

1-1-1987

## Historical and personological correlates of rape proclivity.

Robert M. Samuels  
*University of Massachusetts Amherst*

Follow this and additional works at: [https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations\\_1](https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_1)

---

### Recommended Citation

Samuels, Robert M., "Historical and personological correlates of rape proclivity." (1987). *Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014*. 2015.  
<https://doi.org/10.7275/tgcr-0r49> [https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations\\_1/2015](https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_1/2015)

This Open Access Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. It has been accepted for inclusion in Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014 by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. For more information, please contact [scholarworks@library.umass.edu](mailto:scholarworks@library.umass.edu).







HISTORICAL AND PERSONOLOGICAL CORRELATES OF  
RAPE PROCLIVITY

A Dissertation Presented

by

ROBERT M. SAMUELS

Submitted to the Graduate School of the  
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment  
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

May 1987

Department of Psychology



Robert M. Samuels  
All Rights Reserved


HISTORICAL AND PERSONOLOGICAL CORRELATES OF  
RAPE PROCLIVITY

A Dissertation Presented

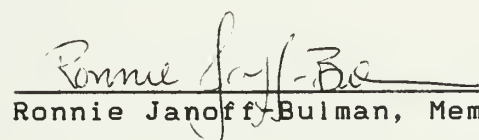
by

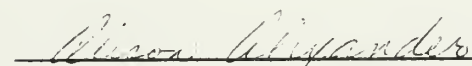
ROBERT M. SAMUELS

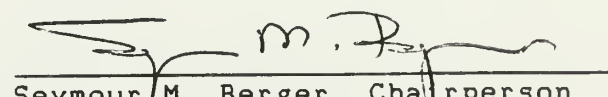
Approved as to style and content by:

  
Marian L. MacDonald, Chairperson of Committee

  
Castellano Turner, Member

  
Ronnie Janoff-Bulman, Member

  
Alison Alexander, Member

  
Seymour M. Berger, Chairperson  
Psychology Department

To Emma L. MacNeil, my grandmother  
whose hopes for my success are boundless

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to begin by thanking the chairperson of my committee, Marian MacDonald, for her guidance and support. Throughout my graduate training she has instilled in me the importance of the successful integration of clinical research and clinical practice. I would also like to thank Castellano Turner whose warmth and knowledge has supported in many ways during my years spent in graduate school. I would also like to thank the other members of my committee, Ronnie Janoff-Bulman and Alison Alexander whose knowledge and experience enriched this project with insightful comments and thoughtful criticisms.

My friends deserve recognition for helping with timely doses of moral support, especially Mary & Bram, Risa, and a very special thanks to Linda, Becky, and Beth.

I would like to thank my family members who were able to support this project, throughout its many incarnations. In particular, I would like to thank my mother, Audrey Samuels, whose love, support and belief in my abilities is a constant source of strength.

My two research assistants, Dawn and Michelle also deserve recognition for their considerable effort in the data collection.

I would also like to thank the support staff, in particular Joanne, Linda, Ron and Kate who each in their own way supported the completion of this project.

Finally, I would like to thank Sandy Levy, friend, colleague and wife, for providing clinical and technical assistance, patience and encouragement, and limitless support. I cannot possibly convey here the many ways she has helped me survive this endeavor or the many ways she has enriched my life.



## ABSTRACT

### Historical and Personological Correlates of Rape Proclivity

May 1987

Robert M. Samuels, A.B., Princeton University

M.S., University of Massachusetts,

Ph.D., University of Massachusetts

Directed by: Professor Marian L. MacDonald

The phenomena of sexual aggression and sexual victimization have continued to receive considerable attention from various social researchers and social critics. [It is now clear that a sizable portion of males in the general public maintain attitudes and beliefs which are very similar to those held by convicted rapists.] This study compared the backgrounds and personalities of individuals who indicate some vs. no willingness to rape under particular conditions. (Using a previously developed Likelihood to Rape Scale (Samuels, Turner, & Todd, 1984), individuals were identified who expressed some propensity to rape.) The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory was utilized to identify and compare representative personality profiles of high and low scorers on the Likelihood to Rape Scale (LR scale). Following the personality assessment, historical data were collected in

an attempt to verify the presence of some expected behaviors and to assess some early experiences of paternal violence and empathy. A projective stimulus was also used to assess the individuals' responses to ambiguous heterosexual dyadic situations. One hundred and forty undergraduate males completed analyzable questionnaires.

→ [Approximately thirty percent of the respondents specifically indicated some likelihood to rape if they were assured of not being punished.] MMPI elevations on the scales for Schizophrenia and Hypochondriasis were most highly correlated with elevations on the LR scale. Reports of exposure to parental aggression or poor maternal empathy failed to distinguish between respondents. However, the individuals' self-reports of their own empathic abilities as well as their personal use of coercion to obtain sexual goals and of aggression significantly distinguished between high and low scorers. These findings are presented along with additional data bearing on what distinguishes individuals who indicate some Likelihood to Rape. The results are discussed in light of methodological and conceptual issues. Implications for future research and clinical treatment in the area of rape proclivity are considered.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION . . . . .	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS . . . . .	iv
ABSTRACT . . . . .	vi
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
Overview . . . . .	1
Historical Perspectives on Aggression . . . . .	2
Aggression: Social Context and Coercive Power . . . . .	11
Types of Aggression . . . . .	15
Gender Differences and Aggression . . . . .	19
Aggression--Sexual Aggression . . . . .	21
Sexual Aggression--Likelihood to Rape . . . . .	26
Major Hypotheses . . . . .	30
II. METHOD . . . . .	33
Subjects . . . . .	33
Procedure . . . . .	37
Instruments . . . . .	38
MMPI . . . . .	38
Exposure to Aggression Survey . . . . .	43
Therapist Role Dimension Scale . . . . .	44
Coercive Sexuality Scale . . . . .	44
Likelihood to Rape Scale . . . . .	45
Thematic Apperception Test . . . . .	45

III. RESULTS . . . . .	65
Likelihood to Rape Scale:	
Analyses of Structural Fidelity . . . . .	65
Likelihood to Rape Scale:	
Analyses of Validity Data . . . . .	70
Personality Inventory . . . . .	72
Analyses of Historical Measures . . . . .	82
Analyses of Projective Measures . . . . .	89
IV. DISCUSSION . . . . .	95
Likelihood to Rape Scale . . . . .	96
Normalcy vs. Psychopathology . . . . .	98
Personal History and LR . . . . .	103
Limitations . . . . .	106
Conclusions . . . . .	108
Implications for Future Research . . . . .	109
APPENDIX. . . . .	112
A . . . . .	113
B . . . . .	140
REFERENCES . . . . .	143

## LIST OF TABLES

1.	Descriptive Statistics on Subject Characteristics . . . . .	34
2.	MMPI Subscale Descriptions . . . . .	39
3.	Percentage Agreement on Projective Rating Task . . . . .	48
4.	Projective Variables with Coding Criteria . . . . .	51
5.	Frequency Distribution for Likelihood to Rape Scale . . . . .	66
6.	Inter-item Correlation Matrix for Likelihood to Rape Scale . . . . .	70
7.	Reliability Statistics for the Likelihood to Rape Scale . . . . .	71
8.	Reliability Statistics for MMPI-168 Scale . . . . .	73
9.	Reliability Statistics for Historical Scales . . . . .	74
10.	MMPI Profiles . . . . .	76
11.	Pearson Product-Moment Correlations for Likelihood to Rape Scale with MMPI Scales . . . . .	81
12.	Student-Newman-Keuls Procedure for LR Scale with MMPI Scales . . . . .	83
13.	Pearson Product-Moment Correlations for Likelihood to Rape Scale with Historical Variables . . . . .	86
14.	Significant Pearson Correlations for LR Scale with Individual items from Exposure to Aggression Scale . . . . .	88
15.	Student-Newman-Keuls Procedure for LR Scale with Historical Scales . . . . .	90
16.	Pearson Product-Moment Correlations for Likelihood to Rape Scale with Projective Variables . . . . .	93
17.	Chi-Square Analyses Relating LR Scale with Projective Nominal Variables . . . . .	94
18.	Frequency Distribution for Projective Measures . . . . .	140



## List of Figures

1. Low LR and High LR Group Profiles. . . . . 80

## C H A P T E R 1

### Introduction

#### Overview

Every individual, at some point during his or her life, has chosen to act in a hostile or aggressive fashion. The reasons an individual chooses to respond aggressively to a particular situation are a complex combination of previous experiences, familial factors, and the understanding and awareness of others, as well as some other less clear aspects of individual personality. Of the many forms of violence and aggression, sexual aggression and rape are two of the most confusing. Individuals many times take an action that in other situations is indicative of an intimate relationship, and distort it, using it as a tool to attain something that has eluded complete understanding.

The goal of this project was to discern some of the historical and personological characteristics distinguishing individuals who view sexually aggressive behavior as acceptable, and to forge an initial, speculative understanding of the distinguishing dynamics that are present to some extent in all people, but which

typically express themselves in less interpersonally destructive ways.

### Historical Perspectives on Aggression

The causes, nature, and control of human aggression have been of major concern to psychological theorists since the early part of this century. The initial definition of aggression was stated as "any form of behavior directed toward the goal of harming or injuring another living being who is motivated to avoid such treatment" (Baron, 1977). Using this definition, psychologists have speculated on aggression's role in human personality development and have developed several theories which attempt to explain this complex phenomenon.

In the early 1900's, Freud posited that all human behavior was directed by eros (the life instinct), which was viewed as a pleasure seeking, life-enhancing construct empowered by libido. From this perspective, aggression was simply a possible reaction to a blocking or thwarting of libidinous impulses, it was neither an automatic nor an inevitable part of life (Baron, 1977; Zillman, 1979; Geen & O'Neil, 1976).

However, after noting the violence and destruction of World War I, Freud (1920) began to modify his perspective to include the notion of thanatos, the death force "whose

energy is directed toward the destruction and termination of life" (Baron, 1977; Zillman, 1979; Bandura, 1973). He described the complex interplay between eros and thanatos as one of conflicting drives, underscoring the necessity of defense mechanisms against the expression of thanatos, for the maintenance of human life.

Dolf Zillmann (1979) summarized Freud's 1920 position as follows:

- 1) Freud proclaimed a death instinct whose goal is to return the organic to its original inanimate form.
- 2) He proposed that the energy of this instinct has to be continually converted into outward- directed aggression to prevent the destruction of the self.
- 3) He entertained the notion of tension reduction as connected to destructive energy.
- 4) He conceived of catharsis as a process in which the affective, nondestructive display of hostile and aggressive inclinations can discharge destructive energy and thereby reduce the strength of these inclinations.
- 5) Finally, he presented the view that aggression is, in the final analysis, inevitable.

This concept of thanatos clearly provides support for the inevitability of aggression, simply because it is an innate impulse that, if not turned outward upon others, "will soon result in the destruction of the individual himself" (Baron, 1977, p.17). Freud did create an avenue for releasing some of this destructive force in a nondestructive fashion: catharsis. This release of

destructive energy usually in the expression of aggression-related emotions, primarily hostility and anger, may reduce the likelihood of more dangerous acts (Baron, 1977).

Zillman (1979) suggests that the notion of catharsis implies that a) the amount of available destructive energy is finite, b) the discharge of energy by aggressive action drains the reservoir to a point where other destructive behaviors are deprived of their motivational force, and c) the reservoir is not immediately replenished after energy discharge (Zillman, 1979). It follows from this line of reasoning that aggression against a particular target would be expected to reduce the likelihood of aggression against any subsequent target. Freud, however, was much less specific about the power and duration of cathartic events, and many of these conclusions were derived later by the frustration-aggression theorists and their adaptation of psychoanalytic theory.

Following Freud's (1920) general and somewhat vague suppositions regarding the release of instinctive, aggressive energy, Konrad Lorenz (1966, 1974) developed a hydraulic energy model detailing the accumulation and subsequent release of aggressive energy. Lorenz posited that aggressive energy is spontaneously generated within an organism in a continuous manner and at a constant rate, and that aggressive energy therefore accumulates regularly.



Aggressive discharge is a joint function of the amount of accumulated aggressive energy and the presence and strength of external stimuli (i.e., aggression-releasing stimuli). His model assumes an inverse relationship between the two, meaning that the greater the amount of aggressive energy, the weaker the external stimulus needs to be to result in overt aggression. Theoretically, Lorenz noted that if the accumulated level of energy is extreme enough, the "elicitation threshold" or intensity of external stimuli necessary for a "release" could be zero, that is, that it was possible to have "aggression in the total absence of releasing stimuli" (Zillman, 1979; Baron, 1977).

Lorenz often referred to the process of accumulating aggressive energy in humans as the fighting instinct, which is innate and has parallels in many other infrahuman organisms. Lorenz observed that very few organisms, other than man, fatally aggressed against members of their own species. It appears that human's internal as well as technological capacity for violence may have outstripped the natural restraints against aggressive actions. Lorenz's theory contends that participation in many minor, noninjurious aggressive actions may prevent aggressive energy from accumulating to dangerous levels, and thereby may reduce the likelihood of unprovoked attacks. He also states that there is an inherent incompatibility between

love/friendship and the expression of overt aggression. This, too, suggests more optimistically than Freud that aggressive energy can be dispersed, possibly rechanneled, and eventually controlled.

Late in the 1930's, the aggression as instinct position was joined by a more interactive model for understanding aggression; this model heavily influenced experimental research in this area for the next 30 years. The document written by Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer and Sears (1939) presented what has and is commonly referred to as the frustration-aggression hypothesis. Simply stated, their position was that frustration always leads to some form of aggression, and that aggression always stems from frustration. Frustration in this context is defined as the blocking or thwarting of some form of ongoing, goal-directed behavior (Baron, 1977; Zillman, 1974). Zillman extends this largely externally-referenced analysis of frustration to include individuals' subjective perceptions as well as the objective blocking or thwarting environmental events.

The frustration-aggression hypothesis was initially embraced completely, partly because of its simplicity, and partly because of its apparent total applicability. Soon, however, several difficulties with the theory were found which required modifications of the original hypothesis.

The first reformulation (Miller, 1941) clarified that frustration actually resulted in a more diffuse and general drive toward aggression, rather than the specific, almost reflexive drive that was originally indicated. Miller stated that frustration instigates behavior that may or may not be hostile or aggressive, and that any hostile or aggressive behavior that occurs is caused by frustration (Baron, 1977; Zillman, 1979). This reformulation suggests that frustration serves to instigate a number of different types of responses, one of which is some form of aggression (Miller, 1941, p.338). So while Miller still saw frustration as a necessary antecedent for an aggressive response, it was no longer regarded as a sufficient one.

Additional links between frustration and aggression were posited by Maslow (1941), Rosenzweig (1944) and Buss (1961). These authors demonstrated when frustration contained an element of threat or attack, it elicited aggressive responses. These researchers also demonstrated that aggression would be more likely if it effectively terminated a frustrating stimulus (i.e., if it had instrumental value).

A corollary to the frustration-aggression hypothesis was the theory of displaced aggression, initially suggested by Freud (1920) with his notion of catharsis, and later developed by Miller (1941). Both of these theoreticians,

as well as more recent researchers, suggested that in many situations, the frustrating stimulus may be one toward which the subject has strong inhibitions about directly aggressing. This inhibition may be due to a fear of reprisals such as physical retaliation or withholding of affection. In response to this fear, the individual may displace his aggression, that is aggress toward another target that is similar to the initial frustrator, but that invokes fewer inhibitory responses.

During the years subsequent to the formulation of these hypotheses, experimental studies of them demonstrated links between frustration and vigorous motor responses which could be termed aggressive in specific contexts (Haner & Brown, 1955; Kelly & Hake, 1970; Rule & Percival, 1971). However, Berkowitz (1965a, 1969, 1971, 1972) was the first to demonstrate that frustration was not sufficient to elicit aggression. He hypothesized, similar to the thinking of Lorenz (1966), that the presence of aggressive cues was also required. Berkowitz stated that frustration induces an emotional condition, anger, which is linked to a readiness for overt aggression. This readiness will result in actual aggression only if it is accompanied by "stimuli associated with present or previous anger instigators or with aggression in general" (Baron, 1974; Zillman, 1977). Berkowitz's position implied that many

stimuli, people or objects, under the proper conditions, can acquire aggressive-cue value.

Following Berkowitz's position, another major notion of aggression developed. The social learning theory, advanced most prolifically by Albert Bandura (1974), held that aggression was a "specific form of social behavior, which is both acquired and maintained in much the same manner as many other forms of activity" (Baron, 1974).

Bandura concerned himself with three features of aggressive behavior: (1) the manner in which the aggressive behaviors are initially acquired; (2) what serves to instigate the initial occurrence of aggressive behaviors, and; (3) what maintains the aggressive behaviors' performance.

In viewing aggression as a learned phenomenon, Bandura considered an instrumental conditioning model as fundamental in the acquisition of aggressive behavior. In this formulation, the positive effect or reward of having successfully altered a situation by behaving aggressively results in reinforcing that behavior and increasing the likelihood that it will occur under similar circumstances in the future. The reward can take many forms such as money (Buss, 1971), social approval (Geen & Stonner, 1971); or the alleviation of noxious treatment (Patterson, Littman & Bricker, 1967). Bandura also suggests a fairly complex



social notion of aggression reciprocity which implies that witnessing pain and suffering in a victim, when the witness has been sufficiently provoked, may also be reinforcing and may be learned as a viable option in future situations (Hartmann, 1969; Baron, 1974a, 1977).

Buss (1971) and Bandura (1973) pointed out that in many situations, aggression is quite rewarding by resulting in the acquisition of material goods, social rewards, and social approval. Bandura also stated that there is a process of "self-reinforcement" occurring in aggressively behaving individuals, where they "pat themselves on the back" for successful aggressive acts. Both the external rewards and the self-reinforcements apparently serve to maintain aggressive styles of behavior.

