


Gender and Reactions to Partner Masturbation and Use of Sexually Explicit Media

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by

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Purpose of Thesis

This thesis serves three purposes. First, to examine the multi-faceted area of human sexuality from a psychological perspective, specifically, the study of individual's reactions to a partner's use of sexually explicit media or masturbation behavior within the relationship. Second, as a beginning researcher, to learn the essential skills of collecting, interpreting, and reporting data, and last, to provide a useful, practical model for fellow psychology students to use when writing future research reports.

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Running head: PARTNER SOLITARY SEXUAL ACTIVITY

Gender and Reactions to Partner Masturbation and Use of Sexually Explicit Media

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Abstract

A large body of research has indicated that there are marked gender differences in some aspects of sexual behavior. However, to our knowledge, there has been no investigation of possible gender differences in affective and cognitive responses to a relationship partner's sexual self-stimulation and use of sexually explicit media. In the current study, college students (239 women and 206 men) completed a questionnaire measuring affective and attributional responses to such partner behavior. Women indicated more negative feelings about a partner's solitary sexual behavior as compared to men. For both men and women, a partner's use of sexually explicit material was rated more negatively than a partner's masturbation. With regard to attributions, there were no differences between scenarios on the idea that the partner was trying to enhance the relationship or that the partner had a high sex drive, but there was a difference on the dissatisfaction attribution. That is, men and women were more likely to see a partner's use of sexually explicit materials rather than masturbation as a sign of dissatisfaction with the original partner or the sexual relationship. The results are discussed with regard to implications for sexual relationships, clinical applications, and future research.

Gender and Reactions to Partner Masturbation and Use of Sexually Explicit Media

A large research literature supports the conclusion that, at least with regard to some aspects of sexuality, there are marked gender differences (Oliver & Hyde, 1993). The two areas in which gender differences are most apparent are masturbation and use of sexually explicit media. Previous research has indicated that men generally have more positive behavioral and affective responses to sexually explicit materials than do women (Kelley, Byrne, Greendlinger, & Murnen, 1997; Lopez & George, 1995; Lottes, Weinberg, & Weller, 1992; Padgett, Brislin-Slutz, & Neal, 1989). Similarly, compared to women, men hold more positive attitudes toward masturbation, and are more likely to engage in the activity and to do so with greater frequency (Laumann, Gagnon, Michael, & Michaels, 1994; Leitenberg, Deitzer, & Srebnik, 1993; Oliver & Hyde, 1993). Despite these clear gender differences, the majority of both men and women indicate engaging in masturbation and being exposed to sexually explicit material at some point in life (Wilson & Abelson, 1973; Arafat & Cotton, 1974; Laumann et al, 1994; Leitenberg, Deitzer, & Srebnik, 1993). Do these solitary sexual activities occur primarily (or exclusively) when individuals are not involved in a sexual relationship? Apparently, the answer is no.

Laumann et al. (1994), in their nationally representative sample, found a positive correlation between the frequency of masturbation and use of sexually explicit media. Accordingly, they constructed a composite index of "autoerotic activity," which included masturbation, fantasy, and use of sexually explicit media. Of the married and cohabitating respondents, 36% of the men and 15% of the women were deemed to exhibit "high autoeroticism" (pp. 142-143). Certainly, even higher percentages of married and cohabitating individuals can be presumed to masturbate and view sexually explicit materials at least occasionally.

Surprisingly, although previous research has assessed individual attitudes about sexually explicit materials and masturbation, we were unable to locate published research

examining gender differences in affective and cognitive responses to a partner's masturbation or use of sexually explicit media. Consequently, in the current study, we investigated young men's and women's affective responses and cognitive attributions concerning these solitary behaviors by one's relationship partner, and we expected to find certain gender differences. We hypothesized that women would have more negative affective responses and make more negative attributions than would men with regard to partner masturbation and usage of sexually explicit materials. We also expected to find a main effect for the type of partner behavior. That is, we hypothesized that both men and women would have more negative affective responses, and make more negative attributions, with regard to use of sexually explicit material by one's partner compared to masturbation by one's partner. Primarily, we speculate that the former behavior is more liable to imply sexual thoughts and feelings aimed at someone other than the relationship partner (in this case, the models depicted in the media being viewed).

