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2001

In the Mind and Bed of the Beholder?: Individual and Situational Differences in the Experience of Sexual Interactions

Carrie Veronica Smith
College of William & Mary - Arts & Sciences

IN THE MIND AND BED OF THE BEHOLDER? INDIVIDUAL AND SITUATIONAL DIFFERENCES IN THE EXPERIENCE OF SEXUAL INTERACTIONS

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A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department of Psychology

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In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts

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by
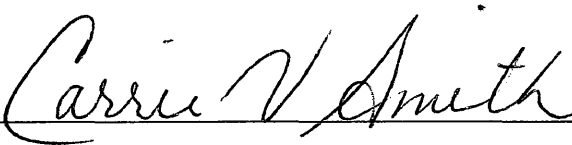
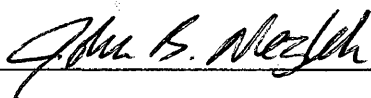Carrie Veronica Smith

2001

APPROVAL SHEET

This thesis is submitted in partial fulfillment of

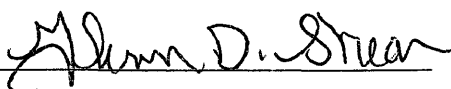the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts

[signature]

Carrie Veronica Smith

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[signature]

John B. Nezlek, Chair

[signature]

Constance J. Pilkington

[signature]

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Carrie Veronica Smith
College of William and Mary

Abstract

The present research examined individual and situation differences in the experience of sexual interactions. There is evidence that suggests that personality differences can affect reactions to social interactions more generally. Further, there is evidence that suggests reactions to sexual behavior can differ for situational reasons, including motives to engage in the behavior and expectation for the interaction. Using a final sample of 74 college undergraduates, sexual interaction diaries recorded for three weeks were examined for both within- and between-person differences. Both condom usage and occurrence of orgasm were significantly related to various outcome variables; this relationship was moderated by gender or scores of risk in intimacy for some outcome variables. Further examination of three sexuality questionnaires (Sexuality Scale (Snell & Papini, 1989), Sexual Self-Esteem Scale (Gaynor & Underwood, 1995), and Sexual Self-Schema (Cyranowski & Andersen, 1998) found several of their sub-scales to be related to the outcome variables. The implications of these findings are discussed and future directions are discussed.

In the Mind and Bed of the Beholder?: Situational and Individual Differences in the

Experience of Sexual Interactions

      In everyday life, the topic of sexuality and sexual behavior is often met with some

combination of smirks and gasps, humor and shock. While a great deal of research has

been conducted on sexuality in recent decades in areas such as human biology, lifespan

development, and clinical psychology, social psychology has been late to enter the arena.

See Byrne (1977) for a more complete discussion of the marriage of sexuality and social

psychology. More recent research has covered a broad range of topics, including the role

of sexual motives (e.g., Browning, Hatfield, Kessler, & Levine, 2000), intimacy and

sexual functioning (e.g., McCabe, 1999), effects of unwanted, consensual sexual activity

(O'Sullivan & Allgier, 1998), correlates and determinants of sexual satisfaction in

relationships (e.g., Haavio-Mannila & Kontula, 1997; Larson, Anderson, Holman, &

Niemann, 1998; McCann & Biaggio, 1989), and sexual risk-taking, as it relates to

teenage pregnancy and STD transmission (e.g., Buzwell & Rosenthal, 1996) and date

rape (e.g., Shapiro & Schwarz, 1997).

      What are noticeably absent from the literature are an examination of the sexual

interaction itself and the possible consequences of what Byrne calls the "ultimate social

interaction" (Byrne, 1977, p. 4). While some research suggests potential biological

benefits of "good" sexual arousal and behavior, such as decreased physical anxiety,

increased vitality and increased immune functioning (Keesling, 1999), other research

points out that "bad" sexual behavior may have detrimental effects, including decreased

couple adjustment (Davies, Katz, & Jackson, 1999) and couple communication (Trudel,

Fortin, & Matte, 1997). It is unclear how "bad" sex differs from "good" sex and how people react to both kinds. A large problem with examining the role that sexual behavior plays in people's lives is a primary reliance on data from on self-report, retrospective, one-time measures, which despite their brevity and face validity, asks participants to recall and aggregate a large amount of experiences and subsequent reactions to those events.

The present study was designed to compliment existing research on sexual behavior while attempting to avoid the problems of one-time, retrospective measures of sexual behaviors. Participants in the study, including both people in dating relationships as well as those who were not, described all of their sexual interactions (while this could include sexual intercourse, other behaviors qualified) for three weeks, using a variant of the Rochester Interaction Record (RIR; Wheeler & Nezlek, 1977). Not only did this diary format allow for an examination of the quantity of interactions but the quality of interactions as well.

The main focus of this research was to examine people's daily sexual interactions and their subsequent reactions to such events. A majority of the research that exists on sexual behavior has participants answer only a few questions (such as "How many partners have you had in your lifetime?" and "On average, how many times per week do you have sex?") or has them mark items on an experience checklist, with higher numbers equating to greater sexual experience. Thus, results from many of these studies are likely to be tainted by methodological issues, such as recollection bias. For this reason, it is

necessary to conduct further research that attempts to accurately assess people's sexual

behavior, which will then allow for more and better conclusions to be drawn.

<div align="center">Sexuality Research Findings</div>

Research in the past several decades has told us a great deal about people's sexual

behavior, in terms of the cause and the effect, as well as the characteristics of the event

itself. While the structured interviews of Kinsey and his colleagues provided reports of

life-span sexual behavior of both men and women (Kinsey, Pomeroy, & Martin, 1948;

Kinsey, Pomeroy, Martin, & Gebhard, 1953) and the physiological research of Masters

and Johnson (1966) uncovered new information about the general human sexual response

cycle and its stages, more recent studies have had a more narrow focus on particular

sexual processes and characteristics. More specifically, a variety of research has

examined how precursors of sexual behavior can and do have implications for sexual

outcomes.

In understanding the particular actions people in sexual situations engage in and

their subsequent responses, it is necessary to understand why people initially engage in

such behavior. For example, historically, procreation has been a common reason for

engaging in sexual relations. More recent research, however, suggests that this may not

be the case in all populations. In a sample of college undergraduates, Hill and Preston

(1996) found that although relief from stress was a motive for sexual behavior,

procreation was not. Further examination of sexual motives conducted by Browning,

Hatfield, Kessler, and Levine (2000) again focused on undergraduate college students

(male and female) but also examined both usual (e.g., kissing, intercourse) and unusual

sexual behavior (e.g., bondage, anal sex). Whereas results suggested that usual sexual behavior was more common than unusual sexual behavior (as predicted), it was also concluded that sexual motives did differ between the two types of sexual behavior (both engaging in and initiating), suggesting that sexual motives are not always the same across all sexual behavior. Further, several gender differences emerged. For example, women were more likely to endorse the love motive and less likely to endorse the pleasure motive than were men. In other words, sexual behavior is not as homogenous between or within people as prior research may suggest. A problem with this research, however, is that it asked people to recall their experiences and give ratings of their motives generally for each sexual behavior rather than their motive during a given sexual encounter.

Similar research has examined the significance of roles (i.e., initiator, restrictor) in relationships and the effect that they may have on sexual outcomes. One examination of such roles instructed 105 unmarried, male and female undergraduates to complete a questionnaire each time they had a date and to record who initiated sexual activity, if any, their satisfaction with the initiation, and their and their partner's enjoyment of the activity (O'Sullivan & Byers, 1992). Interestingly, although men and women appear to initiate sexual activity in similar ways, both men and women reported more enjoyment from the interaction if the male was the initiator, suggesting an adherence to "traditional" sex roles. Further, it appears that while the initiator role remains, the restrictor-role played by women no longer remains. Surprisingly, no individual differences measured by the researchers (e.g., past sexual experiences, erotophobia-erotophilia) were related to initiation style, actual initiation, or reaction to initiation. It is unclear, however, what the

nature of the participants "dating" relationships were and what effect this may have had on the results; for example, a first date was equated with a date engaged in by a long-term dating couple).

The impact of consenting to unwanted sexual activity in the context of dating relationships has also shed light on the understanding of sexual interactions. [1] One study of 80 male and 80 female American college students who kept sexual interaction diaries for two weeks found that almost half of the participants (43.8%) reported at least one initiated interaction in which they did not desire to be intimate (O'Sullivan & Allgier, 1998). Of those who reported engaging in an unwanted activity, a majority of them (93.3%) reported doing so previously with this partner, suggesting a common communication trend. In addition, females were more likely to report engaging in unwanted, but consensual, sexual activity than were men over the course of two weeks. Of the motives provided for engaging in unwanted behavior, promotion of sexual intimacy/satisfying partner's needs and avoidance of relationship tensions were the most common reasons overall (67%), whereas men most often reported the latter motive. Perhaps more pertinent to the current study was the finding that unwanted but consensual sexual activity resulted in different emotional outcomes. Sexual activity was rated as less pleasant when the sexual activity was unwanted than when both partners desired it.

What these various lines of research suggest is that sexual activity is not homogeneous, either in respect to its causes or effects. Whereas the activities may or

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[1] This construct is not to be confused with rape; the people in these situations *willingly consent* to the activity despite not having a sexual desire to do so (they may engage in the behavior for various other motives, such as conflict avoidance). Rape, by contrast, involves a lack of sexual desire *and* an absence of willing, sexual consent (O'Sullivan & Allgier, 1998).

may not be the same, different people may have different expectations regarding the purpose of such an interaction, and these expectations may have different implications for immediate outcomes (e.g., post-coital pleasure, perceived intimacy) as well as in the long-term outcomes (e.g., relationship satisfaction and continuation).

Individual Differences in Human Sexuality

Personality and Traditional Social Interactions

Personality, or people's consistent patterns of behavior across situations, can and does have an impact on people's social interaction (e.g., Asendorpf & Wilpers, 1998; Barrett & Pietromonaco, 1997; Dodge, Heimberg, Nyman, & O'Brien, 1987; Nezlek & Leary, in press). Several personality factors that have been examined include sociosexuality (Hebl & Kashy, 1995), social anxiety (Dodge, Heimberg, Nyman, & O'Brien, 1987; Vittengl & Holt, 1998), and self-focus (Flory, Raikkonen, Matthews, & Owens, 2000), to name just a few.

A person's own personality can greatly affect one's social experiences. For example, shy individuals are likely to see interacting with others as a completely different experience than would a more out-going person. Further, the interaction itself may take on different dimensions. A common and often-studied personality theory is the Five-Factor Model, proposed by McCrae and Costa (1990). Its role in social interactions has recently been explored in several studies. For example, one study examining this relationship using an interaction diary format found that agreeableness, extraversion, and neuroticism were predictive of people's interaction characteristics (e.g., number of relational partners) and quality (e.g., feelings of control) (Barrett & Pietromonaco, 1997).

A longitudinal study that examined the influence of personality on social interaction and vice versa in participants over the course 18 months also found a link (Asendorpf & Wilpers, 1998). More specifically, extraversion was predictive of quantity and quality of interactions whereas changes in interactional style or partners did not affect measures of personality. The authors concluded that personality influences social relationships but the converse is not true.

Another interesting potential influence on people's social relationships is the idea of risk in intimacy, or the degree of fear or distrust felt by people in the context of intimate interpersonal relationships. What is interesting about this construct introduced by Pilkington and Richardson (1988) is its potential role in romantic couplings. It is possible, for example, that those who are higher in their perceived risk will have less fulfilling social and romantic lives. A general examination of this trait in everyday social interaction suggested this to be the case (Nezlek & Pilkington, 1994). Results suggested that those people scoring higher on measures of risk in intimacy had less rewarding and fewer interactions with opposite sex others than those who did not express such risk; these people indicated their interactions to be less enjoyable and intimate. Further, they also indicated that the people that they were interacting with were less responsive to their feelings. An interesting gender difference also emerged when examining romantic interactions, suggesting that women do not differ in the quality of these interactions whereas men who are higher in risk in intimacy do claim to have less fulfilling and responsive interactions. It was suggested that risk in intimacy is simply less salient for women in these relationships as it is often the case that they are the "caregiver." What

this research and other similar studies suggest is that what a person brings to an interaction is dependent on the person, the co-interactant, and the situation.

Personality and Sexual Interactions

More recently, there has been some suggestion that individual differences may help explain differences in sexual behavior and experience. To the extent that sexual interactions are a type of social interaction, different personality factors are likely to influence both quantity and quality of sexual activity. For instance, Trudell (1991) claims that sexual desire cannot be examined thoroughly in the absence of individual and interpersonal differences. Other researchers suggest that individual differences (in this case, self-monitoring) may even exist in the basic orientations people take toward the idea of sexual relationships (Synder, Simpson, & Gangestad, 1986).

Like traditional social interactions research, a fair amount of research has examined the potential connection between the five-factor model of personality and sexual behavior. In fact, the proposed link between general personality theory and sexual behavior originated with the three-factor theory proposed by Eysenck (1947). He felt that both neuroticism and extraversion were predictive of sexual behavior, both in terms of quantity (i.e., number of sexual partners, frequency of "perverse" practices) and quality of activity (i.e., fear of sexual situations, types of sexual attitudes). More recent research has also focused on these relationships with less clear results. One study conducted by Schenk and Pfrang (1986) did find a link between extraversion and sexual behavior but failed to find a relationship between sexual behavior and neuroticism. Another similar study examined not only sexual behavior, but also included measures of sexual attitudes,

sexual curiosity, sexual excitement, sexual guilt, sexual nervousness, and sexual

satisfaction (Heaven, Fitzpatrick, Craig, Kelly, & Sebar, 2000). While extraversion and

neuroticism were predictive generally, the traits of conscientiousness and openness to

experience also emerged as significant factors.

Increased interest in sexuality research has fostered the investigation of more

personality traits than just the Big-Five traits. Several of these studies have correlated

commonly researched personality traits with various aspects of sexual behavior, such as

satisfaction, arousal, and desire. One such study conducted by Apt and Hurlbert (1992)

examined the role of sensation seeking in the sexual lives of 96 women. Those women

who had higher levels of sensation seeking reported greater levels of sexual desire, sexual

arousability, and a more positive view towards sexuality in general than did those women

who evidenced lower levels. By contrast, those women who scored lower on measures of

sensation seeking reported higher levels of both marital and sexual satisfaction. An

interesting finding of the study was that although differences did exist in some aspects of

sexuality, the two types of women did not differ in the recalled frequency of sexual

intercourse. The authors suggested that this finding might be related to the fact that

sexual behavior is not caused by a single factor, but is determined by several factors,

including partner interest.

Another finding has been the link between self-esteem and sexual behavior.

Baumeister and Tice (2001) report a common result is that those with high self- esteem

engage in more sexual activity. This relationship also appears to exist independent of

gender. The authors point out, however, that this finding is merely correlational and is

the direction of this relationship is unclear (whether high self-esteem causes more sex or if more sex causes higher self-esteem). Evolutionary psychology theory has attempted to clarify this relationship. Buss (1999) suggests that women low in self-esteem pursue a short-term mating strategy (and thus are likely to have more partners), whereas women with high self-esteem pursue a longer-term mating strategy. An interesting note here is that evolutionary research has not found this relationship for men; they tend to be more influenced by perceived mate value.

