

THE INFLUENCE OF SEX PREFERENCE ON FACTORS
RELATED TO INTERACTION VARIABLES

By

SHERRY C. MAXWELL

Bachelor of Arts
Marian College
Indianapolis, Indiana
1962

Master of Science
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, Oklahoma
1976

Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate College
of the Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
May, 1983

Thesis
1983D
M465i
cop. 2



THE INFLUENCE OF SEX PREFERENCE ON FACTORS
RELATED TO INTERACTION VARIABLES

Thesis Approved:

James M. Frantz

Thesis Adviser

Kenneth P. Sedell

Judith E. Dobson

Dianna L. Newman

Norman N. Burba

Dean of the Graduate College

PREFACE

This study is concerned with an investigation of the effect of sexual preference on interaction style. Interaction variables were measured by scores on the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior questionnaire.

The author wishes to express her appreciation to Dr. James Seals, for his assistance throughout this study. Appreciation is also expressed to the other committee members, Dr. Judith Dobson, Dr. Diane Newman, and Dr. Kenneth Sandvold, for their assistance in the preparation of the final manuscript.

A special note of thanks to my sister, Kaye Gray, for her help in locating various articles which were unavailable to me. Thanks are also extended to the staff of the National Gay Task Force, for their assistance in locating various source materials. In addition, appreciation is extended to Sandi Ireland for the excellence of her typing from the various early drafts through the final copy, as well as her guidance concerning form.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION.	1
Statement of the Problem	2
Purpose of the Study	2
Background and Value of the Study.	3
Major Hypotheses	5
Organization of the Study.	6
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.	7
Overview	7
Etiology of Homosexuality.	8
Physiological Theories.	8
Central Nervous System Disturbance Theory. . .	8
Chromosomal Abnormality Theory	9
Hormonal Imbalance Theories.	10
Psychological Theories.	14
Identification of Characteristics of Homosexuals. .	20
Interpersonal Interaction Styles of Homosexuals . .	23
Inclusion.	23
Control.	28
Affection.	31
Summary.	32
III. METHODOLOGY	34
Subjects	34
Classification of Subjects.	36
Protection of Subjects.	36
Procedure for Administration	36
Description of the Instrument	37
Reliability of the <u>FIRO-B</u>	39
Coefficient of Internal Consistency.	39
Coefficient of Stability	39
Validity of the <u>FIRO-B</u>	40
Content Validity	40
Construct Validity	40
Definition of Variables.	41
Pilot Study	42
Statistical Analysis.	42
Limitations.	43

Chapter	Page
IV. RESULTS	45
Relevant Demographic Information	45
Major Hypothesis #1	47
Major Hypothesis #2	48
Major Hypothesis #3	51
Major Hypothesis #4	54
Major Hypothesis #5	54
Major Hypothesis #6	58
Discussion of Statistical Analyses of Data for Hypothesized Differences	62
Hypothesis #1	62
Hypothesis #2	64
Hypothesis #3	65
Hypothesis #4	65
Hypothesis #5	68
V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS	70
Summary	70
Conclusions	71
Major Hypothesis #1	71
Major Hypothesis #2	71
Major Hypothesis #3	72
Major Hypothesis #4	72
Major Hypothesis #5	72
Major Hypothesis #6	73
Summary	73
Recommendations	73
BIBLIOGRAPHY	76
APPENDIX	84

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
I. Demographic Information as Obtained from "Data Sheet"	46
II. Differences in Number of "Rock" Profiles in Homosexual and Heterosexual Females (<u>FIRO-B</u>)	48
III. Differences in Numbers of Homosexual and Heterosexual Males in "Low", "Average", and "High" Categories on Expressed and Wanted Inclusion (<u>FIRO-B</u>)	49
IV. Differences in Numbers of Homosexual and Heterosexual Males in "Low", "Average", and "High" Categories on Expressed and Wanted Control (<u>FIRO-B</u>)	52
V. Differences in Numbers of Homosexual Males and Females in "Low", "Average", and "High" Categories on Expressed and Wanted Control (<u>FIRO-B</u>)	55
VI. Differences in Numbers of Homosexual Males and Females in "Low", "Average", and "High" Categories on Expressed and Wanted Affection (<u>FIRO-B</u>)	59
VII. Differences in Numbers of Committed and Uncommitted Homosexual Males and Females in "Low", "Average", and "High" Categories on Total Affection (Expressed and Wanted) Scores (<u>FIRO-B</u>)	61

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Scatter Plot of Male Inclusion Scores on the <u>FIRO-B</u>	50
2. Scatter Plot of Male Control Scores on the <u>FIRO-B</u>	53
3. Scatter Plot of Homosexual Wanted Inclusion Scores on the <u>FIRO-B</u>	56
4. Scatter Plot of Heterosexual Inclusion Scores on the <u>FIRO-B</u> . .	57
5. Scatter Plot of Homosexual Affection Scores on the <u>FIRO-B</u> . . .	60

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In 1973, the Board of Trustees of the American Psychiatric Association acknowledged the research on non-patient samples of homosexuals and removed homosexuality from its official listing of psychiatric disorders. This decision was later ratified by the American Psychiatric Association membership. The American Psychiatric Association also passed a resolution removing homosexuality from classification as a mental disorder, declaring that it represented no impairment, and opposing discrimination on the basis of sexual preference. In 1975, the American Psychological Association adopted a similar resolution, adding a clause urging mental health practitioners to take the lead in removing the stigma associated with homosexual orientation.

The pluralistic model implied by these resolutions dictates that the foci of counseling or therapy with the homosexual client be essentially the same as that with the heterosexual client: changing destructive ways of interacting with the environment, developing coping strategies which allow healthy choices and supporting strengths and skills which will permit the individual to lead a happy and productive life with as few limitations as possible (Corsini, 1973). Although the general goals of counseling are the same for all clients, the therapist, to be maximally successful in helping the homosexual

client, must have an adequate information base. Therapists must be aware of the particular constraints and pressures society places on members of this minority group, and of the unique personal characteristics shared by group members.

Relationships with other persons, both casual and intimate, significantly impact on the mental health and personal happiness of any individual, and will therefore be an appropriate and essential concern in the counseling relationship. If therapists are to deal adequately with this area, they must be informed about the customary interactional styles of the population to which the client belongs.

Statement of the Problem

The problem investigated was: What is the influence of sexual preference on selected interpersonal interaction variables?

Purpose of the Study

(The purpose of this study was to investigate the differences between the interpersonal interactions of male heterosexuals and male homosexuals, female heterosexuals and female homosexuals, and male and female homosexuals. The interpersonal interaction measures were collected using the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior Scale (FIRO-B)).

According to Schutz (1967), all human relations behavior can be classified as inclusion, control, and affection. Scores on the FIRO-B measure the degree to which individuals want others to express these three behaviors toward them, and the degree to which they express these behaviors towards others. It was the differences between groups in

interpersonal interactions in these three areas, inclusion, control, and affection, both wanted and expressed, which were the focus in this study.

Background and Value of the Study

Research about homosexuality was either nonexistent or confined to theological writings until Freud introduced the concept of psychosexual stages of development. Following this, homosexuality became a proper subject of study for psychologists, physicians, and social scientists. The medical models of mental illness produced numerous studies on the causes of the disorder, and reports of various treatment methods designed to produce a cure.

In the 1940's and 1950's, beginning with the Kinsey research (1948, 1953), a number of investigators (Bell & Weinberg, 1978; Gebbard, 1972; Spada, 1979) began to produce another type of study. Unlike the medical models, whose focus was on the isolation of the cause and the search for a cure, the new models were descriptive in nature. Attempts were made first to find incidence and demographic information, and then to describe the homosexual subculture. Descriptive studies came from two major disciplines, psychology and sociology, and reflected their particular orientations. Researchers in psychology (Whitaker, 1961; Wilson & Green, 1971; Van Aarberg, 1974) investigated and described the incidence of pathology in homosexuals. Naturalistic researchers focused on the homosexual scenes available to the investigator. A "scene" is a small cultural entity, confined to a particular place, circumscribed in duration and often limited to a specific activity (Humphreys & Miller, 1980). The scenes of casual sex--bars, baths, and cruising areas--because of their visibility were often viewed as

typifying the homosexual world and were considered synonymous with the homosexual subculture. Thus, many early investigators wrote of the homosexual subculture as if it were limited to sexual content, and conclusions such as, ". . . community members have only their sexual commitment in common" were reached (Simon & Gagnon, 1967).

Another type of study, with sociological emphasis (Farina, Allen & Saul, 1968; Hedblom, 1972) investigated the attitudes and reactions of heterosexuals to homosexuality and homosexuals. An outgrowth of these studies were investigations of the impact of negative societal attitudes on the psychological adjustment of homosexuals.

Recently, studies utilizing large non-clinical populations have been published. The studies have been descriptive in nature, focusing on both the lifestyle and personal characteristics of homosexuals. From Saghir and Robbins (1973), who described early characteristics, family units, sexual practices, and psychopathology, through Bell and Weinberg (1978), who studied sexual experiences, social and psychological adjustment, and homosexual subtypes, the body of information has continued to grow.

More recent publications, including Masters and Johnson (1979) and Gonsiorek (1982), have been designed specifically for the clinician and were directed toward therapies with homosexual clients. The primary emphases of these studies were twofold: (1) treatment of sexual dysfunction, and (2) assisting the clients in adequate adjustment to their homosexual identities.

Since the incidence of homosexuality in the United States is estimated to be 10 percent of the population (Gebhard, 1972; Kinsey, 1948, 1953), and the homosexual person is twice as likely to seek

therapy or counseling (Bell & Weinberg, 1978), practicing clinicians might expect that approximately 20 percent of their practices could be homosexual clients. Although sexual functioning and assistance in adjustment to homosexual identity may be the focus of treatment with many of these clients, therapists will also be faced with the same range of problems in living as with their heterosexual clients. Satisfying interactions with others, both casual and intimate, will be the goal of therapy in many cases. Therapists may need to be informed about interpersonal styles of interaction in the homosexual "subcultures," i.e., how these differ from heterosexual styles and how they are comparable. This study of interactional variables is intended to provide a comparative sample of three dimensions of interpersonal interactions.

Major Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested.

1. There is no difference between the numbers of female heterosexuals and homosexuals who score in a combined category of low and very low on the total profile of the FIRO-B.
2. There is no difference between the numbers of male heterosexuals and homosexuals who score in the three categories "low", "average", and "high" on Inclusion, both wanted and expressed, as measured by the FIRO-B and classified by Ryan (1970).
3. There is no difference between the numbers of male heterosexuals and homosexuals who score in the three categories "low", "average", and "high" on Control, both wanted and

expressed, as measured by the FIRO-B and classified by Ryan (1970).

4. There is no difference between the numbers of male and female homosexuals that score in the three categories "low", "average", and "high" on Inclusion, both wanted and expressed, as measured by the FIRO-B and classified by Ryan (1970).
5. There is no difference between the numbers of male and female homosexuals that score in the three categories "low", "average", and "high" on Affection, both wanted and expressed, as measured by the FIRO-B and classified by Ryan (1970).
6. There is no difference between the number of homosexuals in a committed relationship and those not so involved on Affection, both wanted and expressed, as measured by the FIRO-B and classified by Ryan (1970).

Organization of the Study

The present chapter includes an introduction to the problem, a statement of the problem and the purpose of the study, the significance of the study and the hypotheses. Chapter II contains a review of the research literature pertinent to this study. Chapter III describes the subject pool and selection of subjects, procedures, instrumentation, definitions of variables, statistical methods and limitations of the study. Chapter IV contains the findings and a discussion of results of the study. Chapter V includes a summary of the results of the study, conclusions, and implications and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Overview

This chapter will review and summarize the literature pertinent to the present study. It will include an overview of the literature, a discussion of the research on both the physiological and psychological etiology of homosexuality, identification of characteristics of homosexuals through psychological tests, and the interpersonal interaction styles of homosexuals.

Although there is extensive literature on homosexuality, much of it is without an empirical base, reflecting little of the spirit of objective scientific inquiry and much of the biases and prejudices of the authors' societal milieu. Prior to World War II, much of the thinking about homosexuality reflected the various confusions of that time: culturally determined traits of masculinity and femininity were causally connected to psychosexual identity; genetic intersexes and hermaphroditism, transexualism and transvestism were all connected and confused with homosexuality. According to Bell & Weinberg (1967), only a few attempts at objective studies with relatively large samples were made, most notably those by Ellis (1936), Hirschfeld (1948), and Stekel (1950).

Following World War II, various disciplines produced numerous studies and articles on homosexuality. Psychiatrists, psychologists,

and theoreticians (Adler, 1964; Horney, 1939; Sullivan, 1953), having labeled homosexuality a mental illness, investigated causes and produced a volume of studies on the theory, methodology, and outcome of an assortment of proposed cures. Anthropologists, notably Davenport (Bell & Weinberg, 1967), have recently begun to consider homosexuality as a subject worthy of study within their province. Geneticists (Kallman, 1952; Money, 1963) are considering the relationship of homosexuality to genetic endowment. Animal behaviorists, including Beach & Young (Bell & Weinberg, 1967) are experimenting with explicating the phylogentic base of homosexual behavior. Homosexuality is also being studied from a sociological perspective (Hooker, 1957; Riess, Faber & Yotive, 1974). Finally, a number of investigator (Bell & Weinberg, 1968; Saghir & Robbins, 1973; Spada, 1979) using large samples have attempted to describe demographics, life styles and sexual attitudes and behaviors of homosexual subjects.

Etiology of Homosexuality

Physiological Theories

Various theoretical positions, whose common denominator is a primarily physiological etiology of homosexuality, have been proposed. These can be generally divided into the central nervous system disturbance theory, chromosomal abnormality theory, and the hormonal imbalance theory.

Central Nervous System Disturbance Theory. Kolasky, Freund, Machek and Poluck (1967) attempted to relate sexual deviancy to temporal brain lesions in early childhood. A total of 86 male epileptic patients

were categorized by experts in the field of sexual deviancy. Two cases of homosexuality were found to be associated with brain damage before three months of age. This was reported as suggestive of a need for further research. The relationships between central nervous system disorders and homosexuality was first investigated by Silverman and Rosanoff (1945). A total of 55 male homosexual subjects from the psychopathic unit of a Medical Center for Federal Prisoners were interviewed and their electroencephalograms (EEGs) were studied. Pathological or borderline variant EEGs were found in 75 percent of the cases. Neurological signs, histories of cerebral lesions and/or a "neuropathic" taint in the patients' families were also found to have a high incidence. The authors concluded that central nervous system abnormality played at least a contributory role in the development of all 55 of the cases studied. The following methodological difficulties should be noted in reviewing this study: (a) the method of obtaining subjects was unlikely to produce a representative sample of homosexuals, (b) no system for categorization and interpretation of the EEGs was employed, and (c) the authors' subjective decisions about historical findings ad hoc resulted in 100 percent support of their theory, which might be considered suspect.

Chromosomal Abnormality Theory. The chromosomal determinant theory was the focus of a major study as early as 1940 when Lang introduced the hypotheses that homosexuals can be defined as intersexed: either feminized males, or males who are genetically female but morphologically male. In the instances of a male who is genetically female, it was expected that there would be significantly more male siblings than average; the reverse was to be expected for female sex

intergrades. A total of 1015 of the homosexuals known to the Munich and Hamburg, Germany police departments were questioned and the hypothesis was supported. In another chromosomal investigation, Pare (1956) used mouth scrapings of 50 male homosexuals to determine chromosomal sex. The chromosomal sex in all cases were male, thus disputing Lang's theory that male homosexuals are genetically female. No support for Lang's genetic reversal theory of homosexuality was found by this author. Studies supporting Pare's findings conducted in England and Germany were reported, but were unavailable to the author of the present study.