There are several reasons we expected women to respond more negatively than men. First, compared to men, women tend to have a more communal approach toward sexuality (Hatfield, 1983; Huston & Ashmore, 1986). For example, women appear to engage in dating relationships more for reasons of emotional intimacy than do men (Sedikides, Oliver, & Campbell, 1994; Wiederman & Allgeier, 1993a). Previous research has also shown that women, more than men, associate sex, love, and marriage as belonging together (Weis, Slosnerick, Cate, & Sollie, 1986). Accordingly, women may have more negative reactions than do men to partner sexual activity that is solitary and not shared within the couple. In masturbation or use of sexually explicit material, one's partner is relying on stimuli from outside the dyad and is excluding the other relationship partner during sexual activity. This could create discord within the relationship, perhaps as the woman questions her previous assessment of the quality of the relationship as well as her own sexual desirability.

Another reason women may respond more negatively than men may have to do with religiosity. Previous studies have indicated that religiosity is an important factor related to attitudes toward sexuality (Cochran & Beeghley, 1991; Daughtery & Burger, 1994; Davidson, Darling, & Norton, 1995). Additionally, women tend to score higher than do men on scales measuring religiosity (Francis & Wilcox, 1996; Low & Handal, 1995; Miller & Hoffmann, 1995).

Potentially, we thought that one's self-image as a sexual partner might be related to one's evaluation of a partner's solitary sexual activity. Generally, men have more positive sexual esteem than do women (Wiederman & Allgeier, 1993b). This relatively lower sexual esteem could explain negative attitudes women may have toward partner masturbation and use of sexually explicit material. One might assume that one's partner would not masturbate or use sexually explicit material if the partner was satisfied with the current sexual relationship.

A woman may also respond negatively to her partner's use of sexually explicit media because she believes that her partner is comparing her to the models depicted. The implication is that she will be evaluated negatively in comparison to the women in such media. This potential concern may be based on reality as previous researchers found that men who watched 6 hours of "standard" sexually explicit material in the laboratory were less satisfied with their partner's level of affection, her appearance, and her sexual performance (Zillman & Bryant, 1988). Such "contrast effects" with regard to sexually explicit material have been well-documented (e.g., Dermer & Pyszczynski, 1978; Kenrick, Gutierrez, & Goldberg, 1989; Weaver, Masland, & Zillman, 1984). With regard to masturbation, a woman might conclude that, if her partner is excluding her from sexual activity, he is dissatisfied with the relationship or with her sexual performance or desirability.

Inherent in many of the reasons someone might respond negatively to partner use of sexually explicit media is the notion of body image, or how one evaluates and feels

about one's own physical attractiveness and sexual desirability. Body image is another reason we hypothesized women to respond more negatively than men to partner use of sexually explicit material. Compared to men, physical attractiveness is more central to women's sexual appeal to potential relationship partners (Buss, 1994; Feingold, 1990; Jackson, 1992) and women generally are less satisfied than men with their body size and attractiveness (Hesse-Biber, Matthews, & Downey, 1987; Pliner, Chaiken, & Flett, 1990; Raudenbush & Zellner, 1997).

Last, we wondered whether the hypothesized gender differences in response to partner masturbation and use of sexually explicit media may be explained by gender differences in sexual sensation seeking. Generally, men are more likely than women to value sexual variety (Darling & Davidson, 1986; Hatfield, et al, 1989; Purinine, Carey, & Jorgensen, 1994) and adventurousness on the part of sexual partners (Darling & Davidson, 1986; Hatfield et al, 1988). Accordingly, men score higher than do women on measures of sexual sensation seeking (Kalichman & Rompa, 1995). Perhaps men would have a more positive response to solitary sexual activity than would women because men would attribute such partner activity to a high sex drive and, therefore, deem this to be a positive partner attribute.