"Sexually-relevant" Individual Differences and Sexual Interactions

While sexual research has drawn from "traditional" personality measures and theory, a variety of individual differences that focus on the "sexual self" have been created and used to add to the area. What follows is a brief orientation towards three new sexuality scales. While this is not meant to be an exhaustive review of the available scales, it is meant to demonstrate the varied ways in which sexuality is conceptualized.

One concept that has received attention is the idea of a global sexuality, one that expresses how people think and feel about their own sexuality. A scale created by Snell and Papini (1989) was designed to test this construct with the three sub-scales of sexual preoccupation, esteem, and depression. During the original testing, the researchers tested 296 undergraduates of both genders. The scale was found to be reliable and valid, and the subscales had unique inter-correlations (i.e., each explained unique variance). In addition, men and women were found to differ on measures of sexual preoccupation. Interestingly, further analyses of the scale found that whereas the subscales were related to non-sexual but related constructs (e.g., sexual depression with clinical depression and

sexual self-esteem with global self-esteem), they were only moderately correlated with them, suggesting that the subscales are measuring something different (Wiederman & Allgeier, 1993).   Later research also discovered that those people high on exchange theories of interaction are more likely to have higher scores on sexual depression and lower scores on sexual esteem, suggesting a place for the Sexuality Scale in the rubric of traditional social psychology (Thurman & Silver, 1997). A general sexuality concept, comprised of both a cognitive and an affective component, has been examined in other ways and with different scales (such as with the Sexual Self-Esteem Scale devised by Gaynor and Underwood, 1995). While further research is necessary on the construct itself as well as its measurement, what is suggested is that sexuality is not a clear- cut concept that all people construe in the same manner.

The idea of a sexual self-schema, which is a cognitive view of the sexual aspects of one's self, has been proposed and tested by Andersen and Cyranowski (1994). Like all personality traits, sexual self-schemas are both determined by and have an influence on life events and experiences. A positive sexual self-schema is comprised of both openness to sexual emotional experiences, as well as to behavioral experiences (Andersen & Cyranowski, 1995). Because of this dual nature, these cognitive structures are thought to be expressed in internal views about one's sexuality and in more external processes, such as sexual behavior and interpersonal perception. Research using measures of sexual self-schemas has revealed a wealth of support for the construct. For example, Cyranowski and Andersen (1994) found the schemas to be significantly related to various aspects of sexual behavior (including frequency of intercourse and number of lifetime partners), as

well as other sexuality measures (e.g., sociosexuality and erotophobia). Later research

examined the new construct with the more established area of attachment theory and

found those people with some degree of negative self-schema (in this framework, either

negative or aschematic women) had poorer romantic attachment (Cyranowski &

Andersen, 1998). (The latter of these is a pattern displayed by women who endorse

neither positive nor negative schemas.) In addition, the study also included measures of

perceived sexual characteristics, such as desire and arousal. Negative schematics also

evidenced lower levels of sexual desire and arousal.

Other researchers have looked at the idea of a sexual concept more generally in

both genders. (Cyranowski and Andersen have limited the focus of their research to

women alone.) One study conducted by Garcia (1999) measured participants certainty of

their sexual self-concepts (schemas) and reported sexual behavior. The results suggested

that those who had higher levels of sexual experience rated themselves very highly on all

of the six self-rating scales (such as sexual experience, sexual attractiveness, and sexual

responsiveness). Although it is unclear the direction of this effect, it is apparent that

sexual self-schemas do have implications for behavior. Further, men and women differed

in their endorsement of various self-aspects. For example, women claimed to be more

romantic and attractive as well as more certain about these claims than did their male

counterparts. Even though men reported being more experienced, deviant, and

responsive, their levels of certainty did not differ from those of the women. In addition,

sexual self-schema scores were related to corresponding measures of erotophobia-

erotophilia and masculinity-femininity. What is most important about this study is its

ability to show that people's appraisal and processing of their sexual selves can impact

their sexual behavior.

It appears that sexuality is an aspect of human life that is very personal but by its

very nature, is also interpersonal in its expression. While sexual behavior may or may

not dramatically differ between people, it seems clear that people do differ in their

individual expression, motivation, and experience of those behaviors. In short, sexuality

is multifaceted.

Gender Differences in Human Sexuality

In addition to the personality differences that are brought into the bedroom, it is

no surprise that gender plays a very important role. While many explanations for this

difference are possible (e.g., hormonal, chromosomal, etc.), Acitelli and Young (1996)

suggest that it is possible that differing patterns of socialization, development of the self,

and cognitive structures (e.g., relationship expectation formation) may be responsible.

One difference lies in the finding that men and women desire different things in sexual

relationships. For example, a study of both undergraduate students and newlywed

couples found that men wished their partners to be more rough, more experimental, and

to take the initiative in the bedroom more often (Hatfield, Sprecher, Pillemer,

Greenberger, & Wexler, 1989). Women were much more in search of validation of their

romantic feelings in the sexual act whereas men appear to be involved simply for the act

itself. An earlier study that examined men and women's desire for foreplay, intercourse,

and afterplay concluded that even using these three general sexual distinctions, men and

women differed (Denney, Field, & Quadagno, 1984). More specifically, men reported

preferring intercourse but women reported more enjoyment and a greater preference for both foreplay and afterplay. While these studies should not be construed as the final word on the subject, they are interesting in terms of providing a better understanding of the sexual interaction and its outcomes.

Common differences in sexual behavior are often reported but what is of more importance here is the gender differences in the experience of sexual behavior. As discussed above, individual differences are important. What is also important is the way those individual differences interact with gender to impact the sexual experience. For example, one study conducted by Walsh (1991) found that those higher in global self-esteem had greater numbers of sexual partners and were more likely to be non-virgins. While this was the case for both genders, the effect was much greater for men. There was no difference between female virgins and non-virgins while but there was a great difference between men on the same dimension. A major focus of the current research is to expand the understanding of the interplay between personality and gender and, subsequently, sexual interactions.

Social Interaction Diary Studies

Diary studies have been very important to the study of social interactions. Generally, social interactions are defined as any situation in which two behave in response to one another. Diaries allow researchers to examine both the quantity and quality of interactions, how certain variables affect interactions (e.g., gender, personality, nature of relationships), and how interactions affect other variables (e.g., loneliness, health) (Reis & Wheeler, 1991). What makes them especially helpful is that the allow

participants to accurately report their interactional patterns without having to rely on recalling such a large number of incidences. Because they record all interactions, participants are not forced to aggregate across experiences or choose from a sample of possible events. For example, if a person is asked to say if his or her social interactions are enjoyable, there are many different ways to answer that question. They may recall only their recent interactions (having a good week) or interactions with their friends (which may be better than with the family) or they may recall a really bad incident and weight that especially high.

A particularly useful study in demonstrating the above points had homosexual men keep sexual diaries of their activities and then were asked to give a one-time report of their behavior during the period the diary was kept (Coxon, 1999). The results suggested that the questionnaire measure consistently yielded higher measures of the most frequent sexual behaviors than did the diary measure. Discprencies were most likely to occur for very common acts (e.g., masturbation); the less common the activity, the more likely it was to be accurately recalled. Certainty was also not found to be a reliable factor leading to accuracy. Further, those participants who were most at risk for AIDS transmission (in this case, the passive partner) were likely to over-estimate their high-risk behavior whereas lower risk participants (the active partner) were likely to under-estimate their high-risk behavior. In short, diary reports are likely to provide a different picture of sexual behavior than questionnaires.

Another advantage of the diary methodology is it allows for a degree of candidness that cannot often be found in experimental setting. This is a key factor in

sexuality studies due to the very personal nature of the subject matter. By using a diary format with only an assigned ID number, participants can be assured confidentiality and anonymity. Further, this helps to decrease the amount of social desirability effect that is often found in such studies. More importantly, this type of data collection allows for a greater likelihood of collecting typical data rather than optimal data.

A final advantage of the diary format is the broad scope of analyses and hypotheses that can be explored with the rich data sets that are created. Not only can the interactions themselves be observed, but their contexts as well. Further, these data sets allow for both within-subject analyses (how interactions of a given person differ) and between-subject analyses (how the interactions differ between individuals). This aspect of diary studies is especially key in examining sexual relationships and how individual variables as well as contextual ones have an effect.

In summary, a sample of college undergraduates used a diary format, standardized form to describe the sexual interactions they had as well as their reactions to them. Since this is the first study of its kind, specific hypotheses are limited. In other words, due to the exploratory nature of this study, the formation of specific hypotheses was restrained in order to more fully examine the data. Generally, various gender differences were predicted to exist on various reaction measures and perceptions, as well as various sexual behaviors. More specifically, males were expected to have lower levels of intimacy and feelings of being pressured and to perceive their partners as wanting to engage in the sexual behavior more. It was predicted, however, that men and women would not differ in their number of interactions over the three-week period. No prediction, however, was

made for how the genders would differ on their opinions of how intimate the interaction became (e.g., the variables of partner intimacy and your intimacy).

Further, various other situational factors were predicted to affect participant's responses to sexual interactions. It was predicted that condom usage would have an effect but no clear expectations were set. The experience of orgasm by either partner during the interaction should be beneficial to the experience (i.e., evaluations will be more positive). What is meant by a positive interaction is higher ratings of enjoyment, intimacy, feelings of being desired, loved, and respected, greater feelings of being in control, and lower ratings of feeling pressured. Both these interaction level variables (condom usage and orgasm experience) were expected to be moderated by gender, the various person-level variables, and, in some cases, an interaction of the two.

Finally, various person-level factors were expected to have an impact on interpretations of sexual interactions. Those people high in sexual esteem, sexual self-esteem (all sub-dimensions), sexual self-schema, and low in risk in intimacy were predicted to have more positive sexual experiences. By contrast, those with high scores on sexual depression would have more negative experiences. No expectations existed regard the measure of sexual preoccupation.

Method

Participants

Originally, one hundred twenty four undergraduates at the College of William & Mary, a predominately white, conservative, mid-size, public liberal arts university in

Virginia, participated in the study. All participants were recruited from introductory

psychology classes and received credit toward partial fulfillment of class requirements.

Sixty-seven of the participants were female. Sixty participants indicated that they were in

on-going dating relationships. A majority of participants identified themselves as white

(86.1%). One hundred fifteen participants were either freshmen or sophomores. All of

the 124 participants completed the study. Fifty participants were dropped from further

analysis due to their failure to have any sexual interactions during the course of the study.

A closer examination of these participants did not reveal any significant differences from

the included group in terms of trait level correlations.

Once this was done, seventy-four participants remained. Males comprised 35 of

the remaining group. Fifty-one participants indicated that they were in an on-going,

dating relationship.

One-time Measures

Five one-time questionnaires were administered to all participants.

Demographic Questionnaire. A questionnaire asking for standard information,

such as age, race, and dating status, was given to all participants. Participants completed

this questionnaire during the orientation session of the study. A complete copy of this

questionnaire can be found in Appendix A.

Risk in Intimacy Inventory (Pilkington & Richardson, 1988). The RII is a 10-

item measure designed to gauge individual differences in people's perceptions of risk in

close relationships. All 10 items were averaged to determine the overall score.

Participants responded to each item using a 6-point Likert-type rating scale (1 = very

strong disagreement, 2 = moderate disagreement, 3 = slight disagreement, 4 = slight

agreement, 5 = moderate agreement, 6 = very strong agreement). Participants completed

this scale during a mass testing session of all introductory psychology students. A copy

of this scale can be found in Appendix B.

Sexual Self-Esteem Scale (Form B) (Gaynor & Underwood, 1995). The Sexual

Self Esteem Scale (Form B) is a 35-item measure of self-esteem in the domain of

sexuality. Each of the 7 subscales (safety, body, general, pleasuring self, fantasy,

receiving, giving) is comprised of 5 averaged items. Safety esteem is the tendency to feel

safe and secure in a sexual interaction, as opposed to fearful or anxious. Body esteem is

a tendency to value one's sexual body (including parts) and appearance. General esteem

is a general tendency to value one's sexual life. Pleasuring esteem is the tendency to

enjoy multi-sensory, external stimuli, such as smell, touch, and sight. Fantasy esteem is

the tendency to enjoy the use of imagination and fantasy to enhance one's sexuality.

Receiving esteem is the tendency to enjoy receiving the sexual attention and stimulation

given by a sexual partner or in a sexual context. Finally, giving esteem is the tendency to

enjoy giving sensual sensations and sexual attention and stimulation to one's intimate

partner.

Participants responded to each item using a 4-point Likert-type rating scale (-2 =

strongly disagree, -1 = disagree, 1 = agree, 2 = strongly agree). Sample questions include

"I feel present and tuned into my body when I am in a sexual situation" (safety esteem),

"I dislike my breasts, genitals, legs, buttocks, or face" (body esteem), "I like to be thrilled

about how things look during sex" (pleasure esteem), "I think about sex all the time; it's

too much" (fantasy esteem), "I love to have my body stroked and cuddled by a partner" (receiving esteem), "One of my delights in sex is the pleasure I give my partner" (giving esteem), and "The sooner sex is over, the better it is for me" (general esteem). Responses were then recoded for ease of interpretation and analysis (0 = strongly disagree, 1 = disagree, 2 = agree, 3 = strongly agree). A copy of this scale can be found in Appendix C.

Sexuality Scale (Snell & Papini, 1989). The Sexuality Scale is a 15-item inventory designed to measure individual differences in (a) sexual esteem (a positive regard for and confidence in the capacity to experience one's sexuality in a satisfying and enjoyable way), (b) sexual depression (the experience of feelings of depression regarding one's sex life), and (c) sexual preoccupation (the tendency to think about sex to an excessive degree). The three subscales are comprised of 5 items each. Participants responded to each item using a 5-point Likert-type rating scale (-2 = disagree, 0 = neither agree nor disagree, +2 = agree). Items were recoded for ease of interpretation and analysis (0 = disagree, 2 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree). Sample questions include "I think of myself as a very good sexual partner" (esteem), "I am down about my sex life" (depression), and "I am constantly thinking about having sex" (preoccupation). A copy of this scale can be found in Appendix D.

Sexual Self-Schema Scale (Cyranowski & Andersen, 1998). The Sexual Self-Schema measure is 26-item (24 filler-items) measure that evaluates both positive and negative self-schemas (cognitive generalizations about sexual aspects of the self). The positive dimension consists of 18 items (e.g., uninhibited, loving, feeling) and the

negative dimension consists of 7 items (e.g., cautious, timid, self-conscious). Participants

endorsed each item on a 0 to 6 Likert-type scale (0 = not at all descriptive, 6 = very much

descriptive of me). The scale was originally designed for women only but it was felt that

the items were not significantly gender-specific and was used in this study for both men

and women. A copy of this scale can be found in Appendix E.