Kallman (1952) studied the case histories of 85 twin male homosexuals obtained from psychiatric institutions, prisons and contacts in the homosexual world. The subjects had Kinsey ratings¹ of three to six; 40 were identical twins. Nearly complete concordance in overt homosexual behavior was found in the monozygotic twins even when they were raised apart. Kallman suggests that this supports the hypothesis of chromosomal irregularity operating to disturb the sexual development process, thus predisposing an individual to homosexuality.

Studies replicating Kallman's with monozygotic twins were reported by Klintworth (1962) and Heston and Shields (1968). Interactions between genetic and environmental factors were suggested by these writers as the etiology of homosexuality.

Hormonal Imbalance Theories. The endocrinologic hypothesis has produced the largest body of literature on the physiological etiology of homosexuality. The earliest study to investigate the theory of

¹The 7-point Kinsey Scale, which ranges from "exclusively heterosexual" (a score of 0) to "exclusively homosexual" (a score of 6), permits classification of subjects by averaging the number obtained from self-rating of feelings with the number obtained from self-rating of behavior (Bell, Weinburg, and Hammersmith, 1981).

hormonal imbalance found by the author was reported by Glass, Deuel, and Wright (1940). Androgen and estrogen levels in 17 male homosexuals and 20 male heterosexuals were tested. Homosexual males were found to have lower androgen to estrogen ratings.

Myerson, Neustadt, and Rak (1941) reported clinical findings from a hormonal analysis of the urine of 29 male homosexuals. Endocrinological factors as significant in the etiology of homosexuality were supported by the identification of the overt homosexual without any heterosexual drive with only a small margin of error (commentary by Hoskins and Coriat suggests disagreement as to the etiological significance of endocrinological and psychological factors).

Myerson and Neustadt (1945) contended that hormones directly affect sexual interests and behavior. A total of 15 male homosexuals were given a new male hormone preparation (Metandren). In 13 cases homosexual desire decreased or disappeared; in 5 of these cases a heterosexual drive was established. However, in no case was this desire sufficient to bring about a successful heterosexual lifestyle. It was concluded that adult homosexuality could not be completely cured by hormones, but hormone therapy offered the best chance at modification.

Hirschfeld (1948), in his physiological text on sexual deviation, argued that sex hormones are the decisive factor in determining the development of sexuality and that sexual anomalies, including homosexuality are caused by irregularities in this sexual development. Hirschfeld specifically criticizes views of homosexuality as an acquired trait, including Freudian theory, arguing that it is congenital and hereditary.

Other studies which support the endocrinological etiology of homosexuality were also reported by Lurie (1944), Neustatter (1954), and Sevringhaus and Chornyak (1945). Williams (1944) found a connection between hormones and homosexuality only in the "feminine" male homosexual.

An exception to these early studies was that of Perloff (1949) who conducted physical examinations which included studies of hormone levels. He concluded that relative estrogen and androgen levels do not affect the choice of sex object. Hormone therapy would therefore affect the sexual urge but not the sexual orientation. Perloff therefore stated that the etiology of homosexuality is purely psychological. More recently, three studies (Bell, Weinberg, & Hammersmith, 1981; Dorner, 1967; and West, 1977) have reported significantly lower levels of male hormones in homosexual men than those in heterosexual men. Lesbians were found to have significantly higher levels of the male hormone testosterone than a control group of heterosexual women (Gartell, Leuroux & Chase, 1977). Women whose mothers were injected with androgen during the second trimester of pregnancy have been found to have significantly more potential for homosexuality (Bell, Weinberg, & Hammersmith, 1981; Masica, Money, & Ehrhardt, 1969).

Money (1963) investigated and reviewed various genetic, endocrinologic and embryonic factors for a possible causal relationship with homosexuality. He also considered sex assignment, gender identity, imprinting and family patterns as possible factors in the genesis of homosexuality. Money reported that recent discoveries relating to the influence of hormones on the hypothalamus, as well as genetically determined physiological traits may predispose an individual to the

development of a homosexual orientation. The final determination of sexual orientation was found to be independent of endocrinological and genetic factors. Gender assignment congruence or incongruence with gender identity was identified as most significant in the psychosexual development of the individual.

Bell, Weinberg, and Hammersmith (1981) in discussing the investigation of the etiology of sexual preference, report that their findings are not inconsistent with the hypothesis of biological basis, which they discuss primarily in terms of hormonal variations. They further suggest that if there is a biological basis for homosexuality it has several implications: (a) that the biological basis probably operates most powerfully for exclusive homosexuals and it is of lesser significance for bisexuals; (b) that if a biological basis exists it probably accounts for gender nonconformity as well as for sexual orientations; and (c) that therefore this basis can apply equally for feminine or masculine lesbians and for effeminate or masculine male homosexuals. Gender nonconformity as evidenced by cross-gender play interests, childhood characteristics, or the sense of personal identity is not limited to noticeably cross-gendered adults.

The above-mentioned finding contradicts earlier studies which suggest variations in hormonal levels in homosexuals are related not only to sexual object choice, but also to the cross-gendered appearance, characteristics and behaviors. Bell, Weinberg, and Hammersmith (1981), in their review of research supporting the hormonal theory of sexual orientation, and following their own investigation into etiology of sexual preference, disclaim a linkage between endocrinological

etiology and adult cross-gendered characteristics. Therefore, the biological theory of sexual preference does not decree differences between the effeminate or masculine heterosexual male or female and the effeminate or masculine homosexual male or female in physical characteristics or observable behaviors.

The connection between a biological basis and gender nonconformity would suggest possible personality differences resulting both from the direct relationship between gender nonconformity and personality characteristics and the interaction of the environment with the gender nonconforming individual and the resulting impact on the development of personality.

Psychological Theories

Early theoreticians and psychologists from Freud to the present day have proposed various theories of the causes of homosexuality. Freud (1927) remarked that he believed homosexuality would be found to be normally caused. However, earlier writings on psychosexual development have been interpreted as positing an etiology of homosexuality as a flight from incest, involving Oedipus or Electra complexes. Freud postulated several theories concerning the development or cause of homosexuality. When consulting with Dr. Helene Deutch, his student and colleague, concerning a lesbian client, however, he is reported to have said, "What does it matter as long as she's happy?" (Katz, 1976, p. 247).

Adler's (1964) approach to homosexuality reflects his theory of personality: that the personality and behavior of a person is shaped less by psychological and biological forces than by social interactions.

Homosexuality was considered one of many types of failure and reflected low self-esteem. Children who feel unable to succeed in their gender roles may avoid defeat in normal sexuality by turning to homosexuality. Although accepting the idea of instinctive bisexuality, Stekel (1950) considered that homosexuality was a neurosis resulting from sublimation and reaction formation. Like Adler, he believed that the homosexual felt unable to succeed in love and life through the usual route, so he renounced heterosexuality for homosexuality.

Ferenczi (Karlen, 1971) decried the traditional division of homosexuals as active or passive. He made the distinction between inverted gender identity and inverted object choice and introduced the categories subject homosexuality and object homosexuality. The "subject" homosexual loved his father but wanted the attributes of his mother that won her the love of his father. Such a homosexual was seen as incurable, owing his state to an anomaly of development that had a constitutional basis.

The "object" homosexual was seen as a spoiled narcissistic child, sexually precocious and obsessive. His heterosexual urges were punished or impeded by his mother. Homosexuality was then a way of living up to parental interdictions by the letter of the law and the removing the Oedipal rivalry with his father.

Ego psychologists broke with traditional Freudian theory in talking less of instinct and more of security, less of the interplay of internal psychological forces and more of the interplay with family and social relationships. Horney (1939), a representative of ego psychology, believed that homosexuality was the result of not instinct, but emotional needs so imperative that they overrode sex distinctions.

In some homosexuals the need to subdue men and women was predominant. In others, homosexuality was the result of an overwhelming need for affection.

Sullivan (1953) did not consider homosexuality a problem in itself but a way of adjusting to sexuality. He attempted to identify a relationship between homosexuality and unsatisfied chumship needs in adolescence and the difficulty in dealing with the lust that comes in puberty.

A body of literature supporting and opposing Freudian and ego psychology theory as to the etiology of homosexuality reflected the interest of psychologists and sociologists in the subject. Many of the causes proposed were examined by Ellis (1897) and more recently and exhaustively by Bell, Weinberg, and Hammersmith (1981).

The family was the most frequently studied causal element. Some writers ascribed homosexuality to any or all of a number of problems which might exist in the family: hostility toward the mother, excessive affection for the mother, hostility toward the father, affection for an insufficiently masculine father, the Oedipus complex or a broken home (Allen, 1967).

Others found homosexual orientation to be caused by a particular disturbance in the family of origin. Benda (1963) blamed a seductive relationship with the mother combined with hatred and fear of the father. Bender and Paster (1941) found that a hated, inadequate or absent parent of either sex could cause inappropriate identification and thus homosexuality. Secor (1949) found the family constellation to be an important influence in the development of homosexuality. Shearer (1966) considered that a harsh father, a weak father, a

domineering mother, or an overly involved mother could result in homosexuality in their children. Caprio (1954) found that homosexuality is a symptom of a deep-seated nervous disorder that could be traced to a neurotic relationship with a family member.

Bene (1965a) supported the theory that poor relationships with fathers, and specifically, ineffective fathers, was associated with male homosexuality. In another study, Bene (1965b) found that although lesbians tended to have "weak" fathers, they felt afraid of and hostile towards these "passive" men. Avoidance of competition with the father as causal was supported by Legman (1950) and Levisky (1952). Beukenkamp (1960) concurred, explaining that competition with the inadequate father increased the patricidal drive, thus inducing guilt which may be resolved by singling out the father as a love object. West (1959) found that the presence of an over-intense and unsatisfactory relationship with the father was associated with male homosexuality.

Bieber (1965, 1968) specifically states that constitutional factors are not involved in the etiology of homosexuality. In contrast with the psychoanalytic view of male homosexuality that the female is the centrally feared and hated figure, Bieber believed that the male is feared and hated while the female is loved but avoided. Causally, the mother who has an inappropriately intimate relationship with her son is most significant. Support for this theory is found in studies by Brown (1962) and Moore (1945).

A related but somewhat contradictory theory of the mother as most significant contributor to homosexuality because of dominance or excessive control was supported by Ernst (1947), Edwards (1963) and Gershman (1966). Disturbed parent-child relationships, parental

conflict or broken homes were found to be significantly associated with homosexuality by Hadden (1967), Higley (1954), Keiser and Schaffer (1949), and Wulff (1954). The theory that overt homosexuality is most importantly a "flight from incest" was proposed by Hamilton (1936) and supported by Wilbur (1965). Treatment of the child as a member of the opposite sex was posited as causal by Crane (1945). Parental presentation of inappropriate or polarized gender characteristics as a causal factor in the development of homosexuality was supported by Henry (1948) and Hampson (1964).

Inappropriate resolution of developmental stages as a cause of homosexuality was suggested by Freud (1924). Support for inadequate resolution of the Oedipal crisis as causal was provided by Allen (1967), London and Caprio (1950), Roberticello (1964), and Wilbur (1965). The concept of homosexuality as a reflection of arrest at an "immature" level of psychosexual development was supported by the "Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry" (1955), Auerbach (1968), Caprio (1955), Forkner (1954), and Karpman (1954).

Thus, theories and studies have presented as causal to homosexuality the absent mother, the domineering mother, the over-feminine and over-masculine, and the overinvolved mother; the absent father, the punitive father, the feared father, the weak father, the over- and under-masculine father. Parents who love or are loved too much or too little, parents who have inappropriate gender characteristics, parents who wanted a child of the opposite sex, parents who fight, parents who separate and parents who are temporarily or permanently absent were seen as causing homosexuality.

Parents, together or separately, who do any of the aforementioned or who act in some non-specified manner may also be involved in etiology

of homosexuality by causing or allowing their children to be fixated at the pre-Oedipal, Oedipal, or other immature stage of psychosexual development. Parents may also be indicted for causing the development of neuroses which in turn cause homosexuality (Hulbeck, 1948; Lurie and Jonas, 1945; and Mozes, 1952).

Reasons for the above-mentioned diverse and contradictory hypotheses can be found in the methodology of the development of theory. Theories were sometimes developed by relating data observed in the clinical milieu to the psychological theory. One-shot case studies were frequently published as in-depth findings supporting a particular conclusion. When numbers of subjects were used, these were typically drawn from institutional settings, prisons or mental hospitals, or from clinical psychiatric practice. Use of control groups of heterosexual subjects from the same population was infrequent and unsystematic. Use of control groups of homosexuals outside clinical or institutional populations was nonexistent. The difficulty of obtaining such groups could be suggested as an explanation for the lack both of control groups and of studies done in using non-clinical, non-institutional populations of homosexuals. The lack of availability of lesbian subjects means that the etiology of female homosexuality was either ignored or generalized to by studying male homosexuals.

Researchers and theoreticians whose primary concerns were the psychological and sociological forces which caused homosexuality did not concern themselves directly with postulating characteristics of homosexuals. Implied in the various theories is, however, the notion that homosexuals are either: (a) immature, (b) neurotic, (c) socially maladept and unattractive, or (d) all of the above.

Identification of Characteristics
of Homosexuals

The process of searching for the psychological etiology and for a cure for the "illness" of homosexuality led to the use of psychological tests to support the hypothesis that significant psychopathology would be found in homosexuals. Bruce (1942) reported that homosexual males score significantly higher on tests of neuroticism, hysteria, mania, depression, autism, and paranoia. A later study employing ten psychological tests, found only that homosexual males demonstrated higher levels of anxiety (Doidge, 1956). Homosexual males were found to have lower self-esteem and self-acceptance than heterosexual controls in Myrick's (1974a) study, and Friedberg (1975) concluded that homosexual males were more paranoid than heterosexual males. Findings of "neuroticism" in homosexual males should be regarded as suspect, according to Van Aardweg (1969). This is supported by Gundlack and Riess (1967), who concluded:

The definition of neuroticism therefore seems to be influenced by the somewhat archaic stereotypes of the investigator . . . a finding of greater passivity in male homosexuals . . . was interpreted as neurotic because for a male to be passive is a maladaptive feature and therefore neurotic (p. 197).

Results demonstrating pathology in female homosexuals come primarily from two major studies. Kenyon (1968) found that lesbians demonstrated a higher level of neuroticism and were more severely disturbed in their moods and feelings than their heterosexual counterparts. The homosexuals in this study, however, were predominately bisexual and had numerous heterosexual experiences. Saghir and Robins (1973) found a higher level of incidence of affective disorders in their lesbian subjects. Riess (1967), commenting on the findings of pathology

in the Saghir and Robins study, states that homosexuals ". . . share a greater degree of maladjustment than the heterosexuals, but this is accounted for by a single item--alcoholism" (p. 205).

A number of other studies have found no distinctions between homosexual and heterosexual individuals on the basis of their psychological adjustment. Chang and Block (1960) reported that there was no difference between homosexual and heterosexual men in their degree of self-acceptance as did Saghir and Robins (1973). In Hooker's (1957) study, experts were unable to distinguish homosexuals and heterosexuals on the basis of their Rorschach protocols or on their responses to the Thematic Apperception Test cards or the Make a Picture Story Test. In an earlier study using men in the military, (Wayne, 1947), the Rorschach and Thematic Apperception Test protocols indicated no significant differences between homosexual and heterosexual men. Sexual orientation was found not to be related to scores on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (including measures of self-concept, neurosis, and personality integration) (Clark, 1975). Saghir and Robins (1973) found no differences between homosexual and heterosexual men with regards to depression, anxiety or psychosomatic symptoms.