In the current study, we investigated potential gender differences in affective reactions and cognitive attributions to masturbation versus use of sexually explicit media by one's relationship partner. We additionally examined whether gender differences in such affective reactions could be explained by corresponding gender differences in relevant attributions, religiosity, sex-love-marriage association beliefs, sexual esteem, sexual sensation seeking, and general body image.

Method

Participants

Men ($n = 234$) and women ($n = 254$) were recruited from introductory psychology classes at a mid-sized public university in the Midwest, and each student received

research credit toward partial completion of the course. Five men and 7 women who identified themselves as exclusively or primarily erotically attracted to individuals of the same gender were excluded from analyses. To ensure a rather homogeneous sample with regard to age, the relatively few individuals who were 23 and older ($n = 31$) were also excluded. The final sample consisted of 239 young adult women and 206 young adult men who ranged in age from 18 to 22 ($M = 18.65$; $SD = .93$). The majority of participants were White (87.2 %); 7.0 % were Black; 1.8 % were Hispanic/Latino; less than 1% were Asian; and 3.1% endorsed "other" with regard to ethnicity. Most of the participants (86.0 %) reported having been involved in a "serious or exclusive" heterosexual dating relationship at some point, and two-thirds were currently involved in such a relationship.

Measures

Religiosity. Respondents were asked to indicate the number of religious services attended in a typical year. Respondents were also asked to indicate the importance of religion in their own life (using a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = Not at All Important to 7 = Extremely Important) as well as the importance of religion in making decisions about their own life (using the same scale). Because responses to the first item were not on the same scale as responses on the other two items, responses to each of the three items were converted into a Z score and the mean of the three Z scores served as a composite measure of religiosity. In the current study, the internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) for this measure was .81.

Partner Use of Sexually Explicit Media. Participants were presented with the following scenario: "Imagine that you are involved in a long-term sexual relationship and you have been out of town for several weeks due to your job. Upon returning, you learn that your partner has purchased a few adult magazines featuring explicit nude photos and has looked through the magazines on several different occasions. How would you feel?" Respondents were asked to rate their degree of agreement (using a 7-point

scale ranging from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 4 = Neither Agree Nor Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree) with each of 20 terms: excited, unappealing, happy, inadequate, hostile, hurt, unattractive, turned-on, angry, aroused, degraded, depressed, unappreciated, demeaned, exploited, rejected, objectified, unloved, not sexy, and upset.

Subsequently, participants were presented with the same 7-point scale and asked to respond to 20 potential attributions. The prompt stated "If my partner had purchased a few adult magazines featuring explicit nude photos and had looked through them on several separate occasions, it might mean that my partner. . ." The 20 potential attributions were written to represent a range of potentially positive attributions, such as " is interested in sexual variety," " has a strong sex drive," and " wants to enhance our relationship," as well as potentially negative attributions, such as " is unimaginative," " does not find me attractive," and " is not satisfied with our sexual relationship."

Another affective response scale measured participants' feelings about being compared to the models portrayed in sexually explicit material. The prompt stated: "If I thought my current partner compared me sexually to the individuals of my gender depicted in this material, I would feel . . ." Participants responded to the same 20 affective terms as used in the previous scenario.

Partner Masturbation. Participants were presented with the following scenario: "Imagine that you are involved in a long-term sexual relationship and you have been out of town for several weeks due to your job. Upon returning, you learn that your partner has stimulated their own genitals to the point of orgasm on several separate occasions. How would you feel?" Participants were asked to respond to the same 20 terms and 20 attributions as in the scenario involving partner use of sexually explicit media, except the order of the 20 terms was varied, as was the order of the 20 attributions.