Interaction Measure

Rochester Interaction Record (Wheeler & Nezlek, 1977). An adapted version of

the RIR was used to record all of the participants' sexual interactions. Although this

scale has traditionally been used to collect data on daily social interactions, it was felt that

this type of standardized format could be adopted for sexual interactions as well. More

specifically, the fixed-format diary allowed participants to record various aspects of their

interactions, including specific behaviors that occurred, partner's characteristics, as well

as emotional responses to the interaction itself, just as if it were a typical social

interaction. Participants were instructed to record every sexual interaction, defined as

"any interaction in which a person is physically intimate with another person." Sexual

interactions could range from simply kissing to sexual intercourse. Further, participants

were instructed to fill out the form as soon as possible after the event occurred but we

told not to let the recording interfere with the interaction itself. For each interaction,

participants rated the interaction on several dimensions, such as intimacy, desirability,

and the degree to which they felt pressured, using a 9-point Likert type rating scale, with

1 meaning "not at all" and 9 meaning "very much." They also provided information

regarding what occurred after the interaction and indications of their expectations of future interactions with this partner. A copy of this scale can be found in Appendix F.

Procedure

Participants were recruited using a question used in a mass testing session, which asked, "Would you be willing to participate in a study in which you report your sexual interactions for three weeks online?" Participants who indicated that they would be interested were contacted via email and given further information about the study. It was also during this mass testing session that "potential" participants completed the Risk in Intimacy Scale (RII). Those who expressed continued interest were then given various time slots from which to choose to come in for an orientation session.

Orientation groups were comprised of 5 to 15 students, all of the same gender. The researcher conducted the all-female groups, while a male graduate student was recruited and trained to conduct the all male groups. Orientation sessions lasted approximately 45 minutes.

Once seated, participants were handed folders with (a) an identification number assignment form (see Appendix G), (b) consent form (see Appendix H), (c) Rochester Interaction Record (RIR) instructions (see Appendix I), (d) Internet instructions (see Appendix J), (e) three questionnaires (Sexual Self-Esteem Scale, Sexual Self-Schema Scale, and Sexuality Scale), and (g) a sample RIR. Participants were first told to fill out the identification number assignment form with their name and email address. Each form had an identification number and participants were instructed to use only this number for the remainder of the study on all questionnaires and interaction forms. The experimenter

explained the procedure for completing the interaction form, defined all the items on the form (e.g., sexual interaction, intimacy, pressured), and reviewed a sample completed RIR with the participants. They were assured of complete confidentiality and encouraged to be candid and honest on all aspects of the study. The participants were then instructed how to log onto the secure website and what to do in different instances (e.g., a late night interaction, a missed day, recording long interactions). They were further told that all data collection was time and date stamped and their commitment to filling out the forms in a timely fashion was of utmost importance to the study. Participants were instructed to fill out the form within 12 hours of the sexual interaction so that they would be as accurate as possible in their recording.

At this point, the experimenter answered any questions the participants had. To clear up further confusion, the experimenter instructed the participants to refer to the RIR instructions and the Internet instructions they were given throughout the remainder of the study and provided them with the researcher's contact information. Finally, the participants were told they would be contacted concerning a debriefing session and were asked to complete the three questionnaires and the consent form, after which they were free to go.

For three weeks, participants completed the RIR after every sexual interaction. Participants were also contacted via email at several points during the three weeks with reminders to be conscientious in their recording and of the debriefing session at the end of the study.

Debriefing sessions consisted of mixed gender groups of 10 to 30 participants. The experimenter conducted all debriefing sessions. The experimenter explained the study's hypotheses and asked participants for any further questions. She signed the participants' credit slips, thanked them, and then dismissed them.

Results

Organization of the Results Section

Three different sections are presented below. While the third section contains most of the analyses relevant to the hypotheses, the first two sections are necessary to fully understand the data. An alpha level of .05 was used for all statistical tests in all three sections.

The first section, entitled "Interaction Descriptive Analyses", is a review of frequency and descriptive data gathered from the interaction records, such as types of events reported, nature of these interactions, and type of partners involved. The "Univariate Analyses" section includes standard correlation tables for examining individual difference relationships (such as the relationship between being in a dating relationship and levels of sexual depression). Each gender was also examined separately in this way. The final section, entitled "Multilevel Analyses" is the main focus of the results section. Multilevel random coefficient modeling (MRCM) was used to further explore between-person differences while also describing the within-person differences.

Interaction Descriptive Analyses

Data from the participants were analyzed to examine the general trends within the sexual interactions reported. Over the course of the three-week diary period, 74

participants described a combined 368 sexual interactions (the remaining 50 participants did not report any sexual activity during the study). Interactions ranged in length from less than 5 minutes to over 6 hours (415 minutes), with an average length of 77 minutes (SD = 73.87). Of these interactions, most involved kissing and petting only (21.5%) while a close second (21.2%) involved oral sex (either giving or receiving) and vaginal intercourse. Vaginal intercourse alone accounted for 14.1% of the interactions. A complete listing of all behaviors and corresponding percentages can be found in Table 1.

Further examination of the interactions revealed that participants reported that "some other planned event" preceded a majority of the interactions (168), as opposed to a date (42) or a party (32). Interestingly, 23% (or 88 interactions) were preceded by an unplanned meeting/encounter. In accordance with this, 156 interactions (42.4%) were described as "not expected" while only 70 interactions (19%) were described as "definitely" expected.

When examining the partners described by the participants, over three-quarters of the interactions (282) were with a person described as a boyfriend or girlfriend. Other people described as being involved were casual dating partners (10.9%), friends (6.5%), acquaintances (3.3%), and strangers (1.9%). A majority of interactions included partners who were described as either a student at the school under examination (65.8%) or at another school (29.9%). Participants also indicated that a majority of interactions (274) were with a partner with whom they had been intimate on 10 or more occasions. Only thirty-one interactions were with a completely new partner. Finally, participants

described two hundred and ninety four interactions as being with partners for which they

had "strong romantic feelings"

Univariate Analyses

Three separate correlation matrices were created to examine the trait level

relationships for the following groups: (a) all participants who had a sexual interaction

during the study period ($\underline{N}$ = 74), (b) female participants who had a sexual interaction ($\underline{n}$

= 39), and (c) male participants who had a sexual interaction ($\underline{n}$ = 35). Because it is

beyond the scope of this study to provide exhaustive, conclusive analyses of the

reliability and validity of the 13 personality measures, the correlations provided here are

presented simply to describe and point out general trends found in this sample. For this

reason, the significant correlations will only be briefly discussed.

The first of these matrices can be found in Table 2 and examines the correlations

for all participants (N = 74). The number of sexual interactions was found to be

positively correlated (all with p $\leq$ .05) with four trait level variables: sexual esteem ($\underline{r}$ =

.26) from Snell and Papini's Sexuality Scale (1989) and body esteem ($\underline{r}$ = .25), fantasy

esteem ($\underline{r}$ = .32), and giving esteem ($\underline{r}$ = .25) from Gaynor and Underwood's Sexual Self-

Esteem Scale (1995). In other words, higher amounts of sexual interactions were related

to increased levels of sexual esteem, in terms of body acceptance, fantasy acceptance,

willingness to give, and sexual esteem overall. (It should be noted that the number of

interactions was not controlled for the number of days the diary was kept (due to an

oversight) and for this reason, conclusions should be drawn with caution.).

Dating status was also significantly correlated with five trait-level measures, two

from the Sexuality Scale and three from the Sexual Self-Esteem Scale (all with $p \leq$ .05).

(It should be noted that dating was coded with a 1 signifying being in a dating

relationship and 2 signifying not being in dating relationship.) Sexual depression was

positively correlated with dating status ($\underline{r}$ = .33). Sexual esteem was negatively related ($\underline{r}$

= -.33) to dating status, as were body esteem ($\underline{r}$ = -.32), giving esteem ($\underline{r}$ = -.41), and

general esteem ($\underline{r}$ = -.27). These findings suggest a positive impact of dating status; those

in dating relationships had higher levels of various types of sexual esteem and sexual

self-esteem. Length of time in the dating relationship, however, was correlated to only

one of the 13 trait-level measures (safety esteem).

Examination of the Sexuality Scale found the three measures to be related but

distinct. Sexual esteem was negatively related to sexual depression ($\underline{r}$ = -.33) and

positively related to sexual preoccupation ($\underline{r}$ = .27). Sexual esteem was significantly

correlated to four of the seven sub-scales of the sexual self-esteem scale (safety, pleasure,

giving, and general), suggesting a relationship between the two independent constructs.

The analysis of the Sexual Self-Esteem ranged from no correlations (only fantasy

esteem) to four correlations (with three sub-scales having this number (safety, giving, and

general)). The Sexual Self-Schema measure's two sub-scales were negatively correlated

with one another; positive self-schema with negative self-schema ($\underline{r}$ = -.47). Further,

positive self-schema was positively related to two of the Sexuality scale sub-scales

(sexual esteem, $\underline{r}$ = .48, and sexual preoccupation, $\underline{r}$ = .25), while negative self-schema

was negatively related only to sexual esteem ($\underline{r}$ = -.39). In addition, positive self-schema

had positive, significant correlations with five of the Sexual Self-Esteem sub-scales (safety, body, pleasure, giving, and general). The opposite appeared to be true for negative self-schema, which had negative, significant correlations with four of the sub-scales (safety, body, giving, and general).

Measures of risk-in-intimacy (RII) were also related to the three sexuality measures. The Sexuality sub-scales of esteem and depression were both significantly correlated (r = -.31 and r = .30, respectively), suggesting that those high in RII were more likely to report low sexual esteem and high sexual depression. Further, it was also correlated with body esteem (r = -.39), giving esteem (r = -.32), and general esteem (r = -.33) from the Sexual Self-Esteem Scale. These results indicate that individuals higher in risk in intimacy tend to have lower sexual self-esteem in several areas of sexuality. Finally, RII was significantly related negatively to positive self-schema (r = -.47) and positively to negative self-schema (r = .29).

Examination of the correlation matrix for women only (N = 39) can be found in Table 3. Although similar to the findings for the entire sample, several differences were noticed. (For the purposes of this discussion, correlations will not be analyzed for statistical difference; only general differences will be discussed. It should also be noted that no significant differences between the groups were in terms of direction (i.e., positive versus negative correlations). Number of sexual interactions differed from the overall pattern on 4 scales (two additional correlations and two non-significant correlations). Dating status and length of dating correlations also differed slightly between the two populations.

Examination of the Sexuality Scale measures revealed fewer significant correlations within the all-female group. Sexual esteem remained positively correlated only with giving esteem, general esteem, and positive sexual self-schema (r = .39, .43, and .61, respectively). Analyses also revealed that sexual depression for women was only correlated with risk in intimacy (r = .44) and no longer with any of the other scales, as was noted in the review of the entire sample. Sexual preoccupation was no longer significantly related to sexual esteem but it continued to be positively correlated to positive sexual schema (r = .37). Patterns among the sub-scales of the Sexual Self-Esteem scale revealed a few added significant relationships. Finally, the Sexual Self-Schema scale sub-scale correlations for women were similar to but not identical to the patterns seen in the overall population.

The males-only correlations, like that of the all-female group, resembled yet were distinct in several ways from the sample overall (See Table 4). For men, number of interactions failed to be significantly related to sexual esteem or giving esteem, yet was significant with safety esteem (r = .40). In addition, dating status for men is not related to sexual depression or general esteem, as it was in the all-participants analyses, nor is length of dating relationship significantly related to any other variable. Sexual esteem almost mirrored the correlational pattern of the total sample (only the number of interactions correlation seen previously failed to be significant) while sexual depression was significantly related to negative sexual schema (r = .41) in addition to sexual esteem, safety esteem, and sexual depression (r = -.41, -.56, and -.38, respectively). The only

difference with sexual preoccupation was its lack of a significant relationship with negative sexual schema ($r < .01$).

Similar to sexual esteem, body esteem was identical to the overall correlational pattern except for a failure to be significantly related to sexual depression. Whereas pleasure esteem failed to be significantly related to positive sexual schema, it was correlated to negative sexual schema ($r = -.41$), a relationship that appears to be unique to the men. Both giving and general esteem correlations had fewer similar correlations (6 of 10 and 7 of 10 correlations, respectively). Although positive self-schema did not differ in terms of additional correlations, it did fail to have a significant relationship with sexual preoccupation, pleasure esteem, and giving esteem. Negative self-schema, however, had an additional significant relationship not seen in the general population with giving esteem ($r = -.37$). Finally, risk in intimacy correlates for men were similar except for the relationship with sexual depression, which was no longer significant.

Multilevel Analyses

The data set in the current study is commonly referred to as a multilevel data structure in that events at one level of analysis (in this case, sexual interactions) were nested in another level of analysis (people). In accordance with this, the data were also analyzed with a series of multilevel random coefficient models (MRCM) using the program HLM (Bryk, Raudenbush, & Congdon, 2000; Version 5.00 (Student Edition)). Whereas ordinary-least-squares methods were used above to examine several trait-level relationships and between-person differences, MRCM were conducted in order to measure certain within-person relationships (since MRCM provides better parameter

estimates than traditional OLS methods (Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992). This particular type of analytic strategy for analyzing social interaction data sets is discussed in Nezlek (2001).

Models and analyses are described using nomenclature that is commonly used in the multilevel modeling literature. Analyses were conducted at both level 1 and level 2. Measures for sexual interactions were nested within people and for each person, coefficients were estimated representing the relationship between several evaluative dimensions or outcome variables (e.g., ratings of enjoyment, respect, intimacy) and the level 1 variables of orgasm occurrence and condom usage. (See Table 5 for a full description of each outcome variable.) For example, these types of models will answer questions such as; does condom usage have an impact on feelings of control in a sexual interaction? (See Table 6 for summary statistics for all level-1 variables.) In addition, analyses were conducted to determine if these interaction level coefficients varied as a function of trait-level, individual differences. For example, does the interaction level relationship between condom usage and control vary as a function of an individual's degree of risk in intimacy? (See Table 7 for a review of summary statistics for the 13 trait-level measures.)

Further examination of the variance components of the outcome variables did suggest that there were meaning full level-2 differences. While measures of enjoyment, control, pressured, and desired all had roughly equal variance components between the levels, respect, intimacy, and loved all had higher level-2 variance components. For example, examination of the intimacy variance components reveals a greater degree of

variance at level-2 (2.97) than at level-1 (1.45). This indicates that people's measures of intimacy are likely due more to person level variables (e.g., Risk in Intimacy, gender, sexual esteem) than to situational factors. This is not to say, however, that no situation variables matter but rather, to point out that level-2 variables are likely to account for more of the outcome variable's variance.

Condom Usage. The first set of MRCM analyses examined the impact of condom usage on the ten outcome variables. The impact of condom usage was examined using the following interaction-level model:

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j} \text{ (Condom)} + r_{ij}$$

In this model, β_{0j} is a random coefficient representing the intercept of Y (in this case, control) for person j (across the i interactions for which each person provided data), β_{1j} (condom) is a random coefficient (referred to as a slope to distinguish it from an intercept) representing the interaction level relationship between condom usage and control for person j, and r_{ij} represents error. In these analyses, Condom is a contrast coded variable, with 1 signifying a condom was used and -1 signifying that a condom was not used and was added to the model uncentered. To examine if the condom-control relationship was significantly different from 0 across the individuals in the study, the following person level model was examined:

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \mu_{0j}$$
$$\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + \mu_{1j}$$

This type of model is known as a "slopes as outcomes" model because coefficients (slopes) from the interaction level are analyzed at the person level. In this model, the significance of γ_{10} indicates if, on average, the relationship between control and condom usage was not zero. In other words, the level 1 slopes represent the within person relationships between condom usage and control. In this analysis, however, the γ_{10} coefficient was not significant (p >.05), suggesting that feelings of being in control do not increase or decrease depending on whether or not a condom was used. Further, non-significant relationships were found between condom usage and respect, pressure, and the degree to which people felt their partners wanted to engage in the interaction.

