ottesen Kennair & Bendixen, 2012). This study did not assess

predictors for female perpetrators of sexual coercion, as only 3% of their sample endorsed engaging in sexual coercion which they measured by four items of physical force (i.e., sexual squeezing, touching of genitals, kissing, and intercourse/oral sex; Ottesen Kennair & Bendixen, 2012). Based on available information, there are important demographic and individual factors (i.e., relationship status, sexual victimization history, personality traits, etc.) to consider in predicting female sexual coercion, and there is still variance unaccounted for within this relationship. There is also evidence to suggest pornography use may be a significant predictor of female sexual coercion which has been left largely unexplored.

### **Pornography Use and Outcomes**

In general, viewing pornography more often is linked to risky sexual behaviors including higher incidences of "hooking up" and a greater number of distinct partners for young adults (Braithwaite, Coulson, Keddington, & Fincham, 2015). In a longitudinal study of over 18,000 United States women between 1973 and 2010, results indicated women who were younger, less religious, and non-White were more likely to use pornography (Wright, Bae, & Funk, 2013). Women who consumed pornography were more likely to have positive attitudes regarding sex outside of marriage, sex before marriage, having sex as a teenager, and they had more sexual partners in the last year to five years than women who do not use pornography (Wright et al., 2013). Further, another study demonstrated females who engaged in more pornography use were more likely to have negative mental health outcomes (e.g., less self-worth and increased depressive symptoms; Willoughby, Carroll, Nelson, & Padilla-Walker, 2014).

For females who consume pornography versus those who do not, consumers were significantly less likely to endorse positive affect and also scored closer to male counterparts on sexuality related measures of "desire to be promiscuous, number of orgasms per month desired for sexual satisfaction, degree to which addicted to sex, strength of sex drive, and age at first thoughts of sex" (Walsh, 1999, p. 783). In addition, young women who used pornography were more likely to endorse acceptance of casual sexual relations and higher numbers of sexual partners within the last year and across their lifetimes (Carroll et al., 2008). Overall, research illustrates pornography use is related to younger age of first intercourse and higher levels of sexual activity (Braithwaite et al., 2015; Wright et al., 2013). Previous research also demonstrates younger age of first intercourse and higher levels of sexual activity are predictive of female sexual coercion; however, the specific link between pornography use and female perpetration of sexual coercion has yet to be explored (Krahé et al., 2003; Bouffard et al., 2016).

### **Female Perpetrated Sexual Coercion and Pornography Use**

There is little research of the specific relationship between pornography use and sexual coercion for female perpetrators. Previous research suggests a general association between pornography exposure and sexual aggression across young adults from both international samples and those from the United States (Carroll et al., 2008; Williams, Cooper, Howell, Yuille, & Paulhus, 2009; Bonino, Ciarano, Rabaglietti, & Cattelino, 2006). Additionally, researchers found the relationship between pornography use and sexual aggression depended on levels of sexual promiscuity and hostile masculinity for approximately 1700 male participants (Malamuth, et al., 2000). Overall, pornography use

was positively associated with male sexual coercion and was a predictor of male sexual aggression (Malamuth et al., 2000). Moreover, researchers found across five countries and approximately 3300 participants ages 14 to 17, regularly watching pornography and sending or receiving sexual images or messages were linked to increased likelihood of male perpetration of sexual coercion (Stanley et al., 2016). Given this information about pornography use and sexual coercion for males, it is equally important to determine if this association exists for females.

In a study comparing female and male participants ages 10 to 15 years old, researchers demonstrated exposure to "violent x-rated material over time predicted an almost 6-fold increase in the odds of self-reported sexually aggressive behavior, whereas exposure to nonviolent x-rated material was not statistically significantly related" (Ybarra, Mitchell, Hamburger, Diener-West, & Leaf, 2011, p. 1). These results were consistent across male and female youth sampled (Ybarra et al., 2011). Additionally, in a study of 2,000 college students, pornography use was associated with higher levels of sexual coercion for males and higher levels of sexual victimization for females (Simons et al., 2012). One possible explanation offered included the notion women and men receive different messages from pornography consumption, such that women are expected to fulfill men's sexual desires (Simons et al., 2012). On the other hand, other research indicates female youth who engaged in sexual coercion reported more desire for sex, sex partners, penetrative sexual victimization, rape myth acceptance, use of violent porn, and friends more likely to use porn than their counterparts who did not perpetrate sexual coercion (Kjellgren et al., 2011). This study also examined any possible differences between females who perpetrate sexual coercion and those who do not on a

variety of other variables. Sexually coercive female youth perceived their parents as more overprotective, were significantly more aggressive, depressive, more likely to have tried cannabis, use alcohol earlier and more frequently (Kjellgren et al., 2011). Because of the differing findings regarding pornography use and sexual coercion for female perpetrators, additional research is needed to understand this complex relationship.

### **The Present Proposal**

As indicated previously, there are multiple predictors of female sexual coercion such as personality traits, relationship status, and victimization history. The present study will examine a few of these aforementioned factors and expand the knowledge base as it seeks to explore to what extent pornography use predicts sexual coercion for female perpetrators. This is novel to the female sexual coercion literature as there is yet to be a specific exploration of the predictive nature of the relationship between pornography use and sexual coercion. Based on available information, the hypotheses and research questions explored in the present study are reported as follows:

**Demographic and personality related variables.** Previous findings indicate females engage in sexual coercion within their romantic relationships, and at higher frequency than females not in a relationship (Hines & Saudino, 2003; Tomaszewska & Krahe, 2015). Additional information is lacking about relationship status and female perpetrators. Though exploratory in nature, it is expected endorsement of being in a relationship will be related to perpetration of female sexual coercion. In regards to sexual orientation, one study found lesbians were slightly more likely to perpetrate sexual coercion than gay males (Waterman et al., 1989). There is little current research comparing sexual orientation and its relationship with sexual coercion. As such, an

exploratory analysis will examine if sexual orientation will be related to sexual coercion. Previous researchers also examined race in relation to sexual coercion, and it will be included in the present study (Bouffard et al., 2016). Lastly, psychopathy is expected to be positively associated with female sexual coercion for the current sample based on previous findings (Bouffard et al., 2016; Muñoz et al., 2011).

**Sexual behavior related variables.** Previous research suggests a greater degree of rape myth acceptance and having a history of sexual victimization are positively associated and age of first intercourse is negatively associated with female perpetration of sexual coercion (Bouffard et al., 2016; Gamez-Guadix, et al., 2009; Kjellgren et al., 2011; Logan, 2008). As such, it is expected higher rape myth acceptance will be associated with sexual coercion for the present sample. It is also predicted participants who endorse a history of sexual victimization will be more likely to engage in sexual coercion. Lastly, participants' age of first intercourse will be negatively related to perpetration of sexual coercion for the current sample.

**Pornography use variables.** Because previous research demonstrates female perpetrators versus nonperpetrators were more likely to use violent pornography and have friends who use pornography, it is expected pornography use will be positively associated with sexual coercion (Kjellgren et al., 2011). An exploratory research question will also be examined, as the present proposal will analyze if pornography use remains a significant predictor when controlling for previously mentioned demographic and sexual behavior related variables. If pornography use is a significant predictor of sexual coercion, the number of pornography mediums one uses (i.e., modality) and pornography use variables will be assessed for strength of their association with sexual coercion.