Body Dissatisfaction. The general body dissatisfaction sub-scale created by Probst, Vandereycken, Van Coppenolle, and Vanderlinden (1995) was used as a general measure of body dissatisfaction. The four items were: "When I compare myself with my

peers' bodies, I'm dissatisfied with my own," "I'm inclined to hide my body (for example by loose clothing)," "When I look at myself in the mirror, I'm dissatisfied with my own body," and "I envy others for their physical appearance." Respondents indicated how often they agreed with each item using a 6-point scale (ranging from 1 = Never to 6 = Always). In the current study, the internal consistency coefficient was .88.

Sexual Esteem. Sexual esteem, or the tendency to evaluate oneself positively as a sexual partner, was measured with the short form (Wiederman & Allgeier, 1993b) of the sexual esteem scale from Snell and Papini (1989). Respondents indicated their degree of agreement or disagreement with each of the five statements using a 5-point scale (ranging from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree). A sample item is "I am confident about myself as a sexual partner." After reverse-scoring one item, an overall score is generated by summing across items, with higher scores indicating relatively greater sexual esteem. In the current study, the internal consistency coefficient was .89.

Sex-Love-Marriage Association. Respondents completed the 8-item Sex-Love-Marriage (SLM) Association scale (Weis et al., 1986) which purportedly measures the extent to which respondents associate sex, love, and marriage as belonging together. Respondents indicated their degree of agreement or disagreement with each item using a 5-point scale (ranging from 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree). A sample item is "Sexual intercourse is best when enjoyed for its own sake, rather than for the purpose of providing or expressing love." After reverse-scoring three of the items, an overall score is generated by summing across items, with higher scores indicating relatively greater sex-love-marriage association beliefs. The scale has been shown to be predictive of conservative attitudes toward sexual relationships (Weis et al., 1986). The internal consistency coefficient was .69.

Sexual Sensation Seeking. Respondents completed the sexual sensation seeking sub-scale provided by Kalichman and Rompa (1995). Respondents indicated their degree of agreement or disagreement with each of the seven statements using a 4-point scale

(ranging from 1 = Not At All Like Me to 4 = Very Much Like Me). A sample item is "I am interested in trying out new sexual experiences." An overall score is generated by summing across items, with higher scores indicating relatively greater tendencies toward seeking out new varied sexual experiences and taking sexual risks. In the current study, the internal consistency coefficient was .82.

Procedure

At the point of signing up for potential participation in the study, respondents were only aware that participation was worth one hour of research credit. The nature of the study was not disclosed until arrival at the testing site. All students received a verbal description of the nature of the study as well as instructions on how to participate. Students were reminded of the voluntary nature of their participation and were encouraged to discontinue if they felt uncomfortable. After giving instructions verbally, students were given consent forms to read and sign. None of the potential participants declined participation on learning of the nature of the study. Participants completed the anonymous questionnaire booklet in groups ranging from 6 to 30 students and all did so in the presence of the first author. Two forms of the questionnaire were used. They were identical except that the order of presentation of the two partner scenarios were counterbalanced to control for possible order effects. After completing the questionnaire, students were instructed to put all survey materials face down in a collection box located at the front of the room. After materials had been turned in, each participant was thanked and his or her credit slip was signed denoting participation.

Results

Initial principal component factor analyses of the 20 affective adjectives, performed separately by gender and scenario, revealed that there were 2 consistent factors. One factor was comprised of all positive terms (e.g., "excited," "happy," "turned-on," and "aroused") whereas the second factor was comprised of the remaining negative terms (e.g., "inadequate," "hostile," "hurt," and "exploited"). Across gender and

scenario, internal consistency coefficients ranged from .90 - .97 for the positive affective scale and from .90 - .97 for the negative affect scale (see Table 1). The correlation between the 2 factors ranged from -.27 to -.46, depending on gender and scenario, with a mean correlation of -.40.

