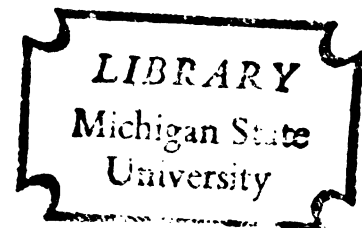


SEX, SELF-ESTEEM AND  
PSYCHOLOGICAL MOTIVATION  
FOR SEXUAL BEHAVIOR

Dissertation for the Degree of Ph. D.  
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY  
JEAN APPERSON  
1973



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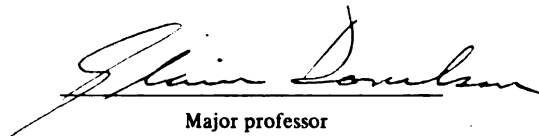
SEX, SELF-ESTEEM, AND  
PSYCHOLOGICAL MOTIVATION FOR SEXUAL BEHAVIOR

presented by

**Jean Apperson**

has been accepted towards fulfillment  
of the requirements for

Ph.D. degree in Clinical Psychology



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## ABSTRACT

### SEX, SELF-ESTEEM, AND PSYCHOLOGICAL MOTIVATION FOR SEXUAL BEHAVIOR

By

Jean Apperson

This study explores some relationships between sex, self-esteem, basic personality needs, and conscious and pre-conscious sexual motives.

Two hundred psychology student volunteer subjects, one hundred women and one hundred men, were administered a test battery which included the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, the Adjective Check List, the Sexual Motive Inventory, the Sexual Motive Projective Test, and a personal information questionnaire.

Hypotheses were made concerning (1) the relation of sexual motives to cultural sex-role characteristics; (2) sex differences in conscious/pre-conscious congruence in sexual motives; (3) the relation of level of self-esteem to the relative strength of various sexual motives; and (4) the relation of basic personality needs to sexual motives.



The results supported conclusions that (1) the conscious and pre-conscious measures of sexual motives introduced in this study differentiate men and women along lines consistent with social sex-role patterns; (2) there is more congruence between conscious and pre-conscious sexual motives among women than among men; (3) self-esteem is negatively related to the conscious sexual motives of Deference in women and of Dominance in men; (4) self-esteem is positively related to the conscious sexual motive of Affiliation in men but not in women; (5) there was no support for the predicted negative relationship between self-esteem and the pre-conscious sexual motive of Aggression; and (6) the prediction of congruence between conscious sexual motives and corresponding personality needs (as assessed by the ACL) was not supported.

Qualifications and implications of the findings were discussed, and future research directions were suggested.

SEX, SELF-ESTEEM AND  
PSYCHOLOGICAL MOTIVATION FOR SEXUAL BEHAVIOR

By

Jean Apperson

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to  
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Department of Psychology

1973

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Dedicated

to

Theodore H. Blau

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## INTRODUCTION

Why do human beings engage in sexual behaviors?\*

What is the inter-personal transaction that takes place between the individuals involved, and what psychological meaning does the act have to them? Despite our cultural preoccupation with sex, few people ask these questions, and still fewer writers or researchers have attempted to formulate answers. Most of the scientific investigation, beyond the cataloguing and counting of sexual acts, has been the exploration of sexual physiology. Most of the theorizing about sexual motivation has dealt primarily with physiological mechanisms.

This is not to disparage the value of research into the physiology of sexual functioning. The work of Masters and Johnson (1966), in all its exquisite physiological detail, has contributed greatly to our understanding of sexuality by elucidating many aspects that were previously shrouded in myth and misconception. Nor is it my intention to deny the validity of physiological

---

\*Throughout this paper, "sexual behavior" will mean the act of sexual intercourse and/or behaviors which function to attract or sexually arouse the participants and possibly eventuate in some form of sexual release.

contributions to sexual motivation. It seems entirely warranted to assume that sexual stimulation, arousal, and orgasm are intrinsically reinforcing to human beings--if and when they choose to engage in such activities, and if their psychological constitution allows them to experience this kind of physical pleasure.

What I am contending is that physiological mechanisms are far from sufficient for the understanding of human sexual behavior. As richly elaborated as the symbolic and affective associations of a human being are, it is not credible to assume that one can come together with another in one of the most intense and physically intimate of adult interactions and have the act to have meaning only in its value as a "release of sexual tensions," a simple physiological discharge function. Nor do physiological research findings offer much to oppose this contention. After reviewing the relevant physiological evidence, Hardy concludes that ". . . the overwhelming proportion of the variance in human sexual motivation and behavior is not explicable in terms of some biological need or tension, however conceived" (1964, p. 4).

The existence of individual sexual preferences of many kinds also speaks against a simplistic biological view. Infrequently do people voluntarily settle for spontaneous orgasm or masturbation as their sole source of sexual

gratification. More often a partner is desired, a specific kind of person, with a specific range of acceptable characteristics. Certain situational contexts and certain sexual actions are preferred, while others are avoided. And many emotional reactions and colorings exist that are peculiar to each individual. Even during masturbation, fantasy usually supplies a preferred psychological and interpersonal context for the act.

These particulars form the basis for inferring the meaning of a sexual exchange to the individual involved and the contribution of the motives which brought him to the situation. In this regard, Auerback quotes an unnamed "writer of 30 years ago":

Cynics have said that only ingenious modifications can make tolerable the constant repetition of an act as simple as intercourse. In point of fact, however, these variations have a value far beyond mere spiciness. They provide . . . outlet for all the unacknowledged impulses of human nature. (Auerback, 1971, p. 72)

It is the "unacknowledged impulses," whether clearly conscious or not, and the motives which may be inferred from them that are of interest in the present study. While acknowledging a constitutional substrate of sexual anatomy and physiology, the focus of this research will be on the psychological motives which may direct, release, or inhibit sexual expression, or which may be channeled through sexual activities per se.

In the absence of clear guidelines from prior research, this is basically an exploratory study, even though some specific hypotheses will be tested. Psychological motives for sexual behavior, as dependent variables, will be assessed within a framework based on Murray's (1938) need system. The major independent variables will be sex and level of self-esteem.

In the context of this study, the terms "sexual motive" and "sexual motivation" will refer to psychological motives for sexual behavior. By definition, if a motive leads to, or finds expression in, sexual behavior, it is a sexual motive.

It is hoped that this study will contribute to a more differentiated way of conceptualizing the enormously varied and complex behavioral inclinations which have traditionally been obscured by the common label of "sex."

## THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND RELEVANT RESEARCH

### Psychodynamic Contributions

Psychoanalytic theory offers one of the few comprehensive frameworks within which sexual motivation has been examined. Despite the biological-instinctual basis of much of Freud's theory, Freud did lay the groundwork for a conception of psychological motives for sexual behavior which are integrated as part of basic personality structure. Freud (1962) concluded that the sexual impulse is far from simple, that it is energized by many component motives, many of which originate in the early stages of an individual's life. These stages are the familiar oral, anal, and phallic stages of psychosexual development in which the various erogenous zones of the body sequentially become the focus of stimulation, gratification, or functional control. The influence of these stages on personality development and sexual motives is determined partly by the degree of frustration or overindulgence the individual may experience as he progresses through the developmental sequence.

Thus the normal individual arrives at adulthood with remnants of his "infantile sexuality," i.e., residuals of

all his early needs and cravings, fused to his urge for genital sexual expression. The early components usually show themselves in the form of sexual foreplay. When there has been a strong fixation at one of the early stages, an individual's adult sexual expression will be unusually colored by the mode of erotic gratification peculiar to that stage, the extremes being considered perversions.

Freud is referring here primarily to preferences and cravings for actual physical stimulation of bodily zones, but also relevant are the more psychological aspects of the early developmental stages. For example, sexual activities may be motivated by the desire for emotional dependency and succorance if fixation occurred at the early oral stage; sexual activities may be motivated by a wish to aggressively attack, if the influence stems from the oral-sadistic stage or if the individual experienced extreme frustration of early needs, etc.

Theodore Reik (1945) takes issue with Freud's formulations, contending that ". . . there are no such things as components of the sex-urge" (p. 157). Instead, Reik postulates that the sexual impulse is a function of the mixture of sex drive, which he describes as a primitive, biological need for discharge of physical tension, and ego drives, mainly drives toward conquest, domination, and possessiveness. In comparison with sex drive, ego drives are described as ". . . older urges in the individual . . . the desire to remain alive, to protect himself against destruction" (p. 10).

According to Reik's view, the biological sex drive meets and mixes with the ego drives during the Oedipal stage of development, the ego drives being predominant. Psychological complications occur as the sex drive is combined with or contradicted by ego drives, as illustrated in the apparent difference between men and women in strength of the sexual impulse:

That women have a weaker sex-urge than men is very doubtful. This impression is given by the behavior patterns, which are different for both sexes in our culture, but also, and more definitely, by the fact that aggressiveness and the drive toward conquest are more strongly developed in men. The mixture is different because there is a greater portion of the old conquering ego-drives in masculine than in feminine sexuality. It should also be considered that inhibiting and retarding factors operate within the woman, but that they do not hinder the full development of man's sexuality. (Reik, 1945, p. 240)

Though Freud and Reik differ substantially in what they consider to be the nature of sexuality, they both present a dynamic framework within which sexual motives are conceptualized--at least in part--as stemming from an individual's psychological needs and his mode of relating to the environment and to other people in general. Also implicit in this dynamic view of sexual behavior is the very important distinction between the form and the function of behavior; i.e., behaviors may be very similar in form (e.g., the act of coitus) and yet may function in the service of diverse needs not usually considered sexual in nature (e.g., dependency, dominance, etc.).

Another branch of behavioral observation, ethology, has made explicit use of the form/function distinction, in an effort to better understand various behavioral systems. Although ethologists draw conclusions from a quite different data base than that of most analytic theorists, many of the findings are compatible with dynamic theory and provide some elucidating implications for understanding human sexual behavior.

#### Contributions from Ethology

Most ethological observations have been made of non-human species, which in this context raises the issue of inferential validity in regard to human behavior. The two main groups of animals, birds and primates, which will be included in the discussion below, each involve different principles in support of their relevance for understanding human behavior. In the case of birds, the principle is similarity in mating patterns, i.e., relative monogamy, which may imply the existence of similar evolutionary pressures in the service of pair-bonding. Of course, any insights about behavioral processes involved with monogamy in birds would apply only to humans whose mating pattern is monogamous. In the case of primates, the primary principle is their physiological and behavioral similarity to humans.

In our western culture, we have tended to view sexual behavior as a thing apart, a kind of instinctive "wildness"



which has to be controlled in order to preserve civilization. Seldom have behaviors designated "sexual" been systematically observed and interpreted in terms of the social and/or survival function they may serve. In his book, The Sexual Code (1972), Wolfgang Wickler brings together many observations and conclusions regarding the evolution of sexual behavior among many species of animals, including human beings, and outlines some developments which furnish bases for inferences about human sexual motives.

The two major evolutionary developments described by Wickler which appear to have contributed to the existence of diverse motives operating in sexual behavior are (1) behavior sequences assumed to have originated in brood-tending behavior, which now serve a function in mating and pair-bonding; (2) behavior sequences which apparently originated in mating, retained the original form, but changed in function to dominance or appeasement behaviors.

From brood-tending to pair-bonding.--Wickler comments, ". . . if we want to know what is essential to pair-bonding, then we will have to compare animals that are as different as possible, that have 'invented' monogamy independently from one another" (1972, p. 19). Hence, the comparison between birds and humans is relevant to understanding monogamy in each. In monogamous species of birds and monogamous societies of humans, behaviors apparently derived from

parental feeding and care-taking of the young serve a prominent function in strengthening the social bond between mates and form an important part of courtship and pre-copulatory behavior.

In many bird species, the adult male of a pair feeds the female in a manner closely resembling a parent bird, while the adult female "begs" and responds with many of the other behavioral gestures characteristic of an infant bird. This transaction occurs not only when the female is brooding and needs food, but also during courtship, in foreplay to copulation, and in other situations in which it is clearly a contact gesture which primarily serves pair-bonding, though the form of the behavior is parental feeding. Billing, beak contact between bird partners, in which the birds often make sounds and movements similar to those of nestlings, is thought to serve a bonding function also.

Similarly among humans, kissing and food-passing between lovers may be seen as evolutionary derivations of infant sucking behavior and of mouth-feeding of infants, which was customary in our own culture until recent times and exists still in more "primitive" cultures. In our culture, the kiss is used for greetings, partings, appeasement, in foreplay to copulation, and as a bonding ritual between partners. Particularly, the "deep kiss", so rich in "feeding form", is a very frequent accompaniment of heterosexual intercourse in our society (Kinsey, 1948).

In this connection, an interesting phenomenon is the importance that our culture places on the female breast as a sexual signal, although the biological function of the breast is obviously to feed the young, and its most basic derived function seems most likely to be providing security and comfort to the offspring. A connection between sexual preoccupation with female breasts and the experience of early deprivation, often postulated by psychoanalytic theorists, is supported by Wickler's observation that "... it is striking that a short lactation period, covered breasts, and the attribution of an excessively erotic, almost fetishistic significance to the breasts tend to go together" (1972, p. 249).

Other behaviors between sexual partners, all of which strongly suggest an origin in form in parent-child interactions, are the frequently occurring "baby talk", lap-sitting, hand holding, fondling, and carressing as foreplay to coitus and at other times during an affectionate exchange between partners. Often in these behavior sequences, both partners will be child-like in their play with each other, similar to the bird nestlings described above. More frequently however, men take a parental role while women take a child role, are called "baby" etc. Men are taught from an early age that they should "take care" of women,

and women have traditionally expected protection and nurturance from men.

An important, possibly mediating factor in the association between human brood-tending and sexual behavior is the existence of what Lorenz called the "infant schema." This term refers to the set of infantile characteristics which typically elicits a warm emotional, protective reaction from most humans. This set of qualities is often conveyed by the words "sweet," "cute," etc., used in describing the organism--human or not, infant or not--which exhibits the "infant schema." Lorenz specified the following specific characteristics which together elicit this response:

1. a comparatively thick head;
  2. a prominent cranium with a domed brow out of proportion to the face;
  3. a large correspondingly disproportionate eye situated as low as or below the middle of the entire skull;
  4. comparatively short, thick limbs with pudgy hands and feet;
  5. rounded body forms in general;
  6. a very specific, soft, and elastic surface texture;
  7. round, prominent, "chubby" cheeks.
- (Wickler, 1972, p. 255)

The protective response to this stimulus configuration is characteristic of adults and children of both sexes (Huckstedt, 1965). It has clear survival value in being an important instigator of a general tendency to watch over children.

The importance of the infant schema reaction for human sexuality is that the human female (as well as females of many other species) has evolved to look more child-like than the human male. Women are shorter, plumper, rounder-cheeked, softer-skinned, and have less body hair. Body adornment traditions have most often served to emphasize these characteristics: removal of body hair, reddening of lips and cheeks, and painting the eyes to make them appear larger.

In addition to looking somewhat child-like, women frequently behave in a child-like manner, particularly when interacting with men. Much of what is often referred to as the "seductive" behavior of women is coy and child-like. The link between a man's feeling of protectiveness toward a "cute" woman and his sexual attraction toward her is quite common and recognizable. The ideal in our country of the young, baby-faced blond as the most sexually attractive female may well reflect this child-female association.

Another potentially important implication of the proposed link between brood-tending and sexual behaviors involves sexual interactions between adults and children. An overlapping and blurring of distinctions between the care-taking and sexual responses of men may account for the fact that the incidence of adult male/female child interactions are much more common than adult female/male child sexual interactions (Freedman, et al , 1972). Since a

woman's traditional role in sex is more analogous to that of the child, she is less likely to confuse her own parental and sexual responses. . . . The male's need to feel sexually dominant may also be involved, especially if he feels unable to dominate adult women (Storr, 1964). The dominance motive will be discussed further below.