Using a battery of objective measures, lesbians were found not to differ from heterosexual women in their self-acceptance, psychological adjustment or degree of neuroticism by Freedman (1967). Armon (1960), using the Rorschach, Draw-A-Person, and the Terman Masculinity-Femininity Scale, and Siegelman (1972) found no differences between homosexual and heterosexual women in pathological thinking. A study comparing homosexual and heterosexual women in terms of scores from the MMPI showed no major differences in psychological adjustment on the MMPI

total score. Riess (1974) found lesbians to be more self-accepting and less depressed than heterosexual women, while Wilson and Greene (1971) found a higher degree of neuroticism among heterosexual women than among the lesbians they studied.

Bell and Weinberg (1979) found that in their typology, only dysfunctional and asexual homosexuals were less well off psychologically than those in matched heterosexual groups. Among the men, the close-coupled homosexuals could not be distinguished from heterosexuals on various measures of psychological adjustment and scored higher on two happiness measures. Functional homosexual men also did not differ from heterosexual men on measures of psychological adjustment. Among women, close-coupled differed only in that the lesbians reported less loneliness; and functionals differed only in that lesbians reported having more enjoyment of life.

Methodology, experimental bias, and societal milieu of subjects are not the only variables to consider in evaluating the somewhat contradictory conclusions of these studies. Even if the hypotheses of greater psychopathology and subjective experience of unhappiness were supported, it would remain to be considered whether these were caused by the condition of being homosexual, or were a result of negative societal reactions to homosexuals and the consequent additional stress experienced by homosexuals. Equally, studies reporting lesbians to be more self-accepting, less depressed, or less neurotic, should be examined with consideration as to whether these characteristics belong to the individual or result from a particular lifestyle.

The administration of psychological tests to homosexual and heterosexual subjects provided not only measures of mental health, but also information about personality characteristics on which the groups

differed. Additionally, large-sample studies of the behaviors of homosexuals provide data from which inferences may be drawn about personality variables. Other, and often more recent studies, were designed to test hypotheses about differences on characteristics between homosexual and heterosexual subjects.

Interpersonal Interaction Styles of Homosexuals

Although the variables measured by the FIRO-B (wanted and expressed Inclusion, Control and Affection) are by necessity and design expressed in terms of interaction with others, the interaction style of an individual is affected by personal characteristics. The differences between homosexual and heterosexual subjects as discussed in the above-described studies lead to expectations of differences in the scores of homosexual and heterosexual subjects on some dimensions of the FIRO-B.

Earlier studies of the etiology of homosexuality also have implications concerning personality. Expectations directly stated on inferences drawn from both physiological and psychological hypotheses generate expectations about personality variables.

Implications generated from these theories of etiology, inferences available from large sample sociosexual studies, as well as findings from measures obtained from psychological tests and observations from clinicians and sociologists will be discussed as they impact upon the scores obtained on the three dimensions of the FIRO-B.

Inclusion. The expressed aspect of the Inclusion dimension measures the degree to which an individual makes an effort to include other people, to be in social groups, and to move toward others. The wanted

aspect of Inclusion measures the degree to which an individual wants other people to include him, to move towards him, and whether or not he makes a behavioral effort to encourage others to include him.

Physiological theories of the etiology of homosexuality have significance primarily through the related hypotheses generated by psychological theorists. If one is "different" because of chromosomes, central nervous system disorders and especially through cross-gender characteristics suggested by hormonal etiology, then one may be rejected by one's peers. This rejection, whether perceived as resulting from physiologically caused homosexuality or as causal in producing homosexuals (Adler, 1964; Stekel, 1950) implies dysfunctional interactions with others. One might adopt the excessive stance of constantly joining groups, attempting to meet and please people, so that the need to be accepted might be met through increasing the numbers of persons available to accept one. Rejection in childhood and adolescence might also produce the opposite reaction--never initiating contacts with people and avoiding places where people gather so that the opportunities for the anticipated rejection would be minimized.

Whatever the expressed behavior, it would be anticipated that wanted Inclusion would be high. Schutz's (1967) descriptive sentence for wanted Inclusion, "I want other people to include me in their activities and to invite me to belong, even if I do not make an effort to be included," would seem to accurately describe the attitude of the individual whose inclusion needs have been thwarted in his early life. Developmentalists, such as Erikson and Kolberg (Corsini, 1973) and motivational theorists such as Maslow (Corsini, 1973), emphasize that

movement through life's tasks is prevented by failure to move through appropriate stages or satisfy certain needs. If social acceptance is not obtained then it follows that development will be thwarted. The natural tendency of the organism to develop will lead to a desire for this need to be satisfied so that the movement on to other tasks can occur.

When considered together, implications from physiological theories of etiology, psychological theory of neurotic interaction style, and developmental theories would lead one to hypothesize that homosexual men and women would obtain more extreme scores on the FIRO-B measure of expressed inclusion in either the very high or very low direction; one might also expect that more homosexual men and women than heterosexual men and women would score in the very high or high range of wanted inclusion.

Recent studies of homosexual behavior (Bell & Weinberg, 1978; Saghir & Robins, 1973; and Spada, 1979) contain data which appear to contradict hypothesis generated by etiological research and psychological theory as previously described, particularly data regarding the sexual behavior of homosexual men as reported by the above authors. Saghir and Robins (1973) found that all homosexual males reported casual or transient relationships and 97 percent of them had seven or more sex relationships. Only 30 percent of the heterosexual male control group reported seven or more sexual relationships.

Bell and Weinburg (1978) found that:

. . . homosexual men tend to have many more partners than homosexual women and are more apt to engage in sexual activities with persons who are virtual strangers to them. This phenomenon evident in other aspects of their homosexual activity has already been attributed to greater tendency of males in general to separate sex from affection and to estimate

their personal worth on the basis of how much sex they have (p. 101).

. . . almost one-half of the white homosexual males and one-third of the black homosexual males said they had had at least 500 different sexual partners during the course of their homosexual careers. Another third of the white homosexual males and a quarter of the black homosexual males reported having had between 100 and 500 partners . . . over 90 percent of our white male respondents reported having 25 or more partners (p. 85).

Spada (1970) agrees with the findings of Bell and Weinberg, Saghir and Robins, as to number of sexual contacts among homosexual men. He also states that "a high level of sexual availability is a major component of most gay men's lives" (p. 68).

Relating this information to a hypothesis regarding scores on expressed Inclusion, it is useful to refer to Humphreys and Miller's (1980) typology of cultural units. A "scene" is a cultural group which has distinctive, if only partial, sets of values, a high degree of differential association, and a jargon or argot which helps members identify each other. "Scenes" require face-to-face interaction and are highly localized. Cruising scenes, the scenes of casual sex, function in part to facilitate sexual liaisons. For the homosexual male to have engaged in the reported large number of sexual liaisons, he must identify with one or more of these scenes, or other homosexual scenes involving recreational or political pursuits. The minimum expressed inclusion behavior required to accomplish sexual contact involves being accepted in a chosen scene, and giving the appearance of availability--appropriate facial expressions, eye contact, etc. Consequently, one may conclude from the data (Bell & Weinberg, 1978; Saghir & Robins, 1973) regarding numbers of sexual contacts that the homosexual male may be expected to at least minimally move towards

others: go to places others will be, and/or join formal organizations and have identification with one or more homosexual "scenes".

A reasonable hypothesis, therefore, from behavioral observations of homosexual males is to expect that homosexual males will score in the high or very high categories of expressed inclusion when compared to heterosexual males. As Bell and Weinberg (1978) report, the greater availability of casual sex to homosexual males than to heterosexual males is due to male socialization. This same socialization places a premium on number and frequency of sexual contact and thus functional behavior for the homosexual male involves possessing and employing the social skills necessary to achieve these sexual goals.

Data about the behavior of homosexual women is limited and different from that about homosexual men. Saghir and Robins (1973) found lesbians rarely cruised in public places. They were much more apt to find a sexual partner among friends, at work, or at social gatherings. Lesbians tended to have limited numbers of sexual contacts, averaging from one to seven and these were apt to be in the context of a relationship rather than on one-time casual bases.

Bell and Weinberg (1978) reported that almost three-quarters of their female homosexual sample were currently involved in a relatively stable relationship with another woman and that these relationships were generally totally monogamous. This is supported by the subjective impression of Martin and Lyon (1972). Consequently, homosexual women can neither be expected to have the same need to belong to "scenes" to obtain sex partners, or nor to exhibit inclusion behavior toward strangers, if they do belong to a particular "scene", since obtaining a sexual contact will rarely be the motivation for belonging to such a "scene".

Functional inclusion behavior for the homosexual female might include a high degree of interaction with a number of others, including acquaintances, moderate interaction with a particular social group, or interaction limited to a partner and a few close friends. The degree of interaction sought with heterosexual others might be expected to be tempered by fear of exposure of sexual identity (Collier, 1982). This concern, together with the hypothesis generated by theories of etiology would lead one to anticipate that the scores of homosexual females would be somewhat lower than the scores of heterosexual females on expressed inclusion.

For both homosexual males and females, a consideration of the tendency of minority groups to identify with a subcultural group and/or scene (Humphrey & Miller, 1980), lead to an alternative hypothesis regarding wanted inclusion. Ryan (1971) describes an "exclusive clubber" as one who is desirous of inclusion only in activities of select individuals or groups, and one who has not any desire for inclusion by those outside his "exclusive club". The homosexual subculture, spawning various "scenes" may be conceptualized as a large exclusive club, with many small exclusive clubs. The homosexual male or female might thus be expected, as a member of a subculture and/or scene, to respond as a member of an "exclusive club". Thus although acceptance needs might be high, these might be met within the "exclusive club" and actual scores on wanted inclusion might be expected to be in the low or very low categories.

Control. Control dimension of the FIRO-B is intended to give a measure of the degree to which individuals see themselves as behaving in a way that controls others (expressed control) and/or how much

individuals want to be controlled, to be dependent upon others (wanted control). Weinberger (1977, p. 10) found that the FIRO-B "significantly differentiated 'overdependent' from 'independent' subjects by sex on the basis of both their dating histories and their self-concepts." Weinberger found only 6 out of 200 males in one study and 3 out of 156 males in another study who could be classified as dependent males. He found a psychometric similarity, however, between independent males and dependent females which led him to theorize that the independent male group was actually a confounded group containing "both truly independent males and/or other males either unaware of their interpersonal state or unwilling to admit to it" (p. 13).

Out of 175 females tested in Weinberger's study, 82 were defined as "independent" and 15 as "dependent". These findings are consistent with the results reported by Ryan in 1977 in which, out of a population of 656 patients admitted to the Veterans Administration Hospital, Outpatient Clinic in St. Petersburg in 1975, only 5 percent had dependent scores on the FIRO-B. (It is interesting to note that the percentage of dependent subjects is small compared to Schutz's 1958 data.) The recent data of Weinberger and Ryan suggests that the percentage of dependent males and females (zero to three on expressed control, seven to nine on wanted control on the FIRO-B), to be anticipated from the heterosexual sample is low.

Although Schutz's original data is somewhat dated, it is borne out in one area, although in small percentage by Weinberger's data. Males are expected to score higher in expressed control, lower in wanted control than females, who are more likely to exhibit dependent profiles than males (15-3, Weinberger, 1977). If hormonal etiology of homosexuality

is supported, with its accompanying assumptions of effeminate males and masculine females, one would expect a reversal in homosexual data. Studies speaking to independence-dependence fail to support this expectation. This includes numerous studies assessing personality characteristics (Socarides, 1968; Whitaker, 1961; Zucker & Manosevitz, 1966); all fail to find evidence of dependency in male homosexuals or need for control in female homosexuals. In self-report data (Bell & Weinberg, 1978; Saghir & Robins, 1973), only 17 percent of all homosexual males reported spending three or months in a dependent or supporting role in a relationship. Saghir and Robins (1973) found that significantly more homosexuals (30 percent) than heterosexual males (6 percent) avoid competition. Armon (1958) investigated the dependency orientation of homosexual women; no significant difference from heterosexual women was found. Friedman (1967) found that homosexual women had more independence and inner-direction than heterosexual women. Gianell (1966) found that lesbians were higher on the need for autonomy and had lower needs for dependence than heterosexuals. Bell, Weinberg, and Hammersmith (1981) found that homosexuals were more androgenous, non-gender role conferring than heterosexuals; however, this does not imply that homosexuals possess cross-gender characteristics.

Consequently, the only hypothesis about control scores on the FIRO-B generated by the literature is that there is no difference between heterosexual and homosexual males on wanted control. The Saghir and Robins data relating to competition in males suggests that expressed control scores for male homosexuals may be lower than for male homosexuals. Homosexual woman may be expected to have fewer

low expressed control scores and/or high wanted control scores in the homosexual women than in the heterosexual sample.

Affection. According to Schutz (1960), the interpersonal need for affection as measured by the FIRO-B is defined as the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relation with others with respect to love and affection. Love and affection always refers to a two-person or dyadic relationship. The expressed measure scores on a dimension ranging from initiating close, personal relations with everyone to initiating close personal relationships with no one, while the wanted scores reflect a range from always wanting others to initiate close, personal relationships towards itself to never wanting others to initiate close personal relationships towards the self.

Bell and Weinberg (1978) report that more male homosexuals (55 percent) than male heterosexuals (40 percent) had five or more close friends, and more female homosexuals (55 percent) than female heterosexuals (45 percent) had five or more close friends. Bell and Weinberg also report that "many homosexual men and women belonged to cliques or friendship groups of from six to two dozen members. These were groups of friends who regularly got together socially . . . " (p. 247). Bell and Weinberg also report that nearly 50 percent of male homosexuals and "almost all" of female homosexuals were involved in an affair, defined as a relationship with more than one year's duration, at the time of the interview.

Male homosexuals spend less of their adult lives involved in relationships lasting longer than one year than do female homosexuals or male or female heterosexuals and place greater value on number and variety of sex partners at least until age 30 than do any of the

other groups (Bell & Weinberg, 1978). Because most male homosexual contacts are sexual and transient in nature, just as one would anticipate high-moderate scores on expressed Inclusion, one would expect caution in initiating intimacy, resulting in low scores on expressed affection. However, almost all male and female homosexuals expressed the desire for a close and lasting relationship as a significant interpersonal value (Bell & Weinberg, 1978; Masters & Johnson, 1979; Saghir & Robins, 1973). This would presumably dictate a moderate to moderately high wanted Affection in both male and female homosexuals, although not necessarily higher than male and female heterosexuals. However, the items on the FIRO-B measure a dimension between always and never wanting others to initiate close, personal relationships towards the self. The tendency of the homosexual male (Gonsorek, 1982) and the homosexual female (Collier, 1982) to consider others to include the heterosexual population, and the difficulty this may present (Collier, 1982) would lead one to expect lower wanted affection scores in the homosexual population than in the heterosexual population who do not have this concern.

Summary

Some tentative conclusions are suggested by this survey of the research relating homosexuality and particularly homosexuals and interaction variables.

1. Studies concerning etiology of homosexuality were inconclusive and contradictory.
2. A genetic component in the etiology of homosexuality has not been disproven and is supported by evidence in most recent studies.

3. Inferences from etiological studies of homosexuality, psychological theories concerning the etiology of homosexuality, as well as behavioral studies indicate that homosexual men and women may differ from heterosexual men and women on the variables measured by the FIRO-B: Inclusion, Control, and Affection.
4. Expectations of the direction of the differences sometimes appear to be conflicting, but the apparent conflict can be explained by an understanding of the characteristics of the sub-groups, and of the particular characteristics of the homosexual sub-culture.
5. The hypotheses investigated by this researcher are suggested by the preceding review of the literature. However, because some interpretation of the literature was necessary, a pilot study was done.
6. Hypotheses investigated by this study as generated by the review of literature was supported by analysis of the data provided by the pilot study.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Subjects

Homosexual subjects were randomly selected from the mailing list of a homophile organization in a midwestern community. The list has 1,147 names; 22 are of organizations, 57 are self-declared heterosexuals, the remainder, 1,068, are of self-declared homosexuals. Fifty-two percent of the persons on the list live in the one community, 35 percent live in the rest of the state, 8 percent are from a neighboring state, and the other 5 percent are from various other states. A total of 62 percent are males and 38 percent are females. The age range is from 18 to 67.

