



Wayne State University

Wayne State University Theses

1-1-2014

Predictors Of Positive And Negative Affect Following Casual Sex

Jacqueline Woerner
Wayne State University,

Follow this and additional works at: http://digitalcommons.wayne.edu/oa_theses

 Part of the [Psychology Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Woerner, Jacqueline, "Predictors Of Positive And Negative Affect Following Casual Sex" (2014). *Wayne State University Theses*. Paper 359.

This Open Access Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by DigitalCommons@WayneState. It has been accepted for inclusion in Wayne State University Theses by an authorized administrator of DigitalCommons@WayneState.

PREDICTORS OF POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE AFFECT FOLLOWING CASUAL SEX

by

JACQUELINE WOERNER

THESIS

Submitted to the Graduate School

of Wayne State University,

Detroit, Michigan

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

2014

MAJOR: PSYCHOLOGY
(Cognitive, Developmental, & Social)

Approved by:

Advisor

Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would first like to acknowledge my advisor, Dr. Toni Abbey for her unwavering support and mentorship. Her feedback and encouragement has been integral to my professional accomplishments, especially this thesis. I want to thank the other members of my thesis committee, Dr. Tim Bogg and Dr. Rich Slatcher, for their insight and guidance throughout this process. I would also like to thank Dr. Larry Williams for his statistical advice on this project, and my colleague Dr. Rhiana Wegner for all her help the past two years and serving as a great role model. I want to recognize the Wayne State University Graduate School and Department of Psychology for funding this research. Lastly, I want to acknowledge Bill Nye the Science Guy for showing me that “science rules”!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgements	ii
List of Tables	v
List of Figures	vi
CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION	1
<i>Historical Background and Emergence of the Hookup Culture</i>	1
<i>Double Standards and Sexual Scripts</i>	3
<i>Current Casual Sex Norms</i>	5
<i>Evolutionary Perspectives and Gender Differences in Casual Sex</i>	8
<i>Casual Sex Backlash and Consequences</i>	10
<i>The Current Study</i>	11
<i>Summary of Hypotheses</i>	22
CHAPTER 2 – METHOD	25
<i>Participants</i>	25
<i>Procedures</i>	25
<i>Measures</i>	26
CHAPTER 3 – RESULTS	32
<i>Preliminary Data Analyses</i>	32
<i>Tests of Hypotheses 1-6</i>	34
<i>Preparation for Structural Equation Modeling</i>	39
<i>Structural Equation Modeling</i>	41
CHAPTER 4 - DISCUSSION	47
<i>Interpretation of Findings</i>	48

<i>Strengths and Limitations</i>	52
<i>Suggestions for Future Research</i>	55
<i>Practical Implications</i>	57
Appendix A – Demographic Questionnaire	77
Appendix B – Casual Sexual Experiences	80
Appendix C – Sexual Assertiveness	89
Appendix D – Traditional Gender Role Stereotypes.....	91
Appendix E – Impulsivity	92
Appendix F – Alcohol Use	94
Appendix G – Alcohol Expectancies	96
Appendix H – Peer Approval of Casual Sex.....	98
References	99
Abstract.....	113
Autobiographical Statement	114

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables	60
Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables: Comparison of Mechanical Turk and SONA	61
Table 3: Correlations among Study Variables: Scales and Model-Relevant Items.....	62
Table 4: Correlations among Indicators.....	63
Table 5: Model Fit Indices	64
Table 6: CFA: Standardized Factor Correlations (Phi Matrix)	65
Table 7: CFA: Standardized Factor Loadings (Lambda-X Matrix).....	66
Table 8: Standardized Parameter Estimates of Theoretical Model	67
Table 9: Effects Decomposition for Theoretical Model of Study Variables on Positive Affect and Negative Affect.....	68

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: Theoretical Model.....	69
Figure 2: Moderating Effect of Gender	70
Figure 3: Curvilinear Effect of Alcohol Intoxication on Negative Affect.....	71
Figure 4: Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).....	72
Figure 5: Structural Model	73
Figure 6: Structural Model (Full Sample) Standardized Estimates	74
Figure 7: Structural Model (Men Only) Standardized Estimates.....	75
Figure 8: Structural Model (Women Only) Standardized Estimates	76

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Historical Background and Emergence of the Hookup Culture

Sex is one of the most important forms of human interaction (Abramson & Pinkerton, 2002). Its purpose is clear and its relevance for our species' continuation stands without question. Casual sex specifically can be defined as a sexual encounter or relationship that is often superficial, impulsive, and based on sexual desire or physical attraction (Regan & Dreyer, 1999). The relationship is normally not defined as romantic, and partners do not consider the person their boyfriend or girlfriend (Grello, Welsh & Harper, 2006). Casual sex is an act that typically involves little forethought and is based largely on immediate sexual gratification.

The prevalence of casual sex throughout history is unclear. There is presumably a discrepancy between the true prevalence and reported prevalence of casual sex, especially in the past, due to risks of social consequences (Greenwood & Gruner, 2010). It is certainly not a new behavior, but the extent to which it has become commonplace and acceptable is an apparently new phenomenon. Premarital and extramarital sexual relationships have existed in most cultures throughout history, but the concepts of “no strings attached” and “friends with benefits” have presumably only been typical in recent decades. It was not until the introduction of the birth control pill and other effective methods of contraception in the mid-20th century that society saw a bifurcation of reproduction and sex for pleasure alone (Abramson & Pinkerton, 2002). This effectively contributed to the sexual liberation period in the United States in which individuals (particularly women) became more sexually expressive (Malhotra, 2008). Casual sex

gained acceptance through the sexual revolution and “free love” initiatives in the 1960s in which social change facilitated the freedom of sexuality and a mutual interest of both men and women in women’s sexual desires (Godbeer, 2004; Greenwood & Gruner, 2010; Wouters, 1998). Women’s social and political rights have improved tremendously in recent years, undoubtedly altering their role in sexual relationships (Greenwood & Gruner, 2010; Malhotra, 2008). This substantial change in sexual morality and sexual behavior encompassed an increase in acceptance of sex outside of traditional monogamous relationships, although still less so for women than for men (Crawford & Popp, 2003).

Several factors have contributed to the emergence of this hookup culture, including the “historically unprecedented time gap” between reproductive age and marriage (Garcia & Reiber, 2008; Garcia, Reiber, Massey, & Merriwether, 2012, p. 172). Whereas in the past it was not unusual for couples to marry in their teenage years, marriage is now being delayed due to the prioritization of careers and other personal ambitions over marriage and family life (Goldin & Katz, 2000). Earlier onset of puberty has also increased this gap (Garcia & Reiber, 2008). With increased cultural permissiveness of premarital sex, the number of average sex partners in one’s lifetime (or before marriage) has risen dramatically in the past century (Greenwood & Gruner, 2010). Through the encouragement of sexual experimentation and changing social norms, not all of these sexual encounters occur within the context of a committed romantic relationship (see Garcia, Reiber, Massey, & Merriwether 2012, for a review).

Changing cultural and societal values have also arguably played a role in the emergence of casual sex as a common behavior (Regnerus, 2007). Strong religious beliefs are linked to sexual conservatism. However, data from a recent survey found that

religiosity in the United States has reached an all-time low, with 19.6% of Americans reporting “no religious affiliation,” with this effect particularly pronounced in men and individuals under 30 years of age (“Nones on the rise”, 2012). This decrease in religiosity may have partly contributed to a decrease in sexual conservatism, and in extension, the rise of casual sex as normative behavior.

The study described in this paper examines the factors related to men’s and women’s self-reported positive and negative affect after a casual sexual experience. First, the relevant literature is reviewed and then the hypotheses are described in detail.

Double Standards and Sexual Scripts

There has been a longstanding double standard in that women are judged more harshly than men when they engage in premarital sex (see Crawford & Popp, 2003 for a review). This double standard has diminished and has arguably been replaced with a new double standard in which women are instead judged more harshly for engaging in sex outside of a committed relationship, i.e., casual sex (Crawford and Popp 2003; Peterson and Hyde 2010; Risman and Schwartz 2002). Although the majority of young American adults believe that premarital sex is acceptable within a romantic context, social expectations continue to define casual sex as acceptable for males and inappropriate for females (Crawford & Popp, 2003). This double standard, intertwined with sexual scripts, dictates what is and is not socially acceptable sexual behavior. A man who has had many sexual partners often receives praise and is perceived to be competent and masculine, whereas a woman who has had many sexual partners is frequently held in contempt. Many women experience dissonance when they are encouraged to be “sexy” yet not “sexual”, and struggle to balance maintaining respectability with expressing sexuality

(Crawford & Popp, 2003). The disparagement of women who engage in casual sexual activity is demonstrated not only by men but is also perpetuated by other women (Hynie, Lydon, Côté & Wiener, 1998; Jonason & Marks, 2009; Kelly & Bazzini, 2001). This stigma discourages many women from engaging in casual sex or hookups, and arguably contributes to the experience of negative affect following such behavior. In sum, women have been socialized to be sexually conservative (Clark & Hatfield, 1989). Furthermore, whereas most individuals are now reciprocally concerned with sexual pleasure in relationships (Armstrong, England, & Fogarty, 2012), reports from both men and women suggest that men are inattentive to women's pleasure in casual sex encounters, despite the finding that women generally are attentive to men's pleasure in both relationships and casual sexual encounters (Armstrong, England, & Fogarty, 2012).

Script Theory posits that sexual behavior is learned and that a script for social expectations is followed (Simon & Gagnon, 1986). These scripts dictate what behavior is appropriate in a sexual context, and are arguably gendered in the sense that sexual messages differ for men and women (Wiederman, 2005). Furthermore, sexual scripts operate on several different levels: cultural, interpersonal, and intrapsychic. Cultural scripts, which function at the societal, cultural, or sub-cultural level, are broad, general guidelines that dictate what is appropriate in terms of sexual desire, the relationship between sexual partners, and other aspects of sexual behavior. Interpersonal scripts are the result of individuals' experiences and socialization, thus narrowing and interpreting the cultural scripts. Intrapsychic scripts refer to the internalization of the cultural and interpersonal scripts, and operate to shape individuals' beliefs and attitudes (Hynie, Lydon, Côté & Wiener, 1998; Simon & Gagnon, 1986). At all levels, sexual scripts

determine sexual behavior and attitudes of groups and individuals, and ultimately also act to formulate expectations for women that differ from those of men (Simon & Gagnon, 1986).

This script also varies from culture to culture (Hatfield & Rapson, 1995; Becket & Macey, 2001). In some cultures, there are certain sexual practices that are either expected or forbidden, especially for women (Baumeister & Twenge, 2002). There is also punishment for violating rules and sexual norms; sexuality is encouraged in some cultures yet frowned upon and concealed in others (Hatfield & Rapson, 1995). There is variability within the United States, as a range of religious and ethnic groups exist that enforce different cultural norms.

As premarital and casual sex have become more commonplace and less stigmatized in contemporary culture, one can assume that a woman's likelihood of engaging in casual sex has also increased. Whereas it is estimated that only 6% of teenage females engaged in premarital sex in 1900, that number has risen to approximately 75% in the 2000s (Greenwood & Guner, 2010). Modern normative casual sexual behavior is partly the consequence of the further separation of sex for love, commitment, and pair-bonding with this "no strings attached" conceptualization of sex. This compartmentalization has developed into increased social acceptability of casual sex (Bogle, 2007).

Current Casual Sex Norms

Casual sex has become normative behavior in many social groups. This behavior serves several personal and societal purposes; particularly, it may increase self-esteem and feelings of being the object of desire, and may be a behavior that people undertake

in order to conform to societal pressures (Cialdini, 2007; Lewis et al., 2007). Hence, the emotions that individuals experience following casual sex, whether positive or negative, are not solely a consequence of the sexual activities alone, but also of the social and interpersonal elements linked to the casual sex experience. Furthermore, perceptions of prevalence of casual sex may be skewed by explicit references to sex (especially casual sex) in the media. Kunkel et al. (2005) found that 77% of prime time television shows contain references to sex, 35% of those concerning characters involved in casual sex. Additionally, 92% of songs in Top 10 lists in 2009 contained such references (Garcia, Reiber, Massey, & Merriwether, 2012; Hobbs & Gallup, 2011). Casual sexual behavior, not unlike any other form of human interaction, is greatly influenced by perceptions of others' behaviors (Chia & Gunther, 2006; Reiber & Garcia, 2010). Even if members of one's social group do not actually engage in casual sexual behavior, recurrent and continuous messages from media sources may lead one to believe otherwise. A study by Prentice and Miller (1993) demonstrated that students believed they were more uncomfortable with campus alcohol consumption relative to their peers. Men (but not women) consequently shifted their attitudes to be more congruent with the perceived social norm, specifically in that they reported greater comfort with alcohol use over time. The results also indicated that perceived deviance from the norm is associated with social alienation, and it is likely that these results can be generalized to other behaviors including casual sex. For instance, another study found that 78% of individuals overestimated peers' comfort with various sexual behaviors (Lambert, Kahn, & Apple, 2003).

A rise in acceptance of casual sexual behavior has also occurred alongside a decline of traditional dating and courting behavior (Bradshaw, Kahn, & Saville, 2010;

Bogle, 2007; Glenn & Marquardt, 2001; Stinson, 2010). Rather than relationships forming in person or on the basis of telephone conversations and planned dates, they often develop through texting, “hanging out”, and “hooking up” (Bergdall et al, 2012). It is not entirely clear as to whether individuals actually find this hookup culture preferable to dating; however, some research suggests that many individuals still idealize dating relationships. The majority of both college-age men (77.5%) and women (95.3%) in one survey reported that they would prefer a traditional dating relationship opposed to a strictly sexual relationship (Bradshaw, Kahn, & Saville, 2010; Garcia, Reiber, Massey, & Merriwether, 2012). Despite this finding, in another study, college students reported having twice as many hookups as first dates (Bradshaw, Kahn, & Saville, 2010). Although casual sex among friends and acquaintances is much more common than among strangers, it is not unusual for casual sex to occur among people who have just met at a bar or party (Grello, Welsh, & Harper, 2006). Casual sex appears to be most common in young adult and college populations, as 70% of respondents in one college student sample reported engaging in sex with partners not considered to be romantic (Feldman, Turner, & Araujo, 1999). However, studies have found that this phenomenon is a widespread occurrence rather than a behavior isolated to these subgroups (Grello, Welsh, Harper, & Dickson, 2003). In an online survey of a community sample of adults with a mean age of 21 years, 73% of men and 40% of women reported that they had accepted casual sex offers at some point in the past (Conley, 2010). Additionally, in a nationally representative sample of 1,536 adults 18-89, 18% reported engaging in casual sex in the previous year (Wright, 2011). It has been determined that casual sex is common among various demographics, yet is it also imperative to note gender differences in both

willingness to engage in casual sex, as well as affective experiences associated with casual sex.

Evolutionary Perspectives and Gender Differences in Casual Sex

Many researchers rely on an evolutionary-driven explanation of sexual behavior. Specifically, findings are often interpreted through Sexual Strategies Theory (SST) which proposes that women produce a limited number of children, and this limitation drives them to go to great lengths to ensure the survival of their children (Buss & Schmitt, 1993). Men on the other hand expend much less time and energy in reproduction and are more open to seek a variety of sexual partners in order to produce a greater number of offspring. It is this dynamic that leaves women with the role of deciding whether or not reproducing with a particular male is a good genetic risk. Thus, a woman will be much more selective in choosing a sexual partner. This theoretical approach thus offers one account for why men are more likely to endorse casual sex than women.

Although Sexual Strategies Theory is a viable explanation when one's goal is to procreate, it loses some legitimacy when the goal may be casual sex per se. To put this in perspective, the majority of college age males and females engaging in casual sex are not seeking to reproduce (Finer & Zolna, 2011; Leigh, 1989). If a woman is seeking a casual sex partner, a man's potential effectiveness as a father may not be relevant. Although unintentional pregnancy is always a risk when engaging in sex, proper use of birth control and other contraceptives effectively reduce or even eliminate this possibility. The sheer degree to which women engage in casual sex is also contradictory to this evolutionary perspective (Garcia, Reiber, Massey, & Merriwether, 2012). The evolutionary function of sexual pleasure is to motivate people to engage in activities likely

to result in conception (Buss & Schmidt, 1993). However, as this enticement is not restricted to reproductive sex, a divergence of the purpose and motivation for human sexuality has resulted (Abramson & Pinkerton, 2002). This evolutionary theoretical perspective only offers intuitive explanations for the reasons people engage in sex without intent to procreate (i.e., casual sex) such as the attainment of sexual pleasure. It may also lead to the maintenance of intimacy and reduction of interpersonal tension – though these are only pertinent in established relationships (Abramson & Pinkerton, 2002). Although the principles of evolutionary theory (e.g., Sexual Strategies Theory) are still relevant and in effect, they have been shaped extensively by social factors such that they are arguably no longer dominant in predicting casual sexual behavior (Lippa, 2009).

If there is one conclusion that can be drawn from these evolutionary theories to guide the understanding of current norms, it is that there are significant gender differences in sexual behavior, including casual sex. Meta-analyses suggest that some of the most robust gender differences are found in sexual behaviors (Peplau, 2003). However, there are also social and cultural factors that contribute to the motivation to engage in casual sex, the finding that women are less accepting of casual sex, and the positive and negative affect experienced after casual sex (Campbell, 2008; Conley, Ziegler, & Moors, 2012; Crawford & Popp, 2003; Fisher et al., 2012; Lewis et al., 2011; Owen & Fincham, 2011; Regan & Dreyer, 1999). Thus, the constructions of biological and social factors are difficult to disentangle.

Gender is an important element in partaking in casual sex. Emotional investment is much more important for women, and despite an increase in acceptability of sexual expression, women tend to have more restrictive attitudes toward casual sex than men

(Clark & Hatfield, 1989; Grello, Harper, & Welsh, 2006). Impett and Peplau (2003) found that a man's motivation behind casual sex is often to increase his sexual experience or peer status, whereas a woman is more likely to have casual sex in order to satisfy her partner or to increase intimacy in a potential relationship. Men typically have a higher sex drive than women, are more likely to have sexual affairs, are less discriminating in their mate choice, and view their own chastity as less important (Baumeister, Catanese, & Vohs, 2001; Daly & Wilson, 1979). Impett and Peplau (2003) also reported that men desire more lifetime sexual partners and are more motivated to seek casual sex partners than are women.

The media provides more precautionary advice for women, alerting them to the dangers of casual sex and encounters with unknown persons (Gustafson, 1998). Men have been shown to be more aggressive and violent, and therefore putting oneself in a vulnerable situation with a man (particularly a stranger) is considerably more dangerous than putting oneself in the same situation with a woman, consistent with Risk Perception Theory (Conley, 2010; Conley & Collins, 2002; Gustafson, 1998). Such risks may not only deter women from engaging in casual sex, but also presumably contribute to guilt and stigma after engaging in casual sex. This gender effect should be observed regardless of other underlying sexual receptivity predispositions.

Casual Sex Backlash and Consequences

The recent openness and permissiveness of current casual sex behaviors have not been met without backlash (Conley, Ziegler, & Moors, 2012; Malhotra, 2008; McIlhane & Bush, 2008; Regnerus, 2007). Common features of casual sex are a lack of commitment, ambiguous language, alcohol use, and social pressure to conform (Kelly,

2012). Many conservative groups have overtly expressed disdain and condemnation for casual sex for religious or moral reasons, including the noncompliance with family or spiritual values, whereas others have emphasized the negative consequences that can potentially result from behavior deemed risky (Regnerus, 2007; Malhotra, 2008; McIlhane & Bush, 2008). There has been emphasis on the type of person who engages in casual sex; judgments regarding moral inferiority of such individuals have been candidly expressed (Edger, 2012). Some adversaries have focused solely on the negative outcomes of casual sex, from the risk of pregnancy and sexually transmitted infections (STIs) to the potential for regret, shame, depression, relationship conflict, and other negative feelings that one might experience following casual sex (Malhotra, 2008; Grello, Welsh, & Harper, 2006). This risk of peer judgment and negative perceptions that potentially further negatively affect practitioners of casual sex has also been noted (Crawford & Popp, 2003). The common use of the term “hookup” is inherently ambiguous in that it can refer a broad range of sexual activities (from kissing to sexual intercourse) such that an equally broad range of peer expectations can be satisfied without disclosing too much or inviting criticism (Garcia, Reiber, Massey, & Merriwether, 2012).