This research will provide more information on the nature and likelihood of various previously indicated predictors of sexual coercion within a large sample of female university students. This, in turn, would aid proactive efforts to decrease victimization rates through prevention strategies specifically developed for female sexual coercers. As an example, research suggests victims of sexual coercion become perpetrators and romantically attach to similar perpetrators who were also previously victims of sexual coercion; therefore, prevention efforts should focus on supporting healthy romantic relationships (Mathes, 2013). Further, researchers found there is greater anti-victim attitudes toward male victims of female perpetrated sexual coercion and fewer recommendations for support services offered as a result (Judson, Johnson, & Perez, 2013). Developing proactive approaches to perpetration of female sexual coercion could, in turn, aid efforts in increasing awareness and potential lack of services for male victims. The proposed predictor of pornography use will also be examined to determine if there is a difference in strength of relationship between number of pornography modalities and pornography use in relation to sexual coercion. This would add to the understanding of the complicated relationship between pornography use and sexual coercion, especially as it relates to the underrepresented research on female perpetrators.

## CHAPTER II

### Method

#### Participants

This study is part of a larger dataset collected to explore the role of sexual arousal in the decision to use sexual coercion among college students. The larger sample was comprised of 1,166 male and female students combined who were enrolled in introductory psychology and criminal justice classes. Included in the current sample were 744 female participants. The average age for this sample was 21.8 years ( $SD = 4.95$ ) with the breakdown of participant racial/ethnic group as follows: White (76.1%), African American (19.2%), Asian American (2.4%), and Other (1.3%). In addition, 21.8% of participants reported identifying as Hispanic. In terms of sexual orientation of the sample, 87.6% identified as heterosexual, 4.0% as bisexual, 3.6% identified as lesbian, and 0.9% as questioning their sexual orientation. Regarding marital status, 54.4% reported being single, 34.7% in a relationship, 6.2% married, 0.9% divorced, and 0.3% widowed.

#### Measures

**Self-reported demographic and sexual behavior variables.** Questions regarding demographic information were used to gather data about participants' age, sex, racial or ethnic group, religious preferences, sexual orientation, marital and relationship status (i.e., married, single, in a relationship but not married, divorced, or widowed), employment history, and arrest history. Participants also reported on the age at which they first experienced sexual intercourse ( $M = 16.83$ ,  $SD = 2.10$ ).

**Sexual Victimization History.** Experiences of sexual victimization were assessed using an adapted version of the Sexual Experiences Scale (SES; Koss et al., 2007). Seven

questions were used in the current study, including whether someone had ever, against their will, (1) "kissed, fondled, or rubbed up against the private areas . . . or removed some of my clothes," (2) "had oral sex with me or made me have oral sex . . . without my consent," (3) been vaginally penetrated (by a penis, fingers, or other objects), or (4) been anally penetrated (by a penis, fingers, or other objects). Responses to the questions were coded (1) "yes" or (0) "no", and the sexual victimization history variable was also calculated as a dichotomous variable signifying whether or not a participant ever experienced sexual victimization. Of the current sample, 356 participants (47.8%) reported they experienced at least one act of sexual victimization in their lifetime.

**Rape Myth Acceptance.** The Rape Myth Scale (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995) is a measure comprised of 19 items assessing acceptance of rape myths. It includes statements such as "When women talk and act sexy, they are inviting rape," and "Many rapes happen because women lead men on" (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995, p. 707). Participants use a 4-point Likert-type scale (4 = strongly agree, 1 = strongly disagree) to rate how much they agree with each of the items. The average score across all 19 items is used in the current study to signify rape myth acceptance ( $M = 1.42$ ,  $SD = 0.38$ ). This measure demonstrated good internal consistency (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .874$ ) in the current sample.

**Psychopathy.** The Levenson Self-Report Psychopathy Scale (LSRP; Levenson, Kiehl, & Fitzpatrick, 1995) is comprised of 26 items that assess primary (i.e., callousness, self-importance) and secondary (i.e., impulsivity, frustration intolerance) psychopathy characteristics. The 26 items were summed for the current study and demonstrated acceptable reliability (Cronbach's  $\alpha = .70$ ;  $M = 47.32$ ,  $SD = 9.96$ ).

**Pornography Use.** Pornography use was defined in the current study as how often the respondent uses erotic materials (i.e., daily, weekly, monthly, etc.) across each specific modality of use which included books, magazines, movies, and the internet. This information was reported using a 7-point scale designated as follows: 1 = never, 2 = less than monthly, 3 = monthly, 4 = more than once per month, 5 = weekly, 6 = more than once per week, and 7 = daily. Due to little variability in participants' reported use of books, magazines, and movies (i.e., 86% to 93% of the current sample reported never using them), frequency of internet pornography use was utilized ( $M = 1.48$ ,  $SD = 1.01$ ). This number represents the average use of internet pornography for the current sample and this average is between "never" and "less than monthly." Additionally, the mode or most often use reported was 1.00 (i.e., never) and the median was 1.00. With regard to a breakdown of frequency of pornography use, 73.1% ( $N = 544$ ) reported never using internet pornography, 11.8 % ( $N = 88$ ) reported less than monthly use, 1.7% reported monthly use ( $N = 13$ ), 3.6% reported once or more per month ( $N = 27$ ), 3.2% endorsed weekly pornography use ( $N = 24$ ), 0.5% reported more than once per week ( $N = 4$ ), and 0.5% endorsed daily pornography use ( $N = 4$ ). Because there is limited variability across frequency types, this variable was dichotomized into yes/no to signify whether participants' use pornography or not. As such, 160 participants reported using pornography "less than monthly" or more.

Pornography modality is defined in the current study as the number of pornography modalities that a participant reports using. This information was calculated based on the questions related to frequency of pornography use. Their reported use was recalculated as a dichotomous yes/no variable for each modality and then summed to

create a pornography modality variable or number of pornography mediums a participant utilizes. This number indicates how many pornography modalities (i.e., books, internet, magazines, movies; maximum of four mediums) the participant reported using “less than monthly” or more ( $M = 0.38$ ,  $SD = 0.69$ ). This indicates participants reported their average number of pornography mediums was less than one. The mode for the current sample is 0.00 and the median is 0.00. The breakdown of modalities is as follows: 66.8% ( $N = 497$ ) reported using zero modalities, 20.0% ( $N = 149$ ) endorsed using one modality, 5.0% ( $N = 37$ ) reported using two modalities, 1.7% ( $N = 13$ ) endorsed utilizing three pornography modalities, and 0.1% ( $N = 1$ ) reported using four pornography modalities.

**Sexual Coercion.** This outcome variable was measured by examining participants' responses to four questions regarding the likelihood of engaging in various sexually coercive behaviors after reading a hypothetical scenario. The vignette is portrayed in first-person so the participant imagines themselves as the main character. A college-aged man (named Nick) and woman (the participant) who are acquaintances meet at a party and then leave for the man's apartment. They engage in kissing and foreplay; however, towards the end of the story, the woman attempts to remove Nick's clothing. Nick indicates he is not interested in sex, but does not physically try to stop the woman. After reading this scenario, participants were asked to report the likelihood of engaging in three different sexually coercive tactics including: "verbally coax Nick to remove his clothes", "say things you did not mean to get Nick to have sex with you", and "try to get Nick drunk in order to have sex with you." Participants were also asked "how likely is it that you have sex even if Nick protested?" Ratings for each question were gathered using a 0% (no chance) to 100% (definitely would) scale. These questions were divided into

verbal ( $M = 21.13$ ,  $SD = 24.87$ ) and illegal sexual coercion ( $M = 6.30$ ,  $SD = 13.56$ ), in addition to, averaged over the four items to generate an average likelihood of engaging in sexual coercion ( $M = 13.28$ ,  $SD = 16.90$ ). However, because participants tended to endorse percentages around specific anchor ratings (e.g., 0%, 25%, 50%), these outcome variables were dichotomized into yes (i.e., greater than 0% chance)/no (0% chance). For the current sample, 64.7% of participants reported they would engage in verbal coercion, 31.7% indicated they would engage in illegal coercion, and 66.1% endorsed an affirmative average across verbal and illegal sexual coercion.