The social learning theorists present arguments that are not incompatible with the frustration-aggression hypothesis. A joint formulation might be that an effectively frustrating stimulus produces a need to respond, and that the choice of response is a function of response outcomes experienced or observed under similar circumstances.

Each of these major theories varies with respect to their focus on innate internal dynamics or external environmental influences. The distinguishing feature appears to be how controllable the theorists believed

mankind's continuing impulse to aggress to be.

### Aggression: Social Context and Coercive Power

The early to mid-70's gave rise to the notion of aggression as a social construct, one that depended as much on the perceiver of the situation as it did the action, for definition (Hollandsworth, 1979; Edmunds, 1978; Tedeschi, Gaes & Rivera, 1977; Wyrick, Gentry & Shows, 1977; Holm, 1983). Alberti (1977) seems to best illustrate the leading perspective on labelling a particular act as aggressive. He partitions aggressive actions into four components: actor's intent, specific behavior, behavioral effect, and antecedent social-cultural context. Each of these components are utilized in the designation of a response as aggressive, but these components cannot be separated from the observer's values (Tedeschi et al, 1977). This inclusion of the observer's values in the designation of an action as aggressive highlights the distinguishing feature of the contextual model of aggression.

The Buss (1961) definition of aggression, (an action that delivers noxious stimuli to another organism), combined with Hollandsworth's (1977) definition of social power, (the desire or ability "to control, regulate, or direct" the behaviors of others for personal goal attainment), form the foundation of Tedeschi et al's (1977)

notion of coercive power. From the contextual model of aggression, the consideration of the observer's values compliments this construction of coercive power, including an individual's needs and feelings within the concept of personal goal attainment.

There are two critical alterations, from a theoretical standpoint, to referring to aggression in terms of coercive power. First, this formulation focuses on the actions themselves, separating them from the actor's motives. Secondly, it makes no normative judgements about whether an action is good or bad (Tedeschi, 1977). This view of coercive power, referring to actions, includes verbal and nonverbal threats, deprivation of existing material resources and expected material gains, and withdrawal of social rewards and social punishments.

Tedeschi, Gaes & Rivera (1977) are leading proponents of the coercive power model of aggression, looking at the intentional, volitional and justifiable aspects of aggressive behavior, from a social-contextual perspective. These authors point out that not all coercive actions are aggressive, and that coercive power with aggressive components is usually applied when there are important consequences for both observer/target and actor. Three major factors that are taken into account by an actor leading to the point of coercive action are: "a) the values

controlled by the target, b) the estimated probability of success of the influence attempt, and c) the potential cost of attempting influence" (Tedeschi et al, 1977). These factors, even within the contextual model, can be combined with experiential components that may serve to increase the likelihood that an individual will use an aggressive form of coercion. These experiential components include individuals who have observed a successful model (Lando & Donnerstein, 1978); individuals with low self-esteem (Armentrout & Hauer, 1978; Olweus, 1979); individuals needing to achieve or maintain authority as well as needing to display their masculinity (Pleck, 1982).

The threat to an authority position is a primary motivation for the use of coercive power. Usually this type of influence is unnecessary since subordinates normally comply with reasonable requests and decisions. However when it is necessary, the use of coercive power provides an example of possible consequences of such insubordination, while presumably restoring the high-status person's sense of power. Examples of situations of this type are police-suspect, parent-child, teacher-pupil, and coach-athlete interactions (Tedeschi, et al, 1977).

Another situation that may increase the potential for an individual to use coercive power is a distortion or lack of time perspective. "If a person does not consider the

negative consequences of performing an action, he cannot be deterred by them" (Tedeschi, 1977). Tedeschi related this concept to a set of conditions outlined by Melges and Harris (1970). These conditions apparently also exist in individuals who seem to lack a time perspective, which causes them to ignore future costs and consequences.

Three conditions may result in a distortion of time or a lack of time perspective: (1) the need for quick action, which reduces consideration of costs, (2) a focus on the present to the exclusion of the future, and (3) an egocentric view of the situation that precludes empathy and dehumanizes the prospective target. The first situation arises when immediate compliance is deemed imperative and alternative modes of influence would require an excessive amount of time. The use of coercive power limits the type and form of the target's response in order to insure its immediacy. This mode, however, also limits the type and form of the source's response to non-compliance. A specific example might be when a police officer requests a suspect to drop a weapon, because of the risk, immediate compliance may be viewed as essential leaving the suspect with only two choices: to drop the weapon or to risk being shot. The element of coercive power is present because of the police officer's visible threat (his gun) or non-visible threat (the rest of the police department) of



violence. If the suspect fails to comply, the officer is left with two choices. He can attempt another mode of coercion and risk loss of life (personal or bystander), or he can shoot the suspect.

The second and third conditions suggest that if a situation causes an individual to believe extreme action is necessary to achieve short-term goals, he may totally disregard ethical or legal standards, and these individuals may be predisposed to perceive a situation as one requiring extreme measures (i.e. coercive power).

There is also the finding that various drugs affect time perspective and the ability to empathize. This can also be combined with "low self-esteem, a readiness to interpret cues from others as signs of hostility, and the availability of a weapon" to support the escalation of a situation to the point when a coercive mode of persuasion is utilized, often in the form of violent aggression.

### Types of Aggression

In the preceding section, several factors were considered which might predispose individuals to use aggression, defined as coercive power, in interpersonal situations. Most of these factors involved situational parameters that have been shown experimentally to increase or decrease the occurrence or intensity of aggression.

Another set of internal parameters, primarily motivational ones, have been documented as also influential; these motivational factors are distinguished by the behavioral goals of the aggressor (Buss, 1961, 1971). Feshbach (1970), studying aggression differentiated by aggressor motives, labelled aggression intended to hurt the victim as "hostile", and aggression used for gaining rewards for oneself as "instrumental".

A third set of factors has been identified as influential in the occurrence of coercive power; these factors address the contextual conditions antecedent to an act of aggression. Of particular salience in this context is the role of the victim (target) of the aggression in relationship to the aggressor. When the target is perceived as having attacked or in some other way provoked the "aggressor", then his response may be seen as being directly related to the attack (victim precipitated). Aggressive responses in this situation are termed "reactive aggression". This type of aggression stands in contrast to "initiatory aggression", which is aggressive behavior without victim provocation.

Any aggressive act has both antecedent and consequent contexts, and Edmunds (1978) has attempted to include all possible combinations in his fourfold classification system:

	<u>Antecedent</u>	
	Provoked	Unprovoked
Inflict	Reactive	Initiatory
Pain	Hostile	Hostile
<u>Consequence</u>		
	Reactive	Initiatory
Reward	Instrumental	Instrumental

Edmunds (1978) has suggested a systematic relationship between types of aggression and perceived social acceptability. Much of this social acceptance of aggressive behavior can be explained using the norm of reciprocity notion. This social norm justifies retaliatory behavior when an individual has been attacked. As a result, reactive aggression is consistently viewed as more acceptable than instrumental (Edmunds, 1978).

There are two models that do not rely as heavily on subjective classification of "intentionality". One model, proposed by Alberti (1977), builds on his previously identified dimensions for distinguishing assertion and aggression: intent, behavior, effect, and socio-cultural context. These four dimensions add several more objective components to the analysis of the action. Holm (1983) also proposed a model resting on a fourfold conceptualization,

his classification facets included judgements of intent, reason, mode of harm, and severity of harm. Holm experimentally tested the utility of his model by using third party observers to respond to questions about each of these dimensions following the viewing of a dyadic interaction (Holm, 1983). His results indicated that subjects used all four factors when deciding whether an action is intended to harm; however, although only mode and severity of harm were used to determine if an action was aggressive.

Several elements are common to the various theoretical and definitional views of aggression. These elements include: (1) the presence of an actor, whose behavior is influenced by internal and/or external motivations and goals, many of which may be independent of the immediate situation; (2) a target/victim, which can be an object, an animal, or a person, and whose role in precipitating the act can be obvious (i.e., as instigator) or subtle (i.e., as a reminder of a previous, negative relationship); (3) a situational context, with a salience to the actor, which may arise exclusively from the present circumstances or which may arise representationally from its similarity to earlier critical situations, perhaps including a similar target; (4) an action, or mode of harm, which includes both the actor's specific behavior and the actor's use or threat

of using any tools or weapons; and (5) the consequences of the activity, which include intrinsic and extrinsic gains or losses to the actor, negative consequences to the target, and short and long term effects on the socio-cultural climate.

#### Gender Differences and Aggression

Late in 1977, Frodi, Macaulay, and Thome published an extensive review of the experimental literature regarding gender differences and aggression. Reviewing over 170 experiments published over a 20 year period, they focussed on the question of women's hypothesized lower aggressiveness relative to men (Frodi, Macaulay, & Thome, 1977). Their initial expectation was that since more examples of men being physically and verbally aggressive were represented in the mass media, there would be a corresponding disproportion of greater male aggression in the experimental literature. What the authors found, however, was that in terms of non-lethal violence in the family, women were nearly on a parity with men (Strauss, Gelles & Steinmetz, 1974). Moreover, in the case of physical abuse of children, women may in fact represent a higher percentage of the abusers (Gelles, 1973; Gil, 1968, 1970).

A subsequent review by Eagly and Steffen (1986), using a more empirically based analysis, challenged Frodi et al.'s (1977) conclusion that there were no gender differences in aggression; however, Eagly and Steffen (1986) did note that the differences were not as large nor as consistent as might be expected. They also pointed out that many social-role variables were not addressed in the studies reporting greater female aggressivity (e.g., women's greater responsibility for child care and their subsequent increased exposure to provocation and to opportunities to aggress.)

One particular feature of both reviews is of special importance in the current context. The largest sex differences in aggression could be accounted for in terms of aggression guilt and anxiety. Eagly and Steffen (1986) labeled this process "empathy mediation". Results indicated that "women reported more guilt and anxiety as a consequence of aggression, more vigilance about the harm that aggression causes its victims, and more concern about the danger that their aggression might bring to themselves" (Eagly & Steffen, 1986, p.325).

Jaffe, Malamuth, Feingold, and Feshbach (1974) demonstrated that, in general, sexually aroused subjects delivered more intense shocks than did non-aroused subjects, regardless of gender pairing. Moreover, their



results indicated that aroused subjects delivered more intense shocks to opposite-sexed as opposed to same-sexed partners. Like Frodi et al., these authors used a sex role explanation to interpret their results. They suggested that if sexual arousal increases aggression, then the largest increase in aggression would be seen toward the opposite sex. Their study supported this hypothesis.


#### Aggression and Sexual Aggression

Recent theoretical discussions and empirical findings have framed the event of rape within an aggressive context, rather than a sexual one (Brownmiller, 1975; Burgess & Holmstrom, 1974; Groth, 1979; Medea & Thompson, 1974). This conceptual shift has focused on the aggressive aspects of rape, quite appropriately, but it has fallen short of clarifying which particular dimensions of aggression are most pertinent. It has been well documented that males rape more frequently than do females (Amir, 1971; Brownmiller, 1975; Groth, 1979), but consensus on an explanation of the rape phenomenon has yet to be reached.

If there are not biological differences between males and females in proclivities to aggress, then other processes must be invoked to account for the observed gender differences in current patterns of sexual

aggressiveness in our society.

A formulation which might prove useful in this context involves the notion of power in interpersonal relationships, and power has been mentioned as significant in discussions of sexual aggression by a number of researchers (Brownmiller, 1975; Groth, 1979; Groth, Burgess, & Holmstrom, 1977; Griffin, 1979; Horos, 1974). The notion of power can combine with other factors to lead rapists to view themselves as justified in their actions (Groth, 1979). Underlying this perspective appears to be a strong sense on the rapists' parts that they have been arbitrarily wronged or attacked in some way by the victim. From the rapists' points of view, then, these circumstances clearly validate their behavior. If their actions are based on the social norm of reciprocity which permits aggressive acts to a harmdoer to realign the power imbalances (Tedeschi, Gaes, & Rivera, 1977). Perhaps if assailants perceive themselves as having been emasculated in some way, then this selection of sexual aggression as a reciprocal response is not incomprehensible.

 It is possible that this perceived emasculation may also be removed from, but triggered by, a present circumstance. That is, there may be some form of time distortion leading to as inaccurate assessment of the current situation. A time distortion may cause the rapist

to respond to a current situation in an effort to rectify an imbalance occurring days or years earlier, and very probably with a different target-person.

The possibility that rapists are somehow reacting as if their act is justified, perhaps because of a felt sexual insult carried into the present from the past, has received some support from clinical observations (Groth, Burgess, & Holstrom, 1977; Groth, 1979). It has also been reported that rapists demonstrate a lack of empathy with their victims (Groth, 1979; Beneke, 1982). Whether this lack of empathy is causal or resultant to the act of rape, however, is unclear. Symonds (1979) explains this phenomenon by hypothesizing that rapists mirror society's need to reject all victims, particularly victims of sexual crimes. This rejection functions to distance ourselves from the feelings of anxiety and perceived threat associated with such crimes. It is also possible, however, that this lack of empathy results from the rapists' feelings that the sexual aggression was somehow deserved.

The facilitating event that has probably received the most critical and popular discussion is that of sexual arousal and its links to aggression, and by extension, sexual aggression. Initial studies (Jaffe, Malamuth, Feingold, & Feshbach, 1974; Jaffe et al., 1974; Donnerstein & Hallam, 1978) indicated a strong link between sexual

arousal and increased subsequent behavioral aggression. Additional data seemed to indicate a non-linearity of this relationship between sexual arousal and aggression. In experiments which varied levels of sexual arousal, it was found that mild erotic stimuli placed subjects in a pleasurable state which resulted in decreased subsequent aggression, whereas high levels of sexual arousal resulted in increased aggression, under certain conditions (Baron, 1974; Baron & Bell, 1977; Zillman & Sapolsky, 1977; Baron, 1979).

Malamuth, Feshbach, & Jaffe (1977) stated that when providing arousal cues, it is important that aggression should not be aroused but that instead many of the existing inhibitions to arousal should be reduced. The reduction of inhibitions to arousal may involve the reduction of other inhibitions, for instance, inhibitions to aggress, but the overriding goal should be clearly devoid of malevolent intent.

This notion of disinhibition in regards to sexual arousal and aggression received support in a study reported by Leonard and Taylor (1983). Male subjects, while in a situation where they received permissive cues from a female confederate (i.e., jointly viewing erotic stimuli), later administered higher levels of shock: aggressive disinhibition due to erotic viewing disinhibition.

If sexual arousal and behavioral disinhibition enable males in given situations to behave aggressively, then the question remains as to why females are selected as targets of this aggression and why rape is selected as the mode. In studies documented by Frodi, Macaulay, and Thome (1977) and Eagly and Steffen (1986) males frequently aggressed less against female subjects. However, as was noted earlier, this difference disappears if there is a suitable perceived justification. Perhaps the event of rape is closely related to some distorted norm of reciprocity, resulting from some previously perceived emasculating experience, most likely involving a female as a primary component.

The concept of displaced aggression (Zillmann, 1979) apparently has a role in explaining this phenomenon, but it is insufficient to account for it entirely. Pleck (1982) and Groth (1979) as well as others (Brownmiller, 1975; Horos, 1974) propose that sexual aggression and rape are tied in many ways to the male sex role stereotype, but this also seems to explain only part of the internal dynamics. If sexual aggression, as has been proposed, is a combination of displaced aggression and the attempted resolution (or equilibration) of earlier conflicts and negative interpersonal dynamics, then the specific act could be viewed as consistent with the individual's value

system and personal dynamics, and guilt or remorse would be unexpected. Add to this personally consistent behavior a possible sense of re-establishment of some distorted masculine ideal through the internal experience, and possible external approval given to individuals who dominate and wield recognized power over others, and there exists a situation that makes sexual aggression attractive to these individuals at some level.

#### Sexual Aggression and Likelihood to Rape

Researchers in the area of attitudes towards rape have frequently suggested that gender differences in perceptions or physiology might account for a host of observed differential patterns in responses related to rape, including victim blaming (Seligman, Brickman & Koulack, 1977; Tieger, 1981), rape justification (Malamuth, Haber & Feshbach, 1983), sexual responsiveness to rape stimuli (Malamuth, Heim & Feshbach, 1980), rape myth acceptance (Burt, 1980), and self-reported aggressive behavior (Malamuth, Haber & Feshbach, 1983; Tieger, 1981). In two important studies, one with college students (Barnett & Feild, 1977) and the other with community residents (Burt, 1980), researchers found that a significantly larger proportion of males than females viewed rape as a sexual crime rather than a crime of aggression. Furthermore, in



both studies a significantly larger proportion of males than females felt that women have the primary responsibility for rape prevention.

Burt's (1980) study also explored what specific beliefs about heterosexual relationships are held by the general population, and how those beliefs might relate to the acceptance of rape myths. Her results indicated that various rape myths (e.g. "women provoke rape by their appearance", "a woman cannot be raped against her will") are held as truths by a large number of men, and that many men, in fact, hold a series of more general stereotypic, negative, and hostile beliefs about women (e.g., "in a dating relationship a woman is largely out to take advantage of a man", "most women are sly and manipulating when they are out to attract a man"). These data suggest that rape propensity may be, at least in part, function of societal norms (e.g., Brownmiller, 1975; Griffin, 1975, 1979; Medea & Thompson, 1974; Russell, 1975), a position which has been held for some time by a number of feminist theoreticians and social critics.

Malamuth, Haber, and Feshbach (1983) also reported data suggesting that, at some level, rape is a societally sanctioned behavior. They distributed a questionnaire to male and female college students after the students had read one of two versions of a vignette describing a female

student's rape by a male student. Questions were posed concerning the subjects' sexual arousal, appropriate level of punishment for the assailant, subjects' perceptions of the victim, subjects' perceptions of the assailant, and the subjects' personal responses to the account. Of the 53 males in the sample, 17% indicated that they personally would be at least somewhat likely to act as the rapist did under the same circumstances. Furthermore, 51% of the males indicated that they would be at least somewhat likely to rape a woman under the circumstance of being assured of not being punished.