The Current Study

The current study addresses the abovementioned issues with a focus on the emotional and relational aspects of health rather than physical health outcomes (e.g., disease) associated with casual sexual behavior. General attitudes, experiences, and feelings regarding casual sex are explored. More specifically, the purpose of this study is to identify and explore variables that influence positive and negative affect following casual sex.

A primary argument against casual sex aside from the risk of disease contraction is the potential for emotional distress following sex (Paul & Hayes, 2002; Owen et al., 2011; Fielder & Carey, 2010b). It is argued that people, especially young women, put themselves at great emotional risk when they engage in casual sexual behavior (Eisenberg et al., 2009; Grello, Welsh, & Harper, 2006; McIlhane & Bush, 2008; Townsend, Kline, & Wasserman, 1995). Approximately 32% of men and 72% of women in one survey reported that they do feel or would feel guilty about having sex with someone they had just met (Herold, & Mewhinney, 1993). Another study showed that 26.4% of women and 50.4% of men reported positive emotions after hooking up, 48.7% of women and 26% of men reported negative emotions, and 24.9% of women and 23.6% of men reported a mix of positive and negative emotions (Owen et al., 2010). Several other studies have reported similar results (Fielder & Carey, 2010b; Owen & Fincham, 2011). In contrast, in another study only 8% of respondents reported regret or embarrassment and 7% reported that they were scared or nervous following casual sex (Paul & Hayes, 2002). Little is known about individual differences that distinguish people who experience predominantly positive versus negative affect. Often, reasons for guilt include feelings of being used or feelings of using someone else (Campbell, 2008). It is also likely that individuals experience a combination of both positive and negative feelings following casual sex (Campbell, 2008).

What is missing in this line of research, however, are predictors of positive and negative affect. The sole study examining this relationship found that partner type, alcohol use, and attitudes towards hooking up explained significant variance for positive and negative affect related to hookups (Lewis et al., 2012). There are also individual

differences such as differential levels of sexual satisfaction, desire for a relationship and partner's desire, sexual assertiveness, belief in traditional gender roles, impulsivity, alcohol use and expectancies, and peer approval of casual sex that are hypothesized to be influential on the subsequent emotional response. As can be seen Figure 1, each of these constructs is included in the conceptual model. The following sections provide a rationale and specific hypotheses for each construct following casual sex.

Sexual satisfaction. Sexual satisfaction is an important, and arguably the most proximal factor to consider in terms of emotional appraisal following casual sex. It is hypothesized that both men and women who experience greater sexual satisfaction will report greater positive affect and less negative affect. However, gender differences in reported levels of sexual satisfaction are expected. Men are more likely than women to experience an orgasm during sex, especially in casual sex encounters (Armstrong Hamilton, & England, 2010; Kenneth & Yitzchak, 2001). Armstrong, Hamilton, and England (2010) found that women experience orgasm only 35% as often as men do in first-time casual sex encounters. However, because most research focuses on couples' sexual satisfaction within the context of committed romantic relationships, this construct must be examined more thoroughly in casual relationships (Armstrong, England, & Fogarty, 2012).

The reason that women do not receive as much pleasure from casual sex is partly attributable to differences in genital stimulation, comfort, and sexual practices (Armstrong, England, & Fogarty, 2012). As discussed earlier, Script Theory suggests sexual scripts dictate what behavior is appropriate in a sexual context, and are gendered in the sense that sexual messages differ for men and women (Simon & Gagnon, 1986; Wiederman,

2005). Women's preferences are often ignored, discouraging a woman from initiating sexual activity without some sort of established relationship (Armstrong, England, & Fogarty, 2012; Baumeister & Twenge, 2002). Armstrong, England, and Fogarty (2012) have identified four primary predictors of orgasm and sexual satisfaction: sexual practices, partner-specific learning over time, commitment and affection, and gender equality. In the context of casual sex, only two of these are relevant: sexual practices (effective genital stimulation), and gender equality (differences in power). Next, the mechanisms by which these factors influence positive and negative affect are explored.

To explain the findings demonstrated in past research regarding men's and women's differential interest in casual sexual activity and formulate hypotheses about affect following casual sex, it is imperative to look deeper into the motivation behind casual sex and the gender differences that exist. Perhaps most obvious motive for casual sex is sexual pleasure (Abramson & Pinkerton, 2002; Conley, 2010). Pleasure Theory explicates the idea of pleasure as a motivating factor for casual sex and suggests that sexual reproduction is a byproduct of pleasure, rather than the reverse, and that pleasure is evolutionarily favored (Abramson & Pinkerton, 2002). The gender difference in interest in casual sex partially exists in the potential for sexual pleasure that a male or female is likely to receive. Under the assumption that the primary motive for casual sex is sexual satisfaction, a casual sexual encounter offers little more than the pleasurable encounter per se, and if one gender experiences greater pleasure than the other, then this would explain why gender differences in casual sexual behavior exist. If a woman is not likely to receive pleasure, then she has little reason to engage in such activity. Women therefore may reject men because they believe it is unlikely that men will provide them with an

orgasm. If this pleasure gap were to be narrowed such that the likelihood of pleasure and orgasm becomes equal for both genders, then willingness to engage in casual sex may also be equal. Whereas expectancies for sexual satisfaction (as determined by satisfaction in previous sexual experiences) may influence likelihood to engage in casual sex, it is also likely that sexual satisfaction in a given casual encounter influences the feelings that people experience following sex.

In addition to the hypothesis that sexual dissatisfaction increases negative feelings on a direct level (for the simple fact that, perhaps the primary goal of engaging in casual sex [attaining sexual pleasure], was not achieved), but not experiencing an orgasm during sex will also presumably affect these feelings in a more indirect manner, through sexual scripts. Under the assumption that the motivation to engage in casual sex is primarily for sexual pleasure, if a man (for example) is sexually satisfied (or “gets what he wants”) but the woman is not sexually satisfied (or does not “get what she wants”), then the woman would presumably report increased negative affect, specifically, she may feel “used”. This incongruence in goal attainment is in a sense indicative of a power differential. Because men are less likely to reciprocate sexually in casual situations and are typically dominant in the power hierarchy, women are not only more likely to report less sexual satisfaction relative to men, but also will likely report greater negative feelings (Armstrong, England, & Fogarty, 2012). This prediction is consistent with the finding that frequency of casual sex and depression are positively correlated for women but not men (Grello, Welsh, & Harper, 2006).

Not only are individuals in committed relationships more likely to report increased sexual satisfaction, but also people who have engaged in casual sex with a partner a

greater number of times are also likely to report greater sexual satisfaction with this partner. Individuals who had sex with a partner 3-5 times were over 40% more likely to have an orgasm, and those who hooked up more than 6 times with the same partner were over 6 times as likely to report having an orgasm (Armstrong, England, & Fogarty, 2012). Therefore, when asking participants about sexual satisfaction in their most recent casual sexual encounters, it is important to also determine the number of past sexual encounters with that partner.

Desire for a relationship. The influence on affect is further complicated by alternative motives to engage in casual sex, specifically the desire for a relationship that transcends the hookup context. In one study, 65% of women and 45% of men had hoped their casual sexual encounter would evolve into a committed romantic relationship (Owen & Fincham, 2011). However, only 8.2% of women and 4.4% of men in another study actually expected such a romantic relationship (Garcia & Reiber, 2008). It is possible that people who desired but did not expect or actually have a traditional romantic relationship will report greater negative feelings such as guilt or regret. It is hypothesized that the relationship between desire for relationship and affect will be moderated by the partner's desire for a relationship. One study indicated that individuals who had an interest in a romantic relationship prior to engaging in casual sex were more likely to experience orgasm and general enjoyment (Armstrong, England, & Fogarty, 2012). It is expected, however, that an incongruence between one's motivation for casual sex with the motivation of the sexual partner (i.e., desire for relationship or not) will lead to an increase in negative affect.

Sexual assertiveness. Sexual assertiveness is also predicted to increase positive and decrease negative affect following casual sex. Sexual assertiveness in this study is defined as the ability to initiate sex, feel comfortable expressing sexual desires, refuse unwanted activity, and negotiate sexual practices (Ménard, & Offman, 2009). In a more general sense, assertiveness is an aspect of interpersonal skills (Walker, Messman-Moore, & Ward, 2011). Through the ability to negotiate desired sexual practices, individuals who are sexually assertive are more likely to reach orgasm and report greater overall sexual satisfaction (Ménard, & Offman, 2009). It is proposed that sexual assertiveness will increase sexual satisfaction through this mechanism, and also increase positive affect and reduce negative affect following casual sex directly. In particular, women who are sexually assertive are expected to decrease the sexual power differential. Sexually assertive women are essentially able to demand that men are more attentive to their sexual desires in casual sexual encounters, despite the contradictory norm in which women's desires are ignored (Armstrong, England, & Fogarty, 2012). Women who are less sexually assertive are also more likely to be sexually victimized (Walker, Messman-Moore, & Ward, 2011). It is expected that a relationship between sexual assertiveness and positive affect will be present for both men and women, but that it will be significantly stronger for women.

Belief in traditional gender roles. Prior research has found that women who hold stronger beliefs in traditional gender roles are discouraged from negotiating sexual practices (Greene & Faulker, 2005; Leech, 2010). Although no known studies have examined the relationship between beliefs in traditional gender roles and affect following casual sex, traditional women are hypothesized to be lower in sexual assertiveness and

experience greater negative affect following casual sex. Belief in traditional gender roles may influence the way that sexual practices are negotiated (Amaro, 1995). Specifically, gender roles socialize women to be sexually passive, and consequently, women endorsing these traditional gender roles are less likely to be sexually assertive. Therefore, it is hypothesized that the relationship between gender roles beliefs and affect will be partially mediated by sexual assertiveness.

It has also been found that women holding more egalitarian gender role beliefs are more likely to engage in casual sex (Lucke, 1998). Thus, these women presumably experience greater positive affect following casual sex evidenced by the continuation of their behavior. Conversely, men with stronger beliefs in traditional gender roles are more likely to have had more sexual partners and less intimate sexual encounters (Copenhaver, Lash, & Eisler, 2000; Shearer et al., 2005). Again, increased casual sex is likely associated with less negative affective experiences. It is hypothesized that men who hold strong beliefs in traditional gender roles will experience greater positive affect following casual sex relative to men who hold weak traditional gender role beliefs. It is thought that women with more egalitarian beliefs are likely to adopt masculine sexual scripts and experience less dissonance regarding their sexual identity, less stigma, and consequently greater positive affect (Hefner & Oleshansky, 1976; Leech, 2010).

Impulsivity. Impulsivity, which predicts risky sexual decision making, is also expected to contribute to negative affect following casual sex. Impulsivity can be conceptualized as a lack of self-control and is represented by a lack of forethought, planning, and reflection, and engagement in behavior that involves little consideration of consequences (Schalling, 1978). Impulsive actions are generally ill conceived, rashly

expressed, risky, and frequently result in undesirable consequences (Daruna & Barnes, 1993). Specifically, sexual impulsivity is characterized by acting without deliberation and opting for short-term over long-term gains in sexual activities or decisions. Thus, it can be expected that individuals who are more concerned with instant gratification and lack impulse control will not only be more likely to engage in casual sex, but also be less likely to weigh consequences. They are likely to ultimately make a less emotionally informed decision regarding casual sex, and therefore consequently face more feelings of regret. Past research has found that impulsivity, especially the impulsive urgency domain, is related to the frequency of counterfactual emotions and thoughts such as guilt, regret, and shame (Schmidt & Van der Linden, 2009; Spears, 2006). However, impulsivity is not expected to be related to positive affect.

In addition, impulsivity has been consistently linked to greater alcohol consumption (Grano et al., 2004; Whiteside & Lynam, 2009). It is therefore expected that impulsivity will be related to greater alcohol consumption, which in turn has implications for affect following casual sex. This hypothesis is supported the Acquired Preparedness model of alcoholism risk, which posits that individual differences in personality traits (such as impulsivity) influence drinking behavior (Settles, Cyders, & Smith, 2008).

Alcohol use and expectancies. Individuals who frequently consume alcohol, particularly before or during sexual interactions are more likely to engage in casual sex (Kiene, Barta, Tennen, & Armeli, 2009; White, Fleming, Catalano, & Bailey 2009). A plethora of research supports the claim that the vast majority of casual sexual encounters include alcohol use (Fielder & Carey, 2010a; Lewis et al., 2011). Studies have found that approximately 61%-80% of casual sexual encounters follow alcohol consumption

(Downing-Matibag & Geisinger, 2009; Fielder & Carey, 2010a; Lewis et al., 2011). Both alcohol consumption and alcohol expectancies, particularly sex-related alcohol expectancies, are expected to contribute to affect following casual sex. Alcohol expectancy theory posits that individuals have preconceived notions about the effects of alcohol on behavior, and thus act in accordance with these conceptions when intoxicated (Abbey, McAuslan, Ross, & Zawacki, 1999).

Past research has found that typical weekly alcohol use was associated with greater positive affect and lower negative affect relating to the most recent hookup (Lewis et al., 2011). It is hypothesized that results from the current study will be consistent with these past findings. However, it is likely that this relationship is mediated by these sex-related alcohol expectancies, such that when a person believes that alcohol enhances positive affect, it will actually do so (Dermen & Cooper, 2000; Lewis et al., 2011). More specifically, increased regular alcohol consumption may lead one to believe through experience that alcohol has certain effects on behavior. It is important to note that this relationship is reciprocal, in that beliefs about alcohol's effects may lead one to consume more alcohol. However, due to constraints of the cross-sectional design of this study, it is hypothesized that expectancies will mediate the relationship between consumption and affect as these expectancies are viewed as more proximal to the affective outcome.

Furthermore, the number of drinks consumed during a hookup has been linked to greater negative affect following the hookup, perhaps attributable to the idea that alcohol not only contributed to the (potentially impulsive) decision to engage in casual sex, but also to potentially inadequate sexual performance (Lewis et al., 2011). It is predicted that the relationship between alcohol consumption during the sexual encounter and positive

affect will be curvilinear. This hypothesis will be tested, although separately from the structural model. A small amount of alcohol may serve as liquid courage or a social lubricant, consistent with many individuals' alcohol expectancies, however, a larger amount of alcohol may decrease sexual performance or impair cognitive functioning and memory (Peugh & Belenko, 2001; White, 2003).

Peer approval. It is also hypothesized that peer approval of casual sex will significantly decrease negative feelings following casual sex. Individuals are in general incredibly sensitive to the thoughts and judgments of their peers (Cialdini, 2007). The effects that normative influence has on sexual behavior are immense (Ali & Dwyer, 2011; Brandhorst, Ferguson, Sebby, & Weeks, 2012). In the context of sexual behavior, established group norms can either promote or thwart behavior such as casual sex (Fisher, 1988). When engaging in behaviors that contradict the endorsed norm, social sanctioning is likely (Fisher, 1988).

In terms of the perceptions of what others deem socially acceptable behavior, we draw upon the concept of injunctive norms. The utility of injunctive norms involves the differentiation of acceptable versus unacceptable actions (Park & Smith, 2007). These differ from descriptive norms, defined as perceptions of others' actual behavior as determined by observation without assigning judgment (Cialdini, 2007). Researchers have found that injunctive norms are most influential within close social networks with high group identity (Trafimow & Finlay, 2001). In such situations, social approval is particularly important for maintaining group membership and cohesion, and therefore individuals may be strongly motivated to adhere to injunctive norms (Larimer, Turner, Mallett, & Geisner, 2004). Only injunctive norms will be assessed in this study, as these

norms determine perceived peer acceptance of behavior likely to be associated with affect, whereas descriptive norms are likely to only be associated with likelihood to engage in casual sex rather than subsequent affect.

People are strongly motivated to be liked and accepted by others; being dissimilar facilitates social exclusion (Fisher, 1988). It is possible that anticipating criticism for engaging in behavior that is inconsistent with the established group norms is enough to abandon those deviant thoughts and behaviors. However, these norms can be misperceived. For example, in the context of sexual behavior, believing that one's friends do not use condoms also decreases the likelihood that condoms are used (Walter et al., 1992). If one engages in behavior that contradicts the perceived group norms, then stronger negative affect will be present. It is hypothesized that greater peer approval of casual sex will be associated with increased perceived positive affect and decreased perceived negative affect.

Summary of Hypotheses

Hypotheses 1-2: The relationship between sexual assertiveness and positive affect will be partially mediated by sexual satisfaction (H1); the relationship between sexual assertiveness and negative affect will be partially mediated by sexual satisfaction (H2).

Hypotheses 3-4: Gender will moderate the relationship between belief in traditional gender roles and positive affect (H3), specifically in that positive affect will increase for men and decrease for women; gender will moderate the relationship between belief in traditional gender roles and negative affect (H4), specifically in that negative affect will decrease for men and increase for women.

Hypotheses 5-6: There will be a curvilinear relationship between alcohol intoxication during the most recent casual sex encounter and positive affect, specifically in that positive affect will increase with a small to moderate amount of alcohol, and then decrease with larger amounts of alcohol; there will be a curvilinear relationship between alcohol consumption during the most recent casual sex encounter and negative affect, specifically in that negative affect will decrease with a small to moderate amount of alcohol, and then increase with larger amounts of alcohol.

Hypothesis 7: Men are expected to experience greater positive affect, less negative affect, and greater sexual satisfaction relative to women **(H7)**.

Structural equation modeling. Hypotheses 8-19: Increased sexual satisfaction will directly increase positive affect and decrease negative affect **(H8-9)**, peer approval of casual sex will directly increase positive affect and decrease negative affect **(H10-11)**, belief in traditional gender roles will directly influence affect (hypotheses above) and will also be partially mediated by sexual assertiveness **(H12)**. Additionally, higher levels of impulsivity will directly increase negative affect **(H13)**, and will also be directly related to increased alcohol consumption **(H14)**. The relationship between sexual assertiveness and affect following casual sex will be partially mediated by sexual satisfaction (hypotheses above). Furthermore, sex-related alcohol expectancies will directly increase positive affect and decrease negative affect **(H15-16)**. Increased general alcohol consumption will be mediated by sex-related alcohol expectancies **(H17)**, in that increased alcohol consumption will be associated with greater sex-related alcohol expectancies. Desire for a relationship, moderated by perceived partner's desire for a relationship, will increase positive and decrease negative affect **(H18-19)**.

Hypothesis 20: Gender will be tested as a dichotomous, categorical moderator of the structural model parameters (**H20**). With the exception of belief in traditional gender roles (hypotheses outlined above), it is expected that estimates for males and females will differ in magnitude, but directionality will not change. Several path estimates are expected to be moderated by gender; however, analyses regarding which specific paths will differ significantly are largely exploratory.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

Participants

One hundred participants were male and female undergraduate students from Wayne State University, and 485 participants were males and females living in the United States recruited through Amazon's Mechanical Turk. All participants were between the ages of 18 and 35 years. All participants were required to have engaged in casual sex (vaginal, oral, or anal sex with someone not considered to be a significant other at the time) at some point during the past three months. Gender of the partner was not an exclusion criteria.

Procedures

Participants were recruited in two ways. First, undergraduate Wayne State University students were recruited from the psychology research participation system (SONA). Participants who signed up for the study were redirected to the survey, hosted on Qualtrics. They were first presented with three prescreening questions to ensure that they were eligible for the study: the last time they engaged in casual sex, their gender, and age range. These criteria were also stated in the study advertisement. If eligible, they were then presented with the information sheet, and checked a box indicating that they agreed to participate before taking the survey. A unique survey code was generated by Qualtrics for each participant that was matched to the same code in SONA in order to grant 1 research credit for an eligible psychology course, thus ensuring confidentiality.