### **Procedure**

Participants were recruited both in their criminal justice courses and through a university data collection website for the psychology department. Criminal justice students were offered extra credit in their courses as incentives for participating while psychology students completed research studies as part of their course requirements. Prior to beginning the online study, participants read and completed an informed consent that noted the possibility of viewing sexually explicit material. Once they consented to participate, respondents were then assigned randomly to watch either a short sexually arousing video clip or an academic lecture. Both groups then read a sexual coercion scenario and answered Part I of the surveys including questions about the story, likely positive and negative consequences of the story, levels of sexual arousal, and a self-control measure. Respondents were invited to participate in Part II of the surveys the following day. These included demographic information, level of sexual arousal, measures of low self-control scale, rape myth acceptance, psychopathy, offender risk and needs, and sexual victimization experiences.

## CHAPTER III

### Results

The data were examined for patterns of missing information, outliers, and violations of the assumption of normality. In order to create a general impression of the sample, descriptive statistics were computed for the demographic variables (i.e., marital status and sexual orientation), sexual behavior related variables (i.e., age of first sexual intercourse, history of sexual victimization experiences) pornography use (pornography use and pornography modality), and sexual coercion outcome variables (verbal coercion, illegal coercion, and average of the four coercion items). See Table 1 for the descriptive statistics of the current sample.

Table 1

*Descriptive Statistics for Current Sample (N = 744)*

|                                   | Percent | Mean (SD)    | Range |
|-----------------------------------|---------|--------------|-------|
| Age                               |         | 21.80 (4.95) | 18-62 |
| Race                              |         |              |       |
| White                             | 75.9    |              |       |
| Non-white                         | 23.7    |              |       |
| Sexual Orientation                |         |              |       |
| Lesbian, Bisexual, or Questioning | 8.6     |              |       |
| Heterosexual                      | 87.6    |              |       |
| Marital Status                    |         |              |       |
| Single, Divorced, Widowed         | 55.9    |              |       |
| In Relationship or Married        | 40.9    |              |       |
| Age of First Sexual Intercourse   |         | 16.83 (2.10) | 6-25  |

(continued)

|                                 | Percent | Mean (SD)    | Range     |
|---------------------------------|---------|--------------|-----------|
| History of Sexual Victimization |         |              |           |
| Yes                             | 47.8    |              |           |
| No                              | 46.8    |              |           |
| Rape Myth Acceptance Scale      |         | 1.42 (0.37)  | 1.00-2.95 |
| Psychopathy                     |         | 47.32 (9.96) | 26-78     |
| Pornography Use                 |         |              |           |
| Yes (any use)                   | 21.5    |              |           |
| No                              | 73.1    |              |           |
| Pornography Use Modality Total  |         | 0.38 (0.69)  | 0-4       |
| Verbal Sexual Coercion          |         |              |           |
| Yes                             | 64.7    |              |           |
| No                              | 34.5    |              |           |
| Illegal Sexual Coercion         |         |              |           |
| Yes                             | 31.7    |              |           |
| No                              | 67.3    |              |           |
| Averaged Sexual Coercion        |         |              |           |
| Yes                             | 66.1    |              |           |
| No                              | 32.7    |              |           |

*Note. Race, sexual orientation, and marital status categories were collapsed to address small sample sizes in the racial minority, sexual minority, and other relationship categories.*

Bivariate correlations between all of the continuous predictor variables (i.e., psychopathy, age of first sexual intercourse, and pornography modality) and the outcome variables (i.e., verbal, illegal, and the average across four items of sexual coercion) were run in order to determine the significance of their associations. Table 2 presents the correlations between the continuous predictor variables and the sexual coercion variables examined in the present study. Also assessed in the present study were the categorical predictor

variables of marital status, sexual orientation, race, history of completed sexual victimization experiences, and pornography use by using Chi-Square tests of association.

The hypotheses with specific results are reported as follows:

**Self-reported demographic and personality variables.** It was expected the categorical variables of marital status, sexual orientation, and race, would be related to sexual coercion. Chi-Square tests of association were utilized to determine the nature of these relationships. The marital status variable utilized for this procedure included two categories of single/divorced/widowed and in a relationship/married. There were no significant associations between marital status and verbal sexual coercion,  $\chi^2(1) = 1.33, p = .25$ , illegal sexual coercion,  $\chi^2(1) = 0.13, p = .72$ , or averaged illegal and verbal sexual coercion,  $\chi^2(1) = 2.16, p = .14$ . There were also no significant associations between race and verbal sexual coercion,  $\chi^2(1) = 0.40, p = .84$ , illegal sexual coercion,  $\chi^2(1) = .13, p = .72$ , and averaged sexual coercion,  $\chi^2(1) = 0.10, p = .76$ , for the current sample. With regard to sexual orientation, there were no significant associations with verbal sexual coercion,  $\chi^2(1) = 0.31, p = .58$ , illegal sexual coercion,  $\chi^2(1) = 0.02, p = .90$ , and the average of verbal and illegal coercion,  $\chi^2(1) = 0.37, p = .54$ .

Additionally, it was predicted psychopathy would be positively related to sexual coercion. Bivariate correlations were analyzed to determine the strength and direction of this association (refer to Table 2). As expected, participants with greater levels of psychopathy endorsed higher likelihood of engaging in verbal sexual coercion ( $r = .22, p < .01$ ), illegal sexual coercion ( $r = .21, p < .01$ ), and the average of verbal and illegal sexual coercion ( $r = .24, p < .01$ ).

Table 2

*Correlations Between Predictor Variables and Likelihood of Sexual Coercion*

| Variables                | Verbal Coercion | Illegal Coercion | Average Coercion |
|--------------------------|-----------------|------------------|------------------|
| Psychopathy              | .22**           | .21**            | .24**            |
| Age of First Intercourse | .00             | .01              | .00              |
| Rape Myth Acceptance     | .14**           | .17**            | .13**            |
| Pornography Modality     | .11**           | .03              | .12**            |

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ , two-tailed.

**Sexual behavior variables.** It was anticipated rape myth acceptance and history of sexual victimization would be positively related to sexual coercion while age of first intercourse would be negatively related to sexual coercion. Table 2 illustrates the bivariate correlations for continuous predictors of rape myth acceptance and age of first intercourse. Results indicate greater rape myth acceptance was significantly associated with verbal sexual coercion ( $r = .14, p < .01$ ), illegal sexual coercion ( $r = .17, p < .01$ ), and the average of verbal and illegal sexual coercion ( $r = .13, p < .01$ ) as anticipated. Age of first sexual intercourse was not significantly related to verbal coercion ( $r = .00$ , n.s.), illegal coercion ( $r = .01$ , n.s.), or the average of verbal and illegal sexual coercion ( $r = .00$ , n.s.). Additionally, Chi-Square results indicate history of sexual victimization experiences was not significantly related to verbal sexual coercion,  $\chi^2(1) = 3.47, p = .06$ , and illegal sexual coercion,  $\chi^2(1) = 2.34, p = .13$ . However, history of sexual victimization was significantly associated with the average across verbal and illegal sexual coercion,  $\chi^2(1) = 4.98, p = .03$ . There was a small association between history of sexual victimization and averaged sexual coercion,  $\phi = 0.08, p = .03$ .

**Pornography use variables.** Pornography use and modality were expected to be positively associated with sexual coercion. These associations were analyzed using Chi-Square tests of association for pornography use and bivariate correlations for pornography modality. As predicted, pornography use was associated with verbal sexual coercion,  $\chi^2(1) = 4.73, p = .03$ , and the average across verbal and illegal sexual coercion,  $\chi^2(1) = 4.65, p = .03$ . However, pornography use was not related to illegal sexual coercion,  $\chi^2(1) = 0.02, p = .89$ , in the current sample. Greater pornography use modality was also significantly related to verbal sexual coercion ( $r = .11, p < .01$ ) and averaged verbal and illegal sexual coercion ( $r = .12, p < .01$ ). Pornography use modality was not correlated with illegal sexual coercion ( $r = .03$  n.s.).