Subsequent studies (Malamuth, 1981; Tieger, 1981; Check & Malamuth, 1983;) asked the question of personal likelihood to rape under a variety of experimental conditions, such as following the viewing of a videotaped interview with an actual rape victim, following the reading of a pornographic description of a rape, and without any prior "exposure treatment". Even though there was some variability in proportions across studies, in general there was a sizable percentage of each sample that indicated some likelihood of raping. [On the average, about 35% of the males in these studies indicated some likelihood to rape.] Additional research with the likelihood to rape question (the LR report) has shown that higher LR scores are significantly correlated with: (1) a belief that other men

would rape if they knew they could avoid being caught, (2) an identification with rapists in depictions of rape, (3) perceptions that rape victims cause and derive pleasure from such assaults (in fictionalized portrayals and an actual interview with a rape victim), and, (4) a belief that women in general secretly desire and enjoy such victimization (Malamuth, Haber, & Feshbach, 1980a; Malamuth & Check, 1980a; Tieger, 1981; Malamuth, 1981).

\* A study by Ceniti and Malamuth (as cited in Malamuth, 1981) further verifies that males reporting some likelihood of raping have more casual attitudes towards rape and believe in rape myths to a greater extent than do men reporting no likelihood of raping even given an assurance of not getting caught. Using Burt's (1980) scales, Ceniti and Malamuth found that Rape Myth Acceptance and Acceptance of Interpersonal Violence were both highly correlated with LR scores. LR ratings have also been found to be positively correlated with sexual arousal to rape but not with arousal to depictions of mutually consenting intercourse (Malamuth & Check, 1980b), and with self-reported male aggression against women (Malamuth, 1981).

In a later study, (Samuels, Turner, & Todd, 1984), a Likelihood to Rape Scale was developed around the single LR report. This scale demonstrated highly significant correlations with personality measures of aggression,

defensiveness, impulsivity, difficulties with nurturance, and social desirability, as well as strong correlations with Burt's (1980) scales, especially those dealing with adversarial sexual beliefs, acceptance of interpersonal violence and sexual conservatism. These findings, as well as those previously mentioned, strongly suggest a high correlation between LR Scale scores and particular personality characteristics that may in fact be descriptive of either a certain male-centered ideology and/or a general propensity to aggress against women.

#### Project Goals--Major Hypotheses

[Recent empirical findings and theoretical conceptualizations suggest that a significant proportion of male samples will indicate some willingness to rape ]  
 (Brownmiller, 1975; Griffin, 1975, 1979; Malamuth et al., 1980a; Malamuth, 1981; Malamuth & Check, 1980a; Medea & Thompson, 1974; Russell, 1975; Samuels, Turner, & Todd, 1984; Tieger, 1981). The major intent of this study was to identify personal, demographic, and historical characteristics which distinguished those males reporting a likelihood to rape.

The general personality characteristics suggested by the literature, which were expected to correlate with high sexual aggression, were measurements of other forms of

aggressive activity and coercive sexuality, as well as psychological measurements of impulsivity and social adjustment. Social adjustment was assessed by the degree of atypical or antisocial attitudes, level of comfort in sex role, and overall satisfaction with life situation. Earlier discussions of sexual aggression have suggested that rape might be a form of displaced aggression, (i.e., aggression directed at one target which was "provoked" by another target). [To more closely consider this possibility, the subject's personal (previous and current) experiences with aggression were also assessed, to suggest possible sources of previous aggressive provocation and also to test the notion that an individual with a greater exposure to aggression would more quickly resort to an aggressive response in a conflict situation.] Perceptions of the subject's experience of his mother's empathy toward him, along with his own perceived empathic ability, were used to ascertain the subject's ability to empathize with another, based on his degree of experience with effective parental empathy.

The construct of time perspective/perception was also tested by analyzing the time sense of stories subjects wrote in response to TAT-like pictures. It was expected that individuals perceiving events in a very present-oriented time perspective would not perceive the personal

consequences of his actions, to either himself or his victim. This orientation may increase the likelihood of an individual to experience previous negative events as very recent occurrences resulting in more frequent displacement of aggression and a higher likelihood to rape. The contraction of a sense of time may effectively neutralize internal restraints, in turn increasing self-centered, unempathic, and anti-social behavior.

Specifically, this study tested the hypotheses that:

- 1) A significantly greater than zero number of male subjects would self-report some likelihood to rape.
- 2) The MMPI scores of High LR individuals would replicate the general findings of the Personality Research Form profiles from the Samuels, Turner, & Todd (1984) study. An expected modal profile would have elevated scores on scales assessing Psychopathic Deviance (4), Schizophrenia (8), and Depression (2).
- 3) Low perception/experience with parental empathy, as indicated by the empathy and experience with aggression scales as well as by the T.A.T. stories, would be predictive of LR as well as other forms of aggression and coercive sexuality.
- 4) Time contraction as reflected in T.A.T. stories would correlate highly with aggression, coercive sexuality, and LR.



## C H A P T E R 11

### Method

#### Subjects

The participants were recruited using class announcements, advertisements on the Psychology Department's experimental bulletin board, and posters placed at other locations. Volunteers were told that the research would involve their completing several questionnaires about their sexual attitudes and their relationships with their parents, as well as a general personality measure. Male university undergraduates from the psychology department's human subject pool were given extra credit in their psychology classes in exchange for their participation in this research. Table 1 summarizes descriptive statistics regarding the males in the sample. The resulting sample consisted of 150 males with the modal subject being in his freshman or sophomore year, between 19-20, Caucasian, catholic, and single. His family earns between \$35,000-\$50,000, and his father has been educated at the college level or beyond while his mother has been educated at the high school level or beyond. He also usually has at least one brother and one sister.

Table 1

## Descriptive Statistics on Subject Characteristics

Variable	N	Frequency	%	<u>M</u>	Mode
Year in School	134			2.24	1.0
Freshman		45	33.6		
Sophomore		34	25.4		
Junior		34	25.4		
Senior		20	14.9		
Other		1	.7		
Age	134			2.42	2.0
17-18		26	19.4		
19-20		49	36.6		
21-22		43	32.1		
23-24		9	6.7		
25+		7	5.2		
Ethnic Identification	134			1.21	1.0
Caucasian		124	92.5		
Afro-American		2	1.5		
Hispanic		2	1.5		
Asian-American		2	1.5		
Other		4	3.0		
Religious Identification	134			2.13	1.0
Catholic		70	52.2		
Jewish		21	15.7		
Protestant		18	13.4		
Other		9	6.7		
None		16	11.9		

Table 1 (continued)

Descriptive Statistics on Subject Characteristics					
Variable	N	Frequency	%	<u>M</u>	Mode
Marital Status	134			1.07	1.0
Single		128	95.5		
Married		3	2.2		
Living Together		3	2.2		
Divorced		0	0.0		
Other		0	0.0		
Family's Income	132			3.54	4.0
under \$10,000		11	8.3		
\$10,000-\$20,000		17	12.9		
\$20,000-\$35,000		30	22.7		
\$35,000-\$50,000		38	28.8		
over \$50,000		36	27.3		
Father's Level of Education	133			3.90	4.0
No Schooling		0	0.0		
Elementary School		4	3.0		
High School		42	31.6		
College or Trade		50	37.6		
Grad or Professional		37	27.8		
Mother's Level of Education	133			3.58	3.0
No Schooling		1	.8		
Elementary School		6	4.5		
High School		56	42.1		
College or Trade		55	41.4		
Grad or Professional		15	11.3		

Table 1 (continued)

## Descriptive Statistics on Subject Characteristics

Variable	N	Frequency	%	<u>M</u>	Mode
Number of Brothers	133			2.28	2.0
None		41	30.8		
One		45	33.8		
Two		26	19.5		
Three		11	8.3		
Four or more		10	7.5		
Number of Sisters	133			2.13	2.0
None		36	27.1		
One		60	45.1		
Two		26	19.5		
Three		6	4.5		
Four or more		5	3.8		

Of the 150 subjects recruited, 10 subjects had to be deleted from all analyses due to incomplete inventories. An additional six individuals felt their anonymity would be in jeopardy if they responded to the demographic section; this resulted in the demographic section's being based on a sample of 134, with the further analyses being based on a sample of 140.

### Procedure

Subjects were tested in small groups, by trained experimenters, in classrooms made available by the psychology department. The testing session required approximately two hours, and the subjects received two experimental credits in exchange for their participation. All subjects were first given an informed consent form (see Appendix A), describing the experiment and insuring that all of their responses would be confidential and anonymous. Also, subjects were informed that they could discontinue their participation at any time, without penalty. After the informed consent was signed and collected, the subjects were handed an assessment battery, which included the set of instruments described below.

## Instruments

### Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory-168

The first instrument in the packet was a short form of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (Overall, Higgins, & deSchweinitz, 1976). This form consists of the first 168 items of the standard MMPI, presented in written format; subjects are asked to record their responses (true or false) on a separate answer sheet. This version of the MMPI produces information on all 10 of the clinical scales as well as the three validity scales (see Table 2).

Validity coefficients between the standard MMPI and MMPI-168 scales using psychiatric patients, medical patients, and normal college students have ranged from .77 to .97 (Graham, 1977). Scale means, profile code types, and degrees of judged pathology also show a high correspondence between the two inventories.

It is important to note at this time that the standard MMPI has been criticized for the low reliabilities of some of the subscales (Anastasi, 1976). This is due in part to the construction of the inventory as a clinical assessment instrument, which developed many of the scales based on clinical and conceptual understanding as opposed to empirical findings. For this reason the test-retest reliabilities are used more frequently to determine the inventory's clinical usefulness. The retest reliabilities



Table 2  
MMPI Subscale Descriptions (Graham, 1977)

Scale #	Name	Characteristics of High Scorer (T > 70)
Validity Scales		
-	L Scale	a)is trying to create a favorable impression by not being honest in responding to the items; b)conventional; c)rigid, moralistic; d)manifests little or no insight; e)shows little awareness of consequences to other people of his/her own behavior
-	F Scale	a)Scores > 100 should invalidate the profile in a non-hospitalized population; b)Scores between 80-99, may be clearly psychotic, or exaggerating symptoms as a plea for help. Should consider invalidating profile; c) Scores between 65-79, is someone who has a very deviant social, political, or religious convictions; d)if free of serious pathology is described as moody, affected, dissatisfied, opinionated, opportunistic
-	K Scale	a)may have tried to fake a good profile; b)may have responded false to most of the MMPI items; c)trying to give an appearance of adequacy, control, and effectiveness; d)lacks self-insight and self-understanding; e)scores < 50 may have responded true to most of the MMPI items; f)may have tried to fake a bad profile, as a plea for help; g)overly compliant; h)socially awkward

Table 2 (continued)  
MMPI Subscale Descriptions (Graham, 1977)

Scale #	Name	Characteristics of High Scorer (T > 70)
Clinical Scales		
1	Hypochondriasis (Hs)	a)has excessive bodily concern, b)is likely to have been given a neurotic diagnosis, c)is demanding and critical of others, d)ineffective in oral expression, and e)expresses hostility in indirect ways.
2	Depression (D)	a)feels blue, dysphoric, b)harbors guilt feelings, c)usually carries a depressive diagnosis, d)lacks self-confidence and e)maintains psychological distance (avoids interpersonal involvement).
3	Hysteria (Hy)	a)reacts to stress and avoids responsibility through development of physical symptoms, b)has symptoms which appear and disappear suddenly, c)lacks insight concerning own motives and feelings, d)is psychologically immature, childish, infantile, and e)is self-centered, narcissistic, and egocentric.
4	Psychopathic Deviate (Pd)	a)has difficulty in incorporating values and standards of society, b)engages in asocial or antisocial behavior, c)strives for immediate gratification of impulses, d)is unable to form warm attachments, and e)is hostile and aggressive.

Table 2 (continued)  
MMPI Subscale Descriptions (Graham, 1977)

Scale #	Name	Characteristics of High Scorer (T > 70)
Clinical Scales		
5	Masculinity -Femininity  (M-F)	a)is conflicted about his sexual identity, b)is insecure in the masculine role, c)is individualistic in approach to problems, d)is sociable and sensitive to others, e)has good self-control and acting out is rare.
6	Paranoia  (Pa)	a)may manifest psychotic behavior, b)is overly responsive to reactions of others, c)is hostile, resentful, argumentative, d) is moralistic and rigid, and e)does not like to talk about emotional problems.
7	Psychasthenia (Obsessive-Compulsive)  (Pt)	a)experiences psychic turmoil and discomfort, b)is introspective and ruminative, c)is self-critical, self-conscious, and self-derogatory, d)is dependent, and e)intellectualizes and rationalizes.
8	Schizophrenia  (Sc)	a)may manifest blatantly psychotic behavior, b)has unusual thoughts or attitudes; delusions, c)does not feel a part of social environment, d)has sexual preoccupation, and e)lacks basic information required for problem solving.

Table 2 (continued)  
MMPI Subscale Descriptions (Graham, 1977)

Scale #	Name	Characteristics of High Scorer (T > 70)
Clinical Scales		
9	Hypomania (Ma)	a) manifests excessive and/or purposeless activity, b) is energetic, talkative, c) has difficulty in inhibiting expression of impulses, d) exaggerates self-worth and self-importance, and e) is manipulative, deceptive, and unreliable.
0	Social Introversion (Si)	a) is more comfortable alone or with a few close friends, b) is uncomfortable around members of the opposite sex, c) lacks self-confidence, is self-effacing, d) is cautious and conventional, and e) is rigid and inflexible in attitudes and opinions.

on normal and abnormal adult populations are consistently reported as ranging from approximately .50 to .93 (Hathaway & McKinley, 1966; Anastasi, 1976)

The standard clinical criteria for normal range are T-scores between 50 and 70, and an acceptable L, F, K relationship. An acceptable L, F, K relationship has an elevation on the L scale between 40 and 50, the F scale between 55 and 65, and the K scale between 40 and 50 with slightly higher scores expected with a college population (Caldwell & O'Hare, 1974). The potential for serious psychopathology is considered if a large number of clinical subscales have T-scores greater than 70.

#### Exposure to Aggression Survey

The next section of the battery utilized the Exposure to Aggression Survey (Theiss, 1985). This survey was designed to ascertain the degree of exposure subjects had to aggressive and violent behaviors while growing up. The scale was first used on an undergraduate population (N=96) and resulted in a significant negative correlation with the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale ( $r = -.49$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Theiss, 1985). The first part of the scale consists of 19 statements that subjects are asked to rate as they relate to first their mothers and then their fathers. Following these 19 items, an additional 15 items require subjects to indicate their personal experience and participation with

aggressive behavior.

All of the statements relating to past experiences with aggression were answered using a 5-point Likert Scale, with "Never" and "Always" as the end points, and "Sometimes" as the mid-point.

#### Therapist Role Dimension Scales

A modified version of the Therapist Role Dimension Scales (Levy, 1984) was also included in this section. Originally this scale was designed to assess a therapist's feelings of authority and empathy when reviewing past cases. It was validated on a sample of 169 experienced therapists and resulted in high internal consistency (Empathy Scale  $\alpha = .886$ , Authority Scale  $\alpha = .895$ ; Levy, 1984). For the present study, the 16 empathy scale items were used to assess the subjects' perceptions of their mothers' empathy toward them. Subjects were then asked to assess their own empathic abilities using the same 16 item scale. The Empathy Scale items also used a 5-point response scale with "Not Much" and "Very Much" as the end points and "Somewhat" as the midpoint.

#### Coercive Sexuality Scale

The final part of the objective section of the battery utilized the Coercive Sexuality Scale (Rapaport & Burkhart, 1984). The CSS was standardized on 190 undergraduate males and resulted in an alpha coefficient of .96, indicating



high internal consistency. The first section of the CSS lists 11 heterosexual situations depicting varying degrees of coercion. The subjects are asked with what frequency they have engaged in that particular behavior. Following these 11 items, eight items are presented listing several coercive methods by which individuals might have initiated a sexual encounter. Subjects are also asked to indicate the frequency of their use of these behaviors. The subjects responded using a 4-point rating scale anchored by never, once or twice, several times, or often.

\*Likelihood to Rape Scale (LR scale)

The CSS was followed by the Likelihood to Rape Scale (Samuels, Turner, & Todd, 1984). The LR scale was standardized on a sample of 125 undergraduate males and attained an alpha coefficient of .724. It is a 10 item scale that assesses an individual's willingness to commit rape given particular situational determinants. Subjects are asked to indicate on a 5-point scale their level of agreement with each of the statements.

Thematic Apperception Test

Two T.A.T.-like cards were used to assess the subjects' perception/distortion of time and level of aggressivity. The first card showed a man and a woman sitting on a bench. The second card depicted a man and woman trapeze act (see Appendix A). A three step set of

instructions accompanied each of the pictures: 1) Who are the people? What has led up to the situation in the picture? 2) What is happening now? What are they feeling and thinking? 3) What happens next, what's the outcome? Space was provided to permit the subjects to write their responses directly on the answer sheet. In addition, subjects were directed to work rapidly using the previously mentioned instructions as a guideline, while not spending any more than five minutes on each of the stories. These cards have previously been used to differentiate men and women on the dimensions of aggression and affiliation (Gilligan, 1982).

The Thematic Apperception Test-like cards were included primarily for two reasons. First, they provided a measure of an individual's propensity to perceive hostility in ambiguous situations. Second, because the stories could be analyzed along the dimension of time, this measure allowed tapping the variable of time perception. To permit comparative analyses, a coding system had to be developed, and a description of this system follows.

Forty stories were reviewed; from the responses to them, five dimensions were defined as being potentially relevant to rape proclivity. These dimensions were: time perception, degree of enrichment, relationship between characters, level of aggression, and overall outcome.