Participants recruited through Mechanical Turk were compensated with \$1.50 each. These participants were directed to the same survey on Qualtrics, via an

advertisement and link on mTurk. Upon completion of the survey, participants were given a survey code which they were required to enter back into the mTurk system in order to be compensated for their time.

Measures

Demographics. Information regarding participants' age, gender, ethnicity, current relationship status, socioeconomic status, and sexual orientation were collected.

Affect following casual sex. Positive and negative affect following participants' most recent casual sex encounter were assessed with a series of items. Participants first were asked an open ended question that was not coded for this thesis: "How did you feel immediately after this last instance of casual sex occurred?" Next they were asked "Overall, how positive or negative were your feelings immediately after this last instance of casual sex occurred?" with response options ranging from 1 (extremely negative) to 7 (extremely positive). Participants were then provided with a list of adjectives and report from 1 (not at all) to 7 (extremely) how much they felt that way immediately following their most recent casual sexual encounter. Half of the adjectives were positive (e.g., happy, satisfied, proud) and the other half were negative (e.g., guilty, used, upset). The lists, which can be found in Appendix B, were formulated by asking graduate and undergraduate students for ideas about how they or people they know may feel after casual sex. Most of the adjectives used in these lists have been used in past research assessing emotional reactions after sexual hook-ups and have demonstrated high face validity (Lewis et al., 2011). Two scales were formed based on the questions asking about affect immediately after participants engaged in casual sex: one for positive affect, and one for negative affect. The positive affect scale consisted of 12 positive adjectives as

well as overall extent of positive affect. This 13 item scale has a Cronbach's alpha of .92. The negative affect scale consisted of 17 negative adjectives as well as overall extent of negative affect. This 18 item scale has a Cronbach's alpha of .95.

Sexual satisfaction. Participants were asked to report their overall sexual satisfaction during their most recent casual sex encounter with three items. First, they were asked whether or not they experienced an orgasm during their most recent casual sex encounter (no/not sure/yes). They were also asked to report how sexually satisfied they were overall with this sexual experience using response options ranging from 1 (not at all) to 7 (extremely) as well as how sexually satisfied they felt immediately after they engaged in sex with response options ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (extremely). These questions were included in the section addressing characteristics of most recent casual sexual experience (see Appendix B for all items).

Desire for relationship. Participants were asked questions to assess their desire and perceived partner's desire for a relationship with their most recent casual sex partner beyond that particular sexual encounter. Specifically, participants were asked "What kind of relationship did you want just before this encounter occurred?" A series of response options were included: no further relationship, more sexual encounters but nothing else, a friendship with or without more sexual encounters, or a non-exclusive or exclusive dating relationship. They were also asked how they believed their sexual partner would have responded to this question, in order to assess participants' perceptions of their partner's desire for a relationship. See Appendix B.

Sexual assertiveness. The Hurlbert Index of Sexual Assertiveness (see Appendix C) was administered (Hurlbert, 1991). This measure consists of 25 items such as "I feel

comfortable telling my partner how to touch me”, “I approach my partner for sex when I desire it”, and “It is easy to discuss sex with my partner” with responses ranging from 0 (all the time) to 4 (never). Items indicative of high sexual assertiveness were reverse coded, consistent with the original measure, but because a high score means “never”, higher scores indicate higher levels of sexual assertiveness. This measure was chosen due to its applicability to all types of sexual relationships (e.g., casual, romantic) and its high internal consistency ($\alpha = .92$) and test-retest reliability (.85) demonstrated in prior studies (Hurlbert, 1991; Pierce & Hurlbert, 1999). One item, “Pleasing my partner is more important than my own pleasure” was significantly negatively correlated with the other items, so was deleted. Cronbach’s alpha for the remaining 24-item scale was .94.

Traditional gender role stereotypes. Participants were asked to indicate their agreement with 10 statements regarding sexual double standards (Caron et al., 1993). This measure was chosen for its ability to assess gender role stereotypes specifically relevant to sexual situations and attitudes (see Appendix D). Sample items include, “It is expected that a woman be less sexually experienced than her partner” and “In sex, the man should take the dominant role and the woman should assume the passive role” (Caron et al., 1993). One item, (A “good” woman would never have a one-night stand, but it is expected of a man) specifically refers to casual sex. Cronbach’s alpha = .88. Participants also indicated their agreement with 8 statements regarding general traditional and egalitarian gender role beliefs from Baber and Tucker’s (2006) measure on a 5-point scale. Sample items include “Only some types of work are appropriate for both women and men” and “Girls should be protected and watched over more than boys” (Baber & Tucker, 2006). Responses ranged from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree).

Cronbach's alpha for these 8 items = .87. Cronbach's alpha for the combination of the two gender role stereotypes scales (18 items) = .92.

Impulsivity. The 45-item UPPS (Urgency, Premeditation, Perseverance, and Sensation-Seeking) impulsiveness scale was administered to assess participants' impulsivity (Whiteside & Lynam, 2001). This measure was developed by administering a number of other validated measures of impulsivity and conducting factor analyses, examining the multi-faceted nature of impulsivity (see Appendix E). Specifically, this measure has an urgency subscale, representing the facet of impulsivity hypothesized to be most related to negative affect (Schmidt & Van der Linden, 2009). Sample items include "It is hard for me to resist acting on my feelings" and "Sometimes I do things on impulse that I later regret." responses ranging from 1 (agree strongly) to 4 (disagree strongly). Sensation-seeking was not hypothesized to be related to positive and negative affect, so only the three remaining subscales were included in analyses: Urgency (12 items, alpha = .88), Premeditation (11 items, alpha = .85), and Perseverance (10 items, alpha = .83). Items were coded such that higher scores on each subscale indicate higher levels of impulsivity. Cronbach's alpha for the 33-item scale, consisting of the three above-mentioned subscales is .91.

Alcohol consumption. Participants were asked questions about both their regular alcohol consumption and their alcohol consumption during their most recent casual sex encounter. They first reported on their general alcohol consumption: regular drinking frequency and quantity, heavy drinking frequency and quantity, and drinking on dates frequency and quantity (see Appendix F). The frequency and respective quantity variables were multiplied to form a frequency by quantity interaction term. Next, they were

asked to report how much alcohol they consumed before/during the sexual encounter, how much alcohol their partner consumed before/during the sexual encounter, how intoxicated they felt before/during the sexual encounter, and how intoxicated they believed their partner to be before/during the sexual encounter (see Appendix E).

Sex-related alcohol expectancies. Participants' expectancies regarding the effects of alcohol were assessed with ten items. Alcohol expectancies were assessed with the sexual affect (alpha = .89) and sexual drive (alpha = .95) subscales with five items each (Abbey et al., 1999). Sample items include "I want to have sex" and "I am sensual", with the stem phrase "If I were under the influence of a moderate amount of alcohol" (see Appendix G). These subscales have been used extensively in research and demonstrate high validity (Abbey et al., 1999). Participants responded on scale of 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much) regarding how much they agreed with each statement. The 10-item sex-related alcohol expectancies scale (sexual drive and sexual affect items) has an alpha of .95.

Peer approval of casual sex. Items from permissiveness subscale of the Brief Sexual Attitudes Scale were used to assess perceived peer approval of casual sex; this measure has been used in previous research to assess peer approval of casual sex (Hendrick, Hendrick, & Reich, 2006). Questions were modified such that they began with the stem phrase, "My friends think that..." The unadapted measure has been shown to have a Cronbach's alpha of .94 in past research (see Appendix H). In this study, the 10-item scale has Cronbach's alpha of .90. Response options range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Casual sex experiences. Participants were asked a series of questions about their previous casual sex experience, as well as further information regarding their most recent casual sexual encounter. These items were not analyzed in this paper, but were included in the survey for future analyses. Participants were first asked to report how frequently and how many times they have engaged in casual sex, as well as how many lifetime casual sexual partners they have had. Participants were also asked to recall their most recent casual sexual encounter (vaginal, anal, or oral) and respond to a series of questions about this specific encounter. Examples of items include: the sexual practices/activities that occurred during this encounter, their relationship with the partner, how many times they engaged in casual sex with this partner, how long they knew this partner, and, whether or not they used a condom. They were also asked to report whether or not their friends found out about the encounter, and if so, whether the reaction was positive or negative. Fifty total questions were asked about participants' casual sexual experiences.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Preliminary Data Analyses

General data cleaning. Data were collected using the Qualtrics survey hosting site, and participants were recruited from either SONA or Mechanical Turk. Two separate files were downloaded from Qualtrics to SPSS and were then merged into one file. A variable was created to identify participants as either SONA (coded as 1) or mTurk (coded as 2). All variables were carefully matched. A total of 673 individuals agreed to participate and completed at least some portion of the survey. This number was reduced to 585 (86.92%) after data cleaning. Data for 66 participants were deleted due to missing data that exceeded 25%. Data for ten individuals who did not understand the definition of casual sex (indicated by writing in husband, wife, boyfriend, girlfriend, or fiancé for relationship with casual sex partner) were deleted. Data for an additional 12 participants were deleted due to long strings of the same response choice.

After case deletions, all variables were assessed for missing data. No variable was missing more than 5% of data, indicating that mean substitution would be appropriate to replace missing values (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). For participants missing an entire scale, mean substitution was performed at the scale level. For participants missing only a few items within a scale, missing items were replaced with the mean of that individual's existing scale items. For all other variables, mean substitution was conducted at the item level. For the alcohol consumption variables, some missing data were expected due to skip and branching logic. If participants indicated that they had never consumed alcohol, then other alcohol variables (e.g., intoxication during sexual encounter, frequency of

drinking during sexual encounters) were coded to reflect “not at all” or “never”. For individuals who reported consuming alcohol at some point, mean substitution was used at the item level.

The distributions of variables were assessed for normality by assessing skew and kurtosis. Winsorization was used for significantly skewed variables in which participants responded with a number to an open ended question: number of sexual partners, times engaged in casual sex, and number of alcoholic drinks consumed (Wilcox, 2001). Normality criteria were not violated for any other study variables, thus no other data transformations were performed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Established scale items were combined such that they were consistent with original scale specifications.

Descriptive information. Participants were, on average, 26 years old at the time of survey completion ($M = 26.20$; $SD = 4.84$). Participants were also asked to report their ethnicity: 67.5% ($n = 395$) self-identified as Caucasian/White, 11.3% ($n = 66$) as African American/Black, 8.7% ($n = 51$) as Asian/East Asian/Pacific Islander, 4.4% ($n = 26$) as Hispanic, 3.9% ($n = 23$) as Multiracial, 2.6% ($n = 15$) as Arab/Middle Easterner, 0.9% ($n = 5$) as American Indian, and 0.4% ($n = 4$) as Other. The median annual income was \$30,000 to \$39,999. Approximately two-thirds of the sample indicated that they were not in an exclusive relationship with a romantic partner ($n = 389$). The length of time since the last instance of casual sex ranged from in the past day to three months ago: 8.4% ($n = 49$) engaged in casual sex in the past day, 25.3% ($n = 148$) more than a day but less than a week ago, 32.1% ($n = 188$) more than a week but less than a month ago, and 34.2% ($n = 200$) engaged in casual sex 1 to 3 months ago. Participants had a mean of 8.25 lifetime casual sex partners ($Md = 5.00$, $SD = 9.45$) and engaged in casual sex a mean of 36.02

($Md = 15.00$, $SD = 50.57$) total times. Approximately 91% of the sample ($N = 531$) indicated that they were exclusively or mostly heterosexual.

As can be seen in Table 1, on average men and women had significantly different scores on many of the study constructs. As hypothesized, men reported greater positive affect than women, $t(583) = 2.64$, $p = .009$; however, men did not report less negative affect relative to women, $t(583) = -1.05$, $p = .296$. As expected, men also reported greater sexual satisfaction compared to women, $t(583) = 3.89$, $p < .001$ (Hypothesis 7). Although not the focus of this study, men also reported greater peer approval of casual sex and higher endorsement of traditional gender roles. Women reported greater desire for a relationship, greater sexual affect alcohol expectancies, and higher levels of impulsivity. This last finding contradicts past research in which men typically score higher on impulsivity than women (Cross, Copping, & Campbell, 2011).

Table 2 compares the mean responses of participants recruited through mTurk and participants recruited through the Wayne State University psychology department SONA system. As can be seen from the table, mTurk participants were older, more sexually assertive, perceived more peer approval for casual sex, and reported more sexual satisfaction as compared to SONA participants. Sex drive alcohol expectancies, sexual gender roles, and desire for a relationship were higher for SONA participants as compared to mTurk participants. The mTurk sample had a higher proportion of men (282 men, 203 women; 58.14%) compared to SONA participants (27 men, 73 women; 27%). It is possible that many of the differences between mTurk and SONA sample in study variables (e.g., sexual satisfaction) are a result of the distribution of gender.

Bivariate correlations. Bivariate correlations among all of the items were assessed prior to conducting inferential statistical analyses in order to verify that the expected relationships were present and assess problems of multicollinearity. Items within the same scale were highly correlated as expected. Next, bivariate relationships between study variables were assessed. These correlations are presented in Table 3. Most hypothesized relationships between scales and model-relevant items were significant, however some hypothesized relationships exhibited nonsignificant correlations. Specifically, belief in traditional gender roles was significantly correlated with negative affect but not positive affect, and alcohol expectancies were significantly correlated with positive affect but not negative affect. However, neither desire for a relationship nor any of its relevant interaction terms were significantly correlated with positive or negative affect, so were not included in the subsequent analyses.

Tests of Hypotheses 1-6.

Mediation: Hypotheses 1-2. It was hypothesized that the relationship between sexual assertiveness and positive affect would be partially mediated by sexual satisfaction (H1) and that the relationship between sexual assertiveness and negative affect would be partially mediated by sexual satisfaction (H2). This was tested using Baron and Kenny's (1986) method for mediation analysis. In order to test for mediation using this method, it is required that a significant relationship must exist between the independent and dependent variable, the independent variable and mediator variable, and the mediator and dependent variable. A drop in the standardized regression coefficient of the independent variable predicting the dependent variable after including

the mediator variable is indicative of mediation. If the regression coefficient is still significant, then there is partial mediation.

To test H1: Sexual assertiveness (IV) significantly predicted positive affect (DV), $b = -1.56$, $t(583) = 9.74$, $p = < .001$; sexual assertiveness (IV) significantly predicted sexual satisfaction (med), $b = 0.14$, $t(583) = 8.56$, $p = < .001$; and sexual satisfaction (med) significantly predicted positive affect (DV), $b = 1.14$, $t(583) = 14.94$, $p = < .001$. When including both sexual assertiveness and sexual satisfaction in the model, sexual assertiveness was still a significant predictor of positive affect, $b = 0.24$, $t(582) = 6.16$, $p = < .001$. There was a drop in the standardized regression coefficient from 0.37 to 0.22. Therefore, the results indicate significant partial mediation as hypothesized. A bootstrapped 95% confidence interval based on 10000 samples for the mediating effect was computed using Preacher and Hayes' (2004) method, and found a significant mediating effect of sexual satisfaction ($SE = .02$, $CI = .17, .25$). A Sobel test was conducted and found a 72.27% indirect effect and 27.73% direct effect, $z = 10.64$, $p = < .001$.

To test H2: Sexual assertiveness (IV) significantly predicted negative affect (DV), $b = -0.46$, $t(583) = -11.01$, $p = < .001$; sexual assertiveness (IV) significantly predicted sexual satisfaction (med), $b = 0.14$, $t(583) = 8.56$, $p = < .001$; and sexual satisfaction (med) significantly predicted negative affect (DV), $b = -0.21$, $t(583) = -12.10$, $p = < .001$. When including both sexual assertiveness and sexual satisfaction in the model, it was found that sexual assertiveness was still a significant predictor of negative affect, $b = -0.33$, $t(582) = -8.00$, $p = < .001$. There was a drop in the standardized regression coefficient from -0.42 to -0.30. Therefore, the results indicate significant partial mediation

as hypothesized. A bootstrapped 95% confidence interval based on 10000 samples for the mediating effect was computed, and suggested a significant mediating effect of sexual satisfaction ($SE = .02$, $CI = -.21, -.12$). A Sobel test was conducted and found a 59.93% indirect effect and 40.07% direct effect, $z = -8.42$, $p < .001$.

Moderation: Hypotheses 3-4. It was hypothesized that gender would moderate the relationship between belief in traditional gender roles and positive affect (H3), specifically in that positive affect would increase for men and decrease for women as traditional beliefs increased. It was also hypothesized that gender would moderate the relationship between belief in traditional gender roles and negative affect (H4), specifically in that negative affect would decrease for men and increase for women as traditional beliefs increased.

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine whether the association between belief in traditional gender roles and positive affect was moderated by gender. The two centered predictors were entered on Step 1 and the interaction term was entered on Step 2. On Step 1, there was a significant main effect of gender, $b = -.18$, $t(582) = -2.93$, $p = .004$, but not for gender role beliefs, $b = -.06$, $t(582) = -1.47$, $p = .143$. Model fit improved significantly with the inclusion of the interaction term on Step 2, $\Delta R^2 = .007$, $F\text{-change}(1,581) = 3.91$, $p = .048$; $b = -.16$, $SEb = .08$, $\beta = -.34$, $t(581) = -1.98$, $p = .048$. A bootstrapped 95% confidence interval based on 10000 samples for the interaction effect was computed using Preacher and Hayes' (2004) method, ($SE = .08$, $CI = -.32, .00$). As can be seen in Figure 2, higher endorsement of traditional gender role beliefs was associated with decreased positive affect for women, and no change in affect for men.

A complementary hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine whether the association between belief in traditional gender roles and negative affect is moderated by gender. The two centered predictors were entered on Step 1, and the interaction term was entered on Step 2. In Step 1, there was a significant main effect of both gender, $b = 0.15$, $t(582) = 2.38$, $p = .018$, and gender role beliefs, $b = .22$, $t(582) = 5.45$, $p < .001$. Model fit did not significantly improve with the inclusion of the interaction term on Step 2, $\Delta R^2 = .001$, $F\text{-change}(1,581) = 0.63$, $p = .428$; $b = 0.06$, $SEb = .08$, $\beta = 0.13$, $t(581) = 0.79$, $p = .428$, suggesting that gender does not moderate the relationship between gender role beliefs and negative affect. A bootstrapped 95% confidence interval based on 10000 samples for the interaction effect also indicated no significant effect, ($SE = .08$, $CI = -.10, .22$).

Trend analysis: Hypotheses 5-6. It was hypothesized that there would be a curvilinear relationship between alcohol intoxication during the most recent casual sex encounter and positive affect, specifically in that positive affect will increase with mild intoxication, and then decrease with higher intoxication. It was also hypothesized that there would be a curvilinear relationship between alcohol intoxication during the most recent casual sex encounter and negative affect, specifically in that negative affect will decrease with mild intoxication, and then increase with higher intoxication.

To test these hypotheses, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted using a computed squared term for level of intoxication in order to test for a quadratic trend. Intoxication was assessed on a five-point scale ranging from not at all intoxicated to extremely intoxicated. The linear term was entered on Step 1, and the quadratic trend on Step 2. For positive affect, there was no significant linear trend on Step 1, $b = -.033$, $t(583)$

= -1.17, $p = .244$. The quadratic term was also nonsignificant on Step 2 for positive affect, $b = -.043$, $t(582) = -1.56$, $p = .119$. The mean level of positive affect for each level of intoxication was visually inspected; no pattern was evident.