The present study also analyzed if pornography use and modality are still significant predictors after controlling for previously mentioned significant demographic and sexual behavior related variables using binary logistic regression. A series of regression models were utilized based on the previously reported bivariate correlations and Chi-Square results. Race and sexual orientation were also included in these regression models. The first regression model examines pornography use, psychopathy, rape myth acceptance, sexual orientation, and race as the independent variables and verbal sexual coercion as the dependent variable. The second regression model includes pornography modality with the same predictors mentioned previously as independent variables and verbal sexual coercion as the dependent variable. The third regression model examines pornography use, psychopathy, rape myth acceptance, history of sexual victimization, sexual orientation, and race, as predictors of the average across verbal and

illegal sexual coercion. The last regression model depicts pornography modality with these same control variables and averaged sexual coercion as the dependent variable.

Tables 3 through 6 summarize the results of the regression analyses that coincide with exploratory hypotheses stated earlier. It was expected pornography use and pornography modality were positively related to sexual coercion. In addition, an exploratory research question was addressed though examining their relationship to the outcome variables of sexual coercion while controlling for previously indicated significant predictors. Table 3 depicts the logistic regression analyses for pornography use, psychopathy, rape myth acceptance, sexual orientation, and race as the independent variables and verbal sexual coercion as the dependent variable. The overall model was statistically significant,  $\chi^2(5) = 41.17, p < .001$ , and explained 9% (Nagelkerke  $R^2$ ) of the variance in verbal sexual coercion. Of the five predictors, psychopathy was the only significant variable (See Table 3), indicating higher psychopathy scores were associated with an increased likelihood of engaging in verbal sexual coercion. Pornography use was not a significant predictor of verbal sexual coercion after controlling for these other variables.

Table 3

*Summary of Logistic Regression Analyses for Pornography Use and Verbal Sexual Coercion*

|                      | B (S.E.)     | Estimated Odds Ratio ( $\beta$ ) | 95% CI for $\beta$ |       |
|----------------------|--------------|----------------------------------|--------------------|-------|
|                      |              |                                  | Lower              | Upper |
| Pornography Use      | -0.26 (0.22) | 0.77                             | 0.50               | 1.19  |
| Psychopathy Total    | 0.05 (0.01)  | 1.05**                           | 1.03               | 1.07  |
| Rape Myth Acceptance | 0.38 (0.28)  | 1.47                             | 0.84               | 2.56  |
| Sexual Orientation   | 0.50 (0.31)  | 1.64                             | 0.90               | 3.00  |
| Race                 | -0.26 (0.21) | 0.77                             | 0.51               | 1.18  |

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .  $R^2 = .09$ .

Table 4 illustrates the logistic regression analyses for pornography modality, psychopathy, rape myth acceptance, sexual orientation, and race as the independent variables and verbal sexual coercion as the dependent variable. The overall model was statistically significant,  $\chi^2(5) = 44.02$ ,  $p < .001$ , and explained 9.6% (Nagelkerke  $R^2$ ) of the variance in verbal sexual coercion. Of the five predictors, both psychopathy and pornography modality were statistically significant (See Table 4). This suggests higher levels of psychopathy scores and using a greater number of pornography mediums were associated with an increased likelihood of engaging in verbal sexual coercion.

Table 4

*Summary of Logistic Regression Analyses for Pornography Modality and Verbal Sexual Coercion*

|                      | B (S.E.)     | Estimated Odds Ratio ( $\beta$ ) | 95% CI for $\beta$ |       |
|----------------------|--------------|----------------------------------|--------------------|-------|
|                      |              |                                  | Lower              | Upper |
| Pornography Modality | 0.31 (0.15)  | 1.37*                            | 1.02               | 1.83  |
| Psychopathy Total    | 0.05 (0.01)  | 1.05**                           | 1.03               | 1.07  |
| Rape Myth Acceptance | 0.38 (0.29)  | 1.47                             | 0.83               | 2.56  |
| Sexual Orientation   | 0.48 (0.31)  | 1.61                             | 0.87               | 2.98  |
| Race                 | -0.29 (0.22) | 0.75                             | 0.49               | 1.15  |

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .  $R^2 = .096$ .

The third regression model depicted in Table 5 summarizes the analyses for pornography use, psychopathy, rape myth acceptance, history of sexual victimization, sexual orientation, and race as the independent variables and the average of verbal and illegal sexual coercion as the outcome variable. Similar to the results in Table 3, the overall model was statistically significant,  $\chi^2(6) = 46.64$ ,  $p < .001$ , and explained 10.3% (Nagelkerke  $R^2$ ) of the variance in the average across verbal and illegal sexual coercion. Of the five predictors, psychopathy was the only significant variable (See Table 5), signifying higher psychopathy scores were associated with an increased likelihood of engaging in the average of verbal and illegal sexual coercion. Pornography use was not a significant predictor of averaged sexual coercion after controlling for these other variables.

Table 5

*Summary of Logistic Regression Analyses for Pornography Use and Average Sexual Coercion*

|                                 | B (S.E.)     | Estimated Odds Ratio ( $\beta$ ) | 95% CI for $\beta$ |       |
|---------------------------------|--------------|----------------------------------|--------------------|-------|
|                                 |              |                                  | Lower              | Upper |
| Pornography Use                 | -0.27 (0.23) | 0.76                             | 0.48               | 1.20  |
| Psychopathy Total               | 0.06 (0.01)  | 1.06**                           | 1.03               | 1.08  |
| Rape Myth Acceptance            | 0.33 (0.29)  | 1.39                             | 0.78               | 2.46  |
| History of Sexual Victimization | 0.30 (0.18)  | 1.35                             | 0.95               | 1.92  |
| Sexual Orientation              | 0.56 (0.31)  | 1.75                             | 0.95               | 3.24  |
| Race                            | -0.29 (0.22) | 0.75                             | 0.49               | 1.16  |

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .  $R^2 = .103$

Lastly, Table 6 illustrates the logistic regression analyses for pornography modality, psychopathy, rape myth acceptance, history of sexual victimization, sexual orientation, and race as the independent variables and average sexual coercion as the dependent variable. The overall model was statistically significant,  $\chi^2(6) = 51.15$ ,  $p < .001$ , and explained 11.4% (Nagelkerke  $R^2$ ) of the variance in the average across verbal and illegal sexual coercion measures. Of the five predictors, only psychopathy and pornography modality were statistically significant (See Table 6). This suggests higher levels of psychopathy scores and using a greater number of pornography mediums were associated with an increased likelihood of engaging in averaged verbal and illegal sexual coercion.

Table 6

*Summary of Logistic Regression Analyses for Pornography Modality and Average Sexual Coercion*

|                                 | B (S.E.)     | Estimated<br>Odds Ratio ( $\beta$ ) | 95% CI for $\beta$ |       |
|---------------------------------|--------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------|-------|
|                                 |              |                                     | Lower              | Upper |
| Pornography Modality            | 0.39 (0.16)  | 1.48**                              | 1.08               | 2.03  |
| Psychopathy Total               | 0.05 (0.01)  | 1.06**                              | 1.03               | 1.08  |
| Rape Myth Acceptance            | 0.33 (0.30)  | 1.39                                | 0.78               | 2.48  |
| History of Sexual Victimization | 0.28 (0.18)  | 1.33                                | 0.93               | 1.90  |
| Sexual Orientation              | 0.54 (0.32)  | 1.72                                | 0.92               | 3.23  |
| Race                            | -0.34 (0.23) | 0.71                                | 0.46               | 1.11  |

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .  $R^2 = .114$

## CHAPTER IV

### Discussion

As suggested previously, investigating predictors of sexual coercion for female perpetrators is imperative to aid prevention and treatment efforts. Previous research indicates few studies specifically examined predictors of sexual coercion or evaluated theory-based models of women who engage in sexual coercion (Bouffard et al., 2016). This study adds to the existing literature by examining previously indicated correlates of sexual coercion for female perpetrators in addition to pornography use and modality. The present study was novel given the dearth of research to date examining this specific relationship.

