

**THE MODERATING EFFECT OF INTERNET PORNOGRAPHY USE WITHIN THE
PAST MONTH ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EXPERIENCES OF SHAME TO
PERCEIVED ADDICTION TO PORNOGRAPHY**

by

Catherine Ann Peters

Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

School of Behavioral Sciences

Liberty University

2021

**THE MODERATING EFFECT OF INTERNET PORNOGRAPHY USE WITHIN THE
PAST MONTH ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EXPERIENCES OF SHAME TO
PERCEIVED ADDICTION TO PORNOGRAPHY**

by Catherine Ann Peters

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

School of Behavioral Sciences

Liberty University, Lynchburg VA

2021

Approved By:

Fred Volk, Ph.D., Committee Chair

Raquel Guidry-Davis, Ed.D., Committee Member

ABSTRACT

Shame and guilt have been the topic of numerous research studies, particularly in differentiating the emotional outcomes of these two constructs. Shame experiences have been more associated with depression, overwhelming negative affect, aggression, anger, withdrawal, avoidance and blaming others. Guilt tends to produce healthy responses such as reparations for poor behavior or choices. Research abounds on the concept of self-perceived addiction to pornography, particularly with individuals who have firm religious or moral beliefs regarding pornography (moral incongruence). However, research addressing the direct effect of experiences of shame (shame feelings in the moment) on its relationship to perceived addiction to pornography is lacking. The investigation of the results of pornography use by those who have strong moral beliefs tends to demonstrate an increase in these individuals believing they are addicted to Internet pornography and points towards compulsive use of pornography viewing. There is little research, however, on the impact of specific experiences of shame (characterological, behavioral, and body) to one's belief that they are addicted to pornography. Furthermore, do men and women's frequency of Internet pornography use within the past month have any relevance when looking at the relationship of high levels of experiences of shame to the idea that these individuals believe they are addicted to pornography? This study will investigate the conditional effects of Internet pornography use within the past month on the relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral and bodily shame and one's personal belief that they are addicted to pornography.

Keywords: experience of shame, Internet pornography use, perceived addiction to pornography, moral incongruence, pornography use, shame, guilt.

Dedication

This work is dedicated to my heavenly Father first and foremost for loving me so much that He sent His Son, Who was willing to come to earth to pay the ultimate price for a debt that I could not pay. Also, for allowing me the privilege to embark on this journey in spite of my initial, emphatic refusals because of my belief it wasn't even possible. And to God's precious Holy Spirit. He is the most profoundly amazing Counselor, Guide and Friend Who has continually worked with and helped me to grow in grace with the ultimate goal of glorifying my Lord and Savior Jesus Christ. This present study would never have happened apart from the Triune God's compelling work on and in my life, and all of the human vessels He placed strategically around me to encourage me through this difficult journey. It has been an extraordinary healing journey and Isaiah 42:16 sums up what God has been doing in my life for the past 5 ½ years: "I will lead the blind by ways they have not known, along unfamiliar paths I will guide them; I will turn the darkness into light before them and make the rough places smooth. These are the things I will do; I will not forsake them." Father thank you for your sustaining grace in this journey and in my life! And to my best friend, Dr. Clay E. Peters who never once doubted my ability to complete this task. Throughout our thirty-two plus years together he has exemplified Paul's admonishment to husbands, "Husbands, love your wives, just as Christ loved the church and gave Himself up for her" (Ephesians 5:25, NKJV). Jesus and my husband are the only ones who knew the mental obstacles I faced from the very start of this journey, yet neither waived in their belief, support and encouragement that I was capable to finish this project.

Acknowledgments

I am also eternally grateful to my chair and the professor with whom this entire journey began years ago, Dr. Volk. What has been produced here would not have been possible without Dr. Volk's patience, kindness, guidance, and longsuffering encouragement throughout this journey, from start to finish. He exemplifies the God-given gift of a teacher and is a credit to the kingdom of Heaven in how he operates in that gift! To Dr. Guidry for her tireless efforts in reading through my work, bringing order and clarity; thank you! I would also like to acknowledge my mother, Doris Oliver, whose strength, gift of faith and love has spurred me on through life. Mom, you are an amazing woman, my hero and I thank God He chose you to be my mom! To our son Nicholas, your chronic "You've got this mom" meant more to me than I ever really expressed, and pushed me through some really difficult times. To Karen Harden, Diana Flory and Anne Taylor, for the inspiration of working with such strong, godly women which inevitably led to the development of this study. To Katina Lightfoot for her commitment to pray for me and the endless encouraging texts at the perfect moment; what you have done carries eternal significance! To Dr. Robert and Connie Wright for believing in my ability and capacity to finish this. To the Messiah Company ladies for all of your Friday evening prayers and words of encouragement, love and support: Katy, Katherine, Haylee, Ellen, Alison, Eden, Ella and Lily. You all continue to inspire me! And to so many other friends too numerous to mention that would randomly check in on me and express your belief in me and my ability to see this journey through, thank you!

Table of Contents

ABSTRACT	2
Dedication	3
Acknowledgements	4
List of Tables	8
List of Figures.....	10
List of Abbreviations	12
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	13
Overview	13
Background	15
Problem Statement	23
Purpose Statement	25
Significance of Study	25
Research Questions	26
Definitions	28
Summary.....	34
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	37
Overview	37
Theoretical Framework	38
Related Literature	41
Pornography	41
Pornography Use Statistics.....	41
Problematic Pornography Use.....	43

Compulsive Use of Pornography	47
Men vs. Women in Pornography Use	49
Perceived Addiction to Pornography	53
Moral Incongruence and Pornography	57
Shame	59
Shame vs. Guilt	59
Experience of Shame	66
Summary... ..	72
CHAPTER THREE: METHODS	73
Overview... ..	73
Research Design... ..	73
Research Questions	74
Hypotheses	78
Participants and Setting	80
Research Instruments	82
Procedures	86
Data Analysis	87
Summary	89
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS	90
Overview	90
Data Screening... ..	91
Descriptive Statistics	92
Participant Demographics... ..	93

Results	99
Correlation.....	100
Moderation Models... ..	102
Testing Model One.....	102
Testing Model Two	111
Testing Model Three	119
Summary... ..	131
CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS.....	133
Overview	133
Discussion	134
Research Questions 1-3 Correlation.....	136
Research Questions 4-9 Moderation Model 1	140
Research Questions 10-12 Moderation Model 2.....	144
Research Questions 13-18 Moderation Model 3.....	146
Implications	157
Limitations	163
Recommendations for Future Research	165
Study Summary... ..	172
REFERENCES.....	175
APPENDIX	211

List of Tables

Table 4.1 Descriptive Statistics.....	92
Table 4.2 Participants Demographics: Age, Race, and Gender.....	93
Table 4.3 Participant Demographics: Education, Employment, and Income	95
Table 4.4 Participant Demographics: Gender and Frequency of Pornography Use in the Past Month.....	98
Table 4.5 Pearson's r Correlations for all Variables.....	101
Table 4.6 Process Models Result for Model One ESS-C	104
Table 4.7 The Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderator ESS-C	105
Table 4.8 Process Models Results for Model One ESS-BEH	107
Table 4.9 The Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderator ESS-BEH	107
Table 4.10 Process Models Results for Model Three ESS-BOD	109
Table 4.11 The Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderator ESS-BEH	109
Table 4.12 Process Models Results for Model Two ESS-C	113
Table 4.13 The Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderator ESS-C	114
Table 4.14 Process Models Results for Model Two ESS-BEH.....	115
Table 4.15 The Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderator ESS-BEH	116
Table 4.16 Process Models Results for Model Two ESS-BOD.....	118
Table 4.17 The Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderator ESS-BOD	118

Table 4.18 Process Models Results for Model Three ESS-C	122
Table 4.19 The Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderators ESS-C	122
Table 4.20 Process Models Results for Model Three ESS-BEH.....	125
Table 4.21 The Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor of the Moderators ESS-BEH	126
Table 4.22 Process Models Results for Model Two ESS-BOD.	129
Table 4.23 The Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderator ESS-BOD	129

List of Figures

Figure 3.1 Conceptual Model for Research Model 1	77
Figure 3.2 Conceptual Model for Research Model 2	77
Figure 3.3 Conceptual Model for Research Model 3	78
Figure 4.1 Hypothesized Theoretical Model One	103
Figure 4.2 Hypothesized Statistical Model One	103
Figure 4.3 Main Effects of Experiences of Characterological Shame and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography	106
Figure 4.4 Main Effects of Experiences of Behavioral Shame and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography	108
Figure 4.5 Main Effects of Experiences of Bodily Shame and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography	110
Figure 4.6 Hypothesized Theoretical Model Two	112
Figure 4.7 Hypothesized Statistical Model Two	112
Figure 4.8 Main Effects of Experiences of Characterological Shame and Frequency of Pornography Use in the Past Month on Perceived Addiction to Pornography	114
Figure 4.9 Main Effects of Experiences of Behavioral Shame and Frequency of Pornography Use in the Past Month on Perceived Addiction to Pornography	117
Figure 4.10 Main Effects of Bodily Shame, Frequency of Pornography Use in the Past Month and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography	119
Figure 4.11 Hypothesized Theoretical Model Three	120
Figure 4.12 Hypothesized Statistical Model Three	121
Figure 4.13 Main Effects of Experiences of Characterological Shame, Frequency of Pornography	

Use in the Past Month and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography for Men.....	123
--	-----

Figure 4.14 Main Effects of Experiences of Characterological Shame, Frequency of Pornography

Use in the Past Month and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography for Women.....	124
--	-----

Figure 4.15 Main Effects of Experiences of Behavioral Shame, Frequency of Pornography Use
in the Past Month and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography for

Men.....	127
----------	-----

Figure 4.16 Main Effects of Experiences of Behavioral Shame, Frequency of Pornography Use
in the Past Month and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography for Women...128

Figure 4.17 Main Effects of Experiences of Bodily Shame, Frequency of Pornography Use in the
Past Month and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography for Men.....130

Figure 4.18 Main Effects of Experiences of Bodily Shame, Frequency of Pornography Use in the
Past Month and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography for Women.....131

List of Abbreviations

American Psychiatric Association (APA)

Compulsive Sexual Behavior Disorder (CSBD)

Cyber Pornography Use Inventory-4 (CPUI-4)

Experience of Shame (ESS)

Experience of Shame Characterological (ESS-C)

Experience of Shame Behavioral (ESS-BEH)

Experience of Shame Bodily (ESS-BOD)

Internet Pornography (IP)

Internet Pornography Use (IPU)

Online Sexual Activities (OSA)

Pornography Use and Masturbation (PuM)

Problematic Pornography Use (PPU)

Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome-2 [SARS-CoV-2] (COVID-19)

Sexually Explicit Material (SEM)

Test of Self-Conscious Affect for Shame (TOSCA-S)

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

The past three decades have seen an abundance of empirical literature investigating shame and guilt, such as Tangney and Dearing's (2002) work. Furthermore, the past decade has seen increased investigations into Internet pornography use (IPU) and the detrimental effects of the increasingly easy access of visual, sexual content (Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015). Many individuals believe that they are addicted to pornography even though their actual use may not resonate with an addictive disorder (Grubbs, Exline et al., 2017; Grubbs, Hoagland et al., 2020; Grubbs, Wilt et al., 2018; Lewczuk, Nowakowska, 2020; Volk et al., 2019). The debate continues as to whether or not pornography use is detrimental to one's well-being (Binnie & Reavey, 2020; Harpers & Hodgins, 2016; Kohut et al., 2017), and research has demonstrated that many users do not have adverse effects from their use (Bothe, Toth-Kiraly, Bella et al., 2020). However, many individuals experience detrimental psychological outcomes from Internet pornography use (Kraus et al., 2016; Short et al., 2016). Shame plays a significant role in how individuals perceive their use of pornography (Gilliland et al., 2011). Of increasing interest in empirical studies is investigating experiences of shame and their relationship with varied aspects of psychological functioning (Velotti et al., 2017). Mainly at risk are individuals who believe that pornography use is wrong and violates profound moral principles. Regardless of their convictions, these individuals continue to engage in pornography use, referred to as "moral incongruence" (Grubbs, Grant et al., 2018; Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2020; Grubbs, Perry et al., 2019; Grubbs, Stauner et al., 2015). Again, the implications of shame in this relationship cannot be ignored.

Empirical work has demonstrated that shame encounters manifest as different

experiences for people than guilt encounters in profound, important ways (Lewis, 1971; Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Tangney et al., 2007). Shame (particularly those with chronic shame) produces a sense within the individual that they are flawed at their core; it is a violation of their sense of wholeness (Lewis, 1971; Dearing et al., 2005; Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Tangney, 1990; Tangney et al., 2007). In contrast, those experiencing guilt feel remorse because of specific behavior that can be resolved by making amends (Tangney & Dearing, 2002, 2007). Many who struggle with chronic shame live day-in, day-out with a sense that who they are is never enough, no matter their accomplishments or how they appear to others (Thompson, 2015). A practical way to clarify the differences is that guilt is self-blame based on behavior, whereas shame is self-blame based on the individual's character or core self (Janoff-Bulman, 1979). Individuals who constantly live with this sense of a flawed core can be overwhelmed quickly when shame encounters occur (Bradshaw, 1988; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Hiding or withdrawal after a shame encounter is common (Elison et al., 2006). Thompson (2015) points out that this can have detrimental physiological ramifications. The isolation the individual finds themselves in is the same state that can affect the resilience and flexibility of the mind, forming a cycle of shame (Thompson, 2015).

Researchers have postulated shame-coping methods such as withdrawal, attacking self, attacking others, and avoidance (Elison et al., 2006). However, very few articles address the specific experiences of shame ("in-the-moment" feelings of shame) such as characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame and their relationship to Internet pornography users who feel addicted to pornography. When malignant forms of shame appear in an individual, a state of stasis may present itself. This individual is unable to think, move, or escape the overwhelming sense of humiliation, with a desire to run from relational encounters and stay hidden so as not to

engage with others (Thompson, 2015). People who live with chronic shame and the inability to detect the presence of shame find themselves in these types of encounters quite often. They cannot process the flood of affect that overwhelms them, in many instances leading to an emotional, mental, and sometimes even a physical state of paralysis (Thompson, 2015). Shame can manifest in numerous mental functions such as thoughts, behaviors, feelings, images, and sensations (Thompson, 2015).

Internet pornography viewing is typically accompanied by masturbation, which may be a coping method to deal with adverse negative emotions or states resulting from chronic shame or shame encounters. Chronic shame and shame experiences may exacerbate the perception by these individuals that they are addicted to pornography and may play a role in their distress. It is not within the scope of this study to address the neurobiological aspects of Internet pornography use. Nor will chemical reactions in the brain be discussed that may show up due to masturbation, decreasing an individual's negative affect, which may stem from chronic shame and the belief that their pornography use is out of control. Instead, this study will first investigate the predictive relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame with perceived addiction to Internet Pornography (IP). It will further investigate frequent pornography use in high shame conditions and whether this influenced the relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography. It will also investigate how these relationships may be similar or different between men and women who view Internet pornography.

Background

Problematic Pornography Use

In the current environment of America, in the wake of the Sars CoV (COVID-19)

outbreak, there is a belief that pornography use has become a public health issue. However, Grubbs (2020) has determined that this is not an accurate assessment. The majority of people who view pornography express positive implications for their use (Hald & Malamuth, 2008). However, for some, it does become very problematic, even compulsive, affecting all areas of their lives, family, job, relationships, mental and emotional well-being (Harper & Hodgins, 2016; Laier et al., 2014; Levin et al., 2019; Ross et al., 2012; Weinstein et al., 2015). There was great disappointment within the clinical community when the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, 5th ed. (DSM-5; American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2013) declined to recognize sex addiction in their latest version (Benfield, 2018; Reid et al., 2012). Clinicians specializing in working with individuals who suffer great distress due to sexual behavior they feel are out of control are frustrated. Adverse outcomes and emotional distress are a reality in the clinical setting, with no diagnostic options available (Benfield, 2018). Benfield (2018) believes that there is no pleasure for these clients, and it appears they are using their sexual behaviors to mitigate negative emotional states.

Not all pornography use can be considered problematic, as research has demonstrated that many who view pornography may experience more positive or neutral outcomes (Binnie & Reavey, 2020; Boies, 2002; Maas et al., 2018; McCormack & Wignall, 2017; Poulsen et al., 2013; Rodrigues, 2021). However, there is an at-risk population in which their use becomes more compulsive and problematic, causing great distress in their life and overall well-being (Benfield, 2018; Kor et al., 2014; Maddock et al., 2019; Reid et al., 2011; Volk et al., 2019) and distress within marriage relationships (Doran & Price, 2014). More specifically, in a study investigating compulsive use of Internet pornography by university students, 17% reported severe levels of depression, 20.4% reported anxiety, and 13.5% reported stress in association

with their IP use (Camilleri et al., 2021). Many individuals, since they believe that their pornography use is out of control, seek treatment for their distress (Kraus et al., 2016) and believe that they are addicted to pornography (Duffy et al., 2016; Ford et al., 2012; Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015; Grubbs, Wilt et al., 2018; Lewczuk, Glica et al., 2020; Lewczuk, Nowakowska, et al., 2020; Volk et al., 2019; Wery et al., 2019).

Both men and women are consumers of pornography; however, heterosexual men make up the most significant percentage of users (Camilleri et al., 2021; Harper & Hodgins, 2016; Short et al., 2012; Sniewski & Farvid, 2020; Wright, 2013). The term "sexual addiction" has become quite prevalent in both clinical and empirical settings attesting to the reality of this as an area of distress for many individuals seeking treatment. An increase in the availability, affordability and anonymity of Internet pornography may create an environment that promotes problematic Internet pornography use (Cooper et al., 2000; Grubbs, Stauner et al., 2015). There also seems to be an increase of individuals seeking help for what they believe is compulsive or addictive behavior regarding their pornography use (Cooper et al., 2000; Grubbs, Stauner et al., 2015). The debate continues to rage as to whether or not pornography use is addictive or should be considered an addictive behavior disorder. However, the evidence is clear that many individuals suffer considerable distress over their pornography use (Droubay et al., 2020).

Perceived Addiction to Pornography

The concept of self-reported addiction to pornography has been the topic of a multitude of empirical work (Grubbs, Exline et al., 2017; Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2019; Grubbs & Perry, 2019; Grubbs, Stauner et al., 2015; Grubbs, Wilt et al., 2018; Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015; Lewczuk, Nowakowska et al., 2020; Volk et al., 2019). Grubbs et al. (2010) were the first to develop a solid, reliable scale to measure this phenomenon, the Cyber Pornography Use

Inventory (CPUI). The theory behind the scale is that an individual feels that he/she is addicted to pornography, but their actual use does not always support what would appear as an addiction. Also, to date, the DSM-5 (APA, 2013) does not have diagnostic criteria for pornography use as a behavioral addiction. In 2015 this scale was revised (Cyber Pornography Use Scale-9 [CPUI-9]) addressing areas of concern. The outcome was a shorter scale which demonstrated solid psychometric properties and strong association with tendencies of hypersexuality. The findings substantiate how compulsive pornography use presents as a subdomain of hypersexuality (Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015). This study also demonstrated the unique relationship Internet pornography addiction has to psychological distress. Many individuals self-reported they were addicted to pornography even though their actual use did not present as addictive. The defining variable was their morals and values, meaning those who feel that pornography use is morally wrong and yet use it were more likely to see themselves as addicted to pornography (Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015).

There is no shortage of empirical work on perceived addiction to pornography through the path of moral incongruence (Grubbs et al., 2010; Grubbs, Exline et al., 2017; Grubbs, Grant et al., 2018; Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2020; Grubbs, Perry et al., 2019; Grubbs, Stauner et al., 2015; Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015; Volk et al., 2016; Wilt et al., 2016). However, the relationship of this phenomenon to chronic shame and shame encounters, such as characterological shame, behavioral shame, and bodily shame (Andrews et al., 2002), is not as common. Gilliland et al. (2011) did demonstrate shame as a predictor of hypersexual behavior, while guilt was more predictive of motivating the individuals toward shame. The detrimental cycle of shame was prominent, where individuals engage in hypersexual behaviors to deal with the distressing affect of chronic shame (Gilliland et al., 2011). They feel even more shame following their sexual

behaviors (Gilliland et al., 2011). This concept resonates with the premise of the current study. Pornography use in a particular population of individuals may mitigate distressing affect and emotional states while also strengthening their idea that they are addicted to IP.

Shame

Shame has also been a widely researched topic and continues to be a point of interest in the empirical world. Due to the pervasive nature of shame and the tendency of individuals to avoid talking about it, shame is sometimes referred to as a silent epidemic (Kyle, 2013). Scripture is unequivocal regarding the origin of shame, brought about by the disobedience of the first human couple, with the inevitable result being "the eyes of both of them were opened" (*New King James Bible*, 1979/1997, Genesis 3:7). Seeing themselves naked, they felt shame for the first time. Shame has been amongst humanity for a long time and was the first negative emotion experienced by humanity. There are a variety of types of shame, sexual shame (shame over any behavior attached to sex) (Kyle, 2013), state shame (in-the-moment experiences of shame) (Andrews et al., 2002), and trait shame (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Trait shame is a chronic, debilitating form of shame, differing vastly from its companion self-conscious emotion of guilt (Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Tracy & Robins, 2004, 2006).

Significant differences exist between guilt and shame. Guilt presents as a positive attribute/emotion leading to a desire to make reparations for poor behavior (individuals feel bad about an event). Shame is experienced as a defect within an individual (they feel bad deep within their core self) (Bradshaw, 1988; DeYoung, 2015; Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Thompson, 2015) as well as feeling powerless and isolated (Bradshaw, 1988; Volk et al., 2019). Guilt-prone individuals tend to take responsibility for their actions or behaviors, whereas shame-prone individuals will avoid responsibility and typically blame others (Dearing et al., 2005; Volk et al.,

2019). Individuals who experience shame instead of guilt often rate their experience as more painful and difficult to describe. They also may feel that they had less control over shame encounters than guilt encounters, and time seemed to slow down in shame experiences (Tangney, 1993). The experience of shame versus guilt within this theoretical framework leads to very different emotional and physical experiences for individuals. Shame is an excruciatingly painful emotion leading to the belief that one is powerless and worthless (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). It is critical to understand the differences between these two moral and self-conscious emotions because the emotional experience of each is profoundly different (Tangney et al., 2007; Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Tracy & Robins, 2004, 2006).

Experience of Shame

Elison and colleagues (2006) expanded the work of Nathanson's (1992) theory of the Compass of Shame. Elison et al. (2006) investigated the mechanisms individuals employ to defend against the overwhelming, painful affect experienced through shame encounters. The mechanisms are interesting and important when looking at responses to shame. However, they do not fully explain the subjective mental and emotional experience that an individual living with chronic shame endures daily or the actual feelings encountered during characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame episodes. Andrews et al. (2002) developed a scale that measures these three aspects of shame, the Experience of Shame Scale (ESS). Sometimes, people who experience chronic trait shame may not recognize the psychological distress they are experiencing as shame (DeYoung, 2015; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). However, when investigating both trait (characterological) and state (behavioral and bodily) shame, the Experience of Shame Scale (ESS) can provide necessary and clinically relevant information to help both client and therapist identify shame issues (Andrews et al., 2002; Vizin et al., 2016).

The characterological subscale addresses feelings regarding personal habits, what type of person an individual perceives themselves to be (trait), their abilities, and how they act with others (Andrews et al., 2002). Tangney & Dearing (2002) discuss in-depth shame's relationship to one's core self, their personal belief that who they are *is not enough*. The behavioral subscale addresses shame in the area of whether the individual feels they have done something wrong, said stupid things or failed in a competitive setting (Andrews et al., 2002). Gilbert (2002) points out that shame is attached to an individual's social acceptance and social relationships, the need to prove oneself in social and competitive settings. Finally, the bodily subscale references any shame individuals may feel regarding shame towards their body parts (Andrews et al., 2002).

While shame may best be described as coming from a global sense of self concerning negative affect and self-focused judgment, it also focuses on issues of one's appearance, particularly body image (Gilbert, 2002). Being attractive seems to express an inner need to be acceptable to others (Gilbert, 1997). Looking at responses for these scales can give great insight into how an individual processes shame encounters. The majority of empirical studies employing the ESS have investigated areas such as self-injury (Chandler, 2012; Gunnarsson, 2020), body-focused repetitive behaviors (Houazene, 2021), self-esteem, emotion regulation, aggression and well-being (Velotti et al., 2017). Andrews et al. (2002) developed the ESS to see if the scale effectively addressed the predictability of psychological symptoms such as depression. However, studies investigating the relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame and pornography use are sparse. Investigation into the predictive nature of the three subscales of experience of shame to perceived addiction to pornography and the effect that frequency of use may have on that relationship may give insight into better therapeutic practices for helping individuals who are

distressed about their use.

Affect Regulation

Perceived addiction to pornography has been noted to be a subdomain of hypersexual behavior (Grubbs et al., 2010), and problematic pornography use in men is typically accompanied by masturbation. Not everyone who uses pornography finds their use distressful. However, many individuals seek treatment for what they believe is the compulsive use of Internet pornography negatively impacting their lives (Gola et al., 2016; Wordecha et al., 2018). Gilliland et al. (2011) found that chronic shame was predictive of hypersexual behavior in a group of hypersexual patients. A recent investigation on the effects of the COVID-19 lockdowns demonstrated higher lockdown pornography use (Albertella et al., 2021). However, this was only true for young males with a high number of COVID events and greater pre-COVID problematic pornography use. It could be surmised that their use may have been a means of coping with distressing emotional and physical states.

Antons et al. (2019) investigated problematic Internet pornography users' cravings and how that related to or was affected by coping styles. The outcome showed that those with severe symptoms from unregulated pornography use demonstrated more significant craving responses. This result, in turn, made it more likely that they would use even more Internet pornography (Antons et al., 2019). However, healthy coping styles moderated this interaction, demonstrating a positive relationship. Contrary to this, for men who exhibited lower functioning coping methods, an accelerated, positive effect of craving on Internet pornography use was noted (Antons et al., 2019). Antons et al.'s work support prior work on the association of functioning coping styles and lower levels of dysfunctional Internet-use disorder (Chou et al., 2015). Bothe, Toth-Kiraly et al. (2020) noted that two motivations for viewing pornography were emotional

avoidance and stress reduction for both men and women.

Wordecha et al. (2018), in their investigation of treatment-seeking men struggling with binge pornography use and masturbation (PuM), discovered that these men have a difficult time identifying specific pornography use triggers. However, they had no problem identifying patterns of repetitive pornography use (i.e., location of use, whether they were alone or not). They speculated that perhaps these men use pornography to deal with negative mood states, anxiety, or stress (Wordecha et al., 2018). However, when recollecting binge events that lasted for many hours throughout the day, these men identified such triggers as relationship problems. The fear of not meeting others' expectations, stress, rejection, and loneliness were some of the issues users indicated that pornography helps them manage (Wordecha et al., 2018). Adams and Robinson (2001) would concur that pornography users or those who identify as addicted to pornography are likely to use pornography to mitigate distressing affect, perhaps affect from shame encounters. Another term for affect control used in this study is experiential avoidance. The primary purpose of this study is not to identify whether or not these individuals are using pornography to mitigate caustic affect arising from shame conditions. However, as men and women view pornography in experiences of characterological, behavioral and bodily shame, one may speculate that perhaps they are trying to avoid these negative emotional states, contributing to their belief that they are addicted to pornography. Ultimately, do men and women who view pornography in high shame conditions have a perception that they are addicted to their use?

Problem Statement

Chronic shame and the idea that one is addicted to Internet pornography can produce emotional distress leading individuals to seek treatment. How an individual experiences shame (both trait and state) can be investigated and measured through the Experience of Shame Scale

(Andrews et al., 2002). This scale can also give insight into the type of distress these individuals live with daily, whether it addresses trait shame (characterological) or state shame encounters (behavioral and bodily) (Andrews et al., 2002). Everyone will experience shame encounters at some point and time in their life. However, the question as to how this may relate to Internet pornography use and individuals who believe they are addicted to their use is unclear. Studies have noted the medicating effects of pornography use to overcome emotional distress, negative affect, boredom, and loneliness (Bothe, Toth-Kiraly, Bella et al., 2020; Levin et al., 2019). However, there is a lack of research investigating the conditional effect of recent pornography use on the relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography.

Numerous studies on the phenomenon of non-suicidal self-injury (NSSI) have demonstrated affect regulation through this dysfunctional behavior (Bresin, 2014; Chandler, 2012; Schoenleber et al., 2014). Individuals who self-injure suffer chronic negative affect, and some find relief through acts of NSSI to protect themselves or defend themselves against the overwhelming chronic affect that stems from their perception of situational and social encounters of shame (Bresin, 2014; Lewis, 1971; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). While this study will not try to demonstrate affect control per se, it will be investigating whether shame states correlate with perceived addiction to pornography. Of particular interest is whether the frequency of pornography use affects the relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography in both men and women. Does more use of pornography in high shame states strengthen these individuals' idea that they are addicted to pornography?

Purpose Statement

This survey study aims to gain a better understanding of the relationship between characterological, behavioral, and bodily experiences of shame to perceived addiction to pornography in men and women. Furthermore, an inquiry will be made into whether or not an individual's monthly frequency of pornography use moderates the relationship between experiences of shame and perceived addiction to pornography in a population of men and women who have used Internet pornography in the past six months. The first theory guiding this research is Andrews et al.'s (2002) work on in-the-moment occurrences of shame encounters measured by the Experience of Shame Scale (ESS). The second theory being addressed is perceived addiction to pornography as driven by moral disapproval measured by the Cyber Pornography Use Inventory-4 (CPUI-4) (Grubbs & Gola, 2019). This is a shortened version of the Cyber Pornography Use Inventory-9 (Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015), and focuses on the compulsivity aspects of pornography use. The main interest is whether there is any relationship between specific experiences of shame encounters and the concept of men and women who are consuming pornography and feel that they are addicted to their use. Furthermore, what effect does frequency of use in the past month have on that relationship?

Significance of the Study

Empirical studies on shame and shame-proneness abound as well as empirical investigations into perceived addiction to pornography. However, how shame manifests for pornography users and specific experiences of shame are not well documented and what happens if these individuals view IP with greater frequency when encountering high shame conditions? Does this strengthen the relationship between experiences of shame and perceived addiction to pornography? Men and women tend to use pornography for different reasons (Baranowski et al.,

2019; Maas & Dewey, 2018; Marques, 2019; Ross et al., 2012), so what would the outcomes demonstrate when isolating the various correlations according to gender? These findings could be clinically relevant for a better understanding of experiences of shame and how they may or may not relate to the distressed clients' pornography use and belief that they are addicted. This understanding could potentially help guide the clinician in treatment protocols. For example, Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (ACT), Self Compassion Therapy or Mindfulness, or even Rational Emotive Behavioral Therapy (REBT) may prove profitable in helping the client understand why they cannot stop their compulsive pornography use.

Research Questions

Correlation

- RQ1:** Are characterological experiences of shame in men and women who have used pornography in the past month predictive of perceived addiction to pornography?
- RQ2:** Are behavioral experiences of shame in men and women who have used pornography in the past month predictive of perceived addiction to pornography?
- RQ3:** Are bodily experiences of shame in men and women who have used pornography in the past month predictive of perceived addiction to pornography?

Conceptual Model 1

- RQ 4:** Are experiences of characterological shame predictive of perceived addiction to pornography in men who have used pornography within the past month, controlling for shame-proneness and frequency of use?
- RQ 5:** Are experiences of characterological shame predictive of perceived addiction to pornography in women who have used pornography within the past month, controlling for shame-proneness and frequency of use?

- RQ 6:** Are experiences of behavioral shame predictive of perceived addiction to pornography in men who have used pornography within the past month, controlling for shame-proneness and frequency of use?
- RQ 7:** Are experiences of behavioral shame predictive of perceived addiction to pornography in women who have used pornography within the past month, controlling for shame-proneness and frequency of use?
- RQ 8:** Are experiences of bodily shame predictive of perceived addiction to pornography in men who have used pornography within the past month, controlling for shame-proneness and frequency of use?
- RQ 9:** Are experiences of bodily shame predictive of perceived addiction to pornography in women who have used pornography within the past month, controlling for shame-proneness and frequency of use?

Conceptual Model 2

- RQ 10:** Do individuals who use pornography at greater frequency within the past month in high characterological shame states have a more robust perception that they are addicted to pornography?
- RQ 11:** Do individuals who use pornography at greater frequency within the past month in high behavioral shame states have a more robust perception that they are addicted to pornography?
- RQ 12:** Do individuals who use pornography at greater frequency within the past month in high bodily shame states have a more robust perception that they are addicted to pornography?

Conceptual Model 3

RQ 13: Do men who viewed pornography more frequently in the past month during high characterological shame conditions have a more robust perception that they are addicted to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness?

RQ 14: Do women who viewed pornography more frequently in the past month during high characterological shame conditions have a more robust perception that they are addicted to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness?

RQ 15: Do men who viewed pornography more frequently in the past month during high behavioral shame conditions have a more robust perception that they are addicted to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness?

RQ 16: Do women who viewed pornography more frequently in the past month during high behavioral shame conditions have a more robust perception that they are addicted to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness?

RQ 17: Do men who view pornography more frequently in the past month during high bodily shame conditions have a more robust perception that they are addicted to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness?

RQ 18: Do women who have viewed pornography more frequently in the past month during high bodily shame conditions have a more robust perception that they are addicted to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness?

Definitions

Trait Shame

Trait shame derives from a chronic sense of shame emanating from an individual's core self where they believe they are defective at their core, worthless, and failures (Tracy & Robbins,

2006; Tangney & Dearing, 2002).

State Shame

State shame is the experience of shame experienced at the moment in response to some specific shaming event (Turner, 2014). This type of shame is difficult to pin down in empirical studies due to the elusive nature of finding a specific event in which many participants will experience a shaming reaction (Turner, 2014).

Experience of Shame

Individuals may experience shame in very different ways. The Experience of Shame Scale was developed by Andrews et al. (2002) to investigate whether shame encounters were predictive of depressive symptoms. The ESS scale measures characterological (Trait) shame, behavioral and bodily (state) shame. For this current study, the definition of experience of shame relates to these various manifestations of in-the-moment shame experiences (Andrews et al., 2002).

Shame

Shame can be defined as an overwhelming negative emotion that affects an individual's global self (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). The Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3 (TOSCA-3) is a scale used to measure an individual's proneness to chronic shame (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). It was developed using Lewis' (1971) differentiation between guilt and shame, and earlier applications demonstrated that numerous psychopathologies could be associated with shame, such as neuroticism (Morrison, 1989), depression (Porter et al., 2019; Uji et al., 2011), eating disorders (Cavalera et al., 2016), Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Wong & Cook, 1992), narcissism, suicidal ideation (Jaksic et al., 2017), anxiety disorders (Fergus et al., 2018), drug or alcohol dependence (Dearing et al. 2005), obsessive-compulsive related disorders (OCDs)

(Weingarden & Renshaw, 2015), defensive externalization of blame (Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Volk et al., 2019), anger arousal, aggression and long-term consequences due to the anger episode (Scott et al., 2015; Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Velotti et al., 2014). This study will employ Tangney & Dearing's (2002) TOSCA-3, which focuses on the "self versus behavior distinction" (p.119).

Guilt

Guilt is also referred to as a self-conscious emotion. However, as opposed to shame outcomes, a guilt reaction tends to be more reparative and healthier, lacking the overwhelming affect that typically accompanies shame (Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Tracy & Robins, 2006). The difference between shame responses and guilt responses is evaluating one's behavior instead of one's core self (Tangney et al., 2007). When it is behavior that is under scrutiny, the impending emotion is not nearly as caustic or painful because it does not involve the entire self. Instead, contemplation arises regarding the specific behavior and consequences (Tangney et al., 2007). Guilt deals with negative affect due to a specific behavior, whereas shame is felt like a negative emotion directed at the global self of a person (Tracy & Robbins, 2004). When guilt is experienced, remorse is felt for some behavior, and individuals do not experience the all-inclusive condemnation of their core self. Instead, they can cognitively make any constructive changes necessary for reparations of the consequences of the behavior (Tangney & Dearing, 2002).

Pornography

Pornography has been around in some form or another for a very long time. Trying to operationally define what pornography is has been a challenge due to the variety of materials currently available for consumption (Carboneau, 2018). Bloch (1902) made the statement,

“There is no sexual aberration, no perverse act, however frightful, that is not photographically represented today” (p.204), and that was over one hundred years ago. McKee et al. (2020) has operationalized pornography as material that is sexually explicit with the intention of arousal with the inclusion of a cultural definition that suggests that pornography is void of any intrinsic characteristics. Carroll et al. (2008) define pornography as any media that generates images of nudity and sexual behavior to increase sexual arousal. Campbell and Kohut (2017) operationalize pornography as referring to any representations of sexual behavior or nudity pictorial, written, or audio-visual. Kor et al. (2014) define pornography as creating or eliciting sexual feelings, thoughts or behaviors and displays sexual acts such as anal or vaginal intercourse, masturbation, or oral sex, whether by images or descriptions. Kraus et al. (2016) define pornography as “written material or pictorial content of a sexually-explicit nature that is intended to elicit sexual arousal in the reader or viewer” (p.169). For the current study, pornography will be defined as any images, whether through videos or pictures or any other material available through the internet that is sexual in content and depicts sexual behavior and nudity.

Internet Pornography

Cooper (2000) and Struthers (2009) highlight three reasons for the rise in IP use, accessibility, anonymity, and affordability. For the current study, Internet pornography refers to viewing any sexually explicit material containing pictures, videos, chat rooms, and games displaying nudity or images of genitalia on any devices such as a Smartphone, tablet, or computer (Short et al., 2012).

Problematic Pornography Use

Numerous empirical studies have investigated positive outcomes of pornography use,

such as educational benefits for young men (McCormack & Wignall, 2017), sexual satisfaction in relationships (Maas & Dewey, 2018; Rodrigues, 2021), recreational/entertainment use (Boies, 2002), sexual quality, specifically for females (Poulsen et al., 2013), acceptance of pornography for both men and women (Carroll et al., 2008), and overall harmlessness of pornography use except for an “at-risk” population (Binnie & Reavey, 2020). However, there continues to be an increase in the number of those seeking treatment for the distress and psychological problems stemming from their pornography use (Kor et al., 2014). Reid et al. (2011) have suggested that adverse outcomes within a marital relationship due to the husband's hypersexual behavior are strongly supported by other empirical work. Another negative outcome includes poor relationship satisfaction with partners who are not accepting of pornography use (Maas & Dewey, 2018).

Depression (Maddock et al., 2019; Volk et al., 2019), anxiety, stress, and other numerous problems associated with pornography use, such as the lack of coping mechanisms for negative emotions, difficulties with control, functional problems, and excessive use (Borgogna, Duncan et al., 2018) also present as adverse outcomes. Daspe et al. (2017) found that for those individuals who initially had lower satisfaction in their relationships, there was a strong correlation between the frequency of use and feeling that their pornography viewing was out of control. For this study, problematic pornography use will be defined as a lack of control over viewing IP. Furthermore, IP use results in negative consequences such as emotional distress and distress over thought processes regarding their use which reduces the individual's quality of life or day-to-day functioning (Crosby & Twohig, 2016) as well as self-perceived addiction to IP (Grubbs, Exline et al., 2015; Volk et al., 2019).

Compulsive Use of Pornography

Compulsion, as defined by the American Psychiatric Association (2013), is repetitive behavior in which an individual has the drive to perform the goal of preventing or minimizing anxiety or distress. These behaviors are not for gratification or pleasure (Binnie & Reavey, 2020). Included in the realm of compulsive sexual behavior are sexual experiences such as masturbation, multiple sex partners, cybersex, paying for sex, and pornography use (Mayo Clinic, 1998-2021).

Hypersexuality

Hypersexuality is sometimes referred to as compulsive sexual behavior. It involves an intense preoccupation with sexual urges, behaviors, or fantasies that individuals cannot control. It also causes emotional distress and adverse effects to job, health, relationships, or other aspects of the individual's life (Mayo Clinic, 1998-2021). Other terminology for hypersexuality is "hyperphilia, hypersexual disorder, paraphilia-related disorder, compulsive sexual behavior, sexual addiction, impulsive-compulsive sexual behavior and out-of-control sexual behavior" (as cited in Kaplan & Krueger, 2010, p.181).

Perceived Addiction to Pornography

There is much debate as to whether problematic pornography use can develop into an addiction (Duffy et al., 2019; Ford et al., 2012; Satel & Lilienfeld, 2014; Short et al., 2016; Wery et al., 2019; Wiens & Walker, 2015; Williams et al., 2020). Many clinicians and researchers use the term "pornography addiction" regardless of the reality that the DSM-5 does not have any diagnostic criteria for pornography addiction (APA, 2013). However, the problems associated with Internet pornography use continue to present challenges within the clinical and therapeutic communities as individuals seek treatment for what they believe is pornography addiction.

Empirical work such as Grubbs et al. (2010) and Grubbs, Volk et al. (2015) have identified this tendency for individual's belief that they are addicted to pornography, even when how much they view does not resonate with addictive behavior. Due to the morally charged nature of pornography, and the research associated with moral disapproval, instead of labeling one's problematic pornography use as an addiction, the term perceived addiction seems more relevant.