Insert Table 1 about here

Factor analyses of the attribution items, again performed separately by gender and scenario, revealed 3 primary types of attributions for a partner's behavior that were consistent across gender and scenario. Two of the factors were relatively benign attributions involving either an interest in enhancing the relationship or an expression of a strong a sex drive. The resulting Relationship Enhancement scale included three attributions: "is interested in sexual variety," "wants to learn more sexually," "wants to enhance our sexual relationship." The High Sex Drive scale included three items: "is sexually adventurous," "has a strong sex drive," and "has a rich fantasy life." The third set of attributions concerned satisfaction with the primary relationship or partner and included five items: "does not find me attractive," "is not satisfied with our sexual relationship," "no longer finds me physically appealing," "will be less interested in sex with me," and "is dissatisfied with the appearance of my body." These factors were used in subsequent analyses (see Table for internal consistency coefficients). The remaining nine attributions either represented single-item factors or exhibited substantial cross-loading on multiple factors.

Data analyses testing the hypotheses consisted of a 2(gender) X 2(scenario) design using multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA). There were no statistically significant interactions between gender and scenario. Main effects are presented below. In addition to probability values, we chose to include effect sizes (Cohen, 1994). Consistent with Cohen (1969), the effect size statistic d was calculated as the difference

between the mean score of the group with the greater score and the group with the lower score divided by the pooled standard deviation (also see Rosenthal & Rosnow, 1991). Cohen (1969) considered effect sizes of .80 or greater as relatively large effects, those around .50 as medium effects, and those around .20 as small effects.

Gender Differences

Hypothesis 1 included the prediction that women would have more negative feelings and make more negative attributions about a partner's masturbation and use of sexually explicit material. Correspondingly, there was a significant main effect for gender on the affective scales (see Table 2). In both the masturbation and sexually explicit media scenario, women reported less positive and more negative affective responses than did men.

Insert Table 2 about here

With regard to the second part of Hypothesis 1, that women would make more negative attributions, MANOVAs revealed a differential pattern of results depending on the scenario. In the masturbation scenario, men and women did not differ significantly on the dissatisfaction attribution (see Table 2). However, men were more likely than women to view a partner's masturbation as motivated by a high sex drive, curiosity, or a desire for enhancement of the relationship.

In the sexually explicit media scenario, men and women agreed that a partner's use of sexually explicit media might indicate a strong sex drive. However, women were less likely than men to view a partner's use of sexually explicit material as an attempt at education or enhancement of the relationship. Also, women were more likely than men to attribute a partner's use of sexually explicit materials to partner dissatisfaction.

Scenario Differences

Hypothesis 2 included the prediction that both men and women would have more negative affective responses, and make more negative attributions in response to a partner's use of sexually explicit materials compared to partner masturbation. Table 3 presents the relevant comparisons. Respondents did have more negative affective responses to a partner's use of sexually explicit media than to partner masturbation. However, attributions regarding use of sexually explicit material and masturbation were more similar than different. Respondents agreed that a partner's use of sexually explicit material or masturbation might indicate a high sex drive. Similarly, there was no difference between the scenarios with regard to the Relationship Enhancement attribution. In contrast, there was a significant difference between scenarios regarding the Dissatisfaction attribution. Respondents were more likely to attribute relationship dissatisfaction to partner use of sexually explicit material than to partner masturbation. With regard to affective reactions to the sexually explicit media scenario versus the context of being compared to the models in the sexually explicit media, respondents indicated more negative feelings to being compared to models than if their partner were simply viewing the sexually explicit materials (see Table 4).

Insert Tables 3 and 4 about here

Explaining Gender Differences

Compared to men, women scored higher on both religiosity [$F(1, 443) = 10.89$, $p < .0010$, $d = .31$], sex-love-marriage association beliefs [$F(1, 443) = \quad$], and body dissatisfaction [$F(1, 443) = \quad$]. Conversely, compared to women, men scored higher on the measures of sexual esteem [$F(1, 443) = \quad$], and sexual sensation seeking [$F(1, 443) = \quad$]. In general, the effect sizes associated with these gender differences were

medium to large. To the extent that scores on these variables were related to reactions to the hypothetical scenarios, gender differences on these measures may explain the apparent gender differences in response to partner masturbation and use of sexually explicit media. The Pearson correlations between scores on the various measures and reactions to the scenarios are presented in Table 5.