Following the defining of these dimensions, 16 stories were selected, and a research assistant was trained in the scoring procedure. When the percent agreement between experimenter and research assistant scores reached a criterion of at least 75.0% on all dimensions, an additional 70 stories were selected and scored independently to assess actual reliability. The independent scoring resulted in agreement percentages ranging from 47.2% to 90.3% (see Table 3). After establishing the reliability of the coding system, the remaining 210 stories were coded on the 5 dimensions.

A brief description of each of the dimensions follows; scoring criteria and sample responses are presented in Table 4.

Time Perception: This variable assessed the implied duration of the events significant to the central action within the storyline. Events considered important could occur in the distant or immediate past, or the distant or immediate future, as well as at the moment depicted in the drawing.

Degree of Enrichment: This variable assessed the extent to which the stories described the characters' personality and affect in relation to the event depicted in the card. This dimension also provided some evidence as to how involved the subject became with the characters in each

Table 3  
Percentage Agreement on Projective Rating Task  
(Training = 32 stories)

Variable	Time	Enrich.	Relation.	Aggress.	Outcome
Story A	87.5	75.0	87.5	75.0	62.5
Story B	75.0	75.0	100	87.5	87.5
Average	81.3	75.0	93.8	81.3	75.0

Table 3 (continued)

## Percentage Agreement on Projective Rating Task

(N = 70 stories)

Variable	Time	Enrich.	Relation.	Aggress.	Outcome
Story A	52.8	47.2	91.7	77.8	61.1
Story B	72.2	47.2	88.9	97.2	86.1
Average	62.5	47.2	90.3	87.5	73.6

of the cards.

Relationship between Characters: This variable identified the type of relationship between the characters described in the stories.

Level of Aggression: This variable was an indicator of the extent to which the story used violent or aggressive behavior as a vehicle for connecting story parts together.

Overall Outcome: For this dimension, the stories were evaluated as to whether there was a positive or negative outcome to the story. The sense of mastery, in terms of achieving a goal, was viewed as an important component of this variable.



Table 4 (continued)  
Projective Variables with Coding Criteria

Variable		
Scoring Code	Scoring Criteria	Example
Relationship between Characters		
4-Friends or Partners	Self-evident	(Picture B) "The people are two trapeze-artists in the circus. The man has just caught the woman trapeze-artist./ They are happy that they were successful in the catch./ They keep on swinging until he places her back on the resting platform."
5-Strangers /Relationship not specified	Self-evident	(Picture A) "These people are alcoholics. The bars have just closed & they have ended up together because of their mutual friend alcohol./ They are both passed-out stone drunk and aren't thinking much [at] all/ They wake up hung-over & the guy goes out to continue the binge & the lady disappears."

Table 4 (continued)  
Projective Variables with Coding Criteria

Variable		
Scoring Code	Scoring Criteria	Example
<u>Level of Aggression</u>		
1-Little	little or no aggressive action or negative(hostile) word usage	(Picture B) "The people [in] this picture are a famous husband and wife trapeze act who perform for a large circus. They are presently executing a very difficult [maneuver] that was never tried before in front of a large audience./ They feel and think about nothing except the mechanics of the jump. Indeed, time seems to slow down and all their [bodies'] senses are tuned to the hands where they meet./ The [maneuver] has worked, the [audience] is thrilled and gives huge applause. The husband and wife sail safely to the platform, embrace, and carefully bow to the [audience] below."

Table 4 (continued)  
Projective Variables with Coding Criteria

Variable		
Scoring Code	Scoring Criteria	Example
Level of Aggression		
2-Moderate	negative word usage in no more than 2 sections <u>or</u> aggressive action in 1 section	(Picture A) "The man has lost his job and is totally devastated devastated. He doesn't know where to turn or what to do. The woman, his wife, was told about what had [occurred] during the day./ The man is contemplating the future, making plans. Desperately seeking a solution. The woman is crying wondering how she will feed her children with no money for food./ The woman will go out to find a job and her husband will leave her and the children."
3-High	negative word usage is present throughout entire story of hostile/ aggressive action action is described in at least 2 sections	(Picture A) "The Smiths, they have just found out that the [baby-sitter] they hired has killed their 6 yr. old son. The [baby-sitter] stabbed & left the child there and the parents have been at the hospital until they had just heard/

Table 4 (continued)  
Projective Variables with Coding Criteria

Variable		
Scoring Code	Scoring Criteria	Example
Level of Aggression		
		<p>They are sitting alone, reflecting about their son. They are both feeling a tremendous amount of guilt as they each blame themselves for the whole incident. They are both in shock./ Mrs. Smith has a nervous breakdown and ends up in a mental institute, then has an affair w/her doctor. Mr. Smith hunts down the [baby-sitter] for 3 years, then finds her &amp; kills her. He [goes] to jail for life."</p>
<u>Overall Outcome</u>		
1-Tragic	tragic ending and/or an implied sense of hopelessness or a repetitive negative cycle	(Picture B) "This is a father and daughter team that have grown up together being very close and have always done things together. The mother has probably died and the two have tried to forget the loss and

Table 4 (continued)  
Projective Variables with Coding Criteria

Variable		
Scoring Code	Scoring Criteria	Example
Overall Outcome		<p>have decided to occupy their time by doing something mentally challenging and physically risky/ The daughter is being [thrown] through air to her father's waiting arms to complete their longingness for each other and assured safety. They [are] at the point that they touch [&amp;] feel [tremendously] relieved and together, and yet not whole without their mother./ Something unexpected happens with the apparatus and equipment, and they fall plunging to their death together. [Sharing] both come [plummeting] to their death they have attained a deep desire to be once more reunited with their mother and wife in another place."</p>

Table 4 (continued)  
Projective Variables with Coding Criteria

Variable		
Scoring Code	Scoring Criteria	Example
Overall Outcome		
2-Status quo	no major changes; the outcome is neutral or unclear	(Picture B) "These people are circus performers. They're performing their act./ They're going to perform some stunt. I think the girl is feeling that she must trust the man greatly. The man is thinking that he must perform perfectly if the woman is not to be hurt./ They do the stunt with no problem and the show continues."
3-Positive	either a return to a previous level or a major improvement	(Picture B) "The two are the greatest man-woman team of the Barnum & Bailey Flying Circus Trapeze Act./ She has just released herself from the other swing. She's really scared because she's about to attempt 5 flips, which she has never done before live./ She completes the five flips but misses her swing, fortunately there is a net to catch her."



Table 4 (continued)  
Projective Variables with Coding Criteria

Variable		
Scoring Code	Scoring Criteria	Example
Overall Outcome		
4-Ambivalent Position	both positive and negative outcomes successfully integrated	(Picture A) "They are husband and wife. The Husband has gotten [laid] off from his job and he is very depressed./ The Husband is wondering about what he is going to do. He is very Depressed. He feels like a failure. The woman tries to comfort him, but can't hold back her sadness and cries./ The man goes out finds a job, takes a cut in pay, but they manage to get by together."

Note: Examples appear as reported; brackets indicate corrected misspellings; grammatical errors are those of the subjects.

## C H A P T E R 1 1 1

### Results

This chapter presents findings which explore the historical and personological variables as they relate to rape proclivity. The major hypotheses advanced in the previous chapter are tested and further explorations of the data are carried out. Significance tests take the form of Pearson Product-Moment correlations with additional analyses in the forms of analyses of variance and Chi-square tests.

Reliability statistics are included for the MMP1 subscales, the Exposure to Aggression Survey (including a parental gender subscale and a personal exposure subscale), the Therapist Role Dimension Scale, the Coercive Sexuality Scale, and the Likelihood to Rape Scale. More in depth statistics are included for the LR scale to permit further scrutiny of the scale's properties.

#### Likelihood to Rape Scale (LR Scale): Analyses of Structural Fidelity

Descriptive data on the Likelihood to Rape Scale are presented in Table 5. Two distributions of note are for

Table 5  
Frequency Distribution for Likelihood to Rape Scale

Item	N	Response Categories				
		1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neither Agree or Disagree	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
#102- Most women secretly desire to be raped						
	N=139					
	Freq.	95	18	14	5	7
	(%)	67.9	13.6	10.0	3.5	5.0
#103- Women provoke rape by their appearance and behavior						
	N=139					
	Freq.	53	36	15	33	2
	(%)	38.1	25.9	10.8	23.7	1.4
#104- Rape of a woman by a man she knows can be defined as a "woman who changed her mind afterward						
	N=140					
	Freq.	77	27	22	11	3
	(%)	55.0	19.3	15.7	7.9	2.1
#105- In order to protect the male, it should be difficult to prove that a rape has occurred						
	N=140					
	Freq.	71	35	20	12	2
	(%)	50.7	25.0	14.3	8.6	1.4

Table 5 (continued)  
Frequency Distribution for Likelihood to Rape Scale

Item	N	Response Categories				
		1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neither Agree or Disagree	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
<hr/>						
#106- It would do some women good to get raped						
N=140						
	Freq.	104	13	9	8	6
	(%)	74.3	9.3	6.4	5.7	4.3
<hr/>						
#107- Rape is never justified, under any circumstances						
N=140						
	Freq.	12	8	10	7	103
	(%)	8.6	5.7	7.1	5.0	73.6
<hr/>						
#108- Rape is often committed by intelligent men						
N=140						
	Freq.	22	21	49	32	16
	(%)	15.7	15.0	35.0	22.9	11.4
<hr/>						
#109- Most men fantasize raping						
N=140						
	Freq.	21	27	42	38	12
	(%)	15.0	19.3	30.0	27.1	8.6

Table 5 (continued)  
Frequency Distribution for Likelihood to Rape Scale

Item	N	Response Categories				
		1 Not Likely At All	2 A Little Likely	3 Somewhat Likely	4 Very Likely	5 Highly Likely

\* #110- If they could be assured of  
not being punished, more  
men would rape

N=139

Freq.	13	31	31	39	25
(%)	9.4	22.3	22.3	28.1	18.0

\* #111- If I could be assured of  
not being punished, I  
might rape

N=137

Freq.	97	17	12	6	5
(%)	70.8	12.4	8.8	4.4	3.6

Note: Ns less than 140 indicate missing data. Percentages are adjusted accordingly.

items #110 and #111. [The distribution for #110 ("If they could be assured of not being punished, more men would rape") indicates that approximately 90% of the sample believed that other men would be likely to rape if they were assured of not being punished (67.8% answered 3-Somewhat likely, or higher).] The distribution for #111 ("If I could be assured of not being punished, I might rape"), indicates that approximately 30% of the sample were willing to report a personal propensity to rape if they were assured of not being punished (16.4% indicated a 3-Somewhat likely or higher).]

Table 6 shows the inter-item correlation matrix for the LR scale. The mean was .240. Table 7 presents the item-to-total correlations, correcting for the individual items. Correlations ranged from .118 to .648, with 5 items attaining correlations greater than .516. The Cronbach Alpha for the LR scale was .748. The LR scale mean was 21.5, with a standard deviation of 6.49.

To facilitate further analyses, a LR scale score was calculated for each subject by totalling their responses on the 10 LR items. A frequency distribution then was established. This distribution was divided into groups consisting of approximately 1/3 of the sample: the Low LR group (31.4% of the sample) attained scale scores of less than 18; the Moderate LR group (37.9% of the sample) had



Table 6  
Inter-item Correlation Matrix for the  
Likelihood to Rape Scale

ITEMS#	102	103	104	105	106	107	108	109	110
102	....								
103	*** .533	....							
104	*** .468	*** .464	....						
105	*** .456	*** .423	*** .422	....					
106	*** .518	*** .384	*** .600	*** .392	....				
107	*** .256	*** .059	*** .290	*** .165	*** .275	....			
108	** .219	*** .115	* .004	*** .117	*** -.029	*** .035	....		
109	* .174	*** .373	* .204	*** .120	*** .163	*** -.069	*** .030	....	
110	*** .179	*** .329	*** .062	*** .093	*** .069	*** -.157	*** .103	*** .340	....
111	*** .399	*** .337	*** .398	*** .263	*** .343	*** .078	*** .036	*** .336	*** .412

\*p < .05

\*\*p < .01

\*\*\*p < .001

Table 7  
Reliability Statistics for the  
Likelihood to Rape Scale

Item #	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Item-Total Correlation (corrected)
102	1.629	1.127	.648
103	2.229	1.243	.604
104	1.829	1.092	.578
105	1.850	1.052	.480
106	1.564	1.114	.533
107	1.707	1.316	.163
108	2.993	1.214	.118
109	2.950	1.189	.321
110	3.207	1.272	.269
111	1.543	1.075	.517

Scale M = 21.5

Scale SD = 6.49

Cronbach's Alpha = .748      Standardized Alpha = .759

scale scores ranging between 18 and 23 inclusive, and the High LR group (30.7% of the sample) had scores greater than 23.

#### Likelihood to Rape Scale (LR Scale): Analysis of Validity Data

To establish the psychometric properties of the criterion measures (Wiggins, 1977), alpha coefficients were computed for the MMPI scales as well as the Historical measures. The scale alphas for the MMPI ranged from .229 to .656. The Historical scale alphas ranged from .697 to .886. (see Tables 8 and 9, respectively).

#### Personality Inventory

The MMPI can be used to produce profiles based on the group means for each of the three groups (Low, Medium, and High scorers). To do this, group means for each scale were calculated, and then each of the subscale means was prorated based on the longer version of the MMPI (MMPI-566). This adjustment (proration) was done to allow comparisons with previous research findings. Prorating involved multiplying the group mean by the number of items in that scale on the MMPI-566 divided by the number of items in that scale on the MMPI-168. An example follows using the L Scale score of the Low LR group:

Table 8  
Reliability Statistics for MMPI-168 Scale

Scale	N	# of items	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Cronbach's Alpha
L Scale	140	11	2.464	1.349	.229
F Scale	140	32	4.414	2.943	.613
K Scale	140	12	5.786	1.861	.302
Hs Scale	140	23	4.564	2.723	.636
D Scale	140	41	13.443	4.461	.656
Hy Scale	140	36	9.579	2.997	.378
Pd Scale	140	28	10.443	3.535	.615
M-F Scale	140	30	12.643	3.028	.415
Pa Scale	140	19	5.000	1.870	.315
Pt Scale	140	18	6.579	3.281	.721
Sc Scale	140	28	7.521	3.783	.709
Ma Scale	140	23	10.929	2.627	.307
Si Scale	140	16	6.343	2.440	.445

Table 9  
Reliability Statistics for Historical Scales

Scale	N	# of items	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Cronbach's Alpha
EmpMoth	140	16	66.550	9.532	.869
EmpSelf	140	16	63.650	7.420	.760
AggMoth	140	19	42.243	8.620	.776
AggFath	140	19	45.121	11.078	.859
AggExpos	140	38	87.364	17.584	.886
AggSelf	140	12	24.814	4.859	.697
CS Scale	140	19	23.271	5.195	.874
LR Scale	140	10	21.500	6.490	.748

Prorated Mean L Scale for Low LR group

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \text{Group Mean} \times \# \text{ of items MMPI-566(L Scale)} \\
 &= (2.250) \times \frac{\# \text{ of items MMPI-168(L Scale)}}{11} \\
 &= 3.067
 \end{aligned}$$

This procedure was used on all groups. Following the prorating calculations, K corrections were added to the appropriate scales (Graham, 1977; Hathaway & McKinley, 1966). T-scores were then established on the resulting totals using standard T-score conversion charts (Hathaway & McKinley, 1966; Lachar, 1974). The prorated means and T-scores are presented in Table 10.

The L, F, and K configuration for all three groups indicate that each had produced a valid profile, so that further interpretation of the data could be made (Lachar, 1974; Graham, 1977).

The profiles for each group were as follows: the Low LR group profile was 8697541203-FK/L; the Medium LR group profile was 8697452103-F/KL; and the High LR group profile was 8697412503-F/KL. The scales are presented ordered from the highest T-score to the lowest. The underline indicates that the T-scores were within 1 point of each other and the slash (/) indicates that 10 or more points separated the T-scores. An interesting finding is that the highest 4 scales, the lowest 2 scales and the L, F, and K pattern

Table 10  
MMPI Profiles

(Group Means prorated based on MMPI-566)

Scale	Group	N	<u>M</u>	Prorated	+K	Total	T-Score
L Scale	Low	44	2.250	3.067	-	3.067	46
	Med	53	2.000	2.726	-	2.726	45
	High	43	1.861	2.537	-	2.537	44
F Scale	Low	44	3.341	6.682	-	6.682	60
	Med	53	4.377	8.754	-	8.754	63
	High	43	5.558	11.120	-	11.120	68
K Scale	Low	44	6.500	16.250	-	16.250	57
	Med	53	5.377	13.443	-	13.443	51
	High	43	5.558	13.895	-	13.895	53
Hs Scale	Low	44	3.705	5.317	8.125	13.442	54
(+ .5K)	Med	53	4.491	6.445	6.722	13.167	54
	High	43	5.535	7.943	6.948	14.891	59
D Scale	Low	44	12.432	18.188	-	18.188	53
	Med	53	13.868	20.289	-	20.289	58
	High	43	13.954	20.415	-	20.415	58



Table 10  
MMPI Profiles  
(Group Means prorated based on MMPI-566)

Scale	Group	N	<u>M</u>	Prorated	+K	Total	T Score
Hy Scale	Low	44	9.796	16.330	-	16.330	49
	Med	53	9.132	15.223	-	15.223	46
	High	43	9.907	16.515	-	16.515	50
Pd Scale (+ .4K)	Low	44	9.500	16.967	6.500	23.467	60
	Med	53	10.491	18.737	5.377	24.114	62
	High	43	11.349	20.269	5.560	26.769	66
M-F Scale	Low	44	13.523	27.046	-	27.046	63
	Med	53	12.472	24.944	-	24.944	59
	High	43	11.954	23.908	-	23.908	56
Pa Scale	Low	44	4.682	14.786	-	14.786	68
	Med	53	5.057	15.970	-	15.970	71
	High	43	5.256	16.598	-	16.598	73
Pt Scale (+ 1K)	Low	44	5.523	14.730	16.250	30.980	66
	Med	53	6.679	17.813	13.443	31.256	66
	High	43	7.163	19.104	13.895	32.999	71

Table 10  
MMPI Profiles  
(Group Means prorated based on MMPI-566)

Scale	Group	N	<u>M</u>	Prorated	+K	Total	T Score
Sc Scale (+ 1K)	Low	44	6.000	16.716	16.250	32.966	71
	Med	53	7.491	20.870	13.443	34.313	73
	High	43	9.116	25.397	13.895	39.292	82
Ma Scale (+ .2K)	Low	44	10.455	20.910	3.250	24.160	68
	Med	53	10.642	21.284	2.689	23.973	68
	High	43	11.767	23.534	2.790	26.324	73
Si Scale	Low	44	5.909	25.852	-	25.852	51
	Med	53	6.660	29.138	-	29.138	54
	High	43	6.395	27.978	-	27.978	53

were similar for all three groups. However, only the High LR group had its highest 4 scales all attaining T-scores above 70, with scale 8 (Sc scale) attaining a T-score of 82. A graphic representation of the Low LR group and the High LR group profiles is presented in Figure 1. Forty percent of the clinical scales of the High LR group attained T-scores above 70, whereas only 20% of the Medium group and 10% of the Low LR group had scales elevated above 70. The T-scores on the lowest two scales (scales 0 and 3) were separated by 3 and 4 points, respectively, across all three groups.