Interestingly, condom usage did have a significant relationship with 4 of the other outcome variables. These findings are summarized in Table 8. In these analyses, the γ_{10} coefficients were significant (p< .05). Across all participants, participants reported feeling less loved when a condom was used ($\gamma_{10} = -.27$). Further, participants did not feel as desired as when a condom was used ($\gamma_{10} = -.24$). In addition, participants not only indicated that they wanted greater intimacy when a condom ($\gamma_{10} = -.17$) was used but they also perceived their partners as wanting greater intimacy ($\gamma_{10} = -.37$). (A fifth and sixth outcome variable, intimacy and enjoyment, approached conventional levels of significance with $\gamma_{10} = -.20$, p = .06 and $\gamma_{10} = -.20$, p = .06, respectively).

A second set of analyses was done to determine if the effect of condom usage was moderated by two other variables: Risk in Intimacy and Gender. (Each was added uncentered to the models since the former was a standardized variable and the later was a contrast coded variable (1 = female, -1 = male.) To examine the first variable in question

(RII), the following person level model was examined to determine if the γ_{11} coefficient was different from 0:

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} \text{ (Risk In Intimacy)} + \mu_{0j}$$

$$\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11} \text{ (Risk In Intimacy)} + \mu_{1j}$$

If the coefficient is significant, this suggests that the relationship between condom usage and the outcome variable is affected (or moderated) by the third variable. In examining the outcome variables, enjoyment, feeling desired, and perceptions concerning how intimate the participants thought their partner wanted to be all showed significant main effects for both condom usage (as noted above) and risk in intimacy (meaning that RII has an independent effect on the three dependent variables, but no interaction or moderating effect exists. (See Table 9.) In addition, feelings of being loved are only influenced by condom usage.

A moderating effect between RII and condom use was seen for feelings of respect ($\gamma_{11} = -.26$, $p < .05$). (A moderating effect of RII on condom usage and feelings of wanting to be more be or less intimate approached conventional levels of significance (p = .095), while both condom usage and RII alone were significant.) To determine the nature of the moderating effect (i.e., if the effect causes a difference in direction of the effect between the groups or causes a difference in the magnitude of the effect), it is necessary to compose an equation comprised of the relevant coefficients and plug in the relevant values. In other words, the equation used for examining the above interaction would add the intercept coefficient to each coefficient multiplied by its relevant code. For example, to examine the average score for a high risk in intimacy person who had an

interaction in which a condom was not used, the intercept coefficient ($\gamma_{00} = 7.68$) would be added to the product of the RII coefficient (γ_{01}) and its code representing someone one standard deviation above the mean (-.38 * 1), the product of the condom coefficient (γ_{10}) and its code representing the fact that no condom was used (-.14 * -1), and the product of the interaction coefficient (γ_{11}) and the interaction code representing the above codes (-.26 * (1 * -1)). To put it plainly, the high RII individuals who did not use a condom felt the most respected (with an average score of 7.7 arrived at by summing the above) whereas those participants who were low in risk in intimacy reported the highest feeling of respect when a condom was used (8.18).

Analyses of the condom usage-gender relationship were conducted with the same model as above. (See Table 10.) A significant main effect was found for condom usage with four of the outcome variables (desired, love, you intimacy, and partner intimacy), signifying that interactions were affected (in this case, negatively) by condom usage. There was, however, no gender main effect (i.e., gender was not related to the outcome variables alone) nor was there a significant interaction between the two variables. There was, however, a significant interaction between gender and condom usage when looking at respect. While women felt the most respect when no condom was used ($\underline{M} = 8.16$), the men reported feeling most respected when their sexual interactions involved using a condom (M = 7.73).

The Experience of Orgasm. The effect of orgasm on the ten outcome variables was examined in another series of slopes as outcomes models. For these analyses, the interaction-level model was as follows:

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + \beta_{1j}(\text{Participant Orgasm}) + \beta_{2j}(\text{Partner Orgasm}) + \beta_{3j}(\text{Participant x Partner Orgasm}) + r_{ij}$$

The orgasm variables for each person (the participant and the partner) were contrast coded with 1 indicating a yes (an orgasm occurred) and a -1 indicating a no (no orgasm occurred). To determine if the presence of an orgasm in a sexual interaction has an impact on control, the person-level model was as follows:

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \mu_{0j}$$

$$\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + \mu_{1j}$$

$$\beta_{2j} = \gamma_{20} + \mu_{0j}$$

$$\beta_{3j} = \gamma_{30} + \mu_{1j}$$

Examination of the $\gamma_{10}, \gamma_{20},$ and γ_{30} coefficients and their significance (i.e., if they are significantly different from 0) indicates if there is a relationship between the experience of orgasm and outcome variable. Of the 10 analyses conducted, only 4 indicated that orgasm had an impact on evaluation of a sexual interaction. (For fifth dependent variable, loved, the experience of an orgasm for the participant approached conventional levels of significance with $\gamma_{10} = .24$, $p = .06$) (See Table 11.) In all four models, only the experience of an orgasm for the partner was significantly related to the outcome variable. When partner experienced an orgasm, participants reported feeling more in control ($\gamma_{20} = .45$), more desired ($\gamma_{20} = .18$), and more respected ($\gamma_{20} = .29$). In addition, a partner's

orgasm leads the participant to believe that the partner wanted to be involved in the interaction to a greater extent ($\gamma_{20} = .10$).

The potential influence of gender was also examined in regards to the experience of orgasm to determine if men and women react differently. The contrast-coded gender variable was added uncentered to all four of the person-level equations (e.g., $\beta_{1j} = \gamma_{10} + \gamma_{11}$ (Sex) $+ \mu_{1j}$). The coefficients for $\gamma_{11}, \gamma_{21},$ and γ_{31} were examined to determine if they were significant from 0. (See Table 12.) For respect and the perception of the partner's desire for the interaction, only partner's orgasm was significant (.26 and .11, respectively) and there was no gender interaction. For the measure of how intimate the participant wanted the interaction to be, only the participant's orgasm was significant (.15). For the measure of the participant's perception of the partner's intimacy, gender did moderate the effect of orgasm (.22). More specifically, for women, they perceived their partner as wanting more intimacy when their partner did not have an orgasm. By contrast, men perceived their partner as wanting the most when their partner did have an orgasm.

For four of the remaining variables, a significant interaction between sex and the occurrence of an orgasm for both participants was found (control, intimacy, enjoyment and love). (See Table 13 for full examination of these moderating effects.) Control, for example, produced the largest discrepancy when the participant had an orgasm and the partner did not. During this scenario, women felt the least in control ($\underline{M} = 6.48$) but men felt about only a little below average in control ($\underline{M} = 7.37$). In terms of intimacy, women and men differ the most when both participants have an orgasm: women have an average

score of 7.96 whereas men only have an average score of 7.23. Enjoyment measures

were highest for men when both people had an orgasm whereas women had the most

enjoyment when only they had an orgasm. Finally, in terms of feeling loved, women felt

the most loved when only they had an orgasm (M = 7.36) but men felt most loved when

both participants had an orgasm. It should be noted, however, that both men and women

felt the least loved when neither partner experienced an orgasm.

The trait measure of risk in intimacy was also examined in relation to orgasm

experience (again, it was added uncentered to the person level model). For the variables

control and partner wanted, only the experience of an orgasm for the partner was

significant. (See Table 14.) For enjoyment, desire, and loved, there were significant γ_{20}

coefficients (.13, .16, and .19, respectively), meaning that the experience of one's partner

having an orgasm is different for people who differ in terms of their feelings of risk in

intimacy. (The relationships for intimacy approached conventional levels of significance

($\gamma_{20} = .17$, p = .08). (See Table 15 for a complete examination of the moderating effects.)

For example, in terms of enjoyment, the difference between high and low RII individuals

when their partner does not have an orgasm is, on average, 1.11 standard units different

whereas when their partners do have an orgasm, the average difference is only .23

standard units.

Individual Differences. To determine which, if any, of the individual differences

impacted the outcome variables differentially, analyses were run in which the interaction

level model was unconditional (no variables were added) and the traits were added to the

person level model. For example, to test the impact of RII on intimacy, the level one

model had no variables added, like this:

$$Y_{ij} = \beta_{0j} + r_{ij}$$

In order to test for differences in the outcome variable due to the trait measure (RII),

gender, and any interaction between the two, the person-level model was as follows:

$$\beta_{0j} = \gamma_{00} + \gamma_{01} \text{ (Gender)} + \gamma_{02} \text{ (RII)} + \gamma_{03} \text{ (RII x Gender)} + \mu_{0j}$$

with all three variables being added uncentered. Significance of the coefficient γ_{01} would

suggest a gender difference, significance of the γ_{02} coefficient would suggest a difference

based on the trait, and significance of the γ_{03} coefficient would suggest an interaction

between gender and the trait in outcome variable. In this case, only the γ_{03} coefficient

was significant (-.506). Further investigation revealed that low RII males reported the

least intimacy whereas low RII females reported the most intimacy in their sexual

interactions. (See Table 16.) Analyses of RII with all of the outcome variables revealed

that only 3 of the variables (control, pressured, and partner wanted) had no significant

coefficients.

Enjoyment analyses revealed that both the coefficients for RII and the interaction

were significant (-.23 and -.29, respectively). More specifically, high RII males reported

the most enjoyment on average ($\underline{M} = 7.91$) when compared to other males, although low

RII females reported the most enjoyment on average ($\underline{M} = 8.34$) when compared to their

high RII female counterparts.   In addition, higher feelings of love, by contrast, are

reported most by low RII females ($\underline{M}$ = 8.58) and high RII males ($\underline{M}$ = 7.52). Further,

there is a greater difference between hi and low RII females ($\underline{M}$s = 7.08 and 8.39, d = 1.3)

on reports of feeling desired then between hi and low RII males ($\underline{M}$s = 7.51 and 7.61, d =

.10). Feelings of respect also followed a similar pattern: the difference between high and

low RII females on feelings of respect was 1.48 standard units ($\underline{M}$s = 7.09 and 8.57,

respectively) but was only .08 for high and low RII males (in order, $\underline{M}$s = 7.69 and 7.61).

Risk in intimacy also affected perceptions of the participant and the partner's

desired intimacy level, independent of gender. High RII participants reported wanting to

be less intimate with their partners. In addition, these participants also perceived their

partners as wanting to be less intimate.

When examining the sexual esteem measure models, the outcome measures of

control, intimacy, loved, you intimacy, and partner intimacy did not have significant

coefficients, meaning that sexual esteem does not appear to be related to these variables.

Four of the variables (enjoyment, desired, respected, and partner wanted) did have

positive significant γ_{02} coefficients (.25, .41, .42, and .41, respectively) suggesting that

higher levels of sexual esteem are related to higher levels of these particular outcome

variables. (See Table 17.) The fifth variable, pressured, had a negative coefficient (-.34),

meaning that those with higher sexual esteem felt less pressured. There were no

significant coefficients for control, intimacy, pressured, partner wanted, you intimacy,

and partner intimacy. For enjoyment, desired, loved, and respected, there were

significant γ_{02} coefficients (-.53, -.53, -.71, and -.49, respectively), implying that higher

levels of sexual depression have negative outcomes in terms of evaluations of sexual

interactions. Sexual preoccupation did not have significant coefficients in any of the models.

Models that included safety esteem found significant γ_{02} coefficients for control (.46), desired (.36), loved (.86), respected (.52), and partner wanted (.33). (See Table 18.) What these findings indicate is that for those individuals who have high safety esteem, they, on average, higher evaluations of these variables. More specifically, for every 1-unit increase in safety control, there is a .46 unit increase in control, a .36 increase in feeling desired, a .52 increase in feeling respected, and a .33 increase in perceiving your partner as wanting to engage in the interaction. When body esteem was added to a model to determine its effect, the γ_{02} coefficients were significant and positive for control (.37), intimacy (.45), enjoyment (.24), desired (.41), loved (.84), respect (.58), and partner wanted (.22). Further, the γ_{02} coefficient for feelings of being pressured was both negative and significant (-.25), signifying that those who have higher safety esteem feel less pressured. Only one model that examined the impact of pleasure esteem yielded a significant result: those with higher pleasure esteem reported perceiving their partners as wanting to engage in the sexual interaction more (γ_{02} = .28). Fantasy esteem did not have any significant coefficients in any of the models, suggesting that having higher fantasy esteem, gender, and any interaction of the two do not have any implications for any of the 10 outcome variables.

Receiving esteem did appear to have an influence on 7 of the 10 outcome variables. More specifically, there was a receiving esteem main effect (i.e., significant γ_{02} coefficient) for control (.45), intimacy (.42), enjoyment (.21), desired (.40), loved

(.45), pressured (-.43) and partner wanted (.30). Partner intimacy, however, demonstrated a different pattern of results. While neither the γ_{01} nor the γ_{02} coefficients were significant, the γ_{03} coefficient was significant (-.29), indicating a receiving esteem and gender interaction. For females, on average, they perceived their partner as wanting to be the more intimate if they were high in receiving esteem. By contrast, men perceived their partners as wanting to be more intimate if they were lower in receiving esteem.

Addition of giving esteem to the model resulted in significant main effects for the dependent variables intimacy (.48), desired (.46), loved (.90), respected (.63), partner wanted (.50), and your intimacy (-.32). This suggests that those who score higher in giving esteem evaluate their interactions as more intimate and enjoyable, felt more desired and respected, and perceived their partners as wanting the interaction more and wanting more intimacy. Further, for the outcome variable of pressure, both the γ_{01} coefficient (-.30) and the γ_{02} coefficient (-.55) were significant, suggesting that both gender and giving esteem exerted an influence independently. This indicates that males report feeling more pressured than women and those who are higher in giving esteem feel more pressured than those who do not score high on this measure. General esteem, when added to the model, was only significant for enjoyment (.46) and partner wanted (.44). For those that are higher in general esteem, they report having interactions that are more enjoyable and with partners that they perceive as more interested in the interaction.

Examination of the Sexual Self-Schema sub-scales revealed relationships with 5 different outcome variables. (See Table 19.) Positive self-schema had significant γ_{02}

coefficients in models with the outcome variables of enjoyment (.21), desired (.34), and respected (.35). This suggests that those who have more positive cognitive structures concerning sexuality have more enjoyable sexual interactions and feel more desired and respected during them. Negative self-schema, by contrast, when modeled produced significant γ_{03} coefficients with two different outcome variables, meaning that a significant interaction existed. For pressure, high negative self-schemas females felt the least pressured while high negative self-schema males felt the most pressured ($\gamma_{03} = -.27$). For partner wanted, high negative self-schema females perceived their partners as most wanting to be involved in the sexual interaction while high negative self-schema males perceived their partners was the least wanting to be involved ($\gamma_{03} = .27$).