Regarding demographic and personality related variables, results from the current study suggest there were no significant differences across racial groups, marital status, or sexual orientation, in terms of verbal, illegal, or the average across verbal and illegal sexual coercion for the current sample. Because race was recategorized into a dichotomous variable due to small sample sizes across racial minority groups, future studies should examine more racially diverse groups of female perpetrators of sexual coercion in order to better understand the possible association between race and sexual coercion.

With regard to marital status, this research question was exploratory in nature, as previous significant findings were demonstrated across Polish college students and adolescents from the Netherlands (Tomaszewska & Krahé, 2015; Slotboom et al., 2011). One possible explanation for the differences observed between the current study and previous research regarding the association between marital status and sexual coercion

relates to how marital or relationship status was measured. For example, the study of Polish college students asked about perpetration of sexual coercion including behaviors ranging from engaging in unwanted sexual touch to completed sexual intercourse across relationship categories of “(a) former or current partner, (b) friend or acquaintance, and (c) stranger” (Tomaszewska & Krahe, 2015, p. 7). Results indicated more sexually coercive acts were committed against someone the perpetrator knew (Tomaszewska & Krahe, 2015).

However, the current study assessed the association between marital status and likelihood of engaging in sexual coercion by utilizing a vignette scenario with an acquaintance and participants' identification in the demographics section as whether they are in a relationship or not. Tomaszewska and Krahe's (2015) research also contrasts the current study as they utilized a measure of completed sexually coercive behaviors in the past versus rating current likelihood of engaging in sexual coercion. Similarly, a study of college students in the United States examined sexual coercion within participants' ongoing or current relationships (Hines & Saudino, 2003). This differs from the current study in that the current study evaluated the likelihood of engaging in sexual coercion during a vignette scenario and did not address engaging in sexual coercion within participants' self-reported relationships. As such, future research could explore marital status' association with sexual coercion by utilizing different types of relationships between perpetrator and victim within vignette scenarios.

In the current sample, sexual orientation was not related to engaging in verbal, illegal, and the average score across verbal and illegal sexual coercion measures. A previous research review suggests a lack of knowledge in this area due to a focus in the

literature on sexual coercion within heterosexual relationships (Christopher & Pflieger, 2007). There are a few studies pertaining to sexual coercion, with comparisons between sexual orientation groups, but many are lacking in nuanced details regarding sexually coercive behaviors. In a small sample of lesbian college students, 8.3% of 36 women reported being a perpetrator of forced sex (Waterman et al., 1989). However, this study from 1989 differs from the current study in that it asked participants a single question about use of forced sex and did not address the possibility of other sexually coercive behaviors (i.e., lying or coaxing behaviors found in verbal sexual coercion).

Another study demonstrated lesbian, gay, and bisexual youth reported perpetrating more sexual coercion than heterosexual peers (Dank et al., 2014). However, this study did not address specific differences within sexual minority groups and the questions regarding perpetration of sexual coercion included forcing someone to have sex, forcing someone to do sexual things that the other person did not want to, and pressuring someone to have sex (Dank et al., 2014). Other research examined sexual orientation as it relates to being a victim of sexual coercion. One study indicated bisexual women reported experiencing more sexually coercive acts than heterosexual women (Kuyper & Vanwesenbeeck, 2011). Again, this was measured by one broad question which referenced “harmful sexual approach or touch, or can involve force to perform or to permit sexual acts” (Kuyper & Vanwesenbeeck, 2011, p. 267). It appears more research is necessary to understand the nature of the relationship between sexual orientation and perpetration of sexual coercion through the use of consistent operationalized definitions of the outcome behaviors and examination of a broader range of sexually coercive behaviors. Additional studies addressing predictors of sexual

coercion and comparing within sexual minority groups also could shed light on the nature of this relationship.

As expected, a higher level of rape myth acceptance was associated with greater likelihood of engaging in verbal, illegal, and the average across verbal and illegal sexual coercion in the current sample. This finding is consistent with previous research demonstrating this association (Bouffard et al., 2016; Kjellgren et al., 2011). Examples of the three greatest endorsed rape myths in the current sample include: “Men don't usually intend to force sex on a woman, but sometimes they get too sexually carried away,” “When men rape, it is because of their strong desire for sex,” and “In any rape case one would have to question whether the victim is promiscuous or has a bad reputation.” The results from the current study indicate females who endorse a greater number of myths about rape and sexual coercion of other females, as indicated by their report on the Rape Myth Scale, are more likely to engage in sexual coercion themselves. Rape myths are considered an example of “offense-supportive” cognitive strategies discussed in the literature on female sexual abusers (Gannon, & Alleyne, 2013). The association illustrated in the current study between acceptance of rape myths and sexual coercion supports the importance of interventions aimed at specifically addressing the fictitious or irrational beliefs (i.e., rape myths). This, in turn, will aid prevention efforts and reduce recidivism for other forms of sexual coercion (i.e., sexual aggression or abuse).

Additionally, a history of sexual victimization was found to be related to engaging in the average of verbal and illegal sexual coercion. A possible explanation for why it may not have been significantly associated with verbal sexual coercion is that history of sexual victimization was measured in the current study as a dichotomized or yes/no

variable signifying any experience in a participants' lifetime, and was not broken down into specific experiences during childhood or as an adult like in other studies. Future research could address this issue by clarifying ages of sexual victimization experiences and shed light on the differences observed between previous findings and those in the current sample. Unexpectedly, age of first sexual intercourse was not related to engaging in verbal, illegal, or averaged sexual coercion in the present study. Previous research supporting age of first intercourse as a predictor in this same dataset illustrated it was negatively related to past use of sexually coercive tactics, which differs from the current study which utilized likelihood of engaging in sexual coercion currently during a vignette (Bouffard et al., 2015).

Importantly, this study appears to be the first in the literature to address both pornography use and modality as predictors of sexual coercion in a female sample. Pornography use as defined in the current sample does not predict sexual coercion in the same pattern exhibited by males in other studies when considering control variables. Of note, pornography use was measured by a dichotomous yes/no variable and was significantly associated with sexual coercion in the current sample of female participants. Results indicate endorsing pornography use was significantly related to engaging in verbal and the average across verbal and illegal sexual coercion. Furthermore, pornography modality was related to engaging in both verbal and the average of verbal and illegal sexual coercion. Examination of the logistic regression results indicate pornography use was no longer a significant predictor of verbal or averaged sexual coercion after controlling for specific variables (i.e., psychopathy, rape myth acceptance, history of sexual victimization, sexual orientation, race.) On the other hand, pornography

modality was a significant predictor of verbal and averaged sexual coercion when considering these control variables. These results suggest there are differences in the relationship between endorsing use of pornography, number of pornography mediums one uses, and likelihood of engaging in sexual coercion. Based on the results of the current study, the number of pornography mediums one uses (i.e., pornography modality) may be a better predictor of female perpetration of sexual coercion than if they are using pornography (i.e., pornography use). It is important to note the skewed nature of the pornography use and modality variables. Previous research demonstrates women typically use pornography less frequently than men, and men demonstrate more variability in their use (Poulsen, Busby, & Galovan, 2013). As such, it is important to consider this information for future research and continue developing ways of assessing female consumption of pornography in relation to sexual coercion.