In parallel analyses examining the effect of alcohol intoxication on negative affect, there was a significant linear trend on Step 1, $b = .113$, $t(582) = 3.89$, $p < .001$. Additionally, on Step 2 there was a significant quadratic trend for the effect of alcohol intoxication on negative affect, $b = .063$, $t(582) = 2.28$, $p = .023$. As can be seen in Figure 3, negative affect decreases slightly when comparing participants who were not at all intoxicated to participants who were slightly intoxicated, and then it steadily increases when comparing participants who were somewhat, very, or extremely intoxicated.

Preparation for Structural Equation Modeling

Necessary prerequisites for structural equation modeling (SEM) were established prior to specifying the proposed structural model. An appropriate sample size is necessary to ensure that the model is overidentified. A minimum sample size of 200 is necessary to avoid modeling and interpretation errors when using maximum likelihood procedures (Boomsma & Hoogland, 2001). Thus, the sample is sufficient for the proposed analyses ($N = 585$) based on this criterion. Additionally, scale items were aggregated using a parceling approach (Williams & O'Boyle, 2008).

Partial disaggregation of indicators. In order to maximize the sample to parameter ratio, scales with more than five items were aggregated using partial disaggregation (Williams & O'Boyle, 2008). Partial disaggregation, or parceling, utilizes the sum or average of items to create indicators for a latent variable (Williams & O'Boyle, 2008). This involved the following scales: positive affect, negative affect, impulsivity,

sexual assertiveness, peer approval, belief in traditional gender roles, and alcohol expectancies. Unidimensional constructs (i.e., positive affect, negative affect, sexual assertiveness, and peer approval) were parceled using an item-to-construct balance approach, in which items with the highest standardized factor loadings are used to anchor the parcels. Items are then applied to the parcels in an inverted order based on factor loadings (Williams & O'Boyle, 2008). Multidimensional constructs (i.e., impulsivity, belief in traditional gender roles, and alcohol expectancies) were parceled using a domain-representative approach, in which items from different facets of the construct are distributed and balanced across parcels. For all scales, three to four parcels were created. Constructs with fewer than six items were aggregated utilizing total disaggregation, in which each item formed an indicator (i.e., sexual satisfaction, alcohol consumption). Bivariate correlations among the indicators were assessed and are presented in Table 4. Findings are consistent with the correlations among the scales and model-relevant items.

Model identification. Model identification for structural equation modeling is dependent upon the number of parameters being estimated and the degrees of freedom of the model. The degrees of freedom for the proposed model was estimated using the formula: $n(n+1)/2$ to compute the number of elements in the covariance matrix (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006), where n is the number of indicator variables included in the model. The number of parameters being estimated in the model is then subtracted from this value to determine the number of available degrees of freedom. Twenty-eight observed variables were included in the CFA and structural model. For the CFA, 92 parameters were estimated, therefore leaving 314 degrees of freedom. For the structural model, 75

parameters were estimated, and therefore there were 331 degrees of freedom. Both were over-identified models, which is necessary to run the proposed analyses.

Structural Equation Modeling

Model specification. Structural equation modeling was used to assess the CFA model, the theoretical structural model, as well as appropriate model comparisons. LISREL 8.80 was utilized to conduct all analyses. Data were imported from SPSS into LISREL, and a covariance matrix was generated within LISREL. A maximum likelihood method of estimation was used. Models were first assessed with the full sample, then a multi-sample test was conducted to assess the moderating effect of gender on the model parameters.

Confirmatory factor analysis. For the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), all latent variables were allowed to intercorrelate. Model specification for the CFA can be seen in Figure 4. As can be seen in Table 5 (CFA column), results of the CFA suggest good fit, as demonstrated by the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and other incremental fit indices. Discriminant validity of latent constructs was assessed: there were no issues of multicollinearity. As can be seen in Table 6, all factor correlations ranged from 0.02 to 0.73.

The quality of all indicators was also assessed. As can be seen in Table 7, all factor loadings were significant, indicating that each indicator was associated with the latent construct. The variance explained in each indicator was generally high, as the Squared Multiple Correlations exceeded .60 for 26 of the 28 indicators, indicating that at least 60% of the variance in the indicator was explained by each latent construct. Two indicators (one alcohol expectancies variable and one sexual satisfaction variable) had only 41%

and 33% variance explained respectively, however the factor loadings were still significant. Reliability of all latent variables was assessed by dividing the sum of the squared completely standardized factor loadings by the sum of the squared completely standardized factor loadings plus the sum of the completely standardized error variances. All composite latent variable reliabilities were high, ranging from .81 (sexual satisfaction) to .96 (negative affect).

Structural model. The variance of exogenous latent variables (peer approval, impulsivity, and belief in traditional gender roles) was fixed and set to 1.0. The factor loading for one referent indicator of each endogenous latent variable (positive affect, negative affect, alcohol expectancies, alcohol consumption, sexual assertiveness, and sexual satisfaction) was also fixed and set to 1.0. This was done in order to achieve identification. The exogenous variables were allowed to intercorrelate. The error between positive affect and negative affect was allowed to covary. Model specification for the structural model can be seen in Figure 5.

Structural model results. Findings from the structural model analyses suggest overall good fit. Model fit indices for the structural model are presented in Table 5 (Structural Model column). The CFI and Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) were greater than .95, indicating good fit (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006). The RMSEA was .058 (90% confidence interval = .054, .063); a value less than .05 indicates good fit, and a value less than .08 suggests adequate fit (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006). The Chi-Square value did not indicate good fit, however this may be partly due to the fact that this statistic is often inflated with a large sample size (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006).

As can be seen in Table 7, the estimated Lambda X and Lambda Y matrix factor loadings demonstrate that each indicator is significantly associated with its respective latent construct. Correlations among the three exogenous constructs were also assessed. As can be seen in Figure 6, peer approval of casual sex and traditional gender roles, and traditional gender roles and impulsivity are significantly correlated, but peer approval of casual sex and impulsivity are not.

Directional paths were then assessed as estimated in the Gamma and Beta matrices. These estimates can be found in Table 8 and Figure 6. As hypothesized, sexual satisfaction and peer approval of casual sex were significantly associated with both positive and negative affect in the expected direction. Impulsivity was positively associated with negative affect as hypothesized, and sexual assertiveness was associated with negative affect in the expected direction but was not significantly associated with positive affect. However, traditional gender roles and sex-related alcohol expectancies were both positively associated with both positive affect and negative affect. These findings contradict both the theoretical hypotheses and the expectation based on the zero-order correlations. Regression and moderation analyses (H3-4) for traditional gender roles are consistent with the zero-order correlations. The result in the structural model may be due to suppression, and will be considered in the discussion. However, this effect for belief in traditional gender roles disappears when looking at estimates for males and females separately, and only occurs for sex-related alcohol expectancies for males but not females. Furthermore, for gender roles, the direct and indirect effects are in opposite directions, yet the total effects are consistent with the hypotheses. All other paths were as hypothesized and can be seen in Figure 6. The strongest structural paths

were sexual satisfaction to positive affect (standardized estimate = .69), sexual assertiveness to sexual satisfaction (.44), sexual satisfaction to negative affect (-.39), and gender roles beliefs to sexual assertiveness (-.35). The squared multiple correlations for structural equations, providing information regarding the proportion of variance in each endogenous latent variable explained by the linked latent variables, are as follows: positive affect (.54), negative affect (.34), alcohol expectancies (.11), alcohol consumption (.04), sexual satisfaction (.19), and sexual assertiveness (.12).

An effects decomposition was also conducted to assess the contribution of direct, indirect, and total effects for each latent variable on positive affect and negative affect. As can be seen in Table 9, sexual satisfaction and sexual assertiveness had the largest total effects in the full sample for both positive and negative affect.

Model comparison. Findings from the analyses of the structural model suggested good overall fit, however it is still possible that another model fits better. Thus, a nested model comparison was conducted. Because the theoretical model proposes that the relationship between the three exogenous variables and positive and negative affect are partially mediated by the other endogenous variables in the model, a comparison was made to a model in which the five Gamma pathways from the three exogenous variables to positive and negative affect were removed. Thus, the theoretical partial mediation model was compared to a full mediation model. Model comparison procedures suggest that if full mediation model does not fit significantly worse than the partial mediation model, then the more parsimonious model (full mediation) should be retained (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hoyle & Panter, 1995).

A Chi-Square difference test was conducted in order to assess whether the comparison model fit significantly worse than the theoretical model. The difference in degrees of freedom between the models was used as an indication of the significant cutoff of Chi-Square at .05 significance. As can be seen in Table 5 (Comparison model column), the difference in Chi-Square values was 33.49, which exceeded the critical value of 11.07 with 5 degrees of freedom. Thus, it can be concluded that the five path parameters that differ between the two models do not equal zero, and the partial mediation theoretical model can be retained. Subsequent multi-sample analyses were conducted based on the theoretical model.

Multi-sample test. A multi-sample test was conducted in order to test for the moderating effect of a categorical variable: gender (group one: men, $N = 310$; group two: women, $N = 275$). A nested model comparison was conducted between Model A in which parameters and estimates were the same across groups and Model B in which the estimates of the two groups were allowed to differ. A Chi-Square value that exceeds the Chi-Square critical value for the difference in degrees of freedom of the two models indicates that the paths are not equal across groups, indicative of a moderating effect. As can be seen in Table 5 (Multi-sample column), the test indicated that the Chi-Square difference of 280.36 with 75 degrees of freedom exceeded the Chi-Square critical value of 96.22. Thus, the paths differ across the two groups: men and women. Paths can be seen in Figure 7 for men and Figure 8 for women; they are also included in Table 8. Further analyses would be necessary to determine which paths differ statistically between men and women, although some paths were significant for one gender, but nonsignificant for the other gender, as can be seen in Table 8. Four paths were significant for men but

not for women: the link between traditional gender role beliefs and positive affect, between sex-related alcohol expectancies and negative affect, between peer approval of casual sex and positive affect, and between impulsivity and negative affect.

DISCUSSION

The primary goal of the current study was to examine cross-sectional predictors of positive and negative affect following a recent casual sex experience in a sample of 18-35 year olds who had engaged in penetrative casual sex in the past three months. On average, participants reported having eight casual sex partners in their lifetime and having casual sex approximately once per month. Another important goal was to determine the extent to which these predictors were comparable for men and women. As expected, positive and negative affect were significantly negatively correlated; however they were not so highly correlated that they were simply exact opposites of each other.

Sexual satisfaction on the most recent occasion was the most proximal and strongest predictor of both positive and negative affect for men and women. For women, the only other significant predictor of positive affect was sex-related alcohol expectancies, in that greater expectancies were associated with increased positive affect. For men, endorsement of traditional gender roles and peer approval of casual sex were significantly associated with positive affect. Sexual assertiveness was not directly associated with positive affect for either gender, but was significantly mediated by sexual satisfaction.

Turning to negative affect following casual sex, lower sexual satisfaction on that occasion was associated with increased negative affect for both men and women. The only other two significant predictors for women were peer approval of casual sex, such that greater peer approval was associated with decreased negative affect, and sexual assertiveness, such that higher assertiveness was associated with decreased negative affect. For men, in addition to the variables listed above, lower impulsivity and stronger

sex-related alcohol expectancies were also associated with increased negative affect. Explanations for these findings are provided below.

Interpretation of Findings

A multi-sample test was conducted to determine whether gender moderated the parameter estimates. Although the direction of all structural paths stayed the same and further analyses are needed to determine which estimates statistically differ, parameter significance changed for several paths when assessing each group individually.

For women, impulsivity was not significantly associated with negative affect, whereas it was for men. Although the pattern was in the hypothesized direction, it is not clear why this relationship was not present for women. Past research has consistently found that impulsivity levels are significantly higher for men than women, however the opposite was found in this study (Cross, Copping, & Campbell, 2011). This is coupled with the surprising finding that casual sex frequency is significantly higher for the women than the men in this sample. It is possible that women in this sample have higher levels of impulsivity than women in the general population. The relationship between impulsivity and affect may be partially a result of this unique finding, and should be reexamined in future research.

Peer approval of casual sex was also not significantly associated with positive affect for women, but was for men. In addition to the finding that men experience greater peer approval of casual sex, it is possible that the strength type of approval differs for men and women, in that women may simply be accepted for their behavior, whereas men may be more likely to receive praise and encouragement for their behavior. Additionally, the relationship between belief in traditional gender roles and sexual assertiveness was

significant for both genders, but was stronger for women as hypothesized. Sexual assertiveness in women is likely to decrease the gendered power differential, leading to increased satisfaction during the encounter.

Theory suggests that gender role beliefs should be positively associated with negative affect and negatively associated with positive affect for women, and negatively associated with negative affect and positively associated with positive affect for men. The zero-order correlations were consistent with this hypothesis. In the full sample model, traditional gender roles beliefs were positively associated with both positive affect and negative affect. However, when examining these paths for each gender individually, three of the four paths were not significant, and gender role beliefs were associated with positive affect for men as hypothesized. Therefore, it is important to consider the structural model for each gender separately; estimates from the full sample model must be interpreted with caution. However, the relationship between traditional gender role beliefs and affect was significantly mediated by sexual assertiveness as predicted.

Results also suggest that gender moderates the relationship between gender role beliefs and positive affect, but not between gender role beliefs and negative affect. As predicted, endorsement of traditional gender role beliefs was associated with decreased positive affect for women; however, they did not significantly affect positive affect for men. Women who hold these beliefs are less likely to be sexually assertive and report lower sexual satisfaction. They are also more likely to experience dissonance regarding their sexual identity and greater stigma. However, gender role beliefs were associated with increased negative affect for both men and women. This relationship was hypothesized for women, but the opposite was hypothesized for men. Although future research is

necessary to determine why this relationship exists for men, it is possible that men also desire a more egalitarian sexual relationship, and the power imbalance results in negative feelings.

Other hypotheses regarding gender differences were partially supported. As predicted, men reported higher sexual satisfaction than women. This is consistent with findings from past research in which men experience higher sexual satisfaction relative to women, especially in casual encounters (Armstrong Hamilton, & England, 2010). Because men are more willing to have casual sex and more sexual partners and women are often stigmatized for doing so, it was hypothesized that men would report greater positive and less negative affect relative to women. It was found that men report significantly more positive affect, but not significantly less negative affect than women. Further research is necessary to identify the reason for this, but it is possible that certain negative affective experiences were more applicable to men, and others to women.

Surprisingly, sex-related alcohol expectancies were positively associated with both positive and negative affect in the structural model. Theory suggests that alcohol expectancies should be positively associated with positive affect and negatively associated with negative affect. There was a significant positive correlation between expectancies and positive affect ($r = .24$) and a nonsignificant correlation between expectancies and negative affect ($r = .02$). This pattern is consistent for both genders. Considering the model for each gender individually, the path estimates are consistent with the zero-order correlations for women, but are both positive for men. It is unclear why the path estimate of the relationship between expectancies and negative affect is positive and significant for men; however, this finding may be explained by alcohol intoxication.

Men with higher sex-related alcohol expectancies are presumably more likely to consume alcohol during the sexual encounter, and alcohol intoxication was positively associated with negative affect in this sample. Furthermore, sex-related alcohol expectancies may not be a relevant predictor of affect for a large subset of this sample, as a large proportion of participants did not consume any alcohol during this sexual encounter. Future research needs to reexamine this hypothesis with alcohol consumption as a potential mediator.

The hypothesis that consistency between one's own and partner's desire for a relationship beyond the sexual encounter would be related to greater positive affect and decreased negative affect was not supported. There were also no main effects of either the participants' or partners' desire for relationship. This suggests that relationship desires do not have any substantial connection to emotional experiences after casual sex. Even if an individual has a desire for a relationship, this may not be a motivating factor for engaging in casual sex, and therefore would not influence affect.

It was also hypothesized that there would be curvilinear relationships between alcohol consumption during the most recent casual sex encounter and positive affect and negative affect, however support was only found for the relationship with negative affect. Negative affect was low when participants were not at all intoxicated, decreased when slightly intoxicated (i.e., less negative affect), and steadily increased when somewhat, very, or extremely intoxicated, consistent with the prediction. Theoretical justification was provided for why large amounts of alcohol would influence negative affect (e.g., decrease sexual performance, impair cognition) but there was not hypothesized justification for why increased intoxication would decrease positive affect. Although it is expected that as negative affect increases positive affect decreases, this nonsignificant finding suggests

that positive and negative affect are not inherently inversely related. The curvilinear finding can also be partially explained by alcohol impairment and its biphasic course. At low doses, alcohol can be experienced as a stimulant, but with increasing doses particularly on the descending limb, alcohol is generally experienced as a depressant (Earleywine & Martin, 1993). This offers an additional explanation for why negative affect decreases with slight intoxication then increases with higher levels of intoxication (Earleywine & Martin, 1993).

Strengths and Limitations

This study filled a gap in the literature, examining predictors of positive and negative affect following casual sex. Only one known study has assessed these relationships (Lewis et al., 2011), but included a limited number of predictors and did not require that the casual sex experience was recent. The current study examined not only a broad range of predictor variables, but also various interrelationships between variables to better understand the intricacies of affective experiences following a recent casual sex encounter.

A strength of this study was the ability to assess a great number of variables in a large and diverse sample. By utilizing both college and mTurk samples, a wide range of demographics and behaviors were captured, allowing for greater generalizability of results. However, there were significant mean differences for several of the study variables between the mTurk and SONA samples. One potential explanation for this finding is the disproportionate number of men in the mTurk sample; many of the differences between the samples were consistent with differences between men and women, suggesting that the distribution of gender in the two samples (mTurk and SONA)

is a plausible explanation for these differences. However, it is important to recognize these sample differences when formulating conclusions based on the analyses.

The age range of participants (18-35 years) was also appropriate to assess sexual experiences and attitudes, as casual sex is particularly normative among young adults. The size of this sample allowed for the appropriate statistical analyses to be conducted with sufficient power. The structural equation modeling analyses were also a strength of this study, in that the interrelationships between predictor variables were examined allowing for a more complex explanation of affect following casual sex.

The cross-sectional design is a very effective way to examine casual sexual behavior. Because so little research has been conducted in this area, cross-sectional results provide initial information that can be utilized and built on in future, more complex studies. Longitudinal designs necessitate a large number of participants who regularly engage in casual sex. The cross-sectional design allows the obtainment of information regarding casual sexual experiences that may have occurred only one time, or many times in the past three months. Because this was an online survey, it is also possible that participants provided more truthful answers due to the anonymity of responses, although honesty could be reduced if the survey was not taken seriously by internet users. Research has shown that participants self-disclose more sensitive information (e.g., sexual behavior) in an online format compared to a paper-and-pencil format (Kays, Gathercoal, & Buhrow, 2012). However, the cross-sectional design has some limitations. With this type of design, it is difficult to differentiate cause and effect from associations between variables; it is possible that the relationships go in the opposite direction for some of the predictor latent variables. This is especially true for alcohol consumption and

sex-related alcohol expectancies, where the relationship is often considered reciprocal. Additionally, this study was self-report so potential social desirability biases may be present.

The measures included can be considered both a strength and limitation. The breadth of questions allowed for a variety of aspects of participants' experiences to be captured. Although not coded for this thesis, gathering qualitative information about participants' affect following casual sex is an important step in fully understanding the complexities of casual sexual behavior and relevant emotional experiences. However, many of the items included in the survey were not part of a validated measure, which is a limitation. Additionally, the measures of positive and negative affect included a series of adjectives assessing positive or negative affect, however, it is likely that participants experienced some positive or negative feelings, but not others. It may be of importance to address the hypotheses outlined in the model with a specific affective experience (e.g., guilt) rather than a global measure of positive and negative affect. Furthermore, several aspects of participants' experiences were not included in the analyses. For instance, information about participants' relationship to the partner, condom use, sexual activities engaged in during the described encounter, unwanted sexual activity, and past casual sex was collected, but not included in the thesis analyses. Also, there was no exclusion criteria for sexual orientation or gender of sex partner. Variables such as traditional gender role beliefs may not be as relevant in same-sex partner sexual interactions. It would be important for follow-up analyses to consider this information.