Moral Incongruence

Moral incongruence can be defined as an individual's inconsistency in what they believe, their morals or values, and how they behave despite those beliefs (Grubbs, Perry et al., 2019).

Affect Regulation

Affect regulation is a clinical term that involves numerous descriptions of an individual's attempt to alleviate internal distress, such as to stop feelings that are negative, reducing tension, anxiety, and fear, and managing stress, as well as actions carried out to reduce negative feelings and produce positive feelings (Klonsky, 2007).

Experiential Avoidance

Experiential avoidance is attempts or desires to suppress negative and unwanted internal experiences, for example, bodily sensations, thoughts, memories, and emotions (Hayes et al., 1996; Tull, 2021).

Alexithymia

Alexithymia refers to a construct in which individuals have a difficult time with the identification of and description of their feelings (affective) as well as thinking patterns (cognitive) that are more external and concrete (Franzoni et al., 2013).

Summary

In summary, living with chronic shame or shame-proneness can take its toll in numerous

psychological ways, reducing the quality of life for those consumed with it. Thompson (2015) quite aptly describes what the experience of shame is like for those who recognize its presence in their lives by referring to it as torment. Thompson (2015) goes on to describe it as something that may make someone "feel wrangled to the ground by it" with the desire to "excise it from" themselves were it possible (p.10). However, in many instances, distressed individuals, perhaps those who struggle with alexithymia (Franzoni et al., 2013), may not be able to identify their feelings as shame. As a result, they find themselves in a "pit," trapped by other problematic behaviors such as compulsive pornography use without ever understanding the underlying painful construct of shame in their lives. It is also true that a population of individuals who view their pornography use as dysfunctional is continuing to seek treatment for their belief that they are addicted to IP.

So, while there has been much empirical investigation into shame and pornography use, further investigation is warranted. Not all pornography use is problematic, however, some individuals appear to be more at risk for developing emotional distress from their use, particularly individuals who morally disapprove of pornography but continue to use it. In empirical work discussing problematic pornography use, the terms IP addiction (Adams & Robinson, 2001; Garcia & Thibaut, 2010; Harper & Hodgins, 2016; Wery et al., 2018), self-perceived problematic pornography use (Sniewski & Farvid, 2019), and perceived addiction (Grubbs, Grant et al., 2018; Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2019) have been used to describe individual's IP use. This current study will refer to "perceived addiction to pornography," not "pornography addiction." Apart from the ICD-11 addition of Compulsive Sexual Behavioral Disorder, there are no other official diagnostic criteria for Internet pornography addiction.

Many individuals who struggle with moral incongruence concerning acceptance and use

of pornography see themselves addicted to pornography and unable to stop. Compounding the negative affect these individuals experience from their use, many struggle with chronic shame, contributing to emotional distress and overwhelming affect. Is there a significant relationship between specific experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography? In addition, does using pornography in high shame conditions strengthen the relationship between experiences of shame and perceived addiction to pornography? Finally, are there significant differences when investigating the above relationships isolating gender? Compelling questions present themselves that, when answered, could potentially have therapeutic benefits when treating both men and women who have sought help because of their belief that their IPU is out of control and they are addicted. Such questions as, is there a relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography, and does one's amount of viewing in the past month affect that relationship?

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

The problematic use of IP has demonstrated correlations with numerous psychological problems. Psychological problems include reduced life and relationship satisfaction, anxiety, depression, and an inability to stop using IP despite negative consequences (Harper & Hodgins, 2016). Both men and women use pornography for a variety of different reasons. Reasons such as enhanced intimate relationships between couples (Campbell & Kohut, 2017; Kohut et al., 2017; Rodrigues et al., 2021), leisure (Williams et al., 2020), overcoming boredom or loneliness (Butler et al., 2018), curiosity and sexual education (McCormack & Wignall, 2017), or any number of other motivations. For most individuals, viewing Internet pornography does not cause emotional distress or create problems within their relationships. However, what may have started as recreational use becomes problematic, expressed by the inability to stop using IP, marital or relationship problems, erectile dysfunctions, and ultimately the desire to seek treatment for what they perceive as an addiction to Internet pornography use (Duffy, 2016; Kraus et al., 2016; Levi et al., 2020; Maas & Dewey, 2018; Muusses et al., 2015; Park et al., 2016; Perry & Schleifer, 2018; Rodrigues et al., 2020; Sniewski & Farvid et al., 2018).

Pornography use, specifically Internet pornography, continues to increase, particularly in the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic and the resulting quarantine and isolation. In addition, the easy access, anonymity, and affordability (Cooper et al., 2000), sometimes costing nothing, may promote the use. While not all people experience distress over their use, many individuals do. Much of the research directed towards Internet pornography use (IPU) deals with those who self-report that they are addicted to pornography, perceived addiction to IP. The relationship between people's perception of pornography use, their values and or morals regarding the use of

pornography, and the fact that those who disapprove still engage in IPU demonstrates moral incongruence (Grubbs et al., 2010; Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2019; Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2020; Grubbs, Perry et al., 2019; Lewczuk, Nowakowska et al., 2020).

While most Internet pornography users are men (Wright, 2013), women also use IP, although the reasons they use it appear different from men (Bridges & Morokoff, 2011). Shame is also an area of research that has been investigated for decades. While the relationship between shame and IPU has been examined from various perspectives, a research gap does exist; specifically, the investigation of the relationship of characterological, behavioral, and bodily experiences of shame to perceived addiction to pornography. Another research gap is how shame encounters manifest and influence men and women's perception that they are addicted to pornography, looking at each specific gender and the differences that may arise. Investigating further, what effect does high pornography viewing during high episodes of shame have on the relationship to perceived addiction to pornography? When looking at experiences of the three different shame encounters (characterological, behavioral, and bodily) within the framework of perceived addiction to pornography, what are the differences or similarities between men and women and the effect that their actual frequency of pornography viewing has on that relationship?

Theoretical Framework

Theoretically, trying to understand how affect and cognition may be relevant to a better understanding of psychopathology, specifically in the realm of shame, Andrews and colleagues (2002) set out to develop a new shame scale. The original measurement scale was based on interview questions where clients would respond to direct questions addressing bodily shame (Andrews et al., 1995). This scale was then expanded to include specific questions about

personal characteristics and behaviors (Andrews & Hunter, 1997). These questionnaire-type scales had demonstrated strong correlations between shame and depressive symptoms in earlier studies (Andrews & Brown, 1993). However, no study demonstrated shame as a predictor of depressive symptoms, which led to the new Experience of Shame Scale (ESS), using the foundational principles of Andrews and Hunter's (1997) shame interview. Since then, this scale has been used to understand how shame experiences are associated with psychological functioning, whether adaptive or maladaptive (Velotti et al., 2017). While shame will be discussed and reviewed throughout this study, the experiences of shame will be one of the overarching theoretical concepts employed.

Research has demonstrated both the positive and negative outcomes of pornography use. While the debate continues and the use of Internet pornography increases, individuals who believe they are addicted to pornography continue to express feelings of distress over their use. These individuals present in clinical settings struggling with depression, anxiety, and other psychological issues (Grubbs, 2020; Grubbs, Kraus, et al., 2020; Grubbs, Perry et al., 2019). The concept of self-perceived addiction to pornography is increasing, however, pornography addiction is not recognized as a diagnosable disorder, and some researchers deny its existence (Duffy et al., 2016). Research has demonstrated that many Internet pornography users become compulsive in their use (Delmonico & Miller, 2003). However, before Grubbs et al.'s (2010) exploration into Internet pornography addiction, there was no scale available to measure IP addiction or an individual's belief that they were addicted.

Another issue to add to the debate is, to date, the DSM-5 (APA, 2013) does not have an official diagnosis for Internet pornography addiction. Although, prior to the 2013 DSM-5 revision, Internet addiction was being considered. The reasoning was due to the solid

neuroscientific empirical support demonstrating similarities between substance and behavioral addictions in neural processing (Grubbs et al., 2010). Recently, the World Health Organization (WHO) decided on the inclusion of compulsive sexual behavior disorder in the 11th edition of the *International Classification of Diseases* (ICD-11) (Grubbs et al., 2020), but does not identify the behavior as an addiction. Understanding Internet pornography addiction is a bit complicated because it deals with two different constructs, Internet addiction and sexual addiction (Grubbs et al., 2010).

The theoretical framework for this study will not address the medical view of addiction. However, it will approach problematic pornography use from self-reported “addiction” to pornography, specifically perceived addiction to pornography. This concept stems from Grubbs et al.’s (2010) work on the development of the Cyber Pornography Use Inventory (CPUI) as the scale used to measure this variable. Connected strongly with this concept is an individual’s moral beliefs, and perceived addiction has been investigated through the lens of moral incongruence (Grubbs, Exline et al., 2015). There exists a population of pornography users whose core belief is that the use of pornography is wrong. However, they are engaged in what they believe is compulsive viewing of IP (Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2018; Grubbs & Perry, 2019; Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015; Grubbs, Wilt et al., 2017).

Personal acceptance or disapproval of pornography use (the individual’s morals and values over their use) significantly impacts how individuals perceive their IP viewing habits (Carroll et al., 2008; Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2020). Those who approve of viewing pornography typically do not demonstrate psychopathology concerning their use. In contrast, those who demonstrate moral incongruence struggle with emotional distress associated with their use (Grubbs et al., 2010; Grubbs, Exline et al., 2015; Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2020; Grubbs, Perry et al.,

2019; Perry, 2018). This study will be addressing problematic pornography use (PPU) in the theoretical framework of perceived addiction. Perceived addiction will be viewed as a factor of moral incongruence in the lives of men and women who are distressed by their use of Internet pornography.

Furthermore, the theory of shame and guilt as moral, self-conscious emotions will serve as a covariate in this study (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Shame has been investigated in the empirical realm for decades, with many theories posited to understand these emotions better. Lewis (1971), in her groundbreaking work *Shame and Guilt in Neurosis*, brought much clarity as to the differences between these two emotions. Clinicians and researchers before this work used the terms guilt and shame interchangeably. Tangney and Dearing (2002) have expanded on Lewis' work by developing her original premise regarding the critical difference between these moral emotions. This difference is how the experience of each impacts the core self of the individual. Tangney and Dearing (2002) developed a situational scale to measure these constructs called the Test of Self-Conscious Affect (TOSCA).

Related Literature

Pornography

Pornography Use Statistics

In 1997 a reported 900 internet pornography sites could be found on the web. This count made a massive leap in one mere year to 20,000-30,000 in 1998 (Stack et al., 2004) and has currently become a multi-million-dollar business (D'Orlando, 2011) as well as the most popular sites on the Internet (Kalman, 2008). In 2006 statistics on Internet pornography use revealed that in the United States, 40 million adults regularly access pornography websites (Ropelato, 2006). Of these adults, 10% admitted to Internet sexual addiction, and 20% of men confessed they

viewed Internet pornography while at work (Ropelato, 2006). Further, Ropelato (2006) noted there were 4.2 million websites that contained pornography content (12% of all available websites). There are no less than 100,000 websites that specifically offer pornographic content, generating \$4.9 billion in IP sales. Worldwide there were 72 million monthly visits to these sites, with one out of seven young people reporting solicitation of sex on the Internet (Ropelato, 2006). While both men and women use pornography, research has demonstrated that more men use it than women (Stark et al., 2017; Ross et al., 2012; Wright, 2013). Furthermore, women's reasons for viewing pornography vary from men's use (Harper & Hodgins, 2016; Laier et al., 2014; Sniewski & Farvid, 2020; Thompson, 2015). However, 13% of women also viewed pornography at work, and 17% felt they were addicted to their viewing habits, with one in three visitors to pornographic websites being women (Ropelato, 2006).

In 2009 when looking at the Internet as a whole, 12% of those sites were pornographic, equaling about 24.6 million websites (Twohig et al., 2009), equaling around 156 billion gigabytes (Harper & Hodgins, 2016). In 2016 pornography websites were rated in the top 50 of the most visited websites worldwide (Bothe et al., 2018). In 2016 it was reported that approximately 5 billion hours of pornography viewing throughout the world was recorded through Pornhub.com, with 44,000 people visiting the site every minute (Bothe et al., 2019). A recent study in the United States found that 46% of men and 16% of women had used pornography intentionally within the past week (Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2019). The survey also noted that using pornography monthly or with greater frequency is common among men and women (Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2019). When addressing the issue of self-perceived pornography addiction, 3% of men agreed strongly that they felt they were addicted, 11% of men agreed slightly, with only 3% of women agreeing slightly and 1% strongly (Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2019).

Moving forward to 2021, pornography use, specifically IPU, continues to be on the rise. The fallout from COVID-19 virus has caused individuals to be isolated and removed from their everyday life patterns. Trauma on top of trauma, they have been quarantined, lost jobs, social connections, community and relationships, and family members and loved ones have died. One of the most viewed sites for IP use, Pornhub has noted a significant rise in those accessing their sites in numerous countries, with an increase of use over 11% dating from late February to March 17, 2020 (Mestre-Bach et al., 2020). Even though Pornhub made access to their site at no cost in many countries, other countries did not have free access. However, their IP use rates have also increased by 4-24% (Mestre-Bach et al., 2020); this meant there was an average of 115 million visits daily and 42 billion overall visits in 2019 (Mestre-Bach et al., 2020). To sum up, access to these sites continues to rise, and many individuals continue to seek treatment for the distress they are experiencing because of their pornography use (Allen et al., 2017; Bothe et al., 2018; Kraus et al., 2016; Sniewski & Farvid, 2020).

Problematic Pornography Use

Pornography use is not new to humanity, however, now more than ever it is easily accessed, readily available (Egan & Parmar, 2013; Kalman, 2008) and potentially presents a very convenient coping mechanism for the immense psychological impact from the fallout of the COVID-19 virus (Kato, 2020; Sharma, 2020). With the easy accessibility and current growing trends towards Internet use, the rise of Internet pornography use has been noted for years within the research community and could be considered a growing commercial enterprise (Harper & Hodgins, 2016; Kalman, 2008). IP is inexpensive, highly accessible, and the user remains anonymous for the most part. Pornography users also have ample access to a multitude of pornography websites, and this use has been noted to cause psychological distress for a large

portion of the population who view pornography (Cooper et al., 2000; Kalman, 2008). IPU has contributed markedly to a rise in apparent compulsive use and potential addictive behavior, including the potential for escalating problematic pornography use (Allen et al., 2017; Chisholm & Gall, 2015; D'Orlando, 2011). The speed of receiving the product and the reduction in prices for Internet connections could be contributing factors (D'Orlando, 2011). It is interesting to note that most Internet pornography downloads happen between 9:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m., indicating the consideration of it being a corporate problem (Carnes, 2001).

While pornography use is not detrimental for the majority who view it (Binnie & Reavey, 2020; Gola et al., 2016), there is a population, particularly for men (Weinstein et al., 2015), who are more at risk for psychological distress from their use (Twohig et al., 2009). One study noted that men reported positive and negative effects from their pornography viewing (Miller et al., 2019). Gola et al. (2016) found that pornography can elicit negative psychological symptoms. If the psychological symptoms are severe enough, the individual may seek treatment. Empirical work has demonstrated that individuals with comorbidities are at the highest risk for self-perceived problematic pornography use (as cited in Sniewski et al., 2018). Comorbidities may include anxiety disorders, depression, impulsivity, compulsivity, higher levels of neuroticism and narcissism, difficulty in self-regulation (Sniewski et al., 2018) and eating disorders (Carnes, 2001; Griffiths et al., 2018).

Sniewski & Farvid (2019) noted that some men who believed their pornography use was out of control began to have unrealistic expectations for sex with real-life partners. The men also admitted that this diminished their view of those women and resulted in lower sexual functioning. Gola et al. (2016) found that the use of pornography (and not necessarily the frequency of use) can produce emotional distress and adverse symptomatology, which in turn

may compel some users to seek treatment. Gilliland et al. (2011) found that with regards to individuals seeking treatment for problematic pornography use, shame was closely associated with the continuation of hypersexual behaviors. In this same study, the researchers found that guilt was more associated with a desire to reduce hypersexual behavior, leading to positive changes in their behavior (Gilliland et al., 2011).

The concept of pornography as an addiction continues to be debated among the clinical community, but this does not detract from the profound psychological distress increased access and use has had on a multitude of individuals (Adams & Robinson, 2001; Grubbs et al., 2010; Grubbs, Stauner et al., 2015; Volk et al., 2019). This distress may include loneliness (Butler et al., 2018), depression (Maddock et al., 2019), neuroticism (Egan & Parmar, 2013), problems in relationships (Daneback et al., 2009), and disruption in schoolwork or job (Ford et al., 2012). Individuals struggling with hypersexual behaviors (IPU is a subdomain of hypersexual behavior [Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015]) have described the internal affect as dysphoria and depression when trying to abstain from what they feel are deviant sexual behaviors. This emotional turmoil, in turn, triggers compulsive use of pornography to defend against their overloaded affect (Adams & Robinson, 2001; Garcia & Thibaut, 2010; Reid et al., 2009). For some pornography users, their experience creates strong adverse effects such as psychological and spiritual troubles, negative consequences in relationships, and problems with work or school (Twohig et al., 2009). Twohig et al. (2009) also noted that the effects of viewing that were deemed harmful had to do with the individual's own attempt at controlling sexual urges and thoughts. Increased attempts to control these thoughts and urges were strongly correlated with problematic pornography use (Twohig et al., 2009).

Allen et al. (2017) note that problematic pornography use can be facilitated by the easy

access and prevalence of internet pornography. They define Internet pornography as erotic thoughts, feelings, and behaviors produced due to any sexually explicit material (Allen et al., 2017). There remain competing opinions regarding the detrimental use of IP. However, a sizeable amount of research that has been drawn from clinical experience has found that many individuals end up seeking help for the distress and co-occurring functional impairment that they experience due to their use (Allen et al., 2017). In many cases, the outcome of IP use is a lack of control over their use, negative thought processes and how they feel about their use. This lack of control may ultimately culminate in ensuing problems with functioning in life and life satisfaction (Crosby & Twohig, 2016). Furthermore, IP use could be devastating for individuals who morally disapprove of pornography and yet go against their values and continue viewing pornography. Cooper, Putnam et al. (2000), when looking at Internet pornography users, noted that 17% of their sample qualified for problematic sexual compulsivity criteria. Dodge et al. (2004) noted that sexual compulsivity scores tend to be higher for heterosexual young adult college-age men who are more active with masturbation than relational sex.

While some empirical studies have demonstrated that there can be positive applications within relationships of pornography use (Binnie & Reavey, 2020; Kohut et al., 2017), there is much controversy as to the supposed positive effects of pornography use (Campbell & Kohut, 2017). Other research has demonstrated that pornography use has many detrimental emotional and psychosocial effects, particularly if individuals believe they are addicted to pornography (Allen et al., 2017; Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015; Harper & Hodgins, 2016). It has also been noted that there is an association between pornography use and acts of sexual aggression (Wright et al., 2016). However, Ferguson and Hartley's (2009) findings do not support Wright's (2016) findings. It is difficult to determine the individual's distress related to using IP daily or whether

it is merely their idea and reaction to the belief that they are addicted (Harper & Hodgins, 2016). Many individuals seek treatment due to their pornography use habits (Gola et al., 2016). They believe they have lost control over their pornography use and express their use in terms of compulsion with an inability to stop despite negative consequences in their lives (Kraus et al., 2015). Regarding treatment-seeking individuals struggling with hypersexual behaviors and compulsivity in their pornography use, two of the most commonly reported behaviors were pornography use in excess (81%) and compulsive masturbation (78%) (Reid et al., 2012).

While not recognized as an addictive disorder (APA, 2013), there is much debate concerning the validity of IP addiction (Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2019; Hajela & Love, 2017). Some believe that pornography use may best be described as a leisure activity in which an individual's perception of their use, driven by social morals, ideology or politics, may produce adverse outcomes (Williams et al., 2020). Much of the current research has been looking at problematic IP use as a self-perceived addiction, particularly those with strong religious beliefs or moral standards (Grubbs, Exline et al., 2015; Grubbs, Grant et al., 2018). Strong moral internal values seem to be predictive of perceived addiction to pornography, but the actual frequency of use often does not resonate with addictive behavior (Grubbs et al., 2010; Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015).

Compulsive Use of Pornography

One aspect of compulsive use of Internet pornography viewing is the result of masturbation which is defined "as the deliberate self-stimulation which affects sexual arousal almost always culminating in orgasm" and "a practice that delivers what it promises" (Kinsey et al., 1948, p.133). In 1997 Wines found that of 53 individuals surveyed for self-identification as sex addicts, 75% felt they had a problem with compulsive masturbation. Reid et al. (2009) reported similar findings when investigating symptom patterns in men seeking treatment for

hypersexual behaviors. Of the 59 participants, 56% reported as one of their sexual behavioral problems, compulsive masturbation (Reid et al., 2009).

In light of the ICD-11's recent inclusion of a compulsive sexual disorder, Grubbs, Kraus et al. (2020) investigated the correlation of moral incongruence and the individual's experience and expression of their compulsive sexual behaviors. They found that the individual's moral belief system regarding pornography use was predictive of their self-reported compulsive sexual behavior (Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2020). While this was not explicitly addressing Internet pornography use, sexual compulsivity and IPU have been strongly represented in empirical work (Bothe, Toth-Kiraly, Fisher et al., 2019; Grubbs et al., 2010; Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015; Potenza et al., 2019). So, if moral incongruence is predictive of compulsive sexual behaviors, what would be the relationship of shame experiences to perceived addiction to pornography? It could be assumed that shame is a viable construct in individuals who morally disapprove of their use and yet continue to use with the belief that they cannot stop. Additionally, what happens when these individuals use pornography in high shame conditions and is there any effect when investigating how often pornography was viewed in the past month in high shame conditions? This study will focus on what relationship experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame may have with perceived addiction to pornography. It will also investigate whether the frequency of use in the past month has affected those relationships.

Twohig et al. (2009), when investigating problematic Internet pornography use, likened the characteristics of the behavior to impulse control disorders, substance abuse disorders, and obsessive-compulsive disorders. They surmise that particular experiences or events may trigger the viewing of pornography. Those experiences are accompanied by persistent and intrusive thoughts and solid urges or impulses to view pornography and may be used to regulate unwanted

emotional states (Twohig et al., 2009). Problematic pornography use has been described by those seeking treatment as out of control and compulsive. They also admit to difficulty abstaining from viewing it despite the negative consequences (Twohig et al., 2009). This difficulty with self-control makes a clear distinction with those who feel their use is more recreational and may even have a positive effect on their lives (Cooper, Delmonico et al., 2000; Cooper, Putnam et al., 2000).

Empirical work has demonstrated that pornography use does affect those who view it in different ways; some negatively, some positively, and some neutral. Three specific groups of user's online sexual activity have been determined by Cooper, Delmonico et al. (2004) and Cooper, Galbreath et al. (2004): 1) Recreational users who curiously or recreationally view online material of a sexual nature and are not looked at as having any adverse outcomes due to their activity; 2) Users at risk who if the Internet had never been available to them would never have developed problematic use of online sexual material, and; 3) Users considered sexually compulsive due to their tendency towards sexual expression which is more pathological and the Internet is just one place to satisfy their sexual activities. Carroll et al. (2008) postulate that due to early exposure and a predilection of some individuals towards adverse outcomes concerning online sexual viewing, compulsive use may become an issue.

Men vs. Women in Pornography Use

While both men and women consume internet pornography, men by far are the most prolific with their viewing (Binnie & Reavey, 2020; Short et al., 2012). The motivation for use also varies among men and women. Laier et al. (2014) investigated heterosexual women's use of IPU within the gratification hypothesis of cybersex addiction. They noted that compared with women who do not use Internet pornography, users rate more arousal from pornographic pictures

pulled up from the Internet and higher levels of craving (Laier et al., 2014). Some predictive findings pointing to addiction to IPU in women are “the sexual arousal rating of pictures, craving, and sensitivity to sexual excitation, problematic sexual behavior, and severity of psychological symptoms” (Laier et al., 2014, p.509). The findings stress the part that anticipation and reception of sexual gratification play. The results also demonstrated what role these constructs have in cybersex addiction for both men and women (Brand et al., 2011). However, it is not always pleasure that men and women are seeking by viewing pornography. Stringer (2015), when addressing documented data, states, "Men were nearly 300 times more likely to pursue pornography for each unit of shame they felt about their behavior, and women were 546 times more likely” (p.144). Hald (2006), in a study of gender differences amongst pornography consumers, found that women have greater use and enjoyment of literary sexually explicit material (SEM), as compared to men who enjoy the use of more visual SEM (Shaughnesy et al., 2011).

Poulsen et al. (2013) investigated sexual quality in male and female pornography users. They found that when the men used pornography, there was a negative correlation for both the men and the women regarding their sexual relationship. However, when the women used pornography, there was a positive correlation between their pornography use and sexual quality (Poulsen et al., 2013). Carroll et al. (2008) researched a population of male and female university students' acceptance of pornography viewing. Their results showed that young men (67%) were more accepting of viewing pornography when compared to women (49%). Men by far (87%) reported using pornography compared to 31% of the young women (Carroll et al., 2008). For some women, pornography viewing is a means to enhance their current relationship regarding lovemaking, hoping for improved quality of sex for both partners (Bridges &

Morokoff, 2011). Bothe, Toth-Kiraly, Griffith (2021) found that problematic pornography use was moderately associated with sexual functioning problems in men and women.

It has been noted that the high frequency of viewing and using a variety of types of sexually explicit material is more common among men than women (Morgan, 2011). Men experiencing their use as problematic have identified numerous reasons for that perception, such as how much they view pornography, their moral or ethical beliefs, social/relational reasons and the amount of time they spend pursuing consumption of pornographic material and neglecting other responsibilities (Sniewski & Farvid, 2019; Twohig & Crosby, 2010). Goldsmith et al. (2017) found a correlation between viewing pornography and performance-based cognitive distractions in women, but not men. They surmised that even though women view pornography much less than men, they still experience sexual concerns over their use.

Research has also looked into the potential of depression, anxiety, neuroticism, and stress being predictive of problematic pornography use (Borgogna, Duncan et al., 2018). Borgogna, Duncan et al. (2018) also noted that for men and women who reported that they used pornography to relieve or escape negative emotions, depression was also a significant predictor of problematic pornography use. When looking at men's and women's acceptance of pornography use, Carroll et al. (2008) noted that women were more accepting of pornography but did not view pornography very often. They also found that the acceptance of pornography by these women was a strong correlate to alcohol use, permissive sexuality, binge drinking, and smoking cigarettes, more so than their actual pornography use (Carroll et al., 2008).

For the men, pornography acceptance correlated more to values formed within their family context and sexual attitudes than the actual pornography use (Carroll et al., 2008). These value formations on pornography acceptance demonstrate how values and behavior are

intertwined with pornography use (Carroll et al., 2008). Grubbs, Kraus et al. (2020), when investigating compulsive sexual behavior disorder (CSBD), found in a large population, dispersed over three studies, that an individual's moral beliefs were influential in their perception of their sexual behaviors. They also noted that this could confound an accurate diagnosis of whether or not their sexual habits are compulsive (Carroll et al., 2008). Hence, those who morally disapproved of their use felt they were compulsive and addictive in their sexual behaviors.

Regarding individuals' motivations for use in a large-scale online survey with both men and women, Bothe, Toth-Kiraly, Bella, et al. (2020) note that sexual pleasure was the top reported reason people used pornography. This finding resonated with previous studies such as Wery and Billieux (2016). Another highly reported reason was sexual curiosity (Bothe, Bella et al., 2020) which demonstrated no significant correlation to inappropriate online sexual activity or hypersexuality (Wery & Billieux, 2016). A third motivation self-reported was a distraction from boredom and a means to reduce stress and avoid negative emotional states. Although the initial two motivations were more reported, Bothe, Toth-Kiraly, Bella et al. (2020) pointed out that these motivations could point to pornography use as an avoidance-oriented coping strategy. Other motivations were living out sexual fantasies due to disappointing real-life sexual interactions or lack of sexual pleasure and self-exploration (Bothe, Toth-Kiraly, Bella et al., 2020). When looking into the most extreme use of cybersex, Cooper, Delmonico et al. (2000) found that 40% of these users are women. Many of these women tend to fantasize about romantic engagement with men they meet through internet sources, ignoring normal inhibitions because of the anonymity of cybersex formats (Carnes, 2001). Carnes (2001) points out that many individuals addicted to cybersex activities share the commonality of perceptions of reality

that are distorted, which many times leads to disastrous consequences.

Perceived Addiction to Pornography

Many empirical studies have addressed the rise in problematic pornography use and the detrimental effects that are reaped, especially by those who believe they are addicted to pornography (Grubbs et al., 2015; Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2019; Reay et al., 2013; Sniewski & Farvid, 2020). One of the most significant concerns is the rise in individuals seeking treatment due to the perception that they are addicted to pornography (Gola et al., 2017; Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2019; Wery et al., 2019). The battle rages in the psychological and clinical community regarding the debate as to whether the medical/disease model of addiction is correct, with those who promote a neuroscience perspective (Hilton, 2013; Love et al., 2015). Other research has attempted to discredit the medical model (Satel & Lilienfeld, 2014). The reasoning for this idea is that if an individual believes they have a “disease” that is causing their problematic behavior, they feel more out of control and tend to develop learned helplessness (Satel & Lilienfeld, 2014).

Griffiths (2005) attempted to address this debate of whether or not pornography is addictive. In this attempt, he developed a theoretical concept that focuses on six components of addictive behavior: salience, mood modification, tolerance, withdrawal, conflict, and relapse (Griffiths, 2005). He believes that for a behavior to be referred to as an "addiction," it must consist of all the above components (Griffiths, 2005). He also contends that since all addictions have a place in biopsychosocial processes, excessive behaviors such as problematic pornography use could qualify as an addiction (Griffiths, 2005). Terms such as “sexual addiction,” “pornography addiction,” “Internet pornography addiction,” and “hypersexuality” abound in current research, and the question remains whether or not they should be classified as a behavioral addiction (Kor et al., 2013; Love et al., 2015; Wiens & Walker, 2015). An

association of the terms has been made with substance use disorders concerning craving, out-of-control feelings, increased tolerance and relapses (Fisher et al., 2019). Neuroscientific empirical studies looking into Internet pornography use have supported the idea that there are similarities in neural processes undergirding substance addiction and compulsive Internet pornography use (Love et al., 2015; Wiens & Walker, 2015). Even though there has been easier access to IP, an increase in its use, and more individuals seeking treatment for what they believe is pornography addiction, there are no diagnostic criteria for pornography use as a psychological disorder (Duffy et al., 2016).

This author believes that discussing problematic pornography use in terms of a behavioral addiction carries detrimental therapeutic implications. Hall (2011) believes that the label of "addiction" can be stigmatizing and possibly engender a sense of helplessness for individuals who may have been told they were addicted to pornography. The individual feels they are no longer responsible for their behavior and have no control (Fisher et al., 2019). To date, there has been no solid empirical evidence that Internet pornography use qualifies as a behavioral addictive disorder (APA, 2013; Fong et al., 2012; Garcia & Thibaut, 2010; Gola et al., 2017; Potenza, 2006; Reay et al., 2013). This study will focus on the participants' self-reported beliefs that they are addicted to pornography (perceived addiction). Of particular interest are the empirical findings that while these people believe they are addicted to pornography, in many instances their actual use does not support this (Grubbs, Stauner et al., 2015; Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015).

Grubbs, Stauner et al. (2015) found that self-reported or perceived addiction to Internet pornography was predictive of psychological distress, even more than just pornography use alone. This finding was supported longitudinally, demonstrating the relationship does not

diminish over time, concluding that it is not necessarily the actual pornography use itself (Grubbs, Stauner et al., 2015). However, the idea that they were addicted to Internet pornography is what was causing the psychological distress in their life (Grubbs, Stauner et al., 2015). Gola et al. (2016) noted that the quantity of pornography consumed was much less predictive of treatment-seeking than the negative symptoms these individuals were experiencing. The frequency of use may not be the most vital area to address for many seeking help. Much research on perceived addiction supports this idea (Grubbs et al., 2010; Grubbs, Perry et al., 2020; Grubbs, Stauner et al., 2015; Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015). The concept of self-perceived addiction has been widely investigated in pornography use, particularly when investigating moral disapproval of pornography (Borgogna, Duncan et al., 2018; Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2019, 2020). This cache of empirical evidence has demonstrated moral disapproval as predictive of self-reported addiction to pornography.

Grubbs, Kraus et al. (2019) had similar findings with other empirical studies on perceived addiction through self-reported measures. The concept is complex and has to do with both actual behavior and the individual's perspective and judgments regarding their behavior, particularly whether or not they approve of or accept the viewing of pornography (Grubbs, Exline et al., 2017; Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2019; Grubbs, Perry et al., 2019; Grubbs, Wilt et al., 2017). Egan and Parmar (2013) noted that while Internet pornography use can be considered compulsive, understanding the pathology at the foundation can be very difficult to study. The issue now is even more critical due to the easy access and affordability of Internet pornography and increased isolation due to COVID-19 restrictions.

Grubbs et al. (2010) noted through the use of the Cyber Pornography Use Scale (CPUI) that the frequency of use of individuals self-identifying as pornography addicts did not

necessarily resonate with actual addictive behavior. The more predictive construct of individuals' belief they were addicted was that they morally disapproved of pornography use (Grubbs et al., 2010). This idea was also substantiated with a newer, shorter version of the CPUI scale, the CPUI-9 (Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015). The original scale was tested in a Christian population, so conjecture arose about how moral beliefs may have played a part in these individuals' concept that they were addicted (Grubbs, Volk, et al., 2015). The CPUI-9 was tested in a more diversified population with findings supporting the idea that those who morally disapprove of viewing pornography, whether religious or not, felt their use was problematic (Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015). Further revisions of this scale (CPUI-4), where the main focus is compulsivity factors (self-perceived loss of control), have also demonstrated solid reliability and validity (Grubbs & Gola, 2019).

The importance of moral incongruence when investigating perceived addiction to pornography cannot be understated. Grubbs, Exline et al. (2015) found that consistently moral incongruence played a large part in higher levels of perceived addiction. Moral incongruence emerged from three separate studies as the most significant predictor of perceived addiction, even more so than the actual pornography use (Grubbs, Exline et al., 2015). Wilt et al. (2016) had similar findings when investigating moral disapproval with a group of college undergraduates in three different universities. They found strong positive correlations of moral disapproval to perceived addiction to Internet pornography (Wilt et al., 2016). This correlation was also demonstrated in a longitudinal study with undergraduates where, over a year, the positive relationship between moral incongruence and perceived addiction remained strong (Grubbs, Wilt et al., 2017). The previous studies mentioned were all performed in the United States. However, empirical work done in Malaysia in a group of males in the population

revealed strong correlations of moral incongruence to Internet pornography use and perceived addiction demonstrating a more global view of this phenomenon (Fernandez et al., 2017).

Research has demonstrated that the concept of moral incongruence is a decisive factor regarding an individual's belief that they are addicted to pornography.

Moral Incongruence and Pornography

Moral incongruence or moral disapproval can refer to an individual's perception that specific behavioral characteristics do not align with their belief about those behaviors (Grubbs & Perry, 2019). Concerning pornography use, some individuals view Internet pornography but believe that it is morally wrong to do so. This phenomenon exists both within religious contexts and outside of any religious belief, and many of these people believe that they are addicted to Internet pornography (Grubbs et al., 2010; Grubbs, Grant et al., 2018; Grubbs & Perry, 2019; Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015). Hald and Malamuth (2008) have pointed out the need for empirical work to thoroughly investigate these "self-perceived" beliefs of addiction and how this correlates with their negative emotional distress.

When looking at psychological distress as an outcome of pornography use, this relationship can be exacerbated by incongruence in one's belief system. Some individuals who view pornography believe that pornography use is wrong, yet they continue to consume it (Grubbs, Perry et al., 2018). However, some believe the idea of moral incongruence or religious beliefs is merely a concept that is morally constructed to maintain sexual order in society (Duffy et al., 2016). Willoughby et al. (2019) contend that when trying to understand the effects of pornography use, one crucial factor is self-perception of that person's acceptance of pornography. This would include their values and morals regarding pornography use as it relates to their actual use (Willoughby et al., 2019). Carroll et al. (2008), when investigating

pornography acceptance among emerging adults, found "the acceptance of pornography was as strongly correlated with" these "adults' attitudes and behaviors as their actual pornography use was (or more so)" (p.24). This finding suggests that pornography "should be regarded as much as a value stance or a personal sexual ethic as it is a behavioral pattern" (Carroll et al., 2008, p.24). This concept supports the idea that acceptance of or non-acceptance of pornography use carries significance when looking at an individual's use and whether or not they are distressed by it.

Grubbs, Grant et al. (2018) demonstrated that the best predictors of those self-identifying as addicted to Internet pornography are daily use and the male gender. However, moral incongruence was also a substantial contributing factor to the individual's self-diagnosis of pornography addiction and the ensuing emotional distress (Grubbs, Grant et al., 2018). Just the idea that one has certain morals and values regarding sexual practices and then violates those by nature would likely cause distress (Grubbs & Perry, 2019). Fernandez et al. (2017) found that moral disapproval was predictive of emotional distress scores when looking into men's attempts at abstinence from their pornography use.

The association between moral incongruence and distress has been strongly supported cross-sectionally and longitudinally. In a six-year study with a national population, men who strongly disapproved of pornography use and yet still viewed it reported experiences of depression over time (Grubbs & Perry, 2019). The outcome of this study supports moral incongruence's critical role in investigating psychological distress concerning pornography use (Grubbs & Perry, 2019). This idea also resonates with a different study's results using the same data, investigating married individuals who violate their moral beliefs regarding pornography by viewing it anyway (Perry, 2017). Over six years, the couple's marital satisfaction decreased as

their viewing habits increased (Perry, 2017). While moral incongruence has been strongly supported in empirical literature as a predictor of self-perceived addiction to pornography, perhaps the shame these individuals feel due to violating their moral standards also plays a critical role in self-perceived addiction. Perhaps the shame cycle itself, where these individuals violate their moral standards by viewing pornography, contributes to their self-reported belief that they are addicted to IP. Disappointment in not upholding their internal moral values, which produces more shame and negative affect, which enhances the need to mitigate their distress produces a never-ending cycle of distress.

Shame

Shame vs. Guilt

The study of shame has been of immense interest in the research domain and clinical settings and can present as social anxiety (Zimmerman et al., 2015), traumatic shame memories (Matos & Pinto-Gouveia, 2010; Matos, Duarte, & Pinto-Gouveia, 2017), poor attachment (Matos & Pinto-Gouveia, 2014; Muris et al. 2014), obsessive-compulsive behavior (Chisholm & Gall, 2015; Weingarden & Renshaw, 2015; Wetterneck et al., 2014), aggression (Fjermestad-Noll et al., 2020; Scott et al., 2015; Velotti et al., 2014), posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Lopez-Castro et al., 2019), psychopathology (Tangney, Wagner, Fletcher, et al., 1992), anger (Hejdenberg & Andrews, 2011), self-handicapping behavioral tendencies (Hofseth et al., 2015), and chronic depression (Andrews et al., 2002; Kim et al., 2011; Tangney, Wagner, Fletcher, et al., 1992).

Chronic shame has also been associated with a variety of addictive disorders such as eating disorders (Botera et al., 2020; Mendes & Ferreira, 2019; Woodward et al., 2019), exercise addiction (Sicilia et al., 2020), Smartphone addiction (Shim, 2019), Internet addiction (Dogan &

Kaya, 2016), alcohol and drug use (Tangney et al., 2007), gambling (Schlagintweit et al., 2017), and pornography use (Adams & Robinson, 2001; Chisholm & Gall, 2015; De Jong & Cook, 2021; Duffy et al., 2016; Gilliland et al., 2011; Reid et al., 2009; Shadbolt, 2009; Sniewski & Farvid, 2020; Volk et al., 2016, 2019). Dysfunctional behaviors may also affect interpersonal relationships, occupation, development and education (Goffnet et al., 2020).

Bradshaw (1988) noted that shame has been considered the “master emotion” (p.55) due to the idea that when shame is internalized, the rest of an individual’s emotions are constrained by shame. Chronic shame has been described as "painful, corrosive, and elusive" resisting "self-help” (DeYoung, 2015, p.xiii). Shame may also sabotage various forms of therapy and can be considered relational in origin stemming from “misattunements” or disintegration of relations with significant others (DeYoung, 2015, p.xiii; Thompson, 2015). It has also been described as a highly aversive self-conscious emotion (Prado et al., 2016) and the quintessential self-conscious emotion (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Psychopathology has been strongly associated with individuals who chronically experience the intense and debilitating effects of shame (DeFrance et al., 2017; Tangney, Wagner, Gramzow, 1992).

Shame is fundamentally different from guilt, as recognized in the work of Lewis (1971). She believed that it is directly related to an individual’s core self-evaluation when shame presents itself. In contrast with guilt, any negative evaluation is directed at a specific behavior, not the essence or core of the individual (Lewis, 1971). The two main distinctions between guilt and shame are that guilt manifests when one’s appraisal of wrongdoing is focused on their behavior as flawed, whereas those with chronic shame have a global appraisal of their core self as flawed (Goffnet et al., 2020; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Guilt typically leads to some repair or restitution of the behavior, whereas the shamed individual typically desires to hide, which can

lead to very maladaptive coping to deal with the intense affect accompanying the shame encounter (Elison et al., 2006; Goffnet et al., 2020; Tangney & Dearing, 2002).