Thus, in fostering mating patterns which contribute to species survival, evolution has apparently "capitalized" on innate behavior patterns; e. g., the sucking response in humans (Nash, 1970) and nestling begging behavior in birds, and on elements of the strong original bond between parent and child. Particularly when brooding renders the female vulnerable, it is easy to see the survival value of a strong social bond between parenting mates and an increased inclination of the male to act as protecting parent to both infants and female adults.

Presumably, the motives derived from the original parent-child bond would include those which emanate from the child's own needs to be protected and cared for at that time, and those which would result from identification with the behavior of a parent. From this early experience, then, would come motives to be with another individual in a close, intimate way (affiliation), to feel secure and taken care of (succorance), and to take care of another's needs (nurturance).

From mating to dominance-appeasement.--Among many diverse species of animals, behavioral segments closely associated with courtship and copulation have become partially "emancipated" from the mating context and can also serve an additional function as a social signal in a dominance-appeasement context. The evolutionary pressure in the direction of such a development lies in the survival value of a behavioral signal which can inhibit attack by eliciting an incompatible response.

Sexual signals have the effect of inhibiting attack as well as eliciting further mating behavior, which greatly increases their behavioral ambiguity to observers. "For the behavior researcher this means that behavior sequences as a whole must be kept in sight if he wants to decide whether the same movement means courtship or appeasement" (Wickler, 1972, p. 201).

One of the most clear and dramatic instances of this development may be observed among many species of non-human primates. A sub-dominant animal of either sex will "present", i. e., assume the female mating posture, to a dominant animal, also of either sex, who is threatening to attack; the dominant animal may mount and make pelvic thrusting movements, with or without actual penetration, or may simply cease making threatening gestures (Maslow, et al., 1963). While the form of this presentation-mounting behavior sequence is taken from the mating pattern, its function is clearly that of

establishing rank-dominance relations and preventing potentially destructive combat. In some species (e. g., the red Colombus monkey), the physical characteristics of male genitalia, especially when the male is young, have evolved to closely resemble those of the female, apparently enhancing their signal value in presentation and thus their effectiveness in deflecting attack (Wickler, 1967).

Some direct and some figurative parallels of presentation as appeasement can be found among human behavioral customs. Figures showing the naked posterior, apparently designed to appease gods or powerful evil spirits, are found on many ancient buildings such as castles, city gates, churches, and monasteries. "On very stormy nights, the men and women of ancient Germany would stick their bared bottom outside the front door to appease Wotan" (Wickler, 1972, p. 272). The old custom of punishing children by requiring them to bend over, often lowering their trousers also, for a caning on the buttocks may be a residual of this gesture of submission which was originally the female invitation to mating. The bared youngster is "put in his place" by the dominant adult.

The strong association of female sexuality and social submission in our culture is demonstrated quite clearly in the still prevalent sexual double standard (Reiss, 1968) in which the woman is looked upon with disrespect and contempt by the man to whom she has "submitted" outside of marriage. Such a woman is seen as "bad," "low", "fallen", etc. (Reiss, 1971).



Even within the marriage bond, the sexual role of the woman is "one down", since social injunctions--often in the form of civil and religious laws--urge women to submit to the will of their husbands, to dutifully "serve" them sexually..

Among some homosexuals, both male and female, the passive, receptive, female role is associated with defeat and/or lower status (Maslow, et al., 1963). Some men whose sexual activity with other men is limited to being the active partner in anal intercourse or allowing the partner to perform fellatio do not consider themselves as homosexuals; they also feel great contempt for their homosexual partners.. Interestingly, too, much of what has been interpreted as homosexual behavior among animals is most frequently a demonstration of dominance-submission (Wickler, 1972).

Just as the female genitalia and mating position function as signals of submission, the male genitalia frequently function as a sign of rank or of threat, independent of mating behavior patterns... For the South American squirrel monkey (Ploog, et al., 1963), Doguera baboon, and other species, the display of the erect penis serves to demonstrate rank within the group and to threaten individuals foreign to the group. Among nomadic troupes of primates, the guarding males will often sit at the boundaries of the group, with their backs to the other animals and with their erect penises prominently displayed. The brilliant genital coloration of some species enhances this signal function (Wickler, 1972).

Wickler cites numerous historical examples of human use of the male genital as a sign of rank or threat. Among ancient cultures, and even in more recent times among some tribes in southern Ethiopia, men practiced the custom of cutting off the penis of a slain enemy. For the most part, however, the use of the penis as a victory trophy has been replaced by the use of images or symbols of a penis.

Even today almost all the tribes of southern Ethiopia wear a simple phallic ornament made of light shining metal on their brow; it is called "Kalatsha" and is thought the most important of ritual objects. Originally it was a sign that the wearer had killed an adult male opponent and was now allowed to start a family. Most of the Galla tribes adopted it as an insignia of rank that only high priests and holders of special honors were allowed to wear (Wickler, 1972, p. 54).

The use of a scepter by rulers and priests of many cultures as a symbol of authority and sovereignty may also have a similar phallic origin.

The threat function of the penis is demonstrated colorfully in the example of Indonesian islanders ". . . who believe that wind and waterspouts are provoked by evil spirits take their bared phallus in their hand and point it in the relevant direction to drive away the evil spirit" (Wickler, 1972, p. 58). In many ancient cultures and some still in existence, ithyphallic (with erect phallus) figures have been used to guard houses, temples, fields, graves, etc. against earthly and supernatural enemies.

The closest counterpart in our culture of clearly "phallic threat" signaling is the use of the "high sign" (also called "shooting the bird", "giving someone the finger", etc.), the middle finger thrust upward from a clenched fist. This sign is customarily used to communicate anger, threat, and contempt toward the person to whom it is displayed. Any doubt about the phallic meaning of this gesture or the symbolic anatomical destination of its thrust is removed by the verbal comments which often accompany it: "Up yours!"; "Sit on it and rotate!"; "Fuck you!"; etc. The use of sexual terms in non-sexual situations to express aggression or defeat provides further evidence of our cultural connection between sex and dominance; e. g., "He got fucked-over" (or "screwed", "shafted", "raped", etc.).

Maslow draws strong parallels between the dominance-submission interactions of non-human primates and some human sexual behavior. For the most part, he associates the dominance function of sexual behavior of men and women with immaturity or insecurity. If a healthy integration of sexuality with the total personality isn't achieved during maturation, "...masculine sexual activity may be identified with dominance, control, manipulation, aggression and even sadistic behavior...as in the dominance struggle of the primates" (Maslow, et al., 1963, p. 158). The insecure person, man or woman, may use sex as a power weapon in the (early)

Adlerian sense, to "collect scalps" in an effort to gain reassurance of his own strength, attractiveness, and importance. Promiscuity may be due to one's need to engage in these "dominance affairs" or "security affairs" (Maslow, 1942).

The general association of male sexuality with dominance in sex is more pervasive and "normative" than Maslow's explanations may imply. According to the sexual double standard, to engage in sexual intercourse is a victory for the man and a loss for the woman. If a woman "succumbs" to the man's advances, she is often viewed with contempt. The expressions often used for coitus reflect a competitive and aggressive view of the act from the male perspective, e.g., "to make" someone, "to score," "to screw," "to get a piece of ass," etc. Beginning in adolescence and continuing throughout adult life for many men, masculine status is achieved through the sexual conquest of women (Udrey, 1968). The frequent boasting of young men of their sexual "exploits" highlight both the dominance and masculine status functions of their sexual behavior. While a woman may also define coitus as a conquest on her part, this is as yet an infrequent female interpretation. Women will sometimes exhibit a different kind of sexual dominance behavior by behaving seductively with a man until he becomes aroused and makes sexual advances, then abruptly refusing his attentions.

From the standpoint of sexual motives, there are several psychological motives which appear likely to be

clustered around the social dominance function of sexual behavior. An inclination to submit (deference) would be likely in a person who may feel weak and in need of protection by (or from) the sexual partner; the complementary role would stem from a need for power and control (dominance) and for status (achievement). In some instances the dominance struggle may involve an active wish to cause injury to the other person (aggression).

### Sex Role and Sexual Motives

The two evolutionary developments just described constitute what may be two domains of motives for sexual behavior: (1) those motives stemming from early needs and the parent-child bond, and (2) motives growing out of needs for social dominance. Perhaps by the nature of the specific evolutionary processes which fostered their development, different aspects of these two domains have been associated with male and female sex roles, as described above. To complicate the matter, individual personality dynamics influence the motives a person brings to sexual interactions.

However current conceptions of sex differences in sexual motivation do not reflect this complexity. They tend to reflect narrow, sex-role dichotomies. A fairly representative description is given by Wilson: women regard sex primarily as a means of feeling loved and wanted; for men, sex is "an end in itself . . . a keen pleasure which includes

the pleasure of conquest and subjugation . . . not associated so closely with feelings of personal dependence or loyalty" (1965, p. 212; italics added). Curiously, there is an explicit acceptance in this statement--evident in the writings of others as well--of the man's wish to dominate and subjugate as intrinsic to sexual behavior while the wish to feel loved (presumably on the part of women or men) is regarded as relatively non-sexual.

With the exception of Maslow (cited above), most researchers who have dealt with sexual motives at all have interpreted their data in even more narrowly stereotyped ways. Ehrmann (1959) found a direct relationship among women between frequency of premarital sexual behavior and going steady and being in love, and he concludes that their primary motive was "love." Among men in his study, there was an inverse relationship between these two variables, from which Ehrmann concluded that the primary motive for men was an "erotic" one. Reiss (1960) came to similar conclusions. Reiss reports a trend toward an increasing "person-centered" sex standard (as opposed to "body-centered") among men, but he concludes that at present, "perhaps the majority of cases of male coitus are still lacking in affection" (1968, p. 312). This familiar sex-for-sex's-sake explanation of the sexual motivation of men is essentially a denial of psychological motives for men; we are just told what motives are not present.

It seems likely that the motives omitted, or not considered, by Ehrmann and Reiss are conquest-dominance motives; if men are significantly more likely to engage in sexual activities with women with whom they have no emotional involvement, one might infer some degree of antipathy between emotional involvement and whatever psychological sexual motives are present. Probably because of the social sanctions against aggressively dominant behavior by men toward women, many writers avoid what might seem a negative evaluation of men's motives by (1) including aggressive or dominant qualities as inseparably inherent in male "sex drive", as Wilson does above, or (2) asserting that if a love motive is not present, the motive must be simply physical pleasure, as do Ehrmann and Reiss.

The primary factor involved in the lack of clarity in considerations of the psychological motives involved in men's sexual behavior may be the conflicting social mores regarding appropriate sexual behavior for men. On the one hand, men are taught to take care of and respect women; at the same time, men are indoctrinated in many ways with the idea that sexual conquest is the sine qua non of masculine identity. One apparent result (or at least an accompaniment) of this cultural double message is the existence of a "virgin-whore" or "princess-prostitute" schism in some men's attitudes toward women; conflict is avoided by respecting and protecting

"good" women and reserving sexual conquest for "bad" or "loose" women.

Typically, the conflict in our culture's socially sanctioned sexual mores for males has been obscured by (1) general taboos against examining sexual behavior and (2) the continued acceptance of the assumption that sexual attitudes and behavioral qualities exhibited by men exemplify sex qua sex and are vicissitudes of a natural biological drive, even though a strictly biological basis for human sexual behavior is without substantial scientific support....

Some elaboration of the male-female sexual motive dichotomy is offered by a few writers: women are said to be motivated by deference to men, needs for acceptance and approval (Bardwick, 1970; Douvan, 1970), and desire to express love and affection (Udry, 1968); men's motives are said to be associated with needs for dominance and control (Brenton, 1966) and achievement of masculine status via sexual prowess or conquest (Frank, 1961; Udry, 1968; Schimmel, 1971). Not surprisingly, these attributed motives are consistent with our cultural stereotypes of the submissive, dependent, nurturant female and the dominant, aggressive, achieving male.

In terms of the two domains of sexual motives described above, the sex-role stereotypes ascribe primarily Domain 1 motives (affiliation, succorance, nurturance) to women and Domain 2 motives (achievement, dominance, aggression) to men, with no overlap. However, men and women apparently do have



motives from both domains: men do form emotional bonds with women which lead to mutual dependency as well as coital activity; within an established relationship, women approximate men's assertiveness in initiating sex, desired frequency of sex, and attitudes toward sexual expression (Ehrmann, 1963).

However, sex-linked proscriptions remain obvious. For men, tenderness and sensuality are taboo; for women, overt dominance, particularly in sex, is the kind of behavior most likely to render her "unfeminine" in the eyes of others. And social learning appears to play the major role in determining the nature of adult sexual identity and expression (Hampson, 1965; Money, 1969). As Simon and Gagnon report, "...sexual behavior is socially scripted behavior" (1971, p. 70). Each sex is subject to social pressures which influence the way they define and use their sexuality: "...the boy has been taught to press for whatever degree of physical intimacy the girl will allow, and the girl has been taught to press for whatever emotional and social commitment she can obtain from the boy" (Broderick, 1969, p. 32).

For both men and women, much of self-valuation depends on how well one approximates the social ideal of sexual "manliness" and "womanliness" as defined in stereotypes (Beigel, 1963), as well as--or more than--how satisfactorily one's personal needs are fulfilled. Others state this idea more bluntly: "People talk a great deal about sex, but self-esteem is really the name of the game" (Schimmel, 1971, p. 3). Many

of the sexual motives discussed above can be seen in this light. Whether an individual engages in sexual behavior in order to feel reassured and accepted, to meet peer standards of what an adequate person should do, or to feel strong and powerful via sexual conquest, self-esteem needs may underlie the surface motives of wanting approval or wanting to dominate.

### Self-Esteem and Sexual Motives

Since evidence relating level of self-esteem to differences in sexual motives is lacking, one way of drawing inferences about possible relationships between these variables is to examine the sexual motives attributed to persons considered to be either psychologically disturbed or of unusual psychological health or maturity. Psychological disturbance is frequently associated with low self-esteem (Congdon, 1958; Piety, 1958; Havener, 1961; and Wayne, 1963), while persons considered to be at the other extreme of the psychological health continuum, e.g., those high in personality integration, are assumed to be high in self-esteem (Fitts, 1965).

The sexual motives of emotionally disturbed individuals seem to be related to the nature of their disturbances and to the ways they have learned to protect themselves against their strong anxiety. Horney (1937) describes four principal ways people in our culture try to defend against anxiety: through affection-seeking, submissiveness, power, or withdrawal. Accordingly, sexual behavior may often be an

expression of a neurotic desire for reassurance and approval, or of efforts to conquer or subdue others. For individuals who are convinced that they are so unlovable that obtaining affection is practically out of the question, "...sexual relations mean to them not only release of specifically sexual tensions, but also the only way of getting human contact.

...Physical contact may serve as a substitute for emotional relationships" (p. 153).

In terms of the two domains of sexual motives described above, it appears that the neurotic individual's Domain 1 motives are "blocked". He does have motives which stem from early needs (or, perhaps more accurately, the needs exist unmodified), but these cannot be satisfied directly in relation to another person because all of his efforts are directed toward controlling the anxiety which resulted from his disrupted or frustrating early parent-child relationship. If the original bond was not a rewarding one, it cannot provide a basis for close bonds with other people in adulthood. Thus, the individual must settle primarily for the relative safety and satisfaction of Domain 2 motives involved in some form of dominance-subordination relationship to maintain some feeling of well-being and self-esteem. Because of the frustration caused by early deprivation, there is likely to be an aggression motive also, though this may not be consciously experienced.

In my own clinical experience, very disturbed individuals have sometimes described sexual motives which paired a need

for a primitive kind of existence-confirming physical contact with an equally strong need to dominate and punish their partner. More frequently, the primary motives reported have been some form of dominance-submission, at least until the person has learned to feel safe enough to make more affiliative contact with his partner. Until that time, safety requires that one or the other be "in control". This is consistent with Maslow's (1942) association of insecurity with dominance-subordination sexual motives.