Discussion

Gender Differences. Mixed support was found for the hypotheses concerning gender differences. As predicted, gender did not appear to be predictive of number of interactions, suggesting men and women are having similar number of sexual interactions. The hypotheses that men would have lower feelings of pressure and intimacy in sexual interactions and would have higher perceptions of their partners wanting to engage in the action were not supported. The other outcome variables also did not reveal significant gender differences, which supports the hypotheses.

Gender did, however, moderate several of the interaction-level variable-outcome variable relationships. For example, gender did moderate the condom usage-respect relationship, with women feeling most respected when a condom was not used. Gender also had an effect on the experience of an orgasm for both participants. Women and men

differed in the evaluations of these experiences in terms of control, intimacy, enjoyment, and feelings of being loved. More specifically, men generally appeared to feel more enjoyment and more loved when both people had orgasm. This may be due to the fact that men feel more responsible for providing their partners with orgasm as compared to women, and thus, have more positive interactions as a result of that occurring. By contrast, women reported more positive interactions when only they had an orgasm. Perhaps this is due to the fact that female orgasm is a less assured event than the male orgasm, and for this reason, makes the female feel more special. Further, when only she has an orgasm and the male "foregoes" having one, she may feel this is especially indicative of his feelings toward her in that he is willing to sacrifice his pleasure to focus solely on her. When they both experience an orgasm, it is possible that the female does not feel the above sense of selflessness from her partner.

Men and women also differed when examining several of the trait-measure and dependent variable relationships. Gender differences moderated the risk in intimacy relationship for four of the outcome variables. More specifically, low RII females and high RII males reported feeling the most loved, the most desired, and the most respected in addition to reporting the greatest enjoyment relative to their same sex counterparts. When comparing these findings to those found in traditional interaction studies, the results are comparable. Whereas earlier research held that high RII individuals had less rewarding social interactions with romantic partners, this was true only for the high RII women; their sexual interactions were not as positively evaluated. Males, however, did

not evidence this pattern. Those males who were low RII reported having less fulfilling interactions.

Although prior research suggests that RII may be less salient for women, these results imply that this may not be the case. It is possible that this is due to gender differences in sexual motives. As suggested earlier, it appears that women often use sex as a validation of their romantic feelings as opposed to men who appear to engage in it for more pleasure-oriented reasons (Hatfield et al., 1989). If this is the case, then this does shed some light on the above findings. It is possible that high RII women are looking at sexual interactions as a possibly risky situation because this is a situation in which feelings of trust, love, and respect are demonstrated and possibly not reciprocated. In other words, these women are especially prone to their RII schemas during sexual interactions.

Men, by contrast, are not looking at interactions in this manner; this is simply a pleasure exchange. Thus, high RII men are able to interact with their partner without focusing on their fears of being hurt or abandoned. It seems that sexual interactions are safer interactions for high RII men when compared to traditional social interactions with romantic partners, which are more likely to involve relationship-focused talking and decision-making. It is possible that sex is an escape. In conclusion, it appears that men and women do have different reactions to sexual interactions based on their scores on this dimension and this may be due to differing expectations and motives for the sexual interaction.

In addition, gender also moderated three other person-level variable – outcome variable relationships. Surprisingly, women with more negative views concerning sexuality espoused more positive evaluations of their interactions in terms of feeling less pressured and perceiving their partners as wanting to be in the interaction more. By comparison, men who also measured high in negative self-schema had corresponding negative interactions, reporting feeling more pressured and not believing that their partners wanted to be as involved in the interaction. Further, men with low receiving esteem thought their partners wanted more intimacy. These results suggest that sexuality and the feelings and cognitions that accompany it may not be the same for men and women. More specifically, men and women reported different reactions to sexual interactions. These differences may be due to differences in socialization between men and women, the effect of previous sexual experiences and histories, or perhaps, a more underlying difference in what is expected during the interaction. As earlier research suggested, men report more enjoyment from certain interactions whereas women report enjoyed other types of interactions more (Denney et al., 1984). It is possible that gender differences exist not only in the sexual preferences, but also in the reactions to these interactions.

Situational Variables. Because no clear hypotheses were stated for the effect of condom usage on evaluations of the sexual interaction, the findings reported here are simply exploratory. Condom usage did not have any effect on evaluations feeling in control, being respected, or being pressured. Further, use of a condom during an interaction did not lead people to interpret their partner's interest in the interaction any differently. It

did, however, have an effect in that it led people to feel less loved, less desired, and in want of more intimacy. To the extent that enjoyment and intimacy were close to being significant, it also appears that interactions that entail a condom cause the experience of these two dimensions to suffer. In addition, it appears as if condom usage has an effect on interpersonal perception; people perceived their partners as wanting greater intimacy than when a condom was not used.

These findings may have implications for safe-sex campaigns that promote the idea of condom usage to prevent pregnancy and AIDS transmission. If, in fact, interactions are less pleasurable and lead participants feels less connected to their partners if a condom is used, it is possible that attempts to convince individuals of the necessity in sexual interactions may meet resistance. In addition, the fact that interactions in which a condom is used cause the participants to perceive their partners as not as "satisfied" with the interaction, it may make those who want to use a condom less likely to do so if they fear displeasing their partner. These findings also support previous research, which has found that people who are feel more positive toward their partner and relationship (e.g., feeling more trust, more loved) are less concerned about HIV-transmission and are less influenced by its likelihood (Pilkington, Kern, & Indest, 1994). Although it is beyond the scope of this study to answer why individuals choose to use or not use a condom, it is possible that prior experience with condoms and the resulting evaluations (i.e., a more negative interaction) may be an avenue worth further exploration.

Hypotheses concerning orgasm occurrence used only stated that the experience of an orgasm in the interaction would lead to more pleasurable interactions and this was

supported. What the results reveal is, for some outcome variables, it was not just the experience of any orgasm but for either the participant, the partner, or both specifically that was important. More specifically, in the analyses of orgasm alone (without the addition of gender, which was reviewed above), only the experience of partner orgasm had a significant impact on evaluations of the interaction. Giving a partner an orgasm lead to greater feelings of being in control, desired, and respected. In addition, perceptions of partner's want of intimacy were affected.

Although not specifically formed as a hypothesis originally, the personality trait of risk in intimacy's effect on the experience of orgasm did yield interesting results. Ratings of enjoyment, of feeling desired, and of feeling loved were all influenced by an interaction of RII and orgasm experience, meaning that the orgasm experience differed for people based on their feelings of risk in intimacy. Those who were high in risk in intimacy reported the most enjoyment and feeling the most desired when both they are their partner had an orgasm whereas those who were low in risk in intimacy reported the most enjoyment and feeling most desired when only they had an orgasm. Although similar in that high RII individuals had the highest evaluations when both participants experienced an orgasm, feelings of being loved were highest for low RII individuals when their partner had an orgasm and they did not. What these findings suggest is that those participants who are have high feelings of risk in intimacy may be relying somewhat on situational factors and external support for their positive experiences. In other words, high RII individuals may be less responsive to their own feelings and

relying on external cues (such as the pleasure of a partner) to evaluate their own experiences.

Individual Differences in Sexuality. Examination of the 10 sexuality scales and sub-scales yield support for some of the hypotheses. Those individuals who were high sexual esteem did report more enjoyment, increased feelings of being desired, loved, while also reporting being less pressured. In addition, they also indicated that they felt their partners wanted to engage in the event more. By contrast, individuals who were high on sexual depression reported the opposite of all of the above feelings (i.e., decreases on the above dimensions). These findings do support the original hypotheses. No significant differences were found for the measure of sexual preoccupation. In addition, it should be noted that examination of the correlation matrix revealed some degree of inter-correlation between the scales.

While it does appear that the sub-scales of the Sexuality Scale do have an effect on evaluations of sexual interactions, it is unclear their exact relationship. More specifically, because each individual receives a score on all three subscales, it is unclear what sort of interaction a person who is high on both sexual esteem and sexual depression (since they are assumed to be separate but related constructs). Since esteem and depression are both related to the same outcome variables (they do not appear to have unique effects on different outcome variables), would the individual be average overall or is esteem or depression more influential? Because so little work has been done on this scale, it is possible that these results simply confuse the issue rather than add to our

understanding of a general construct of sexuality. It is possible that further research is needed to examine the sub-scales and what if any predictive value they may have.

The sub-scales of the Sexual Self-Esteem scale received mixed support from the data. While the sub-scales of fantasy esteem (0 significant effects), pleasure esteem (1 significant effect) and general esteem (2 significant effects) did not appear to add much to the understanding of the sexual interactions, safety esteem, body esteem, receiving esteem, and giving esteem had an impact on several outcome variables (at least 5 of 10). The correlational pattern of the four sub-scales suggests that while there are several inter-correlations for safety (four of seven possible), giving (4 of 7) and body (3 of seven), receiving esteem was only correlated with one other subscale. These results suggest that some of the scales may be very useful in understanding several of the interaction-level variables as well as people's reactions to them. It does appear as if higher esteem on several levels of sexuality may have unique explanatory power for sexual interactions.

Finally, the cognitive aspects of sexuality, as measured by the Sexual Self-Schema scales also appear to be helpful in understanding between person differences in sexual interactions. While positive schemas were related to increases in the outcome variables of enjoyment, desired, and respected, negative schemas were related to increases of feeling pressured and decreased perceptions of partner's interest. These findings support earlier research that found those with negative schemas to evidence decreased sexual desire and arousal (Cyranowski & Anderson, 1995). What is unique about these findings is the absence of any overlap on outcome variables. In other words, individuals who are high on both scales (what Cyranowski and Anderson (1995) call

"coschematic" patterns) can still evidence unique patterns of behavior, as can individuals who have low scores on both scales (what they call "aschematic" patterns). It appears that these results nicely support Cyranowski and Anderson's previous work. Further, the scale does seem to be applicable to both genders, despite being created solely for women. In fact, as evidence of this, one of the sub-scales, negative self-schema, demonstrated a significant gender interaction as well, suggesting that men and women who differ on the construct have different sexual interaction reactions.

Limitations and Future Directions. The present study was an exploratory examination of daily sexual interactions and for that reason, several limitations should be noted. Due to the sensitive nature of the research, it was not possible to randomly sample participants for the study and all participants agreed to be in a study they knew to be about human sexuality. For this reason, it is possible that the generalizability of the study may be limited. It may be the case that these participants were more liberal in their attitudes or were more comfortable with their sexuality, and these factors could have had an effect on the results. Due to the high variability of in the trait level measures, it does not appear that the sample was homogenously distributed at the either the high or low end of the scales, but the potential of limited scope does exist.

A second potential problem lies in the fact that no information on prior sexual history was asked of the participants. It is possible that some of the results that emerged were due not the personality traits as such, but were due to differences in number of sexual partners, age at first coitus, or other such "sexual" person-level variables. Further, differences in the trait-levels themselves may have been moderated by these unmeasured

variables. Future studies should include a questionnaire designed to gather information about participant's prior sexual histories and experiences. This might be of special interest in understanding the effect of various interaction-level variables such as condom usage (for example, if a participant always uses a condom and has sexual relations without one, this may have a great effect on perceptions and evaluations of the event).

In addition, participants were not asked if the study period was typical of their sexual lives and this may have caused for different results. Because the diaries were maintained for three weeks, and these three weeks are assumed to be randomly sampled from the participant's population of weeks (and thus, not significantly different), this should not be of great concern. Since the participants, however, were college students, it is possible that they were separated from their regular sexual partner or for some other reason (e.g., illness, midterms), did not engage in sexual activity as they would during some other time. In order to amend this, similar studies should inquire during the debriefing session of any difficulties or issues such as those mentioned above that may have influenced their diary recording.

Another issue that may affect the generalizability of the finding of the study is the very specific characteristics of the participants. As noted previously, a large majority of the participants were white and between the ages of 18 and 20. In addition, all participants were college students attending a rather conservative university. It is possible that these findings would not be found in a sample of similarly aged participants at a different university or who were not attending college. In other words, participants who are different races, come from different socioeconomic backgrounds, are employed,

and live in different geographic locations may result in different results. Further, participants that are either younger (e.g., high school students) or older (i.e., middle aged, elderly) may have different sexual experiences and reactions to these experiences.

While participants did report if they were in a dating relationship and, if so, for how long, these variables were not examined at the person-level. Those in dating relationships and their subsequent interactions may be somewhat different from the more casual interactions of those that are not in dating relationships. Further, the effect of dating relationships on perception of sexual interactions, if any, may be moderated my length of time in the relationship. A logical extension of this would be to conduct a replication of the study with married individuals.

Finally, these results may not be generalizable to different cultures. Examination of a more conservative culture, such as the Latin culture, may yield different results that an examination of a more sexually liberal culture, such as the Swedish.

This study was designed to be an exploratory study of people's experiences in and to sexual interactions. To that end, the results further our understanding of the sexual experience. While the gender results hypothesized failed to be significant, several other important gender distinctions did emerge, suggesting that the sexual experience can differ between men and women. Further, the impact that orgasm experience and condom usage had on several outcome variables implies that sexual interactions are not homogenous for people. The components of sexual interactions can and do affect people's perceptions and reactions. The trait-level results also indicate that people can have different experiences in the bedroom based on the interpersonal cognitive structures and feelings

that they bring to the bedroom. What this study suggests is that sexual interactions are not homogenous between or within people. While there is much left to learn, this study does represent a start in the understanding of the psychology of the bedroom.

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Table 1

Frequencies for Activities that Occurred during Sexual Interactions

Behavior	Frequency	%	Cumulative %
Kissing only	45	12.2	12.2
Petting	79	21.5	33.7
Gave oral sex	20	5.4	39.1
Received oral sex	19	5.2	44.3
Both gave & received oral sex	23	6.3	50.5
Oral sex (either) & vaginal intercourse	78	21.2	71.7
Vaginal intercourse alone	52	14.1	85.9
Vaginal & anal intercourse	2	.5	86.4
Other	28	7.6	94.0
Other & oral sex	20	5.4	99.5
Engaged in all behaviors	2	.5	100

Note. All behaviors (other than *kissing only*) may also include kissing and/or petting.

Table 2

Correlation Matrix for All Included Participants (N = 74).

number of interact	# interact	Dating	Length	Esteem	Depress	Preoccupy	Safety	Body
Dating	**-.45**							
Sig.	.01							
Length	.03	X						
SIg								
Esteem	**.26**	**-.33**	-.02					
Sig.	.05	.01						
Depress	-.12	**.33**	.28	**-.33**				
Sig.		.01		.01				
Preocc.	.00	.01	.23	**.27**	.06			
Sig.				.05				
Safety	.22	-.21	**.34**	**.35**	**-.35**	.16		
Sig.			.02	.01	.05			
Body	**.25**	**-.32**	-.16	.22	**-.26**	.11	**.31**	
Sig.	.05	.01			.05		.05	
Please	.14	-.12	.18	**.32**	-.07	.17	.17	.13
Sig.				.05				
Fantasy	**.32**	-.15	-.05	.06	.08	.11	.05	.06
Sig.	.01							
Receive	.06	.01	-.04	.04	.03	.05	**.27**	.08
Sig.							.05	
Giving	**.25**	**-.41**	.15	**.42**	-.09	.19	**.41**	**.42**
Sig.	.05	.01		.01			.01	.01
General	.09	**-.27**	.11	**.52**	**-.33**	.21	**.38**	**.31**
Sig.		.02		.01	.05		.01	.05
Pos. Self	.02	-.08	.09	**.48**	-.12	**.25**	**.38**	**.36**
Sig.				.01		.05	.01	.01
NegSelf	.08	-.09	.04	**-.39**	.18	-.13	**-.38**	**-.30**
Sig.				.01			.01	.01
RII	.09	.12	-.15	**-.31**	**.30**	.01	-.22	**-.39**
Sig.				.05	.05			.01

	Pleasure	Fantasy	Receiving	Giving	General	Positive	Negative	RII
number of interact Dating Sig.								
Length Sig.								
Esteem Sig.								
Depress Sig.								
Preocc. Sig.								
Safety Sig.								
Body Sig.								
Please Sig.								
Fantasy Sig.	.11							
Receive Sig.	-.01	.09						
Giving Sig.	**.24** .05	.05	.20					
General Sig.	**.23** .05	.03	-.04	**.59** .01				
Pos. Self Sig.	**.28** .05	.07	.12	**.34** .05	**.35** .01			
NegSelf Sig.	-.13	.17	.01	**-.26** .05	**-.45** .10	**-.47** .01		
RII Sig.	-.15	.09	-.21	**-.32** .05	**-.33** .05	**-.47** .01	**-.29** .05	

Table 3

Correlation Matrix for All Female Included Participants (N = 39).