Participants were required to have engaged in casual sex in the three months prior to completing the survey. This is a strength in that many past studies have only asked

participants to describe their most recent casual sex encounter (e.g., Lewis et al., 2011) regardless of when it occurred. It is important that the experience was recent when recalling affective experiences. However, it would be important for future studies to capture these experiences immediately, or within a day, or occurrence. Additionally, the present study only asked about one casual sex encounter; it may be important to assess multiple experience to determine whether participants' attitudes and characteristics generalize to other experiences.

Suggestions for Future Research

Casual sex is extremely common, yet there is surprisingly little research on the topic, and the research that exists generally focuses on the prevalence or predictors of casual sex, rather than emotional outcomes (Grello, Welsh, & Harper, 2006). It is important for future research to emphasize the emotional and cognitive components of casual sex behavior. Future studies should further assess affective experiences following casual sex using different methodology. The current study identified seven predictors of affect following casual sex, but this list is not exhaustive. Qualitative research could help to determine other predictors of affect, and the circumstances under which they are relevant.

Furthermore, existing research on casual sex focuses primarily on college populations (Garcia, Reiber, Massey & Merriwether, 2012). Although this behavior is most common amongst young adults, it is also prevalent in people of a wide age and socioeconomic range, and it is important to focus on more diverse populations in future research. Because this topic is generally studied with young adults, it is possible that alternative predictors would be more strongly associated with positive and negative affect

following casual sex amongst older adults, or that differential levels of affect are present in this population. Focus groups with homosexual men and women could also help determine differential predictors of affect for heterosexual and homosexual individuals. Because many gender differences were found in the current study, studies with homosexual populations could not only help determine other variables to include in model. For example, belief in traditional gender roles may not have the same influence on sexual assertiveness or affect in a homosexual sample, as gender roles are not necessarily relevant in same-sex couples.

Although all participants had engaged in casual sex within the past three months, it is often difficult to reflect on and accurately report affect after a passage of time. Future research should examine these hypotheses with different methodology, such as a daily diary study, in order to more accurately capture the presence of positive and negative affect as it occurs and establish temporal precedence. A within-subjects design, such as a daily diary or longitudinal study with multiple follow-up data collection periods, has the advantage of providing controls for individual differences. For example, it can be determined whether an individual experiences more negative affect when he or she drinks heavily prior to casual sex, as compared to an occasion during which he or she drinks lightly or not at all. Similarly, a longitudinal design could assess how experiences in one casual sex encounter influence willingness to engage in casual sex again (i.e., determine whether people are more likely to engage in casual sex again after experiencing positive affect, or avoid casual sex after experiencing negative affect). It can also help determine whether affective experiences change over time as a result of a greater number of casual

sex encounters or partners, as well as how these experiences change based on different situational characteristics.

It is also possible that the measures for positive and negative affect in the current study were too broad. It is possible that an individual might experience one negative emotion such as guilt, but not another negative emotion such as vulnerability. It may be of importance to consider predictors of each emotional experience (e.g., disappointment) individually. Future studies should include specific hypotheses regarding which individual difference and situational factors lead to particular affective experiences.

Practical Implications

Many participants in this study reported experiencing negative affect following casual sex. Negative affective experiences may increase the incidence of generalized anxiety and depression. Understanding the causes of negative affect can assist people who engage in casual sex in more effectively appraising and predicting positive versus negative affect. In other words, results may facilitate education by allowing individuals to acquire knowledge regarding which person-level factors put them at greater risk for negative emotional consequences. Researchers and clinicians can also use this information to focus efforts on how to more effectively reduce stressors, particularly those which are situational.

Acknowledging specific predictors of negative affect can be beneficial for research and interventions. For example, extreme alcohol intoxication during casual sex was determined to be a risk factor for increased negative affect in this sample. There is therefore reason to explore more effective alcohol intoxication education and interventions, particularly on college campuses where heavy drinking is exceptionally

prevalent, in order to ultimately reduce negative affective experiences, in addition to other health issues that result from heavy drinking. Additionally, impulsivity was determined to be a significant predictor of negative affect among men. Because impulsive individuals are less likely to delay gratification or consider potential negative consequences, they are at greater risk for engaging in unwanted or risky sexual behavior. Interventions targeting impulsive decision-making may contribute to a decrease in both sexual risk-taking and negative affect following casual sex.

A better understanding of the influence of traditional gender roles on power differentials in sexual relationships is important on a broader societal level in reducing stigma and double standards. It is important to consider gender differences in casual sexual activity and as well as typical affective experiences. It has been suggested by past research that women are more likely to experience depressive symptoms after casual sex. Lower reported positive affect among women relative to men in the current study suggests that it may be of particular importance to identify and understand the factors associated with more negative affect following casual sex for women (Grello, Welsh, & Harper, 2006). For instance, men received significantly more peer approval of casual sex compared to women, and this peer approval was associated with decreased negative affect for both genders. It is likely that women receive less peer approval than men due to the double standards that dictate that casual sex is less acceptable for women (Crawford & Popp, 2003). Interventions that decrease these double standards and establish equality for men and women in sexual interactions would presumably increase peer approval of casual sex for women, and ultimately decrease negative affect following casual sex.

Sexual assertiveness is also an important target of education programs, including those initiatives focusing on unwanted sexual activity. Assertiveness training, both general and emphasizing sexual behavior, would likely increase both sexual satisfaction and positive affect, particularly for women who have been socialized to be less assertive in sexual situations (Simon & Gagnon, 1986). Sexual assertiveness can influence negotiation of safe sex and higher levels may reduce the risk of STI contraction (Hulbert, 1992). Developing a comprehensive understanding of the interrelationships between sexual assertiveness, sexual satisfaction, belief in traditional gender roles, and affective experiences is an important step in decreasing the gender discrepancy in reported levels of positive affect and sexual satisfaction that was found in this study.

Table 1.

Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables (N = 585)

Variables	Full Sample			Men (n = 310)			Women (n = 275)			t-test
	Mean	SD	α	Mean	SD	α	Mean	SD	α	t
Descriptive Information										
Age	26.20	4.84	n/a	26.91	4.87	n/a	25.41	4.68	n/a	3.75*
Sexual Orientation ^a	1.46	0.94	n/a	1.34	1.01	n/a	1.54	0.85	n/a	-2.05*
Annual Income	4.28	2.31	n/a	4.43	2.26	n/a	4.12	2.35	n/a	1.61
Casual Sex Frequency ^b	4.92	1.71	n/a	4.74	1.72	n/a	5.13	1.70	n/a	-2.73*
Last Time Casual Sex ^c	2.97	1.01	n/a	2.95	1.04	n/a	2.99	0.98	n/a	-0.53
Study Variables										
Positive Affect (z-scores)	0.00	0.71	.92	0.07	0.69	.93	-0.08	0.73	.91	2.64*
Negative Affect (z-scores)	0.00	0.73	.95	-0.03	0.71	.95	0.03	0.76	.95	-1.05
Sexual Satisfaction										
Experience Orgasm ^d	2.57	0.80	n/a	2.82	0.56	n/a	2.29	0.92	n/a	8.49*
Overall Satisfaction	5.68	1.54	n/a	5.91	1.32	n/a	5.42	1.73	n/a	3.89*
Sex. Sat. Imm. After	3.83	1.25	n/a	4.05	1.07	n/a	3.58	1.37	n/a	4.69*
Desire for Relationship	2.80	1.16	n/a	2.59	0.96	n/a	3.03	1.31	n/a	-4.42*
Sexual Assertiveness	3.83	0.66	.94	3.80	0.66	.94	3.86	0.65	.93	-1.21
Traditional Gender Roles	2.58	0.76	.92	2.76	0.74	.92	2.38	0.74	.91	6.18*
Sexual Gender Roles	2.47	0.80	.88	2.59	0.79	.89	2.34	0.78	.87	3.77*
General Gen. Roles	2.71	0.85	.87	2.97	0.80	.85	2.43	0.83	.86	8.07*
Impulsivity	2.24	0.37	.91	2.20	0.34	.89	2.28	0.40	.92	-2.86*
Perseverance	2.08	0.45	.83	2.03	0.44	.83	2.14	0.45	.83	-3.05*
Premeditation	2.14	0.46	.85	2.12	0.43	.83	2.17	0.49	.88	-1.34
Urgency	2.45	0.53	.89	2.40	0.52	.89	2.51	0.54	.89	-2.32*
Alcohol Expectancies	3.21	0.98	.95	3.15	0.95	.95	3.29	1.01	.95	-1.66
Sexual Drive	3.28	1.10	.95	3.23	1.06	.94	3.33	1.14	.95	-1.10
Sexual Affect	3.15	0.96	.89	3.07	0.94	.89	3.24	0.99	.89	-2.12*
Peer Approval	3.41	0.75	.90	3.57	0.70	.90	3.22	0.78	.90	5.76*

Note. * $p < .05$. ^a 1 (exclusively heterosexual) – 5 (exclusively homosexual); ^b 1 (every day) – 8 (less than once a year) ^c 1 (in the past day) to 4 (1-3 months ago) ^d 1 (no), 2 (not sure), 3 (yes).

Table 2.

Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables: Comparison of Mechanical Turk and SONA

Variables	mTurk (<i>n</i> = 485)		SONA (<i>n</i> = 100)		Mean comparison
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t-test
Descriptive information					
Age	27.03	4.71	21.91	2.81	10.18
Sexual Orientation	1.48	0.95	1.37	0.90	1.03
Annual Income	4.19	2.24	4.73	2.59	-2.10*
Casual Sex Frequency	4.90	1.65	5.03	2.00	-0.70
Last Time Casual Sex	2.98	1.01	2.96	1.02	0.14
Study variables					
Positive Affect (z-scores)	0.00	1.00	0.00	1.00	1.65
Negative Affect (z-scores)	0.00	1.00	0.00	1.00	-1.86
Sexual Satisfaction					
Experienced Orgasm	2.65	0.73	2.16	0.96	5.79*
Overall Satisfaction	5.78	1.45	5.18	1.87	3.59*
Sex. Sat. Imm. After	3.91	1.19	3.40	1.41	3.79*
Desire for Relationship	2.70	1.12	3.22	1.34	-4.06*
Sexual Assertiveness	3.86	0.66	3.67	0.64	2.58*
Traditional Gender Roles					
Sexual Gender Roles	2.44	0.81	2.62	0.71	-2.00*
General Gender Roles	2.72	0.86	2.70	0.81	0.15
Impulsivity					
Perseverance	2.08	0.44	2.09	0.48	-0.34
Premeditation	2.16	0.46	2.07	0.46	1.83
Urgency	2.45	0.53	2.45	0.55	-0.02
Alcohol Expectancies					
Sexual Drive	3.26	1.09	3.36	1.15	-0.82*
Sexual Affect	3.11	0.94	3.32	1.06	-1.97
Peer Approval	3.46	0.74	3.15	0.77	3.68*

Note. * $p < .05$. ^a 1 (exclusively heterosexual) – 5 (exclusively homosexual); ^b 1 (every day) – 8 (less than once a year) ^c 1 (in the past day) to 4 (1-3 months ago) ^d 1 (no), 2 (not sure), 3 (yes).

Table 3.
Correlations among Study Variables: Scales and Model-Relevant Items

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	
1. Pos Aff	-																							
2. Neg Aff	-.451**	-																						
3. Impuls	-.200**	.265**	-																					
4. Persev	-.206**	.196**	.797**	-																				
5. Premed	-.095*	.098*	.758**	.570**	-																			
6. Urgen	-.167**	.301**	.772**	.389**	.273**	-																		
7. Alc Exp	.240**	.016	.057	-.047	.069	.089*	-																	
8. S Drive	.221**	.015	.082*	-.034	.108**	.097*	.957**	-																
9. S Affect	.237**	.015	.023	-.057	.017	.071	.944**	.808**	-															
10. Assert	.374**	-.415**	-.328**	-.339**	-.141**	-.284**	.180**	.160**	.184**	-														
11. Peer App	.300**	-.271**	-.044	-.081	.044	-.062	.174**	.183**	.146**	.328**	-													
12. Gen Role	-.032	.203**	.110**	.066	-.003	.168**	-.038	-.027	-.046	-.327**	-.102*	-												
13. Sex GR	-.072	.238**	.177**	.142**	.047	.205**	-.046	-.037	-.052	-.373**	-.121**	.936**	-											
14. Gen GR	.021	.128**	.014	-.033	-.061	.098*	-.022	-.011	-.031	-.219**	-.063	.911**	.707**	-										
15. Orgasm	.270**	-.228**	-.164**	-.192**	-.074	-.124**	-.025	-.047	.003	.163**	.219**	.028	-.047	.110**	-									
16. Over Sat	.526**	-.448**	-.234**	-.228**	-.087*	-.223**	.053	.043	.060	.334**	.211**	-.074	-.145**	.021	.574**	-								
17. Imm Sat	.655**	-.444**	-.213**	-.229**	-.069	-.196**	.159**	.147**	.156**	.397**	.258**	-.130**	-.189**	-.039	.493**	.695**	-							
18. Des Rel	.047	-.061	-.031	.013	-.070*	-.013	-.003	-.019	.015	-.060	-.112**	-.030	-.026	-.030	-.072	.059	.018	-						
19. Reg Drink	.143**	.039	.162**	.065	.203**	.107**	.282**	.295**	.237**	-.026	.215**	.078	.070	.075	.029	.018	.095*	-.101*	-					
20. H Drink	.129**	.048	.163**	.063	.203**	.110**	.278**	.283**	.243**	-.024	.223**	.090*	.084*	.082*	.029	.012	.101*	-.084*	.820**	-				
21. Date Drink	.180**	.042	.165**	.089*	.153**	.115**	.284**	.295**	.243**	.020	.221**	.072	.075	.056	.052	.021	.098*	-.060	.592**	.554**	-			
22. Des X Exp	.005	-.016	-.037	-.001	-.088*	-.002	-.020	-.035	-.001	-.065	-.122**	-.001	.009	-.012	-.070	.011	-.036	.897**	-.123**	-.104*	-.076	-		
23. Des X Part	.059	-.068	-.072	-.018	-.109**	-.040	-.006	-.017	.007	-.056	-.111**	.012	-.016	.044	-.009	.047	.011	.827**	-.122**	-.106*	-.069	.811*	-	

Note. Significant correlations are boldfaced. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. $n = 585$. Pos Aff indicates Positive Affect. Neg Aff indicates Negative Affect. Impuls indicates Impulsivity. Persev indicates Perseverance. Premed indicates Premeditation. Urgen indicates Urgency. Alc Exp indicates Sex-Related Alcohol Expectancies. S Drive indicates Sexual Drive. S Affect indicates Sexual Affect. Assert indicates Sexual Assertiveness. Peer App indicates Peer Approval of Casual Sex. Gen Role indicates Belief in Traditional Gender Roles. Gen GR indicates Traditional Sexual Gender Roles. Gen GR indicates Traditional General Gender Roles. Over Sat indicates Overall Sexual Satisfaction. Imm Sat indicates Sexual Satisfaction Immediately After Casual Sex. Des Rel indicates Desire for relationship. Reg Drink indicates Regular Drinking Quantity X Frequency. H Drink indicates Heavy Drinking Quantity X Frequency. Date Drink indicated Drinking on Dates Quantity X Frequency. Des X Exp indicates Desire for a Relationship X Expectation for Relationship. Des X Part indicates Desire for Relationship X Perceived Partner's Desire for Relationship.

Table 4.
Correlations among Indicators

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	
1. PAI																													
2. PA2	.775**																												
3. PA3	.882**	.769**																											
4. NA1	-.439**	-.321**	-.383**																										
5. NA2	-.436**	-.301**	-.404**	.375**																									
6. NA3	-.492**	-.349**	-.450**	.893**	.863**																								
7. TGR1	-.020	-.003	.001	.177**	.145**	.156**																							
8. TGR2	-.025	-.005	-.029	.178**	.165**	.150**	.813**																						
9. TGR3	-.058	-.054	-.054	.230**	.211**	.224**	.829**	.775**																					
10. AE1	.202**	.247**	.207**	.044	.027	.018	-.010	.010	-.047																				
11. AE2	.245**	.255**	.250**	.036	.000	-.005	.010	.047	-.030	.849**																			
12. AE3	.182**	.183**	.190**	.029	-.007	-.007	-.076	-.062	-.111**	.857**	.869**																		
13. AC1	.140**	.119**	.139**	.036	.060	.017	.080	.080	.058	.255**	.286**	.265**																	
14. AC2	.139**	.097**	.133**	.049	.068	.022	.095*	.086*	.067	.249**	.270**	.273**	.820**																
15. AC3	.185**	.146**	.168**	.027	.074	.021	.058	.090*	.053	.269**	.287**	.289**	.592**	.554**															
16. IMP1	-.172**	-.142**	-.152**	.226**	.259**	.233**	.041	.130**	.127**	.066	.035	.000	.165**	.172**	.149**														
17. IMP2	-.183**	-.151**	-.166**	.210**	.237**	.235**	.051	.116**	.122**	.103*	.060	.035	.162**	.159**	.155**	.787**													
18. IMP3	-.211**	-.176**	-.189**	.217**	.262**	.256**	.037	.109**	.125**	.084*	.059	.030	.126**	.123**	.127**	.758**	.810**												
19. SS1	.294**	.197**	.253**	-.198**	-.221**	-.235**	.052	.048	-.024	-.023	.009	-.050	.029	.029	.052	-.126**	-.155**	-.173**											
20. SS2	.549**	.382**	.521**	-.398**	-.456**	-.434**	-.031	-.059	-.117**	.013	.102*	.042	.018	.012	.021	-.183**	-.216**	-.247**	.574**										
21. SS3	.683**	.499**	.629**	-.397**	-.437**	-.443**	-.092*	-.117**	-.154**	.146**	.187**	.129**	.095	.101*	.098*	-.180**	-.191**	-.218**	.493**	.695**									
22. SA1	.304**	.306**	.302**	-.323**	-.349**	-.310**	-.220**	-.208**	-.303**	.131**	.145**	.163**	-.005	.008	.036	-.251**	-.242**	-.284**	.180**	.306**	.340**								
23. SA2	.345**	.331**	.331**	-.369**	-.377**	-.361**	-.241**	-.260**	-.323**	.169**	.159**	.195**	-.063	-.069	-.015	-.331**	-.277**	-.337**	.143**	.303**	.362**	.790**							
24. SA3	.290**	.281**	.279**	-.395**	-.395**	-.376**	-.316**	-.320**	-.390**	.116**	.111**	.154**	-.025	-.036	-.008	-.298**	-.255**	-.297**	.099*	.274**	.341**	.780**	.832**						
25. SS4	.376**	.360**	.381**	-.373**	-.403**	-.384**	-.232**	-.237**	-.345**	.182**	.164**	.197**	-.006	.008	.060	-.275**	-.231**	-.295**	.181**	.354**	.426**	.821**	.812**	.812**					
26. NI1	.262**	.248**	.256**	-.215**	-.176**	-.238**	-.076	.005	-.164**	.134**	.178**	.153**	.213**	.227**	.230**	-.019	.015	-.035	.216**	.195**	.240**	.304**	.234**	.272**	.272**				
27. NI2	.288**	.256**	.269**	-.270**	-.238**	-.293**	-.106*	-.031	-.179**	.112**	.174**	.147**	.189**	.202**	.217**	-.038	-.030	-.103*	.209**	.224**	.247**	.291**	.236**	.292**	.292**	.334**	.798**		
28. NI3	.259**	.255**	.248**	-.232**	-.240**	-.262**	-.086*	-.010	-.165**	.142**	.182**	.157**	.195**	.194**	.173**	-.025	-.005	-.076	.186**	.174**	.232**	.281**	.226**	.271**	.271**	.313**	.774**	.795**	

Note. Significant correlations are boldfaced. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. $n = 585$. PA indicates Positive Affect. NA indicates Negative Affect. TGR indicates Traditional Gender Roles. AE indicates Alcohol Expectancies. AC indicates Alcohol Consumption. IMP indicates Impulsivity. SS indicates Sexual Satisfaction. SA indicates Sexual Assertiveness. NI indicates Peer Approval of Casual Sex.