The comparison between the LR and the MMPI scales utilized Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficients. Results indicated significant correlations on 6 of the 10 clinical scales. The significant clinical scales were Schizophrenia, at  $p < .001$  and Hypochondriasis, at  $p < .01$ , with Psychopathic Deviance, Masculinity, Psychasthenia, and Hypomania all attaining significance at  $p < .05$ . The validity measure F scale attained significance at  $p < .001$ , and the K scale attained a significant negative correlation at the  $p < .05$  level. The LR scale did not significantly correlate with the validity scale L ( $r = -.1333$  at  $p < .116$ ). These results are presented in Table 11.

One-way Analyses of Variance testing differences between the three LR groups were then conducted using each

Figure 1

## MMPI PROFILES

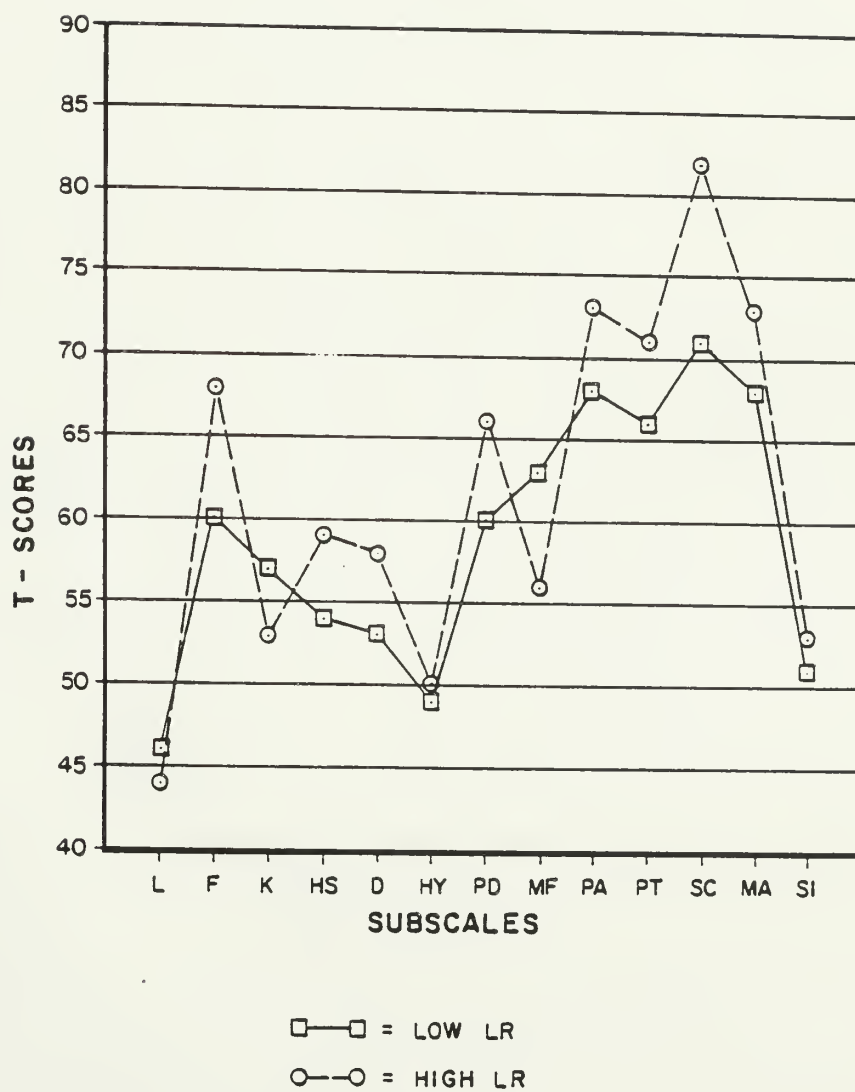


Table 11  
 Pearson Correlations for Likelihood to Rape Scale with  
 MMPI Scales

Variable	N	<u>r</u>	Significance Level ( <u>p</u> <)
L Scale	140	-.1333	.116
F Scale	140	.3311	.000
K Scale	140	-.2037	.016
Hs Scale	140	.2469	.003
D Scale	140	.1061	.212
Hy Scale	140	.0146	.864
Pd Scale	140	.1888	.025
M-F Scale	140	-.1951	.021
Pa Scale	140	.0729	.392
Pt Scale	140	.1662	.050
Sc Scale	140	.2973	.000
Ma Scale	140	.1840	.030
Si Scale	140	.0781	.359

of the MMPI subscales. The Newman-Keuls procedure was used to assess which group pairings accounted for the significance indicated. The weighted average group N (i.e.,  $N = 46.289$ ) was placed in the equation since equal group sizes were not feasible in this study. Results from these analyses are presented in Table 12.

Significant differences were found between the Low LR group and the High LR group on all of the six clinical scales, as was suggested by the Pearson analyses (i.e., Hs, Pd, M-F, Pt, Sc, and Ma). The Medium LR group showed significant differences from the High LR group on the Schizophrenia (Sc) and the Hypomania (Ma) scales and the Low LR and the Medium LR groups differed significantly only on the K validity scale.

#### Analyses of Historical Measures

A series of analyses was conducted to explore the relationship between reported Likelihood to Rape and various historical variables. Pearson Product-Moment correlations were used for the initial comparisons with the LR scale. These findings are reported in Table 13.

The historical scale measuring perceived maternal empathy (EmpMoth) failed to attain significance producing a correlation of .0112 at  $p < .895$ . However, the scale measuring personal empathy (EmpSelf) was significant at

Table 12

Student-Newman-Keuls Procedure for LR Scale  
with MMPI Scales

Scale	N	Group	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Q(ab)	Q(bc)	Q(ac)
L Scale	46.289	Low	2.250	1.572	1.168	.650	1.818
		Med.	2.000	1.387			
		High	1.861	1.407			
F Scale	46.289	Low	3.341	2.045	2.490	2.839	5.329**
		Med.	4.377	3.040			
		High	5.558	3.224			
K Scale	46.289	Low	6.500	2.180	4.222**	.680	3.541**
		Med.	5.377	1.678			
		High	5.558	1.517			
Hs Scale	46.289	Low	3.705	2.388	2.026	2.691	4.716**
		Med.	4.491	2.628			
		High	5.535	2.898			
D Scale	46.289	Low	12.432	3.763	2.199	.132	2.331
		Med.	13.868	4.792			
		High	13.954	4.624			



Table 12

Student-Newman-Keuls Procedure for LR Scale  
with MMPI Scales

Scale	N	Group	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Q(ab)	Q(bc)	Q(ac)
Hy Scale	46.289	Low	9.796	2.108	1.506	1.757	.252
		Med.	9.132	3.363			
		High	9.907	3.279			
Pd Scale	46.289	Low	9.500	3.434	1.936	1.676	3.611**
		Med.	10.491	3.451			
		High	11.349	3.572			
M-F Scale	46.289	Low	13.523	3.605	2.400	1.183	3.582**
		Med.	12.472	2.792			
		High	11.954	2.459			
Pa Scale	46.289	Low	4.682	1.814	1.364	.724	2.087
		Med.	5.057	1.834			
		High	5.256	1.965			
Pt Scale	46.289	Low	5.523	3.031	2.552	1.068	3.620**
		Med.	6.679	3.024			
		High	7.163	3.199			

Table 12

Student-Newman-Keuls Procedure for LR Scale  
with MMPI Scales

Scale	N	Group	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Q(ab)	Q(bc)	Q(ac)
Sc Scale	46.289	Low	6.000	3.396	2.819	3.072*	5.890**
		Med.	7.491	3.566			
		High	9.116	3.843			
Ma Scale	46.289	Low	10.455	2.583	.492	2.961*	3.453**
		Med.	10.642	2.403			
		High	11.767	2.793			
Si Scale	46.289	Low	5.909	2.429	2.098	.740	1.358
		Med.	6.660	2.616			
		High	6.395	2.205			

N = the weighted average group N

\*p < .05

\*\*p < .01

Table 13  
Pearson Correlations for Likelihood to Rape Scale with  
Historical Variables

Variable	N	$r$	Significance Level ( $p <$ )
EmpMoth	140	.0112	.895
EmpSelf	140	-.2822	.001
AggMoth	140	-.0298	.734
AggFath	140	-.0974	.252
AggExpos	140	-.0756	.375
AggSelf	140	.3123	.000
CS Scale	140	.4131	.000

$p < .001$  with a correlation of  $-.2822$ .

The Exposure to Aggression Survey was subdivided into parental gender subscales (i.e., AggFath = perceived aggression experienced from father and AggMoth = perceived aggression experienced from mother). These separate subscales failed to produce any significant findings. The results for the AggMoth scale was  $r = -.0298$ ,  $p < .734$  and for the AggFath scale was  $r = -.0974$ ,  $p < .252$ . The overall exposure to aggression measure (AggExpos) also failed to attain significance, with  $r = -.0756$ ,  $p < .375$ . However, when individual items were correlated with the LR scale, five items from the AggMoth and AggFath subscales did correlate significantly. These were the items measuring maternal punishment (#39), mother's physical display of affection (#51), father's aggression toward inanimate objects (#56), mother's failing to punish, when punishment was deserved (#67), and father's failing to punish, when punishment was deserved (#68). (See Table 14)

The only subscale of the Exposure to Aggression Survey to attain significance was the personal use of aggression scale (AggSelf),  $r = .3123$ ,  $p < .001$ .

The final historical measure entered into the analyses was the Coercive Sexuality Scale (CS Scale). This variable produced the largest significant correlation with the LR Scale,  $r = .4131$ ,  $p < .001$ .

Table 14  
 Significant Pearson Correlations for Likelihood to Rape  
 Scale with Individual Items from  
 Exposure to Aggression Scale

Item#	N	<u>r</u>	Significance Level ( <u>p</u> <)
#39	140	.2641	.002
#51	140	-.1916	.023
#56	140	.1741	.041
#67	140	-.1752	.038
#68	140	-.1892	.026

One-way Analyses of Variance statistics were followed, where appropriate, by the Newman-Keuls procedure. The weighted average group N (i.e.,  $N = 46.289$ ) was again placed in the equation during calculations. Results from these analyses are presented in Table 15. As would be expected, significant differences were found between the Low LR group and the High LR group on all three of the scales identified as significantly associated with Likelihood to Rape through the Pearson analyses (i.e., EmpSelf, AggSelf, and CS scale). The Medium LR group showed a significant difference from the High LR group only on the Coercive Sexuality scale. The Low LR and the Medium LR groups failed to differ significantly on any of the historical measures.

#### Analyses of Projective Measures

With respect to the projective measure, as was reported earlier, the five dimensions (time perception, degree of enrichment, relationship between characters, level of aggression, and overall outcome) were scored based on the responses to the projective stimulus. Each of the analyses considered responses to the pictures separately in order to determine if one stimulus produced more consistent results or results of a particular type (Gilligan, 1982). The frequency distributions for these variables are

Table 15

Student-Newman-Keuls Procedure for LR Scale  
with Historical Scales

Scale	N	Group	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Q(ab)	Q(bc)	Q(ac)
EmpMoth	46.289	Low	66.705	10.802	.513	.789	.275
		Med.	65.981	10.135			
		High	67.093	7.306			
EmpSelf	46.289	Low	69.977	8.606	1.81	1.84	3.65**
		Med.	67.906	7.188			
		High	65.791	7.677			
AggMoth	46.289	Low	42.477	9.209	.463	.435	.027
		Med.	41.887	7.387			
		High	42.442	9.553			
AggFath	46.289	Low	45.568	10.656	.381	1.74	1.36
		Med.	46.189	12.161			
		High	43.349	10.095			
AggExpos	46.289	Low	88.046	18.100	.012	.879	.868
		Med.	88.076	17.215			
		High	85.791	17.815			



Table 15

Student-Newman-Keuls Procedure for LR Scale  
with Historical Scales

Scale	N	Group	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Q(ab)	Q(bc)	Q(ac)
AggSelf	46.289	Low	23.136	4.180	2.30	2.81	5.10**
		Med.	24.717	4.330			
		High	26.651	5.533			
CS Scale	46.289	Low	21.568	3.245	.750	6.24**	6.99**
		Med.	22.094	3.460			
		High	26.465	6.964			

N = the weighted average group N

\*p < .05

\*\*p < .01

presented in Appendix B. The dimensions of degree of enrichment and level of aggression were the only continuous measures, which enabled Pearson correlations to be used for comparisons with Likelihood to Rape. The remaining dimensions of time perception, relationship between characters, and overall outcome were compared using Chi-square analyses.

The results of the Pearson Product-Moment statistics comparing the dimensions of degree of enrichment and level of aggression with the LR scale produced only one significant relationship: the level of aggression coded on Story A correlated significantly with the LR scale ( $r = .2198$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The degree of enrichment variable and the level of aggression coded on story A failed to attain significance; see Table 16.

Chi-Square analyses only indicated significance between the LR scale and the measure of the relationship between characters on Story B, with a Cramer's V of .2653 ( $p < .05$ ). The other categorical variables (i.e., time perception, overall outcome), as well as the relationship between characters on story B, failed to attain significance. These results are presented in Table 17.

Table 16  
 Pearson Correlations for Likelihood to Rape Scale with  
 Projective Variables

Variable	N	<u>r</u>	Significance Level ( <u>p</u> <)
Degree of Enrichment (Story A)	140	.0416	.625
Degree of Enrichment (Story B)	139	.0826	.333
Level of Aggression (Story A)	140	.2198	.009
Level of Aggression (Story B)	139	-.0228	.790

Table 17  
Chi-Square Analyses Relating the Likelihood to Rape  
Scale with Projective Nominal Variables

Variable	df	Cramer's V	Significance
Time Perception (Story A)	4	.1039	.554
Time Perception (Story B)	4	.0506	.950
Relationship between Characters (Story A)	8	.1777	.356
Relationship between Characters (Story B)	8	.2653	.012
Overall Outcome (Story A)	6	.0506	.198
Overall Outcome (Story B)	6	.1565	.339

## CHAPTER IV

### Discussion

The central argument developed in the first chapter established the importance of several critical factors related to aggression in general, and sexual aggression in particular to the incidence of rape. Gender differences in perceptions of societal norms, differences in early socialization, and differences in early heterosexual interactions were all presented as possible explanations for the high incidence of sexual abuse and rape. Most of the systematic approaches to understanding sexual victimization from the aggressor's perspective dealt primarily with convicted individuals who were in penal or psychiatric facilities. The original research regarding self-reported rape proclivity, began to provide an avenue for assessing a variety of historical and personality variables in a non-institutionalized population. Even though these individuals were non-institutionalized, the opinions they expressed indicated a willingness to behave in a manner very similar to their institutionalized counterparts. This similarity permitted the exploration of many aspects of rape proclivity using a more readily accessible population.

The hypotheses advanced at the end of the first chapter proposed a) that a significant number of college-aged males will self-report some likelihood to rape, b) MMPI measures of psychopathic deviance, schizophrenia, and depression will correlate highly with elevated LR Scale scores, c) historical measures will demonstrate decreased experience of maternal empathy, and increased experience of aggression and coercive sexuality for males with elevated LR scores, and d) time distortion will also correlate significantly with LR as well as other measures of aggression and coercive sexuality.

#### Likelihood to Rape Scale (LR Scale)

The ability of a single question to identify a population of men willing to report a likelihood to rape has already been documented (Malamuth, Haber & Feshbach, 1983; Tieger, 1981). However, in only one previous study has a multi-item scale been designed to also identify this subpopulation in a form that more completely addresses the complexities associated with coercive sexual behavior (Samuels, Turner, & Todd, 1984). This same scale, the Likelihood to Rape Scale (LR Scale), was used in this dissertation, with strikingly similar results.

Based on the LR scale, a subpopulation of men was identified who indicated a likelihood to rape, if they were

assured of not being punished. Of the sample, 29% stated a personal propensity in response to the direct self-report item (#111). The social undesirability of this characteristic and varying definitions of rape may cause this self-report item to under-represent the number of individuals who hold these particular beliefs. The format of the analyses divided the LR scale distribution into thirds, placing 42 individuals into the high LR group (30.7% of sample).

The LR Scale was utilized to provide a broader measure of rape proclivity. Statistical procedures indicated the scale maintained a high level of internal consistency. On these grounds, the construct validity of the scale was tested assuming that individuals with a high likelihood to rape would also have experienced higher incidences of aggressive practices in their backgrounds. This assumption, and therefore the construct validity of the LR scale received support, as measured by the Coercive Sexuality Scale and the Aggressive Self subscale of the Exposure to Aggression Survey. The results of both of these measures, clearly indicated that High LR individuals not only perceived themselves as aggressive individuals but they have also participated in significantly more acts of coercive sexuality, as was predicted.