Tangney and Dearing's (2002) research on differentiating shame from guilt, an outgrowth of Lewis' (1971) work in *Shame and Guilt in Neurosis*, has been a tremendous contribution to the academic and clinical community. The merit of this research is particularly true concerning approaching shame-proneness as a trait; however, the relevance of looking into state shame also carries clinical implications (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Shame is less adaptive than other emotions, and when a shame encounter manifests, the individual is more likely to become angry with themselves or blame others and is unable to express empathy towards others and themselves (Elison et al., 2006; Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Volk et al., 2019).

Shame is much more predictive of inadequate psychological adjustment when compared with guilt (Woien et al., 2003). Shamed individuals may feel worthless, powerless, and have a "sense of shrinking," being small and exposed (DeYoung, 2015; Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Thompson, 2015). Even if no other person is present, the individual has a running internal dialog cataloging their defectiveness and how that would appear to others (Tangney et al., 2007). When looking at shame and guilt over a person's lifetime from longitudinal studies, it is apparent that individual differences concerning shame and guilt-proneness remain stable from middle childhood to early adulthood (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Tangney and Dearing (2002) point out it is essential whether an individual responds with shame or guilt because of the different effects that shame versus guilt responses have concerning an individual's psychological and social well-being.

When differentiating shame from guilt, there are three categories that researchers use: 1) what were the various eliciting events or experiences (this one has proven to have little to do

with distinguishing shame from guilt); 2) was the event or experience public or private (empirical studies have not demonstrated much support for this view that both shame and guilt are equal with regards to being experienced in the presence of others with no distinction of which was which); 3) did the individual perceive the event eliciting the emotion as a failure of their core self or their behavior (most popular view and empirically supported) (Tangney et al., 2007). Guilt deals with negative affect due to a specific behavior, whereas shame is felt like a negative emotion directed at the global self of a person (Tangney & Dearing, 2002, Tracy & Robbins, 2004).

In their correlation and experimental study, Tracy and Robins (2006) found a positive correlation between shame-proneness and an individual's propensity to make internal, stable, uncontrollable attributions when dealing with failure. Guilt-proneness is positively associated with internal, stable, controllable attributions demonstrating how different the experience of shame is versus guilt. This pattern held for positive success-oriented experiences as well (Tracy & Robins, 2006). The findings supported the belief that attributions responsible for an individual's ability to exhibit internal control and stability distinguish guilt from shame (Tracy & Robins, 2006). Tangney, Wagner, Gramzow's (1992) work, looking into attributions, did not have the same results, perhaps because the attributional style was assessed with a measure more associated with depression (Tracy & Robins, 2006).

Research by Tracy and Robins (2006) further noted that if failure is attributed to some internal cause over which individuals have no control, such as one's ability, this is positively related to shame. However, this is not true for guilt, and if the failure had to do with the individual's effort, there was a positive correlation to guilt and not shame. Rusch et al. (2007) support this construct in a study that demonstrated shame-proneness was negatively correlated to

self-efficacy and empowerment instead of guilt-proneness. A sense exists that individuals who struggle with chronic shame may feel overwhelmed affectively, particularly when in social situations where they may not be aware of the moral standards intrinsic in that particular setting (Rusch et al., 2007). Tangney et al. (2007) define moral standards as “an individual’s knowledge and internalization of moral norms and conventions” (p. 346). Furthermore, they note that those who struggle with chronic shame have difficulty navigating the complex nature of moral standards. This difficulty, in turn, produces moral decisions and moral behavior having been influenced by moral emotions, whether guilt or shame (Tangney et al., 2007).

Understanding the differences between shame and guilt is essential, especially when working with clients in therapy settings. Shame appears to produce a very painful affect response; when guilt is experienced, the affect is not as overwhelming (DeYoung, 2015; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). When shame is experienced, a critical aspect is how the individual can cope with, defend against, or down-regulate the intensity of the affect they are experiencing (Elison et al., 2006). When an individual experiences guilt, they can identify that their behavior was maladaptive and have the desire to make reparations: they feel bad about their behavior. However, with shame, the experience of the emotion goes to their core self where they experience themselves as defective and may respond through anger (Tangney & Dearing, 2002), blaming or attacking others (Elison et al., 2006; Volk et al., 2019), blaming or attacking themselves, and withdrawal or avoidance (Elison et al., 2006).

Feelings of shame can also manifest as anger when individuals experience the emotional effect of shame resulting from criticism and a put-down (Hejdenbert & Andrews, 2011). This anger operates as a defense mechanism against the caustic affect of the shaming experience, particularly if they accept the criticism given to them (Hejdenbert & Andrews, 2011).

Concerning gender differences, Nystrom et al. (2018) reported in their results investigating interpersonal sensitivity and internalized shame-coping, women are much more vulnerable to feeling shame. Women also seem to have more reactions to shame than their male counterparts, perhaps because women tend towards more sensitivity directed at other people's behavior than men (Nystrom et al., 2018).

In therapeutic settings, shame-proneness hides beneath the radar of other mental health issues without ever being identified as the root cause of the emotional distress (DeYoung, 2015; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). When investigating shame-proneness and hypersexual patients, Gilliland et al. (2011) noted that addressing the shame may be critical for the treatment modality. They suggested psychoeducation on shame and guilt for the clients to help them distinguish between these two emotions and shame reactions and sharing methods to help the clients reduce shame (Gilliland et al., 2011). Tangney and Dearing (2011) point out that underlying shame may be responsible for the psychopathology that drives many individuals to seek therapy, including difficulties in relationships, poor psychological adjustment and poor life functioning. Not only may shame be the underlying factor as to why people seek treatment, but there is often added shame in seeking treatment (Tangney & Dearing, 2011). Treatment may imply that these individuals are unable to handle whatever life struggles brought them to therapy in the first place, shame on top of shame (Tangney & Dearing, 2011). There is a risk in therapy that the shame component is not recognized and addressed, resulting in empathic failure and treatment termination by the client (Tangney & Dearing, 2011).

Weiner (2018) points out the standard treatments for most clients struggling in an area of addiction are based on the disease model of addiction. Shame is already an issue with these clients, but the question has been raised about whether that shame is increased by the ensuing

stigma involved in the treatment process itself (Weiner, 2018). Weiner (2018) shares his concern with the therapeutic community with this comment: "Is it possible that we create at least some of the shame that feeds the stigma? I believe so" (p.25). His premise is that when dealing with addictive disorders in which chronic shame often has been an underlying factor, using the medical model of addiction can add to an individual's experience of shame. This additional shame may minimize any therapeutic value offered by the clinician (Wiener, 2018). Those who receive treatment applied under the medical/disease model of addiction may potentially end up discouraged, hopeless, and covered in more shame. This concept supports the idea of "perceived addiction" with pornography use: the medical model does not leave room for individuals to be held accountable. They see themselves with a "medical condition" and have no control over their use, promoting a sense of learned helplessness. Of particular importance for clinicians is to help clients address the foundation of shame as their negative core belief about themselves (Gilliland et al., 2011).

Concerning pornography use and chronic shame, an intriguing question could be raised: does the caustic affect which results from a chronic sense of utter failure at the core of their "self" compel these individuals to view pornography, alleviating or defending against the painful affect of their chronic shame (Gilliland et al., 2011; DeYoung, 2015)? Perhaps pornography use is how these individuals survive the intense, chronic affect of the shame they live with daily. This may be especially true with individuals who believe that pornography is wrong but view it anyway (displaying moral incongruence) combined with their self-perceived belief that they are addicted to IP (Grubbs et al., 2010; Grubbs, Exline et al., 2017; Grubbs, Grant et al., 2018; Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2019; Grubbs, Perry et al., 2019; Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015; Grubbs, Wilt et al., 2017; Volk et al., 2019). Stringer (2015) found shame to be a crucial determiner of sexual

behavior deemed unwanted. His premise is that individuals who suffer from chronic shame, feeling defective at their core, tend to pursue conduct that confirms their beliefs, creating a never-ending shame cycle (Stringer, 2015). Mollon (2005) contests that sexuality itself carries an inherent construct of shame, and the use of pornography may exacerbate that sense of shame.

Gilliland et al. (2011) found a positive relationship with shame-proneness, or chronic shame and compulsive hypersexual behavior in a population of individuals who felt their use was problematic and sought treatment. Picone's (2016) findings resonate that Christian men who viewed pornography and struggled with shame-proneness tended to use pornography more than those who did not view their pornography use as problematic. The psychological impact of IP use on men, particularly men with strong moral beliefs regarding IPU, has far-reaching negative implications in how they think and perceive life and process their IPU (Struthers, 2009). While shame and its association with problematic pornography use have been relatively well supported in the empirical literature, further study is warranted. Particularly of interest is what happens with individuals who use pornography in high shame states and the relationship with perceived addiction to pornography. Furthermore, moral incongruence studies have noted that frequency of use is not as robust a predictor of perceived addiction as the moral values held by the person viewing pornography. Is it possible that increased frequency of use may impact an individual's concept of self-perceived addiction filtered through high shame encounters?

Experience of Shame

The theoretical and clinical relevance of shame has been strongly supported in scholarly literature, particularly how shame plays an integral role in psychological dysfunction and emotional distress. Empirical studies have also investigated how individuals cope with the negative, caustic affect of shame and shame-proneness, investigating a variety of theories as to

how individuals survive the negative emotional affect experienced through chronic shame (Elison et al., 2006; Tangney et al., 2007; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). One area of study has been employing the work of Nathanson (1992) through Elison's Compass of Shame measure (Elison et al., 2006). This scale measures four ways of coping with shame affect through withdrawal, attacking self, attacking others, or avoidance (Elison et al., 2006). However, this is not the same as measuring shame feelings during a shame encounter or experience. Velotti et al. (2017) note that shame feelings manifest differently for men and women, yet when looking across gender, hostility, low self-esteem and psychological distress were all associated with shame. Other studies investigating how individual's deal with shame have looked into dissociation as a coping method (Dorahy et al., 2017), self-injury (Gunnerson, 2020), eating disorders such as bulimia and binge eating (Houazene et al., 2021), and shame's relationship to aggression and emotional regulation in men and women (Velotti et al., 2017). The depth of research concerning shame and its effect on individuals is without limit!

The Experience of Shame scale developed by Andrews et al. (2002) addresses the subjective experiences of dealing with state shame situations, whether characterological, behavioral, or bodily shame issues. For each of the eight shame items covered in the questions for characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame, there are an additional three items covered: the experiential component of shame (i.e., feeling shame over personal habits), the cognitive component of shame (concerns over others' opinions), and behavioral component of shame (i.e., covering or trying to conceal personal habits) (Andrews et al., 2002). Shame encounters are profoundly different from guilt encounters. Shame itself possesses five components worth mentioning: 1) an *external* cognitive or social component expressed within the context of social interaction, an encounter where the individual believes that others are making judgments about

their worth and value; 2) an *internal*, self-evaluation component expressed internally where the individual believes that they are worthless, inferior, or a failure; 3) an *emotional* component focused on the individual's affect in a shame encounter, for example, self-disgust, anxiety and anger; 4) a *behavioral* responses of individuals during a shame encounter such as submissiveness, withdrawing, anger, removal of eye contact; and 5) a *physiological* component, in which the individual's stress response is heightened and parasympathetic activity increases (Gilbert, 2002).

Andrews et al. (2002) originally developed the Experiences of Shame (ESS) scale from an interview measure demonstrating the correlation of shame, childhood abuse and depression (Andrews & Hunter, 1997). The goal was to demonstrate the predictive nature of shame-proneness towards depressive disorders (Andrews & Hunter, 1997). Its use has expanded, demonstrating shame's predictive involvement in specific pathologies such as depression and has been employed in looking at how men experience sexual shame (Gordon, 2018). Rusch et al. (2006) noted that when looking at both a clinical and non-clinical Hungarian population, the three constructs of shame delineated in the ESS (characterological, behavioral, and bodily) were stable. When viewed as a moral, adaptive emotion, shame may function as an internal warning system, triggered when an internal social norm has been transgressed (Rusch et al., 2006). Rusch et al. (2006) found that this shame differentiated in association with the ESS constructs: characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame.

A couple of the characterological questions, as well as all three of the behavioral questions on the (ESS), have to do with societal aspects of the shame experience: what others think about them, their habits, how they act with others, fear of doing or saying something wrong with others, and failure in any competitive arena (Andrews et al., 2002). Gunnerson (2020)

notes that it is crucial not to underestimate societal or cultural norms concerning shame when working with individuals who self-injure. She points out that the person's attempt to relieve distressing affect through the act of self-harm can also become a source for more shame, producing a cycle of shame (Gunnerson, 2020). Gunnerson (2020) presents the idea that for those who self-injure, one cannot exclude or ignore that individual's shame experience, but that shame must be considered an emotion that carries significance within the therapeutic context. What about individuals who are distressed about their pornography use, such as those who already may have deep roots of chronic shame and now believe they are addicted to pornography? Does viewing pornography give them temporary relief from their distressing affect to only then invoke more shame because of their inability to control their viewing habits, perpetuating a debilitating cycle of shame?

Andrews et al. (2002) point out the necessity of looking at shame within the context of cultural, social, and clinical aspects, with the recognition of shame experiences being quite intense. Shame experiences, both trait and state, often manifest as a particularly negative emotion in which the individual feels self-conscious, powerless, inferior, and desires to hide any perceived deficiencies (Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Tangney et al., 1997, 2007). Experiences of shame typically manifest within relational contexts (DeYoung, 2015; Thompson, 2015). When looking at the survey questions on the ESS, both the characterological and behavioral scales have at least one question regarding a shame experience involving another individual/individuals (Andrews et al., 2002). Thompson (2015) points out that even though an experience of shame can be a very personal and internal event, this happens because the individual is responding to an encounter with another person. Not only does the shamed individual feel shame, but they also believe they are somehow responsible for that feeling. They discount that another individual was

involved in the encounter, demonstrating shame's tendency to be self-referential (Thompson, 2015). The shamed individual believes the entire encounter is their fault, even though the other individual played a part in how the interaction transpired. The shamed person not only feels terrible but believes that at their core they are bad, and carries within themselves this sense of accusation and contempt toward themselves (Thompson, 2015).

The third area that the ESS addresses is bodily shame. Cooper, Delmonico et al. (2000) noted that sometimes an individual might not struggle with only one addiction but two simultaneously. Individuals with comorbidities who reported not only sexual addiction but also overeating reveal a painful cycle of shame (Carnes, 2001). Overeating may be a way to “self-medicate” to deal with negative affect. People struggling with sexual addiction who also use food for comfort then end up with body shame due to weight gain, perpetuating a cycle of fear of rejection and shame (Carnes, 2001). It has been noted that 38% of individuals who report sexual addiction also deal with some eating disorder (Cooper, Delmonico et al., 2000). Body shame related to women who struggle with eating disorders has been well established in empirical research (Mason et al., 2018; Mancuso et al., 2016; Fuller-Tyszkiewicz et al., 2018). Of interest is how does bodily shame play a role in pornography use and the implications of that use, such as an individual’s idea that he or she is addicted to their viewing of pornography? Another area of interest is what does that look like for men and for women who use pornography?

Velotti et al. (2017), investigating experiences of shame in men and women, found that women reported higher levels of shame overall, particularly in behavioral and bodily shame. Also, the association of emotional suppression and characterological shame and anger and bodily shame was found only in the women (Velotti et al., 2017). Furthermore, for both the men and women, bodily and characterological shame strengthened the predictability of hostility, low self-

esteem, and psychological distress, even beyond the trait shame influence (Velotti et al., 2017). Men reported much more physical aggression, emotional suppression, and higher levels of self-esteem, which supports the work of Andrews and colleagues (2002). An interesting outcome of this study was that emotional suppression and characterological shame were related (Velloti et al., 2017). This outcome supports Nystrom and Mikkelsen's (2013) findings that women who tend to feel shame concerning their personalities may adopt maladaptive emotion regulation strategies. Nystrom and Mikkelsen's (2013) and Velloti et al.'s (2017) studies investigated overall experiences of shame outside of any specific context, such as the relationship between experiences of shame and pornography use and self-perceived addiction. The question remains: what would the manifestation of experiences of shame look like for men and women within the context of pornography use, specifically perceived addiction to pornography?

Tylka (2015) investigated pornography use in men concerning their interpersonal and emotional well-being and body image. The outcome of path analyses revealed (regarding the men's actual use) that the more they viewed pornography, the more they reported dissatisfaction with their physique regarding muscle tone and body fat. This study also investigated men's pornography use and how it related to body appreciation and negative and positive affect (Tylka, 2015). Internet pornography typically presents men whose body structure meets certain cultural ideals concerning appearance, e.g., very toned and muscular (Tylka, 2015). The study was conducted through the framework of whether these men internalized the mesomorphic ideal presented in IP, which seemed to be related to the men's dissatisfaction with their bodies (Tylka, 2015). Previous studies resonate with this idea, in particular Elder et al. (2012), which found decreasing confidence levels in men when they compared themselves to other males in pornography. Perhaps men and women view pornography as a form of emotional suppression or

maladaptive coping mechanism to deal with shame encounters (Dhuffar et al., 2015; Elison et al., 2014; Howard, 2007; Nystrom & Mikkelsen, 2013; Reid and Carpenter, 2009)?

The main focus of this study is to investigate whether experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame are predictive of perceived addiction to pornography and the possible effect actual frequency of use within the past month may have. However, one may speculate as to the possibility that perhaps men and women view pornography as a form of emotional suppression or maladaptive coping mechanism to deal with shame encounters (Dhuffar et al., 2015; Elison et al., 2014; Howard, 2007; Nystrom & Mikkelsen, 2013; Reid and Carpenter, 2009).

Summary

While many individuals have no problem or emotional consequences from their use of Internet pornography, the fact remains that many people do suffer psychological distress from their use. Not only do many individuals feel that their pornography use is problematic, but they believe that they are addicted to its use, which presents other clinical and therapeutic implications since there is no official DSM-5 diagnostic criteria for pornography addiction. Empirical work over the decades has demonstrated that a greater understanding of the self-conscious emotion of shame (Tangney & Dearing, 2002) has clinical and therapeutic implications in treating individuals who struggle processing chronic shame and or experiences of shame. The clinical ramifications for trying to gain a deeper understanding of experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame within the framework of men and women's belief that they are addicted to pornography are warranted. An additional area of inquiry is whether or not men and women's actual frequency of pornography use has any effect on the relationship between experiences of shame and perceived addiction to IP.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

This chapter will focus on the actual methods employed when looking at the relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography. The study will expand on these correlations by investigating how the frequency of pornography use within the past month and gender may affect various outcomes. This chapter will also give a brief review of the purpose of the study and the research questions and hypotheses. It will also address participant recruitment and explain the chosen assessments and instruments to measure each variable. The chapter will also include procedures for the research and what statistical tests will be employed to analyze the data and test the given hypotheses. The end of this chapter will address the critical ethical implications inherent in this type of study.

Research Design

This research will be using a correlation survey study looking at the relationships between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography and frequency of use in the past month with use within the past six months as a criteria for inclusion in the study. A Pearson's r will be run to investigate the relationships between characterological, behavioral and bodily shame, perceived addiction to pornography, shame-proneness (covariate) and frequency of pornography use within the past month. The study will then further investigate the relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography by running nine PROCESS Macro moderation models (Hayes, 2018). The first model will be a Hayes Model 1 (2018) using gender as the moderator between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness and frequency of use.

The second model will be another Hayes Model 1 (2018) using the frequency of use as the moderator (men and women are combined in this model), continuing to control for shame-proneness. The third model will be a Hayes Model 2 (2018) with gender and frequency of use as a moderator to view men and women's results separately with shame-proneness as a covariate.

This design makes sense in determining the relationships that each of these variables possess. It will reveal the direct effect of experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame on perceived addiction and investigate the conditional effect of use within the past month and gender differences. The primary purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography and whether the condition of more frequent use within the past month strengthens that relationship.

Research Questions

Correlation

RQ1: Are characterological experiences of shame in men and women who have used pornography in the past month predictive of perceived addiction to pornography?

RQ2: Are behavioral experiences of shame in men and women who have used pornography in the past month predictive of perceived addiction to pornography?

RQ3: Are bodily experiences of shame in men and women who have used pornography in the past month predictive of perceived addiction to pornography?

Conceptual Model 1

RQ 4: Are experiences of characterological shame predictive of perceived addiction to pornography in men who have used pornography within the past month,

controlling for shame-proneness and frequency of use?

RQ 5: Are experiences of characterological shame predictive of perceived addiction to pornography in women who have used pornography within the past month, controlling for shame-proneness and frequency of use?

RQ 6: Are experiences of behavioral shame predictive of perceived addiction to pornography in men who have used pornography within the past month, controlling for shame-proneness and frequency of use?

RQ 7: Are experiences of behavioral shame predictive of perceived addiction to pornography in women who have used pornography within the past month, controlling for shame-proneness and frequency of use?

RQ 8: Are experiences of bodily shame predictive of perceived addiction to pornography in men who have used pornography within the past month, controlling for shame-proneness and frequency of use?

RQ 9: Are experiences of bodily shame predictive of perceived addiction to pornography in women who have used pornography within the past month, controlling for shame-proneness and frequency of use?

Conceptual Model 2

RQ 10: Do individuals who use pornography at a greater frequency within the past month in high characterological shame states have a more robust perception that they are addicted to pornography?

RQ 11: Do individuals who use pornography at a greater frequency within the past month in high behavioral shame states have a more robust perception that they are addicted to pornography?

RQ 12: Do individuals who use pornography at a greater frequency within the past month in high bodily shame states have a more robust perception that they are addicted to pornography?

Conceptual Model 3

RQ 13: Do men who viewed pornography more frequently in the past month during high characterological shame conditions have a more robust perception that they are addicted to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness?

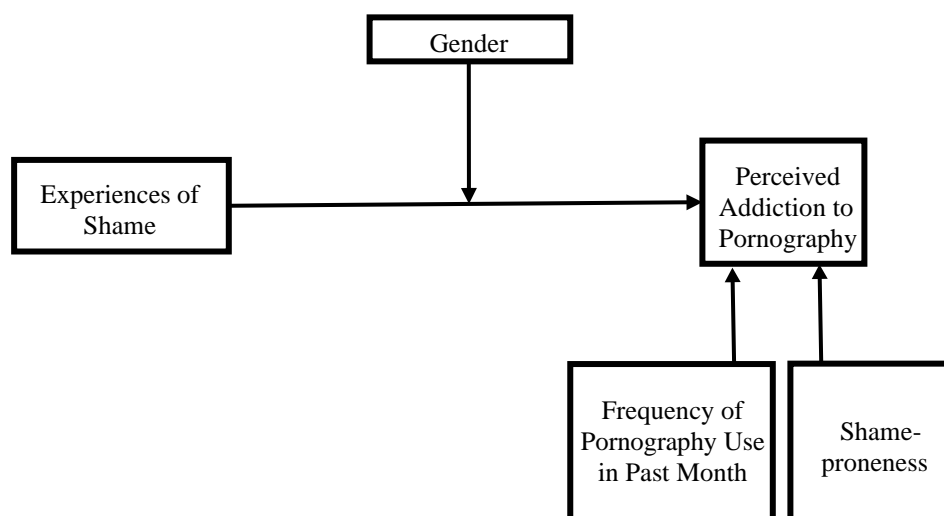
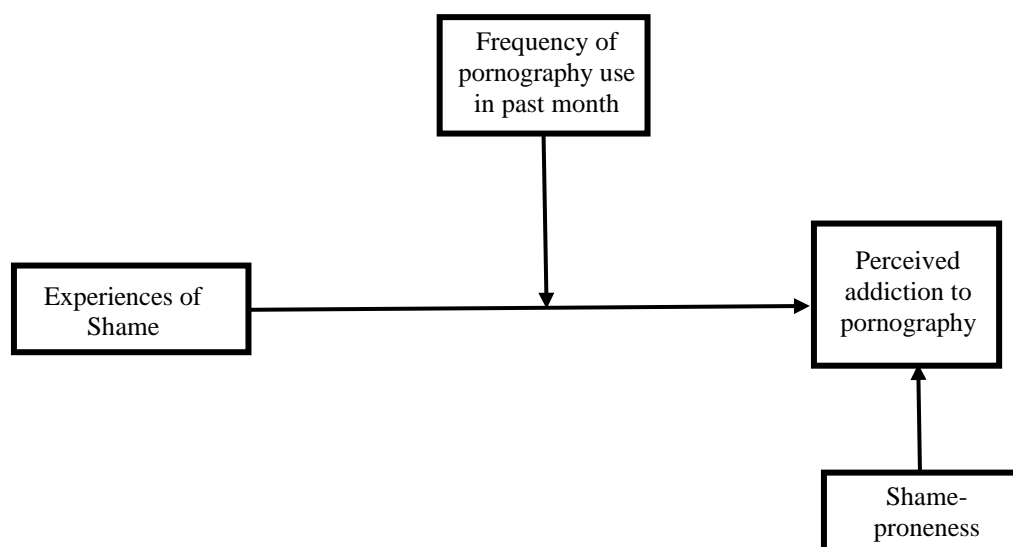
RQ 14: Do women who viewed pornography more frequently in the past month during high characterological shame conditions have a more robust perception that they are addicted to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness?

RQ 15: Do men who viewed pornography more frequently in the past month during high behavioral shame conditions have a more robust perception that they are addicted to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness?

RQ 16: Do women who viewed pornography more frequently in the past month during high behavioral shame conditions have a more robust perception that they are addicted to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness?

RQ 17: Do men who viewed pornography more frequently in the past month during high bodily shame conditions have a more robust perception that they are addicted to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness?

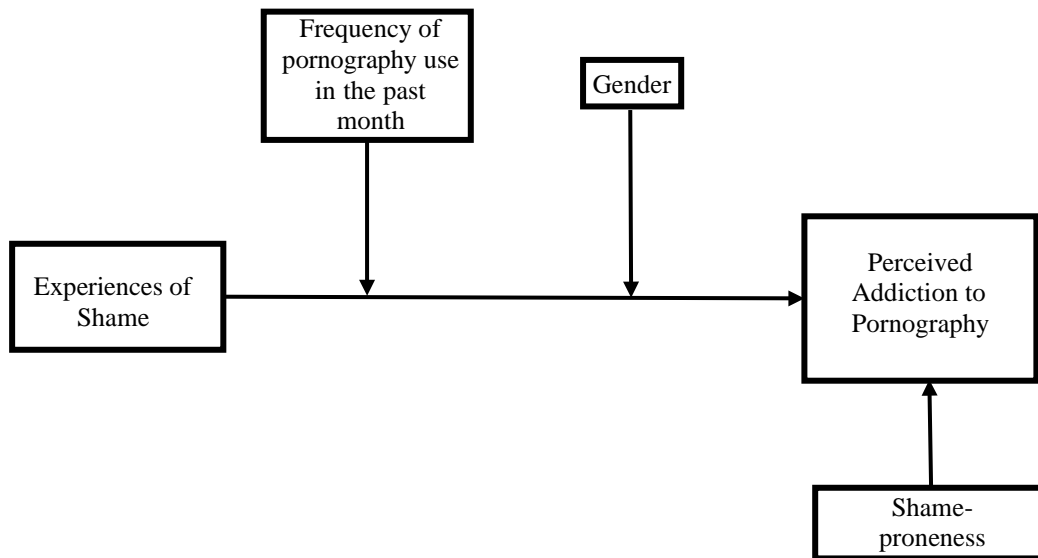
RQ 18: Do women who viewed pornography more frequently in the past month during high bodily shame conditions have a more robust perception that they are addicted to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness?

Research Model 1**Figure 3.1***Conceptual Model***Research Model 2****Figure 3.2***Conceptual Model*

Research Model 3

Figure 3.3

Conceptual Model



Hypotheses

Correlation

- H1:** Characterological experiences of shame in individuals who have used pornography in the past month is predictive of perceived addiction to pornography.
- H2:** Behavioral experiences of shame in individuals who have used pornography in the past month is predictive of perceived addiction to pornography.
- H3:** Bodily experiences of shame in individuals who have used pornography in the past month is predictive of perceived addiction to pornography.

Conceptual Model 1

- H4:** Experiences of characterological shame are predictive of perceived addiction to IP for men who have used pornography within the past month, controlling for shame-

proneness and frequency of use.

H5: Experiences of characterological shame are predictive of perceived addiction to IP

for women who have used pornography within the past month, controlling for

shame-proneness and frequency of use.

H6: Experiences of behavioral shame are predictive of perceived addiction to IP for men

who have used pornography within the past month, controlling for shame-proneness

and frequency of use.

H7: Experiences of behavioral shame are predictive of perceived addiction to IP for

women who have used pornography within the past month, controlling for shame-

proneness and frequency of use.

H8: Experiences of bodily shame are predictive of perceived addiction to IP for men who

have used pornography within the past month, controlling for shame-proneness and

frequency of use.

H9: Experiences of bodily shame are predictive of perceived addiction to IP for women

who have used pornography within the past month, controlling for shame-proneness

and frequency of use.

Conceptual Model 2

H10: Individuals who use pornography at a greater frequency within the past month in

high characterological shame states will perceive that they are addicted to

pornography.

H11: Individuals who use pornography at a greater frequency within the past month in

high behavioral shame states will perceive that they are addicted to pornography.

H12: Individuals who use pornography at a greater frequency within the past month in

high bodily shame states will perceive that they are addicted to pornography.

Conceptual Model 3

H13: Men who viewed pornography more frequently in the past month during high characterological shame conditions have a stronger perception that they are addicted to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness.

H14: Women who viewed pornography more frequently in the past month during high characterological shame conditions have a stronger perception that they are addicted to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness.

H15: Men who viewed pornography more frequently in the past month during high behavioral shame conditions have a stronger perception that they are addicted to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness.

H16: Women who viewed pornography more frequently in the past month during high behavioral shame conditions have a stronger perception that they are addicted to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness.

H17: Men who viewed pornography more frequently in the past month during high bodily shame conditions have a stronger perception that they are addicted to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness.

H18: Women who viewed pornography more frequently in the past month during high bodily shame conditions have a stronger perception that they are addicted to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness.

Participants and Setting

This data was retrieved from an archived data set collected in 2013. Participants were recruited with the online Amazon crowdsourcing Internet marketplace Mechanical Turk ©

(Mturk). There are benefits to using this instrument; first, the participant pool made available through this tool is quite large, and second, the data collection is quick and relatively inexpensive (Johnson & Borden, 2012). The Mturk features make this platform ideal for finding individuals to help in online experiments (Mason & Suri, 2012). The far-reaching abilities of Mturk outweigh other delivery models geographically (Buhrmester et al., 2011), making samples more culturally relevant and generalizable to a larger population. Data obtained through Mturk have also proven reliable compared to other survey methods (Buhrmester et al., 2011). When looking at reliability factors, specifically test-retest, Mturk demonstrated more robust psychometric properties than other survey methods (Buhrmester et al., 2011).

Of all of the responders, 1517 men and women, 627 were accepted for this study and were asked to provide proper informed consent before they were accepted into the study. Clear directions and expectations were conveyed in the instructions to make an informed decision as to whether they wanted to participate or not; the test was administered to those who were willing to sign the informed consent. While those individuals who did consent to participate in the study were given numerous scale measures to complete, not all of the respondents and candidates will be used in the current study. One inclusion criterion for the current study was viewing pornography within the past six months. Three individuals who met the criteria of viewing in the past six months identified their gender as "other" and were not included in the study. Of the 1517 men and women, 355 men and 272 women who reported viewing IP in the past six months qualified for participation in this study. The qualifying participants completed specific instruments, such as demographic measures, frequency of pornography use in the past month, the Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3 (TOSCA-3) scale (Tangney & Dearing, 2002), the Cyber-Pornography Use Inventory-4 scale (CPUI-4) (Grubbs & Gola, 2019), and the Experience of

Shame Scale (ESS) (Andrews et al. 2002).

Research Instruments

Demographic Information

The demographic questions used in this study will include the following for each participant: age, race, gender, education, employment, income level, and frequency of pornography use within the past month.

Perceived Addiction to Internet Pornography

The brief Cyber Pornography Use Inventory-9 (CPUI-9) (Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015) was developed from the much longer original Cyber Pornography Use Inventory (CPUI) by Grubbs et al. (2010). The purpose was to measure Internet pornography (IP) users' concept/perception that they were addicted to pornography, resulting in negative affect or severe emotional distress, even though their actual use did not resonate with addictive behavioral symptomatology (Grubbs et al., 2010). The empirical strength of this inventory demonstrated that perceived addiction to IP is strongly connected to indicators of psychological distress (Grubbs et al., 2010). The CPUI-9 revised version is much shorter than the original version. The scales demonstrate a robust relationship with hypersexual behaviors as well as being “robust predictors of psychological distress” (Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015, p.100) as well as evidence for construct validity and internal consistency (Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015). One study, though, using the CPUI-9 to measure moral incongruence as it relates to problematic pornography use may potentially have inflated the outcomes because of the inclusion of the emotional distress subscale (Floyd et al., 2021)

This study will use the CPUI-4 developed by Grubbs & Gola (2019), an abridged version of the CPUI-9 in which emotional distress has been removed. Instead of the original CPUI-9's three subscales of Perceived Compulsivity, Access Efforts and Emotional Distress (which

contained a total of nine items), the CPUI-4 was reduced to a 4-item measure focusing specifically on the individual's perception that they have lost control of their pornography use (Grubbs & Gola, 2019). Grubbs and Gola (2019) retained the three questions from the Perceived Compulsivity subscale: "I believe I am addicted to Internet pornography," "I feel unable to stop my use of online pornography," and "Even when I do not want to view pornography online, I feel drawn to it" (p.114). They also included one item from the Access Effort subscale: "I have put things off I needed to do in order to view pornography" (Grubbs & Gola, 2019, p.114).

This instrument uses a Likert scale in which answers fall on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Concerning psychometric properties, "across all three samples, latent variable analyses (e.g., confirmatory factor analysis using diagonally weighted least squares estimation with robust standard errors and mean adjusted test statistics) demonstrated that this abridged CPUI-4 demonstrated excellent fit" (Grubbs & Gola, 2019, p.114).

Experience of Shame Scale

The Experience of Shame Scale (ESS) was developed by Andrews and colleagues (2002) as a measure of emotional, social and physical markers of state shame experiences (Turner, 2014). Andrews et al. (2002) developed the ESS to expand upon their previous qualitative interviews, effectively predicting overall psychopathology (Andrews & Hunter, 1997). They developed a questionnaire designed to assess state shame levels and determine if state shame can be statistically predictive of specific psychopathology, in this case, depression (Andrews et al., 2002).

The ESS is a 25-item questionnaire that looks at characterological shame in four areas: 1) shame addressing the individual's habits, 2) their mannerisms with others, 3) what type of person they believe themselves to be and, 4) their personal ability. It then investigates

behavioral shame in three areas: 1) feeling shame because they did something wrong, 2) shame because they believe they said something stupid, and 3) feeling shame because they think they did something wrong. The final area addressed is bodily shame: feeling shame towards their body or any part of their body. For each of these eight areas of shame mentioned above, three additional items address experiential, cognitive, and behavioral components with a direct question regarding their feelings of shame: for experiential, “have you felt ashamed of your personal habits?” (Andrews et al., 2002, p.32); for cognition regarding their concern over what they think others are thinking of them, “have you worried about what other people think of your personal habits?” (Andrews et al., 2002, p.32); for behavior addressing their desire to conceal or avoid any part of their behavior, “have you tried to cover up or conceal any of your personal habits?” (Andrews et al., 2002, p.32). One extra item directed towards bodily shame addresses any desire to hide any body part or fear/avoidance of mirrors (Andrews et al., 2002).

The participants’ responses are rated on a four-point scale where 1 = not at all and 4 = very much, reflecting their personal feelings of the question in review of the past year; total scores can range from 25-100 (Andrews et al., 2002). The Cronbach’s alpha for this study was very high at .92, reflecting high internal consistency with test-retest reliability of $r(88) = .83$ over 11 weeks (Andrews et al., 2002). The internal consistency for the characterological subscale was .90 (Cronbach’s alpha); for behavioral, .87 (Cronbach’s alpha); and for bodily, .86 (Cronbach’s alpha, with the test-retest reliabilities measuring $r(90-93) = .78$ (characterological), .74 (behavioral), and .82 (bodily) over the 11 weeks (Andrews et al., 2002).

Frequency of Use

Frequency of use within the past month will be employed in the correlation model and moderation models in the form of scale measurement as to how many times they viewed

pornography in the last month: 0 times = 1, 1-3 times = 2, 4-6 times = 3, 7-9 times = 4, and ten or more times = 5. The three frequency levels of use as a moderator in Model 2 and Model 3 are 1-3 times = 2, 4-6 times = 3, ten or more times = 5.

Shame-Proneness

Measuring shame and guilt is a difficult task. These emotions are considered internal affective states that are challenging to directly assess due to the lack of visible facial cues, as can be observed in anger, joy and sadness (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). There are two categories that the measurement of shame and guilt fit into, 1) measurements assessing feelings of guilt or shame at the moment (state shame), and 2) measurements assessing chronic shame-proneness or guilt-proneness (trait shame) (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). The original Test of Self-Conscious Affect (TOSCA) was developed from the Self-Conscious Affect and Attribution Inventory (SCAAI) (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). It measures contextual shame, which are experiences of shame that individuals have within a specific context (Kim et al., 2011). After two revisions, the current TOSCA-3 for adults still has the 16-scenarios found in the TOSCA-2. However, it eliminated the scale for maladaptive guilt due to discriminate validity problems; the TOSCA-3 also has an option for a ten-scenario shortened version, which drops the positive scenarios (Tangney & Dearing, 2002).

One study employing the TOSCA found in comparison to the Self-Conscious Affect, and Attribution Inventory (SCAAI) (TOSCA was modeled after the SCAAI) found that the TOSCA demonstrated strong reliability and validity and psychometrically was just as sound and even a bit more than the SCAAI (Tangney, Wagner, Gramzow, 1992). The test-retest reliability of a sample of 44 undergraduate college students yielded .85 for shame and .74 for guilt. The internal consistency was .76 Cronbach's alpha for shame and .66 Cronbach's alpha for guilt

(Tangney, Wagner, Gramzow, 1992).

This scale contains 16 scenarios with descriptions of settings in which a hypothetical person has done something that will elicit either shame or guilt responses. The participant has to answer according to how they think they would respond in that situation, which will fall either in a guilt category or shame category cognitively, affectively, behaviorally, or motivationally (Kim et al., 2011). Reliability for this scale in two separate studies held at $\alpha=.73$ (Dearing et al., 2005; Marcinechova & Zahorcova, 2020).

Shame-proneness as a covariate will be measured with Tangney and Dearing's (2002) Test of Self-Conscious Affect-3 (TOSCA-3). It is a self-report measure using a Likert scale ranging from 1 = not likely to 5 = very likely with questions related to either positive or negative life circumstances or scenarios and ultimately distinguishes whether an individual is more prone to shame or guilt (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). An example of one of the negative life situations would be: "You break something at work and then hide it" (p.208). For each of the situations presented, there are within the answers a shame reaction: "You would think about quitting," and a guilt reaction: "You would think: 'This is making me anxious. I need to either fix it or get someone else to'" (Tangney & Dearing, 2002, p.208). An example of a positive scenario is: "You have recently moved away from your family, and everyone has been very helpful. A few times you needed to borrow money, but you paid it back as soon as you could" (Tangney & Dearing, 2002, p.210). There are 11 negative and five positive scenarios in the TOSCA-3, which produce the indices of Shame-Proneness, Guilt-Proneness, Alpha Pride, Beta Pride, Externalization, and Detachment/Unconcern (Tangney & Dearing, 2002).

Procedures

Before receiving the archived data, approval was obtained from the Institutional Review

Board (IRB), and once approval was given, the data was securely distributed to this researcher to their personal locked computer. Regarding the original data collection through Mturk, all participants were instructed to read through and sign an informed consent that explains the purpose of the study, any risks involved, and the absolute voluntary nature of the study. They were told that the survey assesses various concepts regarding personal use of pornography related to shame, problematic pornography use, personal beliefs of addiction to pornography, and questions describing three aspects of shame experiences: characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame. Volunteers for this study were informed that their participation in the study would not accrue any direct benefits, and the principal risk would be the release of any of the confidential information they shared in the survey.

The participants were reminded that no identifying information was gathered, such as names, addresses, or any other information that could reveal their identity. It was emphasized to individuals that participated in this study that it is entirely voluntary, and they could choose to withdraw from completing the survey at any time. The final section on the informed consent form asked the participants if they had read through the entire form and consented to volunteer to be a part of this study, with yes or no responses. Those individuals who agreed to participate with a complete understanding of each requirement each received \$1.00 for their time. Only those individuals who have used pornography within the six past months were accepted as part of this study. The following section will discuss the procedures of analysis.