For college men, previous studies demonstrated increased pornography use frequency is predictive of sexual coercion (Carr & VanDeusen, 2004; D'Abreu & Krahe, 2014; Vega & Malamuth, 2007). Another important finding indicates pornography use was significantly related to increased risk for violent, including sexual, reoffending in a sample of male sex offenders (Kingston, Fedoroff, Firestone, Curry, & Bradford, 2008). However, number of pornography modalities was not assessed and it is important to consider how pornography use was measured across these studies. Measures of pornography use included (a) Likert scale with anchors from “never” to “very often” regarding seeing images of sexual intercourse or acts across specific mediums (i.e., television, cell phone, books/magazines), (b) frequency of use across pornographic magazines, videos and films, internet images, phone sex and strip club

attendance, (c) self-reported consumption of specific pornography magazines, and (d) rate how often they viewed sexually explicit films and/or books over the course of their lifetime (Carr & VanDeusen, 2004; D'Abreu & Krahe, 2014; Vega & Malamuth, 2007; Kingston et al., 2008). These studies not only applied solely to male samples, but also did not address the number of pornography mediums a participant uses. Future research should investigate how pornography modality among men may be related to sexual coercion. Such research could further elucidate the role of pornography modality in sexual coercion.

One study of college males reported on significant predictors of sexual aggression (i.e., sexual assault) including acceptance of interpersonal violence, sexual conservatism (i.e., level of sexually restrictive attitudes and behaviors), pornography use, and alcohol use (Carr & VanDeusen, 2004). Importantly, these authors discuss how male gender-role socialization including hypermasculinity, acceptance of rape myths, and negative attitudes toward women may also contribute to increased risk for sexual aggression (Carr & VanDeusen, 2004). Notably, pornography use contributes to this socialization process. These predictors do not appear to fit with the results of the current study for females who perpetrate sexual coercion. This line of research suggests future studies should examine how gender-role socialization and identification contribute to predicting female perpetration of sexual coercion.

Based on the results of the current study, pornography modality may be considered a better predictor for females who engage in sexual coercion. Examination of the regression analysis results illustrates pornography modality was still a significant predictor of engaging in verbal sexual coercion and average of verbal and illegal coercion

after controlling for psychopathy, history of sexual victimization, rape myth acceptance, race, and sexual orientation. The results containing the regression models with control variables also suggest there is another strong predictor of sexual coercion lending itself to the overall significance of the models.

Importantly, psychopathy was associated with higher likelihood of engaging in verbal, illegal, and the average of verbal and illegal sexual coercion and was the most influential predictor of engaging in verbal and average sexual coercion across the regression models. Previous research states “women who were conning, callous, and manipulative were more likely to resort to violent methods” of sexually coercive tactics (i.e., persistently kissing and touching a partner, questioning their sexuality, alcohol and drug intoxication, and physical force) after being refused sex (Muñoz et al., 2011, p. 37). Psychopathy traits appear to be a particularly important predictor of sexual coercion when compared to other demographic, sexual behavior, and pornography use variables for this female sample. Personality traits related to psychopathy also seem to be a significant predictor of sexual coercion in only a small amount of research studies using female samples. Regarding female sex offenders, there is a significant gap in the research examining psychopathic traits in relation to this population (Christopher, Lutz-Zois, & Reinhardt, 2007). Additional research exploring psychopathic traits in relation to female perpetration of sexual coercion appears warranted.

Although the results of the current study shed light on the relationship between pornography use and female sexual coercion, it contains limitations. The current study involves a college age sample in the southwestern United States and is generalizable to this specific campus population. The results, therefore, may not generalize to other non-

college women or to female sexual offenders. Also, the current study did not explore levels of violence and aggression in the pornography use or modality variables which could also prove beneficial as an area of future exploration. Lastly, the data are cross-sectional in nature, which limits the ability to make causal statements about the results.

The results also suggest some other areas worthy of future exploration. Based on the generalizability of the current sample, longitudinal research exploring similar factors would better explain and define any causal relationships. An examination of the relationship between pornography use and sexual coercion utilizing female sex offender and community samples could also improve generalizability and add to the dearth of knowledge in this area. Finally, the current study suggests further investigation of pornography modality and its relation to perpetration of sexual coercion within a larger, more diverse sample of females appears warranted.

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doi:10.1002/ab.20367.

## VITA

ALIXANDRA C. BURKS, M.A.

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**Education**


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- August 2016-Present      **Predoctoral Intern**  
Federal Medical Center-Carswell, Bureau of Prisons  
Fort Worth, Texas
- August 2011-Present      **Doctor of Philosophy (Candidate) in Clinical Psychology**  
*Dissertation: An examination of pornography use as a predictor  
of female sexual coercion*  
Sam Houston State University  
Huntsville, Texas
- May 2013                      **Master of Arts in Clinical Psychology**  
*Thesis: Hate crime victimization and sexual minority specific  
stress among sexual minority community members*  
Sam Houston State University  
Huntsville, Texas
- May 2011                      **Bachelor of Science in Psychology with Honors**  
  
*Minors in Criminal Justice and Sociology*  
*Certificates in Behavioral Forensics and Criminal Profiling*  
University of Central Florida  
Orlando, Florida

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**Publications**


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- Cramer, R.J., **Burks, A.C.**, Durgampudi, P., & Plöderl, M. (In Press). Minority Stress Model Components and Affective Well-Being in a Sample of HIV-Positive Sexual Orientation Minority Adults. *AIDS Care*.
- Cramer, R.J., Golom, F.D., **Burks, A.C.**, Stroud, C.H., & Graham, J. (2016). The Lesbian, Gay, and Bisexual Identity Scale: Factor Analytic Evidence and Associations with Health and Well-Being. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*.
- Burks, A.C.**, & Cramer, R.J. (2016). Gender identity and sexual orientation in the assessment and management of suicide. In V. Brabender & J. Mihura (Eds.) *Handbook of gender, sex, and psychological assessment*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Burks, A. C.**, Cramer, R. J., Henderson, C. E., Stroud, C. H., Crosby, J. W., & Graham, J. (2015). Frequency, nature, and correlates of hate crime victimization experiences in an urban sample of lesbian, gay, and bisexual community members. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*.

Cramer, R. J., **Burks, A. C.**, Stroud, C. H., Bryson, C. N., & Graham, J. (2015). A moderated mediation analysis of suicide proneness among lesbian, gay, and bisexual community members. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 34, 622-641.

Cramer, R. J., Clark III, J. W., Kehn, A., **Burks, A. C.**, & Wechsler, H. J. (2013). A mock juror investigation of blame attribution in the punishment of hate crime perpetrators. *International Journal of Law and Psychiatry*, 37(6), 551-557.

Cramer, R. J., Miller, A. K., Amacker, A. M., & **Burks, A. C.** (2013). Openness, right-wing authoritarianism, and antigay prejudice in college students: A mediation model. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 60, 64-71.