### Normalcy vs Psychopathology

The initial question raised by these findings is whether the LR Scale is selecting a subpopulation of normal males or, conversely, whether those individuals in the high LR group are actually psychologically disturbed on a number of dimensions. Results of the MMPI were useful in addressing this issue since a normal range criterion has previously been established (Caldwell & O'Hare, 1974; Graham, 1977; Lachar, 1974).

All three groups (i.e., Low LR, Med LR, and High LR) attained acceptable L, F, and K configurations, indicating that the profiles generated were valid. In terms of considering additional interpretations, the potential for severe psychopathology is suggested if a large number of clinical subscales have T-scores greater than 70.

For the Low LR group, only the scale for Schizophrenia (8) attained a T-score greater than 70, whereas for the High LR group the scale for Schizophrenia (8) was greater than 80 and the scales for Hypomania (9), Paranoia (6), and Psychasthenia (7) all attained T-scores greater than 70. The Med LR group had two scales with T-scores greater than 70. These were Schizophrenia and Paranoia. The result of 40% of the High LR group scales having T-scores which deviate from normal limits indicates a potential for severe psychological distress. This distress clearly may be

expressed in aberrant thought processes and/or behaviors.

Standard interpretation of MMPI results are based on viewing the elevations of each of the subscales within the context of one another. The most common systems of interpretation center around the scores attained on the two highest subscales. Both the Low LR group and the High LR group had 8-6/8-9 code types, that is scale 8 had the highest elevation with scales 6 and 9 having the second highest elevation. The Med group had a 8-6 code type, with scale 9 having the next highest elevation. Two clinical manuals describe individuals having a 8-6 profile below:

"Persons with the 68/86 code harbor intense feelings of inferiority and insecurity. They lack self-confidence and self-esteem, and they feel guilty about perceived failures. Withdrawal from everyday activities and emotional apathy are common, and suicidal ideation may be present. They are seriously deficient in social skills..."  
(Graham, 1977)

"...Expression of anger tends to come in brief and acute outbursts. It may involve dangerously assaultive behavior and the use of guns... There is a great deal of dependency-independency conflict... Sexuality tends to be confused. There is frequently a confusion of aggression with sexuality."(Caldwell & O'Hare, 1974)

Both manuals stated that as the elevations increased (i.e., the more the scores were above 70) the likelihood of fragmented, tangential, and circumstantial thought process also increased with the possible addition presence of bizarre thought content and overt psychotic behavior.

Individuals with an 8-9 code type are characterized below:

"Persons with the 89/98 code tend to be rather self-centered and infantile in their expectations of other people. They demand a great deal of attention and may become resentful and hostile when their demands are not met. Because they fear emotional involvement, they avoid close relationships, and tend to be socially withdrawn and isolated....also characterized as hyperactive and emotionally labile....They are unrealistic in self-appraisal..." (Graham, 1977)

"Patients with this profile are characterized by episodes during which they are seen as demanding, confused, hostile, hyperactive, panicky, and circumstantial...Paranoid ideation may be both persecutory and expansive...This profile is frequently associated with an identity crisis. This often includes some kind of sexual crisis and/or sexual rejection...These patients tend to show intense overreactions to normal rejection. This together with their tendency to be susceptible to sexual identity confusions is frequently combined. For example, they are often susceptible to homosexual panics because of overreactions to heterosexual rejections. They often show conflicts around aggressiveness and assertiveness relative to sexuality, although they may not actually be uptight about sex per se." (Caldwell & O'Hare, 1974)

The results indicate that all three groups have personality profiles similar to the ones described above, with the high LR group having those qualities to a significantly higher degree. The differences in degree on scales 8, 6, and 9 place the High LR group into the range of potential severe pathology, but are insufficient to completely explain the differences in their respective LR Scale scores.

Further analyses comparing the LR scale with the MMPI resulted in significant correlations on 6 of the 10 clinical scales and no significant correlations with the validity scales. The failure of the LR scale to correlate with the Lie scale of the MMPI (i.e., the L scale) supports the discriminant validity of the LR scale. The Schizophrenia (8) scale indicated the greatest significant correlation ( $p < .001$ ). The scales for Psychopathic Deviance (4), Masculinity (5), Psychasthenia (7), and Hypomania (9) were the remaining significantly correlated scales. These findings suggest that even though the profiles follow similar patterns across all three groups, significant differences do exist in the level of pathology indicated.

The Psychopathic Deviance scale is similar to the Schizophrenia scale in that it signifies a response pattern which endorses many unusual and non-standard opinions and beliefs. The Psychasthenia score compliments the overall profile since it represents anxiety and obsessive-compulsive difficulties, which are thought to indicate an "underlying interpersonal hostility that shuts other people out" (Caldwell & O'Hare, 1974). The Hypomania score as stated earlier represents a pressured internal state which can result in impulsive and aggressive actions. The significantly lower Masculinity score indicates higher

levels of conflict around the male sex-role.

The overall results of the One-way Analyses of Variance demonstrates that many college males report a number of unusual experiences (e.g., as measured by the Schizophrenia scale), however, a) this periodic reporting does not necessarily indicate high levels of psychopathology and b) when the reporting does fall outside of normal limits it may also be associated with other unusual or antisocial thoughts and behaviors.

In addition to the MMPI measurements, individuals were also asked to rate their personal perceptions of their empathic abilities (Therapy Role Dimension subscale-EmpSelf). The results suggest that High LR individuals perceive themselves as less empathic than Low LR individuals and given their responses to the MMPI, these judgments seem to be consistent, and probably accurate.

The results presented thus far closely reflect the theoretical profiles of individuals who would be expected to demonstrate higher levels of all types of aggression. The elevated Schizophrenia and Paranoia scores reflect individuals with unusual or idiosyncratic thought processes, who would have a higher probability of distorting the social parameters of a given situation. The low masculinity score indicates low self-esteem, low perceived control of authority position and increased

conflicts with masculine ideal. This pattern, combined with the rigidity associated with the elevated Psychasthenia score, increases the individual's readiness to perceive threats and violations of his authority. The higher level of Hypomania also increases the likelihood of impulsive action without full consideration of the consequences to oneself or to others (i.e., a lack of empathy).

#### Personal History and LR

The measures used to assess levels of maternal empathy, previous exposure to aggression, past participation in general aggressive behaviors, and participation in sexually aggressive behaviors provided some interesting findings.

In terms of perception of maternal empathy and general exposure to aggression (specifically in the home), the low LR and high LR groups failed to demonstrate any significant scale differences. However, closer inspection of individual items revealed significant differences. High LR individuals perceived their mothers as punishing them more frequently and displaying less physical affection towards them. High LR individuals also reported viewing significantly more instances of their fathers using physical force on inanimate objects. In contrast the Low



LR group reported a significantly greater frequency of instances when their mothers, as well as their fathers, failed to punish them when they deserved punishment.

As individuals, the High LR group reported much more frequent use of aggressive behavior in general (i.e., as measured on the AggSelf scale), as well as many more incidents where aggression was utilized within a sexual context (i.e., as measured on the Coercive Sexuality Scale-CS scale). These results are very consistent with the attitudes indicated on the LR scale, providing additional support for the construct validity of the LR scale.

In light of the earlier reports of increased frequency of maternal punishment, the question of whether the level of punishment was perceived as normative should be raised. A child may perceive the use of physical force by the fathers during an argument with the mother as a response to an earlier transgression by the mother (i.e., her punishment of the child). Viewing the father's behavior not only validates the appropriateness of using aggressive responses in general, but may also provide environmental cues which legitimize the use of aggression in other situations (i.e., heterosexual interactions).

The projective measure primarily provided information on how the Low and High LR groups differed in their perceptions of ambiguous heterosexual interactions. The



level of aggression variable was only able to distinguish between High and Low LR individuals in regards to the first picture (man and woman on bench). The lack of environmental clues implying anything about their relationship increased the ambiguity of the context, and the High LR individuals demonstrated a greater tendency to view such situations as more adversarial and hostile. However, the stimulus for picture B (man and woman on a trapeze) provided enough cues to decrease the level of aggression perceived by the High LR individuals. A group difference in perceptions only occurred in the area of how the relationship was defined in the second picture. High LR subjects were more likely to define the pictured relationship in less intimate terms, for instance perceiving the individuals as partners more often than as relatives.

The dimension of time perception failed to distinguish between high and low groups. There is still sufficient evidence theoretically (Melges & Harris, 1970; Tedeschi, Gaes, & Rivera, 1977) to indicate that the variable of time is both relevant and important in this context, but results of this study suggest some refinement of the time measure may be necessary to distill differences in terms of rape proclivity.

The projective findings clearly indicate that High LR individuals perceive aggression in ambiguous social situations and are likely to diminish the level of intimacy between two individuals who are clearly in a relationship. Both of these perspectives could easily increase the tendency of High LR individuals to base their actions on an idiosyncratic and even erroneous definition of the situation.

#### Limitations

Prior to proposing integrative conclusions, some of the limitations of the study need to be delineated. The first one considered should be the sample. The sample characteristics indicated a very homogenous group, primarily in terms of age, religion, ethnicity, and education. An increased diversity in the sampling strategy might have increased the variance on these variables; however, since the subject recruitment took place on a college campus the increase probably would not have been sufficient to significantly improve the generalizability of the findings.

The format of having all measures require a paper and pencil response also limits the type of information collected. The addition of, for instance, an observed heterosexual interaction in several variations

(i.e., dyadic, group, informal, etc.) would enable another level of analysis to be conducted with the likelihood to rape scale.

Another limitation is one common to all studies using measures designed to predict behaviors that are not sanctioned by our society. There is an obvious inability to verify the accuracy of a measure's predictive capacity without permitting an illegal act to occur. Possibly, if a large enough sample were utilized, a follow-up study several years later might provide some information of this type.

The final issue is not so much a limitation as it is an interesting question; unfortunately, it cannot be addressed with the current format of the instrument. If even professionals in the legal, medical, and psychological fields have difficulties presenting a consistent definition of what rape is, what are the definitions being used by the subjects represented here? The study, as it was designed, failed to provide information regarding what image the respondents were using when they were defining a situation as rape, and what image they were picturing when they indicated their own likelihood of participation in a rape. At the very least, it would be interesting to ask subjects to give their definitions of rape after completing the questionnaire and to determine whether there are more

fundamental differences in perceptions regarding aggressive sexual behavior.

### Conclusion

It is clear that a significant proportion of college age males are willing to report a likelihood of participating in a rape, if they were assured of not being punished. This group of High LR males falls outside the normal range on various measures of personality for a college age population. This High LR group also presents several particularly distinguishing historical, personality and attitudinal characteristics. In general, results indicate that these individuals may have failed to make an adequate internalization of a nurturant other, reflected in the reduction in the report of their own empathic abilities. Individual responses generated a positive perception of their mothers' empathic abilities, creating an unclear picture of the processes involved in the development of an empathic understanding, in heterosexual interactions. The experience by these individuals of their fathers, primarily their fathers' physical aggression, caused them to develop a social system that incorporates aggressive behavior as acceptable, if not expected, from competent and successful males. The personalities that complement these historical experiences suggest that these

individuals may be narcissistic with low self-esteem and conflicts with their defined male sex-role. These individuals also indicate high levels of rigid and idiosyncratic thought processes coupled with a elevated level of impulsivity. If this constellation of characteristics is combined with an ambiguous situation, high LR individuals will primarily perceive hostile and disengaged relationships.

It is clear that society's already ambivalent position towards rape fails to provide these individuals with enough contextual information or corrective experiences to enable them to realign their distortions. The effort to create a non-conflictual male role definition permitting access to non-aggressive heterosexual interactions must begin during early developmental periods and be reinforced by successful adult models.

#### Implications for Future Research

Many of the implications for future research were included in the section outlining the limitations of this study. This included obtaining a clearer description of the subjects' definitions of rape and broadening the sample to include known offenders. The inclusion of known offenders in the sample would create a greater level of confidence in the predictive validity of the measure while

possibly providing some information as to why some of these individuals who report a propensity to rape have not actually carried it out.

A larger and more diverse sample could also justify identifying items on the MMPI which are most predictive of high LR. This would effectively create a LR subscale for one of the most widely used psychological instruments available.

In general, the majority of future research should be designed with the goal in mind of treatment for this very difficult population. The appropriate treatment foci need to be assessed. The lack of empathy which high LR males demonstrate clearly should have a priority, but whether this should have a higher priority than the deficient heterosocial and heterosexual skills is unclear. Treatment could also take the form of attempting to provide a more nurturant parental figure, which may allow a corrective experience providing the individual with an alternative way of interacting with others. Another direction that treatment could take would be to address the more general antisocial behaviors with the aim of gradually including the aggressive sexual behaviors as part of the focus. This last direction is more in line with the approach utilized currently in our penal system. Given the high level of

recidivism among sex offenders, this approach needs to be closely evaluated.

Conceptually, the notion of rape proclivity needs to be examined in terms of its salient characteristics. The negative heterosexual dynamics and attitudes are clear aspects of this reported proclivity. But the question that also arises is whether this aggressive sexual behavior is based entirely on the misperceptions of disturbed males? More subtle cues may exist that males with a heightened awareness of rejection are perceiving. The possibility that an interaction effect may be responsible for aggressive sexuality must be considered empirically, clinically, and theoretically if a broad-based preventative intervention is to be successful.

The area of male-female dialogue is another important issue for research raised by this study. The frequency of erroneous sexual beliefs suggests that cross gender dialogue is deficient in several critical arenas. How these deficiencies can be addressed is unclear. Societal norms seem to inhibit male-female dialogue on issues related specifically to gender. Without an alteration in this last area, a genuinely open male-female dialogue will not be developed and adversarial beliefs will continue to dominate all heterosexual interactions.



## **APPENDIX**

## Appendix A

### Personality and Sexual Attitude Survey

#### Instructions

#### Purpose of the study

These surveys form the basis of an exploratory investigation of the personal histories of college males and how they relate to certain interpersonal attitudes. The results will be used to help systematically identify particular historical experiences and personality trait clusters which are useful in predicting specific male-female relational preferences. This study is intended to be a step in the long process of unraveling the complex heterosexual relational dynamics in a college setting.

#### Procedure

The survey has five parts. Part I is a section of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory where you will be asked to read 168 statements and to mark those that most closely describe you as True and those that do not describe you as False. Part II is a brief demographic questionnaire. In Part III you will be asked to write two stories in response to two pictures enclosed. Part IV is a historical survey, which will ask you about experiences you had while growing up. Part V is a personal attitude survey that will ask some difficult questions about your personal beliefs and behaviors. All five parts should take approximately 2 hours to complete.

#### Confidentiality

All information will be treated as completely confidential. The answer sheets will be given numbers and no identifying information will be requested.

#### Informed Consent

I understand that the purpose of this study is to investigate the relationships of personal experiences to certain sex role attitudes in college males. I understand that I am free to ask any questions I have concerning the procedure. I understand that I am free to decline to answer any question and that I can withdraw my consent and still receive credit at any point I wish. I understand that everything I say will be kept completely confidential.

I agree to participate in this study.

---

Name

---

Date

Personality and Sexual Attitude Study

Instructions

It should take you approximately 60 minutes to complete both the MMPI and the two stories. Then, after a short break, you will be given the historical experience and sexual attitude survey which require approximately 30-45 minutes to complete. Remember, these time limits are approximations; you may take as little or as much time as you need. Please try to think carefully and record your honest responses. If you have any questions, feel free to ask the person administering this session.

Each of the five sections should be completed by following the directions for that particular section, and marking your responses on the OPSCAN answer sheet. Each section will indicate where to begin on the answer sheet. With the exception of the stories, NO markings should be made on this questionnaire booklet, all responses should be put on the answer sheet in #2 pencil. Although with some questions you may find that none of the response choices will clearly fit your thinking, it is important that you choose the one, and only one, that is closest. Try to answer every question.

Please turn to the next page and begin completing the questionnaires in this booklet.

## Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory

This inventory consists of numbered statements. Read each statement and decide whether it is true as applied to you or false as applied to you. Then indicate your answer on the **OPSCAN**. If a statement is TRUE or MOSTLY TRUE, as applied to you, mark 1 (True). If a statement is FALSE or NOT USUALLY TRUE, as applied to you, mark 2 (False).

Remember to give YOUR OWN opinion of yourself. Do not leave any blank spaces if you can avoid it.

In marking your answers on the OPSCAN, be sure that the number of the statement you have just read is the same as the number on the OPSCAN. Make your marks heavy and black. Erase completely any answer you wish to change. Do not make any marks on this booklet.

Remember, try to make some answer to every statement, even if you are not completely sure of your answer.

1. I like mechanics magazines.
2. I have a good appetite.
3. I wake up fresh and rested most mornings.
4. I think I would like the work of a librarian.
5. I am easily awakened by noise.
6. I like to read newspaper articles on crime.
7. My hands and feet are usually warm enough.
8. My daily life is full of things that keep me interested.
9. I am about as able to work as I ever was.
10. There seems to be a lump in my throat much of the time.
11. A person should try to understand his dreams and be guided by or take warning from them.
12. I enjoy detective or mystery stories.

13. I work under a great deal of tension.
14. I have diarrhea once a month or more.
15. Once in a while I think of things too bad to talk about.
16. I am sure I get a raw deal from life.
17. My father was a good man.
18. I am very seldom troubled by constipation.
19. When I take a new job, I like to be tipped off on who should be gotten next to.
20. My sex life is satisfactory.
21. At times I have very much wanted to leave home.
22. At times I have fits of laughing and crying that I cannot control.
23. I am troubled by attacks of nausea and vomiting.
24. No one seems to understand me.
25. I would like to be a singer.
26. I feel that it is certainly best to keep my mouth shut when I'm in trouble.
27. Evil spirits possess me at times.
28. When someone does me a wrong I feel I should pay him back if I can, just for the principle of the thing.
29. I am bothered by acid stomach several times a week.
30. At times I feel like swearing.
31. I have nightmares every few nights.
32. I find it hard to keep my mind on a task or job.
33. I have had very peculiar and strange experiences.