Data Analysis

All data was downloaded into SPSS Statistics version 26 using Hayes (2018) PROCESS Macro Model 4.0. The first three research questions addressing the question of any relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame to perceived addiction to

pornography were investigated using Pearson r correlations. Correlations were run and calculated between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame scores for men and women to perceived addiction scores. The results for these findings can be seen in Table 4.5. The results for the Pearson's r address research questions 1-3. To address the three remaining conceptual and statistical models (research questions 4-18), nine PROCESS Macro Models 4.0 (Hayes, 2018) were run. Model 1 (PROCESS Macro Model 1 [Hayes, 2018]) investigated the correlation of experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography for men and women, controlling for frequency of use and shame-proneness. The results for Model 1 can be viewed in Table 4.6-characterological, Table 4.8-behavioral, and Table 4.10-bodily experiences of shame. This model addresses research questions RQ4-RQ9.

Model 2 (PROCESS Macro Model 1 [Hayes, 2018]) built on the findings concerning the relationship between characterological, behavioral, and bodily experiences of shame in men and women to perceived addiction by adding the frequency of pornography use within the past month as a moderator. Shame-proneness continued to be applied as a covariate, and in this model, men and women were combined. The results for Model 2 can be seen in Table 4.12-characterological, Table 4.14-behavioral, and Table 4.16 bodily experiences of shame. This model addresses research questions RQ10-RQ12.

Model 3 (PROCESS Macro Model 2 [Hayes, 2018]) included gender as a moderator along with the frequency of use, so the men's and women's results are displayed separately. This model investigated whether or not their frequency of pornography use in the past month mitigated the relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography. The results for Model 3 can be viewed in Table

4.18-characterological, Table 4.20-behavioral, and Table 4.22 bodily shame experiences. Model 3 addressed research questions RQ13-RQ18.

Specifically of interest is the relationship between characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography and any nuance that may exist when looking at the men's results versus the women's results. Furthermore, when the frequency of pornography use is added as a moderator, does the strength of the relationship between characterological, behavioral, and bodily experiences of shame to perceived addiction to pornography increase for both men and women? Conditional process analysis can be used as moderation where "the effect of X on some variable Y is moderated by W if its size, sign, or strength depends on or can be predicted by W," at which point "W is said to be a moderator of X's effect on Y, or that W and X interact in their influence on Y" (Hayes, 2018, p.220).

Summary

Both shame and perceived addiction to pornography have been investigated empirically for years (shame for decades). Many of these studies have looked into the relationship of shame-proneness to perceived addiction as well as moral disapproval and its implications addressing individuals who believe they are addicted to pornography because of the distress caused by its use. Very few studies address how experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame may drive a person's belief that they are addicted to pornography and the relationship these variables have with their actual use. This study also takes the time to look at how men and women who struggle with various experiences of shame and perceived addiction to pornography may differ or reveal similarities. All of these areas of inquiry may be helpful in a clinical or therapeutic setting when working with clients who are extremely distressed by what they perceive as an inability to stop using pornography.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

The purpose of this study was to assess the relationships between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography. Furthermore, the study investigated whether individuals who use pornography more in high shame states experience a stronger correlation to their belief that they are addicted to pornography. This study also investigated gender differences or similarities in the above two relationships. The participants for this study consisted of a total of 627 individuals (355 men, 272 women) who reported viewing pornography within the past six months. However, the study only investigated use within the past month. Participants answered demographic questions as well as how much pornography they viewed within the past month. They also responded to measures that reported on their experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography. Chapter Four will address the findings from the SPSS tests run, which included Pearson's r correlation on characterological, behavioral, and bodily experiences of shame (ESS) to perceived addiction to pornography (CPUI-4), and the frequency of use within the past month.

Following the correlation study, a total of 9 Process Macro Moderation models were performed. First, three PROCESS Macro Model 1's (Hayes, 2018) investigated the relationship between characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame (X) to perceived addiction to pornography (Y). Gender was the moderator to separate the men's and the women's results while controlling for frequency of use and shame-proneness. Second, three PROCESS Macro Model 1's (Hayes, 2018) looked at the relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame (ESS) (X), to perceived addiction to pornography (CPUI-4) (Y),

and frequency of use within the past month as the moderator (W), controlling for shame-proneness. Finally, three PROCESS Macro Model 2's (Hayes, 2018) were run with ESS (X)-broken down into characterological, behavioral, and bodily experiences of shame to perceived addiction to pornography (CPUI-4) (Y), with both frequency of use in the past month (W) and gender (Z) as moderators, controlling for shame-proneness.

This section will also include a description of participant demographic and descriptive statistics of the results and an interpretation of this study's data analysis. Some of the models will bring insight into gender differences or similarities with regard to the relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography. Also, what effect high pornography use may exhibit during high shame encounters and that relationship to the individual's idea of being addicted to pornography. The research questions will be addressed in light of the statistical findings recorded. Finally, the overall findings as presented through the data output will be presented with detailed discussion.

Data Screening

Data from this study were drawn from a sizeable archived data set collected in the fall of 2013. Participants for this study were recruited and data collected through Mechanical Turk (M-Turk). Histograms were run to assess normal distribution on all variables, and some histograms did reveal non-normal distribution. However, no data was deleted as the skewness was in the anticipated direction. All participants with missing or invalid answers were removed by listwise. All outliers were identified through descriptive and z-scores, which were also used to identify any skewness and kurtosis, and removed. Any individual who answered the questions rapidly were also removed as well as those who did not answer "yes" to the catch questions included in the survey. Participants who registered their gender as "other" were excluded from

the analysis. Of the original 1517 participants, this study will be using a total 627 participants (355 men and 272 women) as determined by the following criteria: Internet pornography viewing within the past six months.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were run for each measure used which includes the minimum score, maximum score, mean, and standard deviation. Results are displayed below in Table 4.4.

Table 4.1

Descriptive Statistics for Study Measures by Gender

Measure	<i>N</i>	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Male	355					
CPUI-4		6.00	1.00	7.00	2.9474	1.62429
ESS-characterological		3.00	1.00	4.00	2.2455	.78985
ESS-behavioral		3.00	1.00	4.00	2.4344	.75278
ESS-bodily		3.00	1.00	4.00	2.3697	.87944
TOSCA-S		41.00	13.00	54.00	34.6423	7.91472
Female	272					
CPUI-4		4.50	1.00	5.50	1.8364	1.30540
ESS-characterological		3.00	1.00	4.00	2.3128	.83217
ESS-behavioral		3.00	1.00	4.00	2.6777	.78939
ESS-bodily		3.00	1.00	4.00	2.8061	.93286
TOSCA-S		40.00	13.00	53.00	37.2794	7.56540

Participant Demographics

Participants were between the ages of 19 and 70 for men and 19 and 75 for women. The mean age for men was 34.73 and for women 33.53. For the men, 238 (67.0%) identified as White/Caucasian, 53 (14.9%) as African American/Black, 5 (1.4%) as American Indian/Alaska Native, 30 (8.5%) Asian, 1 (0.3%) as Native Hawaiian/ or other Pacific Islander, 25 (7.0%) as Hispanic, Latino, or of Spanish Origin, and 3 (0.8%) as other. For the women, 188 (69.1%) identified as White/Caucasian, 39 (14.3%) as African American/Black, 20 (7.4%) as Asian, 2 (0.7%) as Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander, 16 (5.9%) as Hispanic, Latino or of Spanish Origin, and 6 (2.2%) as other.

Table 4.2

Participants Demographic: Age and Race

	<i>N</i> or Range	%
Age by Gender		
Male	19-70	34.73
Female	19-75	33.53
Race by Gender		
Male		
White/Caucasian	238	67.0
African American/Black	53	14.9
American Indian/Alaska Native	5	1.4
Asian	30	8.5
Native Hawaiian/ or Other Pacific Islander	1	0.3

Hispanic, Latino or of Spanish Origin	25	7.0
Other	3	0.8
Female		
White/Caucasian	188	69.1
African American/Black	39	14.3
American Indian/Alaska Native	1	0.4
Asian	20	7.4
Native Hawaiian/ or Other Pacific Islander	2	0.7
Hispanic, Latino or of Spanish Origin	16	5.9
Other	6	2.2

With regard to education, of the male participants, 3 (0.8%) had less than a high school education, 37 (10.4%) received their high school diploma or equivalent (e.g., GED), 12 (3.4%) were college freshman, 30 (8.5%) were college sophomores, 8 (2.3%) were college juniors, 11 (3.1%) were college seniors, 17 (4.8%) received trade/technical/vocational training, 178 (50.1%) earned a Bachelor's degree, 45 (12.7%) earned a Master's degree, 9 (2.5%) earned a Professional degree and 5 (1.4%) earned a Doctorate degree. For the women, 44 (16.2%) earned a high school diploma or GED, 11 (4.0%) were college freshman, 24 (8.8%) were college sophomores, 16 (5.9%) were college juniors, 4 (1.5%) were college seniors, 20 (7.4%) received trade/technical/vocational training, 114 (41.9%) received their Bachelor's degree, 33 (12.1%) received their Master's degree, 3 (1.1%) received a Professional degree, and 3 (1.1%) received a Doctorate degree.

Regarding employment for the men, 269 (75.8%) were employed for wages, 49 (13.8%)

were self-employed, 10 (2.8%) were not employed, 3 (0.8%) were homemakers, 15 (4.2%) were students, 4 (1.1%) were military, 4 (1.1%) were retired, and 1 (0.3%) were unable to work.

Women's employment status revealed 182 (66.9%) were employed for wages, 37 (13.6%) were self-employed, 11 (4.0%) were not employed, 27 (9.9%) were homemakers, 11 (4.0%) were students, 2 (0.7%) were retired, and 2 (0.7%) were unable to work. Annual income, distributed by gender, for men: 20 (5.6%) earned less than \$10,000, 24 (6.8%) earned between \$10,000-\$19,999, 28 (7.9%) earned between \$20,000-\$29,999, 54 (15.2%) earned between \$30,000-\$39,000, 52 (14.6%) earned between 40,000-\$49,000, 46 (13.0%) earned between \$50,000-\$59,000, 25 (7.0%) earned between \$60,000-\$69,999, 57 (16.1%) earned between \$70,000-\$99,000, and 49 (13.8%) earned over \$100,000. Annual income for women was recorded as 6 (2.2%) earned less than \$10,000, 18 (6.6%) earned between \$10,000-\$19,999, 24 (8.8%) earned between \$20,000-\$29,999, 35 (12.9%) earned between \$30,000-\$39,000, 51 (18.8%) earned between 40,000-\$49,000, 31 (11.4%) earned between \$50,000-\$59,000, 27 (9.9%) earned between \$60,000-\$69,999, 47 (17.3%) earned between \$70,000-\$99,000, and 33 (12.1%) earned over \$100,000.

Table 4.3

Participants Demographic: Education, Employment and Income

	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>
Education by Gender		
Males		
Less than high school	3	0.8
High school diploma or equivalent (e.g., GED)	37	10.4
College freshman	12	3.4

College sophomores	30	8.5
College Juniors	8	2.3
College Seniors	11	3.1
Trade/technical/vocational training	17	4.8
Bachelor's degree	178	50.1
Master's degree	45	12.7
Professional degree	9	2.5
Doctorate degree	5	1.4
Females		
High school diploma or equivalent (e.g., GED)	44	16.2
College freshman	11	4.0
College sophomores	24	8.8
College Juniors	16	5.9
College Seniors	4	1.5
Trade/technical/vocational training	20	7.4
Bachelor's degree	114	41.09
Master's degree	33	12.1
Professional degree	3	1.1
Doctorate degree	3	1.1
<hr/>		
Employment by Gender		
Males		
Employed for Wages	269	75.8
Self-employed	49	13.8
Not-employed	10	2.8
Homemakers	3	0.8

Students	15	4.2
Military	4	1.1
Retired	4	1.1
Unable to work	1	0.3
Females		
Employed for Wages	182	66.9
Self-employed	37	13.6
Not-employed	11	4.0
Homemakers	27	9.9
Students	11	4.0
Retired	2	0.7
Unable to work	2	0.7
<hr/>		
Annual Income		
Males		
Under \$10,000	20	5.6
\$10,000-\$19,999	24	6.8
\$20,000-\$29,999	28	7.9
\$30,000-\$39,000	54	15.2
\$40,000-\$49,000	52	14.6
\$50,000-\$59,000	46	13.0
\$60,000-\$69,999	25	7.0
\$70,000-\$99,000	57	16.1
Over \$100,000	49	13.8
Females		
Under \$10,000	6	2.2

\$10,000-\$19,999	18	6.6
\$20,000-\$29,999	24	8.8
\$30,000-\$39,000	35	12.9
\$40,000-\$49,000	51	18.8
\$50,000-\$59,000	31	11.4
\$60,000-\$69,999	27	9.9
\$70,000-\$99,000	47	17.3
Over \$100,000	33	12.1

Of the total 627 participants, 355 (56.6%) identified as male, 272 (43.4%) as female; 3 participants identified as other (0.6%) but were removed from the data set through select cases. Looking at online pornography viewing within the past month out of the total sample of men, 22 (6.2%) did not use at all, 57 (16.1%) used 1-3 times, 91 (25.6%) used 4-6 times, 64 (18.0%) used 7-9 times, and 121 (34.1%) used ten or more times. For the women's pornography use in the past month, 56 (20.6%) did not use at all, 115 (42.3%) used 1-3 times, 48 (17.6%) used 4-6 times, 25 (9.2%) used 7-9 times, and 28 (10.3%) used ten or more times.

Table 4.4

Participants Demographics: Gender and Frequency of Pornography Use in the Past Month

	<i>N</i>	<i>% or M</i>
Gender		
Males	355	56.6
Females	272	43.4

Pornography use in Past Month by Gender

Males

0 Times	22	6.2
1-3 Times	57	16.1
4-6 Times	91	25.6
7-9 Times	64	18.0
10 or More Times	121	34.1

Females

0 Times	56	20.6
1-3 Times	115	42.3
4-6 Times	48	17.6
7-9 Times	25	9.2
10 or More Times	28	10.3

Results

Data analysis was run using IBM SPSS Statistics Version 28 and Hayes (2018) Version 4.0 PROCESS macro. The initial tests run were bivariate correlations between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame with perceived addiction to pornography and frequency of pornography use within the past month. Three separate moderation models were run three times each for characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame. The remainder of this chapter will be focused on investigating the results from these models. The first hypothesis

addressing research questions 1-3 for Conceptual Model 1, was that at higher levels of experiences of shame, individuals who have viewed pornography within the past month will have a stronger belief that they are addicted to IP (controlling for shame-proneness).

Correlations

Experiences of Characterological Shame and Perceived Addiction to Pornography

Pearson r correlations were performed to reveal any relationship between each subscale of experiences of shame to perceived addiction to pornography, which addresses the first research question and subsequent questions for characterological, behavioral, and bodily experiences of shame (see Table 4.6 for all Pearson correlations and significance levels). The relationship between characterological experiences of shame and perceived addiction to pornography for men were significant ($r = .596, p < 0.01$), suggesting a strong relationship between these variables. For women the outcome was also significant and moderately robust ($r = .312, p < 0.01$); however, it was not as strong for the women as the men. Hypothesis H1 was supported in this correlation. Results are presented in Table 4.5.

Experiences of Behavioral Shame and Perceived Addiction to Pornography

For experiences of behavioral shame to perceived addiction to pornography for men there was also a significant result ($r = .470, p < 0.01$) demonstrating another strong correlation, but not as strong as characterological shame. For women experiences of behavioral shame to perceived addiction to pornography was also significant ($r = .138, p < 0.05$); however, the strength of this relationship was much less when compared to the men as well as experiences of characterological shame. Hypothesis H2 was supported in this correlation. Results are presented in Table 4.5.

Experiences of Bodily Shame and Perceived Addiction to Pornography.

When looking at experiences of bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography, the men's result was again significant ($r = .409, p < 0.01$), although bodily shame was lower than both characterological and behavioral shame. For women and experiences of bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography the outcome was not significant ($r = .071, p > 0.05$) revealing no correlation between these two variables for women. Hypothesis H3 was only supported for the men and not the women. Results are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

Pearson's r Correlations for All Variables

Note: Males on Top Portion; Females on Bottom Portion

	1	2	3	4	5	6
ESS-C (1)	1	.823**	.699**	.506**	.596**	.180**
ESS-BEH (2)	.795**	1	.691**	.540**	.470**	.174**
ESS-BOD (3)	.653**	.759**	1	.485**	.409**	.118*
TOSCA-S(4)	.373**	.465**	.456**	1	.325**	.079
CPUI-4 (5)	.312**	.138*	.071	.048	1	.244**
FreUse-M (6)	.206**	.175**	.121*	.014	.362**	1
Mean by Gender						
Male	2.2455	2.4344	2.3697	34.6423	2.9474	2.53
Female	2.3128	2.6777	2.8061	37.2794	1.8364	1.68

SD by Gender						
Male	.78985	.75278	.87944	7.91472	1.62429	1.187
Female	.83217	.78939	.93286	7.56540	1.30540	.928

Cronbach's <i>a</i> by Gender						
Male	.947	.913	.865	.788	.779	NA
Female	.947	.923	.907	.783	.822	NA

*Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed). **Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Moderation Models

Testing Model One

The correlation studies looked at the direct relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography for both men and women. To view this relationship through a moderation model using gender as the moderator and controlling for shame-proneness and frequency of use, data analysis was run through a PROCESS Macro 4.0 Model 1 (Hayes, 2018), investigating the output of the above relationship for men and women. This addresses research questions RQ4-RQ9 dealing with whether characterological, behavioral, and bodily experiences of shame demonstrate predictability of perceived addiction in both the men as well as the women. For this model frequency of pornography use for men and women was controlled for and is not reflected in the outcome results in terms of effects on the relationship between experiences of shame and perceived addiction to pornography.

A total of three Model 1 regression analyses were run using gender as the moderator

between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily experiences of shame. A visual representation of this theoretical model is shown in Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.2, illustrating the statistical model. The gender variable and each subscale of experiences of shame were mean centered and 5000 bootstrap samples were conducted. These Model 1 regressions investigated whether the results for men varied from women on the relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness and frequency of pornography use. A visual representation of the conditional results may be viewed by looking at the Simple Slope graph in Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.1

Hypothesized Theoretical Model One

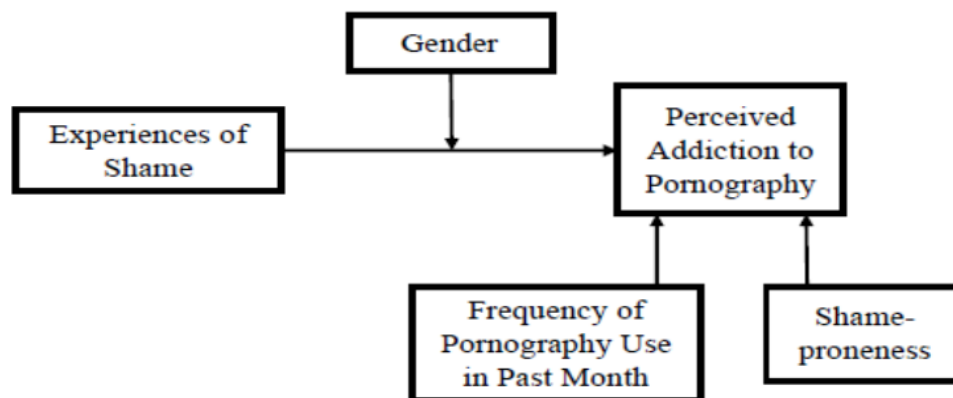
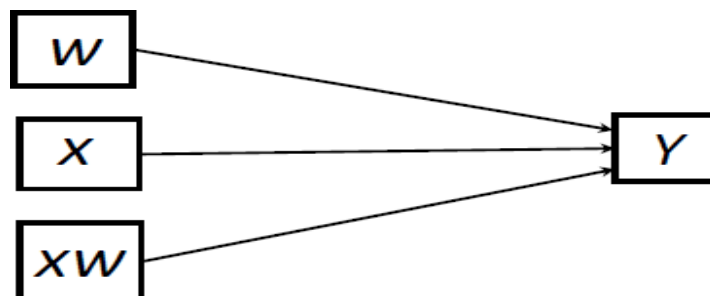


Figure 4.2

Hypothesized Statistical Model One



Experiences of Characterological Shame. The overall Model 1 was statistically significant, $F(5, 621) = 90.158, p < .001, R^2 = .393$. For the predictor experiences of characterological shame, it was a statistically significant strong predictor of perceived addiction to pornography, $b_1 = .839, t(621) = 12.882, p < .001$. For every one unit increase of characterological shame there was an .839 unit increase in perceived addiction to pornography. Gender was also a statistically significant predictor of perceived addiction to pornography, $b_2 = -.887, t(621) = -7.677, p < .001$. For both men and women, the higher their experiences of characterological shame encounters, the stronger their belief or perception was that they were addicted to their pornography use, irrespective of the amount of pornography they had viewed in the last month. The overall summary of this Model 1 using gender as the moderator can be seen for the characterological experiences of shame results in Table 4.6. The conditional effects of the focal predictors, male and female, for characterological shame are represented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.6

Process Models Results for Model One ESS-C

Source	<i>b</i>	<i>Se(HC4)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>UCLI</i>
Constant	1.762	.279	6.308**	1.213	2.310
ESS-C	.839	.065	12.882**	.711	.967
Gender	-.887	.116	-7.677**	-1.114	-.660
ESS-C x Gender	-.741	.121	-6.136**	-.978	-.504
TOSCASHA	-.001	.007	-.148	-.015	.012
Freq Use1	.243	.043	5.712	.160	.327

Note. * $p < .01$. ** $p < .001$

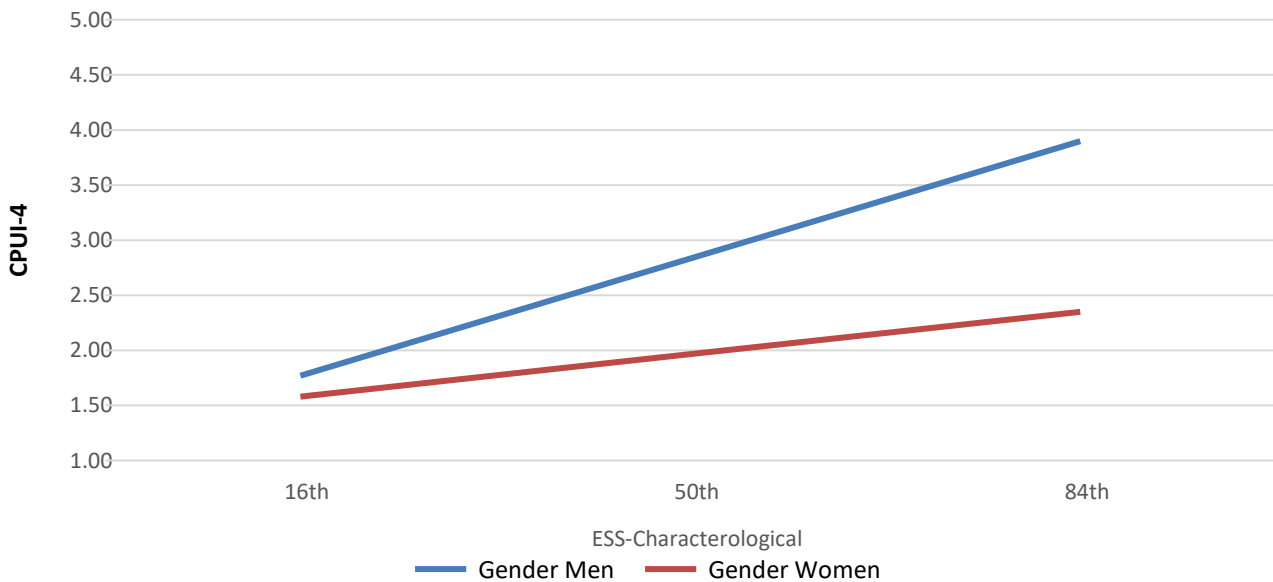
Table 4.7*The Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderator ESS-C*

Gender	<i>Effect</i>	<i>se (HC4)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Males	1.161	.092	12.607	< .001	.980	1.342
Females	.420	.084	5.022	<.001	.255	.584

While it is evident that experiences of characterological shame appear to be predictive of perceived addiction, and that the stronger the experiences of characterological shame are the greater the perception that the individual is addicted to pornography, the results demonstrate that this relationship is much stronger for men ($b_3 = 1.161$) than women ($b_3 = .420$). Hypotheses H4 and H5 revealed significant results: in both men and women who have viewed pornography within the past month experiences of characterological shame is predictive of perceived addiction to pornography irrespective of how much pornography they watched. As noted when looking at the Simple Slope graph, the correlation was much stronger for men than for women. As the men's experiences of characterological shame increased their perception that they were addicted to IP is much stronger than for the women at the same levels of experiences of characterological shame.

Figure 4.3

Main Effects of Experiences of Characterological Shame and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography



Experiences of Behavioral Shame. The overall outcome for this Model 1 investigating experiences of behavioral shame was statistically significant, $F(5, 621) = 51.126, p < .001, R^2 = .305$. The predictor experiences of behavioral shame was a statistically significant predictor of perceived addiction to pornography, $b_1 = .531, t(621) = 6.454, p < .001$, for the men only, and was not as strong as characterological shame. There was no correlation between experiences of behavioral shame to perceived addiction for the women. The visual Simple Slope graph depicting the conditional effects of experiences of behavioral shame for the men and women can be seen in Figure 4.4. The overall summary of this model using gender as the moderator between behavioral experiences of shame and perceived addiction to pornography can be viewed in Table 4.8. The conditional effects of the focal predictors, male and female, for behavioral shame can be seen in Table 4.9.

Table 4.8*Process Models Results for Model One ESS-BEH*

Source	<i>b</i>	<i>Se(HC4)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Constant	1.199	.328	3.661**	.556	1.843
ESS-BEH	.531	.082	6.454**	.370	.693
Gender	-.933	.126	-7.398**	-1.180	-.685
ESS-BEH x Gender	-.764	.132	-5.771**	-1.024	-.504
TOSCASHA	.012	.008	1.485	-.004	.028
Fre_Use1	.283	.045	6.256	.194	.371

Note. * $p < .01$. ** $p < .001$ **Table 4.9***The Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderator ESS-BEH*

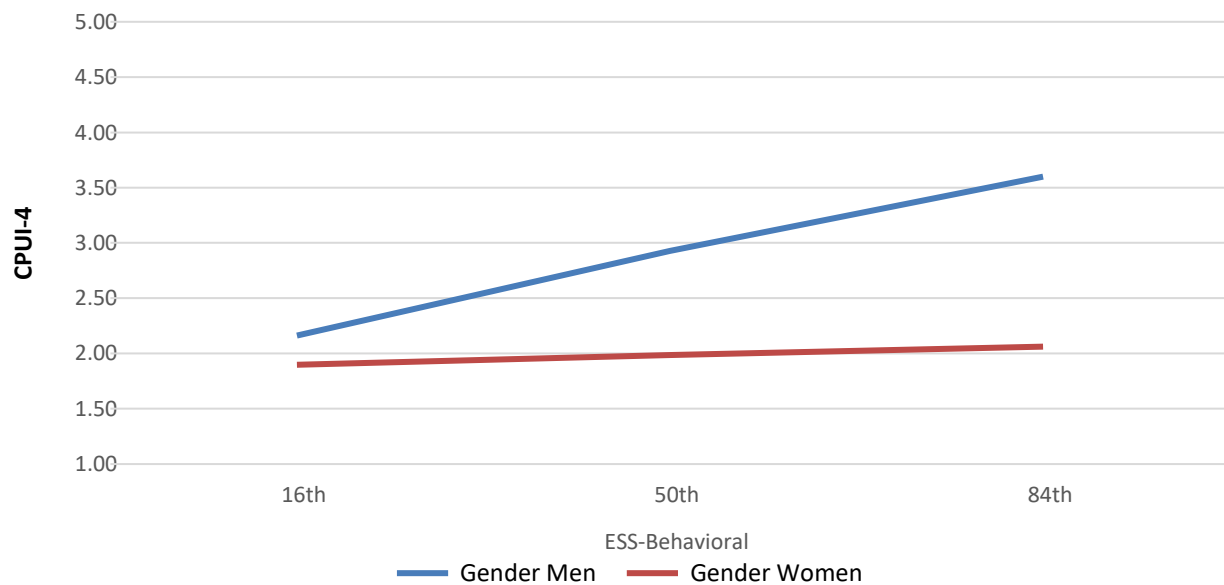
Gender	<i>Effect</i>	<i>se (HC4)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Males	.863	.120	7.204	<.001	.627	1.098
Females	.099	.083	Females	1.196	.232	-.063

Behavioral experiences of shame in men also appear to be predictive of perceived addiction to pornography, although not as strongly as characterological experiences of shame ($b_3 = .863$). For women, there is no relationship between experiences of behavioral shame and perceived addiction to pornography. When looking at individual gender, for men the more they

experience behavioral shame their belief they were addicted to pornography strengthens, no matter how much they viewed pornography in the past month. For women, there was no interaction effect because there was no statistical relationship between behavioral experiences of shame to perceived addiction to pornography.

Figure 4.4

Main Effects of Experiences of Behavioral Shame and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography



Experiences of Bodily Shame. The summary for model 1 looking at experiences of bodily shame was statistically significant, $F(621) = 46.000, p < .001, R^2 = .285$. The visual Simple Slope graph of this model's interaction can be seen in Figure 4.5. The predictor experiences of bodily shame was a statistically significant predictor of perceived addiction to pornography, $b_1 = .813, t(621) = 2.585, p < .05$; however, once again this was only true for the men. While the results were significant, bodily experiences of shame appear to be a much weaker association than experiences of both characterological and behavioral shame for the men.

For women, there was no correlation between experiences of bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography. Hypothesis H8 was supported in this model. At higher levels of experiences of bodily shame, the men's belief that they were addicted to pornography increased. The summary of this Model 1 using gender as the moderator between bodily experiences of shame and perceived addiction to pornography can be viewed in Table 4.10. The conditional effects of the focal predictors, male and female, for bodily shame can be viewed in Table 4.11.

Table 4.10

Process Models Results for Model Three ESS-BOD

Source	<i>b</i>	<i>Se(HC4)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Constant	.813	.314	2.585*	.195	1.431
ESS-BOD	.332	.067	4.955**	.200	.463
Gender	-.932	.131	-7.099**	-1.190	-.674
ESS-BOD x Gender	-.637	.113	-5.661**	-.858	-.416
TOSCASHA	.021	.008	2.682*	.006	.037
Fre_Use1	.308	.046	6.758**	.219	.398

Note. * $p < .01$. ** $p < .001$

Table 4.11

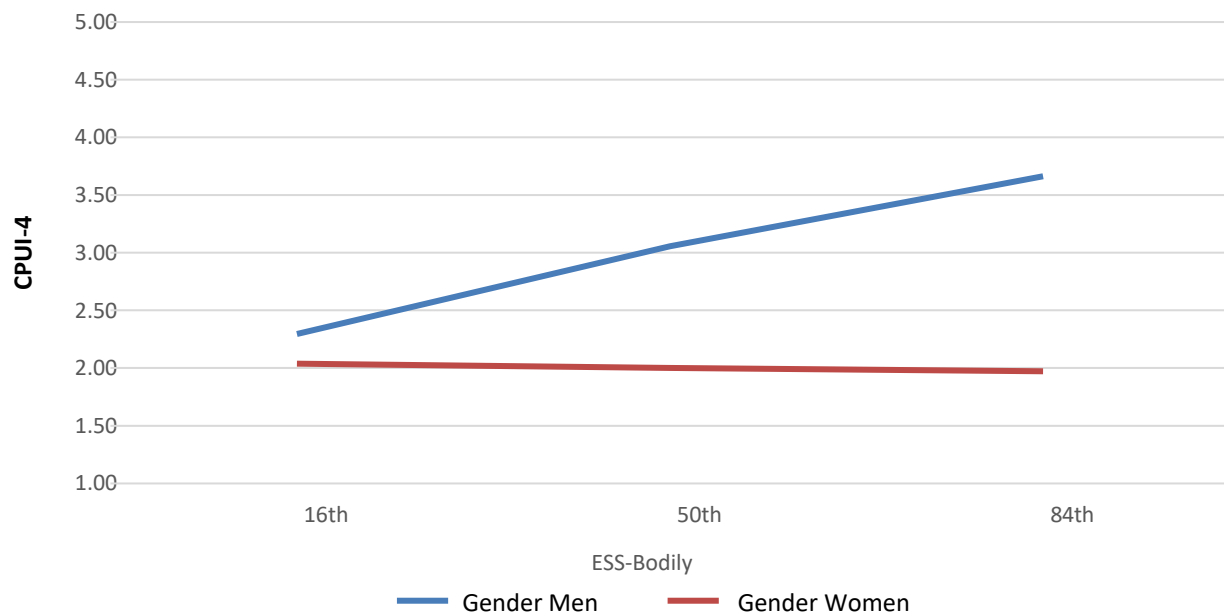
The Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderator ESS-BOD

Gender	<i>Effect</i>	<i>se (HC4)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Males	.608	.101	6.039	<.001	.410	.806
Females	-.029	.065	-.444	.657	-.157	.099

There was a moderate association between bodily experiences of shame and perceived addiction to pornography for men, although the effect ($b_3 = .608, p < .001$) was not nearly as strong as both characterological and behavioral shame experiences. Looking at the Simple Slope graph for men, the relationship between experiences of bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography is fairly strong (although not as strong as behavioral and characterological). For women there was no association between their experiences of bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography. The women's slope indicates no correlation between experiences of bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography and no interaction effect. The covariate, shame-proneness, did demonstrate a significant result at $p < .01$, unlike characterological and behavioral shame, which were not statistically significant.

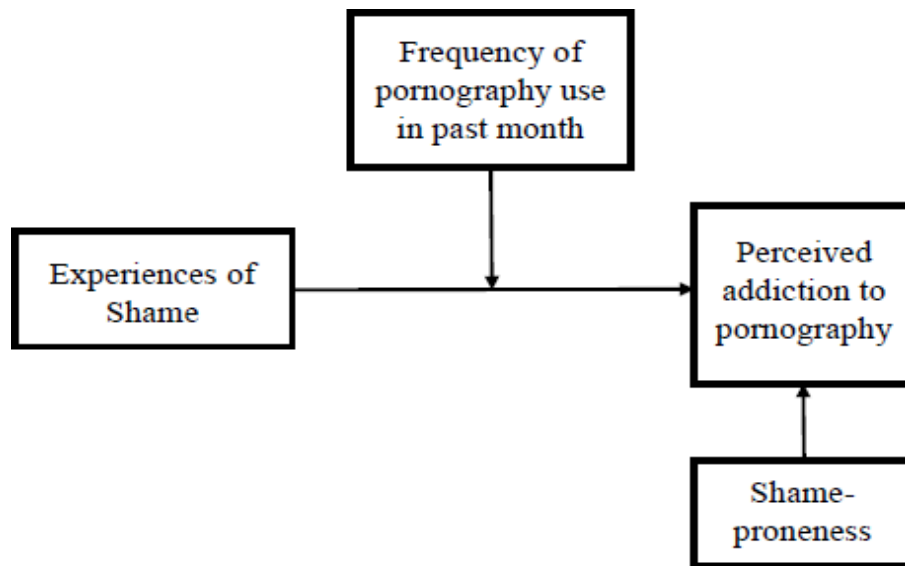
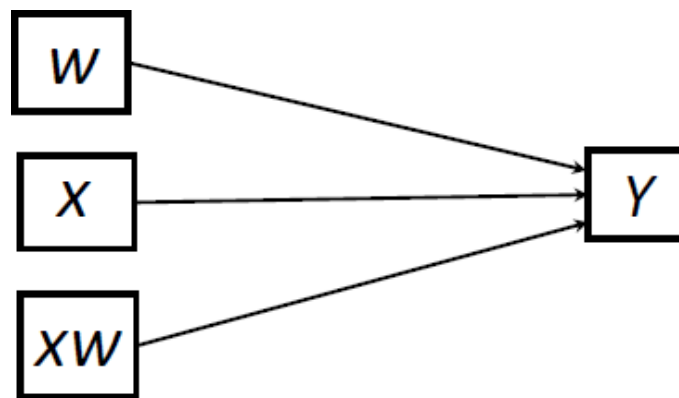
Figure 4.5

Main Effects of Experiences of Bodily Shame and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography



Testing Model 2

For further investigation into the relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame in individuals (men and women combined), frequency of pornography use within the past month was applied as a moderator. Three levels of use were investigated: 1-3 times a month (low), 4-6 times a month (medium), and ten or more times per month (high). The research questions addressing this inquiry were RQ10, RQ11 and RQ12: Do individuals who use pornography at greater frequency within the past month in high characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame states have a stronger perception that they are addicted to pornography? The data analyses processes were run through Hayes (2018) PROCESS Macro 4.0. Three Model 1 regression analyses were run using frequency of use within the past month as the moderator between characterological, behavioral, and bodily experiences of shame. Shame-proneness was applied as a covariate. A visual representation of this theoretical model is shown in Figure 4.6, and Figure 4.7 reveals the statistical model. The frequency of use variable and each subscale of experiences of shame were mean centered to help with result interpretations (Hayes, 2018); also 5000 bootstrap samples were conducted. The conditional effects of the focal predictor were investigated at three levels of pornography use: 1-3 times per month (low), 4-6 times per month (medium), and ten or more times per month (revealed by non-mean centered process runs). The first three Model 1 regressions looked at the moderating effect of frequency of IPU within the past month (genders combined) on the relationship of experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness .

Figure 4.6*Hypothesized Theoretical Model Two***Figure 4.7***Hypothesized Statistical Model Two*

Experiences of Characterological Shame. Overall, this model was statistically significant, $F(4, 622) = 72.127, p < .001, R^2 = .306$. The visual Simple Slope representation of this model's interaction can be seen in Figure 4.8. For the predictor experiences of characterological shame, it was a statistically significant predictor of perceived addiction to pornography, $b_1 = .773, t(622) = 10.537, p < .001$. For every one unit increase of

characterological shame there was a .773 unit increase in perceived addiction to pornography. Frequency of use within the past month was also a statistically significant predictor of perceived addiction to pornography, $b_2 = .381$, $t(622) = 9.552$, $p < .001$; however, it was not as strong a predictor as characterological shame. For every one unit increase in frequency of use (amount of pornography viewing with the past month) there was a .381 unit increase in perceived addiction to pornography. The interaction between characterological experiences of shame and frequency of use was also significant, $b_3 = .159$, $t(622) = 3.303$, $p = .001$. The overall model for experiences of characterological shame can be seen in table 4.12. To interpret the interactions for characterological experiences of shame the focus was to investigate the focal predictors at values of the moderator (Hayes, 2018). A summary of these effects can be seen in table 4.13.

Table 4.12

Process Models Results for Model Two ESS-C

Source	<i>b</i>	<i>Se(HC4)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>UCLI</i>
Constant	2.660	.268	9.935**	2.134	3.186
ESS-C	.773	.073	10.537**	.629	.917
Frequency of Use	.381	.040	9.552**	.302	.459
ESS-C x Frequency of Use	.159	.048	3.303*	.065	.254
TOSCASHA	-.006	.007	-.841	-.021	.008

Note. * $p < .01$. ** $p < .001$

Table 4.13

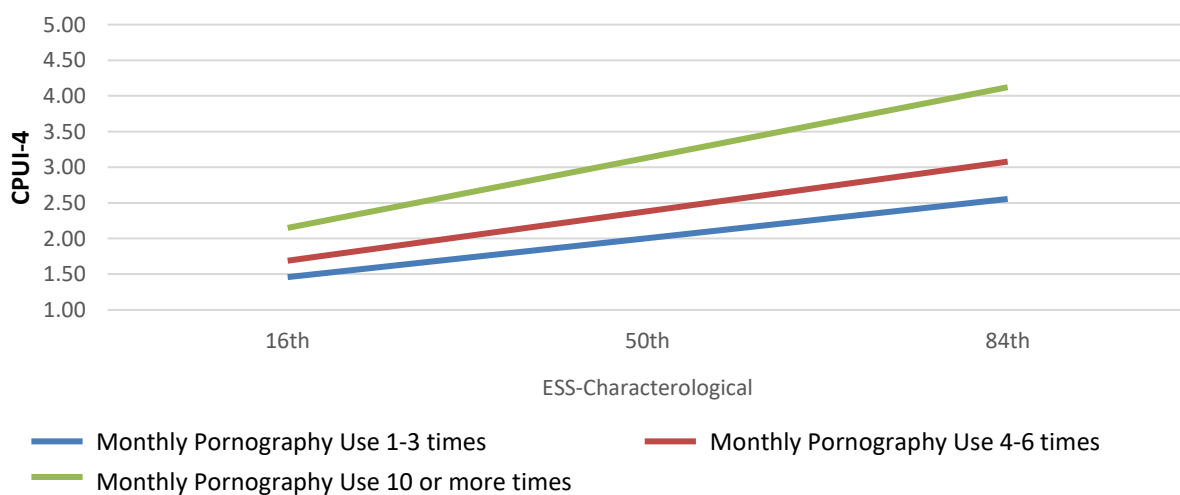
The Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderator ESS-C

Frequency of Use	<i>Effect</i>	<i>se (HC4)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
1-3 times per month	.598	.086	6.948	<.001	.429	.767
4-6 times per month	.758	.073	10.375	<.001	.614	.901
10 or more times	1.076	.123	8.751	<.001	.835	1.318

At all three levels of use (1-3 times per month, 4-6 times per month, and ten or more times per month) there were statistically significant results at $p < .001$. For individuals (men and women combined) who used pornography within the past month, experiences of characterological shame was seen as a predictor of perceived addiction to pornography at all three levels of use. This model does support hypothesis H10.