Table 5.

Model Fit Indices

	CFA	Structural (Partial mediation)	Model Comparison (Full mediation)	Multi- Sample: Model A	Multi- Sample: Model B
df	314	331	336	737	662
X²	724.66	954.49	987.98	1520.53	1240.17
CN	303.39	241.93	236.99	318.95	353.38
RMSEA	.048	.058	.059	.061	.055
90% CI	.043, .052	.054, .063	.055, .063	.057, .065	.050, .059
CFI	.98	.97	.97	.96	.97
NFI	.97	.95	.95	.93	.94
NNFI	.98	.97	.96	.96	.97
GFI	.92	.89	.89	.84	.87
ECVI	1.57	1.95	1.99	2.90	2.64
SRMR	.038	.11	.12	.13	.095
NCP	418.37	659.31	686.34	803.67	575.95

Note. df indicates degrees of freedom, RMSEA indicates Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, CFI indicates Comparative Fit Index, NFI indicates Normed Fit Index, NNFI indicates Non-Normed Fit Index, GFI indicates Goodness of Fit Index, ECVI indicates Expected Cross-Validation Index, SRMR indicates Standardized Root Mean Square Residual, NCP Estimated Non-centrality Parameter.

Table 6.

CFA: Standardized Factor Correlations (Phi matrix)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Pos. Affect	--								
2. Neg. Affect	-.49	--							
3. Gender Roles	-.03	.21	--						
4. Alcohol Expect.	.25	.02	-.04	--					
5. Alcohol Cons.	.17	.05	.10	.33	--				
6. Impuls.	-.22	.28	.11	.06	.19	--			
7. Sexual Satisf.	.73	-.52	-.11	.13	.09	-.27	--		
8. Sexual Assert.	.39	-.44	-.34	.19	-.03	-.35	.44	--	
9. Peer App.	.32	-.29	-.12	.19	.26	-.05	.30	.35	--

Table 8.

Standardized Parameter Estimates of Theoretical Model

Path	Full Sample (N = 585)	Men (N = 310)	Women (N = 275)
Gamma			
Gender Roles to Positive Affect	.09*	.16*	.04
Gender Roles to Negative Affect	.08*	.05	.04
Impulsivity to Negative Affect	.09*	.13*	.07
Peer Approval to Positive Affect	.10*	.10*	.10
Peer Approval to Negative Affect	-.13*	-.12*	-.20*
Gender Roles to Sexual Assertiveness	-.35*	-.30*	-.41*
Impulsivity to Alcohol Consumption	.19*	.15*	.28*
Beta			
Alcohol Consumption to Alcohol Expectancies	.33*	.40*	.27*
Sexual Assertiveness to Sexual Satisfaction	.44*	.49*	.45*
Sexual Satisfaction to Positive Affect	.69*	.73*	.70*
Sexual Satisfaction to Negative Affect	-.39*	-.34*	-.44*
Sexual Assertiveness to Positive Affect	.08	.03	.07
Sexual Assertiveness to Negative Affect	-.20*	-.19*	-.17*
Alcohol Expectancies to Positive Affect	.14*	.10*	.15*
Alcohol Expectancies to Negative Affect	.12*	.20*	.05

Table 9.

Effects Decomposition for Theoretical Model of Study Variables on Positive Affect and Negative Affect

	Full Sample			Men			Women		
	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total
Positive Affect									
Sexual Satisfaction	.69	n/a	.69	.73	n/a	.73	.70	n/a	.70
Sexual Assertiveness	.08	.30	.38	.03	.36	.39	.07	.32	.39
Gender Roles	.09	-.13	-.04	.16	-.12	.04	.04	-.16	-.12
Impulsivity	n/a	.01	.01	n/a	.01	.01	n/a	.01	.01
Alcohol Consumption	n/a	.05	.05	n/a	.04	.04	n/a	.04	.04
Alcohol Expectancies	.14	n/a	.14	.10	n/a	.10	.15	n/a	.15
Peer Approval	.10	n/a	.10	.10	n/a	.10	.10	n/a	.10
Negative Affect									
Sexual Satisfaction	-.39	n/a	-.39	-.35	n/a	-.34	.44	n/a	-.44
Sexual Assertiveness	-.20	-.17	-.37	-.19	-.17	-.36	-.17	-.20	-.37
Gender Roles	.08	.13	.21	.05	.11	.16	.04	.15	.19
Impulsivity	.09	.01	.10	.14	.01	.15	.07	.00	.07
Alcohol Consumption	n/a	.04	.04	n/a	.08	.08	n/a	.01	.01
Alcohol Expectancies	.12	n/a	.12	.20	n/a	.20	.05	n/a	.05
Peer Approval	-.13	n/a	-.13	-.12	n/a	-.12	-.20	n/a	-.20

Note. Estimates in boldface are significant.



Figure 1. Theoretical Model

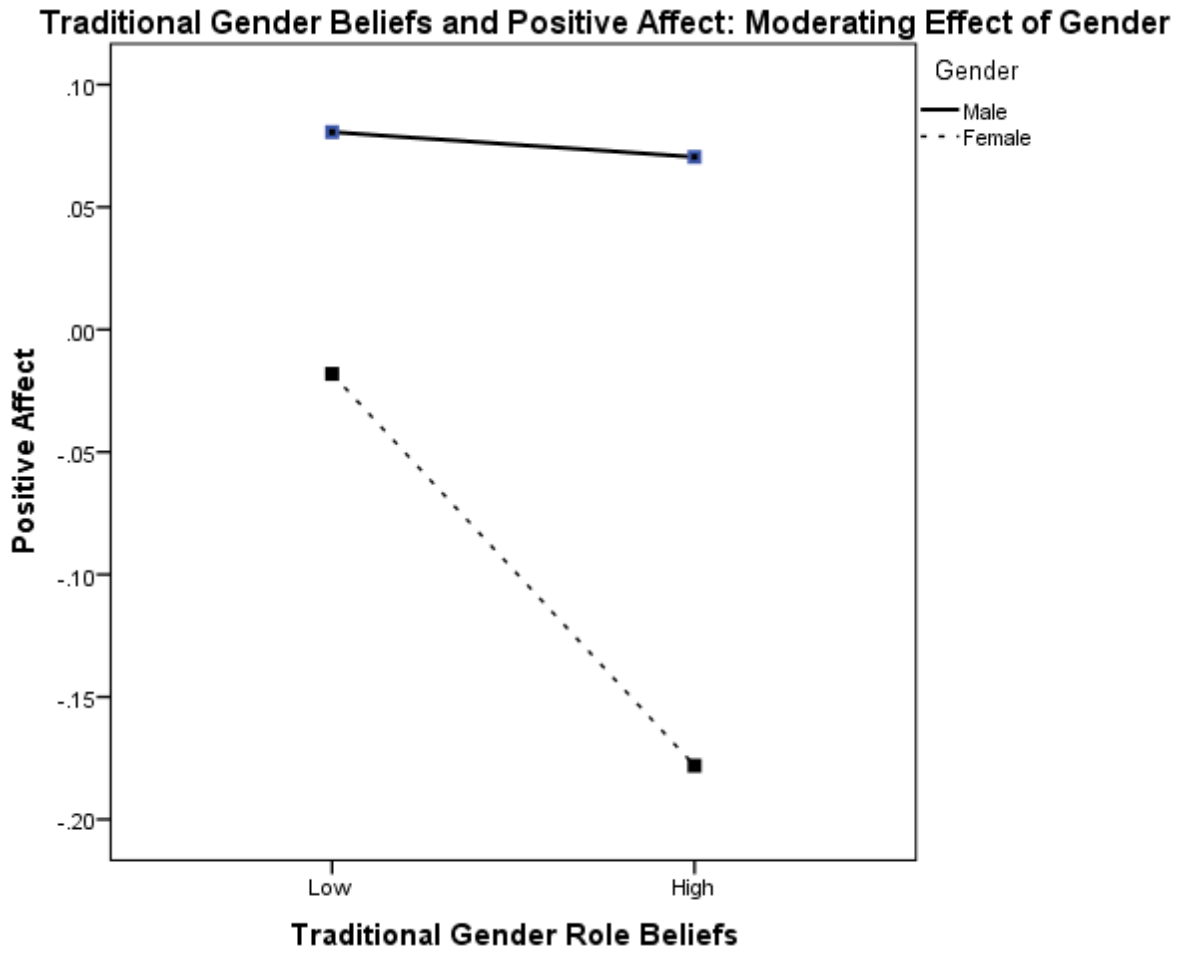


Figure 2. Moderating Effect of Gender.

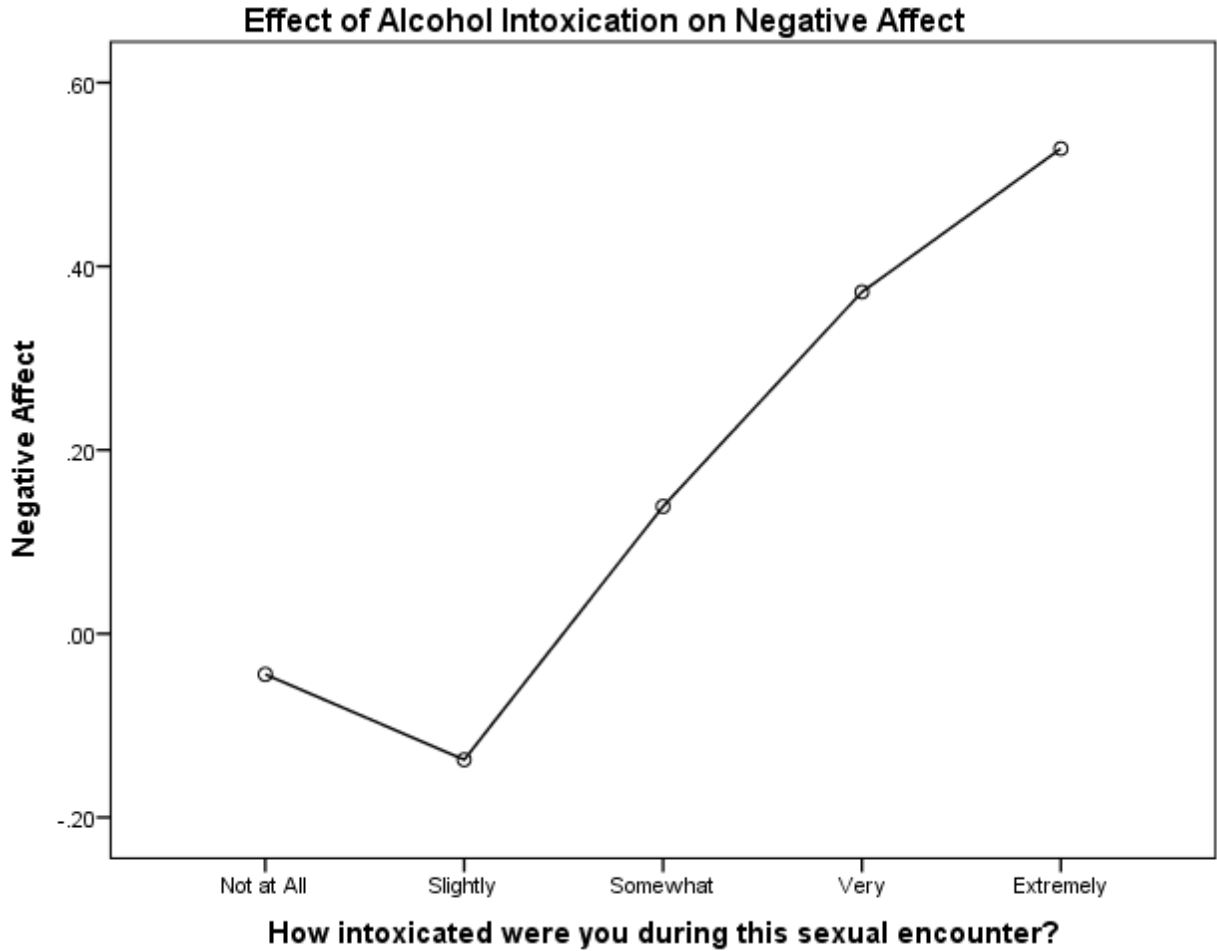


Figure 3. Curvilinear Effect of Alcohol Intoxication on Negative Affect.

Not at all intoxicated $n = 355$ (60.7%), Slightly Intoxicated $n = 104$ (17.8%), Somewhat Intoxicated $n = 79$ (13.5%), Very Intoxicated $n = 37$ (6.3%), Extremely Intoxicated $n = 10$ (1.7%).

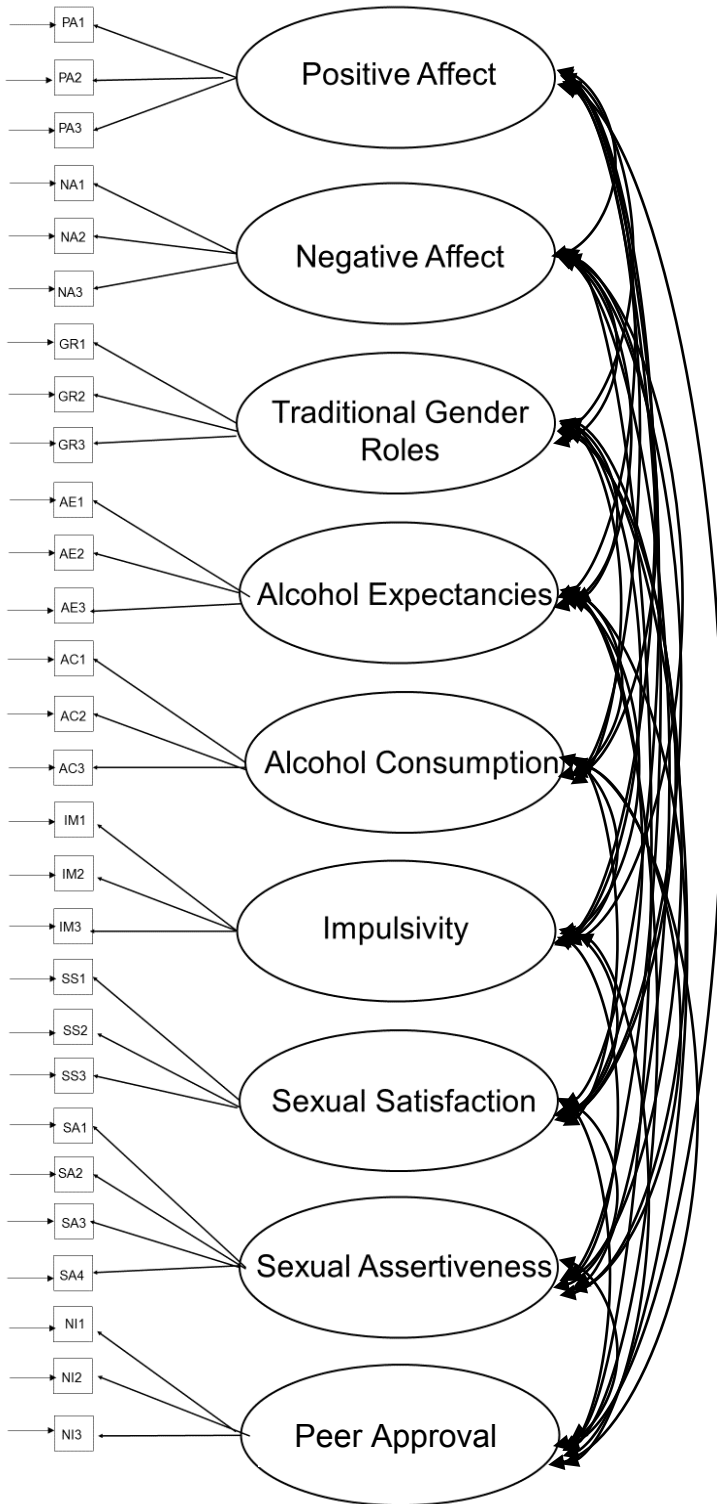


Figure 4. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

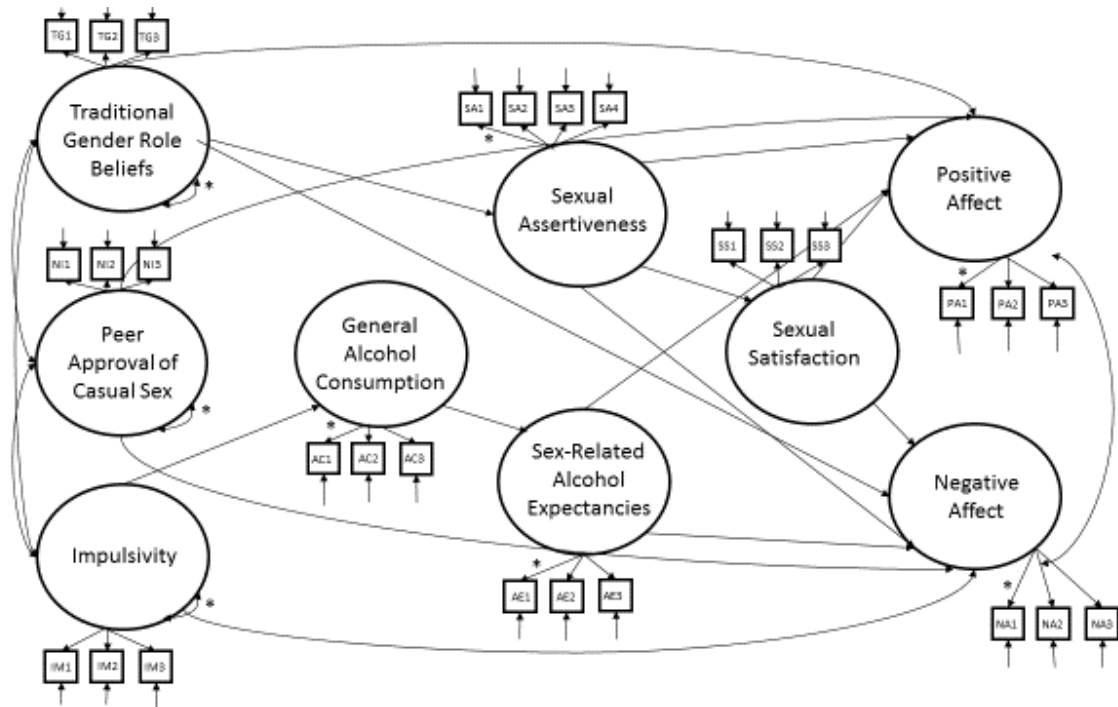


Figure 5. Structural Model. Variance of exogenous latent variable fixed and set to 1 for identification.