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### Research Experience

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| October 2011-August 2015 | <p>Graduate Research Assistant (Unfunded)<br/> <b>Personality, Diversity, and the Law (PDL) Laboratory</b><br/> <b>Sam Houston State University</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Assisted in grant data collection at Legacy Community Health Services in Houston, Texas</li> <li>• Completed data entry, analysis, and write-ups for publication and conference presentations</li> <li>• <u>Supervisor:</u> Robert Cramer, Ph.D.</li> </ul>  |
| August 2011-August 2012  | <p>Graduate Research Assistant (Funded)<br/> <b>Study of Self-Perception and Other-Attribution in Context (SPOAC)</b><br/> <b>Laboratory</b><br/> <b>Sam Houston State University</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Conducted literature reviews on sexual prejudice reduction strategies</li> <li>• Completed data collection and data entry for jury study and personality characteristics in undergraduates</li> <li>• Assisted with conference presentation and manuscript preparation</li> <li>• <u>Supervisor:</u> Audrey Miller, Ph.D.</li> </ul> |
| February 2011-May 2011   | <p>Undergraduate Research Assistant (Unfunded)<br/> <b>Department of Sociology</b><br/> <b>University of Central Florida</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Typed letters received from Louisiana inmates and created responses to letters to gather more information</li> <li>• Collaborated with supervisor to determine levels of attachment and commitment based on responses</li> <li>• <u>Supervisor:</u> Rachel Rayburn, Ph.D.</li> </ul>  |
| October 2009-May 2011    | <p>Undergraduate Research Assistant (Unfunded)<br/> <b>Psychophysiology of Mental Illness Laboratory</b><br/> <b>University of Central Florida</b></p>  |

- Social Anxiety and Theory of Mind Project: Administered tests of social cognition and emotion recognition (TASIT, Eyes Test) and levels of empathy (Basic Empathy Scale) to undergraduate students
- Compiled raw data in Microsoft Access to examine relationship between social cognition performance and social anxiety symptoms
- Supervisor: Jeffrey Bedwell, Ph.D.

September 2009-August  
2011

Undergraduate Research Assistant (Unfunded)

**Anxiety Disorders Clinic**

**University of Central Florida**

- Analyzed vocal characteristics of children with various psychological disorders during Structured Role Play Assessments using Pratt Vocal Analysis Software
- Acted as peer in social skills training for children with Social Anxiety Disorder and Selective Mutism
- Performed data entry for patient assessments (EQ, CBC, QOL) and literature reviews
- Supervisor: Deborah Beidel, Ph.D.

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### Conference Presentations

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Vera, L., Boccaccini, M., **Burks, A.**, Mena, C., Kline, S., Wechsler, H., Murrie, D. (2015, August). *Being in the room: Interviewer and coder differences in psychopathy and normative personality trait ratings*. Poster presented at the annual conference of the American Psychological Association, Toronto, Canada.

**Burks, A. C.**, Cramer, R. J., Miller, R. S., Wechsler, H. J., Mena, C. M., & Chevalier, C. S. (2015, May). *Is orange the new black? A theoretical examination of 'gay for the stay' and the pseudo-family: Identity and coping among female offenders*. Poster presented at the annual conference of the Association for Psychological Science, New York, New York.

Wechsler, H. J., Cramer, R. C., Conroy, M. A., & **Burks, A. C.** (2015, March). *Potential biases in competency for execution evaluations: From empathy-related biases to moral disengagement*. Poster presented at the annual conference of the American Psychology-Law Society, San Diego, California.

**Burks, A. C.**, Cramer, R. J., & Stroud, C. H. (2014, March). *A moderated mediation analysis of suicide proneness among lesbian, gay, and bisexual community members*. Paper presented at the annual conference of the American Psychology-Law Society, New Orleans, Louisiana.

Fraser, T., Henderson, C., Greenbaum, P., Wang, W., Lawrence, G., Wang, H., Gharagozloo, L., **Burks, A.**, Mena, C., Warren, C., Munoz, C., & Liddle, H. (2014, March). *Changes in family functioning may differentially affect outcomes for male and female adolescents in substance use and delinquency treatment*. Paper presented at the annual conference of the American Psychology-Law Society, New Orleans, Louisiana.

- Burks, A. C.**, Cramer, R. J., Henderson, C. E., Stroud, C. H., Crosby, J. W., Graham, J. (2013, August). *An examination of the role of sexual minority specific stress among lesbian, gay, and bisexual community members*. Poster presented at the annual conference of the American Psychological Association, Honolulu, Hawaii.
- Cramer, R. J., Stroud, C. H., Miller, R. S., Graham, J., **Burks, A. C.**, Johnson, J. C., Wechsler, H. W. (2013, August). *Project legacy: Preliminary findings from an LGB community health investigation*. Poster presented at the annual conference of the American Psychological Association, Honolulu, Hawaii.
- Cramer, R. J., Clark, J. W., Kehn, A., **Burks, A.C.**, & Wechsler, H. J. (2013, March). *Blame attribution in the punishment of hate crime perpetrators*. Paper presented at the annual conference of the American Psychology-Law Society, Portland, Oregon.
- Cramer, R. J., Stroud, C. H., Fraser, T., Johnson, S. M., **Burks, A. C.**, Johnson, J. C., Wechsler, H. J., & Graham, J. (2013, March). *A trait-interpersonal analysis of suicide-related behavior among lesbian, gay, and bisexual individuals*. Poster presented at the annual conference of the American Psychology-Law Society, Portland, Oregon.
- Miller, A. K., Duncan, J. M., Taslitz, A. E., Gardner, B. O., Pennington, C. R., Kline, S. A., **Burks, A. C.**, Pennington, J. N., Duhon, D. A., Rodriguez, D., Stein, M. L., Gemberling, T. M., & Laxton, K. L. (2013, March). *A personality-and-attitude-change model of jury NGRI verdicts: The pivotal role of perspective taking*. Poster presented at the annual conference of the American Psychology-Law Society, Portland, Oregon.
- Miller, A. K., Gemberling, T. M., Gardner, B. O., **Burks, A. C.**, Rodriguez, D., & Laxton, K. L. (2013, March). *Clarifying the personality roots of jury-biasing social cognitions: On right-wing authoritarianism*. Poster presented at the annual conference of the American Psychology-Law Society, Portland, Oregon.

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## Clinical Experience

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August 2016-August 2017

### **Federal Medical Center-Carswell**

*Fort Worth, Texas*

Predoctoral Intern: General Major Rotation, Forensic Minor and Sex Offender Management Program Minor Rotations

- Attend and participate in daily treatment team meetings to discuss treatment needs and least restrictive environment decisions
- Complete forensic evaluations including competency to stand trial, restoration of competency, annual updates to the court for committed individuals on risk and dangerousness, and treatment in lieu of sentencing
- Conduct individual therapy, group therapy, intake assessments, and psychodiagnostic assessments for both seriously mentally ill and general population inmates
- Perform crisis interventions and suicide risk assessments regularly
- Supervisors: Daniel Kim, Ph.D., Chief Psychologist and Nicole Bartholomew, Ph.D. (General Rotation Supervisor)

- September 2015-April 2016      **Rusk State Hospital**  
*Rusk, Texas*  
 Practicum Student Clinician
- Attended weekly treatment team meetings to discuss treatment needs and modifications for patients with Severe Mental Illness
  - Conducted group and individual therapy addressing issues such as restoration of competence and increasing coping strategies and adaptive behaviors with patients adjudicated Not Guilty By Reason of Insanity (individual)
  - Supervisor: Burt Gabbert, Ph.D., Director of Psychology
- September 2015      **Sexually Violent Predator (SVP) Evaluation**  
*Huntsville, Texas*  
 Co-Evaluator
- Participated in Texas SVP evaluation of inmate to determine risk for recidivism and appropriateness for civil commitment
  - Supervisor: Jorge G. Varela, Ph.D., Director of Clinical Training (Private Contractor)
- October 2013-April 2016      **Psychological Services Center at Sam Houston State University**  
*Huntsville, Texas*  
 Assistant Forensic Evaluator
- Conducted and co-authored court ordered evaluations (i.e., competence to stand trial, criminal responsibility, fitness to proceed) which consist of a detailed clinical interview and review of records for justice-involved adults and juveniles
  - Conducted psychodiagnostic evaluations for local juvenile probation departments to provide treatment needs and placement considerations for justice-involved youth
  - Supervisors: Mary Alice Conroy, Ph.D., ABPP, Director of Psychological Services Center, and Darryl Johnson, Ph.D.
- September 2014-August 2015      **Federal Prison Camp**  
*Bryan, Texas*  
 Practicum Student Clinician
- Conducted individual therapy in addition to psychodiagnostic evaluations for the Education program and to determine treatment needs.
  - Provided topic groups for residential drug program (RDAP) and psychoeducation groups for the general population.
  - Conducted intake assessments, authored reports for Resolve Trauma Program qualification, and assigned care levels under licensed psychologists.
  - Supervisor: Jennifer Rogers, Psy.D., Chief Psychologist
- June 2014-July 2015      **Sex Offender Treatment Program (SOTP)**  
*Livingston, Texas*

## Student Clinician &amp; Co-Therapist

- Co-led group sex offender treatment twice per month for adults on probation through Polk County Probation Department (one male, one female group)
- Supervisor: Holly Miller, Ph.D., Licensed Sex Offender Treatment Provider

May 2013-June 2014

**Walker County Probation Office Psychological Services***Huntsville, Texas*

## Practicum Student Clinician

- Conducted individual therapy with adult probationers
- Co-led weekly Anger Management group
- Completed psychological evaluations and needs assessments
- Supervisor: Darryl Johnson, Ph.D.