Number of interact	# interact	Dating	Length	Esteem	Depress	Preoccupy	Safety	Body
Dating Sig.	-.40 .05							
Length Sig.	.17	X						
Esteem Sig.	.30	-.30	.02					
Depress Sig.	-.10	.36 .05	.30	-.27				
Preocc. Sig.	.14	-.06	.03	.22	.07			
Safety Sig.	.09	-.21	.23	.30	-.15	.07		
Body Sig.	.22	-.38 .05	-.41	.29	-.25	.02	.01	
Please Sig.	.33 .05	-.24	.15	.24	.10	.26	.03	.11
Fantasy Sig.	.30	-.30	.12	.10	.17	.19	.03	-.01
Receive Sig.	.09	.02	-.22	-.02	-.01	.02	.26	.13
Giving Sig.	.36 .05	-.48 .01	.24	.39 .05	-.05	.12	.47 .05	.43 .05
General Sig.	.12	-.32 .05	.03	.430 .01	-.32	.19	.36 .05	.42 .05
Pos. Self Sig.	.13	-.09	.08	.61 .01	.05	.37 .05	.18	.33 .05
NegSelf	.29	-.30	.21	-.25	.00	-.17	-.19	-.16
RII Sig.	-.08	.23	-.12	-.31	.44 .01	.12	-.25	-.37 .05

	Pleasure	Fantasy	Receiving	Giving	General	Positive	Negative	RII
number of interact								
Dating Sig.								
Length Sig.								
Esteem Sig.								
Depress Sig.								
Preocc. Sig.								
Safety Sig.								
Body Sig.								
Please Sig.								
Fantasy Sig.	**.34** .05							
Receive Sig.	.14	.10						
Giving Sig.	**.33** .05	.11	.14					
General Sig.	.16	.00	-.14	**.60** .05				
Pos. Self Sig.	.26	.15	.03	**.35** .05	**.35** .05			
NegSelf Sig.	.17	.27	.11	-.14	**-.37** .05	**-.50** .05		
RII Sig.	-.13	.00	-.27	-.21	-.24	**-.48** .05	-.15	

Table 4

Correlation Matrix for All Male Included Participants (N = 35).

number of interact	# interact	Dating	Length	Esteem	Depress	Preoccupy	Safety	Body
Dating Sig.	-.48 .01							
Length Sig.	.09	X						
Esteem Sig.	.21	-.37 .05	-.04					
Depress Sig.	-.16	.31	.30	-.41 .05				
Preocc. Sig.	-.07	-.03	.36	.34 .05	.05			
Safety Sig.	.40 .05	-.31	.42	.41 .05	-.56 .01	.14		
Body Sig.	.35 .05	-.38 .05	-.00	.17	-.28	.08	.47 .05	
Please Sig.	-.02	-.04	.20	.40 .05	-.23	.14	.28	.17
Fantasy Sig.	.36 .05	.000	-.22	.01	-.05	.02	.06	.12
Receive Sig.	.04	-.03	.10	.13	.07	.04	.27	.00
Giving Sig.	.17	-.47 .05	-.00	.49 .05	-.18	.19	.31	.35 .05
General Sig.	.12	-.32	.21	.68 .01	-.38 .05	.18	.39 .05	.10
Pos. Self Sig.	-.08	-.10	.08	.35 .05	-.32	.12	.55 .01	.38 .05
NegSelf Sig.	-.21	.21	-.07	-.58 .01	.41 .05	.00	-.51 .01	-.36 .05
RII Sig.	.26	.09	-.16	-.34 .05	.14	.01	-.11	-.35 .05

	Pleasure	Fantasy	Receiving	Giving	General	Positive	Negative
number of interact							
Dating Sig.							
Length Sig.							
Esteem Sig.							
Depress Sig.							
Preocc. Sig.							
Safety Sig.							
Body Sig.							
Please Sig.							
Fantasy Sig.	-.09						
Receive Sig.	-.15	.07					
Giving Sig.	.20	-.08	.29				
General Sig.	**.35** .05	.05	.10	**.52** .01			
Pos. Self Sig.	.30	-.03	.21	.31	**.36** .05		
NegSelf Sig.	**-.41** .05	.07	-.09	**-.37** .05	**-.54** .01	**-.44** .05	
RII Sig.	-.20	.26	-.11	**-.43** .01	**-.43** .01	**-.45** .01	**.40** .05

Table 5

Full Description of the 10 Outcome Variables

Outcome Variable	Description
Intimacy	This is an indication of how close you felt to the other person present and how intimate you felt the interaction was. This includes both physical and emotional closeness
Enjoyment	This is an indication of how much you enjoyed yourself and the interaction. This can be a measure of both your interpersonal enjoyment as well as your sexual enjoyment
Loved	This is an indication of the degree to which you felt your partner had romantic feelings toward you. This does not necessarily indicate that you felt the same about this person – only that they felt they had loving feeling toward you
Pressured	This is a measure of how pressured you felt by your partner. This could be pressure to either say something or do something.
In Control	This is a measure of how in control you thought you were
Desired	This is an indication of how desirable you felt. In other words, did you feel that you were desirable to the person with whom you were interacting.
Respected	This is an indication of the degree to which you felt respected and valued as a person in the opinion of the person with whom you were involved
Partner Wanted	This is an indication of how much your partner wanted to be involved in the interaction that took place
Your Intimacy	This is an indication of your satisfaction with the amount of intimacy that occurred (with 1 signifying "much more" and 9 indicating "too much")
Partner Intimacy	This is an indication of how satisfied your partner was with the amount of intimacy that occurred (with 1 signifying "much more" and 9 signifying "too much")

Note. These are the verbatim descriptions given to the participants in their diary completion instructions. Unless otherwise noted, a response of 1 indicated "not at all" and 9 "very much."

Table 6

Level-1 Variable Summary Statistics

	Mean	SD	Variance Components Level-1	Level-2	Reliability
Control	7.42	1.29	1.65	1.52	.75
Respect	7.71	1.15	1.32	2.16	.83
Enjoyment	7.81	1.04	1.08	.96	.74
Loved	7.11	1.28	1.13	2.41	.93
Pressured	1.79	1.09	1.18	1.00	.73
Desired	7.63	1.19	1.41	1.38	.76
Intimacy	7.27	1.20	1.45	2.97	.86
Partner Wanted	8.47	.70	.48	.68	.81
Your Intimacy	4.94	1.08	1.17	.89	.72
Partner Intimacy	4.71	1.13	1.27	.79	.68
Condom Usage	.11	.65	.42	.56	.81
Your Orgasm	-.07	.75	.56	44	.72
Partner Orgasm	-.01	.84	.71	.30	.60

Note. Condom usage was coded as a 1 for a condom used and a –1 if a condom was not used. Your orgasm and Partner Orgasm was coded as 1 if an orgasm for that person occurred and a –1 for that person if an orgasm did not occur.

Table 7

Summary Statistics for the 13 Measured Personality Traits

	Mean	SD	Min. Value	Max. Value
Risk In Intimacy	2.08	.79	1.00	4.00
Sexual Esteem	16.11	.3.33	6.00	20.00
Sexual Depression	16.39	4.25	3.00	20.00
Sexual Preoccupation	5.66	4.75	0.00	20.0
Safety Esteem	10.80	2.61	5.00	15.00
Body Esteem	9.32	3.44	0.00	15.00
Pleasure Esteem	11.05	2.47	2.00	15.00
Fantasy Esteem	11.05	1.75	6.00	14.00
Giving Esteem	12.64	2.58	5.00	15.00
Receiving Esteem	11.03	1.54	3.00	13.00
General Esteem	12.59	2.40	5.00	15.00
Positive Self-Schema	4.36	.52	3.05	5.37
Negative Self-Schema	2.91	.87	1.00	5.57

Table 8

Significant Within Person Relationships Based on Condom Usage.

| | Condom Used | | |
	Coefficient	t-value	p-value
Loved	-.27	-2.32	.05
Desired	-.24	-2.62	.01
Your Intimacy	-.17	-2.04	.05
Partner Intimacy	-.37	-4.43	.01

Table 9

Significant Within- and Between Person Differences Based on Condom Usage and Risk
In Intimacy

	Coefficient	t-value	p-value
Enjoyment			
Condom	-.22	-2.89	.01
RII	-.28	-2.15	.03
Condom x RII	-.13	-1.59	ns
Desired			
Condom	-.25	-2.58	.01
RII	-.38	-2.59	.01
Condom x RII	-.15	-1.43	ns
Partner Intimacy			
Condom	-.36	-4.26	.01
RII	.27	2.42	.05
Condom x RII	.08	1.08	ns
Loved			
Condom	-.27	-2.41	.05
RII	-.54	-1.71	ns
Condom x RII	-.08	-.73	ns
Respect			
Condom	-.14	-1.18	ns
RII	-.38	-1.99	.05
Condom x RII	-.26	-2.13	.05

Table 10

Significant Within- and Between Person Differences Based on Condom Usage and Gender

	Coefficient	t-value	p-value
Desired			
Gender	-.23	-2.30	.05
Condom	.08	.49	ns
Gender x Condom	-.12	-1.21	ns
Loved			
Gender	.07	.26	ns
Condom	-.27	-2.41	.05
Gender x Condom	.001	.01	ns
Your Intimacy			
Gender	.13	1.06	ns
Condom	-.18	-2.13	.05
Gender x Condom	.04	.55	ns
Partner Intimacy			
Gender	-.09	-.81	ns
Condom	-.37	-4.30	.01
Gender x Condom	-.07	-.88	ns
Respect			
Gender	.10	.51	ns
Condom	-.12	.32	ns
Gender x Condom	-.23	-2.01	.05

Table 11

Significant Within-Person Differences Based on Occurrence of Orgasms

	Coefficient	t-value	p-value
Control			
Your Orgasm	-.18	-1.49	ns
Partner's Orgasm	.45	3.76	.01
Your x Partner's	.18	1.38	ns
Desired			
Your Orgasm	.13	1.19	ns
Partner's Orgasm	.18	2.29	.05
Your x Partner's	.01	.09	ns
Respected			
Your Orgasm	.16	1.21	ns
Partner's Orgasm	.29	2.11	.05
Your x Partner's	-.09	-.73	ns
Partner Intimacy			
Your Orgasm	-.003	-.05	ns
Partner's Orgasm	.10	1.99	.05
Your x Partner's	-.03	-.79	ns

Table 12

Significant Within-Person Differences Based on Occurrence of Orgasms and Gender

	Coefficient	t-value	p-value
Respect			
Gender	.11	.59	ns
Your Orgasm	.02	1.56	ns
Gender x Your Orgasm	.10	.77	ns
Partner's Orgasm	.26	2.89	.01
Gender x Partner's Orgasm	.10	1.15	ns
Orgasm Interaction	.14	.13	ns
Gender x Orgasm Interaction	.06	.64	ns
Partner Wanted			
Gender	.01	.12	ns
Your Orgasm	-.01	-.14	ns
Gender x Your Orgasm	-.01	-.14	ns
Partner's Orgasm	.11	2.02	.05
Gender x Partner's Orgasm	.04	.75	ns
Orgasm Interaction	-.04	-.79	ns
Gender x Orgasm Interaction	.06	1.40	ns
Your Intimacy			
Gender	.15	1.16	ns
Your Orgasm	.15	1.96	.05
Gender x Your Orgasm	-.07	-.91	ns
Partner's Orgasm	-.03	.40	ns
Gender x Partner's Orgasm	<.01	<.01	ns
Orgasm Interaction	.06	.96	ns
Gender x Orgasm Interaction	.05	.84	ns
Partner Intimacy			
Gender	-.05	-.40	ns
Your Orgasm	-.16	-1.64	ns
Gender x Your Orgasm	-.10	-1.03	ns
Partner's Orgasm	.08	1.26	ns
Gender x Partner's Orgasm	.22	3.33	.01
Orgasm Interaction	.03	.41	ns
Gender x Orgasm Interaction	.04	.56	ns

	Coefficient	t-value	p-value
Control			
Gender	-.07	-.39	ns
Your Orgasm	-.16	-1.25	ns
Gender x Your Orgasm	-.07	.52	ns
Partner's Orgasm	.38	3.10	.01
Gender x Partner's Orgasm	.06	.53	ns
Orgasm Interaction	.03	.21	ns
Gender x Orgasm Interaction	.24	2.08	.05
Intimacy			
Gender	-.05	-.25	ns
Your Orgasm	.12	.98	ns
Gender x Your Orgasm	.11	.90	ns
Partner's Orgasm	.11	1.37	ns
Gender x Partner's Orgasm	.15	1.79	ns
Orgasm Interaction	.05	.68	ns
Gender x Orgasm Interaction	.16	2.03	.05
Enjoyment			
Gender	-.03	-.26	ns
Your Orgasm	.19	1.89	ns
Gender x Your Orgasm	.11	1.07	ns
Partner's Orgasm	.15	1.91	ns
Gender x Partner's Orgasm	-.01	-.14	ns
Orgasm Interaction	-.01	-.13	ns
Gender x Orgasm Interaction	-.17	2.18	.05
Loved			
Gender	.13	.46	ns
Your Orgasm	.22	1.85	ns
Gender x Your Orgasm	.02	.14	ns
Partner's Orgasm	.12	1.85	ns
Gender x Partner's Orgasm	-.01	-.06	ns
Orgasm Interaction	-.09	-1.37	ns
Gender x Orgasm Interaction	-.12	1.98	.05

Table 13

Predicted Values Illustrating How Gender Moderates the Within-Person Differences in
Orgasm Occurrence

Your Orgasm?	No	Yes	No	Yes
Partner Orgasm?	No	No	Yes	Yes
Partner Intimacy				
Female	4.48	4.46	4.95	5.07
Male	4.53	5.07	4.29	4.78
Control				
Female	7.47	6.48	7.82	7.89
Male	7.12	7.37	8.19	7.58
Intimacy (Experienced)				
Female	6.98	7.00	7.06	7.96
Male	7.27	7.51	7.42	7.23
Enjoyment				
Female	7.26	8.19	7.90	8.11
Male	7.84	7.69	7.84	8.32
Love				
Male	6.54	7.36	7.20	7.18
Female	7.01	7.41	7.17	7.73

Note. Partner Intimacy is scored as 1 = partner wanted more intimacy and 9 = partner thought it
was too intimate. All other scales are scored with 1 = not very to 9 = very much.