Figure 4.8

Main Effects of Experiences of Characterological Shame and Frequency of Pornography Use in the Past Month on Perceived Addiction to Pornography



Experiences of Behavioral Shame. The second run for this model was experiences of behavioral shame and overall, it demonstrated statistical significance, $F(4, 622) = 40.964, p < .001, R^2 = .211$. The visual Simple Slope representation of this model's interaction can be seen in Figure 4.9. When looking at the predictor experiences of behavioral shame, it was statistically significant, $b_1 = .398, t(622) = 4.737, p < .001$. For every one unit increase of behavioral shame there was a .398 increase in perceived addiction to pornography. The predictor frequency of pornography use in the past month was also significant, $b_2 = .433, t(622) = 10.630, p < .001$; in this model frequency of use was a stronger predictor than behavioral shame. For each one unit of increase in frequency of pornography use there was a .433 unit increase in perceived addiction to pornography. This interaction, while significant, was not as strong as characterological shame. The overall model results for experiences of behavioral shame can be seen in table 4.14. The results for the interactions of experiences of behavioral shame, perceived addiction to pornography, and frequency of pornography use can be viewed in table 4.15.

Table 4.14

Process Models Results for Model Two ESS-BEH

Source	<i>b</i>	<i>Se(HC4)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>UCLI</i>
Constant	2.072	.317	6.533**	1.449	2.695
ESS-BEH	.398	.084	4.737**	.233	.564
Frequency of Use	.433	.041	10.630**	.353	.513
ESS-BEH x Frequency of Use	.148	.054	2.710*	.041	.254
TOSCASHA	.011	.009	1.206	-.007	.028

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

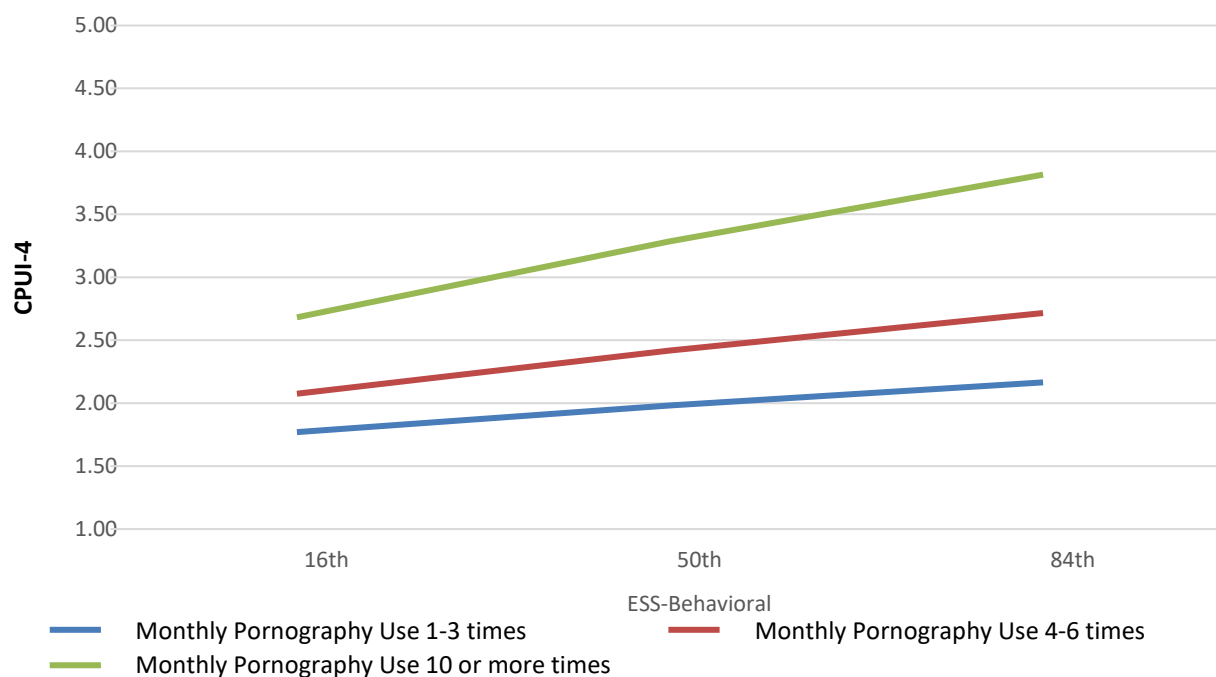
Table 4.15*The Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderator ESS-BEH*

Frequency of Use	<i>Effect</i>	<i>se (HC4)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCL</i>
1-3 times per month	.237	.084	2.828	.005	.072	.402
4-6 times per month	.385	.082	4.666	<.001	.223	.546
10 or more times	.680	.155	4.377	<.001	.375	.985

The interactions will be discussed by reviewing the focal predictors at values of the moderator (Hayes, 2018). While all three moderator values of pornography use (1-3 times per month; 4-6 times per month; ten or more times per month) were statistically significant, only 4-6 times and ten or more times were significant at $p < .001$; the lowest level of use was significant at $p < .01$. Similar to model 1, shame-proneness was again significant with only bodily shame at $p < .05$. This model does support Hypotheses H11 which surmised that the more individuals view pornography in the past month in states of behavioral shame their belief that they are addicted to IP will increase in strength.

Figure 4.9

Main Effects of Experiences of Behavioral Shame and Frequency of Pornography Use in the Past Month on Perceived Addiction to Pornography



Experiences of Bodily Shame. This final multiple regression model investigated the interactions between bodily shame, frequency of pornography use and perceived addiction to pornography. The overall results for bodily shame was also statistically significant, $F(4, 622) = 35.202, p < .001, R^2 = .197$. The visual Simple Slope representation of this model's interaction can be seen in Figure 4.10. The predictor variable experiences of bodily shame was statistically significant, $b_1 = .208, t(622) = 3.009, p < .01$. For each one unit of increase in bodily shame there is a .208 increase in perceived addiction to pornography. The predictor frequency of pornography use was also statistically significant, $b_2 = .457, t(622) = 11.026, p < .001$ and a similar result to behavioral shame, in that it was a stronger predictor of perceived addiction than bodily shame. The interaction was also significant, $b = .145, t(622) = 3.190, p = .001$, but only at the two highest levels of the moderator. This interaction while significant is not as strong as

characterological and behavioral shame. The PROCESS Macro results investigating experiences of bodily shame can be found in table 4.16. Interpretation of the conditional effects of frequency of use on the relationship of experiences of bodily shame to perceived addiction will be taken from the focal predictors at values of the moderator (Hayes, 2018). A summary of these effects can be viewed in table 4.17.

Table 4.16

Process Models Results for Model Two ESS-BOD

Source	<i>b</i>	<i>Se(HC4)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>UCLI</i>
Constant	1.762	.309	5.701**	1.155	2.368
ESS-BOD	.208	.069	3.009*	.072	.343
Frequency of Use	.457	.041	11.026**	.376	.539
ESS-BOD x Frequency of Use	.145	.045	3.190*	.056	.234
TOSCASHA	.020	.009	2.275*	.003	.037

Note. * $p < .01$. ** $p < .001$

Table 4.17

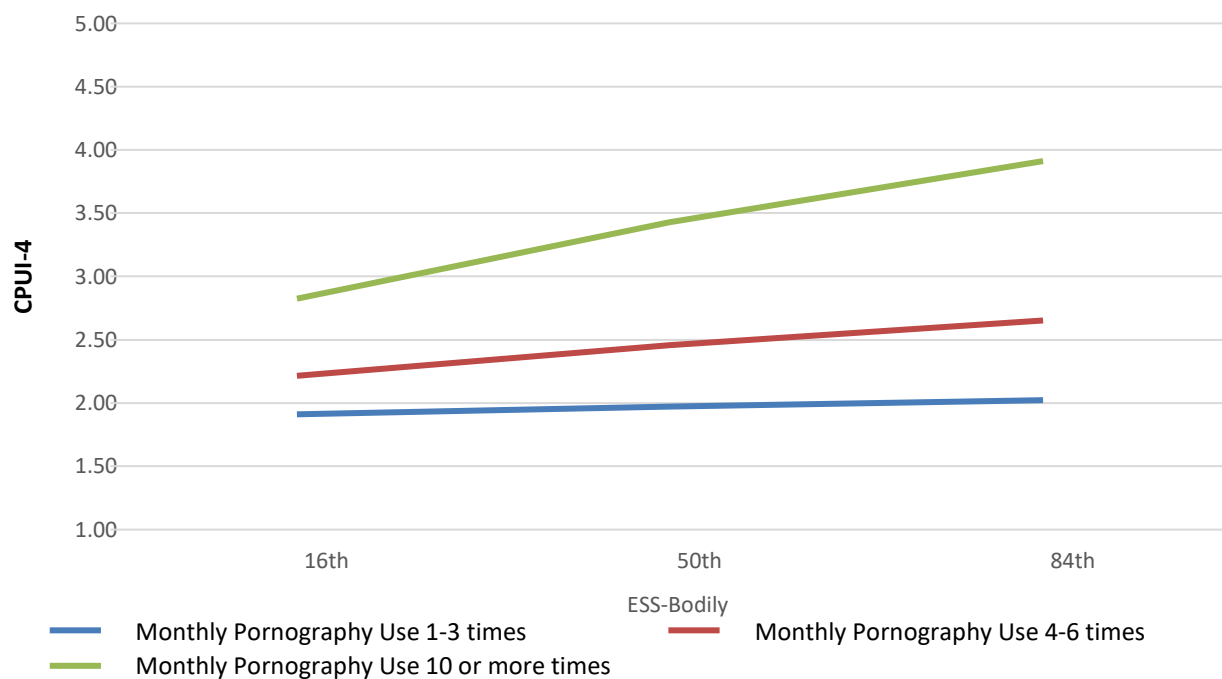
The Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderator ESS-BOD

Frequency of Use	<i>Effect</i>	<i>se (HC4)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
1-3 times per month	.050	.065	.761	.447	-.078	.177
4-6 times per month	.194	.067	2.885	.004	.062	.326
10 or more times	.483	.132	3.661	<.001	.224	.743

The only statistically significant interactions were at the middle and highest level of pornography use (4-6 times per month $p < .01$; ten or more times $p < .001$). For individuals who view pornography with high episodes of bodily shame, their concept of being addicted to pornography increases at the two highest levels of use: 4-6 times per month and ten or more times. Once again, as in model 1 while the covariate of shame-proneness demonstrated statistically insignificant results for characterological and behavioral shame, it was statistically significant for bodily shame at $p < .01$. This model does support hypotheses H12, but only at the two highest levels of the moderator.

Figure 4.10

Main Effects of Experiences of Bodily Shame and Frequency of Pornography Use in the Past Month on Perceived Addiction to Pornography



Testing Model 3

Research questions RQ13 through RQ18 were addressed by running a Hayes (2018)

PROCESS Macro Model 2 which uses two moderators. The main theoretical question being addressed is: are men and women who have high pornography use during high shame conditions more likely to believe they are addicted to pornography? This model was run three times to address characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame. Figure 4.11 demonstrates a visual Simple Slope representation of this theoretical model and Figure 4.12 shows the statistical model. Again, frequency of use and experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame scales were mean centered, and 5000 bootstraps were run. The conditional effects of the focal predictors were investigated at three levels of pornography use: 1-3 times per month (low), 4-6 times per month (medium), and 10 or more times per month (high) (revealed by non-mean centered process runs). The Model 2 regressions investigated the moderating effect of frequency of use within the past month, separating male and female results, on the relationship of experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography.

Figure 4.11

Hypothesized Theoretical Model Three

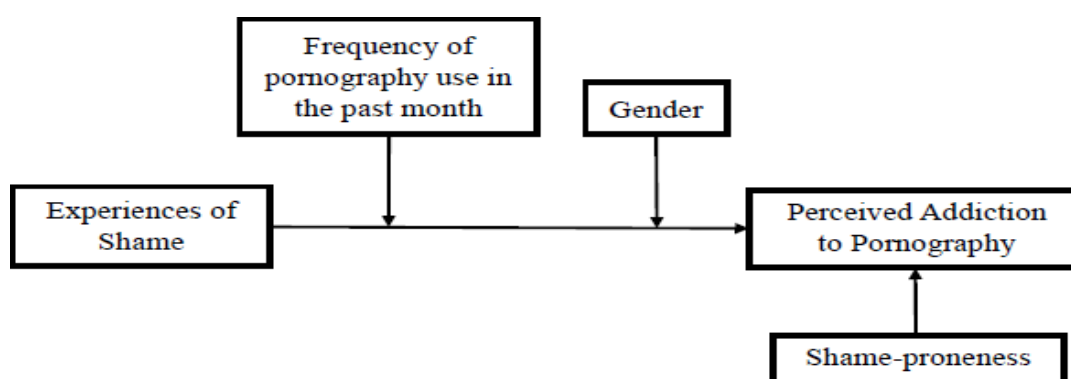
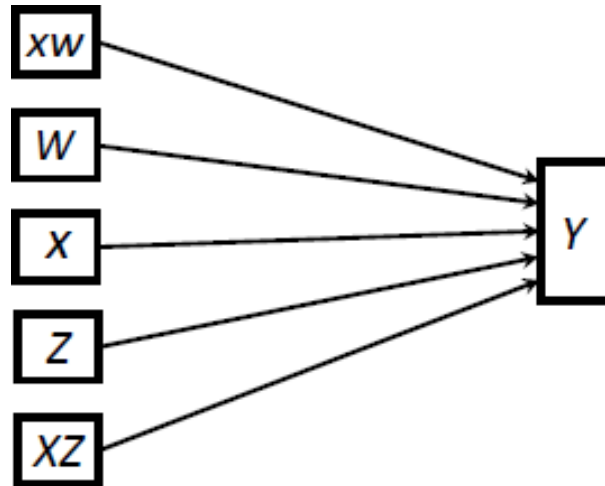


Figure 4.12*Hypothesized Statistical Model Three*

Experiences of Characterological Shame. Overall, this model was statistically significant, $F(6, 620) = 76.868, p < .001, R^2 = .393$. A visual Simple Slope representation of the overall interaction can be seen in Figure 4.13 for the men and 4.14 for the women. The predictor, experiences of characterological shame, was a strong predictor of perceived addiction to pornography, $b_1 = .835, t(620) = 12.885, p < .001$, for both men and women. For every one unit increase of characterological shame there was a .835 unit increase in perceived addiction to pornography. Pornography use within the past month was also a statistically significant predictor of perceived addiction to pornography, $b_2 = .244, t(620) = 5.648, p < .001$, but not as strong a predictor as experiences of characterological shame. A summary of this Model 2 output can be seen in Table 4.12. To interpret the interaction with these variables it is helpful to look at the conditional effects of the focal predictors at values of the moderator (Hayes, 2018). A summary of these effects can be seen in Table 4.18. The PROCESS Macro results may be viewed in Table 4.19.

Table 4.18*Process Models Results for Model Three ESS-C*

Source	<i>b</i>	<i>Se(HC4)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Constant	2.510	.251	9.993**	2.017	3.003
ESS-C	.835	.065	12.885*	.708	.963
Frequency of Use	.244	.043	5.648**	.159	.329
ESS-C x Frequency of Use	.039	.051	.776	-.060	.139
Gender	-.887	.116	-7.634**	-1.115	-.659
ESS-C x Gender	-.690	.146	-4.734**	-.976	-.404
TOSCASHA	-.001	.007	-.163	-.015	.012

Note: * $p < .01$. ** $p < .001$ **Table 4.19***The Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderator(s) ESS-C*

Frequency of Use	Gender	<i>Effect</i>	<i>se (HC4)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
1-3 times per month	M	1.091	.129	8.463	< .001	.838	1.345
	F	.401	.082	4.885	< .001	.240	.563
4-6 times per month	M	1.131	.100	11.277	<.001	.934	1.328
	F	.441	.093	4.752	< .001	.259	.623
10 or more times	M	1.210	.112	10.850	< .001	.991	1.429
	F	.520	.167	3.115	.002	.192	.848

Note: M = Males, F = Females

In looking at the men's results first, there was a significant outcome at all three levels of the moderator (pornography use within the past month [1-3 times, 4-6 times, and ten or more times]). As the use goes up for men the strength of the relationship between experiences of characterological shame and perceived addiction to pornography also increases. This was also true for women; however, the effect strength was much more robust in men than in the women. Overall, in this model, frequency of pornography use in the past month did have a moderating effect on the relationship between experiences of characterological shame and perceived addiction to pornography for both the men and women. As pornography use increased for men and women using it in characterological shame states, their self-perception that they were addicted to IP also increased at all three moderator levels. Hypotheses H13 and H14 were substantiated in this model.

Figure 4.13

Main Effects of Experiences of Characterological Shame, Frequency Pornography Use in the Past Month and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography for Men

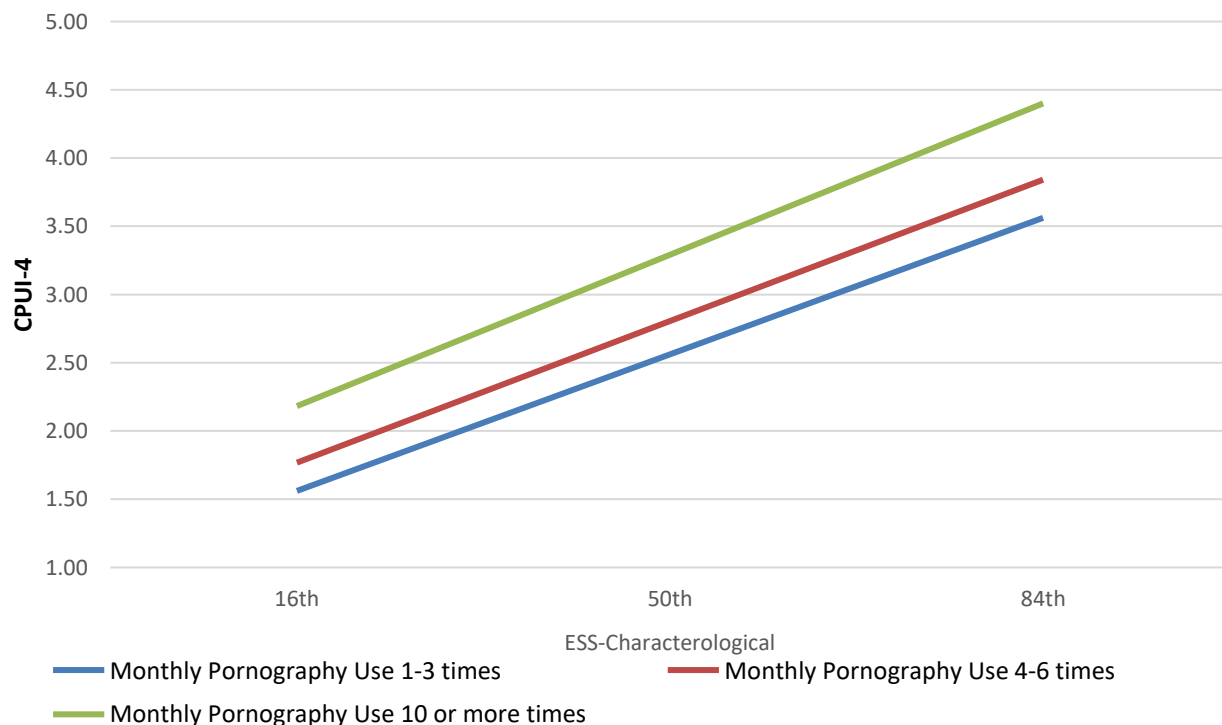
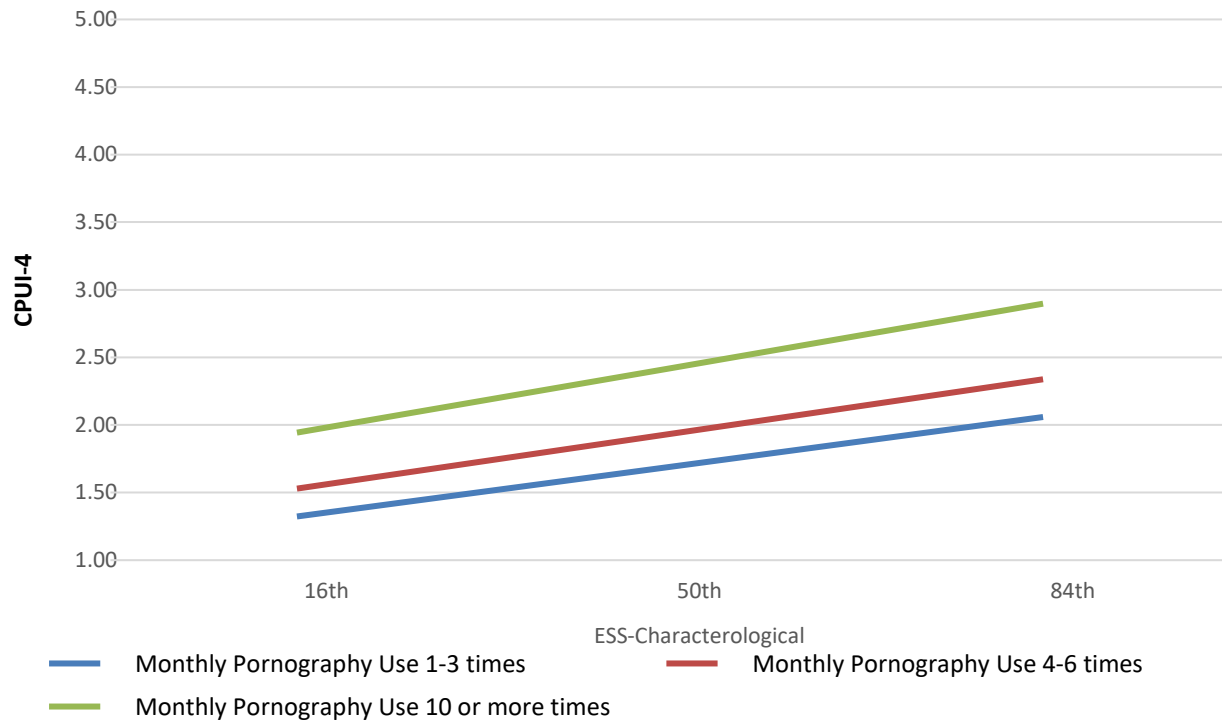


Figure 4.14

Main Effects of Experiences of Characterological Shame, Frequency Pornography Use in the Past Month and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography for Women



Experiences of Behavioral Shame. The second PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2018) run for this model investigated experiences of behavioral shame. Overall, this moderation model was also statistically significant, $F(620) = 43.809$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .305$, but only for the men. Experiences of behavioral shame was statistically significant, $b_1 = .529$, $t(620) = 6.466$, $p < .001$; so, for the men, for every one unit increase of behavioral shame there was a .529 increase in perceived addiction to pornography. While statistically significant, the effect size for experiences of behavioral shame was less than the effect size for experiences of characterological shame. Frequency of pornography use was also statistically significant, although not as strong a predictor as behavioral shame, $b_2 = .283$, $t(620) = 6.156$, $p < .001$; for each one unit of increase in use there was a .283 unit increase in perceived addiction to pornography. However, it was not as

strong a predictor as experiences of behavioral shame. While there was an interaction between experiences of behavioral shame to perceived addiction to pornography at all three levels of the moderator for the men, there was no interaction for the women for experiences of behavioral shame. To view the Simple Slope graph for the men, see Figure 4.15, and for the women Figure 4.16. The overall results for experiences of behavioral shame can be seen in Table 4.20. The interpretation of the moderator effect for behavioral shame will be discussed using the focal predictor at values of the moderator (Hayes, 2018). A summary of these effects can be seen in Table 4.21.

Table 4.20

Process Models Results for Model Three ESS-BEH

Source	<i>b</i>	<i>Se(HC4)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>UCLI</i>
Constant	2.068	.302	6.847**	1.475	2.661
ESS-BEH	.529	.082	6.466**	.369	.690
Frequency of Use	.283	.046	6.156**	.193	.374
ESS-BEH x Frequency of Use	.019	.057	.335	-.093	.132
Gender	-.932	.127	-7.332	-1.182	-.682
ESS-BEH x Gender	-.739	.158	-4.684**	-1.049	-.429
TOSCASHA	.012	.008	1.492	-.004	.028

Note: . *p < .01. **p < .001

Table 4.21*The Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderator(s) ESS-BEH*

Frequency of Use	Gender	<i>Effect</i>	<i>se (HC4)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
1-3 times per month	M	.829	.151	5.495	<.001	.533	1.125
	F	.090	.081	1.114	.266	-.068	.248
4-6 times per month	M	.848	.125	6.801	<.001	.603	1.093
	F	.109	.095	1.141	.254	-.079	.296
10 or more times	M	.887	.144	6.151	<.001	.604	1.170
	F	.147	.184	.799	.425	-.215	.590

Note: M = Males, F = Females

Frequency of use demonstrated a moderating effect with significance, at $p < .001$, at all levels of the moderator. So, men who used pornography more frequently during behavioral shame states felt a stronger sense of being addicted to their IPU. None of the women's results demonstrated statistical significance. Only Hypotheses H15 was supported at all three levels of pornography use in the past month. For men, the relationship of experiences of behavioral shame to perceived IP addiction became stronger at each level of the moderator (frequency of pornography use). The more pornography men viewed in high experiences of behavioral shame in the past month the stronger their perception was that they were addicted to IP.

Figure 4.15

Main Effects of Experiences of Behavioral Shame, Frequency of Pornography Use in the Past Month and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography for Men

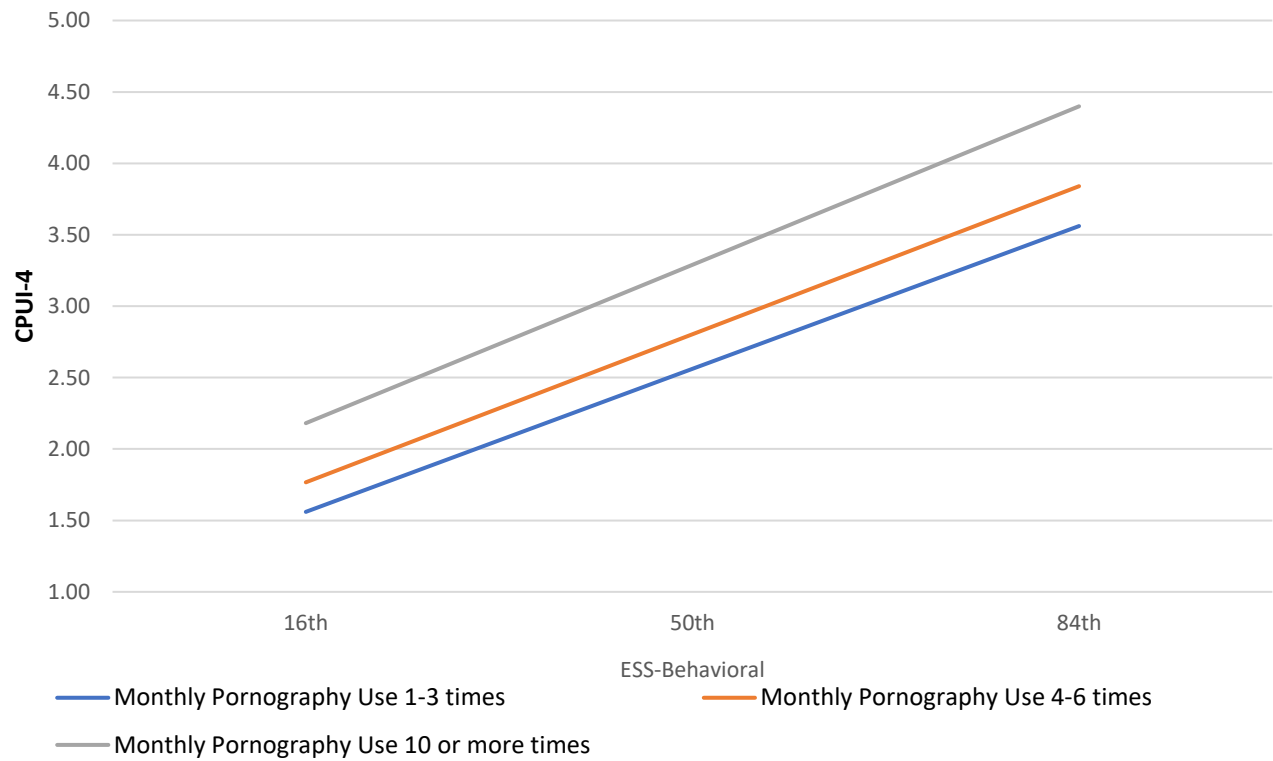
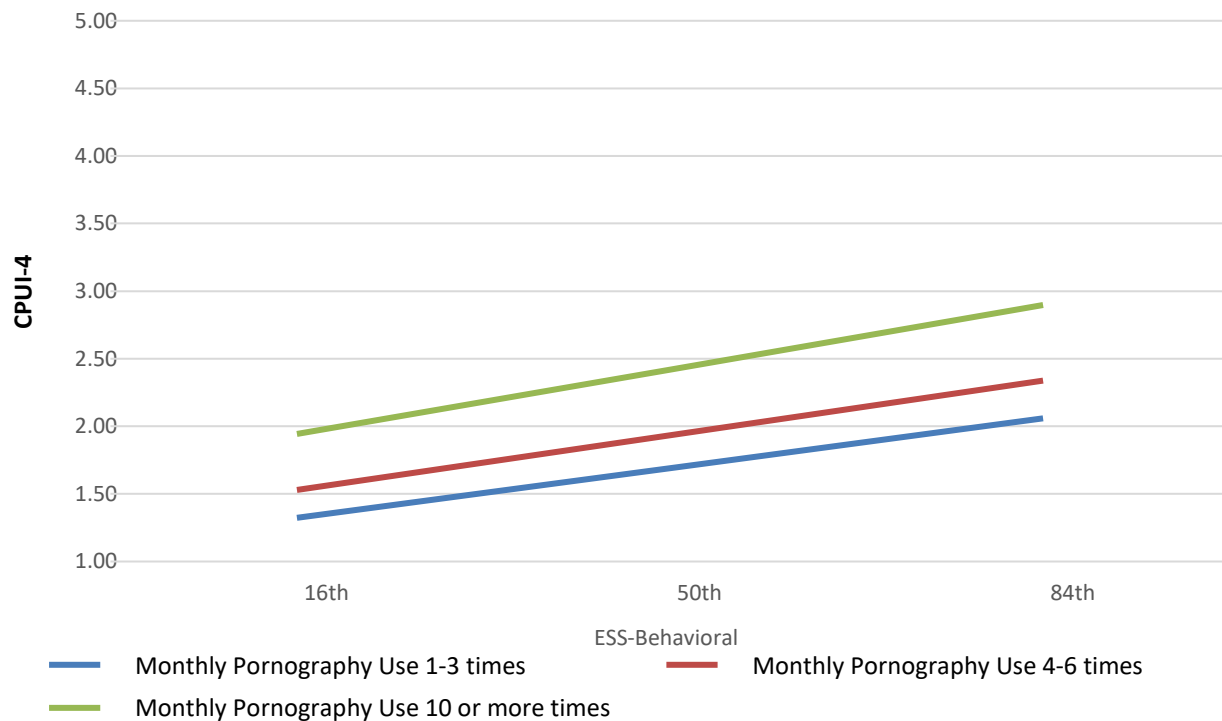


Figure 4.16

Main Effects of Experiences of Behavioral Shame, Frequency of Pornography Use in the Past Month and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography for Women



Experiences of Bodily Shame. The third Model 2 investigated the interactions between experiences of bodily shame, frequency of pornography use in the past month, gender and perceived addiction to pornography. The findings for the overall model were statistically significant, $F(620) = 38.275$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .287$, at all three moderator levels for the men only. The predictor variable of bodily shame was statistically significant, $b_1 = .332$, $t(620) = 4.957$, $p < .001$. The predictor variable of frequency of use was also statistically significant, $b_2 = .311$, $t(620) = 6.687$, $p < .001$; however, it was not as strong a predictor as bodily shame in the men. There was no interaction of bodily shame, perceived addiction to pornography, and frequency of use for the women. A summary of the overall model 3 investigating bodily shame experiences can be seen in table 4.22. The conditional effects of the focal predictors at values of the

moderator for bodily shame are displayed in table 4.23. For a visual Simple Slope representation see Figure 4.17 for the men and Figure 4.18 for the women.

Table 4.22

Process Models Results for Model Two ESS-BOD

Source	<i>b</i>	<i>Se(HC4)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Constant	1.759	.289	6.087**	1.191	2.326
ESS-BOD	.332	.067	4.957**	.201	.464
Frequency of Use	.311	.047	6.687**	.220	.403
ESS-BOD x Frequency of Use	.049	.048	1.039	-.044	.143
Gender	-.930	.132	-7.061**	-1.188	-.671
ESS-BOD x Gender	-.577	.130	-4.429**	-.832	-.321
TOSCASHA	.021	.008	2.690*	.006	.037

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

Table 4.23

The Conditional Effects of the Focal Predictor at Values of the Moderator ESS-BOD

Frequency of Use	Gender	<i>Effect</i>	<i>se (HC4)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LLCI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
1-3 times per month	M	.528	.121	4.376	<.001	.291	.766
	F	-.048	.064	-.754	.451	-.174	.077
4-6 times per month	M	.578	.102	5.658	<.001	.377	.778
	F	.001	.078	.016	.987	-.152	.155
10 or more times	M	.667	.125	5.396	<.001	.430	.923
	F	.100	.154	.649	.516	-.203	.403

Similar to behavioral and characterological shame, all of the men had statistically significant results at each level of the moderator. The effect for bodily shame for men was the least strong when compared to characterological and behavioral shame, but still significant (1-3 times per month [$b_3=.528$]; 4-6 times per month [$b_3=.578$]; and ten or more times per month [$b_3=.677$]). For men, the findings were similar to characterological and behavioral shame relationship with perceived addiction to their IPU, and how more use affects those relationships; meaning they become stronger as use increases. It appears that men who use more pornography during high episodes of bodily shame had a stronger belief that they were addicted to viewing pornography; this relationship became even more robust with greater frequency of use in the past month. There was no correlation between bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography in women and no interaction effect. Hypothesis H17 was supported at all three levels for men.

Figure 4.17

Main Effects of Experiences of Bodily Shame, Frequency of Pornography Use in the Past Month and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography for Men

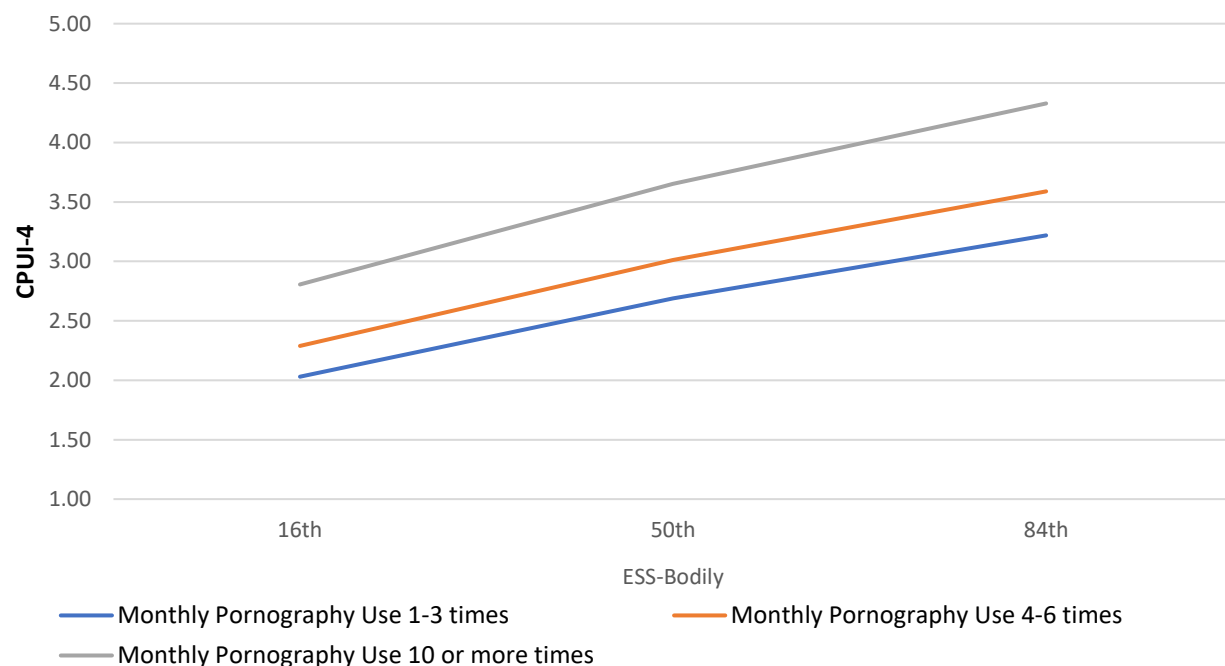
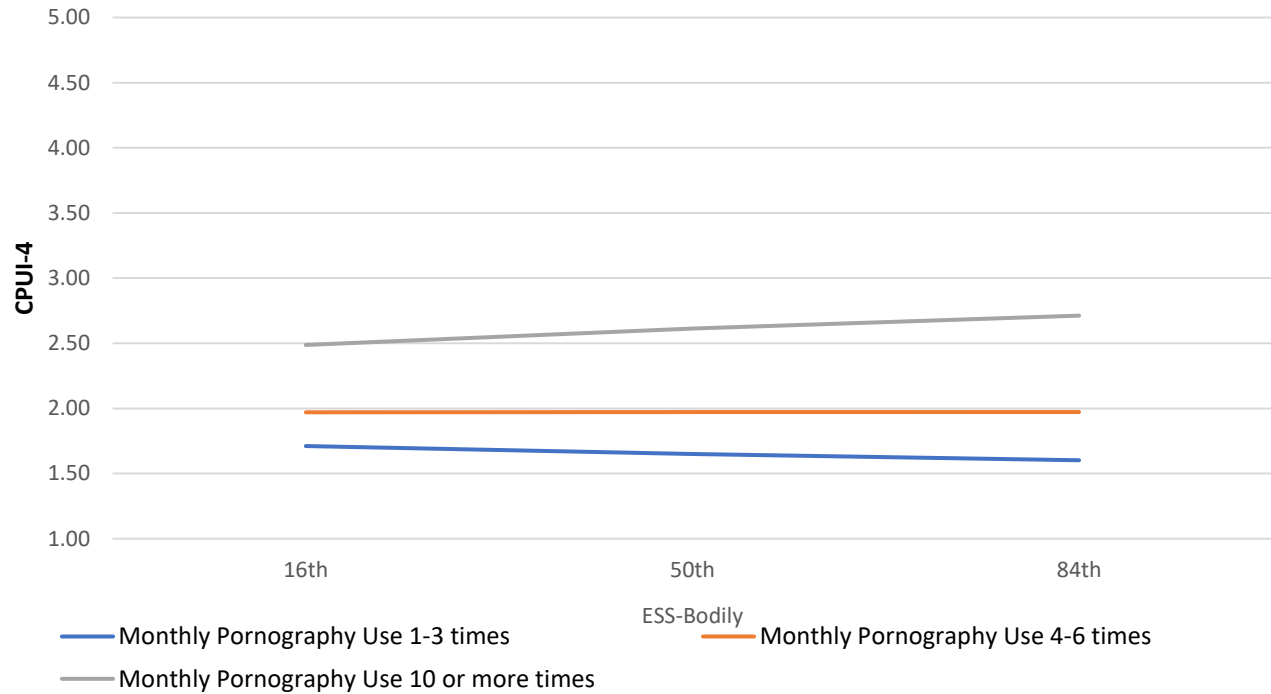


Figure 4.18

Main Effects of Experiences of Bodily Shame, Frequency of Pornography Use in the Past Month and Gender on Perceived Addiction to Pornography for Women



Summary

A sample population of 355 men and 272 women who reported Internet pornography viewing in the last month participated in this study. Pearson's r Bivariate correlations were run to answer research questions 1-3. The study was then expanded on by running a PROCESS Macro moderation Model 1 (Hayes, 2018), looking again at men and women's relationship between characterological, behavioral, and bodily experiences of shame to perceived addiction to pornography, but controlling for shame-proneness and frequency of use. Research questions RQ4-RQ9 were addressed in this model. Another moderation Model 1 (Hayes, 2018) was run investigating whether frequency of pornography use had a moderating effect on characterological, behavioral, and bodily experiences of shame to perceived addiction for men

and women combined, controlling for shame-proneness. This model addressed research questions RQ10-RQ12. Finally, a moderation Model 2 (Hayes, 2018) was run to separate the results for the men and women regarding the moderating effect of frequency of use on the relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography, controlling for shame-proneness. This model addressed research questions RQ13-RQ18. Overall, all of the hypotheses were confirmed for the men, although the strength of each subscale of shame became less with characterological being the strongest, then behavioral, and finally bodily. For the women the hypotheses were confirmed only for characterological. The men's characterological results demonstrated greater strength in the relationships and interaction of frequency of use than the women. The results from each of the tests will be discussed in depth in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

Problematic pornography use has gained much attention in clinical settings as well as empirical studies in the last decade (Allen et al., 2017; Bothe et al., 2021; Bothe, Toth-Kiraly, Bella et al., 2020; Bothe, Lonza et al., 2020; Griffiths et al., 2018), particularly in the area of perceived addiction to pornography (Grubbs et al., 2019, 2021; Grubbs, Wilt et al., 2019; Miller et al. 2019). Shame has also been a popular area of empirical inquiry since Lewis' *Shame and Guilt in Neurosis* (1971), expanded upon by Tangney and Dearing's *Shame and Guilt* (2002). Studies on the impact of chronic shame and its relationship to pornography use have also contributed to understanding how to help individuals struggling with their pornography use (Brem et al., 2017; Chisholm & Gall, 2015; Droubay et al., 2020; Sniewski & Farvid, 2019). However, many studies have addressed the issue of shame within the framework of shame-proneness employing Tangney and Dearing's Test of Self-Conscious Affect (TOSCA) (2002), which deals exclusively with trait shame. Recent pornography studies have not explored the relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral and bodily shame developed by Andrews and colleagues (2002), pornography use and perceived addiction to Internet Pornography. Andrews et al.'s (2002) study include a trait and state shame scale.