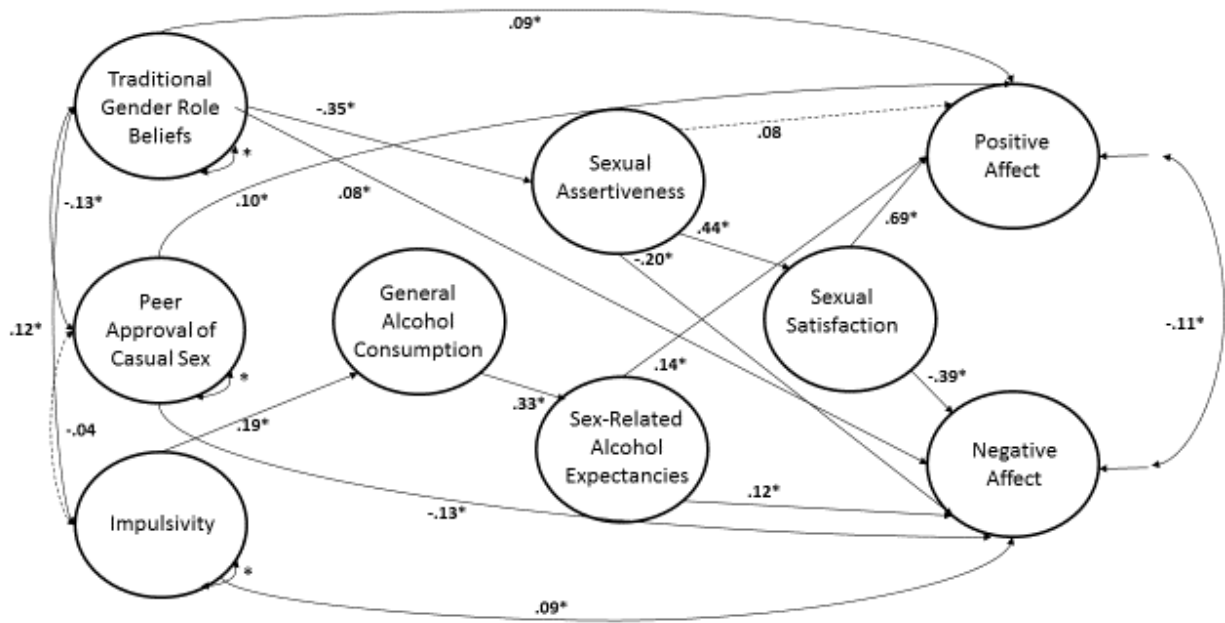


Figure 6. Structural Model (Full Sample) Standardized Estimates. Indicators not included for visual clarity. Solid line indicates significant path, asterisks indicate significant estimate.

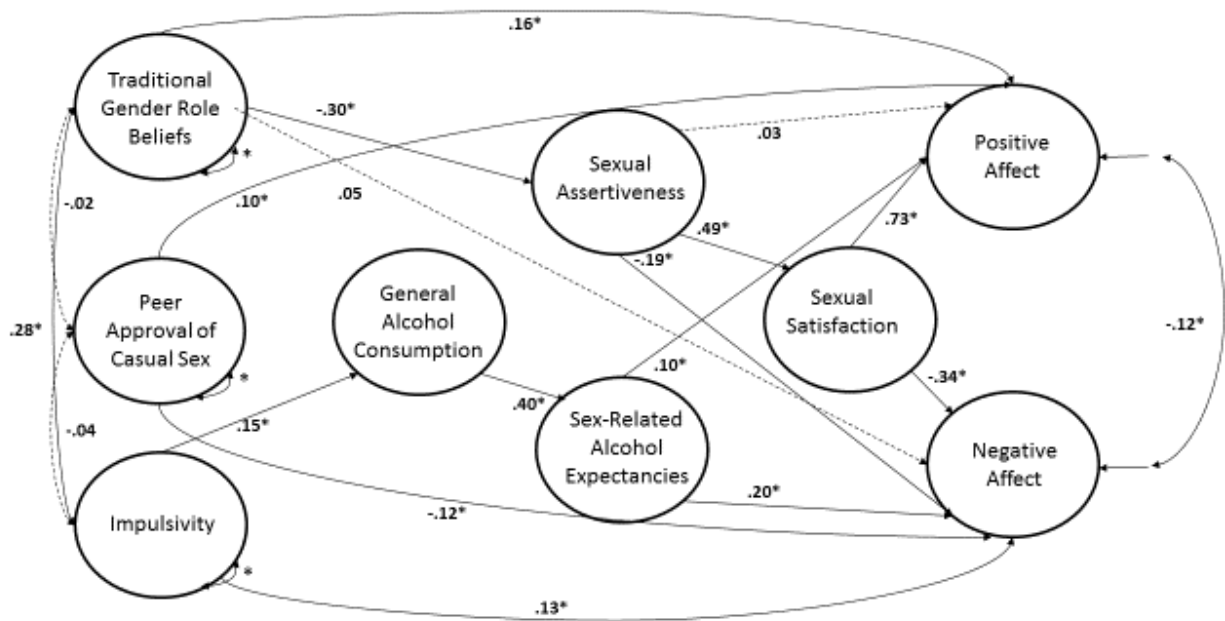


Figure 7. Structural Model (Men Only) Standardized Estimates. Solid line indicates significant path, asterisks indicate significant estimate.

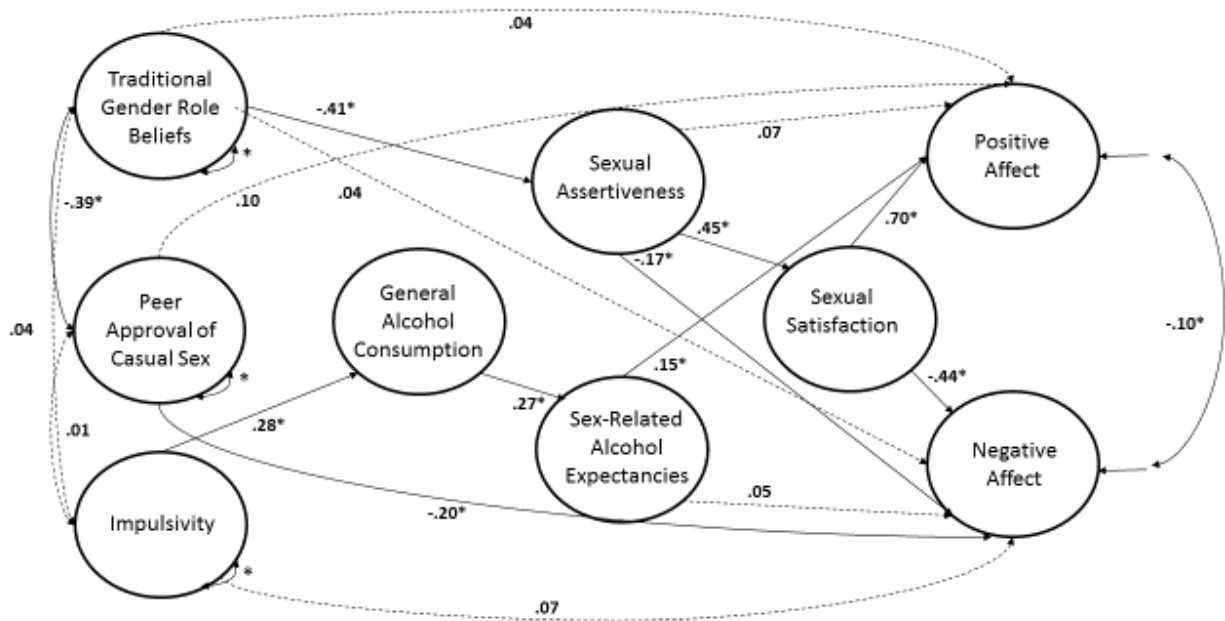


Figure 8. Structural Model (Women Only) Standardized Estimates. Solid line indicates significant path, asterisks indicate significant estimate.

APPENDIX A**DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE**

First, we would like to ask a few general background questions. This is important because we would like to be sure that the study includes a wide range of people from different backgrounds and with different types of experiences. Sharing this information helps us know that we included people from a wide range of backgrounds.

You will be able to skip any question in this survey that you do not feel comfortable answering.

1. What year were you born? _____

2. What is your sex?
 - Female
 - Male

3. What is your ethnicity?
 - African American / Black
 - Arabic or Middle Easterner
 - Asian, East Asian, or Pacific Islander
 - Caucasian / White
 - Hispanic
 - Native American / American Indian
 - Multiracial
 - Other

4. What is your current relationship status?
 - Single, not dating or seeing any one person exclusively
 - Single in an exclusive dating relationship
 - Living with a romantic partner
 - Married
 - Separated
 - Divorced
 - Widowed

5. How long have you been _____? (*answer from #4*)
 - Less than one month
 - One to 6 months
 - 7 months to 1 year
 - 1 to 2 years
 - 2 to 5 years
 - More than 5 years

6. Which of the following sexual activities have you engaged in?
- | | | |
|---------------------|-----|----|
| Passionate kissing | yes | no |
| Oral sex | yes | no |
| Vaginal intercourse | yes | no |
7. Which of the following best describes your sexual experiences?
- Exclusively heterosexual
 - Mostly heterosexual with some homosexual experience
 - Equally heterosexual and homosexual experience
 - Mostly homosexual with some heterosexual experience
 - Exclusively homosexual
8. How many years have you lived in the United States or Canada?
- All my life
 - More than 10 years, but not all my life
 - 5 – 10 years
 - 1 – 4 years
 - Less than one year
 - I do not live in the US or Canada
9. What is your highest level of education?
1. Did not complete high school
 2. High school graduate (or GED)
 3. Attending college now
 4. Vocational / technical degree or associate's degree
 5. Bachelor's degree
 6. Master's degree
 7. Professional degree (M.D., D.D.S., J.D., etc.) or doctoral degree (Ph.D.)
 8. Other (Please describe below) _____
10. How many people live in your household? _____
11. Who do you live with?
1. Live alone
 2. Live with parents
 3. Live with roommates/friends
 4. Live with significant other
 5. Other (Please describe below) _____
12. Where do you live? For example, an apartment, a house, a dorm room, etc.

13. What is your annual household income?

1. Less than \$10,000
2. \$10,000-\$19,999
3. \$20,000-\$29,999
4. \$30,000-\$39,999
5. \$40,000-\$49,999
6. \$50,000-\$59,999
7. \$60,000-\$69,999
8. More than \$70,000

14. What is your religious preference?

- | | |
|---|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. African Methodist Episcopal (A. M. E.) 2. Apostolic 3. Atheist or Nonbeliever / Agnostic 4. Baptist 5. Buddhist 6. Church of Christ 7. Eastern Orthodox 8. Fundamentalist or Evangelical Christian 9. Jehovah's Witness 10. Jewish 11. Lutheran 12. Methodist | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 13. Mormon 14. Muslim (Islamic) 15. Nondenominational Christian 16. Pentecostal 17. Presbyterian 18. Protestant 19. Roman Catholic 20. 7th Day Adventist 21. No preference 22. Other (Please describe below) |
|---|--|

15. How strong are your religious beliefs?

5	4	3	2	1
Very Strong	Fairly Strong	Moderate	Fairly Weak	Very Weak

16. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statement:

My religion views sex outside of marriage as acceptable for women.

- 1) Strongly disagree
- 2) Somewhat disagree
- 3) Neither agree nor disagree
- 4) Somewhat agree
- 5) Strongly agree

APPENDIX B

CASUAL SEXUAL EXPERIENCES

***Note: Some items in this section are not addressed in the hypotheses or method section of this paper, but were included in the survey for exploratory purposes.*

1. Have you ever engaged in casual sex? Casual sex is defined as oral, anal, or vaginal sex with a partner who was not your significant other (boyfriend, girlfriend, fiancé, spouse, etc.) at the time
**If "No" is selected, then skip to "You do not meet the criteria for this study. Thank you for your interest."*
 Yes, I have had casual sex.
 No, I have not had casual sex

2. With how many different partners have you engaged in casual sex?
 (Number)

3. How frequently do you engage in casual sex? (It is okay to estimate.)
 Every day
 A few times a week
 Once a week
 A few times a month
 Once a month
 Once every few months
 Once a year
 Less than once a year

4. When is the last time you engaged in casual sex? (Vaginal, anal, or oral sex with someone who was not your boyfriend or girlfriend at the time.)
**If more than 3 months ago selected, then skip to "You do not meet the criteria for this study. Thank you for your interest."*
 In the past day
 More than a day but less than a week ago
 More than a week but less than a month ago
 1 to 3 months ago
 4 to 6 months ago
 7 to 12 months ago
 1 to 2 years ago
 More than two years ago

5. What gender was your sexual partner the last time you engaged in casual sex?
 Male
 Female

6. How many times have you engaged in casual sex? (Vaginal, anal, or oral sex)
If you are unsure, it is okay to estimate.
____ (Number)
7. How did you feel *immediately* after this last instance of casual sex occurred?
(Open-ended)
8. Overall, how positive were your feelings *immediately* after this last instance of casual sex occurred?
(1 not at all to 7 extremely)
9. Overall, how or negative were your feelings *immediately* after this last instance of casual sex occurred?
(1 not at all to 7 extremely)
10. *Immediately* after this last instance of casual sex, to which extent did you feel:
(1-not at all to 7-extremely)
Happy
Used
Manipulative
Selfish
Excited
Worried
Uncomfortable
Afraid
Proud
Guilty
Sexy
Victimized
Thrilled
Powerful
Vulnerable
Valued
Ashamed
Regretful
Attractive
Anxious
Desirable
Disappointed
Satisfied
Embarrassed
Tired
Popular
Dirty
Likable
Immature

11. How did you feel *the next day* after this last instance of casual sex occurred?
(Open-ended)
12. Overall, how positive were your feelings *the next day* after this last instance of casual sex occurred?
(1 not at all to 7 extremely)
13. Overall, how negative were your feelings the next day after this last instance of casual sex occurred?
(1 not at all to 7 extremely)
14. *The day after* this last instance of casual sex, to which extent did you feel:
(1-not at all to 7-extremely)
- Happy
 - Used
 - Manipulative
 - Selfish
 - Excited
 - Worried
 - Uncomfortable
 - Afraid
 - Proud
 - Guilty
 - Sexy
 - Victimized
 - Thrilled
 - Powerful
 - Vulnerable
 - Valued
 - Ashamed
 - Regretful
 - Attractive
 - Anxious
 - Desirable
 - Disappointed
 - Satisfied
 - Embarrassed
 - Tired
 - Popular
 - Dirty
 - Likable
 - Immature
15. Looking back, how do you feel *now* about this last instance of casual sex?
(Open-ended)

16. Overall, how positive are your feelings *now* looking back after this last instance of casual sex occurred?
(1 *not at all* to 7 *extremely*)
17. Overall, how negative are your feelings *now* looking back after this last instance of casual sex occurred?
(1 *not at all* to 7 *extremely*)
18. Looking back, how do you feel about this last instance of casual sex *now*:
(1-*not at all* to 7-*extremely*)
- Happy
 - Used
 - Manipulative
 - Selfish
 - Excited
 - Worried
 - Uncomfortable
 - Afraid
 - Proud
 - Guilty
 - Sexy
 - Victimized
 - Thrilled
 - Powerful
 - Vulnerable
 - Valued
 - Ashamed
 - Regretful
 - Attractive
 - Anxious
 - Desirable
 - Disappointed
 - Satisfied
 - Embarrassed
 - Tired
 - Popular
 - Dirty
 - Likable
 - Immature
19. Which sexual activities did you and your partner engage in during this sexual encounter? Check all that apply.
- a. Cuddling
 - b. Light kissing (for example, a peck on the cheek or a brief closed mouth kiss)

- c. Heavy, passionate kissing (for example, "french kissing")
- d. Touch each other through our clothes
- e. Touch breasts
- f. Your partner touched your genitals
- g. You touched your partners genitals
- h. Your partner performed oral sex on you
- i. You performed oral sex on your partner
- j. Vaginal sex
- k. Anal sex

20. How long had you known this sexual partner before this instance?

- One day or less
- More than a day but less than a week
- More than a week but less than a month
- 1 to 3 months
- 4 to 6 months
- 7 to 12 months
- 1 year
- More than one year

21. How many times had you engaged in casual sex (vaginal, anal, or oral) with this same partner prior to this encounter?

- Zero, this was the first casual sex encounter with this partner
- One
- Two
- Three
- Four
- Five
- 6-10
- 10-20
- More than 20 times

22. How would you describe your relationship with this partner at the time of this encounter occurred?

- You had just met that day
- Acquaintance
- A friend
- Had been hanging out with him/her for a while as part of a group
- Had been on a few dates
- Ex-partner
- Other _____

23. What kind of relationship did you want just before this encounter occurred?

No further relationship beyond that particular sexual encounter
 More sexual encounters, but nothing else
 A friendship, with more sexual encounters
 A friendship, without more sexual encounters
 A non-exclusive dating relationship (you could both date other people)
 An exclusive dating relationship (you could only date each other)
 Other____

24. What kind of relationship did you expect *just before* this encounter occurred?

No further relationship beyond that particular sexual encounter
 More sexual encounters, but nothing else
 A friendship, with more sexual encounters
 A friendship, without more sexual encounters
 A non-exclusive dating relationship (you could both date other people)
 An exclusive dating relationship (you could only date each other)
 Other____

25. What kind of relationship did you have *after* this encounter occurred?

No further relationship beyond that particular sexual encounter
 More sexual encounters, but nothing else
 A friendship, with more sexual encounters
 A friendship, without more sexual encounters
 A non-exclusive dating relationship (you could both date other people)
 An exclusive dating relationship (you could only date each other)
 Other____

26. What kind of relationship do you believe **your partner** wanted *just before* this encounter occurred?

I don't believe my partner wanted any further relationship with me beyond that particular sexual encounter
 More sexual encounters, but nothing else
 A friendship, with more sexual encounters
 A friendship, without more sexual encounters
 A non-exclusive dating relationship (you could both date other people)
 An exclusive dating relationship (you could only date each other)

27. What kind of relationship do you believe **your partner** expected *just before* this encounter occurred?

I do not believe my partner expected any further relationship with me beyond that particular sexual encounter
 More sexual encounters, but nothing else
 A friendship, with more sexual encounters
 A friendship, without more sexual encounters
 A non-exclusive dating relationship (you could both date other people)
 An exclusive dating relationship (you could only date each other)
 Other____

28. Did you experience an orgasm during this sexual encounter?
Yes
No
Not sure
29. How sexually satisfied were you in general from this encounter?
(1 extremely dissatisfied to 7 extremely satisfied)
30. How much did your partner seem to care about your sexual satisfaction?
(1 not at all to 5 very much)
31. Did your partner experience an orgasm during this sexual encounter?
Yes
No
I don't know
32. How sexually satisfied do you believe your partner was from this encounter?
(1 extremely dissatisfied to 7 extremely satisfied)
33. How much did you care about your partner's sexual satisfaction?
(1 not at all to 5 very much)
34. Who initiated the sex?
I did
My partner did
It was mutual
I don't remember
35. How comfortable did you feel expressing your sexual desires during this encounter?
(1 very uncomfortable to 7 very comfortable)
36. To what extent did you feel comfortable refusing unwanted sexual activity (if any) during this encounter?
(1 very uncomfortable to 7 very comfortable)
37. Did you use a condom during this sexual encounter?
Yes
No
38. Did you drink alcohol before or during this sexual encounter?
**If "No" is selected, skip to "partner drink" questions*
Yes, I did drink alcohol
No, I did not drink alcohol
39. How intoxicated were you during this sexual encounter?

(1 not at all to 5 extremely)

40. How many drinks did you consume before/during this sexual encounter? It is okay to estimate.
 ____ (Number)
41. Did your partner drink alcohol before or during this sexual encounter?
 Yes
 No
 I don't know
 (If no or I don't know, skip to next section)
42. How intoxicated was your partner during this sexual encounter?
 (1 not at all to 5 extremely – or I don't know)
43. How many drinks did your partner consume before/during this sexual encounter? It is okay to estimate.
 ____ (Number)
44. Did this sexual encounter result in any unwanted consequences? If yes, please explain.
 No
 Yes (Open-ended)
45. What did your partner say that influenced how you felt after this sexual encounter?
 (Open-ended)
46. What did your partner do that influenced how you felt after this sexual encounter?
 (Open-ended)
47. Did any sexual activities occur during this sexual encounter that you did not want?
 I wanted *all* sexual activities that occurred during this sexual encounter
 I did not want *some* of the sexual activities that occurred during this sexual encounter
 I did not want *any* of the sexual activities that occurred during this sexual encounter
48. Did any sexual activities occur during this sexual encounter that your partner did not want?
 My partner wanted *all* sexual activities that occurred during this sexual encounter
 My partner did not want *some* of the sexual activities that occurred during this sexual encounter
 My partner did not want *any* of the sexual activities that occurred during this sexual encounter

49. Did your friends know/find out about your encounter?

I told one person

I told several people

I told a lot of people

People found out but not because I told them

No one found out

50. If your friends found out, how did they react?

They did not find out

All negative reactions

Mostly negative reactions

More negative than positive reactions

Even amount of positive and negative reactions

More positive than negative reactions

Mostly positive reactions

All positive reactions

APPENDIX C**SEXUAL ASSERTIVENESS**

This inventory is designed to measure the degree of sexual assertiveness you have in the sexual relationship with your partner. This is not a test, so there are no right or wrong answers. Please answer each item as accurately as you can by placing a number by each question as follows:

- 0-All of the time
- 1-Most of the time
- 2-Some of the time
- 3-Rarely
- 4-Never

1. I feel uncomfortable talking during sex.
2. I feel that I am shy when it comes to sex.
3. I approach my partner for sex when I desire it.*
4. I think I am open with my partner about my sexual needs.*
5. I enjoy sharing my sexual fantasies with my partner.*
6. I feel uncomfortable talking to my friends about sex.
7. I communicate my sexual desires to my partner.*
8. It is difficult for me to touch myself during sex.
9. It is hard for me to say no even when I do not want sex.
10. I am reluctant to describe myself as a sexual person.
11. I feel uncomfortable telling my partner what feels good.
12. I speak up for my sexual feelings.*
13. I am reluctant to insist that my partner satisfy me.
14. I find myself having sex when I do not really want it.
15. When a technique does not feel good, I tell my partner.*
16. I feel comfortable giving sexual praise to my partner.*
17. It is easy for me to discuss sex with my partner.*
18. I feel comfortable in initiating sex with my partner.*
19. I find myself doing sexual things that I do not like.