In the absence of clear personal identity, immature or neurotic individuals need repeated reassurance of masculine or feminine identity. Sexual conquests offer temporary reassurance of a man's masculinity, and a woman may easily become sexually involved out of a need for reassurance that she is desirable as a female. In sexual motives, at least on a conscious level, there frequently appears to be an exaggeration of the social stereotypes of male and female sex-role characteristics; i.e., dominance, aggression, and achievement in men, and deference, succorance, and nurturance in women. By approximating the social norms of expected behavior for his sex, a person is able to enhance his feeling of self-esteem to some degree.

In regard to the other extreme of psychological health or maturity, many theorists give a definition of sexual functioning similar to that stated by Storr, "As displayed in the sexual sphere, maturity may be defined as the ability



to form a stable relationship with the opposite sex which is both physically and emotionally satisfying, and in which sexual intercourse forms the main, though not the only mode of expression of love" (1964, p. 12). Maslow (1963) gives more information about actual sexual expression among people who are assumed to possess high self-esteem in his descriptions of sexuality among self-actualizing people: (1) they tend to fuse sex with love; (2) they tend not to seek out or be satisfied with sex for its own sake; (3) they have a happy, playful attitude in sex and tend to enjoy sex more than average, often reporting intense sensations approaching "mystical experience"; (4) they are more likely to acknowledge attraction for many people, but are less likely to feel a need to act on it; (5) they are more likely to be happy in a relatively monogamous sexual relationship and feel that sexual pleasure increases with increased familiarity and intimacy with a sexual partner; (6) they show less differentiation of sex-roles, that is, they seem to feel secure enough in their sexual identity to be comfortable taking on some of the cultural aspects of the opposite sex, to feel free to be active or passive in sex as well as in other spheres of their lives.

From these descriptions, it seems that the sexual motives of high self-esteem people are based primarily on affiliative rather than dominance needs. There seems to be nothing to be proved but much to be enjoyed through sex by these people.

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In brief summary, psychological motivation for sexual behavior appears to be influenced by many factors, including early infantile needs, the quality of the original parent-child bond and other early experiences which affect personality dynamics, by social learning related to sex-role identification, and by an individual's psychological health and maturity.

In light of the foregoing discussion, six specific hypotheses are proposed in regard to relationships between the independent variables of sex, self-esteem, and basic personality needs and the dependent variables of conscious sexual motives and pre-conscious sexual motives.

### Hypotheses

Hypothesis I: The measures of both conscious and pre-conscious sexual motives differentiate men and women along traditional cultural lines: (a) women score higher than men on Deference, Nurturance, and Succorance; (b) men score higher than women on Achievement, Aggression, and Dominance.

The first hypothesis is consistent with the culturally ascribed sex-role characteristics, which one would expect to be especially salient in regard to sexual interactions.

Hypothesis II: There is more congruence between conscious and pre-conscious sexual motives among women than among men.



Hypothesis II is based on the recognition of basic cultural inconsistencies in regard to the sexual motives associated with male and female sex-roles. Motives attributed to women (deference, nurturance, and succorance) are all socially approved in an interpersonal context, while the sexual motives strongly associated with male sexual identity (achievement, aggression, and dominance) are not socially acceptable in the context of intimate interpersonal relations between the sexes. In the presence of this cultural double message, men are more likely than women to be conflicted about their motives and to obscure the relative importance of these motives to themselves and to others.

Hypothesis III: Self-esteem is negatively related to the conscious sexual motives of Deference in women and of Dominance in men.

This hypothesis is based on the conjunction of two assumptions: (1) that dominance-submission motives are more frequent and/or more intense among people with low self-esteem, and (2) that low self-esteem people tend to adhere more closely to cultural sex-role stereotypes. This prediction is restricted to conscious motives on the further assumption that this kind of defensiveness, i.e., adhering to stereotyped role behaviors, may be in the service of maintaining a consciously acceptable self-image.

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Hypothesis IV: Self-esteem is positively related to conscious and pre-conscious sexual motive measures of Affiliation for both men and women.

Hypothesis IV is based on the assumptions that persons with high self-esteem will (1) have less need to use sexual interactions for self-esteem enhancement, via either conquest or approval-seeking; (2) be more capable of establishing and maintaining close emotional relationships; and (3) possess a sufficiently high degree of personality integration that sexual expression can safely be associated with intimacy and sharing of pleasure.

Hypothesis V: Self-esteem is negatively related to the pre-conscious sexual motive of Aggression in both men and women.

This hypothesis is based on the assumptions that (1) aggression is related to previous experience of frustration or injury, especially that which occurred during an individual's early development; and (2) both early deprivation and guilt about one's angry reaction to the resulting frustration contribute to low self-esteem.

Hypothesis VI: Conscious sexual motives are congruent with corresponding conscious personality needs.

The final hypothesis is based on the assumption that there will be at least some degree of order and integration within

a given personality system. Although cultural taboos may produce some isolation of sexuality from other aspects of an individual's life, one might reasonably expect a general tendency for sexual motives to be consistent with basic personality needs.

In addition to the above hypotheses, all variables will be examined separately for each sex.

## METHOD

### Subjects

Subjects (Ss) for the present study were taken from a college student population. The sample consisted of 200 students (100 women and 100 men) enrolled in undergraduate psychology courses at Michigan State University. Of these 200 Ss, 39 (15 women and 24 men) signed up for this study in order to get extra credit in an Introductory Psychology course; 71 (41 women and 30 men) were enrolled in an intermediate level Psychology of Personality course; and 90 (44 women and 30 men) were enrolled in an upper level class in Abnormal Psychology. The latter two groups of Ss volunteered after having been asked by the experimenter to participate; they received no payment or course credit. All Ss were informed that this was a study of "Personality and Sexuality."

There were originally 104 men Ss and 116 women Ss; 4 men and 13 women were eliminated from the sample because they did not give complete data on the major variables; an additional 3 women Ss were randomly chosen and eliminated in order to have equal male and female

samples. Included among the men Ss are 5 who omitted age information and 2 who omitted two of the personal information items.

No formal analysis was done for differences between Ss drawn from the 3 different courses. Although both age and education level tended to be higher, the higher the level of the course, there was wide variety within each course. The average age and education of all women and all men of the sample were not significantly different. The average age was 20.13 for women and 20.78 for men; the mean number of years of college completed was 2.36 for women and 2.56 for men (see Table 2).

The greater variance of age among men, shown in Table 1, was due largely to the presence of three Ss who were considerably older than the rest of the sample (ages: 28, 30, and 50).

TABLE 1.--Age of Ss.

	N	Range	Mean	Variance
Women	100	18-33	20.13	4.76
Men	95 <sup>a</sup>	17-50	20.78	14.05

<sup>a</sup> Five men Ss omitted age information

$t = -1.47$ ;  $df = 193$ ;  $p < .20$ .

TABLE 2.--Educational Level of Ss.

Class Status	Women N = 100	Men N = 100
Freshman	30	22
Sophomore	27	22
Junior	21	35
Senior	21	20
Graduate	1	1
Mean Years of College Completed <sup>a</sup>	2.36	2.56

<sup>a</sup>t = -1.27 df = 198; p > .20

### Procedure

The measures used in this study were administered in separate groups for men and women Ss; there was a man experimenter for men Ss and a woman experimenter for women Ss. The test materials were presented to the students in an ordered set (see Appendix B) consisting of (1) an introductory cover sheet giving basic instructions about the content and use of the test booklet; (2) the Adjective Check List; (3) the Sexual Motive Projective Test; (4) the Tennessee Self Concept Scales; (5) the Sexual Motive

Inventory; (6) a personal information questionnaire requesting S's sex, age, relationship status, sexual orientation, and information about his/her sexual experience (but specifically omitting S's name or student number to encourage spontaneity).

Each part of the test series include written instructions. The General Instructions were read aloud by the experimenter at the beginning of the test session, and Ss were encouraged to ask questions if further clarification was needed.

### The Instruments

Sexual Motive Inventory (SM-I).--This inventory, developed by the author, consists of 56 self-descriptive statements designed to assess an individual's psychological motivation for sexual behavior with another person. There are 8 motive categories (7 items each): Achievement (Ach), Deference (Def), Affiliation (Aff), Succorance (Suc), Dominance (Dom), Nurturance (Nur), Aggression (Agg), and Exhibition (Exh). Such statements as "I want to be the best lover possible" (Item 9, Ach), "I want to feel taken care of by my sexual partner" (Item 16, Suc), and "I like the 'fight' aspects of a sexual interaction" (Item 49, Agg)



are rated by S on a five-point Likert scale from "completely false" (+1) to "completely true" (+5).

The 8 scales (the motive categories listed above) are based on adaptations of Murray's (1938) definitions of the corresponding categories (see Appendix D for motive category definitions). These particular categories were chosen because of their presumed relevance to interpersonal sexual interactions. Some (approximately 30%) of the inventory items were adapted (to reflect a specifically sexual context) from items on the Edwards Personal Preference Inventory (Edwards, 1959), which is also based on Murray's need system. To assure content validity, an item was retained in a given scale only if at least 4 of 6 independent judges (M.S.U. Counseling Center staff members and clinical interns) agreed on its classification. Of the 56 items retained, 45 had perfect inter-judge agreement, 5 had the agreement of 5 judges, and 6 had the agreement of 4 judges.

Internal reliability coefficients (Hoyt, 1941) for the total sample ranged from .45 to .78 ( $\bar{X} = .66$ ) over the 8 scales. Men and women did not differ significantly in average reliability for the scales (see Table A-2 in Appendix A).

Scale intercorrelations are given in Table A-3 in Appendix A. Lists of individual scale items for the SM-I are given in Appendix C.

Sexual Motive Projective Test (SM-PT).--This test, also developed by the author, is composed of two parts: Part I instructs S to "Write a brief story about the occurrence of sexual relations between Tom and Ann. Tell how they got together, how each felt before sexual relations, how the interaction progressed, and how each partner felt afterward"; Part 2 instructs S to rate 64 statements about the story characters in Part 1 on a five-point Likert scale from "completely false" (+1) to "completely true" (+5).

The statements in Part 2 are adapted from SM-I items and are designated to assess the same 8 motive categories: Ach, Def, Aff, Suc, Dom, Nur, Agg, and Exh. Selection of these statements was based on an effort to combine the highest content validity ratings among the items of each subscale. Of the 32 statements, 29 had perfect agreement among the 6 judges of content validity, 2 had the agreement of 5 judges, and 1 had the agreement of 4 judges. There are 32 different statements, 4 for each motive scale; each statement is given 2 forms, one which applies to the female character (Ann) and one which

applies to the male character (Tom). See Appendix C for lists of items for each scale.

For each motive scale, S has a "female character score" and a "male character score," each being the sum of S's ratings of the sex-appropriate (i.e., referring to Tom or Ann) items. S's score for the character of the same sex as S is taken as a measure of S's own motive strength on a given scale; S's score for the opposite sex character is taken to be S's expectation of the strength of a given motive in persons of the opposite sex. The assumption underlying this scoring system is that each subject will exhibit major identification with the same-sex character in her/his story.

Only the scores from Part 2 will be used in testing the specific hypotheses stated above. This part of the test was designed to provide information about an individual's motives which is less conscious, therefore less susceptible to censorship in the direction of social desirability than the self-descriptive SM-I items. This format also has the advantage of being easily scorable. Pilot work showed that Part 1 story protocols typically do not give enough information to allow them to be rated on all the motive categories which are of interest.

The most basic assumption involved here is that S will "project" onto a story character those of his/her own motives which may be less available to awareness, or which are felt to be socially unacceptable. If one conceptualizes various "levels" of awareness, the level tapped by the SM-PT is probably equivalent to what is sometimes called the "pre-conscious" level, rather than the "deeper" or "unconscious" levels. This is because the sexual context is clear and the content of the response item is relatively direct, hence, S is likely to have a more guarded response set than might be the case with the more ambiguous stimuli used in projective techniques such as the Rorschach, which purport to give what Abt (1950) calls an "x-ray" picture of S's personality.

Internal reliability coefficients (Hoyt, 1941) for the total sample ranged from .41 to .85 ( $\bar{X}$  = .65) for the 16 subscales (8 male character, 8 female character). Average reliability coefficients over the 16 subscales were not significantly different for men and women (see Table A-6 in Appendix A).

Scale intercorrelations are given in Tables A-7 and A-8 in Appendix A.

Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS).--The Clinical and Research Form of the TSCS (Fitts, 1965) is a 100-item



inventory of self-descriptive statements designed to portray an individual's self-concept and level of self-esteem. Statements such as "I am a friendly person" (Item 73), "I wish I could be more trustworthy" (Item 28), and "I feel good most of the time" (Item 14) are rated by S on a five-point Likert scale from "completely false" (+1) to "completely true" (+5). To attempt to control for the effects of response set, half the statements are worded positively and half are worded negatively.

The most important index of overall level of self-esteem on the scale is the Total Positive (Total P) Score, which will be used for hypothesis testing. In addition, two "defensiveness" scales, the Self Criticism Score (SC) and the Defense Positive Scale (DP) will be used as indices of Total P Score validity. The SC scale is composed of 10 items from the L-Scale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory and provides a measure of an individual's tendency to make a deliberate effort to present a favorable picture of himself. The DP scale is an empirically-derived measure of defensiveness, which is described as a more subtle measure than the SC scale; a high DP score (above 72) is interpreted as indicating that one's positive self description stems from defensive distortion, while a low DP score (below 33) is

interpreted to mean that the person is lacking in usual defenses.

In the present study, SC will be used as a criterion for elimination of subjects only if there are extremely discrepant scores. Since DP is highly correlated with Tot P, this score will be used as a statistical control in correlation of Tot P with other variables in testing hypotheses.

Test-retest reliability coefficients for a two-week testing interval (in a general population sample) were .92 for Total P, .75 for SC, and .90 for DP (Fitts, 1965). Using a shortened version of the Scale, Congdon (1958) still obtained an  $r$  of .88 for Total P. Fitts also reports that "The distinctive features of individual profiles are still present for most persons a year or more later" (1965, p. 15).

Four kinds of validation procedures are reported by Fitts (1965) which support the TSCS as a valid measure of self-esteem. These include (1) content validity, (2) discrimination between groups, (3) correlation with other personality measures, and (4) personality changes under particular conditions. Content validity was achieved by requiring that each scale item have the unanimous agreement of 7 independent judges that it was classified correctly.

Specifically the TSCS has been shown to successfully differentiate in the expected direction such groups as patient and non-patient (Fitts, 1965; Congdon, 1958; Piety, 1958; Havener, 1961; and Wayne, 1963); different types of psychiatric disorders within a patient group (Huffman, 1964); and delinquents and non-delinquents (Atchison, 1958). Predicted differences have been found in studies of other groups, such as unwed mothers (Boston and Kew, 1964) and alcoholics (Wells and Bueno, 1957).

Scale scores correlated in expected ways with MMPI scores (McGee, 1960) and in a clear, though non-linear way with Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (Sundby, 1962). Hall (1964) reports significant correlations between many TSCS scores and a number of other personality measures, including Taylor Anxiety Scale, California F-Scale, Cornell Medical Index, Inventory of Feelings, Locus of Control, Extraversion, Neuroticism, and Maladjustment.

Expected changes in TSCS scores were found among paratroop trainees subject to stress and failure (Gividen, 1959); and patients after undergoing psychotherapy (Fitts, 1965; Ashcraft and Fitts, 1964). On the other hand, chemical intervention did not alter TSCS scores; the



administration of a tranquilizing drug produced no change in self-concept in psychiatric patients, even though they did show symptomatic and behavioral changes (Congdon, 1958).