Names on the mailing list were collected during the period of July 1981 through March 1982 in the following ways: (a) Signatures on a petition opposing "Anti-Gay Legislation" were collected from persons at meetings of five state homophile organizations and by the chairpersons of the community homophile organization at various social functions for homosexual persons. Names from the petitions comprise 54 percent of the mailing list; (b) requests to be placed on the mailing list, solicited at homophile organization meetings, comprise 12 percent; (c) persons calling the community "gay information line" and requesting inclusion on the mailing list comprise 4 percent; and (d) persons

writing the editor of the homophile organization's newsletter and requesting inclusion on the mailing list comprise 4 percent. The mailing list is computerized and coded according to sexual preference, membership in homophile organizations, method of collection, and whether or not mail should be sent (some persons request phone calls only).

The names of 50 male and 50 female homosexuals were randomly selected by the computer. This sets the probability of power, the ability of a test to reject the null hypothesis when it is false, at 89 percent with Type I error $\leq .05$, for Chi Square, assuming computation for a large difference.

A replacement pool of 25 males and 25 females was also drawn. In order to control for age, five males and two females over 30 were eliminated from the original sample, as were four males and three females who were unavailable for the study. A total of nine male subjects and five female subjects were randomly selected from the replacement pool for use in the study.

Heterosexual subjects were obtained from Adolescent Psychology classes at a large comprehensive university located in the same community. A total of 53 males and 67 females participated in the study; all subjects were self-declared heterosexuals. International students were eliminated from the study because norms for the FIRO-B were not available for this group. Age was controlled for by eliminating volunteers over age 30. The remaining volunteers were randomly selected for use as subjects with N = 50 males and 50 females.

Classification of Subjects

The data sheet (Appendix) was completed by all subjects. Item 11 asks subjects to indicate sexual preference by circling either heterosexual, homosexual, or bisexual. Self-declaration of sexual preference as either heterosexual or homosexual was sufficient for inclusion in the study (Bell and Weinberg, 1978). Persons declaring themselves to be bisexual were eliminated from this study a priori because the expected N was small, and because of inadequate criteria for defining this group.

Protection of Subjects

Anonymity of subjects was protected as follows: (a) subjects could choose not to include their names on the test forms or data sheets; (b) subjects who were interested in participating in a possible follow-up study wrote their names on the test forms. These subjects will be assured of confidentiality. These names were transferred to a master list with the subject numbers as quickly as possible and then obliterated on the test forms. The master list was and is kept in a locked file; test forms and data sheets were also to be kept in this file when not in use for this study.

Procedure for Administration

The FIRO-B was administered to homosexual subjects individually or in small groups. It was administered to the Adolescent Psychology classes during regularly scheduled class times. Data sheets were completed at the same time and collected with the FIRO-B profiles. Initial instructions to all volunteers were as follows:

"I am Sherry Maxwell, a graduate student in Student Personnel and Guidance. At this time I am conducting some research concerning how people relate to each other. I need subjects in order to obtain data. There is one questionnaire, a standardized instrument, and one personal data sheet. Please do not fill in the space for your name. I do not need your names or any other identifying information other than that on the data sheet. No one other than myself will see your questionnaire or data sheets. Results of this study will be presented in group form; no individual case studies will be used.

"You may, of course, choose not to participate in this study.

"You may notice that on the standardized instrument, many questions are repeated. This is for scoring purposes, not to check on your truthfulness or your memory.

"All materials will be kept confidential. Results of this study will be available by May, 1983. If you are interested in feedback you may contact me at this time."

The researcher will be available to the subjects to clarify instructions or to deal with any negative outcome which might result from participating in the study. A brief summary of the results of the study will be made available to those requesting it.

Description of the Instrument

The FIRO-B is a 54-item questionnaire compiled by Schutz (1958). It measures three dimensions of interpersonal relationships: Inclusion, Control, and Affection. For each dimension, or variable, two scores are obtained: expressed behavior (e)--that which is observable, and wanted behavior (w)--that which is preferred from others.

Six basic questions are stated nine different ways; subjects are asked to choose their responses to each item from a list of six possible responses. For subjects to invalidate the test they must consistently record answers that are opposed to their theroretically real answers. Since according to Ryan (1970), the questions are "naive and benign in appearance", the FIRO-B tends not to induce anxiety and thus the probability of faking is low.

The primary purposes of the FIRO-B are: (1) to measure how an individual acts in interpersonal situations, and (2) to provide an instrument that will facilitate the prediction of interaction between people (Schutz, 1967). The underlying theory is that the three dimensions measured are needs which exist in everyone. The test is designed to measure the degree to which specific needs exist and the likelihood of these needs being met, based upon the behavior of the subject.

The fundamental interpersonal dimensions of the FIRO-B theory, Inclusion (I), Control (C), and Affection (A), are defined behaviorally by Schutz (1967):

Inclusion--The interpersonal need for inclusion is the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relationship with people with respect to interaction and association. It relates to the needs for attention, acknowledgment, identity, and participation.

Control--The interpersonal need for control is the need to establish and maintain a satisfactory relationship with others with respect to control and power. Control behavior refers to the decision-making process between people. The need for control may manifest itself as the desire for power, authority over others, and thus over one's own future. At the other end is the need to be controlled, to

have responsibility taken away and given to another. There is not necessarily a relationship between an individual's behavior towards controlling others and his behavior towards being controlled.

Affection--The interpersonal need for affection is the need to have a satisfactory relationship with others with respect to love and affection. In general, affection behavior refers to intimate, personal, emotional feelings between two persons, whereas both inclusion and control may occur in dyads or between one individual and any number of others. Affectional relations may be between family members, friends, or lovers.

Each of these variables is measured on two dimensions: expressed behavior (e)--that which is observable, by the "average" other person, and wanted behavior (w)--that which is preferred from others.

Reliability of the FIRO-B

Coefficient of Internal Consistency. Since the scales to the FIRO-B are all Guttman scales, reproducibility is the appropriate measure of internal consistency. The FIRO-B scales were developed using responses of about 150 subjects and the reproducibility computed utilizing the responses of the remainder of the sample, approximately 1550 subjects. Subjects were mostly college students. Mean coefficient of internal consistency as reported by Schutz (1967) are .94.

Coefficient of Stability. This refers to the correlation between test scores and scores on retest after a time lapse. Schutz (1967) gives test-retest reliability coefficients among Harvard students over a one-week period. The mean coefficient on the six scales is .76.

Since this study will classify subjects as "very high", "high", "average", "low", and "very low", it is of interest to consider how many subjects may be expected to retain the same classification on retest. A study by Schutz (1967) evaluates the stability of the scales when subjects were divided into "high", "middle", and "low" categories. A total of 70 percent of the "highs" and "lows" remained in the same category on retest, whereas half of the "middles" retained their status.

Validity of the FIRO-B

Content Validity. Means and reliability coefficients were established by Gilligan in 1973 and found to be lower than those reported in the manual. Internal consistency was found to be highest in the overall scales (.81) and in the sums of the wanted and expressed scales (.75). A similar population to those in the present study, 1,296 university freshmen, was used.

Construct Validity. Kramer (1967, p. 181) concluded that: "The three basic FIRO-B dimensions of Inclusion, Control, and Affection, clearly share significant common variable which normal subjects perceive in themselves."

Froehle (1970) was unable to reproduce Kramer's results. Gluck (1979) in an effort to resolve the controversy attempted to reproduce Kramer's findings. Kramer was supported, and it was suggested that Froehle's results were due to a difference in design and not a lack of construct validity of the FIRO-B. Malloy and Copeland (1980) suggest that the reliability and validity of the FIRO-B are adequate for use

as a research instrument, but that caution be employed in its use as a clinical measure.

Definition of Variables

Sexual Preference--Primary sexual/affectional orientation (homosexual or heterosexual) is classified according to self-definition. Bell and Weinberg (1978) demonstrated no significant difference between self-definition and other, more complex systems of classification. Self-described bisexuals were excluded from the study due to low incidence (Kline, 1978).

Interaction Variables--The three interaction variables of inclusion, control, and affection were examined on two dimensions, wanted and expressed, as measured by scores on the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation--Behavior Scale (FIRO-B) (Schutz, 1958).

The Inclusion Scale measures the degree to which a person moves towards or away from other people. The Control Scale measures the extent to which a person wants to assume responsibility or make decisions. The Affection Scale measures the degree to which a person becomes closely involved with others.

Relationship Variable--Subjects were considered to be involved in a committed relationship if they so described themselves by an affirmative response to Question 12 on the data sheet. However, an arbitrary decision to eliminate subjects involved in such a relationship for less than six months was made. No subjects answered affirmatively to Question 12 but described their relationship as being of less than six months duration.

Pilot Study

A pilot study, using 15 male and 15 female homosexuals and 15 male and 15 female heterosexual subjects was conducted by the researcher. The most significant variable affecting the data in this study was age of subject. Consequently, this has been controlled for in the design of the study by eliminating subjects over 30 years of age and under 18 years of age.

A second variable of possible significance, involvement in a committed relationship, was not appropriately addressed in the pilot data sheet. This was corrected by the additions of Questions 12 and 13. Much of the personal information gathered from the data sheet is not intended to be used in analysis of data. However, these items were considered to be potential sources of bias, and thus data was obtained in order to control for any significant differences which might affect the study.

Statistical Analysis

Scores on the FIRO-B, although sometimes treated as interval, are more appropriately considered ordinal data, since the FIRO-B is actually a composite of Guttman scales. Therefore, non-parametric statistical techniques were used to analyze obtained data, and to obtain power equal to 89 percent, with the probability of Type I error, rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true, $\leq .05$. A sample size (N) of 200, 50 in each cell was used.

Six measures are obtained by the FIRO-B: Inclusion, wanted and expressed; Control, wanted and expressed; and Affection, wanted and

expressed. Scores on each of these dimensions may range from 0-9. These obtained scores may be categorized as follows: 0-1 "very low", 2-3 "low", 4-5 "average", 6-7 "high", 8-9 "very high". Scores may be analyzed by individual cell, by row, by column or by total profile. Certain total profiles are described by the author (Ryan, 1970) as indicative of a particular "personality type". Data obtained from the pilot study and from previous clinical observations of the author indicates that hypotheses regarding the number of individuals obtaining scores in a particular range on a specific dimension, or in a particular range on the total profile may express the differences to be examined most appropriately.

A two-way Chi Square was used to test for significant differences between groups for all hypotheses. A significance level of .05 was used. A phi or V coefficient was obtained as a measure of strength of association.

Limitations

Interpretations of the findings of this study, as in any causal-comparative study, must be approached with caution. Due to lack of random sampling, random assignments, and manipulation, it is not possible to state cause-effect relationships with any degree of certainty. In this study, reversed causality is probably not a cause for concern. It is possible, however, that an unknown factor is the real cause of differences, rather than sexual preference, the hypothesized cause in this study.

Since neither the homosexual nor the heterosexual groups were formed by random sampling, it is possible that the groups may be

different on some major variable other than the identified independent variable, and that this unknown variable may be the true cause of the observed differences. An attempt to control for this anticipated difficulty has been made by isolating possible confounding variables, and utilizing a data sheet to obtain information about these variables. One independent variable which is expected to affect the scores on the FIRO-B--involvement in a committed relationship--is included in the hypotheses. Others, such as income, education level, occupation, activity level in organized religious groups, were examined as subgroups in order to control for the impact of these variables.

However, the validity of the study may be affected by variables which were not anticipated by the researcher, or those on which measures were not obtainable; consequently, the attribution of the differences found to the variable of sexual preference should be considered tentative.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Relevant Demographic Information

The 200 subjects were divided into four groups of 50 subjects each, based upon gender stated sexual preference; thus Group 1 was homosexual males (HM), Group 2--homosexual females (HF), Group 3--heterosexual males (HTM), and Group 4--heterosexual females (HTF). Relevant demographic information, obtained by responses to data sheets, appear for each group in Table I, on the following page. Significant differences between groups are as follows.

The homosexual and heterosexual samples were significantly different in terms of age ($t = 4.84, p < .05$), with the homosexual sample averaging two years older than the heterosexual sample. It should be noted that the range was restricted by limiting subjects to ages 18-30. This difference is in likelihood related to the significant difference between the number of homosexuals who were full-time college students (50) and the number of heterosexuals attending school full-time (88) ($\chi^2 = 20.12, p < .001$). Both of these differences, then, indicate that the groups may not be equal, even though attempts were made to control for age.

The only other significant demographic difference between the homosexual and heterosexual samples was on the variable of religious affiliation. Eleven (11) heterosexuals and 29 homosexuals claimed no

TABLE I
 DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION AS OBTAINED FROM "DATA SHEET"

Variable	N=50 Homosexual Males (HM)	N=50 Homosexual Females (HF)	N=50 Heterosexual Males (HTM)	N=50 Heterosexual Females (HTF)
Mean Age	23.84	23.92	21.80	21.80
Number of Students (given as primary occupation)	29	30	45	43
Income \$10,000 or lower	30	41	31	37
Number involved in committed relationship longer than one year	15	29	21	27
Number responding "No Religious Affiliation"	20	9	8	3
Size of Town/City				
Under 25,000	2	11	18	20
25,000-50,000	30	33	28	18
50,000-100,000	4	2	1	8
100,000 +	14	4	3	4

religious affiliation ($\chi^2 = 9.03, p < .01$). Homosexuals frequently reject affiliation with organized religion (Bell & Weinberg, 1982) for reasons related to their sexual preference. The significantly larger number of heterosexuals than homosexuals who claimed religious affiliation may be considered to be a real difference between groups, rather than an artifact of methodology.

The remaining differences in the sample relate to income. Males reported a higher total family income than females ($\chi^2 = 6.04, p < .05$). However, most of this difference can be attributed to the significantly higher incomes of homosexual males than homosexual females ($\chi^2 = 5.15, p < .05$). There was no significant difference between heterosexual males and females on the income variable.

Major Hypothesis #1

There is no difference between the numbers of female heterosexuals and homosexuals who score in a combined category of "low" and "very low" on the total profile of the FIRO-B ($H_0: p_i = p_j$).

This hypothesis was designed to test for the relative proportion of profiles that have been classified as "Rocks" (Ryan, 1970). The profile in question was operationally defined as follows: A total profile score no greater than 8, with no single score greater than 2 ("low" (0-1) and "very low" (2-3) scores only) (Ryan, 1970). No heterosexual females obtained this profile on the FIRO-B. A total of 13 homosexual females obtained this combination of "low" and "very low" scores (Table II). A two-way Chi-square analysis demonstrated that significantly more HF's than HTF's obtained this combined low profile ($\chi^2 = 12.73, p < .01, \phi = .37$).

TABLE II

DIFFERENCES IN NUMBER OF "ROCK" PROFILES IN HOMOSEXUAL
AND HETEROSEXUAL FEMALES (FIRO-B)

	Rock	Other	Total
Heterosexual Females	0	50	50
Homosexual Females	13	37	50
Total	13	87	N=100

Major Hypothesis #2

There is no difference between the numbers of male heterosexuals and homosexuals on Inclusion, both wanted and expressed, as measured by the FIRO-B and classified by Ryan (1970).

Two separate hypotheses were tested; that of no difference between the groups on Wanted Inclusion ($H_0: p_i = p_j$) and no difference between the groups on Expressed Inclusion ($H_0: p_i = p_j$). The alternate hypothesis in both cases was $H_1: p_i \neq p_j$.