June 2014-September 2014

**Psychological Services Center at Sam Houston State University***Huntsville, Texas*

August 2012-August 2013

## Practicum Student Clinician

- Conducted individual therapy for diverse and low-income community members including Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT) and Dialectical Behavior Therapy (DBT)
- Conducted couples therapy for couple referred from probation department including Acceptance and Commitment modality (ACT)
- Completed psychoeducational and psychodiagnostic evaluations for adults and children
- Completed case conceptualizations, provided diagnoses, and authored integrated reports
- Supervisors: Lisa Kan, Ph.D.; Craig Henderson, Ph.D.; Adam Schmidt, Ph.D.

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**Teaching and Supervisory Experience**


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August 2015-December 2015

Instructor/Teaching Assistant

**Human Sexuality (PSYC 3334)  
Sam Houston State University**

- Supervisor: Christopher Wilson, Ph.D.

June 2015-August 2015

Teaching Assistant and Peer Supervisor

**Introduction to Practicum  
Sam Houston State University**

- Supervisor: Mary Alice Conroy, Ph.D., ABPP

January 2015

Invited Case Presentation

**Forensic Assessment Class  
Sam Houston State University**

- Supervisor: Mary Alice Conroy, Ph.D., ABPP

- August 2014-May 2015 Teaching Assistant and Peer Supervisor  
**Assessment of Personality and Psychopathology (PSYC 5396)**  
**Sam Houston State University**  
 • Supervisor: Adam Schmidt, Ph.D.
- August 2013-May 2014 Individual Peer Supervisor  
**Capstone Practicum**  
**Sam Houston State University**  
 • Supervisor: Darryl Johnson, Ph.D.
- Fall 2014  
 Spring 2012 Invited Guest Lecturer: Victimization and Gender  
**Seminar in Psychology: Violence, Victims and Offenders (PSYC 4333)**  
**Sam Houston State University**  
 • Supervisor: Robert Cramer, Ph.D.
- Fall 2012
- August 2012-May 2013 **Supervision Seminar**  
 • Supervisor: Mary Alice Conroy, Ph.D., ABPP
- August 2012-May 2013 Instructor/Teaching Assistant  
**Introduction to Psychology (PSYC 1301)**  
**Sam Houston State University**  
 • Supervisor: Christopher Wilson, Ph.D.
- August 2008-May 2011 Program Facilitator and Mentor  
**Young Women Leaders Program**  
**University of Central Florida**  
 • Supervisor: Maria Cristina Santana, Ph.D.

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### Honors and Awards

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- 2014 **Texas Psychological Association Roy Scrivner Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual Research Award**  
 An award given to the best student paper on Gay, Lesbian and Bisexual research issues  
*Paper: Hate crime victimization and sexual minority specific stress among sexual minority community members*
- 2013 **American Association of University Women Memorial Scholarship**  
 Award given to female student demonstrating scholarship and leadership

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| 2011      | <b>Who's Who Among University of Central Florida Students</b><br>A national college student recognition program for students who demonstrate excellent contributions to their community and school   |
| 2007-2011 | <b>Florida Bright Futures Award for Full Tuition Coverage</b><br><br>Scholarship award given to students demonstrating outstanding scholastic achievement for full tuition coverage during four years at a Florida undergraduate institution |
| 2010      | <b>George DeSalvia Memorial Endowed Scholarship</b><br>Scholarship award given to outstanding student in Criminal Justice at the University of Central Florida   |
| 2008      | <b>President's Scholar</b><br>Burnett Honors College study abroad experience in St. Kitts and Nevis provided to the highest achieving Honors students at the University of Central Florida   |

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#### **Additional Professional Development and Leadership Activities**

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| March 2015-Present | <b>Burnett Honors College E-Mentor</b><br><b>University of Central Florida</b><br><ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provide mentorship via email to undergraduate honors student in psychology</li> </ul>   |
| October 2015       | <b>Gender Infinity Conference</b><br><b>Depelchin Children's Center</b><br><ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Attended and participated in conference for mental health providers working with transgender and gender diverse youth</li> </ul>   |
| April 2015         | <b>Woodcock-Johnson IV and WISC V Updates in Administration and Interpretation</b><br><i>Professional Development Presentation</i><br><ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Conducted by Ramona Noland, Ph.D., LSSP.</li> <li>• Attended and participated in training on updated WJ-IV and WISC-V measures</li> </ul> |
| April 2015         | <b>Spring Colloquium</b><br><i>Guest Speaker: Paul Frick, Ph.D.</i><br><ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Attended presentation on pathways through which youth develop severe antisocial behavior and the implications of this research for assessment and treatment</li> </ul>                                   |
| January 2014       | <b>Spring Colloquium</b><br><i>Guest Speaker: Richard Frederick, Ph.D.</i><br><ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Attended presentation on clinical issues in the attribution of malingering within forensic evaluations</li> </ul>   |

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| March 2013              | <p><b>Texas Psychological Association (TPA) Legislative Day and Mental Health Fair</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Attended briefing from TPA</li> <li>• Visited various legislators' offices to increase knowledge about the psychology profession and TPA's presence</li> </ul>  |
| January 2013            | <p><b>Spring Colloquium</b><br/> <i>Guest Speaker: John Petrila, Ph.D.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Attended presentation on international perspectives of preventative detention and mental disability law</li> <li>• Organized student luncheon with Dr. Petrila</li> </ul>   |
| August 2012-August 2013 | <p>Elected Student Representative</p> <p><b>Clinical Psychology Doctoral Program</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Attended weekly faculty meetings, created minutes to be sent out to students, and brought student concerns to the faculty's attention</li> <li>• Organized interview weekend 2013 for the program's 2013-2014 cohort</li> </ul>                                 |
| October 2011            | <p><b>Fall Colloquium</b><br/> <i>Cognitive Processing Therapy for Post Traumatic Stress Disorder</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Conducted by Charity Wilkinson, Psy.D. and Tracey Clemens, Psy. D.</li> <li>• Attended and participated in CPT seminar and didactic training for practitioners</li> </ul>  |
| October 2010- May 2011  | <p>Undergraduate Student Intern</p> <p><b>Mental Health Association of Central Florida</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Performed clerical tasks, collected information on community resources, and made referrals for consumers</li> <li>• Conducted data entry of consumer and provider information into Microsoft Excel</li> <li>• <u>Supervisor:</u> Melanie Klein</li> </ul> |

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**Professional Memberships**

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| 2014-Present | Association for Psychological Science              |
| 2011-Present | American Psychology-Law Society                    |
| 2011-Present | Graduate Student Psychological Organization (GSPO) |
| 2009-Present | American Psychological Association                 |
| 2009-Present | Psi Chi  |