The Adjective Check List (ACL).--The ACL (Gough and Heilbrun, 1965) consists of 300 adjectives commonly used to describe personal attributes. There are 24 experimental scales, including 15 scales based on Murray's need system. Of interest here are those scales which correspond to the subscales of the SM-I and the SM-PT: Ach, Def, Aff, Suc, Dom, Nur, Agg, and Exh. Scores on these scales will be compared with subscale scores on the two SM measures to examine the relationship between sexual motives and general personality needs.

Test-retest reliability (10-week interval) reported by the developers for the relevant scores range between .74 and .90, except for Suc, which was .45 for women and .54 for men.

Content validity for the Need scales is defined by interjudge agreement of at least 9 out of 19 judges that an adjective would be indicative of the presence of a given need as described by Edwards (1954). Although the ACL Need scales share this definitional base with

the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS), corresponding scales on these two measures are not highly correlated and cannot be considered equivalent scores. However, the rank ordering of needs on the ACL and the EPPS correlate  $+ .60$  (Heilbrun, 1958). ACL scales relate moderately well in expected directions to non-test indices of the same dimensions (Heilbrun, 1959) and to other established measures such as the California Psychological Inventory and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (Gough and Heilbrun, 1965).

## RESULTS

Before presenting the findings in relation to the hypotheses, it seems appropriate to give a summary of the findings regarding several characteristics of the present sample. This may give additional perspective for interpreting the major results.

### Tennessee Self Concept Scale Scores

Since the present sample differed significantly from Fitts' (1965) original norm group on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale scores used in this study, it was decided to include here comparisons of the mean scale scores for these two groups. Table 3 shows that men and women of the present sample have mean scores that are significantly lower than the norm group on Tot P and DP and that women Ss scored significantly higher than the norm group on SC.

TABLE 3.--Comparison of the Present Sample with the Original Normative Sample<sup>a</sup> on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale

TSCS Scale	Sample	Mean	SD	t (with Norm Group)
<u>Tot P</u>	Norm Group	345.57	30.70	
	Present Sample			
	Women	336.41	35.05	2.17*
	Men	323.59	39.01	4.82**
<u>DP</u>	Norm Group	54.40	12.38	
	Present Sample			
	Women	37.72	12.40	12.49***
	Men	37.20	13.40	12.04***
<u>SC</u>	Norm Group	35.54	6.70	
	Present Sample			
	Women	37.09	5.11	-2.69**
	Men	36.13	5.50	-0.96

<sup>a</sup>Fitts, 1965.

\*p < .05  
 \*\*p < .01  
 \*\*\*p < .001

### Personal Information and Sexual Experience

Personal information and sexual experience variables for women and men Ss are summarized in Tables 4, 5, and 6.

Table 4 shows a significant difference between men and women in regard to sexual orientation but not in regard to relationship status.

TABLE 4.--Distribution of Ss in Regard to Sexual Orientation and Relationship Status

	Women (N = 100)	Men (N = 100)	
Sexual Orientation			$z=2.02^{a*}$
Heterosexual	100	96	
Bisexual	0	04	
Homosexual	0	00	
Relationship Status			$t=-.94^b$
Single (no steady partner)	42	44	
Steady relationship	48	38	
Living with partner (not married)	07	10	
Married	03	08	

<sup>a</sup> Test for difference between proportions (Walker and Lev, 1953).

<sup>b</sup> Status categories were given scale scores of 1 (single) through 4 (married);  $t$  represents test of difference between the mean scale scores for men and women.

\*  $p < .05$

Table 5 shows that in comparison to the previously researched samples, the present sample is more active in coitus and in oral-genital contacts. This difference is especially pronounced among women Ss.

TABLE 5.--Incidence of Types of Sexual Experience: Present Sample and Previous Reports for People of Comparable Age and Education

	Percentages Reported by Previous Studies		Present Sample		
	Women	Men	Women N = 100	Men N = 100	$z^e$
Masturbation <sup>a,d</sup>	63	96	76	94	-3.56 *
Heavy Petting <sup>c</sup>	91	92	95	94	0.31
Oral-Genital Stimulation <sup>b,c</sup>	17-48	22-44	72	74	-0.32
Anal Penetration <sup>b,c</sup>	too few to determine incidence		22	25	-0.50
Coitus <sup>c,d</sup>	35	68	72	77	-0.81

<sup>a</sup>Johnson, 1969

<sup>b</sup>Kinsey et al., 1949

<sup>c</sup>Kinsey et al., 1953

<sup>d</sup>Reevy, 1961

<sup>e</sup>Test for differences between proportions (Walker and Lev, 1953), comparing men and women Ss of this sample.

\* $p < .001$

In Table 6, information about sexual experience is given for those Ss who have participated in sexual relations. In this case, "sexual relations" is not limited to coitus, but is defined somewhat more broadly: "sexual activity with another person in which one or both partners may reach orgasm." Thus heavy petting may be considered to be sexual relations. Under this definition, 89 men and 83 women indicated that they had engaged in sexual relations.

Examination of roughly comparable data from other studies reveals that the present sample is somewhat higher in frequency of sexual relations: Kinsey et al. (1953) report a mean weekly coital frequency of .7 for women and .8 for men who are sexually active. The number of partners reported by Kinsey et al. (1953) is lower for women and higher for men in relation to the present sample. Kinsey reported that 87% of women and 60% of men had had sexual experience with 5 or fewer partners; Table 5 shows that for this sample, 80% of women and 75% of men had 6 or fewer partners. The author is not aware of data from previous research presented in sufficiently comparable form to allow comparisons about orgasm frequency and physical enjoyment.

The sex differences shown in Tables 5 and 6, i.e., that men Ss report higher incidence of masturbation, number of partners, orgasm frequency, and physical enjoyment than

women, are in agreement with those commonly reported in the studies cited above. An exception to the comparability of this sample with others is that in this sample the incidence of coitus among women is almost equal to that of men; men typically are reported as having a clearly higher incidence than women.



TABLE 6.--Sexual Experience for Ss Who Have Engaged in Sexual Relations<sup>a</sup> (Percent of Ss in Each Category)

Variable	Women Tot N = 83	Men Tot N = 89	t
Frequency of Sexual Relations	N = 82 <sup>b</sup>	N = 89	-0.35
Only once or a few times ever	17	17	
Once or twice a month	27	25	
Once or twice a week	33	31	
Three to five times a week	21	25	
Once a day or more	02	02	
Number of Partners	N = 83	N = 89	-2.02*
One	31	25	
Two or three	38	30	
Four to six	11	20	
Seven to twelve	16	09	
Thirteen or more	04	16	
Orgasm Frequency	N = 83	N = 87 <sup>c</sup>	-5.94**
Never	22	05	
25% of time or less	31	03	
50% to 75% of time	22	11	
Almost every time	17	45	
Once or more on each occasion	08	36	

TABLE 6.--(Continued)

Physical Enjoyment of Sexual Relations	N = 83	N = 87 <sup>c</sup>	-3.36**
Extremely unpleasant	00	00	
Unpleasant	07	00	
Neutral	00	01	
Pleasant	13	01	
Very pleasant	30	35	
Extremely pleasurable	50	63	

<sup>a</sup>"Sexual Relations" was defined as "sexual activity with another person in which one or both partners may reach orgasm."

<sup>b</sup>One S reported that she no longer engages in sexual relations, so she omitted frequency information.

<sup>c</sup>Two Ss omitted this information.

\*  $p < .05$

\*\*  $p < .001$

## Major Findings

Hypothesis I: The measures of both conscious and pre-conscious sexual motives differentiate men and women along traditional cultural lines: (a) women score higher than men on Deference, Nurturance, and Succorance; (b) men score higher than women on Achievement, Aggression, and Dominance.

As seen in Table 7, men and women differ in the predicted direction on all 6 motive categories named in Hypothesis I, on both the conscious measure (SM-I) and the pre-conscious measure (SM-PT). Of these differences, only SM-I Nurturance failed to reach a satisfactory level of significance. Thus, Hypothesis I is clearly supported.

In addition to the predicted differences, both conscious and pre-conscious Affiliation scales significantly differentiate women and men, women scoring higher on both kinds of Aff scales ( $p < .001$ ).

Hypothesis II: There is more congruence between conscious and pre-conscious sexual motives among women than among men.

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated for each S, between SM-I scales and the female scales of SM-PT for women and between SM-I scales and the male scales of SM-PT for men. The average correlation for women ( $r = .78$ ,  $SD = .32$ ) was higher than the

TABLE 7.--Comparisons of the Mean Scores of Women and Men Ss on Scales of the Sexual Motive Inventory (SM-I) and the Sexual Motive Projective Test (SM-PT)

Scales	Women N = 100		Men N = 100		t	p <
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
<u>SM-I</u>						
Ach	23.92	4.63	25.87	4.14	-3.14	.005
Aff	31.42	3.09	29.62	3.83	3.66	.001*
Agg	14.05	4.36	15.53	4.25	-2.43	.01
Def	21.23	3.38	19.81	3.15	3.07	.005
Dom	15.96	3.44	18.80	4.22	-5.22	.0001
Exh	23.85	3.82	23.54	3.66	.59	NS
Nur	30.02	4.26	29.17	4.80	1.32	.10
Suc	31.09	3.04	28.70	3.66	5.02	.0001
<u>SM-PT</u>						
	(female scales)		(male scales)			
Ach	12.20	3.55	14.05	3.73	-3.75	.0005
Aff	18.01	2.95	15.69	4.04	4.64	.001*
Agg	7.87	2.53	9.36	3.20	-3.65	.0005
Def	11.56	3.01	10.32	3.22	2.81	.005
Dom	7.27	2.91	11.50	3.62	-9.11	.0001
Exh	12.39	3.26	12.60	3.27	-.71	NS
Nur	16.30	3.02	15.02	3.73	2.67	.005
Suc	16.35	3.13	14.48	3.81	3.79	.0005

\* For a nondirectional test; all other significance levels are for directional tests.

average correlation for men ( $r = .58$ ,  $SD = .40$ ). A test for the difference between these two means yielded  $t = 3.91$  ( $p < .001$ ). This result soundly supports Hypothesis II.

Some insight into the source of the lowered congruence in men is gained by an inspection of the correlations between the conscious and unconscious measures on each scale, across Ss. These correlations are shown in Table 8.

TABLE 8.--Correlations Between SM-I and SM-PT on Each Sexual Motive Scale (SM-PT female scales used for women Ss and SM-PT male scales used for men Ss)

Sexual Motive Scale	Women N = 100	Men N = 100
Achievement	.38	.39
Affiliation	.32	.41
Aggression	.48	.57
Deference	.50	.18
Dominance	.41	.57
Exhibition	.54	.45
Nurturance	.41	.13
Succorance	.56	.49

For  $r = .26$ ,  $p < .01$

As Table 8 shows, all 8 scale correlations for women Ss and 6 of the scale correlations for men Ss are highly significant. The only two scales which are not significantly correlated between SM-I and SM-PT are the Deference and Nurturance scales for men Ss. These two scales, then, appear to be the focus of inconsistency between conscious and pre-conscious sexual motives for men Ss.

Given that a major focus of this study is the relationship between sexual motives and self-esteem, and given the frequent association of "personality integration" with self-esteem (Fitts, 1965), a post hoc analysis of the relationship of level of self-esteem to the degree of congruence between conscious and pre-conscious sexual motives seemed warranted. The congruence "score" was the correlation coefficient between SM-I and SM-PT scales obtained by each S. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 9.

TABLE 9.--Correlations Between Conscious/Pre-conscious  
Sexual Motive Congruence and Self-esteem  
(TSCS Tot P)

TSCS Scales	Standard Correlation		Partial Correlation <sup>a</sup> DP Held Constant	
	Women N = 100	Men N = 100	Women N = 100	Men N = 100
Tot P	.23**	.27**	.23**	.22*
DP	.14	.17		

\*  $p < .05$

\*\*  $p < .02$

<sup>a</sup>Since the DP score on the TSCS was designed to measure defensiveness which may distort S's total self-esteem score (Tot P), partial correlations, with DP held constant, were calculated for hypothesis tests which required correlations between Tot P and other variables. This provides some measure of assurance that the relationship is a function of "real" self-esteem, and not defensive distortion.

Table 9 shows that congruence is positively and significantly related to self-esteem for both men and women Ss. This relationship maintains when DP is held constant, though the size of the correlation coefficient decreases somewhat for men Ss when DP is partialled out.

Hypothesis III: Self-esteem is negatively related to the conscious sexual motives of Deference in women and of Dominance in men.

As shown in Table 10, there is a significant negative correlation between Self-esteem and Deference in women Ss and between Self-esteem and Dominance in men Ss, even when DP score is held constant. The relation between Self-esteem and Def in women is stronger than that between Self-esteem and Dom in men. There is a tendency toward a negative relationship between Self-esteem and Dom in women, but this relationship is not significant when DP score is held constant. These results give clear support for Hypothesis III.

TABLE 10.--Correlations Between Self-esteem (TSCS Tot P) and SM-I Deference and Dominance

Variable	Standard Correlation		Partial Correlation DP Held Constant	
	Women N = 100	Men N = 100	Women N = 100	Men N = 100
SM-I Def	-.54**	-.03	-.42**	-.08
SM-I Dom	-.24*	-.30*	-.15	-.26**

\*  $p < .05$

\*\*  $p < .01$



Hypothesis IV: Self-esteem is positively related to conscious and to pre-conscious sexual motive measures of Affiliation for both men and women.

As shown in Table 11, sexual motive Affiliation was significantly correlated with Self-esteem for men ss only. When DP was held constant, this relationship remained significant only for SM-I Aff. Examination of the Eta coefficients (Walker and Lev, 1953) for possible non-linear relationships between these variables also failed to produce significant results. Thus the data give only partial support for Hypothesis IV.

TABLE 11.--Correlations Between Self-esteem (TSCS Tot P) and Conscious (SM-I) and Pre-conscious (SM-PT) Sexual Motive Measures of Affiliation

Variable	Standard Correlation		Partial Correlation DP Held Constant	
	Women N = 100	Men N = 100	Women N = 100	Men N = 100
SMI-I Aff	.10	.39**	.17	.32**
SM-PT Aff	.08	.24*	.07	.13

\*  $p < .05$

\*\*  $p < .01$

Hypothesis V: Self-esteem is negatively related to the pre-conscious sexual motive of Aggression in both men and women.

Table 12 reveals a significant negative correlation between Tot P and Agg in women Ss only, and the significance of this relationship does not maintain when DP score is held constant. Thus, Hypothesis V is not supported.

TABLE 12.--Correlations Between Self-Esteem (TSCS Tot P) and SM-PT Aggression

Variable	Standard Correlation		Partial Correlation DP Held Constant	
	Women N = 100	Men N = 100	Women N = 100	Men N = 100
SM-PT Agg <sup>a</sup>	-.24*	-.12	-.16	-.01

<sup>a</sup>Correlations were done with female scales for women and male scales for men.

\*  $p < .05$

Hypothesis VI: Conscious sexual motives are congruent with corresponding conscious personality needs.

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated for each S between SM-I scales and the corresponding subscales of the ACL. The average correlation

over the 8 scales was  $-.09$  for women and  $-.04$  for men. This result does not support Hypothesis VI.

However, it was noted that, while the average correlations were close to zero, there was a wide range in the distribution of correlation coefficients. For women Ss,  $r$  ranged between  $-.88$  and  $+.90$ , with 70% of the coefficients significantly different from zero ( $p < .01$ ); for men Ss,  $r$  ranged between  $-.61$  and  $+.70$ , with 68% of the coefficients significantly different from zero ( $p < .01$ ). These data characteristics seem to imply that there may be a complex relationship between ACL and SM-I, perhaps in conjunction with another key variable.