Insert Table 5 about here

Last, we sought to determine whether the apparent gender differences in affective reactions and cognitive attributions could be accounted for by relevant independent variables on which men and women differed. We conducted a hierarchical regression analyses with responses to each hypothetical scenario as the dependent variable and sexual sensation seeking, religiosity, sexual esteem, sex-love-marriage association beliefs, body dissatisfaction, and cognitive attributions as predictor variables entered at step one. Adding gender to the equation at step two resulted in statistically significant increments in R^2 in all but one situation (see Table 6). In other words, controlling for the other relevant variables accounted for most of the gender differences in affective reactions and cognitive attributions in response to each scenario; however, gender still added a significant predictive power.

Insert Table 6 about here

Discussion

The results of the current research partially confirmed our hypotheses. Results confirmed that women had more negative affective reactions to a partner's solitary sexual activity, but a differential pattern of results emerged with regard to the attributions. There was no gender difference in likelihood of attributing partner

masturbation to dissatisfaction with the relationship. However, there was a significant difference on the relationship enhancement and strong sex drive components. Men were more likely to see a partner's masturbation as a potential means of enhancing the relationship or as an indicator of the partner's strong sex drive.

With regard to the sexually explicit media scenario, results again confirmed our hypothesis that women would have more negative affective reactions. However, a differential pattern of results again emerged for the attributions. There was no gender difference on the strong sex drive attribution. However, women were less likely than men to see a partner's use of sexually explicit media as a potential enhancement to the primary relationship. Similarly, women were more likely to see a partner's use of sexually explicit media as an indicator of his dissatisfaction with her or the relationship.

We also hypothesized a main effect for type of scenario, expecting reactions to the sexually explicit media scenario to be more negative than the responses to the masturbation scenario. Scores on the affective scale and the dissatisfaction attribution supported this hypothesis .

We speculated that the expected gender differences may be a result of other robust gender differences on certain variables having to do with body image, religiosity, and sexual attitudes. Indeed, results of the multiple regression analyses revealed that men and women's scores on measures of religiosity, sex-love-marriage association beliefs, sexual sensation seeking, body dissatisfaction, and sexual esteem accounted for substantial proportions of the variance in reactions to the hypothetical scenarios.. However, significant incremental increases in such variance were still related to gender when it was added at step two.

The results of the current research add to our existing knowledge about gender differences in sexuality. Similarly, these results impact how we may view sexual relationships and sexuality in the future. The gender differences found in the current research indicate that a potential exists for interpersonal conflicts. One's solitary sexual

behavior may cause interpersonal problems if the behaviors and the feelings and attributions that come along with it can't be discussed within the context of the existing relationship. The information gathered in the current study might be of use to those doing sexuality-related counseling as issues of a partner's solitary sexual experience will inevitably arise along with the related correlates of body image, sexual esteem, and dissatisfaction with the current relationship.

Although the current study is the first that we are aware of that deals with reactions to partner masturbation and sexually explicit media use, it opens the door to a new area of research. Respondents answered questions based on the prompt that they were out of town when the particular partner behavior occurred. Results might be different if men and women responded to a scenario in which they are in another room of their house when the partner solitary sexual behavior occurs. Future research might also examine whether men make more benign attributions about their own solitary sexual activity. If men made benign attributions about their own solitary sexual behavior, it could potentially explain why men make more benign attributions about their partner's solitary sexual behavior.