The possible scores were divided according to the criteria established by Schutz (1966) into three categories: Low (0-3), Average (4-6), and High (7-9). The number of individuals scoring in each category is shown in Table III.

The null hypothesis concerning Expressed Inclusion was rejected ($\chi^2 = 0.766, p < .05, V = .21$). Figure 1 illustrates the preponderance of high scores on the expressed dimension among the HM sample and the lack of any differentiation on the wanted dimension. It should be noted

TABLE III

DIFFERENCES IN NUMBERS OF HOMOSEXUAL AND HETEROSEXUAL MALES IN "LOW", "AVERAGE", AND "HIGH" CATEGORIES ON EXPRESSED AND WANTED INCLUSION (FIRO-B)

	Expressed Inclusion					Wanted Inclusion			
	Low	Average	High	Total		Low	Average	High	Total
Heterosexual Males	23 (46%)	23 (46%)	4 (8%)	50	Heterosexual Males	24 (48%)	12 (24%)	14 (28%)	50
Homosexual Males	14 (28%)	21 (42%)	5 (30%)	50	Homosexual Males	22 (44%)	10 (20%)	18 (36%)	50
Total	37	44	9	100	Total	46	22	32	100

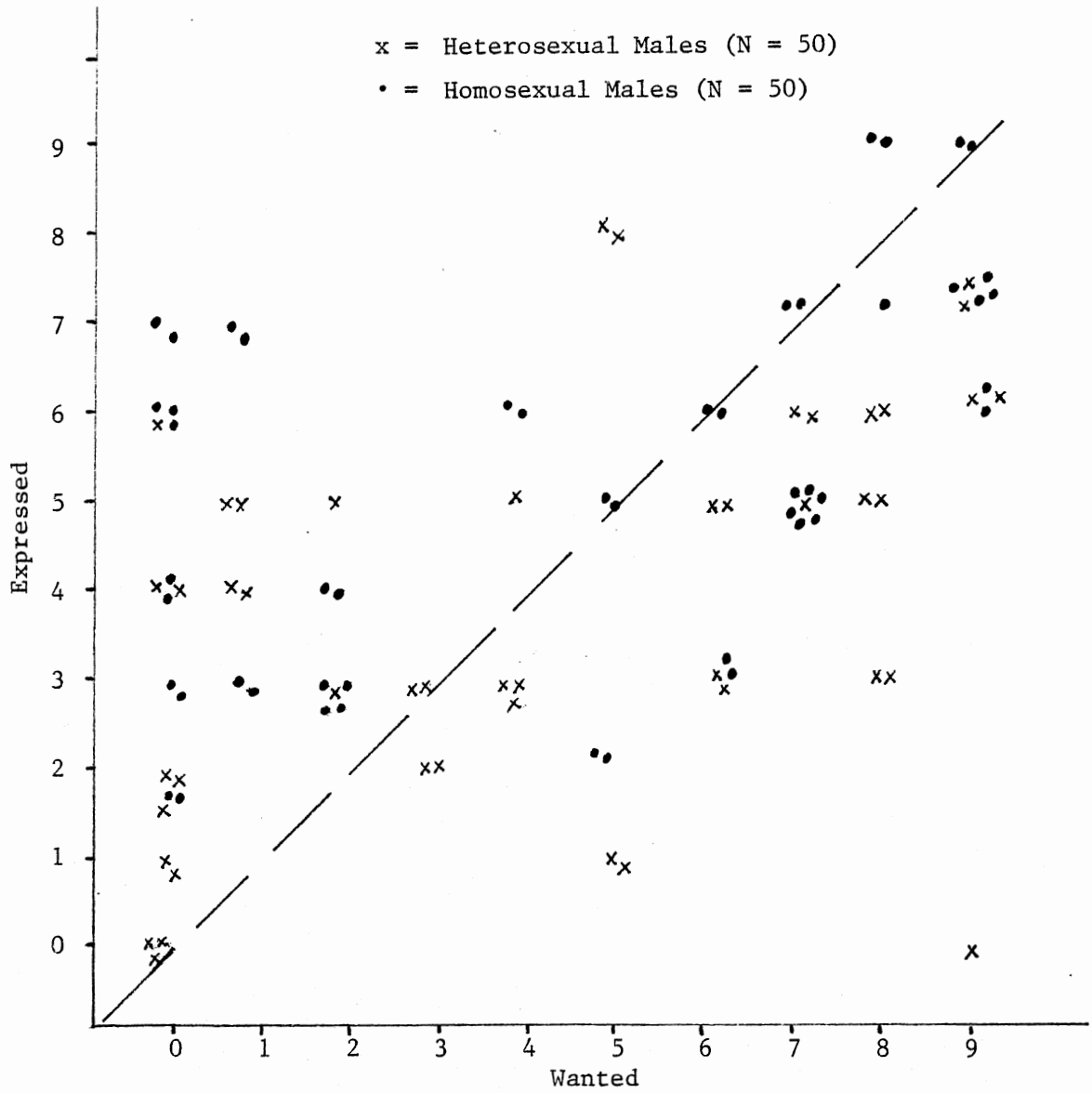


Figure 1. Scatter Plot of Male Inclusion Scores on the FIRO-B

that Figure 1 also illustrates a high number of extreme scores in both male samples; very few scores lie near the diagonal line representing a match between wanted and expressed Inclusion.

Major Hypothesis #3

There is no difference between the number of male heterosexuals and homosexuals on Control, both wanted and expressed, as measured by the FIRO-B and classified by Ryan (1970).

This hypothesis, like hypothesis #2, was broken into two separate statistical hypotheses in order to test the nominal data. Both null hypotheses were again $H_0: p_i = p_j$ and the alternates $p_i \neq p_j$. The same categories of low, average, and high scores were used, resulting in the following breakdown of scores (Table IV).

Both null hypotheses failed to be rejected ($\chi^2 = 0.256, p > .05$). There was no observed difference between the groups on the dimension of Control as measured by the FIRO-B. The scatterplot matching individual expressed-wanted scores (Figure 2) illustrates several interesting dimensions in the data.

Figure 2 illustrates several aspects of the data. The scores of both groups tend to cluster in the lower left corner of the diagram (low scores on both Expressed and Wanted Control). This profile type is described by Weinberger (1977) as "Independent". Over one-third (38 percent) of the HM's and one-half (50 percent) of the HTM's obtained scores which placed them in this category. Only four subjects fell in the "Dependent" area of the scatter diagram (2 HMs, 2 HTMs). A planned test for "Dependent" profiles was abandoned due to the low N in this category.

TABLE IV

DIFFERENCES IN NUMBERS OF HOMOSEXUAL AND HETEROSEXUAL MALES IN "LOW", "AVERAGE", AND "HIGH"
CATEGORIES ON EXPRESSED AND WANTED CONTROL (FIRO-B)

	Expressed Control					Wanted Control			
	Low	Average	High	Total		Low	Average	High	Total
Heterosexual Males	30 (60%)	15 (30%)	5 (10%)	50	Heterosexual Males	39 (78%)	8 (16%)	3 (6%)	50
Homosexual Males	31 (62%)	13 (26%)	6 (12%)	50	Homosexual Males	28 (56%)	16 (32%)	6 (12%)	50
Total	62	28	11	100	Total	67	24	9	100

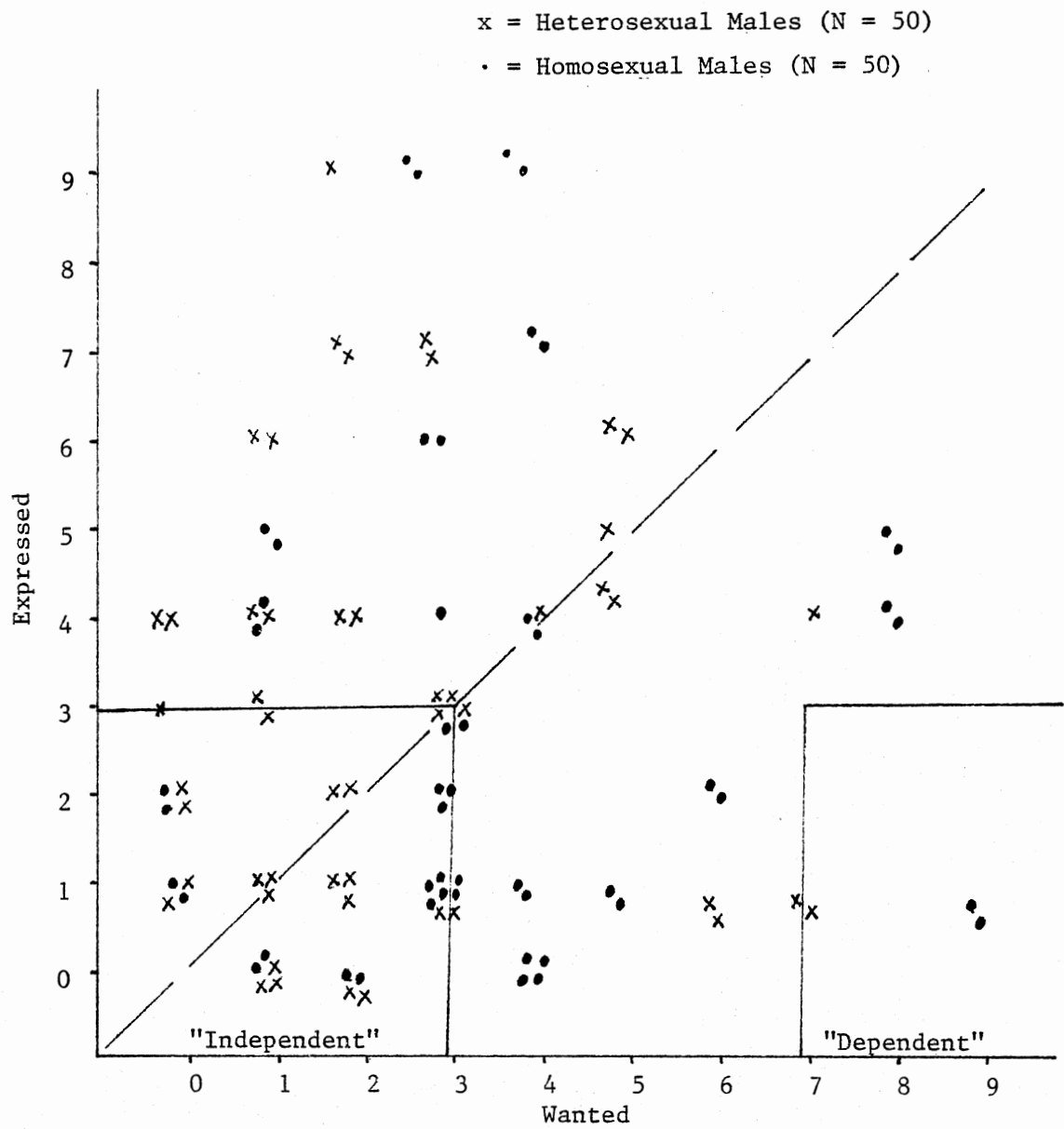


Figure 2. Scatter Plot of Male Control Scores on the FIRO-B

Major Hypothesis #4

There is no difference between the number of male and female homosexuals that score in the "low" category on Inclusion, both wanted and expressed, as measured by the FIRO-B and classified by Ryan (1970).

Again, two statistical hypotheses were required (both $H_0: p_i = p_j$ and $H_1: p_i \neq p_j$). The scores were again divided into the low, average, and high categories, with the following results (Table V).

The null hypothesis relating to Expressed Inclusion was rejected ($\chi^2 = 6.05, p < .05, V = .17$). Figure 3 illustrates that 14 (28 percent) of the HFs fell into the "loner" classification of FIRO-B scores (Ryan, 1970). None of the HMs obtained this combination of very low scores. This group of HFs consisted of only the "very low" scorers on Expressed Inclusion. A total of 24 (48 percent) of the HFs scores in the "very low" classification on Wanted Inclusion, as did 16 (32 percent) of the HMs. The difference between male and female homosexual subjects' scores on Wanted Inclusion, however, was not significant ($\chi^2 = 1.53, p > .05$).

Very few of the homosexual subjects scored in the middle range on both Inclusion scales. Figure 3 shows a definite break between extremely low and high scorers. Figure 4, a scatter diagram of the heterosexual subjects is included for reference purposes. Although this diagram also tended to break in the middle, the division was not as severe.

Major Hypothesis #5

There is no difference between the numbers of male and female homosexuals that score in the "low", "average", and "high" range on Affection, both wanted and expressed, as measured by the FIRO-B.

TABLE V

DIFFERENCES IN NUMBERS OF HOMOSEXUAL MALES AND FEMALES IN "LOW", "AVERAGE", AND "HIGH" CATEGORIES ON EXPRESSED AND WANTED CONTROL (FIRO-B)

	Expressed Control					Wanted Control			
	Low	Average	High	Total		Low	Average	High	Total
Homosexual Females	23 (46%)	21 (42%)	6 (12%)	50	Homosexual Females	27 (54%)	6 (12%)	17 (34%)	50
Homosexual Males	14 (28%)	21 (42%)	15 (30%)	50	Homosexual Males	22 (44%)	10 (20%)	18 (36%)	50
Total	37	42	21	100	Total	49	16	35	100