34. I have cough most of the time.
35. If people had not had it in for me I would have been much more successful.
36. I seldom worry about my health.
37. I have never been in trouble because of my sex behavior.
38. During one period when I was a youngster I engaged in petty thievery.
39. At times I feel like smashing things.
40. Most any time I would rather sit and daydream than to do anything else.
41. I have had periods of days, weeks, or months when I couldn't "get going".
42. My family does not like the work I have chosen (or the work I intend to choose for my life work).
43. My sleep is fitful and disturbed.
44. Much of the time my head seems to hurt all over.
45. I do not always tell the truth.
46. My judgment is better than it ever was.
47. Once a week or oftener I feel suddenly hot all over, without apparent cause.
48. When I am with people I am bothered by hearing very queer things.
49. It would be better if almost all laws were thrown away.
50. My soul sometimes leaves my body.
51. I am in just as good physical health as most of my friends.



52. I prefer to pass by school friends, or people I know but have not seen for a long time, unless they speak to me first.
53. A minister can cure disease by praying and putting his hand on your head.
54. I am liked by most people who know me.
55. I am almost never bothered by pains over the heart or in my chest.
56. As a youngster I was suspended from school one or more times for cutting up.
57. I am a good mixer.
58. Everything is turning out just like the prophets of the Bible said it would.
59. I have often had to take orders from someone who did not know as much as I did.
60. I do not read every editorial in the newspaper every day.
61. I have not lived the right kind of life.
62. Parts of my body often have feelings like burning, tingling, crawling, or like "going to sleep".
63. I have had no difficulty in starting or holding my bowel movement.
64. I sometimes keep on at a thing until others lose their patience with me.
65. I loved my father.
66. I see things or animals or people around me that others do not see.
67. I wish I could be as happy as others seem to be.
68. I hardly ever feel pain in the back of the neck.
69. I am very strongly attracted by members of my own sex.



70. I used to like drop-the-handkerchief.
71. I think a great many people exaggerate their misfortunes in order to gain the sympathy and help of others.
72. I am troubled by discomfort in the pit of my stomach every few days or oftener.
73. I am an important person.
74. I have often wished I were a girl. (Or if you are a girl) I have never been sorry that I am a girl.
75. I get angry sometimes.
76. Most of the time I feel blue.
77. I enjoy reading love stories.
78. I like poetry.
79. My feelings are not easily hurt.
80. I sometimes tease animals.
81. I think I would like the kind of work a forest ranger does.
82. I am easily downed in an argument.
83. Any man who is able and willing to work hard has a good chance of succeeding.
84. These days I find it hard not to give up hope of amounting to something.
85. Sometimes I am strongly attracted by the personal articles of others such as shoes, gloves. etc., so that I want to handle or steal them though I have no use for them.
86. I am certainly lacking in self-confidence.
87. I would like to be a florist.
88. I usually feel that life is worthwhile.

89. It takes a lot of argument to convince most people of the truth.
90. Once in a while I put off until tomorrow what I ought to do today.
91. I do not mind being made fun of.
92. I would like to be nurse.
93. I think most people would lie to get ahead.
94. I do many things which I regret afterwards (I regret things more or more often than others seem to).
95. I go too church almost every week.
96. I have very few quarrels with members of my family.
97. At times I have a strong urge to something harmful or shocking.
98. I believe in the second coming of Christ.
99. I like to go to parties and other affairs where there is lots of loud fun.
100. I have met problems so full of possibilities that I have been unable to make up my mind about them.
101. I believe women ought to have as much sexual freedom as men.
102. My hardest battles are with myself.
103. I have little or no trouble with my muscles twitching or jumping.
104. I don't seem to care what happens to me.
105. Sometimes when I am not feeling well I am cross.
106. Much of the time I feel as if I have done something wrong or evil.
107. I am happy most of the time.

108. There seems to be a fullness in my head or nose most of the time.
109. Some people are so bossy that I feel like doing the opposite of what they request, even though I know they are right.
110. Someone has it in for me.
111. I have never done anything dangerous for the thrill of it.
112. I frequently find it necessary to stand up for what I think is right.
113. I believe in law enforcement.
114. Often I feel as if there were a tight band about my head.
115. I believe in a life hereafter.
116. I enjoy a race or game better when I bet on it.
117. Most people are honest chiefly through fear of being caught.
118. In school I was sometimes sent to the principal for cutting up.
119. My speech is the same as always (not faster or slower, or slurring; no hoarseness).
120. My table manners are not quite as good at home as when I am out in company.
121. I believe I am being plotted against.
122. I seem to be about as capable and smart as most others around me.
123. I believe I am being followed.
124. Most people will use somewhat unfair means to gain profit or an advantage rather than to lose it.
125. I have a great deal of stomach trouble.

126. I like dramatics.
127. I know who is responsible for most of my troubles.
128. The sight of blood neither frightens me nor makes me sick.
129. Often I can't understand why I have been so cross and grouchy.
130. I have never vomited blood or coughed up blood.
131. I do not worry about catching diseases.
132. I like collecting flowers or growing house plants.
133. I have never indulged in any unusual sex practices.
134. At times my thoughts have raced ahead faster than I could speak them.
135. If I could get into a movie without paying and be sure I was not seen I would probably do it.
136. I commonly wonder what hidden reason another person may have for doing something nice for me.
137. I believe that my home life is as pleasant as that of most people I know.
138. Criticism or scolding hurts me terribly.
139. Sometimes I feel as if I must injure either myself or someone else.
140. I like to cook.
141. My conduct is largely controlled by the customs of those about me.
142. I certainly feel useless at times.
143. When I was a child, I belonged to a crowd or gang that tried to stick together through thick and thin.

144. I would like to be a soldier.
145. At times I feel like picking a fist fight with someone.
146. I have the wanderlust and am never happy unless I am roaming or traveling about.
147. I have often lost out on things because I couldn't make up my mind soon enough.
148. It makes me impatient to have people ask my advice or otherwise interrupt me when I am working on something important.
149. I used to keep a diary.
150. I would rather win than lose in a game.
151. Someone has been trying to poison me.
152. Most nights I go to sleep without thoughts or ideas bothering me.
153. During the past few years I have been well most of the time.
154. I have never had a fit or convulsion.
155. I am neither gaining nor losing weight.
156. I have had periods in which I carried on activities without knowing later what I had been doing.
157. I feel that I have often been punished without cause.
158. I cry easily.
159. I cannot understand what I read as well as I used to.
160. I have never felt better in my life than I do now.
161. The top of my head sometimes feels tender.

162. I resent having anyone take me in so cleverly  
that I have had to admit that it was one on me.
163. I do not tire quickly.
164. I like to study and read about things that I am  
working at.
165. I like to know some important people because it  
makes me feel important.
166. I am afraid when I look down from a high place.
167. It wouldn't make me nervous if any members of my  
family got into trouble with the law.
168. There is something wrong with my mind.

Background Information

Please answer each of the following questions, marking the appropriate response on your **OPSCAN**.

169. What is your current year in school?

- 1) freshman
- 2) sophomore
- 3) junior
- 4) senior
- 5) other

170. Age

- 1) 17-18
- 2) 19-20
- 3) 21-22
- 4) 23-24
- 5) 25+

171. Ethnic identification

- 1) Caucasian
- 2) Afro-American
- 3) Hispanic/Latino
- 4) Asian-American
- 5) Other

172. Religious identification

- 1) Catholic
- 2) Protestant
- 3) Jewish
- 4) Other
- 5) None

173. Marital status

- 1) Single
- 2) Married
- 3) Living together
- 4) Divorced
- 5) Other

174. Average annual family income

- 1) less than \$10,000
- 2) Between \$10,000 and \$20,000
- 3) Between \$20,000 and \$35,000
- 4) Between \$35,000 and \$50,000
- 5) more than \$50,000

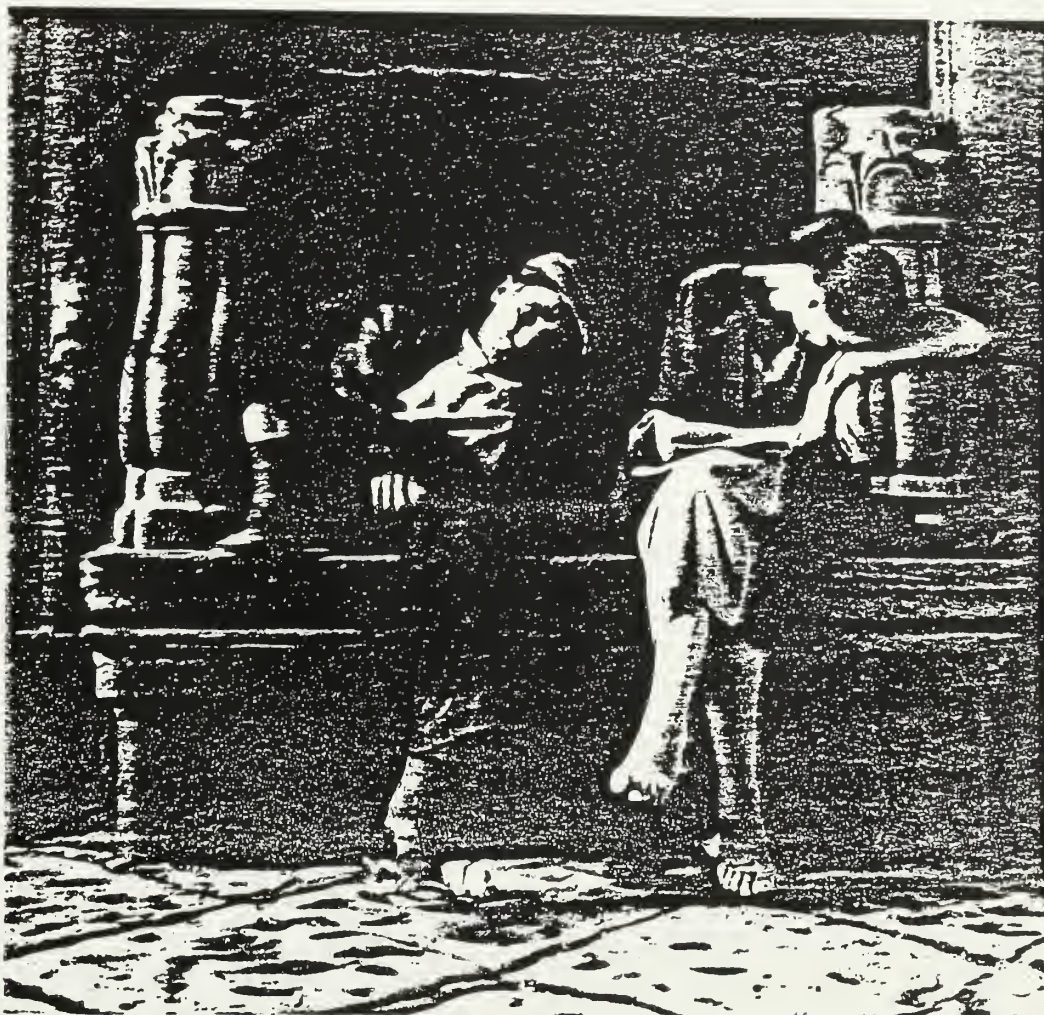
175. Educational level of father (completed)
- 1) No schooling
  - 2) Elementary school
  - 3) High school
  - 4) College or Trade School
  - 5) Graduate or Professional school
176. Educational level of mother (completed)
- 1) No schooling
  - 2) Elementary school
  - 3) High school
  - 4) College or Trade School
  - 5) Graduate or Professional school
177. Number of brothers
- 1) 0
  - 2) 1
  - 3) 2
  - 4) 3
  - 5) 4 or more
178. Number of sisters
- 1) 0
  - 2) 1
  - 3) 2
  - 4) 3
  - 5) 4 or more



Code # from OPSCAN \_\_\_\_\_

### Part III

Presented below are two pictures followed by three questions. Make up as dramatic a story as you can for each picture. Using the questions provided, a) tell what has led up to the event shown in the picture, b) describe what is happening at the moment, what the characters are thinking and feeling, and then c) give the outcome. Please spend about five minutes on each story.







Work rapidly. Don't spend any more than 5 minutes on this story. The questions below are guidelines.

### Historical and Sexual Attitude Survey

USING THE FOLLOWING RATING SCALE INDICATE THE EXTENT TO WHICH EACH OF THE ADJECTIVES BELOW DESCRIBES HOW YOU EXPERIENCED YOUR MOTHER ACTING TOWARD YOU. REPORT ON YOUR **GLOBAL** EXPERIENCE. BE SURE TO MARK THE APPROPRIATE NUMBER ON YOUR OPSCAN.

1	2	3	4	5
NOT MUCH	MILDLY	SOMEWHAT	MODERATELY	VERY MUCH
1) ALOOF		7) CONSIDERATE		12) PERCEPTIVE
2) APPRECIATIVE		8) DETACHED		13) PREOCCUPIED
3) CARING		9) EMPATHIC		14) SUPPORTIVE
4) COLD		10) INSENSITIVE		15) UNDERSTANDING
5) COMPASSIONATE		11) KIND		16) UNEMPATHIC
6) CONCERNED				

USING THE RATING SCALE ABOVE INDICATE THE EXTENT TO WHICH EACH OF THE ADJECTIVES BELOW DESCRIBES YOURSELF. REPORT ON A **GLOBAL** DESCRIPTION. BE SURE TO MARK THE APPROPRIATE NUMBER ON YOUR OPSCAN.

17) ALOOF	23) CONSIDERATE	28) PERCEPTIVE
18) APPRECIATIVE	24) DETACHED	29) PREOCCUPIED
19) CARING	25) EMPATHIC	30) SUPPORTIVE
20) COLD	26) INSENSITIVE	31) UNDERSTANDING
21) COMPASSIONATE	27) KIND	32) UNEMPATHIC
22) CONCERNED		

To help us assess other aspects of parenting, we ask that you respond to each question twice--first as it relates to your mother and second as it relates to your father. Please respond honestly to help us establish an accurate portrait of parenting and its interactive influences. All information is completely ANONYMOUS. Do not put your name on the response sheet.

Be sure that each item number corresponds with the appropriate number on your OPSCAN.

NEVER	OCCASIONALLY	SOMETIMES	FREQUENTLY	ALMOST ALWAYS
1	2	3	4	5

Did your mother:

Did your father:

...praise you?

33) MOTHER	1	2	3	4	5	34) FATHER	1	2	3	4	5
------------	---	---	---	---	---	------------	---	---	---	---	---

...ridicule or criticize you?

35) MOTHER	1	2	3	4	5	36) FATHER	1	2	3	4	5
------------	---	---	---	---	---	------------	---	---	---	---	---

...encourage you?

37) MOTHER	1	2	3	4	5	38) FATHER	1	2	3	4	5
------------	---	---	---	---	---	------------	---	---	---	---	---

...punish you?

39) MOTHER	1	2	3	4	5	40) FATHER	1	2	3	4	5
------------	---	---	---	---	---	------------	---	---	---	---	---

...reward you?

41) MOTHER	1	2	3	4	5	42) FATHER	1	2	3	4	5
------------	---	---	---	---	---	------------	---	---	---	---	---

...verbally threaten you?

43) MOTHER	1	2	3	4	5	44) FATHER	1	2	3	4	5
------------	---	---	---	---	---	------------	---	---	---	---	---



NEVER	OCCASIONALLY	SOMETIMES	FREQUENTLY	ALMOST ALWAYS
1	2	3	4	5

...physically threaten you? (e.g., raise a hand to slap/hit you)

45) MOTHER    1   2   3   4   5                      46) FATHER    1   2   3   4   5

...use physical force in punishing you? (e.g., slap, spank, hit, beat up, pull hair, shake, scratch, etc.)

47) MOTHER    1   2   3   4   5                      48) FATHER    1   2   3   4   5

...display their affection for you verbally? (e.g., say "I love you")

49) MOTHER    1   2   3   4   5                      50) FATHER    1   2   3   4   5

...show their affection for you physically? (e.g., hug, kiss, hold hands w/you, put their arm around you, have you sit on their lap, etc.)

51) MOTHER    1   2   3   4   5                      52) FATHER    1   2   3   4   5

...throw objects when mad or frustrated?

53) MOTHER    1   2   3   4   5                      54) FATHER    1   2   3   4   5

...hit walls or furniture?

55) MOTHER    1   2   3   4   5                      56) FATHER    1   2   3   4   5

...use physical force on a sibling of yours (brother/sister)?

57) MOTHER    1   2   3   4   5                      58) FATHER    1   2   3   4   5



...use physical force on each other?

59) MOTHER      1   2   3   4   5                  60) FATHER      1   2   3   4   5

...display their affection towards one another in your presence verbally? (e.g., say "I love you", "you're the greatest", etc.)

61) MOTHER      1   2   3   4   5                  62) FATHER      1   2   3   4   5

...display their affection towards one another in your presence physically? (e.g., hug, kiss, hold hands, etc.)

63) MOTHER      1   2   3   4   5                  64) FATHER      1   2   3   4   5

...threaten or use physical force on a non-family member?

65) MOTHER      1   2   3   4   5                  66) FATHER      1   2   3   4   5

...not punish you when you deserved it?

67) MOTHER      1   2   3   4   5                  68) FATHER      1   2   3   4   5

...not reward you when you deserved it?

69) MOTHER      1   2   3   4   5                  70) FATHER      1   2   3   4   5

To help us further evaluate the nature of your experiences please respond once to each of the following items, as they relate to use.