While most pornography studies may include both men and women in the study population, few distinguish between the two genders by looking at the varying responses of men and women regarding their pornography use. This study investigated the relationships between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography. It further investigated the effect of frequency of pornography use on the relationship of experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame to perceived

addiction to IP while explicitly identifying the differences or similarities between men and women and their IPU. Chapter five will discuss the findings from the models that were run.

Discussion

This study aimed to formulate a better understanding of the relationship between characterological, behavioral, and bodily experiences of shame and perceived addiction to IP for both men and women. This study also investigated whether pornography use within the past month in both men and women affected the relationship between all three experiences of shame and perceived addiction to IP. Tangney and Dearing's (2002) work on shame was foundational to a better understanding of the psychopathology of those struggling with this self-conscious emotion and the caustic affect that is endured during moments of shame experiences. Although guilt and shame are regarded as self-conscious emotions (Tangney & Dearing, 2002), they will manifest very differently for those experiencing one or the other of these emotions (Dearing et al., 2007; Lewis, 1971; Tangney & Dearing, 2002).

A person experiencing a shame encounter will feel flawed at their core. Individuals experiencing guilt feel remorse because of a particular behavior that can be resolved by specific actions, such as making amends (Lewis, 1971; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). To sum up the difference between guilt and shame, guilt is based on one's behavior while shame is based on one's character or core self (Janoff-Bulman, 1979). There is a wide breadth of empirical work on shame-proneness, which was the foundation of Tangney and Dearing's (2002) groundbreaking work, *Shame and Guilt*, which addressed trait shame, or chronic shame-proneness. This study directly investigated in-the-moment shame encounters of characterological, behavioral, and bodily experiences of shame. Of particular interest was investigating experiences of shame within the framework of pornography use, more specifically,

perceived addiction to pornography, since empirical work in this area was challenging to find.

Internet pornography is readily available, affordable, and provides anonymity for the users, which may be promoting the rise in problematic pornography use for men and women (Cooper et al., 2000; Grubbs, Stauner et al., 2015). There is a population of men and women accessing IP who also believe their use is compulsive or even that they are addicted to their pornography use (Cooper et al., 2000; Grubbs, Stauner et al., 2015). This compulsive use seems even more relevant in the wake of COVID-19 and the subsequent isolation from lengthy quarantines (Albertella et al., 2021). While not all pornography users have problems with their use (Binnie & Reavey, 2020; Gola et al., 2016), there is a population of men and women users who not only feel distressed over their use (Benfield, 2018; Gola et al., 2016; Kor et al., 2014; Maddock et al., 2019; Reid et al., 2011; Twohig et al., 2009) but believe they are addicted to IP (Alarcon et al., 2019; Grubbs, Exline et al., 2015; Volk et al., 2019). The evidence is clear that many individuals suffer considerable distress over their pornography use (Droubay et al., 2020). The concept of “addicted to pornography” carries clinical implications in that there is no official diagnostic criteria for pornography addiction in the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, 5th ed. (APA, 2013; Benfield, 2018; Kafka, 2010). The International Classification of Diseases (ICD-11) decided to include Compulsive Sexual Behavioral Disorder (Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2020), yet controversy over the addictive nature of pornography continues (Camilleri et al., 2021; Cooper et al., 2000; Grubbs, Stauner et al., 2015). Clinicians are faced with the task of providing treatment to a population of both men and women who believe they are addicted to pornography (Short et al., 2016).

This author believes that instead of referring to problematic pornography use as an addiction, the more appropriate term would be *perceived addiction*. Research abounds on this

topic, primarily within the context of moral disapproval (Fisher et al., 2019; Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2020; Grubbs & Perry, 2019, Grubbs, Stauner, 2015; Grubbs, Wilt et al., 2017) and religiosity (Borgogna, Duncan et al., 2018; Borgogna & McDermott, 2018; Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2019; Lewczuk, Nowakowska et al., 2020; Marcinechova & Zahoracova, 2020; Volk et al., 2019). Whether inside the context of religious affiliation or just strong moral beliefs, some individuals believe that using pornography is wrong. However, they still view pornography and believe that they are addicted to its use, even though the specific behavioral pattern does not resonate with an addictive disorder (Grubbs et al., 2010; Grubbs, Grant et al., 2018; Grubbs & Perry, 2019; Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015). Based on this information, many individuals then believe they are addicted to pornography, so the need for more empirical work to understand these “self-perceived” ideas of addiction and the relationship to psychological distress is required (Hald & Malamuth, 2008).

Of interest in this study is investigating men and women’s shame experiences, specifically characterological, behavioral, and bodily, in the framework of their pornography use. More specifically, is there any correlation between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame and the idea that these men and women feel addicted to their pornography use? Furthermore, does this relationship become more robust with more frequent use of Internet pornography? The rest of this section will be organized by the study’s specific research questions, data analyses outcome, and how these findings compare with other empirical work.

Research Questions 1-3 (Correlation)

Research questions 1-3 addressed the correlation between characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography: Are experiences of shame predictive of perceived addiction to IP in men and women who have used pornography within the past

month, controlling for shame-proneness? Empirical studies have looked at shame and the impact this emotion may have in terms of pornography use in general (Cranney, 2015; Kraus & Sweeney, 2019; Sniewski & Farvid, 2020), and pornography use within the framework of moral incongruence (Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2020; Lewczuk, Glica et al., 2020; Lewczuk, Nowakowska, 2020). With those concepts in mind, it was hypothesized that there would be a positive association between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame to perceived addiction to IP in both men and women. The questions above were answered through Pearson's *r* correlation studies.

All of the correlations for men demonstrated a significant positive result as experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame increased, so did the belief that they were addicted to their use, except for women and bodily shame. For women, only characterological and behavioral shame had significant findings; bodily shame was not correlated significantly to perceived addiction to pornography in women. While the correlation between bodily shame and women struggling with eating disorders has been well established in research (Blythin et al., 2020), this did not appear to be the case in the framework of pornography use and the idea or belief that these women felt like they were addicted to their use.

Literature on perceived addiction to pornography has found that individuals who use pornography despite having either strong religious beliefs or strong moral values tend to believe that they are addicted to pornography (moral incongruence) (Fisher et al., 2019; Grubbs, Grant et al., 2018; Grubbs et al., 2017; Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2019; Grubbs & Perry, 2019). Carroll et al. (2008) found that women tend to be more accepting of pornography use, yet they use less than men. Men's acceptance or non-acceptance of use correlated more to values they learned in their family, demonstrating how values and behaviors become intertwined in pornography use (Carroll

et al., 2008). Grubbs, Kraus et al. (2020), in a large population of individuals struggling with a compulsive sexual behavior disorder, noted that their moral beliefs played a significant role in how they perceived their sexual behaviors.

While daily use and the male gender are some of the best predictors of self-perceived addiction to pornography, moral incongruence is also a substantial predictor (Grubbs, Grant et al., 2018). Distress over use may stem from the individual's deviance away from their internal morals and values regarding pornography use (Grubbs, Grant et al., 2018). This idea has also been supported longitudinally for men who strongly disapproved of their use yet continued to use it, then struggled with experiences of depression over time (Grubbs & Perry, 2019). The correlation findings may point to a cycle of shame where these individuals morally disapprove of their use, yet in high shame states, they are viewing pornography, which strengthens their idea that they are addicted to IP.

The issue of affect control may also be a relevant interpretation of what is happening with these individuals' using pornography in high characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame conditions. Characterological shame states produced the strongest correlation for both men and women. The ESS scale addresses the shame people feel concerning their habits, how they act around others, the shame of who they are, their core self, and their ability (Andrews et al., 2002). Because of the tendency for men to use more pornography than women overall (Short et al., 2012; Harper & Hodgins, 2018), it is possible to explain the more robust relationship between men than women. Shame has been described as the master emotion (Bradshaw, 1988), a highly aversive self-conscious emotion (Prado et al., 2016), the quintessential self-conscious emotion (Tangney & Dearing, 2002), and as less adaptive than other emotions, such as guilt (Elison et al., 2006; Tangney & Dearing, 2002; Volk et al., 2019). It can also be more predictive of poor

psychological adjustment (Woien et al., 2002).

Tracy and Robins (2006) noted that shame is positively related to individuals who attribute failure to some internal cause, such as one's ability that they have no control over. It could be speculated that perhaps these people are viewing pornography to mitigate the overwhelming affect produced by shame encounters and feelings of shame (Chisholm & Gall, 2011). A common complaint of men and women seeking treatment is their inability to stop viewing pornography regardless of distress over their use (Kraus et al., 2016; Levi et al., 2020). Wery et al. (2018), investigating trait impulsivity and online sexual addiction (OSA), noted that men appear to exhibit more addictive use of OSA. They also found that an impulsivity trait called "negative urgency," which results in acting rashly in negative emotional states may react with negative affect in a way that predicts addictive OAS use (Wery et al., 2018). Levin et al.'s (2019) work investigating whether experiential avoidance is a predictor of problematic pornography use found not only was *pornography viewing* to avoid negative emotions predictive of negative consequences but also *frequent use* as well.

While correlation studies are relevant, more information is warranted concerning these relationships. Three PROCESS Macro moderation models using Ordinary Least Square (OLS) multiple regressions (Hayes, 2018) were run for further investigation, adding shame-proneness as a covariate controlling for trait shame. The ensuing models not only looked at the relationship between experiences of shame to perceived addiction to pornography but also investigated any effect of viewing pornography within the past month on that relationship. Moderation models offer a visual representation of the relationships between variables which may bring more light to the actual interactions of the variables (Hayes, 2018).

Research Questions 4-9 (Moderation Model 1)

Research questions 4-9 investigated the outcome of a moderation model where gender was the moderator separating results for men and women and the relationship between each subscale of experiences of shame to perceived addiction to pornography. This PROCESS Macro 4.0 (Hayes, 2018) was run to investigate how these relationships reveal themselves for men and women by exploring the visual Simple Slopes outcomes for men and women concerning the above relationships produced by moderation (Hayes, 2018). Models were run for experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame. The discussion will address each of the findings for each subscale.

Characterological Experiences of Shame

The study of shame and its relationship to problematic pornography use is well documented in empirical work (Chisholm & Gall, 2015; Duffy et al., 2019; Gilliland, 2011; Gordon, 2018; Kraus & Sweeney, 2019; Maheux et al., 2021; Sniewski et al., 2018; Volk et al., 2016, 2019). Lacking in research is an investigation into actual in-the-moment shame experiences and their functionality in psychological disorders (Andrews et al., 2002). Of particular interest for the current study was: what relationship do shame experiences have with an individual's idea that they are addicted to pornography? Characterological shame as measured through the Experience of Shame (ESS) scale (Andrews et al., 2002) addresses a person's shame of personal habits, the shame of how they act when with other people, shame about the type of person they think they are (their core self) and shame of their abilities. Included within each scale's measurements are questions addressing the experiential component (personal feelings of shame), cognitive component (personal concerns over others' opinions) and behavioral component (concealment or avoidance of personal habits) (Andrews et al., 2002).

Overall, this current study found that characterological experiences of shame appear to be predictive of men and women believing that they are addicted to IP for those who have used pornography within the past month. The higher the experiences of shame for these individuals, the stronger their belief that their use is problematic to the point of believing they are addicted. This relationship is much stronger for men than for women, which coincides with previous studies on men and women and pornography use (Short et al., 2012; Harper & Hodgins, 2016; Carroll et al., 2008).

Behavioral Experiences of Shame

According to Andrews et al. (2002), behavioral experiences of shame address an individual's shame regarding doing something wrong, saying something stupid, and failure in competitive settings. Once again, the experiential, cognitive, and behavioral components were addressed within the framework of the behavioral questions. For the men only, this model supported the predictive nature of experiences of behavioral shame to perceived addiction to pornography. The results within the model were all statistically significant for the men. Behavioral shame in women is not predictive of perceived addiction to pornography, and there was no statistical moderating effect. For men, the simple slopes graph demonstrates a moderately strong relationship between their experiences of behavioral shame and their belief that they are addicted to IP. In light of what constitutes behavioral shame, particularly shame of doing something wrong, moral incongruence may play a part in increasing the strength of perceived addiction for men. Grubbs, Grant et al. (2018) noted that the three most robust predictors of perceived addiction to pornography were moral incongruence, average daily use, and male gender. Grubbs, Wilt et al. (2017) found that individuals' moral scruples regarding pornography use were strongly related to their idea that they were addicted to pornography, both

concurrently and over time, even more so than the daily amount of viewing.

Borgogna, Duncan et al. (2018) found scrupulosity a robust positive predictor for many problematic pornography domains such as functional problems, depression, excessive use, anxiety, control difficulties, stress, neuroticism, and avoidance of negative emotions across the genders. They also found that depression emerged as a positive, significant predictor of pornography use to mitigate negative affect for both men and women. Men and women may view pornography to escape distress that may come from unpleasant emotional experiences (Borgogna, Duncan et al., 2018).

Bodily Experiences of Shame

The experience of shame subscale for bodily shame addresses an individual's shame feelings related to any part of their body (Andrews et al., 2002). While not as intense as characterological and behavioral shame in men, the men's results were again positively correlated. As their experiences of bodily shame increased, their self-perception of being addicted to IP also increased. The women's results did not significantly reveal any relationship between experiences of bodily shame to perceived addiction. The empirical literature has addressed women's bodily shame with results that do not concur with this study. Borgogna, Lathan et al. (2018) found that women who viewed pornography to escape negative emotion demonstrated dissatisfaction with their body image and romantic relationship. Tylka and Calogero (2018) noted that women in relationships with men who used pornography struggled with body dissatisfaction. The supposition was that these women were striving to compete with the portrayal of a specific body type represented in the pornographic material being viewed by their partner (Tylka & Calogero, 2018). For women, research abounds on body dysphoria and eating disorders (Bottera et al., 2020; Lewis-Smith et al., 2016; Mancusso et al., 2016), but

investigations into body dysphoria among women pornography users are not prevalent. Another set of findings investigating attachment insecurities and body image among a large population of women suggested that when women are anxiously attached to a romantic partner, pornography use may make them more susceptible to body image self-consciousness (Gewirtz-Meydan et al., 2021). It appears that bodily shame for women in the context of pornography involves numerous variables. Gewirtz-Meydan et al. (2021) noted that watching pornography was associated with women's negative feelings towards their bodies. However, they surmised that this was more a result of the expectations for these women to satisfy their partners with similar acts as portrayed in pornographic videos and the sense that their partners were more critical of their bodies. The above findings are intriguing regarding how women process feelings of bodily shame about their pornography use. However, concerning women and bodily shame, it was not predictive of perceived addiction to pornography in the current study.

Goldsmith et al. (2017) suggested that the unrealistic demonstrations of physical attractiveness and sexual performance present in online pornography may associate with both men's and women's sexual expectations and concerns. More specifically, they looked at negative genital self-image, expectations of an individual's partner, and body-performance-related sexual distractions addressing cognitive aspects of sexuality (Goldsmith et al., 2017). One finding was that women tended to have body and sexual performance related to cognitive distractions in a sexual activity instead of the men, supporting other research suggesting that women tend to struggle with more appearance-related concerns than men (Goldsmith et al., 2017).

Pornography research addressing men's body dysphoria in relationship with pornography use is quite prevalent, particularly when addressing how they feel about their genitalia

(Goldsmith et al., 2017; Loehle et al., 2017), but this has not been investigated concerning perceived addiction to pornography. Sun et al. (2016), while researching cognitive script theory regarding men and a sexual script, noted among other findings that men reported concerns over their sexual performance and body image. Loehle et al. (2017) found that self-perceived body image and social appearance anxiety were significant predictors for genital self-image. Men with higher genital self-image reported more social anxiety, and men with lower levels of body satisfaction reported higher rates of genital self-image. Perhaps the men's results for bodily shame reflect dissatisfaction over their genitalia, although Loehle et al.'s 2017 study was not conducted in the framework of pornography use. The results from this study demonstrate the different responses that men and women have to bodily shame and its relationship to perceived addiction.

Research Questions 10-12 (Moderation Model 2)

To expand on the simple relationship between experiences of shame and perceived addiction to pornography with men and women, a second PROCESS Macro Model 1 (Hayes, 2018) was run to see if the frequency of use had any moderating effect on that relationship. This model did not separate men and women but combined the results and again addressed each subscale of experiences of shame: characterological, behavioral, and bodily. The interpretation of the interactions of the relationship between characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography focused on investigating the focal predictors at three moderator values (Hayes, 2018). Three levels of use were viewed: 1-3 times per month (low), 4-6 times per month (medium), and ten or more times per month (high). The general findings for this Model 1 will be briefly presented below, separated into characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame; however, since of utmost interest are the gender variance results, these will be

discussed in length for model 3.

Characterological Experiences of Shame Moderated by Pornography Use

The relationship between experiences of characterological shame and perceived addiction was demonstrated as a positive relationship in the correlations that were run and confirmed in model 1, separating the correlations for men and women. So, the next set of research questions inquired about what effect an individual's level of pornography use may have. For characterological shame to perceived addiction when moderated by pornography use, there was a statistically significant effect at all three levels of the moderator. The combined results for men and women supported H10; as individuals' experience of characterological shame increases, their idea that they are addicted to pornography also increases. Furthermore, the more pornography they view in a month, the stronger that relationship becomes.

Behavioral Experiences of Shame Moderated by Pornography Use

The relationship between experiences of behavioral shame and perceived addiction to pornography, while again demonstrating an interaction effect of frequency of use in the past month, was not as strong as the results for characterological shame. As pornography use increased, the strength of the relationship between experiences of behavioral shame to perceived addiction to pornography also increased. Hypothesis H11 was supported through the results of this model.

Bodily Experiences of Shame Moderated by Pornography Use

When looking at what effect frequency of use had on bodily shame encounters and perceived addiction to pornography, as individuals bodily shame increased, their concept of being addicted to pornography use also increased, but only at the two highest levels of the moderator. There was no interaction effect at the lowest level of the moderator (using

pornography 1-3 times in the past month). The overall model does support hypothesis H12, but only at the highest two levels of the moderator.

Research Questions 13-18 (Moderation Model 3)

The third research model is an extension of the previous model. This PROCESS Macro Model 2 (Hayes, 2018) investigates whether or not the frequency of pornography use at the three levels of that moderator affected the relationship experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography, specifically looking at the men's versus women's results. Once again, the interactions were interpreted by looking at the focal predictors at three levels of the moderator of frequency of use in the past month (Hayes, 2018).

Characterological Experiences of Shame Moderated by Pornography Use

Overall, there was a noticeable effect of frequency of use on the relationship between experiences of characterological shame (trait shame) and perceived addiction to pornography at all three levels of the moderator for both men and women. The overall relationship between experiences of characterological shame and their idea that they are addicted to pornography is much more robust in men than women. Also, while the frequency of use did affect the relationship at all three levels of the moderator, this too was stronger for the men than the women. Wetterneck et al. (2012), in a study investigating various components of IPU, found that men viewed much more pornography per week than their female counterparts. They also rated higher impulsivity and overall adverse effects of IP (Wetterneck et al., 2012). Men may use pornography to escape negative emotions, even though the use itself may produce negative consequences such as experiences of shame and diminished self-efficacy (Wetterneck et al., 2012; Sniewski & Farvid, 2019).

Baranowski et al. (2019), investigating problematic pornography use in women, found

that overall time spent viewing IP and emotional avoidance was a significant predictor of problematic IPU. The emotional avoidance result supports previous addiction research where the desire to escape negative emotional states and feelings such as anxiety and stress might be a mechanism for addictive behavior (Cheetham et al., 2010). Another interesting finding was that more significant variance in the type of pornography these women watched was also predictive of problematic use (Baranowski et al., 2019), suggesting that seeking diverse material may be pointing to habituation effects. They speculate that these women search for newer and more exciting material to produce a similar neural response as when they first began to view pornography (Baranowski et al., 2019). This empirical literature demonstrates a correlation between characterological experiences of shame to problematic pornography use, which can also be seen when looking at characterological shame's relationship to perceived addiction to pornography.

In this study, the highest percentage of men, 34.1%, reported using pornography at the highest level of the moderator: ten or more times per month. Whereas the highest percentage of women, 42.3%, reported using pornography at the lowest level of the moderator: 1-3 times per month. While there was an interaction effect for the men and women, the interaction of frequency of pornography use on the relationship between characterological experiences of shame and perceived addiction to pornography was much more robust for the men. This study supports current literature that has reported greater pornography use by men than women. Kraus et al. (2016) found an association with men who have higher weekly viewing rates of pornography and actively seek treatment for what they believed was problematic use. Lack of self-control, impulsivity, and compulsivity in the men's use was a strong predictor of treatment-seeking amongst these individuals (Kraus et al., 2016).

The above results concur with Gola et al. (2016), although the frequency of use as a significant predictor of treatment-seeking in men was not very strong. Their overall conclusion was that the negative symptoms produced by viewing pornography were a stronger predictor of treatment-seeking than the actual frequency of use itself. In reviewing the findings of the moderating effect of frequency of use, it appears that for both men and women who use pornography in high characterological shame states, as their use increases, so does the strength of their belief that they are addicted to IP. Perhaps these individuals are trying to escape a negative emotional shame state (experiential avoidance) (Brem et al., 2017; Levin et al., 2012; Reid et al., 2009; Wetterneck et al., 2012) by viewing pornography, which in turn solidifies in their mind that they cannot stop using and are addicted to their use? Hypotheses H13 and H14 were substantiated in this model.

Behavioral Experiences of Shame Moderated by Pornography Use

When investigating the Simple Slopes results for behavioral experiences of shame, the men's results again were significant at all three levels of the moderator (the strongest at the highest level of use). Men who use more pornography in high experiences of behavioral shame states have a more robust perception that they are addicted to IP.

The women's results showed no relationship between their experiences of behavioral shame and perceived addiction to pornography and frequency of use, demonstrating no moderating effect. Velotti et al. (2017) found that women reported higher behavioral shame scores than men; however, that study was not conducted within the framework of pornography use. While behavioral shame may be a problem for women in other contexts, this was not true concerning their perception of being addicted to IP. Higher behavioral shame does not correlate with these women's concept of being addicted to IP.

Grubbs, Perry et al. (2019) found that moral incongruence strongly predicts self-reported addiction to pornography (Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2020; Grubbs, Perry et al., 2019; Grubbs, Wilt et al., 2017; Grubbs & Perry, 2019). For these men who are already struggling with behavioral shame concerning violating internal moral beliefs, the concept that they are addicted to pornography has already been established. So, the potential for the relationship between their behavioral shame experiences and perceived addiction to pornography to become stronger as they use more pornography makes sense. Perhaps these men are using pornography to avoid the painful experiences of shame experienced in part because they are violating strong moral principles regarding their use? With the continuation of that use, conceivably, they believe that their compulsive use of pornography is now an addiction. Bryant & Shim (2008), investigating motivations for viewing pornography in men and women, found one of those motivations to be viewing pornography for mood management, either as a visual aid when masturbating or alleviating boredom or depression.

Habit was another motivation common within both genders, with the implication that these individuals felt that they had to view it or that they could not stop themselves from viewing it, pointing to addictive, pathological behavior (Bryant & Shim, 2008). Overall, the men had much stronger motivations towards IPU than the women, and as has been noted in the previous empirical literature, men were more likely than women to seek out and consume sexually explicit material (Binnie & Reavey, 2020; Bryant & Shim, 2008; Camilleri et al., 2020; Short et al., 2012). Bryant and Shim (2008) speculate that women consume less IP simply because they are less motivated to do so. Although behavioral shame may be an issue for women concerning problematic pornography use, the current study's results do not support any relationship between behavioral shame in women and perceived addiction to pornography.

In a large sample of Swedish men and women looking into problematic IPU, 5% of women compared to 13% of men reported some problematic use, and 2% of women and 5% of men reported serious problems across five items of interest (Ross et al., 2012). Three of the five items were significant predictors of problematic use for both men and women: frequency of use, religiosity, and having negative Internet sexual experiences (Ross et al., 2012). Within this sample of men and women, 4.5% felt addicted to their use, and 2.1% expressed the desire for treatment if it was available (Ross et al., 2012). Men reported more Internet sexual problems compared to the women, based on the frequency of viewing IP, differences in religiosity, and Internet experiences that were negative (sharing private sexual pictures/films, looking at pornography, and posting confidential material with sexual content) (Ross et al., 2012). They suggest that the frequency of viewing pornography may contribute to a lack of self-control and addictive properties of Internet use that is sexual, which is supported by other empirical literature (Grubbs, Grant et al., 2018; Grubbs, Perry et al., 2019). This current study also seems to support this idea, particularly in the men, in that the more these men used pornography in high behavioral shame states, the stronger their perception was that they were addicted to pornography. Perhaps the combination of strong moral convictions regarding pornography use in conjunction with experiential avoidance of shame (Borgogna, Duncan et al., 2018; Borgogna & McDermott, 2018) strengthens these individuals' belief that they cannot control or stop using pornography.

Literature abounds on compulsive use of pornography, particularly with men (Camilleri et al., 2021; Egan & Parmar, 2013; Kraus et al., 2016; Levi et al., 2020; Rosenberg & Kraus, 2014; Wetterneck et al., 2012; Wordecha et al., 2018). Problematic pornography use for the men and women (particularly the men) in this study appeared to demonstrate compulsivity in their use. These are also individuals who may have strong moral convictions that using pornography

is wrong; the compulsive use, which may lend itself to behavioral shame, coupled with moral incongruence, may be strengthening the concept of addiction to pornography in the men.

Borgogna, Duncan et al. (2018) noted that scrupulosity demonstrated a robust significant predictor of problematic pornography (excessive use, control difficulties, functional problems, and avoidance of negative emotions) use in men and women. However, there were no interactions of these variables within the context of perceived addiction to pornography for women, as revealed in the current study.

Frequency of use was found to be predictive of problematic pornography use in a population of college students (Wetterneck et al., 2012). The students who reported the highest frequency of use also reported that their use was problematic, and higher use correlated with impulsivity and compulsivity (Wetterneck et al., 2012). The higher levels of use also revealed a relationship with experiential avoidance (avoidance coping method for dealing with unwanted emotions) (Wetterneck et al., 2012). Wetterneck et al. (2012) suggested that the compulsive use of pornography for these individuals demonstrated both positive reinforcement (sexual arousal and gratification) and negative reinforcement (distraction from unwanted emotions or internal events (e.g., painful feelings, loneliness, and boredom). Again, this seems to be more prevalent for men than women. Albertella et al. (2020), investigating pornography use and the COVID-19 lockdown, noted that problematic pornography use was lower for women than for men. The current study demonstrated that the more pornography is viewed over the past month, the stronger the relationship between experiences of behavioral shame and self-perceived pornography addiction is for men only. Only hypothesis H15 was supported in this model.

Bodily Experiences of Shame Moderated by Pornography Use

This author's opinion is that the most fascinating findings were represented in this

PROCESS Macro Model 2 investigating the effect that frequency of pornography use has on the relationship between experiences of bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography. For the men, all three levels of the moderator demonstrated a moderating effect by frequency of use. The more pornography the men used in high levels of bodily shame, the greater their perception that they were addicted to IP. Once again, there was no correlation between experiences of bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography for the women. It appears that bodily shame is more of a concern for men than for women who use pornography within the context of believing they are addicted to IP. It could be surmised that the surreal environment of much IP portrays the most exceptional physiques for both men and women, and many pornography viewers, particularly the men, may find their bodies coming up short of this idealized norm (Sniewski & Farvid, 2020).

Griffiths et al. (2018) noted that for men, increased use of pornography was related to increased dissatisfaction with their height, muscularity and body, higher incidence of eating disorders and poorer life quality. Sniewski & Farvid (2020) noted that men reported trying to blunt, escape, and avoid stressful and uncomfortable feelings by viewing pornography. Levin et al. (2012) support this idea even further when they found that negative consequences and frequency of pornography use were associated with pornography viewing by men trying to alleviate overwhelming or uncomfortable emotions. For most of these men, pornography was their only coping mechanism to deal with boredom, loneliness, and stress.

Tylka (2015), investigating men's body image and well-being in the context of pornography, discussed the appearance-related pressure found in pornography use. The men were asked to report how often they viewed pornography and answer measures addressing interpersonal and media pressures to be mesomorphic; whether they embraced the mesomorphic

ideology, body monitoring and body image (dissatisfaction with body fat and muscularity, as well as body appreciation. Overall findings revealed that for men who embraced the mesomorphic ideal, frequency of use was positively associated with muscularity and body fat dissatisfaction (Tylka, 2015). Also, there was a negative association between frequency of use to body appreciation through direct and indirect paths of body monitoring (Tylka, 2015). Tylka's (2015) findings may suggest that men who view pornography and have endorsed the idea of muscularity and low body fat may have increased distress over how they view their bodies. Men's body image added to their moral disapproval of their use, so using pornography in high bodily shame states increases the strength of their idea that they are addicted to IP. Griffiths et al. (2018) investigated pornography use in sexual minority males and found that increased pornography use was also associated with higher dissatisfaction towards their muscularity, body fat, and height, but genital dissatisfaction was not associated with viewing pornography. Hypotheses H17 was supported at all three levels for the men.

Marques (2019), in investigating women and their pornography use, noted that narratives from some of these women indicated that some pornographic material was problematic for them. However, these women also reported bodily validation and sexual self-actualization from the material they were viewing, suggesting that their use of pornography helped them overcome internalized constraints regarding their bodies (Marques, 2019). This validation was particularly true for hardcore and amateur material, including body types and actions that do not adhere to popular beauty and body standards (Marques, 2019). While some women may feel harmed by pornographic imagery, others find viewing it liberating and consume it for enjoyment. This current study demonstrates that something very different is happening with the women regarding the interactions between experiences of bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography.

Marques (2019) believes that more research into the meaning that women attach to their pornography use concerning their social, individual, and sexual biographies is warranted. Velotti et al. (2017) found that women compared to men reported much higher levels of bodily shame, but their study was not within the framework of pornography. Borgogna, Lathan et al. (2018) noted that in a large sample of women engaged in frequent viewing of pornography, perceptions of compulsive use and difficulties with self-control were not associated with their body image. These findings resonate with the results from this current study with women and bodily shame. Again, bodily shame in the context of eating disorders is well documented for women, but something is very different regarding body dysphoria in a population of women who are viewing pornography and whether they believe they are addicted to their use. Goldsmith et al. (2017) point out that there may be a link of sexual concerns for both young men and women who watch pornography. The unrealistic representations of physical attributes and sexual engagement could be related to negative genital self-image, body- performance-related sexual distractions, and expectations of one's partner (Goldsmith et al., 2017). The women had higher performance expectations for their partners and reported increased performance and body-related cognitive distractions during sex (Goldsmith et al., 2017). This finding may indicate that women, in general, are more concerned over appearances and media portrayals of desirable women. Goldsmith et al. (2017) surmise that for women, this sensitivity to appearance and performance also plays out in the realm of pornography viewing. The overall findings were that sexual insecurities and sexual expectations are associated with visual forms of pornography for both men and women; this was not true for literary forms (Goldsmith et al., 2017). For the women in this study investigating whether bodily shame is connected to the belief that they are addicted to their use Hypothesis, H18 was not supported.

The debate is ongoing whether or not the frequency of pornography viewing is predictive of problematic pornography use. Numerous studies have demonstrated that frequent use may only be mildly associated with problematic use and self-perceived addiction to pornography (Grubbs, Exline et al., 2015; Grubbs, Wilt et al., 2017, 2018; Wilt et al., 2016). However, one longitudinal study found moral disapproval of pornography and more pornography use in general strongly associated with an individual's perception that they were addicted to their use (Grubbs, Wilt et al., 2017). Regardless of irreconcilable differences in opinions as to the veracity of pornography addiction, many individuals believe that their use is out of control and are seeking treatment (Camilleri et al., 2020).

A study of 1036 Polish adults investigating various self-perceived addiction behaviors found that frequency of pornography use was the highest predictor of perceived addiction to pornography, with moral incongruence also associated with self-perceived addiction to pornography (Lewczuk, Nowakowska et al., 2020). Lewczuk, Nowakowska et al. (2020) contend that the frequency of pornography use is an important variable to be considered when looking at self-perceived addiction. They also noted that Gola et al. (2016) found the importance of moral incongruence as a predictor of perceived addiction equal to the importance of such factors as age, gender, and time of use. The importance of frequency of use as a predictor of perceived addiction was also demonstrated with Grubbs, Grant et al. (2018). However, as in Gola et al. (2016), it was a stronger predictor than moral disapproval in this current study. So, both frequency of use and moral disapproval have demonstrated predictability of perceived addiction, sometimes one stronger than the other, and perhaps working in tandem with each other and other variables, such as shame experiences.

The current study demonstrated that all three experiences of shame (characterological,

behavioral, and bodily) were significant predictors of perceived addiction to pornography for the men, with the frequency of use strengthening this relationship. These findings were not the case for the women where behavioral and bodily shame were not significant predictors, and being consistent with empirical literature, they viewed much less pornography than the men overall. Bothe, Toth-Kirly, Potenza et al. (2019) investigated the frequency of use and its association with problematic and or non-problematic pornography use, suggesting that frequent viewing is not always problematic. Their study found that a population of individuals with non-problematic high frequency of use was three to six times larger than those who reported problems with their frequent use, suggesting a small population of individuals who develop mental distress over their use (Bothe, Toth-Kirly, Potenza et al., 2019). They also found three distinct pornography use profiles that differed according to psychological constructs, demographics, socioeconomic information and, within these contexts, surmised that frequent viewing of pornography was not a good indicator of problematic pornography use (Bothe, Toth-Kirly, Potenza et al., 2019). Many dynamics are operating within pornography use that can lead to problems for individuals, specifically their concept that they are addicted to IP, warranting continued research into the phenomena. There exists a population of men and women who are notably struggling with their use to the point of believing that they are addicted. For them, the psychological distress is a daily struggle, not only with their use but also with the ongoing shame and shame experiences that may contribute to and compound their distress over their use.

If all of the correlations and models are viewed as a whole, what seems to emerge from the data is support for the idea that men and women who view more IP in high experiences of specific shame states appear to have a stronger belief that their pornography use is not only problematic but that they are addicted. For men, this is true for characterological, behavioral,

and bodily shame, as demonstrated by the effects at all three levels of the moderator. For women, this is only accurate for characterological shame.

Implications

While the debate continues as to whether or not pornography use may develop into behavioral addiction, the fact remains that numerous individuals are very distressed over their use, and many believe they are addicted to their use and seek help. This current study reveals numerous implications for clinicians, counseling educators, and researchers. Of particular interest is the relationship between experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame to perceived addiction and the impact higher frequency of use has on that relationship. Chronic shame (shame-proneness) has been well investigated concerning its association with problematic pornography use over the past decades. However, there is a lack of empirical work on the “in-the-moment” shame experiences of men and women who struggle with their pornography use, many of whom believe they are addicted to pornography. Many mental health practitioners have reported feeling incompetent when working with clients dealing with problematic sexual behaviors because of lack of training and the complexity of the issue concerning mental health (Short et al., 2016).

Pornography addiction is complex in that it is not only an addiction concerning sexually explicit material but can coincide with Internet addiction (Grubbs et al., 2010) and many other addictions (Carnes, 2001). To date, there is only one behavioral addiction with diagnostic criteria listed in the DSM-5 (APA, 2013), gambling. However, men and women seeking treatment for what they believe is a pornography addiction is a reality in our culture. There is still debate as to what role shame and more frequent use of pornography have in men’s and women’s self-perceived idea that they are addicted to their Internet pornography use. While no

empirical results can be conclusive, the results from this current study reveal some interesting associations and interactions with each of the variables mentioned above. Some of the findings support the current literature on perceived addiction to pornography regarding the frequency of use, while others do not.

It seems apparent that men and women continue to seek treatment for what they believe is pornography addiction. Clinicians and counseling educators must be open to a better understanding of the dynamics involved regarding shame experiences, pornography use, and their function in solidifying in the minds of men and women the belief that they are addicted to its use. The downside is that the term "addiction" may have the sense of removing responsibility from the client for their behavior and actions concerning pornography use. To address their distress and treatment-seeking behavior within the context of "perceived addiction" may facilitate more motivation concerning their understanding of "why" they continue to view pornography, as well as to understand the "purpose" of their use, which may have more to do with unaddressed shame issues. Many of these men and women who believe they are addicted to pornography may be dealing with alexithymia, where they cannot identify what they are feeling and struggle with external, rigid thinking patterns (Franzoni et al., 2013). They are using pornography in high shame states, perhaps not even understanding why they are being driven to do what they do not want to do, strengthening their concept that their use is out of their control.

For clinicians, perhaps the approach to these individuals is to investigate the underlying issues such as shame and shame experiences. Instead of merely dealing with the symptomatology of the use itself, part of the assessment process should include an understanding of shame experiences for these men and women. Another essential aspect to investigate is helping these clients find healthier coping mechanisms to deal with unwanted emotional states

(Antons et al., 2019; Chandler, 2012; Goffnett et al., 2019; Reid et al., 2009). Antons et al. (2019) found that developing functional coping mechanisms may counteract craving for and impulsive use of Internet pornography. While it is also crucial for these individuals to develop an understanding and even acceptance of their use as fulfilling emotional needs, it is also equally vital for them to understand shame in their lives.

The first step to healing concerning shame is for individuals to acknowledge the hold it has on their lives and to recognize and name the chronic negative affect that they have not been able to identify that is self-perpetuated through shame cycles and compulsive use of pornography (Adams & Robinson, 2001; Bradshaw, 1988; DeYoung, 2015; Gilliland et al., 2011; Gunnerson, 2020; Thompson, 2015). Cognitive Behavioral Therapy (CBT) has demonstrated effectiveness in working with individuals struggling with problematic pornography use (Short et al., 2016; Goffnett et al., 2019). This author's opinion is that therapy modalities such as mindfulness, Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (ACT), and Rational Emotive Behavioral Therapy (REBT) may prove to be practical therapeutic approaches to help these individuals understand how shame may play a role in their compulsive use of pornography.

Mindfulness therapeutic approaches have been well represented in problematic pornography use and sexual addiction literature (Brem et al., 2019; Fraumeni-McBride, 2019; Sniewski & Farvid, 2019). Shame experiences and moral incongruence over one's pornography use seem viable constructs to address when working with men and women who seek treatment for what they believe is pornography addiction. Camilleri et al. (2021) comment on the effectiveness of mindfulness in dealing with problematic pornography use and overall mental health. According to Lu (2015), mindfulness-based therapies try to view the client more holistically. The goal is not merely diagnosis and symptom relief, but to help these individuals

identify their feelings and address them in non-judgmental ways, introducing them to healthier ways of approaching their psychological distress, such as self-compassion (Lu, 2015).

Mindfulness therapies such as Acceptance and Commitment Therapy may demonstrate more effectiveness than traditional CBT therapies that focus on thought suppression, which can encourage frustration and increase internal thoughts accompanied by strong urges to view pornography (Fraumeni-McBride, 2019). One main goal of ACT is that clients develop an awareness of their feelings and thoughts instead of trying to change or avoid them, and this awareness facilitates more value-guided decisions (Hayes et al., 2006).

This study demonstrates that there appears to be a strong relationship between shame experiences and these individuals' perception that they are addicted to pornography. As they viewed pornography in high episodes of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame (except for women concerning behavioral and bodily shame), they scored higher on the perceived addiction measure; furthermore, the more frequent their use in the past month, the stronger this relationship became. ACT address six main processes: Present-Moment-Awareness (this fosters non-judgmental thoughts or personal experiences in present time, promoting an awareness of these feelings); Acceptance (giving the client the freedom of the reality that to experience feelings, thoughts, or urges is normal, however, they can freely acknowledge their reality, but do not need to act on them); Defusion (this teaches the client to separate judgment from their thoughts and actions, freeing them to learn that when judgment is removed, they will be more empowered to make value-based decisions); Self-As-Context (helps the client to remove self-imposed labels as a result of judging their thoughts and feelings as undesirable); Values Clarification (helps clients learn to act according to values they have to live a desirable life instead of acting on undesirable feelings, thoughts and urges); Committed Action (action and

commitment which is formed due to new value identification (Hayes & Levin, 2012; Twohig & Levin, 2017).