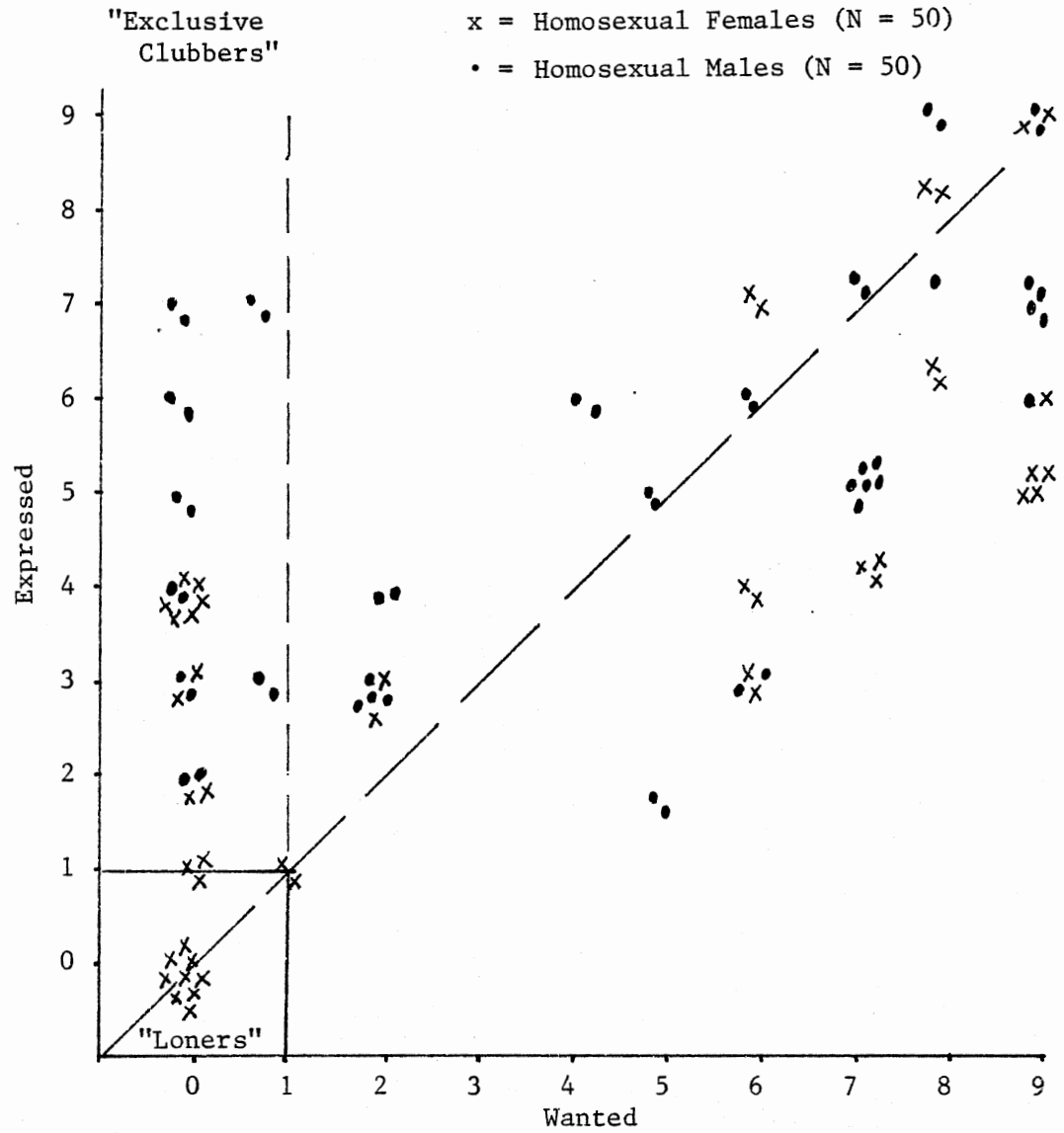


Figure 3. Scatter Plot of Homosexual Wanted Inclusion Scores on the FIRO-B

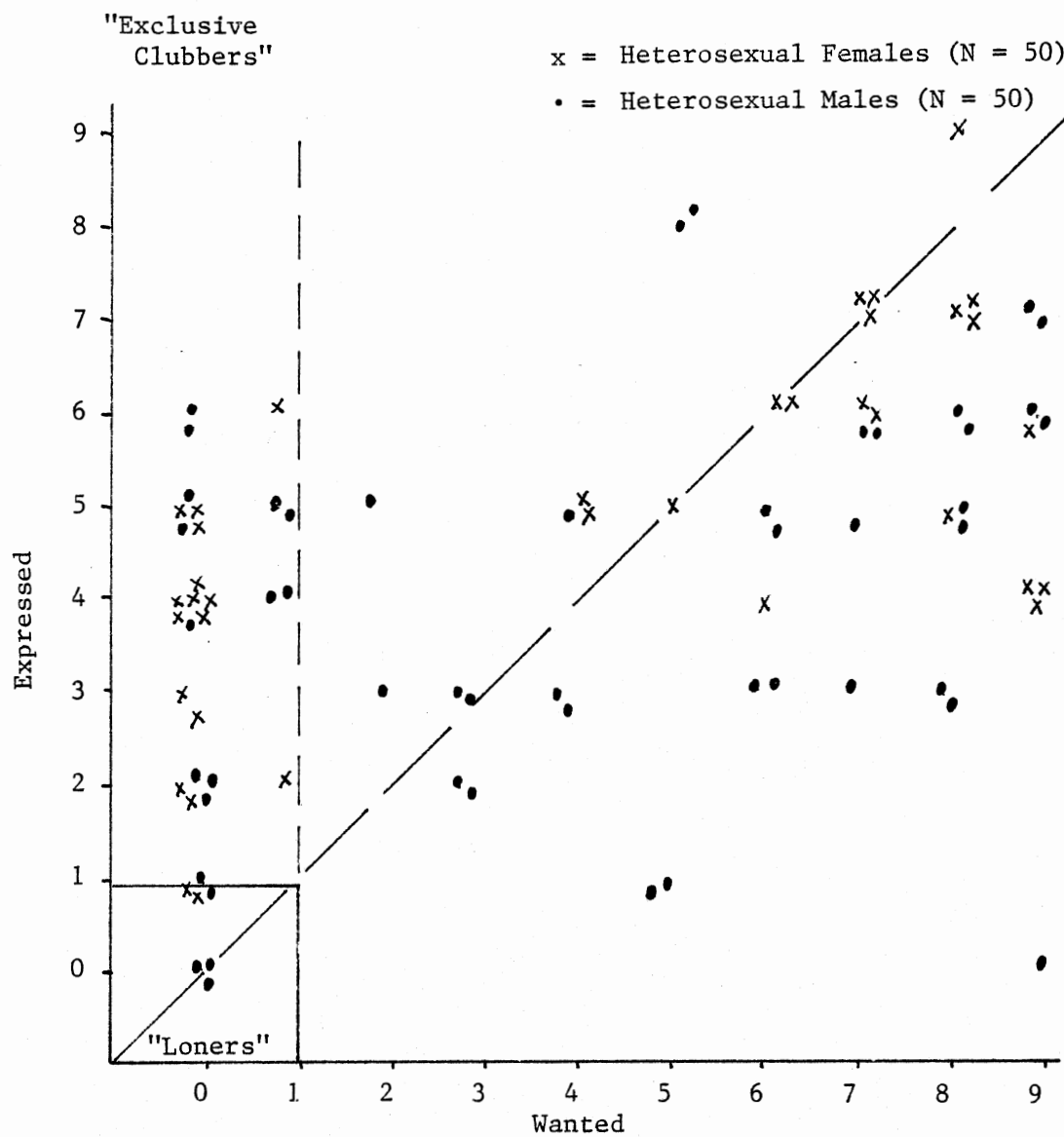


Figure 4. Scatter Plot of Heterosexual Inclusion Scores on the FIRO-B

Two statistical hypotheses were tested regarding the Affection dimension of the FIRO-B ($H_0: p_i = p_j$; $H_1: p_i \neq p_j$) for both expressed and wanted Affection. The tabulated FIRO-B scores of homosexual subjects on Affection were as follows (Table VI).

Both null hypotheses were rejected (Expressed $\chi^2 = 20.70$, $p < .05$; $V = .32$; Wanted $\chi^2 = 30.40$, $p < .05$, $V = .39$). Extremely low scores of HFs on both expressed and wanted Affection are apparent in Figure 5. This profile of scores is classified as "Pessimist" by Ryan (1970). Fifteen (30 percent) of HFs and 5 (10 percent) of HMs obtained scores in this category. Fifty-eight percent of HFs scores in the "low" classification on wanted Affection, while only 16 percent of the HMs obtained such low scores. HFs tended to score at the extreme ends of the scale, while HMs obtained more average scores.

Major Hypothesis #6

There is no difference between the numbers of homosexuals in a committed relationship and those not so involved on Affection, both wanted and expressed, as measured by the FIRO-B and classified by Ryan (1970).

This hypothesis was broken into two statistical hypotheses ($H_0: p_i = p_j$; $H_1: p_i \neq p_j$) for male and female homosexual subjects. A combined Affection score was used (expressed and wanted) and scores were classified as low (0-6), average (7-12), and high (13-18). The results were as follows (Table VII).

Both null hypotheses failed to be rejected (HM $\chi^2 = 3.70$, $p > .05$; HF $\chi^2 = 0.95$, $p > .05$). No differences were observed in the scores of homosexuals on Affection when involvement in a committed relationship was used as a variable.

TABLE VI

DIFFERENCES IN NUMBERS OF HOMOSEXUAL MALES AND FEMALES IN "LOW", "AVERAGE", AND "HIGH" CATEGORIES ON EXPRESSED AND WANTED AFFECTION (FIRO-B)

	Expressed Affection					Wanted Affection			
	Low	Average	High	Total		Low	Average	High	Total
Homosexual Females	34 (68%)	9 (18%)	7 (14%)	50	Homosexual Females	29 (58%)	6 (12%)	15 (30%)	50
Homosexual Males	16 (32%)	22 (44%)	12 (24%)	50	Homosexual Males	8 (16%)	22 (44%)	20 (40%)	50
Total	50	31	19	100	Total	37	28	35	100

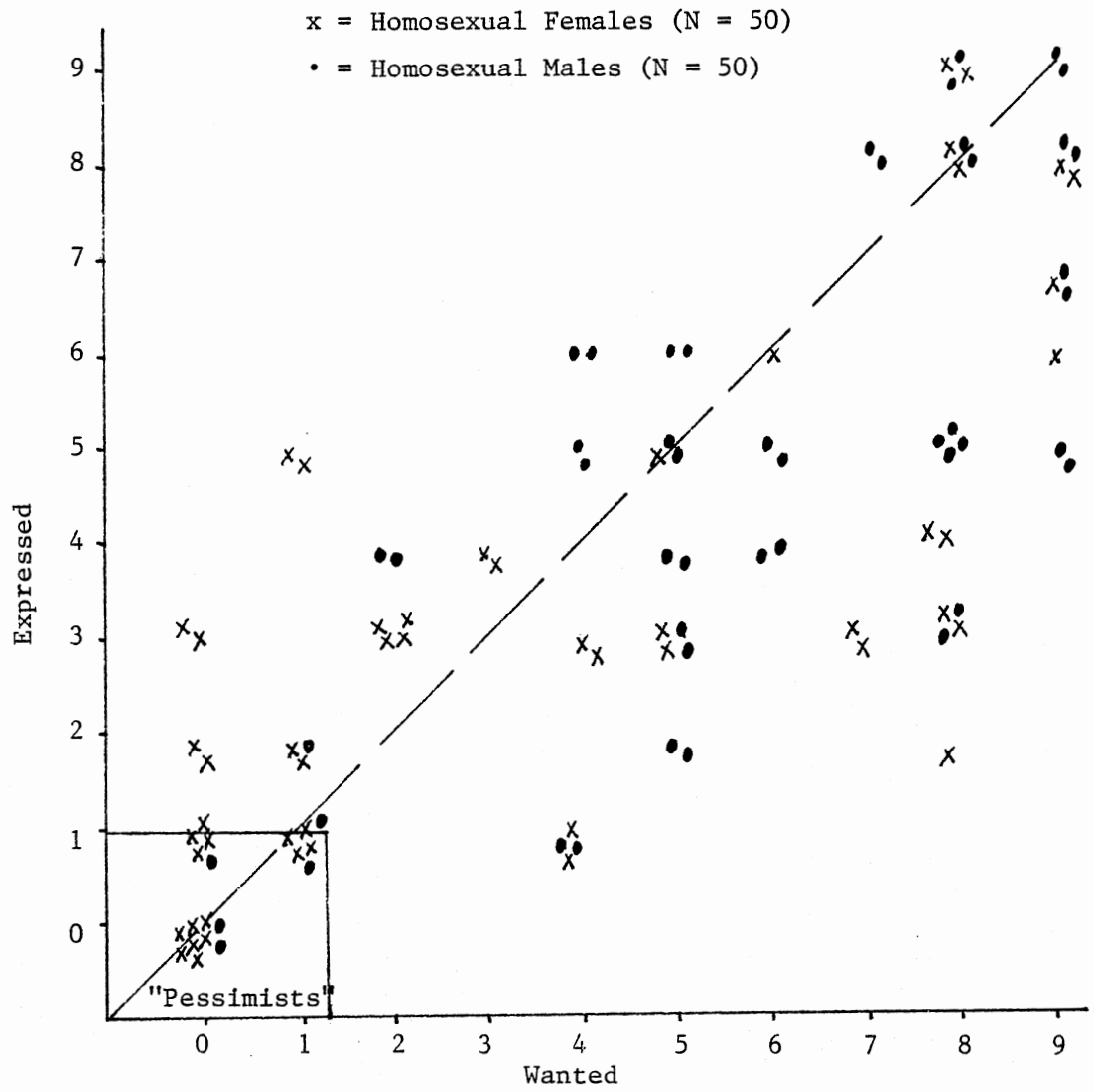


Figure 5. Scatter Plot of Homosexual Affection Scores on the FIRO-B

TABLE VII

DIFFERENCES IN NUMBERS OF COMMITTED AND UNCOMMITTED HOMOSEXUAL MALES AND FEMALES
 IN "LOW", "AVERAGE", AND "HIGH" CATEGORIES ON TOTAL
 AFFECTION (EXPRESSED AND WANTED) SCORES (FIRO-B)

	Males					Females			
	Low	Average	High	Total		Low	Average	High	Total
Committed	6 (30%)	10 (50%)	4 (20%)	20	Committed	14 (48%)	10 (35%)	5 (17%)	29
Uncommitted	6 (20%)	10 (33%)	14 (47%)	30	Uncommitted	13 (62%)	5 (24%)	3 (14%)	21
Total	12	20	18	50	Total	27	15	8	50

Discussion of Statistical Analyses of
Data for Hypothesized Differences

The results of the testing of the six major hypotheses were as follows:

Hypothesis #1

A "rock" profile has no cell with a score higher than 2, and no more than two cells with a score higher than one; a total of scores on the profile must be equal to or equal to eight. Twenty-six percent of female homosexual subjects (N = 13), 0 percent of female heterosexual subjects (N = 0), and 2 percent of Schutz (1966) original sample (N = 1700) could be classified as "rocks". A typical "rock" profile would look like this:

	Inclusion	Control	Affection
Expressed	1	2	0
Wanted	0	0	1

Ryan (1970, p. 13) describes a person with this profile as a "well-defended individual . . . a pessimist, a rebel, and a loner." The very low Affection scores mean that this is a person who is not only cautious about expressing affection, but one who is also most comfortable when people do not attempt to initiate intimate relationships with her. The low scores do not mean that she can never form an intimate relationship but rather that it is difficult for her to do so. This "pessimistic" orientation towards affection provides protection

from being hurt. In the Inclusion area, the "rock" further protects herself by moving away from people. The low scores do not mean that she cannot associate with others but rather than she is very selective about whom she does associate with. This behavior was anticipated and can be explained as typical in members of a minority group (Humphreys and Miller, 1980). The low scores may also be seen as a lack of trust in others and a way of avoiding rejection by rejecting first.

In the Control area, there is a tendency to avoid making decisions and taking on responsibility, as well as to be most comfortable when others do not attempt to control her. According to Ryan (1970), she is neither dependent nor inadequate, but she may be cautious about her ability to handle new areas of responsibility.

Ryan further describes the "rock" as the following:

. . . well-defended in all three areas: Inclusion, Control, and Affection. People in general cannot hurt him, because he does not give them the opportunity to do so. He is only vulnerable to members of his "exclusive club," but these are very few and highly selected individuals (1970, p. 13).

Although neither Ryan nor Schutz equates the "rock" profile with psychopathology, the implications of the descriptive terms "loner", "rebel", and "pessimist" do not suggest a personification of mental health. The therapist who treats lesbian clients might benefit from an awareness of the apparent frequency of this interaction style, and defer imputing negative implications to it until consideration of functionality within the subgroup and individual interaction style within the subgroup are examined. In this study, a larger percentage of lesbians with a "rock profile" were currently involved in a committed relationship (6 percent, N = 9) than were lesbians with a

"non-rock profile" (62 percent, N = 23). It is possible, therefore, that an issue for consideration in therapy for lesbians with "rock" profiles will be less frequently be difficulty in forming significant interpersonal relationships, and more frequently be personal or relationships difficult due to over-involvement in an "emmeshed" relationship (Gonsiorek, 1982).

Hypothesis #2

Male homosexuals differed significantly from male heterosexuals on expressed Inclusion, but were very similar to heterosexual males on wanted Inclusion. Both groups were divided according to criteria established by Schutz (1966) into three categories: Low (0-3), Average (4-6), and High (7-9). The difference between groups on expressed Inclusion can be accounted for almost entirely by the larger number of heterosexual males who scored in the "low" category (46 percent as opposed to 28 percent for homosexual males) and the larger number of homosexual males whose scores fell into the "high" category (30 percent as opposed to 8 percent of heterosexual males). Both the differences and the direction of the difference between groups on expressed inclusion can be explained by the large numbers of sexual contacts valued, sought and obtained by homosexual males (Saghir and Robins, 1973; Spada, 1979; Bell and Weinberg, 1980). Observable "moving towards" others behavior must be average or above in order that the subgroup norm of frequent and different sexual contacts be met. This "socialibility" would be expected to generalize to other non-sexually oriented contacts and result in the observed higher Inclusion scores than are found in heterosexual males (homosexual: 72 percent of

subjects are in average or high categories; heterosexual: 54 percent of subjects are in average or high categories).