Related to positive attitudes toward solo sexual activity is the concept of a nonrelational attitude toward sexuality, (Brooks, 1995). Quite possibly this nonrelational attitude might have predictive concerning affect, attitudes, and attributions about a partner's sexual behavior. Research should investigate the possibility of nonrelational sexual style predicting individual's attitudes towards their partner's solitary sexual behaviors. We would speculate that those individuals, male or female, with a nonrelational style of sexual attachment would be more inclined to have more positive attitudes toward use of sexually explicit media and masturbation and therefore, likely to view their partner's similar behaviors as positive.

Future research might also examine whether a differential pattern of results emerges if respondents are presented with the scenario of being in the same house when

the partner behavior occurred. Also, research might look at the affective and cognitive attributions one might make if one's partner was interested in sharing the oftentimes solitary sexual behaviors of masturbating and using sexually explicit media with their partner.

Although much has been learned from the current research and new directions of future research have been revealed, caution should be used in generalizing the results presented hereto the population at large. Several weaknesses limit such actions.

First, the sample here is relatively young and probably has less sexual and relationship experience. Related to this issue is the composition of the subject pool. The fact that a majority of respondents were White might limit cross-cultural generalizability. Future endeavors should make efforts to be more inclusive with regards to ethnicity. Another potential problem exists within the nature of the scenarios. Being hypothetical, the scenarios do not provide the real-life, rich context present in actual relationships. Respondents may not have been able to imagine how they might feel or what a particular behavior might mean about their partner.

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Table 1

Internal Consistency Coefficients for Affective and Cognitive Attribution Scales

	Men (n = 206)	Women (n = 239)
<u>Masturbation Scenario</u>		
<u>Affective Reaction</u>		
Positive	.90	.90
Negative	.97	.97
<u>Cognitive Attribution</u>		
Dissatisfaction	.88	.88
Relationship Enhancement	.65	.65
Strong Sex Drive	.68	.68
<u>Sexually Explicit Media Scenario</u>		
<u>Affective Reaction</u>		
Positive	.91	.91
Negative	.96	.96
<u>Cognitive Attribution</u>		
Dissatisfaction	.90	.90
Relationship Enhancement	.69	.69
Strong Sex Drive	.64	.64
<u>Being Compared to Models</u>		
<u>Affective Reactions</u>		
Positive	.91	.91
Negative	.96	.94

Table 2

Results for Gender Comparisons on Each Affective and Cognitive Attribution Scale

	Men (n = 206)	Women (n = 239)			
	M (SD)	M (SD)	F(1, 443)	p <	d
<u>Masturbation Scenario</u>					
<u>Affective Reactions</u>					
Positive	4.75 (1.46)	3.33 (1.51)	101.03	.0001	.86
Negative	2.15 (1.13)	2.65 (1.33)	17.85	.0001	.39
<u>Cognitive Attributions</u>					
Dissatisfaction	2.10 (1.17)	2.20 (1.46)	.87	.36	.08
Relationship Enhancement	4.53 (1.22)	4.05 (1.35)	15.86	.0001	.38
Strong Sex Drive	4.85 (1.33)	4.61 (1.21)	3.88	.05	.19
<u>Sexually Explicit Media</u>					
<u>Affective Reactions</u>					
Positive	3.93 (1.30)	2.60 (1.43)	91.49	.0001	.83
Negative	2.53 (1.30)	3.24 (1.41)	30.37	.0001	.51
<u>Cognitive Attributions</u>					
Dissatisfaction	2.56 (1.34)	2.96 (1.53)	8.58	.004	.28
Relationship Enhancement	4.51(1.08)	3.97 (1.39)	20.50	.0001	.42
Strong Sex Drive	4.86 (1.11)	4.70 (1.31)	1.88	.18	.13
<u>Being Compared to Models</u>					
<u>Affective Reactions</u>					
Positive	3.24 (1.66)	2.18 (1.39)	53.47	.0001	.17
Negative	4.20 (1.49)	4.40 (1.31)	72.22	.0001	.68