Table 14

Significant Within-Person Differences Based on Occurrence of Orgasms and Gender

	Coefficient	t-value	p-value
Control			
RII	-.30	-1.58	ns
Your Orgasm	-.14	-1.07	ns
RII x Your Orgasm	.14	.69	ns
Partner's Orgasm	.33	2.69	.01
RII x Partner's Orgasm	<.01	.02	ns
Orgasm Interaction	.15	1.05	ns
RII x Orgasm Interaction	.05	.21	ns
Partner Wanted			
RII	-.07	.68	ns
Your Orgasm	.01	.24	ns
RII x Your Orgasm	.05	.55	ns
Partner's Orgasm	.10	2.02	.05
RII x Partner's Orgasm	.02	.31	ns
Orgasm Interaction	-.08	-1.73	ns
RII x Orgasm Interaction	-.03	-.31	ns
Enjoyment			
RII	-.31	-2.59	.01
Your Orgasm	.22	2.30	.05
RII x Your Orgasm	.03	.25	ns
Partner's Orgasm	.13	2.05	.05
RII x Partner's Orgasm	.25	3.87	.01
Orgasm Interaction	.08	1.18	ns
RII x Orgasm Interaction	.08	.77	ns
Desired			
RII	-.54	-3.10	.01
Your Orgasm	.07	.53	ns
RII x Your Orgasm	-.07	-.39	ns
Partner's Orgasm	.16	2.15	.05
RII x Partner's Orgasm	.30	2.42	.05
Orgasm Interaction	.11	1.07	ns
RII x Orgasm Interaction	.19	1.05	ns

	Coefficient	t-value	p-value
Loved			
RII	-.58	1.86	ns
Your Orgasm	.23	1.60	ns
RII x Your Orgasm	-.02	-.11	ns
Partner's Orgasm	.04	.64	ns
RII x Partner's Orgasm	.19	2.57	.01
Orgasm Interaction	-.05	-.95	ns
RII x Orgasm Interaction	.12	1.79	ns

Table 15

Predicted Values Illustrating How Risk In Intimacy Moderates the Within-Person
Differences in Orgasm Occurrence

Your Orgasm?	No	Yes	No	Yes
Partner's Orgasm	No	No	Yes	Yes
Enjoyment				
High RII (1 SD above)	7.02	7.20	7.45	8.27
Low RII (1 SD below)	8.04	8.40	7.79	8.16
Desired				
High RII (1 SD above)	6.86	6.26	7.19	7.78
Low RII (1 SD below)	8.00	8.45	7.91	8.02
Loved				
High RII (1 SD above)	6.19	6.46	6.52	7.06
Low RII (1 SD below)	6.84	7.14	7.48	8.10

Note. All variables above were scaled as 1 = not very and 9 = very much.

Table 16

Between-Person Differences Based on Gender and Risk In Intimacy

	Coefficient	t-value	p-value
Intimacy			
Gender	-.03	-.15	ns
RII	-.35	-1.79	ns
Gender x RII	-.51	-2.58	.01
Enjoyment			
Gender	-.02	-.12	ns
RII	-.23	-1.83	ns
Gender x RII	-.29	-2.27	.05
Loved			
Gender	.07	.26	ns
RII	-.46	-1.72	ns
Gender x RII	-.83	-3.09	.01
Desired			
Gender	.09	.60	ns
RII	-.35	-2.51	.05
Gender x RII	-.30	-2.15	.05
Respected			
Gender	.09	.53	ns
RII	-.35	-2.04	.05
Gender x RII	-.39	-2.31	.05
Your Intimacy			
Gender	.10	.82	ns
RII	.40	3.35	.01
Gender x RII	.128	1.08	ns
Partner Intimacy			
Gender	.146	-1.19	ns
RII	.32	2.89	.01 .
Gender x RII	.02	.16	ns

Table 17

Between-Person Differences Based on Gender and the Sub-Scales of the Sexuality Scale

	Coefficient	t-value	p-value
Sexual Esteem			
Enjoyment			
Gender	-.04	-.27	ns
Esteem	.25	2.24	.05
Gender x Esteem	.03	.30	ns
Desired			
Gender	-.02	-.108	ns
Esteem	.41	2.43	.05
Gender x Esteem	.27	.17	ns
Respected			
Gender	-.01	.42	ns
Esteem	.42	2.14	.05
Gender x Esteem	.29	1.49	ns
Partner Wanted			
Gender	.07	.41	ns
Esteem	.41	2.85	.01
Gender x Esteem	-.11	-.77	ns
Pressured			
Gender	-.21	-1.5	ns
Esteem	-.34	-2.05	.05
Gender x Esteem	.09	.54	ns
Sexual Depression			
Enjoyment			
Gender	-.01	-.09	ns
Esteem	-.53	-3.90	.01
Gender x Esteem	.10	.76	.45
Desired			
Gender	.04	.25	ns
Esteem	-.53	-2.81	.01
Gender x Esteem	.11	-.57	ns

	Coefficient	t-value	p-value
Loved			
Gender	.02	.08	ns
Esteem	-.71	-2.01	.05
Gender x Esteem	.16	.45	ns

Table 18

Between-Person Differences Based on Gender and the Sub-Scales of the Sexual Self-Esteem Scale

	Coefficients	t-value	p-value
Safety			
Control			
Gender	.16	.90	ns
Safety	.46	3.28	.01
Gender x Safety	-.05	-.36	ns
Desired			
Gender	.14	.82	ns
Safety	.36	2.51	.01
Gender x Safety	.05	.31	ns
Loved			
Gender	.26	.85	ns
Safety	.86	3.69	.01
Gender x Safety	-.03	-.13	ns
Respect			
Gender	.18	.94	ns
Safety	.52	3.73	.01
Gender x Safety	.02	.148	ns
Partner Wanted			
Gender	.12	1.04	ns
Safety	.33	3.73	.01
Gender x Safety	-.04	-.47	ns
Body Esteem			
Control			
Gender	.17	.99	ns
Body	.37	2.74	.05
Gender x Body	-.22	-1.43	ns
Intimacy			
Gender	.06	.28	ns
Body	.45	2.07	.05
Gender x Body	.16	.76	ns

	Coefficients	t-value	p-value
Enjoyment			
Gender	.03	.21	ns
Body	.24	1.96	.05
Gender x Body	.10	.85	ns
Desired			
Gender	.16	1.09	ns
Body	.41	3.23	.01
Gender x Body	.10	.80	ns
Loved			
Gender	.28	.98	ns
Body	.84	3.44	.01
Gender x Body	-.01	-.05	ns
Respected			
Gender	.22	1.24	ns
Body	.58	5.39	.01
Gender x Body	.01	.104	ns
Partner Wanted			
Gender	.10	.95	ns
Body	.22	3.68	.01
Gender x Body	-.05	-.91	ns
Pressure			
Gender	.26	-1.77	ns
Body	-.25	3.15	.01
Gender x Body	.06	.70	ns
Pleasure Esteem			
Partner Wanted			
Gender	<.01	.01	ns
Pleasure	.28	1.96	.05
Gender x Safety	.15	1.06	ns
Receiving Esteem			
Control			
Gender	.06	.40	ns
Receive	.45	3.15	.01
Gender x Receive	-.21	1.46	ns

	Coefficients	t-value	p-value
Intimacy.			
Gender	-.03	-.14	ns
Receive	.42	2.47	.05
Gender x Receive	< .01	-.03	ns
Enjoyment			
Gender	-.02	-.131	ns
Receive	.21	2.00	.05
Gender x Receive	-.02	-.21	ns
Desired			
Gender	.08	.51	ns
Receive	.40	3.44	.01
Gender x Receive	-.03	-.24	ns
Loved			
Gender	.08	.26	ns
Receive	.45	2.04	.05
Gender x Receive	.02	-.09	ns
Pressure			
Gender	-.20	-1.54	ns
Receive	-.43	-4.13	.01
Gender x Receive	.14	1.29	ns
Partner Wanted			
Gender	.05	.48	ns
Receive	.30	2.99	.05
Gender x Receive	.01	.05	ns
Partner Intimacy			
Gender	-.08	-.12	ns
Receive	-.12	.78	ns
Gender x Receive	-.29	-2.00	.05
Giving Esteem			
Intimacy			
Gender	.01	.06	ns
Giving	.48	2.07	.05
Gender x Giving	.12	.51	ns

Desired

Gender	.12	.82	ns
Giving	.46	2.71	.01
Gender x Giving	.08	.47	ns

Loved

Gender	.22	.78	ns
Giving	.90	3.12	.01
Gender x Giving	-.01	-.03	ns

Respect

Gender	.18	1.05	ns
Giving	.63	3.32	.01
Gender x Giving	-.04	-.22	ns

Partner Wanted

Gender	.15	1.31	ns
Giving	.50	4.37	.01
Gender x Giving	-.12	-1.09	ns

Your Intimacy

Gender	.09	.68	ns
Giving	-.32	-2.70	.01
Gender x Giving	.05	.41	ns

Pressure

Gender	-.30	2.24	.05
Giving	.55	3.17	.01
Gender x Giving	.14	.83	ns

<u>General Esteem</u>
Enjoyment

Gender	.03	.20	ns
General	.46	2.16	.05
Gender x General	-.01	-.06	ns

Partner Wanted

Gender	.15	1.02	ns
General	.44	2.34	.05
Gender x General	-.21	-1.11	ns

Table 19

Between-Person Differences Based on Gender and the Sub-Scales of the Sexual Self-Schema Scale

	Coefficients	t-value	p-value
Positive Self-Schema			
Enjoyment			
Gender	< .01	.01	ns
Positive	.21	2.04	.05
Gender x Positive	-.08	-.80	ns
Desired			
Gender	.10	.66	ns
Positive	.34	2.80	.01
Gender x Positive	-.13	-1.06	ns
Respect			
Gender	.11	.53	ns
Positive	.35	3.37	.05
Gender x Positive	-.09	-.61	ns
Negative Self-Schema			
Pressure			
Gender	-.28	-1.7	ns
Negative	.17	1.32	ns
Gender x Negative	-.27	-2.12	.05
Partner Wanted			
Gender	.11	.88	ns
Negative	-.08	-.80	ns
Gender x Negative	.27	2.69	.01

Appendix A

Demographic Questionnaire

<u>Demographic Information</u>

<u>User ID Number:</u>_____

Age: _____

Gender: _____

Race: _____

Academic status: _____

Are you in a dating relationship now: _____

     If so, how long?: _____

Are you in a sorority/fraternity?: _____

Appendix B

Pilkington & Richardson's (1988) Risk In Intimacy Inventory

Social Interaction Inventory

Listed below are several statements that reflect different attitudes about relationships. Some of the items refer to general attributes or beliefs about relationships. Other items refer to more specific kinds of interactions, such as those with acquaintances (e.g., someone you've met only once, someone you know from class), with causal friends, or with people you are very close to.

Using the scale below, indicate the extent to which you agree with each statement by writing the appropriate number in the blank beside each item.

1 = very strong disagreement   4 = slight agreement
2 = moderate disagreement   5 = moderate agreement
3 = slight disagreement   6 = very strong agreement

There are no right or wrong answers. This is simply a measure of how **you** feel. Please try to give an honest appraisal of yourself.

_____ 1. It is dangerous to be very close to people.

_____ 2. I prefer that people keep their distance from me.

_____ 3. I'm afraid to get really close to someone because I might get hurt.

_____ 4. At best, I can handle only one or two close friendships at a time.

_____ 5. I find it difficult to trust other people.

_____ 6. I avoid intimacy.

_____ 7. Being close to other people makes me feel afraid.

_____ 8. I'm hesitant to share personal information about myself.

_____ 9. Being close to people is risky business.

_____ 10. The most important thing to consider in a relationship is whether I might get hurt.

Appendix C

<u>User Id Number:</u>_____

SSE Scale (Gaynor & Underwood, 1995)

+2	+1	-1	-2
Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

1. I feel safe when I am in a sexual situation. _____
2. I tend to feel uncomfortable and anxious when I am in a sexual situation. _____
3. I feel present and tuned into my body when I am in a sexual situation. _____
4. I feel guilty and anxious about sex. _____
5. I have no painful memories during sex. _____

6. When I look in the mirror, I criticize every little thing that seems wrong. _____
7. I like and appreciate my body sexually. _____
8. I dislike my genitals, legs, buttocks, or face. _____
9. Overall, I like my body a lot. _____
10. It's easy for me to find fault with my looks. _____

11. I love to listen to sensuous music and feel sensuous touch. _____
12. I dislike the smells and tastes involved with sex. _____
13. I like to be thrilled with how things look during sex. _____
14. Avoiding the feelings of sexuality suits me just fine. _____
15. I love the body tingles and thrills involved with sex. _____

16. Unless I am in a sexual situation, sex is absent from my mind. _____
17. I have delicious fantasies about sexual encounters. _____
18. I think about sex all the time; it is too much. _____
19. It's easy for me to imagine good sex with an attractive partner. _____
20. I have painful or sadistic fantasies about sex. _____

21. I love to have my body stroked and cuddled by a partner. _____
22. I like to be touched as little as possible during sex. _____
23. I love to relax and relish the pleasure my partner gives me. _____
24. I dislike being stimulated by my partner. _____
25. I like to receive my partner's sexual attention. _____

26. I feel uncomfortable doing things that give pleasure to a partner. _____
27. One of my delights in sex is the pleasure I give to my partner. _____
28. I dislike touching my sexual partner. _____
29. It is very important to me to feel like I am giving sexually. _____
30. I feel inhibited about touching my partner. _____

31. I love the sensations I feel when I am in a sexual situation.   _____
32. I feel sex is wrong or dirty.   _____
33. Part of what is good in life is being sexual.   _____
34. The sooner sex is over, the better it is for me.   _____
35. I have high sexual self esteem.   _____

Appendix D

User Id Number:_____

S Scale (Snell & Papini, 1989)

+2 ....+1.............0.............-1.............-2
agree   disagree

1. I am a good sexual partner   _____
2. I would rate my sexual skill quite highly   _____
3. I think of myself as a very good sexual partner   _____
4. I would rate myself low as a sexual partner   _____
5. I am confident about myself as a sexual partner   _____

6. I am depressed about the sexual aspects of my life.   _____
7. I feel good about my sexuality   _____
8. I am disappointed about the quality of my sex life.   _____
9. I am down about my sex life.   _____
10. I feel pleased with my sex life.   _____

11. I think about sex all the time.   _____
12. I think about sex more than anything else.   _____
13. I tend to be preoccupied with sex.   _____
14. I am constantly thinking about having sex.   _____
15. I think about sex a great deal of the time.   _____

Appendix E

<u>User Id Number:</u> _____

SSS Scale (Cyranowski & Andersen, 1998)

Directions: Below is a listing of 50 trait adjectives. For each word, consider whether or no the term describes you. Each adjective is to be rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 0 (*not at all descriptive of me*) to *6 (very much descriptive of me*). For each item, fill in the blank beside the item with the point on the scale that best fits you. Please be thoughtful and honest.