In an effort to see whether this key variable might be self-esteem, a post hoc analysis was conducted, correlating ACL/SM-I congruence (correlation coefficients for each S) with TSCS Tot.P. This test produced a significant correlation for men Ss ( $r = .21$ ,  $p < .05$ ), but this relationship did not maintain when DP was held constant (partial  $r = .08$ ). Correlations between congruence and self-esteem were not significant for women Ss ( $r = -.08$ ; partial  $r = -.14$ ).

### Summary

The present sample was found to differ significantly from the original norm group of the TSCS on the

three scales used in this study. Both men and women scored significantly lower than the norm group on Tot. P and DP; women scored significantly higher than the norm group on SC.

The Ss in the present sample were found to be somewhat more sexually active than one would expect from previous incidence studies; this difference was more marked among women Ss.

The results reported here indicate that (1) the conscious and pre-conscious measures of sexual motives introduced in this study differentiate men and women along lines consistent with social sex-role patterns; (2) there is more congruence between conscious and pre-conscious sexual motives among women than among men; (3) self-esteem is negatively related to the conscious sexual motives of Deference in women and of Dominance in men; (4) self-esteem is positively related to the conscious sexual motive of Affiliation in men but not in women; (5) there was no support for the predicted negative relationship between self-esteem and the pre-conscious sexual motive of aggression; and (6) the prediction of congruence between conscious sexual motives and corresponding conscious personality needs was not supported.

## DISCUSSION

Before proceeding with discussion of the major findings, some particular characteristics of the present sample will be considered. The relevant findings were given in the Results section.

### Sample Characteristics

In comparison with the original normative sample of the TSCS (Fitts, 1965), both men and women Ss of the present sample were significantly lower on Tot P (total self-esteem) and on DP (defense positive), and women Ss were significantly higher on SC (self criticism).

The population from which the current sample was drawn differs in several respects from that of the normative sample, in ways which may be responsible for the observed differences in scores. First, the norm sample contained a wider range of ages (12 to 68 years) and education levels (6th grade to Ph.D.). However, Fitts reported that his sample was over-represented in college students, white subjects, and persons under 30 years old, so the effect of sample differences in age and education are not likely to be great.

Second, the selective effect of recruiting subjects from psychology courses may have depressed the self-esteem

scores of the current sample. Subjects from the same population, i.e., psychology students from the same university, recruited for another study (Deitzel, 1970) obtained very similar scores on Tot P and SC to those of the present sample; DP scores were not reported in that study. Thus, the scores obtained by the current sample seem to represent real population differences from the normative group, not an artifact of sampling.

Finally, some of the difference in scores between the present sample and the normative sample may be due to more general cultural changes which have occurred since Fitts began collecting his data in the mid-to-late 1950s, e.g., the often claimed dissatisfaction and alienation of current youth compared to the relative complacency said to have been characteristic of college students of the 1950s.

The present sample also differed from the TSCS normative sample in that women Ss scored significantly higher than men Ss on Tot P ( $t = 2.45$ ,  $p < .02$ ). Fitts (1965) and Deitzel (1970) report no significant differences between men and women on the TSCS scales, although in Deitzel's study, there was a definite trend toward higher scores among men Ss. The current finding of no significant differences between the sexes on SC and DP is in agreement with Fitts' norms.

The higher self-esteem scores observed in women of the present sample are in part simply a reflection of the fact that the men Ss had very low scores, since both men and women

had lower mean scores than the norm group. One explanation of the lower scores in self-esteem in men relative to women in the present sample may lie in the fact that the experimenter who recruited Ss for this study was a woman. A woman experimenter who is conducting research on sex may be departing enough from sex-role expectations to attract less conforming women Ss and to discourage more traditional men who may have scored higher on self-esteem. Certainly in terms of numbers of volunteers, many more women than men expressed interest in the study.

In regard to sexual experience, a higher incidence of sexual activities of various kinds was reported by Ss in the present sample, as compared with Ss in the previous studies cited. This difference was especially marked in the case of women Ss. One factor contributing to this higher incidence of sexual activity may be the recent cultural changes in the direction of greater acceptance of sexual activity, especially on the part of women. In addition to possible increases in incidence in recent years, the method of recruitment may have attracted a more sexually active sample of people. Ss knew before they volunteered that the study was about some aspects of sexuality. However, the Kinsey studies also used volunteers and would be subject to a similar kind of bias.

Although the exact influence of these attributes of the present sample on the results of this study is not clear,

they may well influence the results and interpretations in ways not yet understood.

### Sex Differences in Sexual Motives

Hypothesis I predicted that both conscious (SM-I) and pre-conscious (SM-PT) measures of sexual motives would differentiate between men and women along the lines of expected sex-role characteristics. This prediction was clearly supported by the finding that on both SM-I and SM-PT, men scored higher than women on Achievement, Aggression, and Dominance, while women scored higher than men on Affiliation (although Affiliation was not included in the hypothesis), Deference, Nurturance, and Succorance. Of these differences, only SM-I Nur ( $t = 1.32$ ,  $p < .10$ ) failed to reach a conventionally acceptable ( $p < .05$ ) level of significance.

While SM-I did not correlate significantly with personality needs as measured by the Adjective Check List (discussed below), the sex differences found on both SM-I and SM-PT scales are in close accord with sex differences in manifest personality needs assessed by the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (Edwards, 1959), in both college and general population norm groups. It must be noted, however, that part of the relationship observed may be due to shared method variance, in that items from the EPPS served as models for constructing items for the sexual motive scales. Nonetheless, the point remains that expected sex differences are observed on the sexual motive measures.



It is well to keep in mind at this point that the sex differences in sexual motives presented here represent only differences between the means of the two groups and do not indicate the presence of distinct or separate motives for men and women. There is a great deal of overlap between the distributions of men's and women's scores on each motive scale (see Tables A-1 and A-5 in Appendix A). This is an important distinction to make in order to avoid contributing to the longstanding trend toward dichotomizing and oversimplifying sex differences in regard to sexual behavior. Thus, each sex can be seen to possess to some degree those motives usually associated with the opposite sex-role.

In support of Hypothesis II, it was found that there was more congruence between conscious and pre-conscious sexual motives among women Ss than among men Ss, i.e., the average correlation between SM-I and SM-PT scales was significantly higher for the women. The rationale for this prediction was the observation of the "double message" conveyed to men in our culture regarding the meaning of sexual behavior. From an early age, men are taught that they are to respect and take care of women; on the other hand, they learn -- at least as early as adolescence -- that sexual conquest of women is a primary facet of masculine sexual identification and status. Thus, men may be more prone to conflict with respect to sexual motives and experience concomitant diminished personality integration in the sexual sphere.

Some support for this rationale was given by an inspection of the correlations across Ss on each scale of SM-I and SM-PT. For women Ss, correlations for all 8 scales were highly significant; for men Ss, correlations for 6 of the 8 scales were highly significant. The 2 scales which were not significantly correlated for men were Deference and Nurturance, a finding which may be interpreted as resulting from conflict in regard to the "respect and care-taking" inclinations mentioned above. Traditionally, men's conflict between care-taking and conquest impulses toward women has been avoided by directing the incompatible impulses toward different women or different groups of women, the old "virgin-whore" dichotomy. Thus men appear not to have reconciled their respect and care-taking motives with the more persistent socialization pressure toward viewing sexuality in terms of dominance, conquest, and masculine status.

Because of the theoretical link between the concepts of congruence, psychological health, and self-esteem (Rogers, 1947, 1961; Maslow, 1954), an analysis was done to test the post hoc prediction that conscious/pre-conscious sexual motive congruence would relate positively to level of self-esteem. Correlations between these two variables produced significant results for men and women Ss, which maintained when the defensiveness scale was partialled out.

This finding demonstrates the relevance of the notion of conscious/pre-conscious congruence for understanding sexual

motivation per se and for drawing inferences about personality integration in general. The results also contribute additional construct validity to the sexual motive measures.

The post hoc results raise a question concerning interpretation of the main finding of Hypothesis II: sex differences in the degree of congruence between conscious and pre-conscious sexual motives. Since the women Ss in the present sample are significantly higher in self-esteem than the men Ss, the observation of greater congruence among the women could be due in part to their higher self-esteem. This does not obviate the previous interpretation of greater sexual motive conflict in the men of this sample compared to the women, but it does call for caution in generalizing from the present sample to men and women in general until further research is done to clarify this issue.

#### Self-Esteem and Sexual Motives

Although self-esteem has already been introduced, in relation to conscious/pre-conscious sexual motive congruence, the primary predictions about self-esteem and sexual motives were made in Hypotheses III, IV, and V.

Hypothesis III actually involves two predictions, both of which were clearly supported: (1) self-esteem is negatively related to SM-I Deference in women, and (2) self-esteem is negatively related to SM-I Dominance in men. Basically, these predictions assume that people who are low in self-esteem are likely to adhere closely to the most salient features of

the sex-role stereotypes in order to achieve some sense of their own adequacy.

These two findings are in accord with Horney's (1937) contention that sexual behavior can be an expression of a neurotic desire for reassurance or of efforts to reduce anxiety by subduing others, the former perhaps employed more frequently by women and the latter more frequently by men, in keeping with sex-role expectations. By "clinging" to sex-role stereotypes, one is at least likely to avoid some of the persistent and pervasive censure that often accompanies deviation from sex-role expectations. Only when one is more secure and less subject to anxiety can he transcend the defensive stance taken in dominance-subordination sexual motives (Maslow, 1942).

It is interesting to note that the negative relationship between self-esteem and Def in women ( $r = -.42$ ) is considerably stronger than the negative relationship between self-esteem and Dom in men ( $r = -.26$ ), though both are significant correlations. The difference may be due to the fact that, given the relevance of a power orientation, if one adopts deference (or submission) rather than dominance as a defensive stance, one is in a sense the loser by definition, hence more consistently low in self-esteem. This explanation fits with one effect of the lower status that comes with being female as opposed to being male in our culture. There is a paradox

involved in emulating the female sex-role stereotype: there are some social rewards for acting as one "should", but when the qualities one is modeling are held in low regard, the rewards reach a point of diminishing -- or conflicting -- returns, as recent writing about the psychology of women increasingly documents (Donelson, 1973).

Another curious facet of this particular set of findings is that, while there is a trend toward a negative relationship between self-esteem and SM-I Dom in women Ss, there is no corresponding trend involving SM-I Def in men Ss. Examining the correlates of Def (intercorrelations with other motive scales) for men and women Ss, it appears that this variable does not function in the same way for both sexes. In women, Def correlates significantly with Ach, Dom, and Suc; in men, the significant correlations with Def are with Ach, Aff, Nur, and Suc. It appears, then, that for women Def may serve the function of subtle dominance or control, while for men Def may not serve a power function at all, being closer in meaning to affiliation and nurturance. This difference clearly demonstrates the form versus function distinction. The behavior may appear to be the same, in this case, engaging in sex at the partner's option or to please the partner; but the function of the behavior may be quite different, here, the function of control versus expression of caring.

In Hypothesis IV, a positive relationship is predicted, for men and women, between self-esteem and both conscious

and pre-conscious sexual motive measures of Affiliation.

Although no sex differences were predicted, the data supported the hypothesis only in the case of men Ss and were unequivocal only for SM-I Aff. The positive relationship between Tot P and SM-PT Aff was not significant when DP was held constant.

One explanation for the failure of Affiliation to correlate significantly with self-esteem in women is that female sex-role socialization teaches women to utilize affiliative modes of behavior for a number of social goals other than the intrinsic satisfaction of sharing experience with another person. First of all, women are taught that the most acceptable way of getting satisfaction in life is via meeting someone else's needs. Indeed, to avoid social (and self) censure for striving to meet their own needs, women must at least claim to be motivated out of a wish to share the pleasure with someone else, if not being concerned only with giving pleasure. In addition, women's relations with men are further contaminated by the fact that a woman's worth and status in our culture are determined to a large degree by whether she marries, by the status of the man she marries, and just by being in the company of and getting the approval of a man. Hence, a woman may respond in an apparently affiliative way to justify meeting her own needs for dominance, reassurance, or status, as well as for the more intrinsic satisfactions of intimacy and sharing pleasure. Here again, is an illustration of the same behavioral form serving different functions.

In contrast, a man is given more permission by the society to seek his own pleasure, and since his status depends much more on his own accomplishments, he is less likely to link so many diverse goals with affiliative behavior. Thus, a man's affiliative responses toward a sexual partner might be associated more directly with his own good feelings toward himself, a conclusion which is supported by the finding here of a positive relationship between self-esteem and Aff in men.

Unfortunately, a weakness in the instruments used to assess sexual motives is that in many of the scale items, form is used to infer function. This restricts the ability of the tests to discriminate the "real" motive in some instances. If this methodological restriction could be overcome, apparent sex differences in sexual motives might be greatly reduced.

Hypothesis V predicted a negative relationship between Tot P and SM-PT Aggression in both men and women. While the correlations were in the predicted direction, the coefficient was significant only for women Ss. When DP was held constant, the negative relationship between Tot P and SM-PT Agg was no longer significant for the women.

The prediction of a negative relationship between self-esteem and the pre-conscious sexual motive of Aggression was based on an assumption that aggressive sexual impulses and low self-esteem may stem from similar previous experience, most notably from the disruption of the early parent-child

relationship, with the concomitant deprivation and frustration. A further assumption was that a person who has experienced such deprivation will transfer to his sexual partner the anger first experienced toward his frustrating parent. Because this transference reaction is likely to be relatively unavailable to a person's conscious awareness, the SM-PT measure of Aggression seemed more appropriate than the SM-I. There is considerable doubt, however, about the adequacy of the SM-PT to go "deep" enough to tap the hypothesized unconscious aggression.

Despite the susceptibility of the SM-PT to defensive screening, a strong trend toward a negative relationship between SM-PT Agg and Tot. P. was found among women Ss. The absence of such a trend among men Ss may be explainable in part by the fact that aggressive impulses are more congruent with the male sex-role expectations, therefore more subject to intensification by social learning, rather than stemming from early deprivation alone. This would mean that reported aggressive sexual motives may be due to the frustration/aggression link hypothesized here and/or to the learned association between aggression and sexuality, thus obscuring the relationship with self-esteem predicted here.

With a few notable exceptions, the observed correlations between self-esteem and sexual motives have been small, though statistically significant. While it is obvious that self-esteem as assessed here does not account for a major



proportion of the variance of sexual motives, the observed relationships do indicate the potential value of continued work with self-esteem measures for shedding light on the way sexual motives operate for men and women. In turn, understanding sexual motives offers promise for further elucidation of the functioning of personality dynamics.

In this regard, a striking observation is that most of the confirmed predictions regarding self-esteem and sex-role relevant motives were of negative relationships. Looking at the correlations of Tot P with other sexual motive scales (see Tables A-4 and A-9 in Appendix A) about which predictions were not made, the trend toward negative relationships with self-esteem holds true. Of all the sexual motive scales, the only significant positive correlations with self-esteem are for Affiliation and Nurturance in men Ss.

The association of affiliative and nurturant motives and self-esteem observed for men Ss in this study may indicate that these are the "healthiest" sexual motives. This interpretation is consistent with Maslow's (1963) observed association of sex with love in self-actualizing people. As discussed earlier, it seems likely that the relationship between self-esteem and affiliative sexual motives exists in women as well as men, although the "true" relationship is probably obscured by women who also respond in an affiliative manner out of conformity to sex-role pressures.

### Personality Needs and Sexual Motives

Hypothesis VI predicted congruence between conscious sexual motives and corresponding conscious personality needs.

There was a complete lack of support for the predicted relationship by the data. Post hoc analysis to determine if there was a possible relationship between self-esteem and ACL/SM-I congruence also failed to produce significant results.