One case study dealing with men's experiences of treatment received for problematic pornography use found promise in applying mindfulness and acceptance techniques (Sniewski & Farvid, 2019). While actual meditation was used with the six men being observed, the most effective tools concerning mindfulness were the pre-study interview, daily logging of their use, and checking in with the researchers each week. The majority of the men reported that the pre-study interview was the first time they ever discussed their pornography use openly, and the mere audible discussion allowed them to become more aware of what they saw as automatic behavior (Sniewski & Farvid, 2019).

Crosby and Twohig (2016) point out that problematic behavior may worsen if the individual's reaction to urges to act on the distressing behavior is met with rigidity and control. Their study revealed that ACT made a significant difference concerning how much pornography was viewed after treatment compared to pre-treatment, demonstrating promise with ACT and its application to problematic pornography use. A recent study working with methamphetamine users demonstrated ACT's effectiveness in addressing shame in these individuals, reducing overwhelming feelings of shame (Ghaleh Emamghaisi & Atashpour, 2020). The application of ACT within the context of the current study's findings may prove beneficial for these men and women who struggle with what they believe is a pornography addiction and address any underlying shame issues that have never been dealt with in therapy.

Another treatment modality that may prove beneficial with the population explored here is Rational Emotive Behavioral Therapy (REBT). Alongside the concept of ACT, REBT helps clients learn to change their behavior through changing their thinking (judging, deciding,

analyzing and doing) (Ellis & Harper, 1975). The approach deals not only with the client's feelings but also with what they are thinking. It teaches people that their emotions come from their evaluations, interpretations, beliefs, and reactions to life situations (Ellis & Harper, 1975). The overall premise is that people experience various events in life and that these events are not the cause of distress but how one experiences those events. It can be summed up with ABCD; Activating Event, Beliefs, Consequences, and Dispute (Ellis & Harper, 1975). The main focus with clients is helping them to investigate all irrational beliefs that lead to self-defeating behavior and their consequences, and then learn how to dispute those false beliefs (Ellis & Harper, 1975). Endemic in chronic shame encounters is the irrational and false beliefs individuals cling to, contributing to the chronic emotional distress they live with daily. Finding alternative coping methods with negative emotional affect is also critical for individuals struggling with endemic shame.

Reid and Carpenter (2009), investigating coping strategies used by hypersexual patients to defend against shame, suggested healthier alternatives. First, help the client recognize and identify potential shame risk factors such as irrational beliefs, thoughts and interpersonal sensitivity; second, help them to recognize and label experiences of shame, particularly within the therapeutic context; third, help the client to increase emotional intelligence by helping them to identify other emotions such as fear or sadness that may underlie shame; fourth, work with the client to develop higher tolerance levels for uncomfortable affect; fifth, help the client to develop a robust support system; and sixth, work with the clients to increase cognitive flexibility to help them make new choices, counter their negative self-talk and develop new strategies defending against the distress of shame. Clinicians have struggled with confidence in dealing with pornography use and hypersexual issues (Short et al., 2016), but proper psychoeducation in the

area of shame and its relationship to problematic pornography use can offer substantial support in dealing with these clients.

Limitations

This study had a reasonably large population, and numerous models were run to investigate the various interactions between the variables. However, many limitations should be addressed. First and foremost, as typical in empirical work, the cross-section design limits any surmising of causal relationships or generalization and may consist of underreporting or overreporting answers on the measures and potential for recall bias. Another problem may be that the applied measures potentially did not assess the variable constructs accurately even though these assessments possess high Cronbach's alpha and high reliability. The scales used to measure both perceived addiction to pornography and experiences of characterological, behavioral and bodily shame may not have reflected an accurate assessment of the constructs because of poor insight or denial in the participants responses (Lewczuk, Nowakowska et al., 2020). Another limitation when investigating shame and shame experiences in pornography use, while shame-proneness was used as a covariate, this does not address sexual shame, which is a different construct of shame (Kyle, 2013). While the experiences of in-the-moment shame were the focus of the study, the question remains how sexual shame may or may not have contributed to the results. Another limitation is that it can be challenging to report state shame experiences accurately. Individuals may underreport feelings of shame due to the nature of shame, where those who struggle with it may be unable or unwilling to express those feelings openly.

Regarding the frequency of use variable, the only thing reported was how many times per month they used it. No questions dealt with how long each session was and the time in-between each session; for example, one hour once a month compared to five hours once a month

(Camilleri et al., 2021). Investigating only monthly use may not be a substantial indicator of compulsive use of pornography as a mechanism for emotional avoidance. Since this study looked into both men's and women's use of pornography, it is crucial to understand the nuances of various aspects of pornography use, such as what types of pornography were being consumed. Another limitation with the frequency of use variable is that monthly use is a ratio variable but was measured as an ordinal measurement, reducing the clarity of the participants' data.

While the scale and measure used in this study was the CPUI-4 which was developed in the context of moral disapproval, the variable of moral disapproval was not directly investigated. Research has demonstrated the predictive relationship of moral disapproval to perceived addiction to pornography (Grubbs, Exline et al., 2017; Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2019; Grubbs & Perry, 2019; Grubbs, Stauner et al., 2015; Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015; Grubbs, Wilt et al., 2018; Lewczuk, Nowakowska et al., 2020; Volk et al., 2019). However, it would probably be beneficial to include moral incongruence in an investigative model applying it as a mediator, perhaps with the inclusion of religiosity. There is also difficulty determining which variable is the primary predictor of perceived addiction to pornography. Is it chronic shame and shame encounters and the emotional distress produced internally by these encounters driving these men and women to continue to view pornography? Or is it the interaction of their moral and religious beliefs that they violate, which produces more shame perpetuating a shame cycle?

Despite the limitations, the findings of this study do provide some insight concerning actual shame experiences and their relationship to perceived addiction. Furthermore, it reveals insight into the nuances of men and women's pornography use as it functions in the relationship of experiences of characterological, behavioral and bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography, particularly concerning bodily shame.

Recommendations for Future Research

A fascinating outcome of the current study was the results of bodily shame for men and women. Body shame has been well explored for women with the context of media influence and eating disorders, but it is lacking in the realm of pornography use, more specifically pornography use and perceived addiction to pornography. Bodily shame was found in this study to predict perceived addiction to pornography for the men and that associations became even more robust at higher monthly use. For the men, all three levels of the moderator demonstrated significant results. While empirical literature has found bodily shame issues with women in the context of problematic pornography use (Borgogna, Lathan et al. 2018; Gewirtz- Meydan et al. 2021), there is no association between bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography for women. These findings warrant further research for both men and women.

Marques (2019) has broached this topic in a small study of 26 women. Through a narrative study, results emerged suggesting that with some women, especially those who viewed amateur or hardcore pornography, their use had a positive effect on their body image and sexual self-actualization (Marques, 2019). For the women in this study, viewing pornography was not merely a means to an end, but they were engaged with it in an embodied experience (Marques, 2019). So, while viewing pornography may have positive effects, it should be noted that Marques' (2019) study had a small sample population of 26 women. Contrary to Marques's findings, Gewirtz-Meydan et al. (2021) noted in a large sample of women that they were more susceptible to pornography's influence on their self-conscious body image when they were in a relationship that consisted of anxious attachment to their significant partner.

While there is no association between experiences of bodily shame and perceived addiction to pornography in women, it may be interesting to investigate problematic

pornography use in general and its relationship to bodily shame for women. Carnes (2001) points out that comorbidities often exist with problematic pornography use. Body shame with women when associated with eating disorders is very well established in the literature (Goss & John, 2003; Lewis-Smith et al., 2016; Mancuso et al., 2016; Tylka & Calogero, 2018), but it might be interesting to investigate further women and bodily shame in the context of problematic pornography use. Tylka and Calogero (2018) found that women who had been in relationships with men who viewed pornography had higher eating disorder symptomatology. Body-thinness and expectations of looking like the women in the pornographic material were predictive of eating disorder symptomatology (Tylka & Calogero, 2018). It would also be interesting to survey women who view pornography and struggle with an eating disorder and bodily shame experiences. Gilbert (2002) points out that our body is a part of us that others observe immediately and is also a part of a myriad of self-conscious experiences and that physical appearance as a whole has an influential role in connection with social relationships. Hence it is difficult to extract pornography use, sexual activity and potential bodily shame experiences (Gilbert et al., 2002).

The current study's results demonstrated that there seem to be adverse outcomes concerning perceived addiction pornography and bodily shame for the men. Bodily shame as it relates to perceived addiction to pornography is an area that should be further explored, and that may carry tremendous therapeutic implications with greater understanding, specifically for men. Sun et al. (2016), while investigating male sexual scripts, found that those men who viewed more pornography had higher expectations of their partner's performance and body. They argue that the media scripts produced in pornographic material may distort the men's worldview as they consume more pornographic material, eventually using those scripts in real-life relationships

(Sun et al., 2016). Overall results from their study found that these men not only fanaticized about pornography while engaged in sexual relations, they also struggled with their performance and body image as well (Sun et al., 2014). Findings from Goldsmith et al. (2017) are supportive of the impact of visual pornography and cognitive distraction while engaging in sexual activity for men. Tylka's (2015) findings in a population of college men support Sun et al.'s (2014) concept of media scripts. Men who had internalized an idealized mesomorphic body image had more dissatisfaction with their body (body fat, muscularity) the more they viewed pornography (Tylka, 2015).

Eating disorders and body image are primarily associated with women, but men are also susceptible. There is always the potential of comorbidities when dealing with addiction, and Carnes (2001) points out that people struggling with compulsive sexuality may also struggle in other areas compulsively, such as eating disorders. These individuals may overeat to minimize their distress due to out-of-control sexual behaviors but then struggle with body shame due to weight gain, perpetuating a cycle of shame and pain (Carnes, 2001). Griffiths et al. (2018) investigated whether pornography would be associated with eating disorder symptomatology, body dissatisfaction, anabolic steroids use, and poor quality of life in a population of sexual minority males. While the relationship was not very robust, more frequent use of pornography was associated with more substantial dissatisfaction regarding body fat, muscularity and height, and more profound eating disorder symptoms (Griffiths et al., 2018). One interesting finding was that pornography use was not associated with genital dissatisfaction (Griffiths et al., 2018).

Griffiths et al.'s (2018) findings did not resonate with a large Dutch sample of men and women, which found that men's penis size dissatisfaction was positively associated with pornography use; however, there was no association between women's breast size and

pornography use (Cranney, 2015). Maheux et al. (2021), in a population of adolescent girls and boys, found an association between higher pornography use in the past year and more significant body comparison and self-objectification, but interestingly not bodily shame. Differences in the genders did not emerge, suggesting that both boys and girls may experience body concerns related to pornography use, but not bodily shame.

The research regarding pornography use and bodily shame in men and women seems to be filled with complexity with much room for further investigation. This study's findings deserve greater empirical exploration regarding men and women's bodily shame and its relationship to pornography use. For the men, bodily shame was predictive of perceived addiction to pornography, but this was not true for the women. The question arises, what other mechanisms are at work concerning bodily shame, pornography use, and perceived addiction to pornography in men and women? Further research could help clinicians who have clients in distress over their pornography use and perhaps even eating disorder behaviors that may accompany distress alongside their pornography use.

Future research should also investigate treatment protocols such as mindfulness-based ACT and REBT. These could be applied as mediators between the relationships of characterological, behavioral and bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography. Results from such a study could prove very beneficial to the clinical community and counseling psychoeducation. As mentioned earlier, many therapists lack confidence when dealing with problematic pornography use and sexual addiction. The potential benefits from investigating viable treatment options as represented in empirical literature could offer hope to the many men and women who feel addicted to IP and are trapped in a cycle of endless shame.

One final area of research that warrants further investigation is the potential that these

individuals who are using pornography in high shame states and have strong beliefs that they are addicted to pornography may be doing so to defend against shame. Nathanson (1992) began trying to interpret how individuals coped with the caustic and overwhelming affect of shame where people either withdraw from, attack themselves or others or through avoidance. Elison et al. (2006) developed this theory into a scale to use as a measurement tool for how people defend against shame experiences and the resulting distress that follows. This concept could be seen as a way of managing the affect stemming from shame encounters, but what about the medicinal use of pornography, typically accompanied by masturbation? Wery et al. (2018) noted that men involved in online sexual activities (OSA) did so to relieve negative emotions. Wery et al.'s 2018 study supports the work of Brand et al. (2011), who found that individuals who tend to have poor coping skills and are vulnerable emotionally will use OSA to deal with stressful situations. Chronic shame has been noted to be one of the most caustic and complex emotions to control or regulate, affecting an individual's internal sense of emotional well-being (Elison et al., 2014; Gross & John, 2003). Is it possible that Internet pornography users employ their use of viewing pornography to defend against emotional distress and negative affect?

Affect regulation can be defined in clinical terms as a means an individual uses to make negative feelings disperse, deal with anxiety or fears, reduce tension and manage stress (Klonsky, 2007). Gratz (2007) noted that individuals who self-injure have difficulty regulating their emotions and putting a name to their feelings: alexithymia. This lack of emotion-regulation skill inevitably affects their capacity to carry on with routine daily tasks when overcome by strong emotions (Gratz, 2007). Depression has also been demonstrated statistically to be a predictor of pornography use for individuals who view pornography to deal with negative emotional states (Borgogna, Duncan et al., 2018). Gilliland et al. (2011), in an adult online

survey consisting of predominantly men, found that the behaviors involved with hypersexuality may be a coping mechanism for these individuals. They surmised that these individuals had existing roots of shame and that the hypersexual behavior was merely a way to diffuse negative affect, leading to a vicious, repetitive cycle of problematic behavior (Gilliland et al., 2011).

Wery et al. (2019), investigating trauma, found that the addictive use of Internet pornography may be a protective defense or coping mechanism to deal with relational trauma. They suggest that the trauma had never been processed therapeutically, leading to negative beliefs about themselves or others and isolation and loneliness (Wery et al., 2019).

There has also been some interesting research directed towards individuals who are prone to cut themselves (one factor of self-injury) and its relationship to shame. Various studies have noted that one of the most prominent reasons people do this is for affect regulation (Chandler, 2012; Klonsky, 2007) and more explicitly dealing with shame affect (Gunnerson, 2020). A compelling finding within empirical work is the relationship between alexithymia and individuals who struggle with compulsive behaviors such as eating disorders (Franzoni et al., 2013) and cutting or self-injury (Gata et al., 2016). Empirical literature abounds concerning pornography and compulsivity (Albertella, 2020; Camilleri et al., 2020; Egan & Parmar, 2013; Levi et al., 2020; Rosenberg & Kraus, 2014; Wordecha et al., 2018), so perhaps there is a population of pornography users struggling with shame issues, yet unable to identify the underlying root of shame. Many individuals who struggle with shame also are dealing with alexithymia. Individuals struggling with alexithymia have difficulty describing and identifying their feelings and tend to think more externally and concretely (Franzoni et al., 2013). It is thought that alexithymia may manifest as a consequence of trauma due to shame encounters that have not been reconciled within the individual (Franzoni et al., 2013). Reid and Carpenter

(2009) found that in a clinical population of hypersexual clients, these individuals have emotional distress, anxiety, depression, difficulty with thought management, and overall affect regulation. The difficulty may lie in an inability to identify what their internal affective state is, much less the source of that affect, perhaps chronic shame.

When investigating the motivations individuals have for viewing pornography, sexual arousal and masturbation are considered two main reasons (Binnie & Reavey, 2020). Four other motivations for pornography use in men self-confessing hypersexual behavior have been noted by Reid et al. (2011): 1) sexual pleasure, 2) to cope with, avoid or escape distressing emotional experiences or stress, 3) satisfying sexual curiosity, and 4) desiring more exciting, novel and variety of sexual experiences. A possible explanation for compulsive Internet pornography use could be its purpose of defending against psychological distress and coping with uncomfortable affect, which is noted in numerous empirical studies on hypersexuality (Cooper et al., 2000; Reid et al., 2012). When investigating shame and its relationship to pornography use, research has found positive associations with hypersexual behaviors and its medicating effect on the overwhelming affect, which appears to be the product of shame-proneness and roots of shame (Reid et al., 2009).

Houazene et al. (2021) note that difficulty in emotional regulation plays a critical role in individuals who struggle with body-focused repetitive behaviors (BFRB's), including nail-biting, skin-picking, and hair-pulling, being impulsive behaviors, which distressing emotions may trigger. While pornography use does not qualify as a BFRB under diagnostic criteria, there remains the issue of compulsive and impulsive use of Internet pornography viewing (Anton et al., 2019; Dodge et al., 2004; Albertella et al., 2021), perhaps with the outcome of some affect control or affect soothing. In light of the COVID-19 restrictions and lockdowns, Albertella et al.

(2021) found that for individuals who struggled with trait impulsivity and compulsivity, the lockdown environment increased these individuals' problematic behaviors, such as problematic Internet pornography (in comparison to pre-COVID levels). While this did not appear significant for females, the more significant results came from the male gender (Albertella et al., 2021). The results also included greater events associated with the COVID virus and pre-virus problematic pornography, which all correlated to greater problematic pornography use within the context of lockdown (Albertella et al., 2021). The question seems apparent: were these individuals mitigating their distressing affect by viewing pornography and masturbation? To include this as a variable to the existing study may reveal an even greater understanding of experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography and the underlying purpose pornography serves in their lives.

Study Summary

Archived data was used for this current study, and out of the original 1517 people from the data, 355 men and 272 who had viewed pornography within the past six months qualified to participate. The first question was whether there was a relationship between characterological, behavioral, and bodily experiences of shame to perceived addiction to pornography. For the men, all three shame experiences were positively correlated with perceived addiction to pornography, with characterological and behavioral shame being much stronger correlations than bodily. For the women, only characterological was associated with perceived addiction to pornography. The study expanded on that idea by looking at the men and women's frequency of pornography use and applying that variable as a moderator to the initial relationship of experiences of characterological, behavioral and bodily shame to perceived addiction to pornography. Perceived addiction to pornography is well established in the empirical literature

(Grubbs, Exline et al., 2017; Grubbs, Kraus et al., 2019; Grubbs & Perry, 2019; Grubbs, Stauner et al., 2015; Grubbs, Volk et al., 2015; Grubbs, Wilt et al., 2018; Lewczuk, Nowakowska et al., 2020; Volk et al., 2019), as well as shames contribution to problematic pornography use (Chisholm & Gall, 2015; DeJong & Cook, 2021; Gilliland et al., 2011). However, there is a paucity of research on in-the-moment experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame and their association to one's idea that they are addicted to their pornography use. At the beginning of this study, it was proposed that experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame would be predictive of perceived addiction to pornography in men and women. Furthermore, it was thought that the more these individuals viewed pornography within the past month, the stronger that relationship would become. There is still debate as to whether or not one's actual frequency of pornography viewing contributes significantly to self-perceived addiction (Bothe, Toth-Kiraly, Potenza et al., 2020; Grubbs, Grant et al., 2018; Grubbs, Perry et al., 2019; Grubbs, Wilt et al., 2017). The current study has demonstrated that how often one views pornography does have merit with regards to strengthening men and women's idea that they are addicted to their use when it is viewed in active experiences of shame.

When investigating the effect frequency of pornography used in the past month on the relationship of experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame, this study demonstrated that for the men, all three levels had statistical findings: for the women, only characterological shame was significant. This outcome demonstrates that for the men, the more pornography they viewed in high shame episodes, the stronger the relationship of experiences of characterological, behavioral, and bodily shame was to perceived addiction to pornography. This dynamic was only valid for the women with characterological shame, and the relationships and interactions were much more robust for the men than the women. Men view much more

pornography than women (as supported by decades of empirical work), and this study demonstrated similar findings. Regarding the men and women in this study and their frequency of use in the past month, the highest use percentage for men was 34.1%, who reported using ten or more times per month, compared to the women, whose highest percentage was 42.3% who reported using 1-3 times per month. The findings of this study and the interaction results may help clinicians form a better understanding of shame experiences and their effect when considering problematic pornography use, perceived addiction, and the effect of frequency of use on those constructs.

REFERENCES

- Adams, K. M., & Robinson, D. W. (2001). Shame reduction, affect regulation and sexual boundary development: Essential building blocks of sexual addiction treatment. *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity*, 8, 23-44. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1080/10720160127559>
- Alarcon, R. D., de la Iglesia, J. I., Casado, N. M., & Montejo, A. L. (2019). Online porn addiction: What we know and what we don't: A systematic review. *Journal of Clinical Medicine*, 8(91), 1-20. 10.3390/jcm8010091
- Albertella, L., Rotaru, K., Christensen, E., Lowe, A., Brierley, M. E., Richardson, K., Chamberlain, S. R., Lee, R. S. C., Kayayan, E., Grant, J. E., Schluter-Hughes, S., Ince, C., Fontenelle, L. F., Segrave, R., & Yucel, M. (2021). The influence of trait compulsivity and impulsivity on addictive and compulsive behaviors during COVID-19. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, 12, 1-12. 10.3389/fpsyt.2021.634583
- Allen, A., Kannis-Dymand, L., & Katsikitis, M. (2017). Problematic pornography use: The role of craving, desire thinking, and metacognition. *Addictive Behaviors*, 70, 65-71. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addbeh.2017.02.001>
- American Psychiatric Association. (2013). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders* (5th ed.). Author.
- Andrews, B. (1995). Bodily shame as a mediator between abusive experiences and depression. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 104, 41-50. 10.1037/0021-843X.104.2.277
- Andrews, B., & Brown, G. W. (1993). Self-esteem and vulnerability to depression: The concurrent validity of interview and questionnaire measures. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 102, 565-572. 10.1037//0021-843X.102.4.565

- Andrews, B., & Hunter, E. (1997). Shame, early abuse, and course of depression in a clinical sample: A preliminary study. *Cognition and Emotion*, 11(4), 373-381. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1080/026999397379845>
- Andrews, B., Qian, M., & Valentine, J. D. (2002). Predicting depressive symptoms with a new measure of shame: The experience of shame scale. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 41, 29-42.
<http://ezproxy.liberty.edu/login?qurl=https%3A%2F%2Fwww.proquest.com%2Fscly-journals%2Fpredicting-depressive-symptoms-with-new-measure%2Fdocview%2F218673903%2Fse-2%3Faccountid%3D12085>
- Antons, S., Mueller, S. M., Wegmann, E., Trotzke, P., Schulte, M. M., & Brand, M. (2019). Facets of impulsivity and related aspects differentiate among recreational and unregulated use of Internet pornography. *Journal of Behavioral Addiction*, 8(2), 223-233.
10.1556/2006.8.2019.22
- Baranowski, A. M., Vogl, R., & Stark, R. (2019). Prevalence and determinants of problematic online pornography use in a sample of German women. *The Journal of Sexual Medicine*, 16, 1274-1282. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsxm.2019.05.010>
- Benfield, J. (2018, October). Sex addiction: The search for a secure base. *Best Practice Research Healthcare Counseling and Psychotherapy Journal*, 18(4), 14-17.
<https://www.bacp.co.uk/bacp-journals/private-practice/september-2018/sex-addiction/>
- Binnie, J., & Reavey, P. (2020). Development and implications of pornography use: A narrative review. *Sexual and Relationship Therapy*, 35(2), 178-194.
10.1080/14681994.2019.1635250

- Bloch, I. (1902). *Anthropological studies in the strange sexual practices of all races in all ages, ancient and modern, oriental and occidental, primitive and civilized* (1st ed.). AMS Press. (Reprinted 1974).
- Blythin, S. P. M., Nicholson, H. L., Macintyre, V. G., Dickerson, J. M., Fox, J. R. E., & Taylor, P. J. (2020). Experiences of shame and guilt in anorexia and bulimia nervosa: A systematic review. *Psychology and Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice*, 93, 134-159. 10.1111/papt.12198
- Boies, S. C. (2002). University students' uses of and recreations to online sexual information and entertainment: Links to online and offline sexual behavior. *Canadian Journal of Human Sexuality*, 11, 77-89. <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/2003-06862-002>
- Borgogna, N. C., Duncan, J., & McDermott, R. (2018). Is scrupulosity behind the relationship between problematic pornography viewing and depression, anxiety, and stress? *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity*, 25(4), 293-318. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1080/10720162.2019.1567410>
- Borgogna, N. C., Lathan, E. C., & Mitchell, A. (2018). Is women's problematic pornography viewing related to body image or relationship satisfaction. *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity*, 25(4), 345-366. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10720162.2018.1532360>
- Borgogna, N. C., & McDermott, R. C. (2018). The role of gender, experiential avoidance, and scrupulosity in problematic pornography viewing: A moderated-mediation model. *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity*, 25(4), 319-344. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10720162.2018.1503123>
- Botera, A. R., Kambanis, E. P., & De Young, K. P. (2020). The differential associations of shame and guilt with eating disorder behavior. *Eating Behaviors*, 39, 1-6.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eatbeh.2020.101427>

Bothe, B., Lonza, A., Stulhofer, A., & Demetrovics, Z. (2020). Symptoms of problematic pornography use in a sample of treatment considering and treatment non-considering men: A network approach. *The Journal of Sexual Medicine*, 17, 2016-2028.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsxm.2020.05.030>

Bothe, B., Toth-Kiraly, I., Bella, N., Potenza, M. N., Demetrovics, Z., & Orosz, G. (2020). Why do people watch pornography? The motivational basis of pornography use. *Psychology of Addictive Behavior*, 35(2), 172-186. 10.1037/adb0000603

Bothe, B., Toth-Kiraly, I., Griffiths, M. D., Potenza, M. N., & Orosz, G. (2021). Are sexual functioning problems associated with frequent pornography use and/or problematic pornography use? Results from a large community survey including males and females. *Addictive Behaviors*, 112, 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addbeh.2020.106603>

Bothe, B., Toth-Kiraly, I., Potenza, M. N., Griffiths, M. D., Orosz, G., & Demetrovics, Z., (2019). Revisiting the role of impulsivity and compulsivity in problematic sexual behaviors. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 56(2), 166-179.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/00224499.2018.1480744>

Bothe, B., Toth-Kiraly, I., Potenza, M. N., Griffiths, M. D., Orosz, G., & Demetrovics, Z. (2020). High-frequency pornography use may not always be problematic. *Sexual Medicine*, 17, 793-811. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsxm.2020.01.007>

Bothe, B., Toth-Kiraly, I., Zsila, A., Griffiths, M. D., Demetrovics, Z., & Orosz, G. (2018). The development of the problematic pornography consumption scale (PPCS). *The Journal of Sex Research*, 55(3), 395-406. 10.1080/00224499.2017.1291798

Bottera, A. R., Kambanis E. P., & DeYoung, K. P. (2020). The differential associations of shame

and guilt with eating disorder behaviors. *Eating Behaviors*, 39, 1-6.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eatbeh.2020.101427>

Bradshaw, J. (1988). *Healing the shame that binds you*. Health Communications, Inc.

Brand, M., Laier, C., Pawlikowski, M. Schachtel, U., Scholer, T., & Altstötter-Gleich, C. (2011).

Watching pornographic pictures on the internet: Role of sexual arousal ratings and psychological-psychiatric symptoms for using internet sex sites excessively.

Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking, 14(6), 371-377.

10.1089/cyber.2010.0222

Brem, M. J., Shorey, R. C., Anderson, S., & Stuart, G. L. (2017). Does experiential avoidance explain the relationships between shame, PTSD symptoms, and compulsive sexual behavior among women in substance use treatment. *Clinical Psychology &*

Psychotherapy, 25, 692-700. 10.1002/cpp.2300

Brem, M. J., Shorey, R. C., Anderson, S., & Stuart, G. L. (2019). Exploring gender differences in the relationship between dispositional mindfulness and compulsive sexual behavior among adults in residential substance use treatment. *Mindfulness*, 10, 1592-1602.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s12671-019-01117-7>

Bresin, K. (2014). Five indices of emotion regulation in participants with a history of nonsuicidal self-injury: A daily diary study. *Behavior Therapy*, 45, 56-66.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.beth.2013.09.005>

Bridges, A. J., & Morokoff, P. J. (2011). Sexual media use and relational satisfaction in heterosexual couples. *Personal Relationships*, 18, 562-585. 10.1111/j.1475-

6811.2010.01328.x

Bryant, P., & Shim, J. W. (2008). Gender, sexual affect, and motivations for internet

- pornography use. *International Journal of Sexual Health*, 20(3), 187-199.
10.1080/19317610802240154
- Buhrmester, M., Kwang, T., & Gosling, S. D. (2011). Amazon's mechanical turk: A new source of inexpensive, yet high-quality data? *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 6(1), 3-5.
<https://www.jstor.org/stable/41613414>
- Butler, M. H., Pereyra, S. A., Draper, T. W., Leonhardt, N. D., & Skinner, K. B. (2018). Pornography use and loneliness: A bidirectional recursive model and pilot investigation. *Journal of Sex & Marital Therapy*, 44(2), 127-137.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/0092623X.2017.1321601>
- Camilleri, C., Perry, J. T., & Sammut, S. (2021). Compulsive internet pornography use and mental health: A cross-sectional study in a sample of university students in the United States. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 11, 1-24. 10.3389/fpsyg.2020.613244
- Campbell, L., & Kohut, T. (2017). The use and effects of pornography in romantic relationships. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 13, 6-10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2016.03.004>
- Carboneau, R. A. (2018). *Religiosity, moral disapproval, shame and pornography use: Assessing the relationship between shame and sexual behaviors*. (Publication No. 10822856)
[Doctoral dissertation, Liberty University]. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global.
- Carnes, P. (2001). *Out of the shadows: Understanding sexual addiction* (3rd ed.). Hazeldon.
- Carroll, J. S., Padilla-Walker, L. M., Nelson, L. J., Olson, C. D., McNarmara, B. C., & Madsen, S. D. (2008). Generation XXX: Pornography acceptance and use among emerging adults. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 23(1), 6-30. 10.1177/0743558407306348
- Cavalera, C., Pagnini, F., Zurloni, V., Diana, B., Realdon, O., Castelnovo, G., Todisco, P., & Molinari, E. (2016). Shame proneness and eating disorders: A comparison between

- clinical and non-clinical samples. *Eating and Weight Disorders*, 21(4), 701-707.
10.1007/s40519-016-0328-y
- Chandler, A. (2012). Self-injury as embodied emotion work: Managing rationality, emotions and bodies. *Sociology*, 46(2), 442-457. 10.1177/0038038511422589
- Cheetham, A., Allen, N. B., Yucel, M., & Lubman, D. I. (2010). The role of affective dysregulation in drug addiction. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 30, 621-634.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2010.04.005>
- Chisholm, M., & Gall, T. L. (2015). Shame and x-rated addiction: the role of spirituality in treating male pornography addiction. *The Journal of Treatment & Prevention*, 22(4), 259-272. 10.1080/10720162.2015.1066279
- Chou, W. P., Ko, C. H., Kauffman, E. A., Crowell, S. E., Hsiao, R. C., Wang, P. W., Lin, J. J., & Yen, C. F. (2015). Association of stress coping strategies with internet addiction in college students: The moderating effect of depression. *Comprehensive Psychiatry*, 62, 27-33. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.comppsy.2015.06.004>
- Cooper, A. (2000). *Cybersex: The dark side of the force*. Brunner-Routledge.
- Cooper, A., Delmonico, D. L., & Burg, R. (2000). Cybersex users, abusers, and compulsives: New findings and implications. *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity: The Journal of Treatment and Prevention*, 7(1-2), 5-29. 10.1080/10720160008400205
- Cooper, A., Galbreath, N., & Becker, M. (2004). Sex on the Internet: Furthering our understanding of men with on-line sexual problems. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, 18(3), 223-230. 10.1037/0893-164X.18.3.223
- Cooper, A., Delmonico, D. L., Griffin-Shelly, E., & Mathy, R. M. (2004). Online sexual activity: An examination of potentially problematic behaviors. *Sexual Addiction and*

- Compulsivity*, 11, 129-143. 10.1080/10720160490882642
- Cooper, A., Putnam, D. E., Planchon, L. A., & Boies, S. C. (2000). Online sexual compulsivity: Getting tangled in the net. *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity: The Journal of Treatment and Prevention*, 6(2), 79-104. 10.1080/10720169908400182
- Cranney, S. (2015). Internet pornography use and sexual body image in a Dutch sample. *International Journal of Sexual Health*, 27, 316-323. 10.1080/19317611.2014.999967
- Crosby, J. M., & Twohig, M. P. (2016). Acceptance and commitment therapy for problematic internet pornography use: A randomized trial. *Behavior Therapy*, 47, 355-366.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.beth.2016.02.001>
- Daneback, K., Traeen, & Mansson, S.A. (2009). Use of pornography in a random sample of Norwegian heterosexual couples. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 38, 746-753.
10.1007/s10508-008-9314-4
- Daspe, M. E., Vaillancourt-Morel, M. P., Lussier, Y., Sabourin, S., & Ferron, A. (2017). When pornography use feels out of control: The moderation effect of relationship and sexual satisfaction. *Journal of Sex & Marital Therapy*, 44(4), 343-353.
10.1080/0092623X.2017.1405301
- Dearing, R. L., Stuewig, J. & Tangney, J. P. (2005). On the importance of distinguishing shame from guilt: Relations to problematic alcohol and drug use. *Addictive Behaviors*, 30, 1392-1404. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addbeh.2005.02.002>
- DeFrance, K., Lanteigne, D., Glozman, J., & Hollenstein, T. (2017). A new measure of the expression of shame: The shame code. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 26(3), 769-780. <http://dx.doi.org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1007/s10826-016-0589-0>
- DeJong, D. C., & Cook, C. (2021). Roles of religiosity, obsessive-compulsive symptoms,

- scrupulosity, and shame in self-perceived pornography addiction: A preregistered study. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 50, 695-709. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10508-020-01878-6>
- Delmonico, D., & Miller, J. (2003). The Internet Sex Screening Test: A comparison of sexual compulsives versus non-sexual compulsives. *Sexual and Relationship Therapy*, 18(3), 261-276. 10.1080/1468199031000153900
- DeYoung, P. A. (2015). *Understanding and treating chronic shame: Relational/neurobiological approach*. Routledge.
- Dhuffar, M. K., Pontes, H. M., & Griffiths, M. D. (2015). The role of negative mood states and consequences of hypersexual behaviours in predicting hypersexuality among university students. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions*, 4(3), 181-188. 10.1556/2006.4.2015.030
- Dodge, B., Reece, M., Cole, S. L., & Sandfort, T. G. M. (2004). Sexual compulsivity among heterosexual college students. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 41(4), 343-350. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/3813542>
- Dogan, U., & Kaya, S. (2016). Mediation effects of internet addiction on shame and social networking. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 4(5), 1037-1042. 10.13189/ujer.2016.040513
- D'Orlando, F. (2011). The demand for pornography. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 12, 51-75. 10.1007/s10902-009-9175-0
- Dorahy, M. J., McKendry, H., Scott, A., Yogeewaran, K., Martens, A., & Hanna, D. (2017). Reactive dissociative experiences in response to acute increases in shame feelings. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, 89, 75-85. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.brat.2016.11.007>
- Doran, K., & Price, J. (2014). Pornography and Marriage. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, 35(4), 489-498. <http://dx.doi.org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1007/s10834-014-9391-6>

- Droubay, B. A., Shafer, K., & Butters, R. P. (2020). Sexual desire and subjective distress among pornography consumers. *Journal of Sex & Marital Therapy*, 46(8), 773-792. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1080/0092623X.2020.1822483>
- Duffy, A., Dawson, D. L., Moghaddam, N. G., & das Nair, R. (2016). Do thinking styles play a role in whether people pathologies their pornography use? *Sexual and Relationship Therapy*, 34(1), 87-108. 10.1080/14681994.2017.1412417
- Egan, V., & Parmar, R. (2013). Dirty habits? Online pornography use, personality, obsessionality, and compulsivity. *Journal of Sex & Marital Therapy*, 39, 394-409. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1080/0092623X.2012.710182>
- Elder, W. B., Brooks, G. R., & Morrow, S. L. (2012). Sexual self-schemas of heterosexual men. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity*, 13(2), 166-179. 10.1037/a0024835
- Elison, J., Garofalo, C., & Velotti, P. (2014). Shame and aggression: Theoretical considerations. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 19, 447-453. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2014.05.002>
- Elison, J., Lennon, R., & Pulos, S. (2006). Investigating the compass of shame: The development of the compass of shame. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 34(3), 221-237. <http://ezproxy.liberty.edu/login?qurl=https%3A%2F%2Fwww.proquest.com%2Fscholarly-journals%2Finvestigating-compass-shame-development-scale%2Fdocview%2F209897114%2Fse-2%3Faccountid%3D12085>
- Ellis, A., & Harper, R. A. (1975). *A new guide to rational living*. Wilshire Book Company.
- Fergus, T. A., Valentiner, D. P., McGrath, P. B., & Jencius, S. (2018). Shame and guilt-proneness: Relationships with anxiety disorder symptoms in a clinical sample. *Journal of Sex Research*, 55(6), 772-782. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00224499.2018.1440281>
- Ferguson, C. J., & Hartley, R. D. (2009). The pleasure is momentary...the expense damnable?

- The influence of pornography on rape and sexual assault. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 14, 323-329. 10.1016/j.avb.2009.04.008
- Fernandez, D. P., Tee, E. Y. J., & Fernandez, E. F. (2017). Do Cyberpornography Use Inventory-9 scores reflect actual compulsivity in internet pornography use? Exploring the role of abstinence effort. *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity*, 24(3), 156-179.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/10720162.2017.1344166>
- Fisher, W. A., Montgomery-Graham, S., & Kohut, T. (2019). Pornography problems due to moral incongruence. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 48, 425-429.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10508-018-1291-7>
- Fjermestad-Noll, J., Ronningstam, E., Bach, B. S., Rosenbaum, B., & Simonsen, E. (2020). Perfectionism, shame, and aggression in depressive patients with narcissistic personality disorder. *Journal of Personality Disorders*, 34(special issue), 25-41.
<https://doi.org/10.1521/pedi.2020.34.supp.25>
- Floyd, C. G., Volk, F., Flory, D., Harden, K., Peters, C., & Taylor, A. (2021). Sexual shame as a unique distress outcome of morally incongruent pornography use: Modifications and methodological considerations. *Archive of Sexual Behavior*, 26(1), 1-19.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10508-021-02104-7>
- Fong, T. W., Reid, R. C., & Parham, I. (2012). Behavioral addictions: Where to draw the line? *Psychiatric Clinics of North America*, 35, 279-296.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psc.2012.03.001>
- Ford, J. J., Surtschi, J. A., & Franklin, D. L. (2012). Structural therapy with a couple battling pornography addiction. *The American Journal of Family Therapy*, 40, 336-348.
10.1080/01926187.2012.685003

- Franzoni, E., Gualandi, S., Caretti, V., Schimmenti, A., Di Pietro, E., Pellegrini, G., Craparo, G., Franchi, A., Verrotti, A., & Pellicciari, A. (2013). The relationship between alexithymia, shame, trauma, and body image disorders: Investigation over a large clinical sample. *Neuropsychiatric Disease and Treatment*, 9, 185-193.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.2147/NDT.S34822>
- Fraumeni-McBride, J. (2019). Addiction and mindfulness; Pornography addiction and mindfulness-based therapy ACT. *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity*, 26(1-2), 42-53.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/10720162.2019.1576560>
- Fuller-Tyszkiewicz, M., Richardson, B., Lewis, V., Smyth, J., & Krug, I. (2018). Do women with greater trait body dissatisfaction experience body dissatisfaction states differently? An experience sampling study. *Body Image*, 25, 1-8.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bodyim.2018.01.004>
- Garcia, F. D., & Thibaut, F. (2010). Sexual addictions. *The American Journal of Drug and Alcohol Abuse*, 36, 254–260. Doi.org/10.3109/00952990.2010.503823
- Gata, M., Dal Santo, F., Rago, A., Spoto, A., & Battistella, P. A. (2016). Alexithymia, impulsiveness, and psychopathology in nonsuicidal self-injured adolescents. *Neuropsychiatric Disease and Treatment*, 12, 2307-2317. 10.2147/NDT.S106433
- Gewirtz-Meydan, A., Mitchell, K. J., Spivak-Lavi, Z., & Kraus, S. W. (2021). Attachment insecurities and body image self-consciousness among women: The mediating role of pornography use. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 124, 1-9.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2021.106916>
- Ghaleh Emamghaisi, Z., & Atashpour, S. H. (2020). Effectiveness of acceptance and

- commitment therapy on self-criticism and feeling of shame in methamphetamine users. *Journal of Substance Use*, 25(4), 372-376. 10.1080/14659891.2019.1704082
- Gilbert, P. (2002). Body shame: A biopsychosocial conceptualization and overview, with treatment implications. In P. Gilbert & J. Miles (Eds.), *Body shame: Conceptualization, research and treatment* (pp.4-54). Brunner-Routledge.
- Gilbert, P. (1997). Evolution, social roles, and the differences in shame and guilt and therapy. *Social Research*, 70(4), 1205-1230. 10.1111/j.2044-8341.1997.tb01893.x
- Gilliland, R., South, M., Carpenter, B. N., & Hardy, S. A. (2011). The roles of shame and guilt in hypersexual behavior. *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity*, 18(1), 12-29. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1080/10720162.2011.551182>
- Goffnett, J., Liechty, J. M., Kidder, E. (2020). Interventions to reduce shame: A systematic review. *Journal of Behavioral Cognitive Therapy*, 30, 141-160. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbct.2020.03.001>
- Gola, M, Lewczuk, K., & Skorko, M. (2016). What matters: Quantity or quality of pornography use? Psychological and behavioral factors of seeking treatment for problematic pornography use. *The Journal of Sexual Medicine*, 13, 815-824. Doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsxm.2016.02.16910.1038/npp.2017.78>
- Gola, M., Wordecha, M., Sescousse, G., Lew-Sarowicz, M., Kossowski, B., Wypych, M. Makeigl, S., Potenza, M. N., & Marchewka, A. (2017). Can pornography be addictive? An Fmri study of men seeking treatment for problematic pornography use. *Neuropsychopharmacology*, 42, 2021-2031. 10.1038/npp.2017.78
- Goldsmith, K., Dunkley, C. R., Dang, S. S. , & Gorzalka, B. B. (2017). Pornography consumption and its association with sexual concerns and expectations among young

men and women. *The Canadian Journal of Human Sexuality*, 26(2), 151-162.