Table 3

Comparisons between Reactions to the Masturbation Scenario versus the Sexually
Explicit Media Scenario

	Sexually		E(1, 443)	p <	d
	Masturbation	Explicit Media			
	M (SD)	M (SD)			
<u>Affective Reactions</u>					
Positive	3.99 (1.65)	3.22 (1.62)	111.08	.001	.47
Negative	2.42 (1.27)	2.91 (1.41)	56.02	.001	.37
<u>Cognitive Attributions</u>					
Dissatisfaction	2.15 (1.19)	2.77 (1.46)	84.67	.001	.47
Relationship Enhancement	4.27 (1.31)	4.22 (1.28)	.53	.47	.04
Strong Sex Drive	4.72 (1.27)	4.77 (1.22)	.52	.47	.04

Table 4

Comparisons Between Responses to the Sexually Explicit Media Scenario versus context of being Compared to Models in the Sexually Explicit Media

	Sexually Explicit Media M (SD)	Comparison to models M (SD)	F (1, 443)	p <	d
<u>Women</u>					
Positive Affect	2.60 (1.43)	2.18 (1.39)	19.10	.001	.29
Negative Affect	3.25 (1.41)	4.40 (1.47)	164.10	.001	.78
<u>Men</u>					
Positive Affect	3.93 (1.52)	3.24 (1.66)	34.81	.001	.42
Negative Affect	2.53 (1.30)	3.20 (1.49)	66.26	.001	.45

Table 5

Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Total Sample (N = 245)

	<u>SATIS</u>	<u>ESTEEM</u>	<u>SLM</u>	<u>SEEK</u>	<u>RELIG</u>
<u>Masturbation Scenario</u>					
<u>Affective Reactions</u>					
Positive	-.14*	.21*	-.29*	.52*	-.29*
Negative	.11	-.22*	.18*	-.33*	.30*
<u>Cognitive Attributions</u>					
Dissatisfaction	.01	.14*	-.13*	.30*	-.13
Relationship Enhancement	-.21	.07	-.16*	.31*	-.19*
Strong Sex Drive	.01	.14*	-.13*	.30*	.13*
<u>Sexually Explicit Material Scenario</u>					
<u>Affective Reactions</u>					
Positive	-.16*	.11	-.33*	.41*	.22*
Negative	.17*	-.18*	.29*	-.27*	.32*
<u>Cognitive Reactions</u>					
Dissatisfaction	.22*	-.23*	.22*	-.19*	.14*
Relationship Enhancement	-.03	-.02	-.15*	.26*	.12
Strong Sex Drive	-.01	.08	-.06	.22*	-.05
<u>Comparison Scenario</u>					
<u>Affective Reactions</u>					
Positive	-.20*	.14*	-.24*	.31*	-.12*
Negative	.28*	-.18*	.27*	-.24*	.24*

Note: SATIS = Body Dissatisfaction, ESTEEM= Sexual Esteem, SLM = Sex-Love-Marriage Association, SEEK = Sexual Sensation Seeking, RELIG = Religiosity

* $p < .01$

Table 6

Results of Multiple Regression AnalysesDependent Variable

	<u>Step 1</u>		<u>Step 2</u>	
	Change in R ²	F for Change	Change in R ²	F for Change
<u>Masturbation Scenario</u>				
<u>Affective Reactions:</u>				
Positive	.38	37.96*	.05	41.90*
Negative	.17	12.86*	.004	1.86
<u>Sexually Explicit</u>				
<u>Media Scenario</u>				
<u>Affective Reactions:</u>				
Positive	.39	39.23*	.04	29.50*
Negative	.58	86.14*	.01	10.88*
<u>Comparison to</u>				
<u>Models Scenario</u>				
<u>Affective Reactions:</u>				
Positive	.14	12.35*	.03	16.77*
Negative	.35	39.17*	.05	34.65*

Note: df = 1, 443 for step 1 and 2, 442 for step 3

* p < .05