While this lack of relationship between the SM-I and the ACL scales was surprising, there are a number of factors which may be operating to minimize the likelihood of finding the predicted relation. Most importantly, close examination of the adjectives included on each ACL scale reveals that there may be basic differences in the meaning of corresponding scales on the ACL and the SM-I. For example, the ACL Achievement scale lists adjectives such as alert, capable, confident, dominant, independent, intelligent, etc., which indicate a measure of success in achieving. The Ach scale of the SM-I, on the other hand, contains items such as "I want to be the best lover possible", "I would like to be able to be a more skillful sex partner than others", and "I feel that I have failed if things don't go just right during sexual relations". These SM-I items reflect more a concern about performing successfully in a sexual context than any indication of actual achievement. Other scales reflect a similar disparity between expressed preferences on the SM-I as opposed to acknowledged personality characteristics on the ACL.

Method error due to differences in format of the two measures may also be a factor, as well as differential susceptibility to varying response sets, particularly social desirability. In retrospect, it is apparent that a more valid test of Hypothesis VI could be made with an instrument such as the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) (Edwards, 1959). The EPPS is more comparable to the SM-I in that it assesses manifest personality needs based on a S's stated behavioral preferences. As mentioned earlier, the sexual motive scales and the EPPS differentiate between men and women in parallel ways. For pragmatic reasons (described below), the ACL appeared to be a reasonable substitute for the EPPS for the purposes of this study, especially since the ACL, EPPS, and the sexual motive measures have a common theoretical source (Murray's need system). In addition, the ACL does correlate with the EPPS, though not highly.

While the fact that between 25% and 30% of the SM-I items were adapted from those on the EPPS might produce a spuriously high correlation between the two measures, this commonality also offers a unique opportunity to examine the effect of the specifically sexual context on responses to similar items. The EPPS was not used in the present study for primarily pragmatic reasons: (1) the administration time (approximately 40 minutes) was too long in addition to time required for assessing the major variables, and (2) a detailed

analysis of relationships between sexual motives and personality needs constitutes a study in itself, and as such is beyond the scope of the present research effort.

### The Sexual Motive Measures

The two measures of sexual motives, the SM-I and the SM-PT, which were introduced in this study, promise to be potentially valuable research instruments for exploring basic aspects of personality dynamics, as well as sex differences in sexual motivation specifically. Both instruments differentiate between men and women in a consistent and predictable manner, and the two tests together can provide an index of personality integration in relation to sexuality.

On both the SM-I and the SM-PT, an elementary linkage analysis (McQuitty, 1957) shows that the scales fall into two general clusters, which approximate the 2 "Domains" suggested in the initial theoretical discussion. One cluster includes Affiliation, Deference, Nurturance, and Succorance; the other cluster includes Achievement, Aggression, Dominance, and Exhibition. The relationships between these scales are similar for women and men, but they are not identical. The most noticeable sex difference in this regard is in the case of Deference on the SM-I: for women ss, the scale intercorrelations are such that Deference could belong as well to either of the two basic clusters. A possible interpretation of the sex difference on SM-I Deference was included in the discussion of self-esteem and sexual motives.

The SM-PT provides additional information that was not utilized in this study: women Ss' scores on the male character scales, and men Ss' scores on the female character scales. In combination with men's and women's scores on the same-sex character scales, these additional scales provide a basis for comparing the way each sex sees itself (i.e., scores itself) with the way it is seen by the opposite sex. Also, by comparing male character scores with female character scores within each sex, inferences can be made regarding the way each sex views the sexual motives of men in relation to the sexual motives of women.

In addition to their potential for use in research, the SM-I and the SM-PT may have value for use in clinical settings. A standard scoring system could be devised to allow comparison of an individual's scores on the SM-I with his scores on the SM-PT. In addition, the SM-PT story could be interpreted clinically as a projective instrument. Information from the tests could provide a basis for inferences about a client's interpersonal conflicts, about the nature of interpersonal problems and sexual incompatibility in client couples, etc.

#### Directions for Future Research

In order to maximize both the research and the clinical potential of the SM-I and the SM-PT, further research needs to be done on the tests themselves. Efforts should be made to improve the internal reliability of some of the scales;

test-retest reliability should be established; and the tests should be administered to a broad sampling of the general population in order to establish norms, special attention being given to differences between age groups and socio-economic levels. The relationship of the sexual motive scales to indices of social desirability should also be explored.

In addition to the test development kinds of research just described, a profitable study would be of the relationship between the sexual motive scales and different personality measures, such as the EPPS as described above. Such research could also include exploration of personality correlates of SM-I/SM-PT congruence (and of personality need/sexual motive congruence if such is found).

Other potentially profitable directions for research include replication of the major aspects of this study with samples from different populations or criterion groups, such as psychiatric patients, highly creative people, active homosexuals, people from other cultures, etc. Investigation of sexual motive congruence and/or complementarity in relation to conjugal adjustment in couples is a further direction which might be taken with the instruments introduced in this study.

### Summary

Two hundred psychology student volunteer subjects, 100 women and 100 men, were administered a test battery which included the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, the Adjective Check List, the

Sexual Motive Inventory, the Sexual Motive Projective Test, and a personal information questionnaire.

Hypotheses were made concerning (1) the relation of sexual motives to cultural sex-role characteristics; (2) sex differences in conscious/pre-conscious congruence in sexual motives; (3) the relation of level of self-esteem to the relative strength of various sexual motives; and (4) the relation of basic personality needs to sexual motives.

The results supported conclusions that (1) the conscious and pre-conscious measures of sexual motives introduced in this study differentiate men and women along lines consistent with social sex-role patterns; (2) there is more congruence between conscious and pre-conscious sexual motives among women than among men; (3) self-esteem is negatively related to the conscious sexual motives of Deference in women and of Dominance in men; (4) self-esteem is positively related to the conscious sexual motive of Affiliation in men but not in women; (5) there was no support for the predicted negative relationship between self-esteem and the pre-conscious sexual motive of Aggression; and (6) the prediction of congruence between conscious sexual motives and corresponding personality needs (as assessed by the ACL) was not supported.

Qualifications and implications of the findings were discussed, and future research directions were suggested.

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## APPENDIX A

TABLE A-1.--Sexual Motive Inventory; Basic Statistics

Scales	Range	Mean	SD
Ach	11-33	23.92	4.63
	16-36	25.87	4.14
Aff	22-35	31.42	3.09
	15-35	29.62	3.83
Agg	7-28	14.05	4.36
	8-27	15.53	4.25
Def	13-29	21.23	3.38
	13-27	19.81	3.15
Dom	8-25	15.96	3.44
	10-31	18.80	4.22
Exh	13-34	23.85	3.82
	15-34	23.54	3.66
Nur	21-39	30.02	4.26
	17-39	29.17	4.80
Suc	23-35	31.09	3.04
	21-35	28.70	3.66

First row = women Ss (N = 100); second row = men Ss (N = 100)



TABLE A-2.--Internal Reliability Coefficients<sup>a</sup> for Scales  
of the Sexual Motive Inventory

Scales	Internal Reliability Coefficients		
	Women (N = 100)	Men (N = 100)	Total Sample (N = 200)
Ach	.75	.61	.71
Aff	.57	.73	.68
Agg	.76	.67	.72
Def	.45	.43	.45
Dom	.54	.69	.67
Exh	.52	.50	.51
Nur	.74	.79	.78
Suc	.70	.73	.74

<sup>a</sup>Hoyt, 1941.

TABLE A-3.--Sexual Motive Inventory Scale Intercorrelations

Aff	.04 .14						
Agg	.35 .17	-.11 -.34					
Def	.20 .24	-.01 .30	.16 -.17				
Dom	.51 .31	-.09 -.23	.61 .57	.20 -.01			
Exh	.42 .24	.20 .08	.33 .33	.15 .18	.47 .44		
Nur	.11 .30	.52 .63	.04 -.18	.08 .29	-.04 -.00	.36 .17	
Suc	.07 .30	.63 .65	-.06 -.25	.20 .37	.02 -.02	.27 .26	.62 .64
	Ach	Aff	Agg	Def	Dom	Exh	Nur

First row = women Ss (N = 100); second row = men Ss  
(N = 100)

For  $r = .26$ ,  $p < .01$

TABLE A-4.--Correlations Between the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) and the Sexual Motive Inventory (SM-I)

SM-I Scales	TSCS Scales							
	Tot P		DP		SC		Tot P (DP Held Constant)	
	Women N=100	Men N=100	Women N=100	Men N=100	Women N=100	Men N=100	Women N=100	Men N=100
Ach	-.26	-.07	-.23	-.20	.18	.23	-.12	.13
Aff	.10	.39	.02	.24	.19	.17	.17	.32
Agg	-.09	-.19	-.06	-.12	.08	.11	-.07	-.15
Def	-.54	-.02	-.41	.04	.07	-.01	-.42	-.08
Dom	-.24	-.30	-.20	-.17	.21	.29	-.15	-.25
Exh	-.20	.01	-.23	.07	.20	.13	.01	-.06
Nur	-.02	.22	-.04	.18	.18	.11	.03	.13
Suc	-.16	.10	-.17	.09	.21	.31	-.02	.05

For  $r = .26$ ,  $p < .01$

TABLE A-5.--Sexual Motive Projective Test; Basic Statistics

Scales <sup>a,b</sup>	Women (N = 100)			Men (N = 100)		
	Range	Mean	SD	Range	Mean	SD
F Ach	4-19	12.20	3.55	4-20	13.06	3.53
F Aff	6-20	18.01	2.95	4-20	16.24	3.82
F Agg	4-19	7.87	2.53	4-20	9.43	2.97
F Def	6-20	11.56	3.01	4-18	11.69	3.16
F Dom	4-17	7.27	2.91	4-17	8.85	3.44
F Exh	4-20	12.39	3.26	4-20	12.30	2.95
F Nur	7-20	16.30	3.02	4-20	14.68	3.52
F Suc	7-20	16.35	3.13	5-20	15.67	3.33
M Ach	4-20	12.53	3.83	4-20	14.05	3.73
M Aff	4-20	16.83	3.97	4-20	15.69	4.04
M Agg	4-19	8.37	2.95	4-20	9.36	3.20
M Def	4-18	9.20	2.61	4-20	10.32	3.22
M Dom	4-20	9.72	3.64	4-19	11.50	3.62
M Exh	4-17	11.43	3.01	4-20	12.60	3.27
M Nur	4-20	15.69	4.01	4-20	15.02	3.73
M Suc	5-20	14.63	3.16	4-20	14.48	3.81

<sup>a</sup>F = Female character scales; M = Male character scales

<sup>b</sup>In this study, only the F scale scores were used for women and only the M scale scores were used for men.

TABLE A-6.--Internal Reliability Coefficients<sup>a</sup> for Scales of the Sexual Motive Projective Test

Scales <sup>b</sup>	Internal Reliability Coefficients		
	Women (N = 100)	Men (N = 100)	Total Sample (N = 200)
F Ach	.65	.70	.68
F Aff	.79	.81	.82
F Agg	.48	.57	.57
F Def	.56	.61	.58
F Dom	.62	.69	.68
F Exh	.49	.35	.42
F Nur	.67	.71	.71
F Suc	.73	.72	.73
M Ach	.75	.71	.74
M Aff	.88	.81	.85
M Agg	.56	.53	.56
M Def	.40	.51	.48
M Dom	.71	.66	.70
M Exh	.40	.43	.41
M Nur	.79	.69	.75
M Suc	.69	.77	.73

<sup>a</sup>Hoyt, 1941.

<sup>b</sup>F = Female character scales; M = Male character scales

TABLE A-7.--Scale Intercorrelations on the Sexual Motive Projective Test; Women  $\underline{Ss}$  ( $N = 100$ )

[illegible]

**F = Female character scales; M = Male character scales**

For  $r = .26$ ,  $p < .01$

TABLE A-8.--Scale Intercorrelations on the Sexual Motivation Projective Test; Men Ss (N = 100)

[illegible]

**F = Female character scales; M = Male character scales**

For  $r = .26$ ,  $p < .01$

TABLE A-9.--Correlations Between the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) and the Sexual Motive Projective Test (SM-PT)

SM-PT Scales <sup>a</sup>	TSCS Scales							
	Tot P		DP		SC		Tot P (DP Held Constant)	
	Women N=100	Men N=100	Women N=100	Men N=100	Women N=100	Men N=100	Women N=100	Men N=100
F Ach	-.46	-.01	-.40	.04	.17	-.05	-.25	*
F Aff	.08	.05	.05	-.02	-.05	.15	.07	*
F Agg	-.24	-.03	.19	.03	.19	-.06	-.16	*
F Def	-.24	-.11	-.21	-.05	-.02	.29	-.12	*
F Dom	-.30	.01	-.27	.03	.09	-.01	-.12	*
F Exh	-.32	.08	-.35	.09	.18	.12	-.03	*
F Nur	-.03	.12	-.04	.06	-.01	.13	.02	*
F Suc	-.11	-.01	-.13	.04	-.00	.13	.00	*
M Ach	-.28	-.09	-.23	-.10	.03	.13	**	-.03
M Aff	.06	.24	.04	.20	-.03	.05	**	.13
M Agg	-.21	-.12	-.15	-.15	.05	.16	**	-.01
M Def	-.19	.04	-.11	.08	-.03	-.12	**	-.03
M Dom	-.17	-.05	-.14	-.03	-.02	.31	**	-.05
M Exh	-.25	.09	-.23	.05	.13	.11	**	.10
M Nur	-.10	.09	-.12	.16	-.02	-.04	**	-.04
M Suc	-.09	.00	-.08	-.01	.02	.12	**	.02

<sup>a</sup>F = Female character scales; M = Male character scales.

\* r not calculated for men Ss.

\*\* r not calculated for women Ss.

For  $r = .26$ ,  $p < .01$



APPENDIX B

SAMPLE TEST BOOKLET



## GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS

This booklet contains a number of questionnaires and exercises. Each of these is preceded by instructions explaining how to respond and record your reactions. For several sections, you will be asked to mark your responses on answer sheets which have been inserted in this booklet where you need them. Each answer sheet is a different color; the instructions will tell you which color answer sheet to use for each inventory or questionnaire. Please do not bend or fold the answer sheets.

Although you will often be asked to respond in terms of your personal opinions, feelings, or experiences, we do not need to know your name. Do not put your name or other identifying information on the booklet or answer sheets.

Since you have the protection of anonymity, please be as spontaneous and frank as possible in your responses.

Please begin and continue through the booklet. If you have questions, come quietly to the front of the room and ask the experimenter.

## ADJECTIVE CHECK LISTS

The following lists contain a total of 300 adjectives, 150 on List A and 150 on List B. Please read them quickly, select each one you would consider to be self-descriptive, and blacken the "true" (T) space of the corresponding number on the answer sheets. (If the adjective is not self-descriptive, do not mark anything.)

Do not worry about duplications, contradictions, and so forth. Work quickly and do not spend too much time on any one adjective. Try to be frank, and select the adjectives which describe you as you really are, not as you would like to be.

Be sure that responses for List A are recorded on the GREEN Answer Sheet and responses for List B are recorded on the PURPLE Answer Sheet.