Hypothesis #3

No significant difference was found between heterosexual and homosexual males on expressed or wanted Control. In fact, the numbers of homosexual and heterosexual males whose scores fell into each of the three categories of expressed control were remarkably similar (Table IV).

Although no statistically significant difference between the two groups was found in the number of scores in the three categories on wanted Control, the scatter plot (p. 53) should be considered briefly. Homosexual men more often had higher wanted control scores than heterosexual men. This did not apparently affect a difference in the two groups on independence vs. dependence as shown in Figure 2 (p. 53). A possible interpretation for the minority of homosexuals and heterosexuals who scored in the average or high categories on wanted control, but who did not meet the criteria for dependent males (low expressed and high wanted control) is a greater tolerance for control by others without the implication that this control is particularly needed or desired, or a desire to share responsibility interactively with others. It is possible that scores on both levels of the Control dimension are affected by the restricted age range of the sample.

Hypothesis #4

No significant differences were found between the numbers of male and female homosexuals in the three categories of wanted Inclusion.

It is interesting to observe, however, that 49 percent of the combined homosexual groups scores fall in the "low" category, and 35 percent in the "high" category, while only 16 percent of the scores fall in the average range--an unexpected distribution of scores. It is also of interest that the 26 percent of female homosexuals identified as "rocks" and thus necessarily falling into the "low" category on wanted inclusion did not affect the groups so that they were different on this dimension.

Male and female homosexuals did differ significantly on numbers in each category of expressed Inclusion. This difference was totally accounted for by the larger number of female homosexuals whose scores fell in the low category and the larger number of male homosexuals whose scores fell in the high category--exactly the same number of male and female homosexuals scores fell in the average category (21 or 42 percent).

A look at Figure 3 (p. 56) will help the reader understand the similarities and differences of male and female homosexuals on the Inclusion dimension. The clustering of scores on either end of the "wanted" axis is immediately apparent. Persons with extremely low (0-1) wanted Inclusion scores and extremely low (0-1) expressed Inclusion scores are designated "loners" by Ryan (1970). The "loner" category in Figure 3 is occupied exclusively by females. Males who score in the extremely low area of wanted Inclusion, have scores scattered between 2 and 7 on expressed Inclusion, and can be considered to be "exclusive clubbers". A cluster of females who score 0-1 on wanted inclusion, score between 2 and 4 on expressed Inclusion, and may also be considered "exclusive clubbers", although it is interesting to note

the tendency towards lower expressed scores for the female "exclusive clubbers". Ryan (1970) described the categories "loner" and "exclusive clubber" as follows:

The 'loner' is most comfortable when he can move away from people, or when people in general stay away from them . . . he is highly selective about whom he associates with. He is uncomfortable around most people and avoids them whenever he can . . . one can be almost certain that the subject is concerned about being rejected, so his defense is to avoid situations which might involve rejection (p. 6).

The 'exclusive clubber' is a person that has a select circle of associates. The basic attitude is, 'I'll call you, don't call me'. Membership rules for admission into the 'exclusive club' are determined primarily by the individual's wants in the control and affection areas (p. 6).

Membership in the "exclusive club" may also be determined by shared subgroup membership, or limited to membership in a particular "scene" of a subgroup (Humphrey & Miller, 1980).

The data indicates that only some female homosexuals may be described as loners, but that there are a number of male and female homosexuals who may be considered "exclusive clubbers". Figure 4 is a scatter plot of heterosexual male and female Inclusion scores. Although no hypothesis was listed for these two groups, Hypothesis 1 and 2 address differences between female homosexuals and heterosexuals, and male homosexuals and heterosexuals. The scatter plot (Figure 4) indicates a clustering of scores in the "low" and "high" category that is similar to the homosexual groups (Figure 3). However, less difference is apparent between males and females, indicating that the variable, sexual preference, interacting with gender, is necessary for the significant differences found between male and female homosexuals on expressed Inclusion.

Hypothesis #5

A significant difference was found in the numbers of male and female homosexuals that score in the "low", "average", and "high" categories on Affection, both wanted and expressed (Table VI). The V coefficients, .32 and .39, make it extremely unlikely that this difference is an artifact of the methodology of this study.

More often, female homosexuals scored in the low categories of affection for both expressed (68 percent) and wanted (58 percent) than were scores of male homosexuals. In expressed affection the remaining scores were almost evenly divided between the average and high categories, whereas in wanted affection few scores fell in the average category (12 percent) with a cluster of scores falling in the high category (30 percent). Male homosexuals scored somewhat more evenly among the three categories on expressed Affection, but were most frequently divided between the average and high categories with only 16 percent in the low category.

The tendency for female homosexuals to have scored more frequently than male homosexuals in the "low" category of wanted and expressed Affection is particularly interesting considering the reputation of the two groups in lay mythology, clinical impressions of heterosexuals and homosexual "experts", and in the literature previously cited. The "promiscuity" of the homosexual male, and the greater percentage of adult lifetime in a committed relationship documented for homosexual females, the greater commitment to monogamy in a relationship of homosexual females would lead one to expect that female homosexuals would have higher scores on both expressed and wanted Affection--the measure of dyadic intimacy.

Are female homosexuals, as a result of female enculturation, less willing to express affection? Or are female homosexuals more cautious as a result of interaction between gender and minority group status? Is it possible, since 64 percent of female homosexuals are already involved in a committed relationship, that they are less likely to need to risk the expression of intimacy than the less-committed males? Are wanted Affection dimension scores a case of wanting what one does not have, and even perhaps what one does not expect to have? The failure to find a significant difference on total Affection scores between committed and uncommitted male or female homosexuals would indicate that this last assumption is incorrect (Hypothesis VI). Recommendations for future research which might address this and other questions raised by this study will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND

RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter will consist of three sections. The first section will summarize generally the purpose, the hypotheses, and the methods used to test these hypotheses for this study. The second section will concern the conclusions drawn from this study. The final section will discuss recommendations for further research concerning the present study.

Summary

This study aimed at examining the effects of sexual preference on interaction variables as measured by the FIRO-B. The four groups, homosexual males, homosexual females, heterosexual males, heterosexual females, were sampled by administering FIRO-B profiles and data sheets to selected persons in a small midwestern community to obtain $N = 50$ for each cell and a total $N = 200$. Hypotheses regarding the interaction variables, Inclusion, Control, and Affection, were generated by reviewing the research literature and through the data obtained in a pilot study. The independent variable sexual preference was self-defined by each subject as homosexual, heterosexual, or bisexual; only the homosexual and heterosexual subjects were used for comparison in this study.

Chi squares were used to test for statistically significant differences at the $p = .05$ level. A phi or V coefficient for strength of association was then obtained.

Conclusions

The results of the statistical findings and consideration of the limitations and assumptions of this study warrant the following conclusions.

Major Hypothesis #1

There is no difference between the numbers of female heterosexuals and homosexuals who score in a combined category of "low" and "very low" on the total profile of the FIRO-B ($H_0: p_i = p_j$).

The null hypothesis was rejected. A difference was observed between the number of female homosexuals and heterosexuals who scores in a combined category of "low" and "very low" on the total profile of the FIRO-B.

Major Hypothesis #2

There is no difference between the numbers of male heterosexuals and homosexuals on Inclusion, both wanted and expressed, as measured by the FIRO-B and classified by Ryan (1970).

The results were split. There was no observed difference between the numbers of male homosexuals and heterosexuals on wanted Inclusion, but a difference was observed between the numbers of male homosexuals and heterosexuals on expressed Inclusion as measured by the FIRO-B and classified by Ryan (1970).

Major Hypothesis #3

There is no difference between the number of male heterosexuals and homosexuals on Control, both wanted and expressed, as measured by the FIRO-B and classified by Ryan (1970).

The null hypotheses failed to be rejected. No significant difference was observed between the number of male homosexuals and heterosexuals scoring in the "low", "average", and "high" categories of expressed or wanted Control.

Major Hypothesis #4

There is no difference between the number of male and female homosexuals that score in the "low" category on Inclusion, both wanted and expressed, as measured by the FIRO-B and classified by Ryan (1970).

The results were split along the expressed and wanted dimensions. No difference was observed between the numbers of male and female homosexuals on wanted Inclusion; however, a difference was observed between the groups on expressed Inclusion, as measured by the FIRO-B and classified by Ryan (1970).

Major Hypothesis #5

There is no difference between the numbers of male and female homosexuals that score in the "low", "average", and "high" range on Affection, both wanted and expressed, as measured by the FIRO-B.

The null hypotheses were rejected. A significant difference was observed between the numbers of male and female homosexuals on Affection, both wanted and expressed, as measured by the FIRO-B and classified by Ryan (1970).

Major Hypothesis #6

There is no difference between the numbers of homosexuals in a committed relationship and those not so involved on Affection, both wanted and expressed, as measured by the FIRO-B and classified by Ryan (1970).

The null hypotheses failed to be rejected. No difference was observed between the numbers of homosexuals in a committed relationship and those not so involved on Affection, both wanted and expressed, as measured by the FIRO-B and classified by Ryan (1970).

Summary

In general, the findings of this study demonstrated that for the population investigated, sexual preference did affect interaction variables. Differences related to both gender and sexual preference were particularly found in the variable Affection and were found secondarily in the variable Inclusion.

Recommendations

The phi and V coefficients for the statistical differences found for Hypotheses 1 and 5 permit the inference of real difference; reasons for these differences would be an interesting subject for future study. Differences may indeed be due to membership in a subgroup, a response to peer demands or acceptance of particular behavior in a subgroup, a response to or a reaction against female enculturation or an interaction of any of the above. A further possibility which this author feels is worth serious consideration is a test interaction effect. The FIRO-B repeatedly gives choices ranging from either "1-never" to "6-usually" or "1-nobody" to "6-most people". Scorable responses do

not include the answers "rarely" or "one or two people" and often do not include the answers "occasionally" and "a few people". It would be interesting to see if the low scores produced more frequently by lesbians are a result of the extreme responses of "never" and "nobody", or if there are two different populations--one tending to extreme responses throughout the profile and another tending to more moderate responses. Another, and perhaps more significant, possible test interaction effect may be an artifact of the wording of the FIRO-B statements and the interaction of this wording with the female homosexual's identification with the lesbian subculture. Since many of the profiles were individually administered to the homosexual sample, the author had the opportunity to watch, albeit somewhat surreptitious and from a distance, reactions to the test. Among the lesbians who were tested individually or in groups of two to four, it was impossible to ignore what appeared to be a negative reaction to the FIRO-B profile and it suggested that some statements on the profile such as "I try to have close, personal relationships with people" or "I join social groups", may have produced a "kneejerk" reaction to words that have negative connotations to this subgroup and may have induced a response set which affected the validity of the responses.

It is suggested that a future study might involve the administration of the FIRO-B together with other instruments designed to measure interaction styles and/or a structured interview to investigate possible test interaction effects. Examiner effect could be eliminated by group administration and use of a more limited data sheet so that identification would not appear likely. It is the author's opinion that these effects should be investigated and controlled for before

replication of this study is attempted, or that these effects be considered in any future study designed to investigate the cause of the high incidence of low category respondents in a lesbian population.

An area of potential interest was identified by the author in the pilot study and through clinical use of the FIRO-B. There appears to be a difference between younger and older male homosexuals in FIRO-B profiles, with the older group tending towards lower scores, particularly on Inclusion and Affection. Future research might test hypotheses of interaction between age and scores on the FIRO-B and address questions about causality of any significant differences.

Before closing, it should be recalled that the purpose of this study was to contribute to the understanding of the interaction styles of homosexuals, particularly as they differ from the interaction styles of heterosexuals. Although a small number of books have recently been published which address various issues of interest to the therapists of homosexual clients, the information, however useful and accurate, results more often from subjective impressions than from empirical research. It is suggested that research in the areas suggested by the author, as well as in the various areas of interest to the competent therapist, will have fruitful implications for successful therapy outcomes. Accurate information is necessary not only in the appropriate choices of techniques and directions for therapy, but also for the development of empathy in the heterosexual (or homosexual) counselor in regard to the homosexual client.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adler, K. A. Life style, gender role, and the symptom of homosexuality. Journal of Individual Psychology, 1967, 23 (1), 67-78.
- Allen, C. "Perversions, Sexual". In the Encyclopedia of Sexual Behavior, ed. by A. Ellis and A. Abarband, pp. 802-811. New York: Hawthorn Books, 1967.
- Armon, V. Some personality variables in overt female homosexuality. Journal of Projective Techniques, 1960, 24 (3), 292-309.
- Averbach, A. Understanding sexual deviations, 2. Homosexuality. Postgraduate Medicine, 1968, 43, 169-173.
- Bell, A. and Weinberg, M. S. Institute for Sex Research, (NIMH PHS MA 15527-01), 1967.
- Bell, A. P. and Weinberg, M. S. Homosexualities: A study of diversity among men and women. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1978.
- Bell, A. P., Weinberg, M. S., and Hammersmith, S. K. Sexual preference: Its development in men and women. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1981.
- Benda, C. E. Existential psychotherapy of homosexuality. Review of Exstential Psychology and Psychiatry, 1963, 3: 133-152.
- Bender, L. and Paster, S. Homosexual trends in children. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1941, 11: 730-743.
- Bene, E. On the genesis of male homosexuality: An attempt at clarifying the role of the parents. British Journal of Psychiatry, 1965, 111: (478), 803-813.
- _____. On the genesis of female homosexuality: An attempt at clarifying the role of the parents. British Journal of Psychiatry, 1965, 111: (478), 815-821.
- Beukenkamp, C. Phantom patriots. Archives of General Psychiatry, 1960, 3: (3), 282-288.
- Birber, I. Clinical aspects of male homosexuality. In Sexual Inversion: The Multiple Roots of Homosexuality, ed. Judd. Marmor, pp. 248-267. New York: Basic Books, 1965.

- Bieber, I. Advising the homosexual. Medical Aspects of Human Sexuality, 1968, 2 (3), 34-39.
- Brown, D. G. Childhood development and sexual deviations. Sexology, 1962, 28 (7), 476-480.
- Bruce, G. W. Comparison of traits of the homosexual from tests and from life history materials. Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1942. (Summary obtained from National Gay Task Force.)
- Caprio, F.S. The homosexual problem. Sexology, 1954, 20 (82), 510-517.
- _____. Variations in sexual behavior: A psychodynamic study of deviations in various expressions of sexual behavior. New York: Citadel Press, 1955.
- Chang, J. and Block, J. A study of identification in male homosexuals. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1960, 24 (4), 307-310.
- Clark, T. R. Homosexuality and psychopathology in nonpatient males. American Journal of Psychoanalysis, 1975, 35, 163-168.
- Corsini, R. Current psychotherapies. Ithaca, New York: Peacock Publishers, 1973.
- Crane, H. W. The environmental factor of sexual inversion. Journal of the Elisha Mitchell Scientific Society, 1945, 61, 243-248.
- Daughters of Bilitis Editocial Staff. Some comparisons about lesbians. The Ladder, 1959, 1960, 3, 4-26.
- Dean, R. B. and Richardson, H. Analysis of M.M.P.I. profiles of forty college-educated overt male homosexuals. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1964, 28 (6), 483-486.
- DeLuca, J. N. The structure of homosexuality. Journal of Projective Techniques and Personality Assessment, 1966, 30 (2), 187-191.
- Doidge, W. T. Perceptual differences in male homosexuals. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Texas, 1956. Dissertation abstracts.
- Dormer, G. Hormones and brain differentiations. Amsterdam: Elsevier Scuntiter Publishing Company, 1976.
- Edwards, H. G. The relationship between reported early life experiences with parents and adult male homosexuality. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Tennessee, 1963.
- Ellis, A. Homosexuality: Its causes and cure. New York: Lyle Stuart, 1965.
- Ellis, H. Studies in the Psychology of Sex. Vol. 2, Part 2. New York: Random House, 1936. Reproduction of 1897 publication.