Question: To what extent does the term _____ describe me?

Rating scale:

Not at all descriptive						Very much descriptive
0	1	2	3	4	5	6

1. generous	_____	26. disagreeable	_____
2. uninhibited	_____	27. serious	_____
3. cautious	_____	28. prudent	_____
4. helpful	_____	29. humorous	_____
5. loving	_____	30. sensible	_____
6. open-minded	_____	31. embarrassed	_____
7. shallow	_____	32. outspoken	_____
8. timid	_____	33. level-headed	_____
9. frank	_____	34. responsible	_____
10. clean-cut	_____	35. romantic	_____
11. stimulating	_____	36. polite	_____
12. unpleasant	_____	37. sympathetic	_____
13. experienced	_____	38. conservative	_____
14. short-tempered	_____	39. passionate	_____
15. irresponsible	_____	40. wise	_____
16. direct	_____	41. inexperienced	_____
17. logical	_____	42. stingy	_____
18. broad-minded	_____	43. superficial	_____
19. kind	_____	44. warm	_____
20. arousable	_____	45. unromantic	_____
21. practical	_____	46. good-natured	_____

22. self-conscious   _____

23. dull   _____

24. straightforward   _____

25. casual   _____

47. rude   _____

48. revealing   _____

49. bossy   _____

50. feeling   _____

Appendix F

Sexual Interaction Questionnaire (Wheeler & Nezlek, 1977)

Section 1: General Information

1. When did this interaction occur?

2. How long did this interaction last?

3. Gender of partner?
   male
   female
   prefer not to answer)

4. Where did this event occur?
   my bedroom/dorm room
   partner's bedroom/dorm room
   other on-campus location
   other off-campus location
   prefer not to answer

5. What preceded this event?
   date
   party
   other planned event
   unplanned meeting
   prefer not to answer)

6. Was this an expected sexual encounter?
   (Pull down menu with
   definitely
   sort of
   no
   prefer not to answer

7. How many times have you been intimately involved with this person before?
   0
   1-4
   5-10
   more than 10
   prefer not to answer)

8. How would you best describe this partner?
> boyfriend/girlfriend
> casual dating partner
> friend
> acquaintance
> stranger
> other
> prefer not to answer)

9. Before this event, what kind of romantic feeling did you have toward this partner?
> strong
> some
> little, if any
> none
> prefer not to answer)

10. How many drinks, if any, did you consume prior to this interaction?
> 0
> 1-2
> 3-4
> 5-7
> 7+

11. How many drinks, if any, did your partner consume prior to this interaction?
> 0
> 1-2
> 3-4
> 5-7
> 7+

Section 2: The Interaction

12. Please check all behaviors that occurred during this interaction. (Check all that apply.)
    * kissing   * heavy petting   * gave oral sex
    * received oral sex * had vaginal intercourse * had anal intercourse
    * other

13. Did you have at least one orgasm?
    * yes   * no   * not sure   * prefer not to answer

14. Did your partner have at least one orgasm?
    * yes   * no   * not sure   * prefer not to answer

15. What occurred immediately afterwards?

    Stayed together and talked
    Feel asleep pretty quickly
    I left pretty quickly
    Partner left pretty quickly
    Did something else together
    Other
    Prefer not to say

16. What kind of contraception, if any, did you use? (Check all that apply)
    * male condoms   * birth control pills   * diaphragm
    * withdrawal   * sponge   * other
    * none

Section 3: Feelings and Thoughts about the Interaction

How did being physically intimate with this person affect you?
Please describe your reactions to the experience. Remember, there are no right or wrong answers
to these questions. Use the scale below.

        1   not at all
        2
        3   slightly
        4
        5   somewhat
        6
        7   quite
        8
        9   very

17. Enjoyment
        1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9

18. Intimacy
        1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9

19. Desirability
        1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9

20. In control
        1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9

21. Respected
        1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9

22. Loved
        1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9

23. Pressured

          1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9

Using the following scale to answer the next three questions.

1	absolutely not
2	
3	probably not
4	
5	perhaps
6	
7	probably
8	
9	definitely yes

24. Do you expect to be physically intimate with this person again?

          1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9

25. Did you want to be physically intimate with this partner?

          1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9

26. Do you think they wanted to be physically intimate with you?

          1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9

Using the following scale to answer the next three questions.

1	wanted much more
2	
3	wanted more
4	
5	right amount
6	
7	too much
8	
9	much too much

27. How did you feel about how intimate you were with this partner?

          1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9

28. How do you do you think your partner felt about how physically intimate you were?

          1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9

Appendix G

ID Number Assignment Form

Your Identification Number: _____
Please write this number down. This will be how you will log onto the website for the rest of the study. Only you and Dr. Nezlek will know what your specific number is.

Your Name: _____

Your Email Address: _____

Appendix H

College of William & Mary
Psychology Department Consent Form

The general nature of this study of perceptions of sexual behavior and daily feelings conducted by *Carrie Veronica Smith* has been explained to me. I understand that I will be asked to *log onto a website daily to answer questions about my day and how I felt and log onto a website whenever I have a sexual interaction. In addition, at the beginning of the study, I will also be asked to fill out four questionnaires that assess my sexual personality and my personality in general.* I further understand that my responses will be confidential and that my name will not be associated with any results of the study. I know that I may refuse to answer any question asked and that I may discontinue participation at any time. I also understand that any grade, payment, or credit for participation will not be affected by my responses or by my exercising any of my rights. I am aware that I may report dissatisfactions with any respect of this experiment to the Psychology Department Chair. I am aware that I must be at least 18 years of age to participate. My signature below signifies my voluntary participation in this study.

_____   _____

Date   Signature

Appendix I

<div align="center">

THE WILLIAM AND MARY SEXUALITY STUDY
DATES OF PARTICIPATION:
DEBRIEFING:

</div>

<u>Website</u>: http://staff.wm.edu/psy/inter00

<u>Instructions:</u>

For this study, we ask that you log onto the website and answer some questions everyday about the type of day you had and the thoughts that you had. We would also like you to describe every sexual interaction that you have during the period specified at this meeting. This includes sexual interactions with both regular partners as well as casual partners. The more consistent and reliable your recording is, the more valid our inferences about the data become. Keep in mind: We are trying to understand people's daily lives, not interfere with them! ☺   The

Daily Questions
Everyday, you should log onto the website and answer the questions. The daily form is designed to take you no longer than 10 to 15 minutes a day. You should do this at the end of each day, as close to going to bed as possible. You can do this from any computer with Internet access. This means, if you have a computer in your room you can do it there. If you are at home for the weekend and have a computer at home, you can do it there – ANY computer with Internet access will allow you to log onto the website and complete the study. What is most important is that you log onto the site everyday to record your feelings about the day. The entire study depends on your cooperation in keeping these records. Even if you feel that a certain day was completely routine with nothing out of the ordinary, record it!

Should you miss a day, do not panic! An occasional missed day (1 or 2) is fine and I expect that this will happen. If you miss a day, please continue with the study. Just log on the next day and proceed as usual. If you have concerns, just let me know. If you miss too many days, it is possible that you will not receive full credit for the experiment but this will be decided on a case-by-case basis.

Sexual Interaction Form:
Each time you have a sexual interaction (for the purposes of this study, sexual interactions include any interactions in which a person is physically intimate with another person), you should log onto the website and describe this interaction. For example, heavy kissing and petting would be considered a sexual interaction, just as sexual intercourse would be. To make it easy for you to record and evaluate these interactions, I have devised a form for you to use. This form is online too. This form allows you to both objectively and subjectively describe your experience. The form is relatively easy to complete but I have included the following instructions in case any questions arise in the future. These answers will be very important in the interpretation of the data. Please be honest in your response and be assured that your responses are STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL!

Describe ALL interactions using the online form!

Date/Hour/Minute/am-pm: Enter the date and time the interaction occurred.

Length: Record how long the interaction lasted in hours and/or minutes. If in a given setting, you had more than one interaction, you may record that as two interactions if you feel that is the best way to report it. If you break it in to two interactions, fill out the form for each interaction separately.

Location: Choose where the interaction took place: My place/room, Partner's place/room, Other on-campus, Other off-campus, Other.

What Preceded: This question is concerned with what occurred right before the interaction. The choices are Date, Party, Other Planned Event, Unplanned Meeting, Other.

Sex Expected: Record if you expected to have a sexual interaction: Definitely, sort of, no, or you prefer not to say.

Relationship: Record what your partner's relationship to you is: boy/girlfriend, casual dating partner, friend, acquaintance, stranger, other, prefer not to say.

Gender: Record the gender of your partner.
Status: Answer if your partner is a W&M student, a student at another school, another person, or you prefer not to say.

Previous Activity: Please indicate how many times, if any, you have been intimate with this person.

Romantic Feeling: Please indicate if you have Strong, Some, Little, if any, or No feelings for the partner.

Alcohol Consumption: Please indicate the amount of alcohol consumed by both you and your partner.

Behaviors: Please check all behaviors that occurred during this interaction. In addition, note if you and/or your partner experienced orgasm

Contraception: Please check all of the methods of contraception that you used.

What Happened Immediately After: Please describe what happened after the interaction occurred: Stayed together and talked, Fell Asleep pretty quickly, I left pretty quickly, Partner left pretty quickly, Did something else together, Other, Prefer not to say.

Evaluations: Please evaluate the interactions using the scale given on the website. You will evaluate the interaction on the following dimensions.

Enjoyment: This is an indication of how much you enjoyed yourself and the interaction. This can be a measure of both your interpersonal enjoyment as well as your sexual enjoyment. A score of "1" would be not at all enjoyable for you while a score of "9" would be very enjoyable.

Intimacy: This is an indication of how close you felt to the other person present and how intimate you felt the interaction was. This includes both physical and emotional closeness. Sometimes actions speak louder than words and you may feel that you are close to someone more because of how they behave then because of what they say. A score of "1" would be not at all intimate while a score of "9" would be very intimate.

Desirability: This is an indication of how desirable you felt. In other words, did you feel that you were desirable to the person with whom you were interacting? Did they want you as much as you wanted them? If you felt that you were not very desirable to the other person, you would score this as a "1". On the other hand, if you felt very desired by your partner, you would score this as a "9".

In control: This is a measure of how in control you thought you were. Did you feel that you were in charge of the direction of the interaction or was the other person taking charge? If you felt that you were completely not in control, you would score that as a "1" but if you felt that you were completely in control, that would be a "9".

Respected: This is an indication of the degree to which you felt respected and valued as a person in the opinion of the person with whom you were involved. A score "1" would mean that you did not feel respected or valued at all while a score of "9" would signify that you felt very respected and valued by that person.

Loved: This is an indication of the degree to which you felt your partner had romantic feelings toward you. This does not necessarily indicate that you felt the same about this person – only that they felt they had loving feelings toward you. For a score of "1", you would have not felt loved while a score of "9" would mean that you felt very loved by your partner.

Pressured: This is a measure of how pressured you felt by your partner. This could be a pressure to either say something or do something. For example, if you do not like peas but your mother wants you to eat them, you could be pressured to say you like peas and/or to eat peas. Either way, you are being pressured to do/say something you would not usually do or like to do. If during the course of the interaction, you never felt pressured, then you would record a "1". If on the other hand, you felt very pressured by your partner or the situation, you would record a "9".

Remaining Questions: The remaining questions ask you about your previous intentions and your future intentions with this partner.

If you have any questions or need anything clarified, please feel free to contact me either by email or by phone! And again, thank you for your participation!

Appendix J

<u>Internet Instructions</u>

Website Address: The website address is: <u>http://staff.wm.edu/psy/inter00</u>. From this page, you can get to all the parts of the study that you need to access, from the sexual experience forms to the questionnaires to the registration page. This should always be your starting point and you will need to long onto this site at least ONCE a day.
<u>The 3 parts of the study:</u>
1. The Questionnaires – you only need fill this out once. It can be done at any point during the study but it needs to be done before the follow-up session. To fill these out, click on the QUESTIONNAIRES button on the main page.

2. The Daily Forms – you fill out this form every day during the course of the study. To fill out this form, click on the DAILY FORMS button on the main page.

3. The Sexual Experience Form – you will need to fill this form out every time you have a sexual interaction. To fill out this form, click on the EXPERIENCE button on the main page.

Accuracy: Due to the nature of collecting data on the web, each time you log on, the computer database records when you log on, what data you submit, and how long you are on-line. In this way, we are able to monitor your commitment to the study. Please do not try and make up data. The success of my research depends on your honestly and your commitment to the study.

What to do if you miss a day without a sexual interaction: If you miss a day, DO NOT try to go back and make it up. Simply, fill out the daily form for the next day. For example, if I forget to fill out the daily form on Tuesday night, I would simply fill out the daily form on Wednesday night with feelings about Wednesday – I would not try and make up Tuesday.

What if I have a sexual interaction late at night?: If you go out and you end up having a sexual interaction that results in you not returning home until the next day, this is completely okay and to be expected. You have several options of what to do.

1. If it is late at night and you decide to go out to a location where you might end up having a sexual interaction from which you might not return that evening, you may go ahead and fill out the regular DAILY FORM before you go out. When you return the next morning and if you have had a sexual interaction, fill out the EXPERIENCE FORM and click on the MORNING button. That night, you will fill out the DAILY FORM as usual.

2. If it is late at night and you decide to go out to a location where you might end up having a sexual interaction from which you might not return that evening, you may fill out all the forms the next day. Upon returning home, fill out the DAILY form for the day before. Then fill out the EXPERIENCE form and click the MORNING button afterwards.

3. If you have a sexual interaction and you return home the same evening, follow the regular drill.

What if I have more than one sexual interaction?: If you have more than one sexual interaction with a given partner in a single evening (or one at night and one in the morning, for example), describe both separately. Once you fill out the EXPERIENCE form once, click the ANOTHER FORM button to do it again.

How soon after the interaction should I fill out the EXPERIENCE form?: As soon as possible afterwards! We realize that it is not always convenient to do this immediately afterwards so you definitely have some time leeway here.

Any questions? – Just contact me! Carrie Smith (XXX)XXX-XXXX

VITA

Carrie Veronica Smith

Carrie was born in Lynchburg, Virginia on October 23, 1977. She graduated from Heritage High School in Lynchburg, Virginia in June of 1995. She received her Bachelor of Arts Degree from the College of William & Mary in Williamsburg, Virginia with a double major in Psychology and Government in May of 1999. In addition, she graduated with high honors in Psychology with her undergraduate thesis entitled, "Pre-morbid Social Functioning and the Three Dimensional Model of Schizophrenia."

She continued her studies at William & Mary where she began pursuing her Master of Arts degree in Psychology in August 1999. Her first year of study included a research project focusing on social interaction and in-group/out-group behavior in sorority and fraternity undergraduates. In addition to her academic commitments, the author also was involved in the Graduate Student Association and held the graduate student position on the university-wide Graduate Steering Committee.

Beginning in the fall of 2001, she will be attending the University of Houston in Houston, Texas. She will be pursuing her Ph.D. in social psychology and plans to continue researching social psychology and human sexuality.