ACL      List A      (Use GREEN Answer Sheet)

1. absent-minded	51. cowardly	101. gloomy
2. active	52. cruel	102. good-looking
3. adaptable	53. curious	103. good-natured
4. adventurous	54. cynical	104. greedy
5. affected	55. daring	105. handsome
6. affectionate	56. deceitful	106. hard-headed
7. aggressive	57. defensive	107. hard-hearted
8. alert	58. deliberate	108. hasty
9. aloof	59. demanding	109. headstrong
10. ambitious	60. dependable	110. healthy
11. anxious	61. dependent	111. helpful
12. apathetic	62. despondent	112. high-strung
13. appreciative	63. determined	113. honest
14. argumentative	64. dignified	114. hostile
15. arrogant	65. discreet	115. humorous
16. artistic	66. disorderly	116. hurried
17. assertive	67. dissatisfied	117. idealistic
18. attractive	68. distractible	118. imaginative
19. autocratic	69. distrustful	119. immature
20. awkward	70. dominant	120. impatient
21. bitter	71. dreamy	121. impulsive
22. blustery	72. dull	122. independent
23. boastful	73. easy-going	123. indifferent
24. bossy	74. effeminate	124. individualistic
25. calm	75. efficient	125. industrious
26. capable	76. egotistical	126. infantile
27. careless	77. emotional	127. informal
28. cautious	78. energetic	128. ingenious
29. changeable	79. enterprising	129. inhibited
30. charming	80. enthusiastic	130. initiative
31. cheerful	81. evasive	131. insightful
32. civilized	82. excitable	132. intelligent
33. clear-thinking	83. fair-minded	133. interests narrow
34. clever	84. fault-finding	134. interests wide
35. coarse	85. fearful	135. intolerant
36. cold	86. feminine	136. inventive
37. commonplace	87. fickle	137. irresponsible
38. complaining	88. flirtatious	138. irritable
39. complicated	89. foolish	139. jolly
40. conceited	90. forceful	140. kind
41. confident	91. foresighted	141. lazy
42. confused	92. forgetful	142. leisurely
43. conscientious	93. forgiving	143. logical
44. conservative	94. formal	144. loud
45. considerate	95. frank	145. loyal
46. contented	96. friendly	146. mannerly
47. conventional	97. frivolous	147. masculine
48. cool	98. fussy	148. mature
49. cooperative	99. generous	149. meek
50. courageous	100. gentle	150. methodical

ACL      List B      (Use PURPLE Answer Sheet)

1. mild	51. reliable	101. strong
2. mischievous	52. resentful	102. stubborn
3. moderate	53. reserved	103. submissive
4. modest	54. resourceful	104. suggestible
5. moody	55. responsible	105. sulky
6. nagging	56. restless	106. superstitious
7. natural	57. retiring	107. suspicious
8. nervous	58. rigid	108. sympathetic
9. noisy	59. robust	109. tactful
10. obliging	60. rude	110. tactless
11. obnoxious	61. sarcastic	111. talkative
12. opinionated	62. self-centered	112. temperamental
13. opportunistic	63. self-confident	113. tense
14. optimistic	64. self-controlled	114. thankless
15. organized	65. self-denying	115. thorough
16. original	66. self-pitying	116. thoughtful
17. outgoing	67. self-punishing	117. thrifty
18. outspoken	68. self-seeking	118. timid
19. painstaking	69. selfish	119. tolerant
20. patient	70. sensitive	120. touchy
21. peaceable	71. sentimental	121. tough
22. peculiar	72. serious	122. trusting
23. persevering	73. severe	123. unaffected
24. persistent	74. sexy	124. unambitious
25. pessimistic	75. shallow	125. unassuming
26. planful	76. sharp-witted	126. unconventional
27. pleasant	77. shiftless	127. undependable
28. pleasure-seeking	78. show-off	128. understanding
29. poised	79. shrewd	129. unemotional
30. polished	80. shy	130. unexcitable
31. practical	81. silent	131. unfriendly
32. praising	82. simple	132. uninhibited
33. precise	83. sincere	133. unintelligent
34. prejudiced	84. slipshod	134. unkind
35. preoccupied	85. slow	135. unrealistic
36. progressive	86. sly	136. unscrupulous
37. prudish	87. smug	137. unselfish
38. quarrelsome	88. snobbish	138. unstable
39. queer	89. sociable	139. vindictive
40. quick	90. soft-hearted	140. versatile
41. quiet	91. sophisticated	141. warm
42. quitting	92. spendthrift	142. wary
43. rational	93. spineless	143. weak
44. rattlebrained	94. spontaneous	144. whiny
45. realistic	95. spunky	145. wholesome
46. reasonable	96. stable	146. wise
47. rebellious	97. steady	147. withdrawn
48. reckless	98. stern	148. witty
49. reflective	99. stingy	149. worrying
50. relaxed	100. stolid	150. zany

INSTRUCTIONS

On the following sheets of paper, write a brief story about the occurrence of sexual relations between Tom and Ann. Tell how they got together, how each felt before sexual relations, how the interaction progressed, and how each partner felt afterward... There are no right or wrong kinds of stories. Just try to make the story as imaginative as you can.

Try to spend no more than 15 to 20 minutes on this section in order to allow time for completion of remainder of the booklet.







INSTRUCTIONS

Following are 64 statements which may or may not apply to the people in your story. For each statement, choose the response category which best represent the degree to which the statement describes the people in your story.

There are 5 response categories:

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True

Record your responses for this section on the RED answer sheet which has been inserted after this page. Check to be sure you are marking for the same item number as the item you are reading in the booklet. Please do not skip any items.

(Use RED Answer Sheet)

1. Tom went along with Ann's desire for sex even though he was not in the mood for it.
2. Ann wanted Tom to show her a great deal of affection.
3. Tom would want to comfort Ann if she were feeling down.
4. Ann wanted Tom to notice and comment upon her appearance.
5. During sex, Tom was aware of how he may have looked to Ann.
6. Tom wanted Ann to notice and comment upon his appearance.
7. Tom wanted to be the best sex partner that Ann had ever had.
8. Tom wanted to share his feelings and thoughts with Ann.
9. Tom took care to help Ann feel at ease in sex.
10. Tom felt that he had persuaded Ann to have sexual relations.
11. Ann wants Tom to confide in her and tell her his troubles.
12. During sex, Ann was aware of how she may have looked to Tom.
13. Tom followed Ann's lead in sexual relations.
14. It was important to Ann that she perform well sexually.
15. Tom felt that Ann was superior to him in many ways.
16. Tom thinks of lovemaking as requiring both skill and effort.
17. Tom thought of sex as sharing an intense, intimate experience with Ann.
18. Ann wanted Tom to think she knew a lot about sex.
19. Tom felt in charge of directing sexual relations with Ann.
20. Tom wants Ann to confide in him and tell him her troubles.
21. Ann likes the "fight" aspects of her sexual interactions.
22. It was important to Tom that he perform well sexually.
23. Ann felt warm and friendly toward Tom.
24. Tom had fantasies of attacking or hurting Ann during sexual relations.

(Use RED Answer Sheet)

25. Ann experienced a feeling of power in possessing Tom sexually.
26. Tom felt warm and friendly toward Ann.
27. Tom feels that his aggressive urges can be expressed in a satisfying way through sex.
28. Ann wanted to undress in front of Tom.
29. Ann wanted to feel taken care of by Tom.
30. Ann took care to help Tom feel at ease in sex.
31. For Tom, sex is often a contest in which there is a winner and a loser.
32. Tom wanted to help Ann to feel cared for.
33. Tom likes to talk about his sexual encounters and experiences.
34. If things went wrong in sex, Ann would feel it was Tom's fault.
35. Ann felt a strong emotional attachment for Tom.
36. Ann felt that she had persuaded Tom to have sexual relations.
37. Ann likes to talk about her sexual encounters and experiences.
38. Ann had fantasies of attacking or hurting Tom during sexual relations.
39. Ann went along with Tom's desire for sex even though she was not in the mood for it.
40. Tom wanted to feel taken care of by Ann.
41. Tom's main interest in sexual relations was in pleasing Ann.
42. Tom wanted Ann to be sympathetic and understanding toward him.
43. Ann followed Tom's lead in sexual relations.
44. Tom felt a strong emotional attachment for Ann.

(Use RED Answer Sheet)

45. The closeness of sexual relations gave Tom a feeling of security.
46. Ann would want to comfort Tom if he were feeling down.
47. Ann feels that her aggressive urges can be expressed in a satisfying way through sex.
48. Tom wanted to undress in front of Ann.
49. Ann wanted Tom to be sympathetic and understanding toward her.
50. The closeness of sexual relations gave Ann a feeling of security.
51. Tom wanted Ann to show him a great deal of affection.
52. Tom experienced a feeling of power in possessing Ann sexually.
53. For Ann, sex is often a contest in which there is a winner and a loser.
54. Ann felt in charge of directing sexual relations with Tom.
55. Tom likes the "fight" aspects of his sexual interactions.
56. Tom wanted Ann to think he knew a lot about sex.
57. Ann thinks of lovemaking as requiring both skill and effort.
58. Ann wanted to help Tom to feel cared for.
59. Ann felt that Tom was superior to her in many ways.
60. If things went wrong in sex, Tom would feel it was Ann's fault.
61. Ann thought of sex as sharing an intense, intimate experience with Tom.
62. Ann's main interest in sexual relations was in pleasing Tom.
63. Ann wanted to be the best sex partner that Tom had ever had.
64. Ann wanted to share her feelings and thoughts with Tom.

Instructions: Please respond to these items as if you were describing you to yourself. Read each item carefully, then select one of the five alternative responses. Do not omit any item. On your BROWN Answer Sheet put a black mark in the chosen response. If you want to change any answer after marking it, erase the old answer completely. There are 100 items in this section.

## Responses

- | <u>1</u>   | <u>2</u>        | <u>3</u>                           | <u>4</u>   | <u>5</u>           |
|--|-----------------|------------------------------------|--|--------------------|
| Completely<br>False  | Mostly<br>False | Partly False<br>and<br>Partly True | Mostly<br>True   | Completely<br>True |
| 1. I have a healthy body.  |                 |                                    | 14. I am popular with men                                |                    |
| 2. I am an attractive person   |                 |                                    | 15. I am not interested in<br>what other people do       |                    |
| 3. I consider myself a sloppy<br>person                                    |                 |                                    | 16. I do not always tell<br>the truth                    |                    |
| 4. I am a decent sort of person  |                 |                                    | 17. I get angry sometimes                                |                    |
| 5. I am an honest person.  |                 |                                    | 18. I like to look nice and<br>neat all the time         |                    |
| 6. I am a bad person.  |                 |                                    | 19. I am full of aches and<br>pains                      |                    |
| 7. I am a cheerful person  |                 |                                    | 20. I am a sick person                                   |                    |
| 8. I am a calm and easy going<br>person                                    |                 |                                    | 21. I am a religious person                              |                    |
| 9. I am a nobody   |                 |                                    | 22. I am a moral failure                                 |                    |
| 10. I have a family that would<br>always help me in any kind of<br>trouble |                 |                                    | 23. I am a morally weak person                           |                    |
| 11. I am a member of a happy<br>family                                     |                 |                                    | 24. I have a lot of self-<br>control                     |                    |
| 12. My friends have no con-<br>fidence in me                               |                 |                                    | 25. I am a hateful person                                |                    |
| 13. I am a friendly person   |                 |                                    | 26. I am losing my mind                                  |                    |
|  |                 |                                    | 27. I am an important person<br>to my friends and family |                    |

(Use BROWN Answer Sheet)

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| 28. I am not loved by my family                             | 46. I should trust my family more   |
| 29. I feel that my family doesn't trust me                  | 47. I am as sociable as I want to be  |
| 30. I am popular with women                                 | 48. I try to please others, but I don't overdo it                                   |
| 31. I am mad with the whole world                           | 49. I am no good at all from a social standpoint                                    |
| 32. I am hard to be friendly with                           | 50. I do not like everyone I know   |
| 33. Once in a while I think of things too bad to talk about | 51. Once in a while I laugh at a dirty joke   |
| 34. Sometimes, when I am not feeling well, I am cross       | 52. I am neither too tall nor too short   |
| 35. I am neither too fat nor too thin                       | 53. I don't feel as well as I should  |
| 36. I like my looks just the way they are                   | 54. I should have more sex appeal   |
| 37. I would like to change some parts of my body            | 55. I am as religious as I want to be   |
| 38. I am satisfied with my moral behavior                   | 56. I wish I could be more trustworthy  |
| 39. I am satisfied with my relationship to God              | 57. I shouldn't tell so many lies   |
| 40. I ought to go to church more                            | 58. I am as smart as I want to be   |
| 41. I am satisfied to be just what I am                     | 59. I am not the person I would like to be  |
| 42. I am just as nice as I should be                        | 60. I wish I didn't give up as easily as I do                                       |
| 43. I despise myself  | 61. I treat my parents as well as I should (Use past tense if parents are deceased) |
| 44. I am satisfied with my family relationships             |   |
| 45. I understand my family as well as I should              |   |

(Use BROWN Answer Sheet)

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| 62. I am too sensitive to things my family say                  | 79. I take a real interest in my family                           |
| 63. I should love my family more                                | 80. I give in to my parents (Use past tense for deceased parents) |
| 64. I am satisfied with the way I treat other people            | 81. I try to understand the other fellow's point of view          |
| 65. I should be more polite to others                           | 82. I get along well with other people                            |
| 66. I ought to get along better with other people               | 83. I do not forgive others easily                                |
| 67. I gossip a little at times                                  | 84. I would rather win than lose in a game                        |
| 68. At times I feel like swearing                               | 85. I feel good most of the time                                  |
| 69. I take good care of myself physically                       | 86. I do poorly in sports and games                               |
| 70. I try to be careful about my appearance                     | 87. I am a poor sleeper   |
| 71. I often act like I am "all thumbs"                          | 88. I do what is right most of the time                           |
| 72. I am true to my religion in my everyday life                | 89. I sometimes use unfair means to get ahead                     |
| 73. I try to change when I know I'm doing things that are wrong | 90. I have trouble doing the things that are right                |
| 74. I sometimes do very bad things                              | 91. I solve my problems quite easily                              |
| 75. I can always take care of myself in any situation           | 92. I change my mind a lot  |
| 76. I take the blame for things without getting mad             | 93. I try to run away from my problems                            |
| 77. I do things without thinking about them first               | 94. I do my share of work at home                                 |
| 78. I try to play fair with my friends and family               |   |



95. I quarrel with my family
96. I do not act like my family  
thinks I should
97. I see good points in all the  
people I meet
98. I do not feel at ease with  
other people
99. I find it hard to talk with  
strangers
100. Once in a while I put off until  
tomorrow what I ought to do  
today
-

### INSTRUCTIONS

The following schedule consists of a number of statements about sex that you may or may not agree with; about ways in which you may or may not feel. For each statement, choose the response category which best describes the extent to which the statement is true of you. Base your response on feelings and preferences you have actually experienced, rather than on some ideal you may have. If an item seems to deal with an activity that you haven't actually experienced, base your response on how you would expect to feel in the situation in question. There are 56 items in this section.

There are 5 response categories:

<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
Completely False	Mostly False	Partly False and Partly True	Mostly True	Completely True

Your answers will remain anonymous, so be as frank and honest as possible in your responses.

Record your responses for this section on the BLUE answer sheet which has been inserted after this page. Check to be sure you are marking for the same item number as the item you are reading in the booklet. Please do not skip any items.

(Use BLUE Answer Sheet)

1. I enjoy having my partner look at my body.
2. There are times when I go along with my partner's desire for sex even though I may not be in the mood for it.
3. The close contact of sexual relations gives me a feeling of security.
4. For me, there is a close link between sex and aggression.
5. I like to show my partner a great deal of affection.
6. I like to share my feelings and thoughts with my sexual partner.
7. When my partner has hurt or insulted me, I sometimes get revenge by refusing sex or pushing for sex relations against my partner's wishes.
8. I want my partner to notice and comment upon my appearance.
9. I want to be the best lover possible.
10. I want my partner to show a great deal of affection toward me.
11. I like to help my partner to feel cared for.
12. When things go wrong in sex, it is usually my partner's fault.
13. I experience a feeling of power in possessing my partner sexually.
14. I like to do small favors for my partner.
15. I often feel sexually aroused when I am angry with my partner.
16. I want to feel taken care of by my sexual partner.
17. I like to talk about my sexual encounters and experiences.
18. I see sexual relations as involving a pleasurable element of a "contest of wills."
19. I want my partner to be sympathetic and understanding toward me.