- English, O. S. A primer on homosexuality. GP (General Practice), 1953, 7 (4), 55-60.
- Ernst, J. P. Homosexuality and crime. Journal of Clinical Psychopathology, 1947, 8 (5), 763-769.
- Farina, A., Allen, J. G. and Saul, B. S. B. The role of the stigmatized person in affecting social relationships. Journal of Personality, 1968, 36 (2), 169-182.
- Forkner, E. E. et al. Homosexuality. New York Medicine, 1954, 10 (11), 455-473.
- Freud, A. Clinical observations on the treatment of manifest male homosexuality. Paper read at a meeting of the New York Psychoanalytic Society, April 1950. Reported by Waldhorn, H. R., in Psychoanalytic Quarterly, 1951, 20 (2), 337-338.
- Freud, S. The psychogenesis of a case of homosexuality in a woman. Reprinted in The homosexuals: As seen by themselves and dirty authorities, ed. by A. M. Krich, pp. 262-285. New York: Citadel Press, 1954.
- Friedberg, R. L. Early recollections of homosexuals as indicators of their life styles. Journal of Individual Psychology, 1975, 31, 196-204.
- Frochle, T. C. Construct validity of the FIRO-B questionnaire: A failure to replicate? Journal of Projective Techniques and Personality Assessment, 1970, 34, 146-148.
- Gartell, W. K., Louaux, D. L., and Chase, T. N. Plasma testosterone in homosexual and heterosexual women. American Journal of Psychiatry, 1977, 134 (19), 1117-1118.
- Gebhard, P. H. Incidence of overt homosexuality in the U.S. and Western Europe. In J. M. Livingood, ed. National Institute of Mental Health Task Force on Homosexuality: Final Report and Background Papers. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1972.
- Gershman, H. Reflections on the nature of homosexuality. American Journal of Psychoanalysis, 1966, 26 (1), 46-59.
- Giannell, A. S. Giannell's crimosynthesis theory applied to female homosexuality. Journal of Psychology, 1966, 64 (2), 213-222.
- Gilligan, J. F. FIRO-B: Norms and reliability revisited. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 1973, 29 (3), 374-376.
- Glass, S. J., Deuel, H. J., and Wright, C. A. Sex hormone studies in male homosexuality. Endocrinology, 1940, 26, 590-594.

- Gonsiorek, J. C. Ph.D. ed. Homosexuality and Psychotherapy: A Practitioner's Handbook of Affirmative Models. New York: Haworth Press, 1982.
- Gluck, G. A. The Kramer-Froehle controversy: A contribution to construct validity of the FIRO-B questionnaire. Journal of Personality Assessment, 1979, 43 (5), 541-543.
- Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry. Report on homosexuality with particular emphasis on this problem in governmental agencies. Report of the Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, 1955, 30, 1-7.
- Gundlach, R. and Riess, B. F. Self and sexual identity in the female: A study of lesbians and non-lesbians. Psychological Reports, 1967, 20, 61-62.
- Hamilton, G. V. T. Homosexuals and their mothers. 1936. Reprinted in On the Causes of Homosexuality: Two Essays, the Second in Reply to the First. By Hamilton, G. V. T. and Legman, G. pp. 5-15. New York: Breaking Point, 1950.
- Hadden, S. B. Male homosexuality. Pennsylvania Medicine, 1967, 70, 78-80.
- Hampson, J. L. Deviant sexual behavior: Homosexuality, transvestism. In Human Reproduction and Sexual Behavior, ed. by C. W. Lloyd, pp. 498-510. Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger, 1964.
- Hedblom, J. The social, sexual, and occupational lives of homosexual women. Sexual Behavior, 1972, 2 (10), 33-37.
- Henry, G. W. Sex Variants: A Study of Homosexual Patterns. New York: Paul B. Hoeber, 1948.
- Heston, L. L. and Shields, J. Homosexuality in twins: A family study and a registry study. Archives of General Psychiatry, 1968, 18 (2), 149-160.
- Higley, H. E. One hundred males arrested for homosexuality. Journal of the American Osteopathic Association, 1954, 54 (3), 194-197.
- Hirschfeld, M. Sexual Anomalies: The Origins, Nature and Treatment of Sexual Disorder. Red. ed. New York: Emerson Books, 1948.
- Hooker, E. The adjustment of the male overt homosexual. Journal of Projective Techniques, 1957, 21 (1), 18-31.
- Horney, K. New Ways in Psychoanalysis. New York: Norton, 1939.
- Hulbeck, C. R. Emotional conflicts in homosexuality. American Journal of Psychoanalysis, 1948, 8 (1), 72-73.
- Humphreys, L. and Miller, B. Identities in the emerging gay culture. In Homosexual Behavior: A Modern Reappraisal, ed. by J. Maimer, pp. 143-151. New York: Basic Books, 1980.

- Kallmann, F. J. Comparative twin study on the genetic aspects of male homosexuality. Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, 1952, 115 (4), 283-298.
- Karlen, A. Sexuality and Homosexuality: A New View. New York: W. W. Norton, 1971.
- Karpman, B. The Sexual Offender and His Offenses: Etiology, Pathology, Psychodynamics and Treatment. New York: Julian Press, 1954.
- Katz, J. Gay American History. New York: Avon Books, 1976.
- Keiser, S. and Schaffer, D. Environmental factors in homosexuality in adolescent girls. Psychoanalytic Review, 1949, 36 (3), 283-295.
- Kenyon, F. G. Studies in female homosexuality, psychological test results. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1968, 32, 510.
- Kinsey, A. C., Pomeroy, W. B., and Martin, C. E. Sexual Behavior in the Human Male. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders, 1948.
- _____. Sexual Behavior in the Human Female. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders, 1953.
- Kline, F. BiSexual Option. New York: Arbor House, 1978.
- Klintworth, G. K. A pair of male monozygotic twins discordant for homosexuality. Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, 1962, 135 (2), 113-125.
- Kolarsky, A., Freund, K., Machek, J., and Polak, O. Male sexual deviation: Association with early temporal lobe damage. Archives of General Psychiatry, 1967, 17 (6), 735-743.
- Kramer, G. A contribution toward validation of the FIRO-B questionnaire. Journal of Projective Techniques and Personality Assessment, 1967, 31, 80-81.
- Lang, T. Studies on the genetic determination of homosexuality. Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease, 1940, 92 (1), 55-64.
- Legman, G. Fathers and sons. In On the Cause of Homosexuality: Two Essays, the Second in Reply to the First, by G. V. Hamilton and G. Legman, pp. 17-31. New York: Breaking Point, 1950.
- Lewinsky, H. Features from a case of homosexuality. Psychoanalytic Quarterly, 1952, 21 (3), 344-354.
- Liddicoat, R. A study of non-institutionalized homosexuals. Journal of National Institute of Personnel Research, 1961, 8, 217-249.
- London, L. S. and Caprio, F. S. Sexual Deviations. Washington, D.C.: Lunare Press, 1950.

- Lurie, L. A. The endocrine factor in homosexuality: Report of treatment of four cases with androgen hormone. American Journal of the Medical Sciences, 1944, 208, 176-186.
- Lurie, L. A. and Jonas, C. G. Causes of homosexuality. Sexology, 1945, 11 (12), 743-746.
- Malloy, T. E. and Copeland, E. P. FIRO-B interpersonal compatibility: A suggested modification. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1980, 40, 961-967.
- Masica, D. N., Money, J., and Ehrhardt, A. A. Fetal feminization induced by androgen insensitivity in the testicular feminizing syndrome: Effect on marriage and maternatism. Johns Hopkins Medical Journal, 1969, 123 (3), 105-114.
- Masters, W. H. and Johnson, V. E. Homosexuality in Perspective. Boston: Little, Brown, and Company., 1979.
- Money, J. Factors in the genesis of homosexuality. In Determinants of Human Sexual Behavior, ed. George Winokur. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1963.
- Moore, T. V. The pathogenesis and treatment of homosexual disorders: A digest of some pertinent evidence. Journal of Personality, 1945, 14, 47-83.
- Mozes, E. B. The lesbian. Sexology, 1952, 18 (6), 384-389.
- Myerson, A. and Neustadt, R. Essential male homosexuality and some results of treatment. Journal of Nervous and Mental Diseases, 1945, 102 (2), 194-196.
- Myerson, A., Neustadt, R., and Rak, I. P. The male homosexual: Hormonal and clinical studies. Journal of Nervous and Mental Diseases, 1941, 93 (2), 209-212.
- Myrick, F. L. Attitudinal differences between heterosexuality and homosexuality oriented males and between covert and overt male homosexuals. Journal of Abnormal Psychiatry, 1974, 83 (1), 81-86.
- Neustatter, W. L. Homosexuality: The medical aspect. Practitioners, 1954, 172, 364-373.
- Ollendorff, R. H. V. The Juvenile Homosexual Experience and Its Effect on Adult Sexuality. New York: Julian Press, 1966.
- Pare, C. M. B. Homosexuality and chromosomal sex. Journal of Psychosomatic Research, 1956, I (4), 247-251.
- Perloff, W. H. Role of the hormones in human sexuality. Psychomatic Medicine, 1949, 11 (3), 133-139.

- Riess, B. F., Safer, J. and Yotive, W. Psychological test data on female homosexuality: A review of the literature. Journal of Homosexuality, 1974, 1 (1), 71-85.
- Robertiello, R. C. Clinical notes: Results of separation from iposexual parents during the oedipal period, [and] A female homosexual panic. Psychoanalytic Review, 1964-65, 51 (4), 670-672.
- Ryan, L. R. Clinical Interpretation of the FIRO-B. Palo Alto: Consulting Psychologists Press, 1970.
- Saghir, M. T. and Robins, E. Male and Female Homosexuality: A Comprehensive Investigation. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins, 1973.
- Schutz, W. C. FIRO Scales Manual. Palo Alto: Consulting Psychologists Press, 1967.
- _____. FIRO: A Three Dimensional Theory of Interpersonal Behavior. New York: Rinehart, 1958.
- _____. The Interpersonal Underworld. Palo Alto: Science and Behavior Books, 1966.
- Secor, H. W. What causes homosexuality? Sexology, 1949, 16 (4), 226-232.
- Sevringhaus, E. L. and Chornyak, J. A study of homosexual adult males. Psychosomatic Medicine, 1945, 7 (5), 302-305.
- Shearer, M. Homosexuality and the pediatrician: Early recognition and preventive counseling. Clinical Pediatrics, 1966, 5, 514-518.
- Siegelman, M. Adjustment of homosexual and heterosexual women. British Journal of Psychiatry, 1972, 120, 477-481.
- Silverman, D. and Rosenoff, W. R. Electroencephalographic and neurologic studies of homosexuals. Journal of Nervous and Mental Diseases, 1945, 10 (4), 311-321.
- Simon, W. and Gagnon, J. H. Homosexuality: The formation of a sociological perspective. Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 1967, 8 (3), 177-185.
- Socarides, C. W. The Overt Homosexual. New York: Grune and Stratton, 1968.
- Spada, J. The Spada Report. New York: Signet, 1979.
- Stekel, W. The Homosexual Neurosis. Translated by Van Teslarr, J. New York: Emerson Books, 1950.
- Sullivan, H. S. The Interpersonal Theory of Psychiatry. New York: W. W. Norton, 1953.

- Van Aardweg, G. J. M. Male homosexuality and psychological tests. As summarized in Women in Therapy, ed. by V. Franks and V. Butte. New York: Brunner/Mazel, 1974.
- Wayne, D. M. et al. A study of military prisoners at a disciplinary barrack suspected of homosexual activities. 1947. Reprinted in Journal of Abnormal Psychiatry, 1971, 72 (1), 74-79.
- Weinberger, R. N. Emotional dependency and security-insecurity: A study of sex differences and similarities. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Oklahoma State University, 1974.
- West, D. J. Parental figures in the genesis of male homosexuality. International Journal of Social Psychiatry, 1959, 5 (2), 85-97.
- _____. Homosexuality Re-Examined. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1977.
- Whitaker, L. The use of an extended Draw-A-Person test identify homosexual and effeminate men. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1961, 25 (6), 482-485.
- Wilbur, C. B. Clinical aspects of female homosexuality. In Sexual Inversion: The Multiple Roots of Homosexuality, ed. by Judd Marmor, pp. 268-281. New York: Basic Books, 1965.
- Williams, G. G. Homosexuality: A biological anomaly. Journal of Nervous and Mental Diseases, 1944, 99 (1), 65-70.
- Wilson, M. and Greene, R. Personality Characteristics of female homosexuals. Psychological Reports, 1971, 28, 407-412.
- Wulff, M. A case of male homosexuality. 1942. Reprinted in The Homosexuals: As Seen by Themselves and Dirty Authorities, ed. by Arom M. Krich, pp. 324-342. New York: Citadel Press, 1954.
- Zricker, R. A. and Manosevitz, M. MMPI patterns of overt male homosexuals. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1966, 30 (6), 555-557.

APPENDIX

DATA SHEET

1. DATE _____
2. AGE _____
3. GENDER _____
4. EDUCATION (Circle last gradt completed)
- | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------|---|---|---|-------------------------|---|---------------------------------|---|---|----|----|----|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| Some College | | | | Vocational/Trade School | | | | | | | |
| College Degree | | | | | | Graduate or Professional Degree | | | | | |
5. INCOME (Circle One)
- | | | |
|-------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| Under \$5,000 | \$5,000-\$10,000 | \$10,000-\$20,000 |
| \$20,000-\$40,000 | \$40,000 + | |
6. MARITAL STATUS (Circle One)
- | | | | |
|---------------|---------|--------------------|---------|
| Never Married | Married | Divorced/Separated | Widowed |
|---------------|---------|--------------------|---------|
7. RELIGIOUS AFFILIATION _____
8. NATIONALITY _____
9. OCCUPATION _____
10. In what size town/city do you presently live? (Circle One)
- | | | |
|----------------|-----------------|---------------|
| Under 10,000 | 10,000-25,000 | 25,000-50,000 |
| 50,000-100,000 | 100,000-500,000 | 500,000 + |
11. SEXUAL PREFERENCE (Circle One)
- | | | |
|--------------|------------|----------|
| Heterosexual | Homosexual | Bisexual |
|--------------|------------|----------|
12. Are you presently involved in a committed relationship? Yes _____
 No _____
13. If yes, how long have you been involved in this relationship?

VITA ²

Sherry C. Maxwell

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: THE INFLUENCE OF SEX PREFERENCE ON FACTORS RELATED TO
INTERACTION VARIABLES

Major Field: Student Personnel and Guidance

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Hopkinsville, Kentucky, January 9, 1943,
the daughter of Joyce and Basil Caummisar.

Education: Graduated from Sacred Heart Academy, Louisville,
Kentucky, in June, 1959; received the Bachelor of Arts
degree in English Literature from Marian College,
Indianapolis, Indiana, in 1962; received the Master of
Science degree in Clinical Psychology from Oklahoma State
University in 1976; completed the requirements for the
Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma State University
in May, 1983.

Professional Experience: Intern in Psychology at Logan County
Guidance Center, Guthrie, Oklahoma, 1975-1976; Mental Health
Specialist, Staff of Bi-State Mental Health Clinic,
Oklahoma State University, September, 1977-December, 1980;
Director, Bi-State Mental Health Clinic, Oklahoma State
University, January, 1981 through present.