NEVER	OCCASIONALLY	SOMETIMES	FREQUENTLY	ALMOST ALWAYS
1	2	3	4	5

Have you:

71)...verbally threatened another?                  1   2   3   4   5

72)...complimented or praised another?                  1   2   3   4   5

- 73)...harassed a particular individual on  
several different occasions? 1 2 3 4 5
- 74)...communicated feelings of affection  
toward another verbally? 1 2 3 4 5
- 75)...been in a physical fight of any  
sort while angry or mad? 1 2 3 4 5
- 76)...been in a physical fight, although  
not angry or mad? 1 2 3 4 5
- 77)...harassed, harmed or killed an animal?  
(e.g. kicked, thrown rocks at,  
chased, smashed, etc.) 1 2 3 4 5
- 78)...punched or kicked another human being  
in anger? 1 2 3 4 5
- 79)...abused or mistreated furniture or  
property while mad, angry or  
frustrated? 1 2 3 4 5
- 80)...done something harmful to another  
because it made you feel better or  
good? 1 2 3 4 5
- 81)...done something helpful to or for  
another because it made you feel better  
or good? 1 2 3 4 5
- 82)...physically beat-up on another human  
being? 1 2 3 4 5

The statements listed below describe activities that many individuals have engaged in at one time or another. Please indicate how often you have participated in the listed activity using the scale below. YOUR ANSWERS ARE COMPLETELY ANONYMOUS.

NEVER	ONCE OR TWICE	SEVERAL TIMES	OFTEN
1	2	3	4
83)	Held a woman's hand against her will.		1 2 3 4
84)	Kissed a woman against her will.		1 2 3 4
85)	Placed hand on a woman's knee against her will.		1 2 3 4
86)	Placed hand on a woman's breast against her will.		1 2 3 4
87)	Placed hand on a woman's thigh or crotch against her will.		1 2 3 4
88)	Unfastened a woman's outer clothing against her will.		1 2 3 4
89)	Removed or disarranged a woman's outer clothing against her will.		1 2 3 4
90)	Removed or disarranged a woman's underclothing against her will.		1 2 3 4
91)	Removed own underclothing against a woman's wishes.		1 2 3 4
92)	Touched a woman's genital area against her will.		1 2 3 4
93)	Had intercourse with a women against her will.		1 2 3 4

NEVER	ONCE OR TWICE	SEVERAL TIMES	OFTEN
1	2	3	4

The statements listed below describe methods which many individuals have used at one time or another to initiate a sexual encounter. Please indicate how often you have participated in the listed activity using the scale above. YOUR ANSWERS ARE COMPLETELY ANONYMOUS.

- |      |  |   |   |   |   |
|------|--|---|---|---|---|
| 94)  | Attempted to verbally convince a woman.          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 95)  | Ignored a woman's protests                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 96)  | Used verbal threats                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 97)  | Used physical restraint with a woman             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 98)  | Used threats of physical aggression with a woman | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 99)  | Used physical aggression on a woman              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 100) | Threatened to use a weapon on a woman            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 101) | Used a weapon on a woman                         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Please read each statement carefully and choose the number which most adequately represents your opinion, then record this number for each question on your OPSCAN sheet.

- |                                |                       |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------|
| (1) Strongly agree             | (4) Mildly disagree   |
| (2) Mildly agree               | (5) Strongly disagree |
| (3) Neither agree nor disagree |                       |

- |  |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 102. Most women secretly desire to be raped  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 103. Women provoke rape by their appearance and behavior   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 104. Rape of a woman by a man she knows can be defined as a "woman who changed her mind afterward" | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 105. In order to protect the male, it should be difficult to prove that a rape has occurred        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 106. It would do some women good to get raped  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 107. Rape is never justified, under any circumstances  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 108. Rape is often committed by intelligent men  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 109. Most men fantasize raping   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Rate the following statements using the scale below. (Mark all of your answers on the OPSCAN sheet)

- |                     |                       |
|---------------------|-----------------------|
| (1) Highly likely   | (4) A little likely   |
| (2) Very likely     | (5) Not likely at all |
| (3) Somewhat likely |                       |

- |  |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 110. If they could be assured of not being punished, more men would rape | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 111. If I could be assured of not being punished, I might rape           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

### Debriefing

These surveys will form the basis of an exploratory investigation of the personal histories of college males and how they relate to certain interpersonal and sexual attitudes. The results will be used to help systematically identify particular historical experiences and personality trait clusters which are useful in predicting specific male-female relational preferences, particularly in regards to sexual behavior. This study is intended to be a step in the long process of unraveling the complex heterosexual relational dynamics in a college setting. In order to obtain unbiased information, people filling out this survey should not know its complete purpose. Please refrain from talking about it to other people who might be interested in participating in this study. If you have any questions or if you want to talk about the results my office is Tobin 602, and the number is 5-2157.

Thank you very much, for your participation.

Robert Samuels

## Appendix B

## Frequency Distribution For Projective Measures

Variable	N	Frequency	%	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Time Perception (A)	140			1.80	.867
Limited		69	49.3		
Extended		30	21.4		
Vague		41	29.3		
Degree of Enrichment (A)	140			1.81	.786
Vague/Detached		59	42.1		
Somewhat Descriptive		49	35.0		
Very Personal		32	22.9		
Relationship of Characters (A)	140			2.05	1.685
Married/Romantic		99	70.7		
Father/Daughter		1	.7		
Brother/Sister		3	2.1		
Friends		8	5.7		
Strangers		29	20.7		
Level of Aggression (A)	140			1.75	.769
Little		63	45.0		
Moderate		49	35.0		
High		28	20.0		



## Appendix B (continued)

## Frequency Distribution For Projective Measures

Variable	N	Frequency	%	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Overall Outcome (A)	140			2.19	1.070
Tragic		48	34.3		
Status quo		39	27.9		
Positive		32	22.9		
Ambivalent		21	15.0		
Time Perception (B)	139			1.58	.771
Limited		83	59.7		
Extended		32	23.0		
Vague		24	17.3		
Degree of Enrichment (B)	139			1.54	.745
Vague/Detached		85	61.2		
Somewhat					
Descriptive		33	23.7		
Very Personal		21	15.1		
Relationship of Characters (B)	139				
Married/Romantic		24	17.3		
Father/Daughter		3	2.2		
Brother/Sister		14	10.1		
Friends		96	69.1		
Strangers		2	1.4		

## Appendix B (continued)

## Frequency Distribution For Projective Measures

Variable	N	Frequency	%	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Level of Aggression (B)	139			1.31	.635
Little		109	78.4		
Moderate		17	12.2		
High		13	9.4		
Overall Outcome (B)	139			2.30	.766
Tragic		17	12.2		
Status quo		73	52.5		
Positive		40	28.8		
Ambivalent		9	6.5		

### References

- Abel, G. G., Barlow, D. H., Blanchard, E. B. & Guild, D.  
(1977) The Components of Rapists' Sexual Arousal.  
Archives of General Psychiatry, 34, 895-903.
- Alberti, R. E. (1977) Comments on "Differentiating  
Assertion and Aggression: Some Behavioral Guidelines."  
Behavior Therapy, 8, 353-354.
- Anastasi, A. (1976) Psychological Testing. New York, NY:  
Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc.
- Armentrout, J.A. and Hauer, A. L. (1978) MMPI's of Rapists  
of Adults, Rapists of Children and Non-rapist Sex  
Offenders. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 34(2),  
330-332.
- Bandura, A. (1973) Aggression: A social learning analysis.  
Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Barnett, N. J. and Feild, H. S. (1979) Sex differences in  
university student's attitudes toward rape. Journal  
of College Student Personnel, March, 93-96.
- Baron, R. A. (1974) Sexual arousal and physical  
aggression: The inhibiting influence of "cheesecake"  
and nudes. Bulletin of the Psychonomic Society,  
3(SA), 337-339.

- Baron, R. A. (1977) Human Aggression. New York and London, Plenum Press.
- Baron, R. A. and Bell, P. A. (1977) Sexual Arousal and Aggression by Males: Effects of Type and Erotic Stimuli and Prior Provocation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 35(2), 79-87.
- Beneke, T. (1982) Men On Rape. New York, St. Martin's Press.
- Berkowitz, Leonard (1969) Roots of Aggression. New York, Atherton Press.
- Brownmiller, S. (1975) Against Our Will. Toronto, New York and London: Bantam Books.
- Burgess, A. W. and Holmstrom, L. L. (1974) Rape: Victims of Crisis. Bowie, MD: Robert J. Brady, Company.
- Burt, M. R. (1980) Cultural myths and support for rape. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 38(2), 212-230.
- Buss, A. H. (1961) The psychology of aggression. New York: Wiley.
- Buss, A. H. (1971) Aggression Pays. In The control of aggression and violence. J. L. Singer (Ed) New York: Academic Press.
- Caldwell, A. B. and O'Hare, C. (1974) A Handbook of MMPI Personality Types. Santa Monica, CA: Clinical Psychological Services.

- Donnerstein, E. and Hallam, J. (1978) Facilitating Effects of Erotica on Aggression Against Women. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 36(11), 1270-1277.
- Eagly, A.H. and Steffen, V.J. (1986) Gender and Aggressive Behavior: A Meta-Analytic Review of the Social Psychological Literature. Psychological Bulletin, 100, #3, 309-330.
- Edmunds, G. (1978) Judgements of different types of aggressive behavior. British Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 17, 121-125.
- Feshbach, S. (1970) Aggression. In Carmichael's manual of child psychology. P. H. Mussen (Ed) New York: Wiley.
- Freud, S. (1920) A general introduction to psycho-analysis. New York: Boni & Liveright.
- Frodi, A., Macaulay, J. and Thome, P. R. (1977) Are Women Always Less Aggressive Than Men? A Review of the Experimental Literature. Psychological Bulletin, 84(4), 634-660.
- Geen, R. G. (1976) Observing violence in the mass media: Implications of basic research. In Perspectives on Aggression. R. G. Geen & E. C. O'Neil (Eds.) New York: Academic Press.
- Geen, R. G. & O'Neal, E. C. [Eds] (1976). Perspectives on Aggression. New York: Academic Press.

- Geen, R. G. & Stonner, D. (1971). Effects of aggressiveness habit strength on behavior in the presence of aggress-related stimuli. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 17, 149-153.
- Gelles, R. J. (1973) Child abuse as psychopathology. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 43, 611-621.
- Gill, D. C. (1968) Incidence of child abuse and demographic characteristics of persons involved, In The battered child. R. E. Helfer & C. H. Kempe (Eds) Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Gill, D. C. (1970) Violence against children. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Gilligan, C. (1982) In A Different Voice. Cambridge, MA and London, England: Harvard University Press.
- Graham, J. R. (1977) The MMPI: A Practical Guide. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Griffin, S. (1979) Rape: The Power of Consciousness. San Francisco: Harper & Row, Publishers.
- Groth, A. N. (1979) Men Who Rape. New York and London: Plenum Press.
- Groth, A. N., Burgess, A. W. and Holstrom, L. L. (1977) Rape: Power, Anger, and Sexuality. American Journal of Psychiatry, 134(11), 1239-1243.

- Haner, C. E. & Brown, P. A. (1955) Clarification of the instigation to action concept in the frustration-aggression hypothesis. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 51, 204-206.
- Hathaway, S. R. and McKinley, J. C. (1966) The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. New York: The Psychological Corporation.
- Hollandsworth, J. G. (1977) Differentiating Assertion and Aggression: Some Behavioral Guidelines. Behavior Therapy, 8, 347-352.
- Holm, O. (1983) Four Factors Affecting Perceived Aggressiveness. Journal of Psychology, 114, 227-234.
- Horos, C. V. (1974) Rape. New Canaan, CT: Tobey Publishing Co., Inc
- Jaffe, Y., Malamuth, N., Feingold, J. & Feshbach, S. (1974) Sexual Arousal and Behavioral Aggression. Journal Of Personality and Social Psychology, 30(6), 759-764.
- Kelly, J. F. & Hake, D. F. (1970) An extinction-induced increase in an aggressive response with humans. Journal of the Experimental Analysis of Behavior, 14, 153-164.
- Lachar, D. (1974) The MMPI: Clinical Assessment and Automated Interpretation. Los Angeles, Ca.: Western Psychological Services.



- Lando, A. and Donnerstein, E. I. (1978) The Effects of a Model's Success or Failure on Subsequent Aggressive Behavior. Journal of Research in Personality, 12, 225-234.
- Leonard, K. E. and Taylor, S. P. (1983) Exposure to Pornography, Permissive and Nonpermissive Cues, and Male Aggression Toward Females. Motivation and Emotion, 7(3), 291-299.
- Levy, S. B. (1984) Therapists' Self Perceptions of Empathy and Authority. unpublished dissertation, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA.
- Lorenz, K. (1966) On Aggression. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World.
- Lorenz, K. (1974) Civilized man's eight deadly sins. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Jovanovich.
- Malamuth, N. M. (1981) Rape proclivity among males. Journal of Social Issues, 37(4), 138-157.
- Malamuth, N. M., Feshbach, S. and Jaffe, Y. (1977) Sexual Arousal and Aggression: Recent Experiments and Theoretical Issues. Journal of Social Issues, 33(2), 110-133.

- Malamuth, N. M., Haber, S., and Feshbach, S. (1983)  
Testing hypotheses regarding rape: Exposure to sexual violence, sex differences, and the "normality" of the rapist. Journal of Research in Personality, 14, 121-137.
- Malamuth, N. M., Heim, M. and Feshbach, S. (1980) Sexual responsiveness of college students to rape depictions: Inhibitory and disinhibitory effects. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 38(3), 399-408.
- Marlow, A. H. (1941) Deprivation, threat and frustration. Psychological Review, 48, 364-366.
- Medea, A. and Thompson, K. (1974) Against Rape. New York: Farrar, Strauss & Giroux.
- Melges, F. T. & Harris, R. F. (1970) Anger and attack: A cybernetic model of violence, In Violence and the struggle for existence D. N. Daniels, H. F. Gallula, and F. M. Ochberg (Eds.) Boston: Little, Brown.
- Milgram, S. (1963) Behavioral study of obedience. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 67, 371-378.
- Milgram, S. (1964) Group pressure and action against a person. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 69, 137-143.

- Milgram, S. (1965b) Some conditions of obedience and disobedience to authority. Human Relations, 18, 57-76.
- Miller, N. E. (1941) The frustration-aggression hypothesis. Psychological Review, 48, 337-342.
- Myers, J. L. (1979) Fundamentals of Experimental Design. Boston, London, Sydney, Toronto: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.
- Olweus, D. (1979) Stability of Aggressive Reaction Patterns in Males: A Review. Psychological Bulletin, 86(4), 852- 875.
- Overall, J. E., Higgins, W. & deSchweinitz, A. (1976) Comparison of differential diagnostic discrimination for abbreviated and standard MMPI. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 32, 237-245.
- Patterson, G. R., Littman, R. A., & Bricker, W. (1967) Assertive behavior in children: A step toward a theory of aggression. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 32 (Whole No. 113).
- Pleck, J. H. (1982) The Myth of Masculinity. Cambridge, MA and London, England: The MIT Press.
- Rapaport, K. & Burkhart, B. R. (1984) Personality and Attitudinal Characteristics of Sexually Coercive College Males. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 93(2), 216-221.

- Rosenzweig, S. (1944) An outline of frustration theory.  
In Personality and the behavior disorders. J. McV.  
Hunt (Ed.) New York: Ronald Press.
- Rothaus, B. G. & Percival, E. (1971) The effects of  
frustration and attack on physical aggression.  
Journal of Experimental Research in Personality, 5,  
111-118.
- Russell, D. E. H. (1975) The Politics of Rape. New York:  
Stein and Day.
- Samuels, R. M., Turner, C. B., & Todd, D. M. (1984) Rape  
Proclivity: Development of a New Scale. Presented at  
the annual meeting of the American Psychological  
Association, Toronto, Canada. August 23-28.
- Skinner, H. A. (1984) Models for the Description of  
Abnormal Behavior. In Comprehensive Handbook of  
Psychopathology. Henry E. Adams & Patricia B. Sutter  
(eds.) Plenum Publishing Corporation.
- Strauss, M. A., Gelles, R. J., & Steinmetz, S. K. (1974)  
Theories, methods, and controversies in the study of  
violence between family members. In Violence in the  
Family. S. K. Steinmetz & M. A. Strauss (Eds.)  
New York: Dodd Mead.
- Symond, A. (1979) Violence against Women-The Myth of  
Masochism. American Journal of Psychotherapy, 23(2),  
161-173.

- Tedeschi, J. T., Gaes, G. G. and Rivera, A. N. (1977)  
Aggression and the Use of Coercive Power. Journal of Social Issues, 33(1), 101-125.
- Tedeschi, J. T., Schlenker, B. R. & Bonoma, T. V. (1973)  
Conflict, power, and games: The experimental study of interpersonal relations. Chicago: Aldine.
- Tedeschi, J. T., Smith, R. B., & Brown, P. C. (1974) A  
reinterpretation of research on aggression.  
Psychological Bulletin, 81, 540-562.
- Theiss, A. (1985) unpublished dissertation. University of  
Massachusetts, Amherst, MA.
- Tieger, T. (1981) Self-Rated Likelihood of Raping and the  
Social Perception of Rape. Journal of Research in Personality, 15, 147-158.
- Wyrick, L. C., Gentry, W. D. and Shows, W. D. (1977)  
Aggression, Assertion, and Openness to Experience: A  
Comparison of Men and Women. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 33(2), 439-443.
- Young, D. M., Beier, E. G., Beier, P., and Barton, C.  
(1975) Is Chivalry Dead? Journal of Communication,  
25, 57-64.
- Zillman, D. (1979) Hostility and Aggression. Hillsdale,  
NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Zillman, D. and Sapolsky, B. S. (1977) What Mediates the Effect of Mild Erotica on Annoyance and Hostile Behavior in Males? Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 35(3), 587-596.