(Use BLUE Answer Sheet)

20. I am most likely to want sexual relations when I am experiencing warm and friendly feelings toward my partner.
21. I like my partner to do little things just to please me.
22. I like to puzzle out or anticipate what would be most successful with a particular sex partner.
23. My partner usually initiates sexual relations.
24. I think of sex largely as a sharing of an intense, intimate experience.
25. For me, sex is often a contest in which there is a winner and a loser.
26. I like to follow the lead of my partner in sexual relations.
27. I like to think of myself as knowing a lot about sex.
28. I sometimes have fantasies of attacking or hurting my partner during sexual relations.
29. I like to feel I have performed well sexually.
30. I like to help my partner feel at ease in sex.
31. I consider it important to be loyal to my partner.
32. I feel that I have failed if things don't go just right during sexual relations.
33. Most of all, I like the warm, comfortable feeling of being in my partner's arms.
34. I like to comfort my partner when he/she is feeling down.
35. I like to feel that my partner is someone I can count on at times of trouble.
36. In sexual relations, my main interest is in pleasing my partner.
37. I would like to be able to be a more skillful sex partner than others.
38. I want to occupy the center of my partner's attention much of the time.

(Use BLUE Answer Sheet)

39. I like to feel in charge of directing my sexual interaction with a partner.
40. In my sexual behavior, I like to stay within the bounds of accepted custom, avoiding behaviors which might be considered unconventional.
41. I like to appear sexy and sophisticated.
42. I like my partner to confide in me and to tell me his/her troubles.
43. I like to take the lead in initiating sexual relations.
44. My aggressive urges can be expressed in a satisfying way through sex.
45. I much prefer sexual intercourse to masturbation as an outlet for my sexual tension.
46. I like to undress before my partner.
47. I think of lovemaking as requiring both skill and effort.
48. I like to feel that I have persuaded my partner to have sexual relations.
49. I like the "fight" aspects of a sexual interaction.
50. I want my partner to have sex with me whenever I desire it.
51. I like to follow some guidelines for sexual technique.
52. I usually feel a strong emotional attachment for my sexual partner.
53. During sexual relations, I am aware of the way I look and sound.
54. Sexual relations are greatly enhanced by sharing many other activities with my partner.
55. I sometimes feel that my sex partner is superior to me in many ways.
56. I try to fulfill my partner's needs in every way I can.

## PERSONAL INFORMATION

- (1) SEX: \_\_\_\_\_ Female \_\_\_\_\_ Male
- (2) AGE: \_\_\_\_\_
- (3) EDUCATION LEVEL: \_\_\_\_\_ (a) Freshman  
\_\_\_\_\_ (b) Sophomore \_\_\_\_\_ (d) Senior  
\_\_\_\_\_ (c) Junior \_\_\_\_\_ (e) Graduate Student
- (4) PREDOMINANT SEXUAL ORIENTATION: \_\_\_\_\_ (a) Heterosexual  
\_\_\_\_\_ (b) Bisexual  
\_\_\_\_\_ (c) Homosexual
- (5) RELATIONSHIP STATUS: \_\_\_\_\_ (a) Single (no steady partner)  
\_\_\_\_\_ (b) Steady relationship with one partner  
\_\_\_\_\_ (c) Living with partner  
\_\_\_\_\_ (d) Married
- (6) Check each of the following behaviors you have experienced:
- \_\_\_\_\_ (a) Holding hands  
\_\_\_\_\_ (b) Kissing and hugging  
\_\_\_\_\_ (c) Heavy Petting (includes touching of breasts or genitals)  
\_\_\_\_\_ (d) Masturbation  
\_\_\_\_\_ (e) Stimulated partner's genitals orally  
\_\_\_\_\_ (f) Had genitals stimulated orally by partner  
\_\_\_\_\_ (g) Penetrated partner's anus  
\_\_\_\_\_ (h) Had anus penetrated by partner  
\_\_\_\_\_ (i) Sexual intercourse
- (7) On the average, how often do you engage in sexual relations (Define sexual relations as sexual activity with another person in which one or both partners may reach orgasm.)
- \_\_\_\_\_ (a) Not at all  
\_\_\_\_\_ (b) Only once or a few times ever  
\_\_\_\_\_ (c) Once or twice a month  
\_\_\_\_\_ (d) Once or twice a week  
\_\_\_\_\_ (e) Three to five times a week  
\_\_\_\_\_ (f) Once a day or more
- (8) With how many persons have you had sexual relations?
- \_\_\_\_\_ (a) None  
\_\_\_\_\_ (b) One  
\_\_\_\_\_ (c) Two or three  
\_\_\_\_\_ (d) Four to six  
\_\_\_\_\_ (e) Seven to twelve  
\_\_\_\_\_ (f) Thirteen or more

(9) How often do you reach orgasm in sexual relations?

- ☐ (a) Not applicable (do not engage in sexual relations - or have not)
- ☐ (b) Never
- ☐ (c) 25 percent of the time or less
- ☐ (d) 50 to 75 percent of the time
- ☐ (e) Almost every time
- ☐ (f) Once or more on each occasion

(10) Typically, how physically enjoyable are sexual relations for you?

- ☐ (a) Not applicable (have not or do not engage in sexual relations)
- ☐ (b) Extremely unpleasant
- ☐ (c) Unpleasant
- ☐ (d) Neutral
- ☐ (e) Pleasant
- ☐ (f) Very pleasant
- ☐ (g) Extremely pleasurable

(11) Please answer briefly either (a) or (b) below.

(a) Why do you engage in sexual relations (if you do)?

(b) Why don't you engage in sexual relations (if you do not)?

APPENDIX C

SCALE ITEMS FOR  
SEXUAL MOTIVE INVENTORY  
AND  
SEXUAL MOTIVE PROJECTIVE TEST





SEXUAL MOTIVE INVENTORY

Scale Items

Achievement

- (9) I want to be the best lover possible.
- (22) I like to puzzle out or anticipate what would be most successful with a particular sex partner.
- (27) I like to think of myself as knowing a lot about sex.
- (29) I like to feel I have performed well sexually.
- (32) I feel that I have failed if things don't go just right during sexual relations.
- (37) I would like to be able to be a more skillful sex partner than others.
- (47) I think of lovemaking as requiring both skill and effort.

Affiliation

- (6) I like to share my feelings and thoughts with my sexual partner.
- (20) I am most likely to want sexual relations when I am experiencing warm and friendly feelings toward my partner.
- (24) I think of sex largely as a sharing of an intense, intimate experience.
- (31) I consider it important to be loyal to my partner.
- (45) I much prefer sexual intercourse to masturbation as an outlet for my sexual tensions.
- (52) I usually feel a strong emotional attachment for my sexual partner.
- (54) Sexual relations are greatly enhanced by sharing many other activities with my partner.

Aggression

- (4) For me, there is a close link between sex and aggression.
- (7) When my partner has hurt or insulted me, I sometimes get revenge by refusing sex or pushing for sex relations against my partner's wishes.
- (12) When things go wrong in sex, it is usually my partner's fault.
- (15) I often feel sexually aroused when I am angry with my partner.
- (28) I sometimes have fantasies of attacking or hurting my partner during sexual relations.
- (44) My aggressive urges can be expressed in a satisfying way through sex.
- (49) I like the "fight" aspects of a sexual interaction.

Deference

- (2) There are times when I go along with my partner's desire for sex even though I may not be in the mood for it.
- (23) My partner usually initiates sexual relations.
- (26) I like to follow the lead of my partner in sexual relations.
- (36) In sexual relations, my main interest is in pleasing my partner.
- (40) In my sexual behavior, I like to stay within the bounds of accepted custom, avoiding behaviors which might be considered unconventional.
- (51) I like to follow some guidelines for sexual technique.
- (55) I sometimes feel that my sex partner is superior to me in many ways.

Dominance

- (13) I experience a feeling of power in possessing my partner sexually.
- (18) I see sexual relations as involving a pleasurable element of a "contest of wills".
- (25) For me, sex is often a contest in which there is a winner and a loser.
- (39) I like to feel in charge of directing my sexual interaction with a partner.
- (43) I like to take the lead in initiating sexual relations.
- (48) I like to feel that I have persuaded my partner to have sexual relations.
- (50) I want my partner to have sex with me whenever I desire it.

Exhibition

- (1) I enjoy having my partner look at my body.
- (8) I want my partner to notice and comment upon my appearance.
- (17) I like to talk about my sexual encounters and experiences.
- (38) I want to occupy the center of my partner's attention much of the time.
- (41) I like to appear sexy and sophisticated.
- (46) I like to undress before my partner.
- (53) During sexual relations, I am aware of the way I look and sound.



Nurturance

- (5) I like to show my partner a great deal of affection.
- (11) I like to help my partner to feel cared for.
- (14) I like to do small favors for my partner.
- (30) I like to help my partner feel at ease in sex.
- (34) I like to comfort my partner when he/she is feeling down.
- (42) I like my partner to confide in me and to tell me his/her troubles.
- (56) I try to fulfill my partner's needs in every way I can.

Succorance

- (3) The close contact of sexual relations gives me a feeling of security.
- (10) I want my partner to show a great deal of affection toward me.
- (16) I want to feel taken care of by my sexual partner.
- (19) I want my partner to be sympathetic and understanding toward me.
- (21) I like my partner to do little things just to please me.
- (33) Most of all, I like the warm, comfortable feeling of being in my partner's arms.
- (35) I like to feel that my partner is someone I can count on in times of trouble.

SEXUAL MOTIVE PROJECTIVE TEST

Scale Items

Achievement

## Female Character Items

- (18) Ann wanted Tom to think she knew a lot about sex.
- (57) Ann thinks of lovemaking as requiring both skill and effort.
- (63) Ann wanted to be the best sex partner that Tom had ever had.
- (14) It was important to Ann that she perform well sexually.

## Male Character Items

- (56) Tom wanted Ann to think he knew a lot about sex.
- (16) Tom thinks of lovemaking as requiring both skill and effort.
- (7) Tom wanted to be the best sex partner that Ann had ever had.
- (22) It was important to Tom that he perform well sexually.

Affiliation

## Female Character Items

- (61) Ann thought of sex as sharing an intense, intimate experience with Tom.
- (35) Ann felt a strong emotional attachment for Tom.
- (64) Ann wanted to share her feelings and thoughts with Tom.
- (23) Ann felt warm and friendly toward Tom.

## Male Character Items

- (17) Tom thought of sex as sharing an intense, intimate experience with Ann.
- (44) Tom felt a strong emotional attachment for Ann.
- (8) Tom wanted to share his feelings and thoughts with Ann.
- (26) Tom felt warm and friendly toward Ann.

Aggression

## Female Character Items

- (38) Ann had fantasies of attacking or hurting Tom during sexual relations.
- (21) Ann likes the "fight" aspects of her sexual interactions.
- (34) If things went wrong in sex, Ann would feel it was Tom's fault.
- (47) Ann feels that her aggressive urges can be expressed in a satisfying way through sex.

## Male Character Items

- (24) Tom had fantasies of attacking or hurting Ann during sexual relations.
- (55) Tom likes the "fight" aspects of his sexual interactions.
- (60) If things went wrong in sex, Tom would feel it was Ann's fault.
- (27) Tom feels that his aggressive urges can be expressed in a satisfying way through sex.

Deference

## Female Character Items

- (43) Ann followed Tom's lead in sexual relations.
- (62) Ann's main interest in sexual relations was in pleasing Tom.
- (59) Ann felt that Tom was superior to her in many ways.
- (39) Ann went along with Tom's desire for sex even though she was not in the mood for it.

## Male Character Items

- (13) Tom followed Ann's lead in sexual relations.
- (41) Tom's main interest in sexual relations was in pleasing Ann.
- (15) Tom felt that Ann was superior to him in many ways.
- (1) Tom went along with Ann's desire for sex even though he was not in the mood for it.

Dominance

## Female Character Items

- (25) Ann experienced a feeling of power in possessing Tom sexually.
- (54) Ann felt in charge of directing sexual relations with Tom.
- (36) Ann felt that she had persuaded Tom to have sexual relations.
- (53) For Ann, sex is often a contest in which there is a winner and a loser.

## Male Character Items

- (52) Tom experienced a feeling of power in possessing Ann sexually.
- (19) Tom felt in charge of directing sexual relations with Ann.
- (10) Tom felt that he had persuaded Ann to have sexual relations.
- (31) For Tom, sex is often a contest in which there is a winner and a loser.



Exhibition

## Female Character Items

- (28) Ann wanted to undress in front of Tom.
- (12) During sex, Ann was aware of how she may have looked to Tom.
- (4) Ann wanted Tom to notice and comment upon her appearance.
- (37) Ann likes to talk about her sexual encounters and experiences.

## Male Character Items

- (48) Tom wanted to undress in front of Ann.
- (5) During sex, Tom was aware of how he may have looked to Ann.
- (6) Tom wanted Ann to notice and comment upon his appearance.
- (33) Tom likes to talk about his sexual encounters and experiences.

Nurturance

## Female Character Items

- (30) Ann took care to help Tom feel at ease in sex.
- (58) Ann wanted to help Tom to feel cared for.
- (46) Ann would want to comfort Tom if he were feeling down.
- (11) Ann wants Tom to confide in her and tell her his troubles.

## Male Character Items

- (9) Tom took care to help Ann feel at ease in sex.
- (32) Tom wanted to help Ann to feel cared for.
- (3) Tom would want to comfort Ann if she were feeling down.
- (20) Tom wants Ann to confide in him and tell him her troubles.

Succorance

## Female Character Items

- (29) Ann wanted to feel taken care of by Tom.
- (49) Ann wanted Tom to be sympathetic and understanding toward her.
- (50) The closeness of sexual relations gave Ann a feeling of security.
- (2) Ann wanted Tom to show her a great deal of affection.

## Male Character Items

- (40) Tom wanted to feel taken care of by Ann.
- (42) Tom wanted Ann to be sympathetic and understanding toward him.
- (45) The closeness of sexual relations gave Tom a feeling of security.
- (51) Tom wanted Ann to show him a great deal of affection.

## APPENDIX D

### DEFINITIONS OF MOTIVE CATEGORIES

## Definitions of motive categories:

- ACHIEVEMENT: To do one's best, to be successful; to accomplish tasks requiring skill and effort, to be a recognized authority; to do a difficult job well; to solve difficult problems and puzzles; to be able to do things better than others.
- DEFERENCE: To seek and sustain subordinate roles in relationship with others; to get suggestions from others; to find out what others think; to follow instructions and do what is expected; to praise others; to tell others that they have done a good job; to accept leadership by others; to conform to custom and avoid the unconventional; to let others make decisions.
- AFFILIATION: To be loyal to friends; to do things for friends; to share things with friends; to do things with another person rather than alone; to form strong attachments; to be emotionally close and intimate with others.
- SUCCORANCE: To have others provide help when in trouble; to seek encouragement from others; to have others be kindly; to have others be sympathetic and understanding about personal problems; to receive a great deal of affection from others; to have others do favors cheerfully; to be helped by others when depressed; to have others feel sorry when one is sick or hurt; to solicit sympathy, affection, or emotional support from others.
- DOMINANCE: To argue for one's point of view; to be regarded by others as a leader; to make decisions; to persuade and influence others to do what one wants; to supervise and direct the actions of others; to be influential and controlling in individual relationships.

- NURTURANCE: To engage in behaviors which extend material or emotional benefits to others; to help friends when they are in trouble; to treat others with kindness and sympathy; to forgive others; to do small favors for others; to be generous with others; to sympathize with others who are hurt or sick; to show a great deal of affection toward others; to have others confide in one about personal problems.
- AGGRESSION: To engage in behaviors which attack or hurt others; to tell others off when disagreeing with them; to get revenge for insults; to become angry; to blame others when things go wrong.
- EXHIBITION: To behave in such a way as to elicit the immediate attention of others; to talk about personal adventures and experiences; to have others notice and comment upon one's appearance; to be the center of attention.

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