10.3138/cjhs.262-a2

Gordon, A. (2018). How men experience sexual shame: The development and validation of the male sexual shame scale. *Journal of Men's Studies*, 26(1), 105-123.

10.1177/1060826517728303

Gratz, K. L. (2007). Targeting emotion dysregulation in the treatment of self-injury. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 63(11), 1091-1103. 10.1002/jclp.20417

Griffiths, M. (2005). A 'component' model of addiction within a biopsychosocial framework. *Journal of Substance Use*, 10(4), 191-197. 10.1080/14659890500114359

Griffiths, S., Mitchison, D., Murray, S. B., & Mond, J. M. (2018). Pornography use in sexual minority males: Associations with body dissatisfaction, eating disorder symptoms, thoughts about using anabolic steroids and quality of life. *Australian & New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry*, 52(4), 339-348. 10.1177/0004867417728807

Gross, J. J., & John, O. P. (2003). Individual differences in two emotion regulation processes: Implications for affect, relationships, and well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85(2), 348-362. <http://dx.doi.org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1037/0022-3514.85.2.348>

Grubbs, J. B. (2020, April 8). *Porn is up, thanks to the pandemic*.

<https://theconversation.com/porn-use-is-up-thanks-to-the-pandemic-134972>

Grubbs, J.B., Exline, J.J., Pargament, K.I., Hook, J.N., & Carlisle, R.D. (2015). Transgression as addiction: Religiosity and moral disapproval as predictors of perceived addiction to pornography. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 44, 125-136. 10.1007/s10508-013-0257-z

Grubbs, J. B., Exline, J. J., Pargament, K. I., Volk, F., & Lindberg, M. J. (2017). Internet

- pornography use, perceived addiction, and religious/spiritual struggles. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 46, 1733-1745 . <https://doiorg.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1007/s10508-016-0772-9>
- Grubbs, J. B., & Gola, M. (2019). Is pornography use related to erectile functioning? Results from cross-sectional and latent growth curve analyses. *Sexual Medicine*, 16, 111-125. <http://dx.doi.org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1016/j.jsxm.2018.11.004>
- Grubbs, J. B., Grant, J. T. & Engelman, J. (2018). Self-identification as a pornography addict: Examining the rolls of pornography use, religiousness, and moral incongruence. *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity*, 25(4), 269-292. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1080/10720162.2019.1565848>
- Grubbs, J. B., Hoagland, K. C., Lee, B. N., Grant, J. T., Davidson, P., Reid, R. C., & Kraus, S. W. (2020). Sexual addiction 25 years on: A systematic and methodological review of empirical literature and an agenda for future research. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 82, 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2020.101925>
- Grubbs, J. B., Kraus, S. W., & Perry, S. L. (2019). Self-reported addiction to pornography in a nationally representative sample: The roles of use habits, religiousness, and moral incongruence. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions*, 8(1), 88-93. 10.1556/2006.7.2018.134
- Grubbs, J. B., Kraus, S. W., & Perry, S. L., Lewczuk, K., & Gola, M. (2020). Moral incongruence and compulsive sexual behavior: Results from cross-sectional interactions and parallel growth curve analyses. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 129(3), 266-278. 10.1037/abn0000501
- Grubbs, J. B., & Perry, S. L. (2019). Moral incongruence and pornography use: A critical review and integration. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 56(1), 29-37.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/00224499.2018.1427204>

Grubbs, J. B., Perry, S. L., Wilt, J. A., & Reid, R. C. (2019). Pornography problems due to moral incongruence: An integrative model with a systematic review and meta-analysis.

Archives of Sexual Behavior, 48, 397-415. 10.1007/s10508-018-1248-x

Grubbs, J. B., Sessoms, J., Wheeler, D. M., & Volk, F. (2010). The Cyber-Pornography Use Inventory: The development of a new assessment instrument. *Sexual Addiction &*

Compulsivity, 17(2), 106-126. <https://doi->

[org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1080/10720161003776166](https://doi-)

Grubbs, J. B., Stauner, N., Exline, J. J., Pargament, K. I., & Lindberg, M. J. (2015). Perceived addiction to internet pornography and psychological distress: Examining relationships concurrently and over time. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, 29(4), 1056-1067.

10.1037/adb0000114

Grubbs, J. B., Volk, F., Exline, J. J., & Pargament, K. I. (2015). Internet pornography use:

Perceived addiction, psychological distress, and the validation of a brief measure. *Journal of Sex and Marriage*, 41(1), 83-106. 10.1007/s10508-016-0772-9

Grubbs, J. B., Wilt, J. A., Exline, J. J., & Pargament, K. I. (2018). Predicting pornography use over time: Does self-reported “addiction” matter? *Addictive Behaviors*, 82, 57-64.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addbeh.2018.02.028>

Grubbs, J. B., Wilt, J. A., Exline, J. J., Pargament, K. I., & Kraus, S. W. (2017). Moral

disapproval and perceived addiction to internet pornography: A longitudinal examination.

Addiction, 113, 496-506. 10.1111/add.14007

Gunnarsson, N. V. (2020). The self-perpetuating cycle of shame and self-injury. *Humanity &*

Society, 45(3), 1-21. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0160597620904475>

- Hajela, R., & Love, T. (2017). Addiction beyond substances: What's up with the DSM? *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity*, 24(1-2), 11-22.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/10720162.2017.1306468>
- Hald, G. M. (2006). Gender differences in pornography consumption among young heterosexual Danish adults. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 35, 577-585. 10.1007/s10508-006-9064-0
- Hald, G. M., & Malamuth, N. M. (2008). Self-perceived effects of pornography consumption. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 37, 614-625. 10.1007/s10508-007-9212-1
- Hall, P. (2011). A biopsychosocial view of sex addiction. *Sexual and Relationship Therapy*, 26(3), 217-228. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14681994.2011.628310>
- Harper, C., & Hodgins, D. C. (2016). Examining correlates of problematic internet pornography use among university students. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions*, 5(2), 179-191.
 10.1556/2006.5.2016.022
- Hayes, A. F. (2018). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis*. The Guilford Press.
- Hayes, S. C., & Levin, M. E. (Eds.). (2012). *Mindfulness and acceptance for addictive behaviors: Applying contextual CBT to substance abuse and behavioral addictions*. Context Press.
- Hayes, S. C., Wilson, K. G., Gifford, E. V., Follette, V. M., & Strosahl, K. (1996). Experiential avoidance and behavioral disorders: A functional dimensional approach to diagnosis and treatment. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 64(6), 1152-1168.
 10.1037/0022-006X.64.6.1152
- Hayes, S. C., Luoma, J. B., Bond, F. W., Masuda, A., & Lillis, J. (2006). Acceptance and commitment therapy: Model, processes and outcomes. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*,

- 44, 1-25. 10.1016/j.brat.2005.06.006
- Hejdenberg, J., & Andrews, B. (2011). The relationship between shame and different types of anger: *A theory-based investigation. Personality and Individual Differences, 50*, 1278-1282. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2011.02.024>
- Hilton, D. L. (2013). Pornography addiction: A supranormal stimulus considered in the context of neuroplasticity. *Socioaffective Neuroscience & Psychology, 3*, 1-8. <http://dx.doi.org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.3402/snp.v3i0.20767>
- Hofseth, E., Toering, T., & Jordet, G. (2015). Shame proneness, guilt proneness, behavioral self-handicapping, and skill level: A meditational analysis. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 27*(3), 359-370. 10.1080/10413200.2015.1014974
- Houazene, S., Leclerc, J. B., O'Connor, K., & Aardema, F. (2021). "Shame on you": The impact of shame in body-focused repetitive behaviors and binge eating. *Behaviour Research and Therapy, 138*, 1-8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.brat.2021.103804>
- Howard, M. D. (2007). Escaping the pain: Examining the use of sexually compulsive behavior to avoid the traumatic memories of combat. *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity, 14*(2), 77-94. 10.1080/10720160701310443
- Jaksic, N., Marcinko, D., Hanzek, M. S., Rebernjak, B., & Ogrodniczuk, J. S. (2017). Experience of shame mediates the relationship between pathological narcissism and suicidal ideation in psychiatric outpatients. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 73*(12), 1670-1681. 10.1002/jclp.22472
- Janoff-Bulman, R. (1979). Characterological versus behavioral self-blame: Inquiries into depression and rape. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37*, 1798-1809. 10.1037/0022-3514.37.10.1798

- Johnson, D. R., & Bordon, L. A. (2012). Participants at your fingertips: Using Amazon's mechanical Turk to increase student-faculty collaborative research. *Teaching of Psychology, 39*(4), 245-251. 10.1177/0098628312456615
- Kafka, M. P. (2010). Hypersexual disorder: A proposed diagnosis for DSM-5. *Archives of Sexual Behavior, 39*, 377-400. 10.1007/s10508-009-9574-7
- Kalman, T. P. (2008). Clinical encounters with internet pornography. *Journal of the American Academy of Psychoanalysis and Dynamic Psychiatry, 36*(4), 593-618.
<http://ezproxy.liberty.edu/login?url=https%3A%2F%2Fwww.proquest.com%2Fscholarly-journals%2Ffrontline-clinical-encounters-with-internet%2Fdocview%2F198202198%2Fse-2%3Faccountid%3D12085>
- Kaplan, M. S., & Krueger, R. B. (2010). Diagnosis, assessment, and treatment of hypersexuality. *Journal of Sex Research, 47*(2-3), 181-198. 10.1080/00224491003592863
- Kato, T.A. (2020). Forced social isolation due to COVID-19 and consequent mental health problems: *Lessons from Hikikomori. Psychiatry and Clinical Neurosciences, 74*(9), 506-507. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1111/pcn.13112>
- Kim, S., Thibodeau, R., & Jorgensen, R. S. (2011). Shame, guilt, and depressive symptoms: A meta-analytical review. *Psychological Bulletin, 137*(1), 68-96.
 10.1037/a0021466
- Kinsey, A. C., Pomeroy, W. B., & Martin, C. E. (1948). *Sexual behavior in the human male*. W. Saunders Company.
- Klonsky, D. E. (2007). The functions of deliberate self-injury: A review of the evidence. *Clinical Psychology Review, 27*, 226-239. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpr.2006.08.002>
- Kohut, T., Fisher, W. A., & Campbell, L. (2017). Perceived effects of pornography on the couple

- relationship: Initial findings of open-ended, participant-informed, “bottom-up” research. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 46, 585-602. 10.1007/s10508-016-0783-6
- Kor, A., Fogel, Y. A., Reid, R. C., & Potenza, M. N. (2013). Should hypersexual disorder be classified as an addiction? *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity*, 20(1-2), 27-47. 10.1080/10720162.2013.768132
- Kor, A., Zilcha-Mano, S., Fogel, Y. A., Mikulincer, M., Reid, R. C., & Potenza, M. N. (2014). Psychometric development of the problematic pornography use scale. *Addictive Behaviors*, 39(5), 861-868. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addbeh.2014.01.027>
- Kraus, S. W., Martino, S., & Potenza, M. N. (2016). Clinical characteristics of men interested in seeking treatment for use of pornography. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions*, 5(2), 169-178. 10.1556/2006.5.2016.036
- Kraus, S. W., Potenza, M. N., Martino, S., & Grant, J. E. (2015). Examining the psychometric properties of the Yale-Brown obsessive-compulsive scale in a sample of compulsive pornography users. *Comprehensive Psychiatry*, 59, 117-122. 10.1016/j.comppsy.2015.02.007
- Kraus, S. W., & Sweeney, P. J. (2019). Hitting the target: Considerations for differential diagnosis when treating individuals for problematic use of pornography. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 48, 431-435. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10508-018-1301-9>
- Kyle, S. E. (2013). *Identification and treatment of sexual shame: Development of a measurement tool and group therapy protocol*. [Doctoral dissertation, The American Academy of Clinical Sexologists]. <http://www.esextherapy.com/dissertations/Sarah%20E%20Kyle%20Identification%20and%20Treatment%20of%20Sexual%20Shame%20Development%20of%20a%20Measure>

ment%20Tool%20and%20Group%20Therapy%20Protocol.pdf

Laier, C., Pekai, J., & Brand, M. (2014). Cybersex addiction in heterosexual female users of internet pornography can be explained by gratification hypothesis. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking*, 17(8), 505-511.

10.1089/cyber.2013.0396

Levi, G., Cohen, C., Kaliche, S., Sharaabi, S., Cohen, K., Tzur-Bitan, D., & Weinstein, A. (2020). Sexual addition, compulsivity, and impulsivity among a predominantly female sample of adults who use the internet for sex. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions*, 9(1), 83-92. 10.1556/2006.2020.00007

Levin, M. E., Lee, E. B., & Twohig, M. P. (2019). The role of experiential avoidance in problematic pornography viewing. *The Psychological Record*, 69, 1-12.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s40732-018-0302-3>

Lewczuk, K., Glica, A., Nowakowska, I., Gola, M., & Grubbs, J. B. (2020). Evaluating pornography problems due to moral incongruence model. *The Journal of Sexual Medicine*, 17, 300-311. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsxm.2019.11.259>

Lewczuk, K., Nowakowska, I., Lewandowska, K., Potenza, M. N., & Gola, M. (2020). Frequency of use, moral incongruence and religiosity and their relationships with self-perceived addiction to pornography, internet use, social networking and online gaming. *Addiction*, 116, 889-899. 10.1111/add.15272

Lewis, H. (1971). *Shame and guilt in neurosis*. New York: International Universities Press.

Lewis-Smith, H., Diedrichs, P. C., Rumsey, N., & Harcourt, D. (2016). A systematic review of interventions on body image and disordered eating outcomes among women in midlife.

- International Journal of Eating Disorders*, 49(1), 5-18. 10.1002/eat.22480
- Loehle, B., McKie, R. M., Levere, D., Bossio, J. A., Humphreys, T. P., & Travers, R. (2017). Predictors of men's genital self-image across sexual orientation and geographic region. *The Canadian Journal of Human Sexuality*, 26(2), 130-141. 10.3138/cjhs.262.a7
- Lopez-Castro, T., Saraiya, T., Zumberg-Smith, K., & Dambreville, N. (2019). Association between shame and posttraumatic stress disorder: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, 32, 484-495. 10.1002/jts.22411
- Love, T., Laier, C., Brand, M., Hatch, L., & Hajela, R. (2015). Neuroscience of internet pornography addiction: A review and update. *Behavioral Science*, 5, 388-433. 10.3390/bs5030388
- Lu, S. (2015, March 15). *Mindfulness holds promise for treating depression*. American Psychiatric Association. <https://www.apa.org/monitor/2015/03/cover-mindfulness>
- Maas, M. K., & Dewey, S. (2018). Internet pornography use among collegiate women: Gender attitudes, body monitoring, and sexual behavior. *SAGE Open*, 8(2), 1-9. 10.1177/2158244018786640
- Maas, M. K., Vasilenko, S. A., & Willoughby, B. J. (2018). A dyadic approach to pornography use and relationship satisfaction among heterosexual couples: The role of pornography acceptance and anxious attachment. *Journal of Sex Research*, 55(6), 772-782. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00224499.2018.1440281>
- Maddock, M. E., Steele, K., Esplin, C. R., Hatch, S. G., & Braithwaite, S. R. (2019). What is the relationship among religiosity, self-perceived problematic pornography use, and depression over time? *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity*, 26(3-4), 211-238. [10.1080/10720162.2019.1645061](https://doi.org/10.1080/10720162.2019.1645061)

- Maheux, A. J., Roberts, S. R., Evans, R., Widman, L., & Choukas-Bradley, S. (2021). Associations between adolescents' pornography consumption and self-objectification, body comparison, and body shame. *Body Image*, 37, 89-93.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bodyim.2021.01.014>
- Mancuso, S. G., Phillipou, A., Rossell, S. L., & Castle, D. J. (2016). Depression, anxiety, and related disorders: Body image disorders in women. In D. J. Castle & K. M. Abel (Eds.) *Comprehensive women's mental health* (pp.197-207). Cambridge University Press.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107045132.017>
- Marcinechova, D., & Zahorcova, L. (2020). Sexual satisfaction, sexual attitudes, and shame in relation to religiosity. *Sexuality & Culture*, 24, 1913-1928.
<http://dx.doi.org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1007/s12119-020-09727-3>
- Marques, O. (2019). Navigating, challenging, and contesting normative gendered discourses surrounding women's pornography use. *Journal of Gender Studies*, 28(5), 578-590.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/09589236.2019.1590184>
- Mason, T. B., Lewis, R. J., & Heron, K. E. (2018). Disordered eating and body image concerns among sexual minority women: A systematic review and testable model. *Psychology of Sexual Orientation and Gender Diversity*, 5(4), 397-422.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/sgd0000293>
- Mason, W., & Suri, S. (2012). Conducting behavioral research on Amazon's mechanical turk. *Behavioral Research*, 44, 1-23. 10.3758/s13428-011-0124-6
- Matos, M., & Pinto-Gouveia, J. (2010). Shame as traumatic memory. *Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy*, 17, 299-312. 10.1002/cpp.659

- Matos, M., & Pinto-Gouveis, J. (2014). Shamed by a parent or by others: The role of attachment in shame memories relation to depression. *International Journal of Psychology and Psychological Therapy*, 14(2), 217-244.
<http://ezproxy.liberty.edu/login?url=https%3A%2F%2Fwww.proquest.com%2Fscholarly-journals%2Fshamed-parent-others-role-attachment->
- Matos, M., Duarte, J., & Pinto-Gouveia, J. (2017). The origins of fears of compassion: Shame and lack of safeness memories, fears of compassion and psychopathology. *The Journal of Psychology*, 151(8), 804-819. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00223980.2017.1393380>
shame%2Fdocview%2F1549551763%2Fse-2%3Faccountid%3D12085
- Mayo Clinic. (1998-2021). *Compulsive sexual behavior*. <https://www.mayoclinic.org/diseases-conditions/compulsive-sexual-behavior/symptoms-causes/syc-20360434>
- McCormack, M., & Wignall, L. (2017). Enjoyment, exploration, and education: Understanding the consumption of pornography among young men with non-exclusive sexual orientations. *Sociology*, 51(5), 975-991.
<https://doi-org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1177%2F0038038516629909>
- McKee, A., Byron, P., Litsou, K., & Ingham, R. (2020). An interdisciplinary definition of pornography: Results from a global Delphi. *Archives of Sexual Behaviors*, 49(3), 1085-1091. <https://web-a-ebshost-com.ezproxy.liberty.edu/ehost/results?vid=0&sid=6011dd7c-0a3a-4a78-8259-80d79cc84ad0%40sessionmgr4006&bquery=PM%2B31549362&bdata=JmRiPW1uaCZ0eXBIPTEmc2VhcmNoTW9Kzt1TdGFuZGFyZCZzaXRIPWVob3N0LWxpdmUmc2NvcGU9c2l0ZQ%3d%3d>
- Mendes, C. B., & Ferreira, C. (2019). A social rank approach to disordered eating: Exploring

relationships between shame, fears of compassion, striving, and body shame. *Psychology and Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice*, 93, 490-502.

<https://doi-org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1111/papt.12241>

Mestre-Bach, G., Blycker, G. R., & Potenza, M. N. (2020). Pornography use in the setting of the COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions*, 2, 181-183

10.1556/2006.2020.00015

Miller, D., Kidd, G., & Hald, M. (2019). Measuring self-perceived effects of pornography: A short-form version of the pornography consumption effects scale. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 48, 753-761.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10508-018-1327-z>

Mollon, P. (2005). The inherent shame of sexuality. *British Journal of Psychotherapy*, 22(2),

167-177. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1111/j.1752-0118.2005.tb00274.x>

Morgan, E. (2011). Associations between young adults' use of sexually explicit materials and their sexual preferences, behaviors, and satisfaction. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 48(6),

520-530. 10.1080/00224499.2010.543960

Morrison, A. P. (1989). *Shame: The underside of narcissism*. Analytic Press.

Muris, P., Meesters, C., Cima, M., Verhagen, M., Brochard, N. Sanders, A., Kempener, C.,

Beurskens, J., & Meesters, V. (2014). Bound to feel bad about oneself: Relations between

attachment and the self-conscious emotions of guilt and shame in children and

adolescents. *Journal of Family and Child Studies*, 23, 1278-1288. 10.1007/s10826-

013-9817-z

Muusses, L. D., Kerkhof, P., & Finkenauer, C. (2015). Internet pornography and relationship

quality: A longitudinal study of within and between partner effects of adjustment, sexual

satisfaction and sexually explicit internet material among newly-weds. *Computers in*

- Human Behavior*, 45, 77-84. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2014.11.077>
- Nathanson, D. L. (1992). *Shame and pride*. Norton.
- New King James Bible* (1997). Nelson Bibles. (Original work published 1979).
- Nystrom, M. B. T., Kjellberg, E., Heimdahl, U., & Jonsson, B. (2018). Shame and interpersonal sensitivity: Gender differences and the association between internalized shame coping and interpersonal sensitivity. *Bulletin of the Menninger Clinic*, 82(2), 137-155. 10.1521/bumc.2018.82.2.137.
- Nystrom, M.B.T., & Mikkelsen, F. (2013). Psychopathy-related personality traits and shame management strategies in adolescents. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence*, 28, 519-537. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1177/0886260512455512>
- Park, B. Y., Wilson, G., Berger, J., Christman, M., Reina, B, Bishop, F., Klam, W. P., & Doan, A. P. (2016). Is internet pornography causing sexual dysfunctions? A review with clinical reports. *Behavioral Science*, 6(17), 1-25. 10.3390/bs6030017
- Perry, S. L. (2017). Does viewing pornography diminish religiosity over time? Evidence from two-wave panel data. *Journal of Sex Research*, 54, 214–226. 10.1080/00224499.2016.1146203
- Perry, S. L. (2018). Pornography use and depressive symptoms: Examining the role of moral incongruence. *Society and Mental Health*, 8(3), 195-213. 10.1177/2156869317728373
- Perry, S. L., & Schleifer, C. (2018). Are the sanctified becoming the pornified? Religious conservatism, commitment, and pornography use, 1984-2016. *Social Science Quarterly*, 99(5), 1614-1626. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ssqu.12524>
- Picone, D. E. (2016). *The relationship of shame, guilt and religiousness to pornography use* (Publication No. 10289373) [Doctoral dissertation, Fuller Theological Seminary, School

of Psychology]. ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global.

Porter, A. C., Zerkowicz, R. L., Gist, D. C., & Cole, D. A. (2019). Self-evaluation and depressive symptoms: A latent variable analysis of self-esteem, shame-proneness, and self-criticism. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment*, 41, 257-270.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10862-019-09734-1>

Potenza, M. N. (2006). Should addictive disorders include non-substance-related conditions?

Addiction, 101, 142–151. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1111/j.1360-0443.2006.01591.x>

Poulsen, F. O., Busby, D. M., & Galovan, A. M. (2013). Pornography use: Who uses it and how it is associated with couple outcomes. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 50(1), 72-83.

10.1080/00224499.2011.648027

Prado, C. E., Treeby, M. S., & Crowe, S. F. (2016). Examining the relationships between sub-clinical psychopathic traits with shame, guilt and externalization response tendencies to everyday transgressions. *The Journal of Forensic Psychiatry & Psychology*, 27(4), 569-585. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14789949.2016.1167933>

Reay, B., Attwood, N., & Gooder, C. (2013). Inventing sex: The short history of sex addiction. *Sexuality & Culture*, 17,1-19. 10.1007/s12119-012-9136-3

Reid, R. C., & Carpenter, B. N. (2009). Exploring relationships of psychopathology in hypersexual patients using the MMPI-2. *Journal of Sex & Marital Therapy*, 35, 294-310. 10.1080/00926230902851298

Reid, R. C., Carpenter, B. N., Hook, J. N., Garos, S., Manning, J. C., Gilliland, R., Cooper, E. B., McKittrick, H., Davtian, M., & Fong, T. (2012). Report of findings in a DSM-5 field trial for hypersexual disorder. *Journal of Sexual Medicine*, 9, 2868-2877. 10.1111/j.1743-

6109.2012.02936.x

- Reid, R. C., Harper, J.M., & Anderson, E. H. (2009). Coping strategies used by hypersexual patients to defend against the painful effects of shame. *Clinical Psychology and Psychotherapy*, 16, 125-138. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cpp.609>
- Reid, R. C., Li, D. S., Gilliland, R., Stein, J., & Fong, T. (2011). Reliability, validity, and psychometric development of the pornography consumption inventory in a sample of hypersexual men. *Journal of Sex & Marital Therapy*, 37(5), 359-385.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/0092623X.2011.607047>
- Rodrigues, D. L., Lopes, D., Dawson, K., de Visser, R., & Stulhofer, A. (2021). With or without you: Associations between frequency of internet pornography use and sexual relationship outcomes for (non) consensual (non) monogamous individuals. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 50(4), 1491-1504. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1007/s10508-020-01782-z>
- Ropelato, J. (2006). *Internet pornography statistics*. TopTenREVIEWS
<http://ministryoftruth.me.uk/wp-content/uploads/2014/03/IFR2013.pdf>
- Rosenberg, H., & Kraus, S. (2014). The relationship of “passionate attachment” for pornography with sexual compulsivity, frequency of use, and craving for pornography. *Addictive Behavior*, 39, 1012-1017. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.addbeh.2014.02.010>
- Ross, M. W., Mansson, S. A., & Daneback, K. (2012). Prevalence, severity, and correlates of problematic sexual internet use in Swedish men and women. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 41, 459-466. 10.1007/s10508-011-9762-0
- Rusch, N., Corrigan, P. W., Bohus, M., Jacob, G. A., Brueck, R., & Lieb, K. (2007). Measuring shame and guilt by self-report questionnaires: A validation study. *Psychiatry Research*,

150, 313-325.

[doi:http://dx.doi.org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1016/j.psychres.2006.04.018](http://dx.doi.org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1016/j.psychres.2006.04.018)

Satel, S., & Lilienfeld, S. O. (2014). Addiction and the brain-disease fallacy. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, 4(141), 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsy.2013.00141>

Schlagintweit, H. E., Thompson, K., Goldstein, A. L., & Stewart, S. H. (2017). An investigation of the association between shame and problem gambling: The mediating role of maladaptive coping motives. *Journal of Gambling Studies*, 33, 1067-1079.
10.1007/s10899-017-9674-6

Schoenleber, M., Berenbaum, H., & Motl, R. (2014). Shame-related functions of and motivations for self-injurious behaviors. *Personality Disorders: Theory Research, and Treatment*, 5(2), 204-211. 10.1037/per0000035

Scott, L. N., Stepp, S. D., Hallquist, M. N., Whalen, D. J., Wright, A. G. C., & Pilkonis, P. A. (2015). Daily shame and hostile irritability in adolescent girls with borderline personality disorder symptoms. *American Psychological Association*, 6(1), 53-63.
10.1037/per0000107

Shadbolt, C. (2009). Sexuality and shame. *Transactional Analysis Journal*, 39(2), 163-172.
10.1177/036215370903900210

Sharma, N. (2020). Traumatic skepticism of COVID-19. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Perspectives in Higher Education*, 5(1), 84-88.
<https://doi.org/10.32674/jimphe.v4iSI.2644>

Shaughnessy, K., Byers, S. E., & Walsh, L. (2011). Online sexual activity experience of heterosexual students: Gender similarities and differences. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 40, 419-427. 10.1007/s10508-010-9629-9

- Shim, J. Y. (2019). How do the dynamics of shame influence smartphone addiction of Korean Christian adolescents? A study based on external and internal shame. *Mental Health, Religion & Culture*, 22(3), 293-304. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13674676.2019.1618804>
- Short, M., Black, L., Smith, A. H., Wetterneck, C. T., & Wells, D. E. (2012). A review of internet pornography use research: Methodology and content from the past 10 years. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking*, 15(1), 1-11.
10.1089/cyber.2010.0477
- Short, M. B., Wetterneck, C. T., Bistricky, S. L., Shutter, T. & Chase, T. E. (2016). Clinicians' beliefs, observations and treatment effectiveness regarding clients' sexual addiction and internet pornography use. *Community Mental Health Journal*, 52, 1070-1081.
10.1007/s10597-016-0034-2
- Sicilia, A., Alcaraz-Ibanez, M., Sumitru, D. C., Paterna, A., & Griffiths, M. D. (2020). Fitness-related self-conscious emotions and risk for exercise addiction: Examining the mediating role of passion. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 42, 240-248.
<https://doi.org/10.1123/jsep.2019-0260>
- Sniewski, L., & Farvid, P. (2019). Abstinence or acceptance? A case series of men's experiences with an intervention addressing self-perceived problematic pornography use. *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity*, 26(3-4), 191-210. 10.1080/10720162.2019.1645058
- Sniewski, L., & Farvid, P. (2020). Hidden in shame: Heterosexual men's experiences of self-perceived problematic pornography use. *Psychology of Men & Masculinities*, 21(2), 201-212. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/men0000232>
- Sniewski, L., Farvid, P., & Carter, P. (2018). The assessment and treatment of adult heterosexual men with self-perceived problematic pornography use: A review. *Addictive Behaviors*,

- 77, 217-224. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.addbeh.2017.10.010>
- Stack, S., Wasserman, I., & Kern, R. (2004). Adult social bonds and use of internet pornography. *Social Science Quarterly*, 85(1), 75-88. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1111/j.0038-4941.2004.08501006.x>
- Stark, R., Kruse, O., Snagowski, J., Brand, M., Walter, B., Klucken, T., & Wehrum-Osinsky, S. (2017). Predictors for (problematic) use of internet sexually explicit material: Role of trait sexual motivation and implicit approach tendencies towards sexually explicit material. *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity*, 24(3), 180-202. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10720162.2017.1329042>
- Stringer, J. (2015). *How sexual brokenness reveals our way to healing*. NavPress.
- Struthers, W. M. (2009). *Wired for intimacy: How pornography hijacks the male brain*. InterVarsityPress.
- Sun, C., Bridges, A., Johnson, J. A., & Ezzell, M. B. (2016). Pornography and the male sexual script: An analysis of consumption and sexual relations. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 45, 983-994. 10.1007/s10508-014-0391-2
- Tangney, J. P. (1990). Assessing individual differences in proneness to shame and guilt: Development of the self-conscious affect and attribution inventory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 99(1), 102-111. 10.1037/0022-3514.59.1.102
- Tangney, J. P. (1993). Shame and guilt in interpersonal relationships. In C. G. Costello (Ed.), *Symptoms of depression* (pp.161-180). Wiley.
- Tangney, J. P., & Dearing, R. L. (2002). *Shame and guilt*. Guilford Publications.
- Tangney, J. P., & Dearing, R. L. (2011). *Shame in the therapy hour*. American Psychological Association. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1037/12326-000>

- Tangney, J. P., Stuewig, J., & Mashek, D. J. (2007). Moral emotions and moral behaviour. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 58, 345–372. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev.Psych.56.091103.070145>
- Tangney, J. P., Wagner, P., Fletcher, C., & Gramzow, R. (1992). Shame into anger? The relation of shame and guilt to anger and self-reported aggression. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 62(4), 669-675. 10.1037/0022-3514.62.4.669
- Tangney, J. P., Wagner, P., & Gramzow, R. (1992). Proneness to shame, proneness to guilt, and psychopathology. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 101(3), 469–478. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1037/0021-843X.101.3.469>
- Thompson, C. (2015). *The soul of shame*. InterVarsity Press.
- Tracy, J. I., & Robins, R.W. (2004). Putting the self into self-conscious emotions: A theoretical model. *Psychological Inquiry*, 15(2), 103-125. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/20447213>
- Tracy, J. I., & Robins, R.W. (2006). Appraisal antecedents of shame and guilt: Support for a theoretical model. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 32(10), 1339-1351. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.liberty.edu/10.1177/0146167206290212>
- Tull, M. (2021, February 23). *Experiential avoidance and PTSD*. Verywell mind. <https://www.verywellmind.com/experiential-avoidance-2797358>
- Turner, J. E. (2014). Researching state shame with the experiential shame scale. *The Journal of Psychology*, 148(5), 577-601. 10.1080/00223980.2013.818927
- Twohig, M. P., Crosby, J. M., & Cox, J. M. (2009). Viewing internet pornography: For whom is it problematic, how and why? *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity*, 16(4), 253-266. 10.1080/10720160903300788

- Twohig, M. P., & Levin, M. E. (2017). Acceptance and commitment therapy as a treatment for anxiety and depression: A review. *Psychiatric Clinics of North America*, 40(4), 751-770. 10.1016/j.psc.2017.08.009
- Tylka, T. L. (2015). No harm in looking, right? Men's pornography consumption, body image, and well-being. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity*, 16(1), 97-107. 10.1037/a0035774
- Tylka, T. L., & Calogero, R. M. (2018). Perceptions of male partner pressure to be thin and pornography use: Associations with eating disorder symptomatology in a community sample of adult women. *International Journal of Eating Disorders*, 52, 189-194. 10.1002/eat.22991
- Uji, M., Kitamura, T., & Nagata, T. (2011). Self-conscious affects: Their adaptive functions and relationship to depressive mood. *American Journal of Psychotherapy*, 65(1), 27-46. 10.1176/appi.psychotherapy.2011.65.1.27
- Velotti, P., Elison, J., & Garofalo, C. (2014). Shame and aggression: Different trajectories and implications. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 19, 454 – 461. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2014.04.011>
- Velotti, P., Garofalo, C., Bottazzi, F., & Caretti, V. (2017). Faces of shame: Implications for self-esteem, emotion regulation, aggression, and well-being. *The Journal of Psychology*, 151(2), 171-184. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00223980.2016.1248809>
- Vizin, G., Urban, R., & Unoka, Z. (2016). Shame, trauma, temperament and psychopathology: Construct validity of the experience of shame scale. *Psychiatry Research*, 56(1), 29-37. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2016.09.017>
- Volk, F., Floyd, C. G., Bohannon, K. E., Cole, S. M., McNichol, K. M., Schott, E. A., & Williams, Z.D.R. (2019). The moderating role of the tendency to blame others in the

- development of perceived addiction, shame, and depression in pornography users. *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity*, 26 (3-4), 239-261. 10.1080/10720162.2019.1670301
- Volk, F., Thomas, J., Sosin, L., Jacob, V., & Moen, C. (2016). Religiosity, developmental context, and sexual shame in pornography users: A serial mediation model. *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity*, 23(2-3), 244-259. 10.1080/10720162.2016.1151391
- Weiner, M. (2018). Eliminate stigma from the inside out: Do the ways professionals treat addiction cause much of patients' shame? *Addiction Professional*, 16(1), 24.
<https://www-proquest-com.ezproxy.liberty.edu/docview/2036303922?accountid=12085>
- Weingarden, H., & Renshaw, K. D. (2015). Shame in the obsessive-compulsive related disorders: A conceptual review. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 171, 74-84.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jad.2014.09.010>
- Weinstein, A. M., Zolek, R., Babkin, A., Cohen, K., & Lejoyeux, M. (2015). Factors predicting cybersex use and difficulties in forming intimate relationships among male and female users of cybersex. *Frontiers in Psychiatry*, 6(54), 1-8. 10.3389/fpsy.2015.00054
- Wery, A., & Billieux, J. (2016). Online sexual activities: An exploratory study of problematic and non-problematic usage patterns in a sample of men. *Current Sexual Health Reports*, 11, 257-266. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2015.11.046>
- Wery, A., Deleuze, J., Canale, N., & Billieux, J. (2018). Emotionally laden impulsivity interacts with affect in predicting addictive use of online sexual activity in men. *Comprehensive Psychiatry*, 80, 192-201. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.comppsy.2017.10.004>
- Wery, A., Schimmenti, A., Karila, L., & Billieux, J. (2019). Where the mind cannot dare: A case of addictive use of online pornography and its relationship with childhood trauma.

- Journal of Sex & Marital Therapy*, 45(2), 114-127.
- Doi.org/10.1080/0092623X.2018.1488324
- Wetternecek, C. T., Burgess, A. J., Short, M., Smith, A. H., & Cervantes, M. E. (2012). The role of sexual compulsivity, impulsivity, and experiential avoidance in internet pornography use. *The Psychological Record*, 62, 3-8. 10.1007/BF03395783
- Wetterneck, C. T., Singh, S., & Hart, J. (2014). Shame proneness in symptom dimensions of obsessive-compulsive disorder. *Bulletin of Menninger Clinic*, 78(2), 177-190.
- 101521bumc2014782177
- Wiens, T. K., & Walker, L. J. (2015). The chronic disease concept of addiction: Helpful or harmful? *Addiction Research & Theory*, 23(4), 309-321. 10.3109/16066359.2014.987760
- Williams, D. J., Thomas, J. N., & Prior, E. E. (2020). Are sex and pornography addiction valid? Adding a leisure science perspective to the sexological critique. *Leisure Sciences*, 42(3-4), 306-321. 10.1080/01490400.2020.1712284
- Willoughby, B. J. (2019). Stuck in the porn box. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 48, 449-453.
- <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10508-018-1294-4>
- Wilt, J. A., Cooper, E. B., Grubbs, J. B., Exline, J. J., & Pargament, K. I. (2016). Associations of perceived addiction to internet pornography with religious/spiritual and psychological functioning. *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity*, 23(2-3), 260-278.
- <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10720162.2016.1140604>
- Wines, D. (1997). Exploring the applicability of criteria for substance dependence to sexual addiction. *Sexual Addiction & Compulsivity: The Journal of Treatment and Prevention*, 4(3), 195-220. 10.1080/10720169708404228
- Woien, S. L., Ernst, H. A. H., Patock-Peckham, J. A., & Nagoshi, C. T. (2003). Validation of the

- TOSCA to measure shame and guilt. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 35, 313-326. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(02\)00191-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(02)00191-5)
- Wong, M. R., & Cook, D. (1992). Shame and its contribution to PTSD. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, 5(4), 557-562. 10.1002/jts.2490050405
- Woodward, K., McIlwain, D., & Mond, J. (2019). Feelings about the self and body in eating disturbances: The role of internalized shame, self-esteem, externalized self-perceptions, and body shame. *Self and Identity*, 18(2), 159-182. 10.1080/15298868.2017.1403373
- Wordecha, M., Wilk, M., Kowalewska, E., Skorko, M., Lapinski, A. & Gola, M. (2018). “Pornographic binges” as a key characteristic of males seeking treatment for compulsive sexual behaviors: Qualitative and quantitative 10-week-long diary assessment. *Journal of Behavioral Addictions*, 7(2), 433-444. <https://doi.org/10.1556/2006.7.2018.33>
- Wright, P. J. (2013). U.S. males and pornography, 1973-2010: Consumption, predictors, correlates. *Journal of Sex Research*, 50(1), 60-71. 10.1080/00224499.2011.628132
- Wright, P. J., Tokunaga, R. S., & Kraus, A. (2016). A meta-analysis of pornography consumption and actual acts of sexual aggression in general population studies. *Journal of Communication*, 66(1), 183–205. 10.1111/jcom.12201
- Zimmerman, J., Morrison, A. S., & Heimberg, R. G. (2015). Social anxiety, submissiveness, and shame in men and women: A moderated mediation analysis. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 54, 1-15. 10.1080/02699931.2018.1446414.

APPENDIX

IRB Approval Form

Date: 12-5-2021 IRB #: IRB-FY21-22-26

Title: The Moderating Effect of Pornography Use on the Relationships Between Perceived Addiction, Shame-Proneness, and Characterological, Behavioral, and Bodily Shame in Men and Women.

Revised Title: The Moderating Effect of Internet Pornography Use Within the Past Month on the Relationship Between Experiences of Shame to Perceived Addiction to Pornography in Men And Women

Note: The title was revised but the nature of the study was unchanged with regard to ethical requirements.

Creation Date: 7-8-2021 End Date:

Status: Approved Principal Investigator: Catherine Peters Review Board: Research Ethics Office

Sponsor: Study History Submission Type Initial Review Type Exempt Decision No Human

Subjects Research Key Study Contacts:

Member Catherine Peters Role Principal Investigator

Member Frederick Volk Role Co-Principal Investigator

Member A. Raquel Guidry Role Co-Principal Investigator