20. Pleasing my partner is more important than my pleasure.

21. I feel comfortable telling my partner how to touch me.*

22. I enjoy masturbating myself to orgasm.*

23. If something feels good, I insist on doing it again.*

24. It is hard for me to be honest about my sexual feelings.

25. I try to avoid discussing the subject of sex.

* Reverse coded.

APPENDIX D**GENDER ROLE STEREOTYPES***Traditional Sexual Gender Role Stereotypes*

Please answer the following questions honestly about your opinions of men and women.

Response options

strongly agree agree undecided disagree strongly disagree

1. It is expected that a woman be less sexually experienced than her partner.
2. A woman who is sexually active is less likely to be considered a desirable partner.
3. A woman should never appear to be prepared for a sexual encounter.
4. It is important that the man be sexually experienced so as to teach the woman.
5. A "good" woman would never have a one-night stand, but it is expected of a man.
6. It's important for a man to have multiple sexual experiences in order to gain experience.
7. In sex, the man should take the dominant role and the woman should assume the passive role.
8. It is acceptable for a woman to carry condoms.
9. It is worse for a woman to sleep around than it is for a man.
10. It is up to the man to initiate sex.

General Traditional and Egalitarian Gender Role Beliefs

1. A father's major responsibility is to provide financially for his children.
2. Men are more sexual than women.
3. Some types of work are just not appropriate for women.
4. Mothers should make most decisions about how children are brought up.
5. Mothers should work only if necessary.
6. Girls should be protected and watched over more than boys.
7. Only some types of work are appropriate for both women and men.
8. For many important jobs, it is better to choose men instead of women.

APPENDIX E

IMPULSIVITY

Please indicate your agreement with the following statements.

Premeditation:

1. I have a reserved and cautious attitude toward life.
2. My thinking is usually careful and purposeful.
3. I am not one of those people who blurt out things without thinking.
4. I like to stop and think things over before I do them.
5. I don't like to start a project until I know exactly how to proceed.
6. I tend to value and follow a rational, "sensible" approach to things.
7. I usually make up my mind through careful reasoning.
8. I am a cautious person.
9. Before I get into a new situation I like to find out what to expect from it.
10. I usually think carefully before doing anything.
11. Before making up my mind, I consider all the advantages and disadvantages.

Urgency:

1. I have trouble controlling my impulses.
2. I have trouble resisting my cravings (for food, cigarettes, etc.).
3. I often get involved in things I later wish I could get out of.
4. When I feel bad, I will often do things I later regret in order to make myself feel better now.
5. Sometimes when I feel bad, I can't seem to stop what I am doing even though it is making me feel worse.
6. When I am upset I often act without thinking.
7. When I feel rejected, I will often say things that I later regret.
8. It is hard for me to resist acting on my feelings.
9. I often make matters worse because I act without thinking when I am upset.
10. In the heat of an argument, I will often say things that I later regret.
11. I am always able to keep my feelings under control. (R)
12. Sometimes I do things on impulse that I later regret.

Sensation seeking:

1. I generally seek new and exciting experiences and sensations.
2. I'll try anything once.
3. I like sports and games in which you have to choose your next move very quickly.
4. I would enjoy water skiing.
5. I quite enjoy taking risks.
6. I would enjoy parachute jumping.

7. I welcome new and exciting experiences and sensations, even if they are a little frightening and unconventional.
8. I would like to learn to fly an airplane.
9. I sometimes like doing things that are a bit frightening.
10. I would enjoy the sensation of skiing very fast down a high mountain slope.
11. I would like to go scuba diving.
12. I would enjoy fast driving.

Perseverance:

1. I generally like to see things through to the end.
2. I tend to give up easily. (R)
3. Unfinished tasks really bother me.
4. Once I get going on something I hate to stop.
5. I concentrate easily.
6. I finish what I start.
7. I'm pretty good about pacing myself so as to get things done on time.
8. I am a productive person who always gets the job done.
9. Once I start a project, I almost always finish it.
10. There are so many little jobs that need to be done that I sometimes just ignore them all. (R)

Sexual Impulsivity:

1. I say yes to sex quickly.
2. I do not like delaying sexual pleasure.
3. I act upon my sexual urges without thinking.
4. I engage in sexual activity hastily.
5. My sexual urges are a priority.
6. I don't mind having sex with someone I just met.
7. My sexual activities are spur-of-the-moment.
8. I act on impulse when I have sex.
9. I have sex even if I have other important things to do.
10. I prefer immediate sexual pleasure over waiting for greater pleasure in the future.
11. I engage in one-night stands.

APPENDIX F

ALCOHOL USE

We are going to switch topics now and ask about alcohol consumption.

1a. *People drink alcohol in bars, with meals, in restaurants, at sporting events, at home while watching TV, and in many other places. During the past 12 months, how often did you usually have any kind of drink containing alcohol? By a drink we mean half an ounce of alcohol which would be a 12 ounce can or glass of beer or cooler, a 5 ounce glass of wine, or a drink containing 1 shot of liquor. Please choose the one response below that best describes your alcohol consumption during the past 12 months.*

- Every day
- 5 to 6 times a week
- 3 to 4 times a week
- twice a week
- once a week
- 2 to 3 times a month
- once a month
- 3 to 11 times in the past year
- 1 or 2 times in the past year
- I did not drink any alcohol in the past year, but I did drink in the past
- I never drank any alcohol in my life

1b. Just to be certain, you have never had a drink containing alcohol in your entire life?

- Yes, I never drank alcohol.
- No, I did drink some alcohol.

2. During the past 12 months, how many alcoholic drinks did you have on a **typical day when you drank** alcohol?

- 25 or more drinks
- 19 to 24 drinks
- 16 to 18 drinks
- 12 to 15 drinks
- 9 to 11 drinks
- 7 to 8 drinks
- 5 to 6 drinks
- 3 to 4 drinks
- 2 drinks
- 1 drink

3. **During the past 12 months**, how often did you have **4 or more drinks (5 or more drinks for men)** containing any kind of alcohol in a two-hour period? That would be the equivalent of at least four 12-ounce cans or bottles of beer or coolers, or four 5-ounce glasses of wine, or four drinks each containing one shot of liquor or spirits. Please

choose the one response that best describes how often you had that many drinks in a **two-hour** time period.

- Every day
- 5 to 6 days a week
- 3 to 4 days a week
- two days a week
- one day a week
- 2 to 3 days a month
- one day a month
- 3 to 11 days in the past year
- 1 or 2 days in the past year
- 0 days in the past year

4. **During your lifetime**, what is the maximum number of drinks containing alcohol that you drank within a 24-hour period?

- 36 drinks or more
- 24 to 35 drinks
- 18 to 23 drinks
- 12 to 17 drinks
- 8 to 11 drinks
- 5 to 7 drinks
- 4 drinks
- 3 drinks
- 2 drinks
- 1 drink

APPENDIX G

ALCOHOL EXPECTANCIES

Below are some statements about the effects alcohol has on people. Please answer in terms of the effects of a moderate amount of alcohol. You don't have to drink alcohol to have an opinion about how it would affect you.

response scale: 1 (not at all) 2 (a little) 3 (somewhat) 4 (quite a bit) 5 (very much)

When drinking alcohol....

Aggression

1. It is easy for me to have a fight or argument.
2. I am mean.
3. I say and do rude things.
4. I become hostile.
5. I am short-tempered.
6. I feel angry.

Sexual Affect

1. I am likely to be loving.
2. I am affectionate.
3. I am sensual.
4. I become passionate.
5. I say and do romantic things.

Sexual Drive

1. I have a strong sex drive.
2. I feel sexually aroused.
3. I become sexually excited.
4. I am interested in having sex.
5. I want to have sex.

Vulnerability to Sexual Coercion

1. I am at greater risk of being coerced into having sex.
2. I am more sexually vulnerable.
3. I am likely to be forced by a date to have sex.
4. I am likely to be pressured to have sex.
5. I become an easy target for men's sexual advances.

Cognitive and Behavioral Impairment

- I am clumsy.
- I feel dizzy.
- My head feels fuzzy.
- My responses are slow.
- I have difficulty thinking.

My writing is impaired.
I feel shaky or jittery the next day.
My senses are dulled.
I neglect my obligations.

Liquid Courage

I feel brave and daring.
I feel unafraid.
I feel powerful.
I act bold.
I feel courageous.

APPENDIX H**PEER APPROVAL OF CASUAL SEX**

Listed below are several statements that reflect your close friends' different attitudes about sex. For each statement fill in the response that indicates how much you agree or disagree with it.

Response scale: strongly disagree (1) -- strongly agree (5)

- a. My friends think that I do not need to be committed to a man/woman to have sex with him/her.
- b. My friends believe that casual sex is acceptable.
- c. My friends would like to have sex with many partners.
- d. My friends think that one night stands are sometimes enjoyable.
- e. My friends believe that it is okay to have ongoing sexual relationships with more than one person at a time.
- f. My friends think that sex as a simple exchange of favors is okay if both people agree to it.
- g. My friends believe that the best sex is with no strings attached.
- h. My friends think that life would have fewer problems if people could have sex more freely.
- i. My friends think that it is possible to enjoy sex with a person and not like that person very much.
- j. My friends think that it is okay for sex to be just a good physical release.

REFERENCES

- Abbey, A., McAuslan, P., Ross, L., & Zawacki, T. (1999). Alcohol expectancies regarding sex, aggression, and sexual vulnerability: Reliability and validity assessment. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, 13(3), 174-182. doi:10.1037/0893-164X.13.3.174
- Abramson, P. R., & Pinkerton, S. D. (2002). *With pleasure: Thoughts on the nature of human sexuality*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Ali, M.M. & Dwyer, D.S. (2011). Estimating peer effects in sexual behavior among adolescents. *Journal of Adolescence*, 34, 183-190. doi:10.1016/j.adolescence.2009.12.008
- Amaro, H. (1995). Love, sex, and power: Considering women's realities in HIV prevention. *American Psychologist*, 50(6), 437.
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103, 411-423.
- Armstrong, E. A., England, P., & Fogarty, A. C. K. (2012). Accounting for Women's Orgasm and Sexual Enjoyment in College Hookups and Relationships. *American Sociological Review*, 77(3), 435-462. doi: 10.1177/0003122412445802
- Armstrong, E. A., Hamilton, L., & England, P. (2010). Is hooking up bad for young women?. *Contexts*, 9(3), 22-27.
- Baber, K.M., & Tucker, C.J. (2006). The social roles questionnaire: A new approach to measuring attitudes toward gender. *Sex Roles*, 54, 459-467.

- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173.
- Baumeister, R. F., Catanese, K. R., & Vohs, K. D. (2001). Is there a gender difference in strength of sex drive? Theoretical views, conceptual distinctions, and a review of relevant evidence. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 5(3), 242-273.
- Baumeister, R. F., & Twenge, J. M. (2002). Cultural suppression of female sexuality. *Review of General Psychology*, 6, 166-203.
- Beckett, C., & Macey, M. (2001). Race, gender and sexuality: the oppression of multiculturalism. In *Women's Studies International Forum* (Vol. 24, No. 3, pp. 309-319). Pergamon.
- Bergdall, A. R., Kraft, J., Andes, K., Carter, M., Hatfield-Timajchy, K., & Hock-Long, L. (2012). Love and Hooking Up in the New Millennium: Communication Technology and Relationships among Urban African American and Puerto Rican Young Adults. *Journal of Sex Research*, 49(6), 570. doi:10.1080/00224499.2011.604748
- Bogle, K. A. (2007). The shift from dating to hooking up in college: What scholars have missed. *Sociology Compass*, 1(2), 775-788.
- Boomsma, A. & Hoogland, J.J. (2001). The robustness of LISREL modeling revisited. In: R. Cudeck, S. du Toit & D. Sorbom (Eds), *Structural equation modeling: Present and future* (pp. 139–168). Chicago, IL: Scientific Software International.
- Bradshaw, C., Kahn, A. S., & Saville, B. K. (2010). To hook up or date: Which gender benefits? *Sex Roles*, 62, 661– 669. doi: 10.1007/s11199-010-9765-7

- Brandhorst, S. R., Ferguson, B., Sebby, R. A., & Weeks, R. (2012). The Influence of Peer Sexual Activity upon College Students' Sexual Behavior. *North American Journal of Psychology, 14*(1), 111-121.
- Buss, D. M., & Schmitt, D. P. (1993). Sexual strategies theory: An evolutionary perspective on human mating. *Psychological Review, 100*, 204-232. doi: 10.1037/0033-295X.100.2.204
- Campbell, A. (2008). The morning after the night before: Affective reactions to one-night stands among mated and unmated women and men. *Human Nature, 19*, 157–173. doi: 10.1007/s12110-008-9036-2
- Caron, S.L., Davis, C.M., Halteman, W.A., & Sticke, M. (1993). Predictors of condom-related behaviors among first-year college students. *The Journal of Sex Research, 30*, 252-259.
- Chia, S. C., & Gunther, A. C. (2006). How media contribute to misperceptions of social norms about sex. *Mass Communication & Society, 9*, 301– 320. doi: 10.1207/s15327825mcs0903_3
- Cialdini, R. (2007). Descriptive social norms as underappreciated sources of social control. *Psychometrika, 72*(2), 263-268.
- Clark, R. D., & Hatfield, E. (1989). Gender differences in receptivity to sexual offers. *Journal of Psychology & Human Sexuality, 2*, 39-55. doi: 10.1300/J056v02n01_04
- Conley, T. D. (2010). Perceived proposer personality characteristics and gender differences in acceptance of casual sex offers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 100*, 309-329. doi: 10.1037/a0022152

- Conley, T. D., & Collins, B. E. (2002). Gender, relationship status, and stereotyping about sexual risk. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *28*, 1483-1494. doi: 10.1177/014616702237576
- Conley, T. D., Ziegler, A., & Moors, A. C. (2012). Backlash From the Bedroom Stigma Mediates Gender Differences in Acceptance of Casual Sex Offers. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*.
- Copenhaver, M. M., Lash, S. J., & Eisler, R. M. (2000). Masculine gender-role stress, anger, and male intimate abusiveness: Implications for men's relationships. *Sex Roles*, *42*(5-6), 405-414.
- Crawford, M., & Popp, D. (2003). Sexual double standards: A review and methodological critique of two decades of research. *Journal of Sex Research*, *40*, 13– 26. doi: 10.1080/00224490309552163
- Cross, C. P., Copping, L. T., & Campbell, A. (2011). Sex Differences in Impulsivity: A Meta-Analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, *137*(1), 97-130.
- Daly, M., & Wilson, M. (1979). *Sex, evolution, and behavior*. N. Scituate , MA : Duxbury.
- Daruna, J. H. & Barnes, P. A. (1993). A neurodevelopmental view of impulsivity. In W.G. McCown, J. L. Johnson, M. B. Shure (Eds). *The impulsive client: Theory, research and treatment*. Washington, DC: APA
- Dermen, K. H., & Cooper, M. (2000). Inhibition conflict and alcohol expectancy as moderators of alcohol's relationship to condom use. *Experimental and Clinical Psychopharmacology*, *8*(2), 198-206. doi:10.1037/1064-1297.8.2.198

- Downing-Matibag, T. M., & Geisinger, B. (2009). Hooking up and sexual risk taking among college students: A health belief model perspective. *Qualitative Health Research, 19*, 1196– 1209. doi: 10.1177/1049732309344206
- Earleywine, M., & Martin, C. S. (1993). Anticipated stimulant and sedative effects of alcohol vary with dosage and limb of the blood alcohol curve. *Alcoholism: Clinical and Experimental Research, 17*(1), 135-139.
- Edger, K. (2012). Evangelicalism, sexual morality, and sexual addiction: Opposing views and continued conflicts. *Journal of Religion and Health, 51*(1), 162-178. doi:10.1007/s10943-010-9338-7
- Eisenberg, M. E., Ackard, D. M., Resnick, M. D., & Neumark-Sztainer, D. (2009). Casual sex and psychological health among young adults: Is having “friends with benefits” emotionally damaging?. *Perspectives on Sexual and Reproductive Health, 41*(4), 231-237.
- Feldman, S. S., Turner, R. A., & Araujo, K. (1999). Interpersonal context as an influence on sexual timetables of youths: Gender and ethnic effects. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 9*(1), 25-52.
- Fielder, R. L., & Carey, M. P. (2010a). Prevalence and characteristics of sexual hookups among first-semester female college students. *Journal of Sex & Marital Therapy, 36*, 346– 359. doi: 10.1080/0092623X.2010.488118
- Fielder, R. L., & Carey, M. P. (2010b). Predictors and consequences of sexual “hookups” among college students: A short-term prospective study. *Archives of Sexual Behavior, 39*, 1105– 1119. doi: 10.1007/s10508-008-9448-4

- Finer, L. B., & Zolna, M. R. (2011). Unintended pregnancy in the United States: incidence and disparities, 2006. *Contraception*, *84*(5), 478-485.
- Fisher, J. D. (1988). Possible effects of reference group-based social influence on AIDS-risk behavior and AIDS-prevention. *American Psychologist*, *43*(11), 914-920. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.43.11.914
- Fisher, M. L., Worth, K., Garcia, J. R., & Meredith, T. (2012). Feelings of regret following uncommitted sexual encounters in Canadian university students. *Culture, Health & Sexuality*, *14*(1), 45-57.
- Garcia, J. R., & Reiber, C. (2008). Hook-up behavior: A biopsychosocial perspective. *The Journal of Social, Evolutionary, and Cultural Psychology*, *2*, 192– 208.
- Garcia, J. R., Reiber, C., Massey, S. G., & Merriwether, A. M. (2012). Sexual hookup culture: A review. *Review of General Psychology*, *16*(2), 161-176. doi:10.1037/a0027911
- Glenn, N., & Marquardt, E. (2001). Hooking up, hanging out, and hoping for Mr. Right. In *An Institute for American Values Report to the Independent Women's Forum*.
- Godbeer, R. (2004). Courtship and Sexual Freedom in Eighteenth-Century America. *OAH Magazine of History*, *18*(4), 9-13. doi:10.2307/25163694
- Goldin, C., & Katz, L. F. (2000). *The power of the pill: oral contraceptives and women's career and marriage decisions* (No. w7527). National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Granö, N., Virtanen, M., Vahtera, J., Elovainio, M., & Kivimäki, M. (2004). Impulsivity as a predictor of smoking and alcohol consumption. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *37*(8), 1693-1700.

- Greene, K., & Faulkner, S. (2005). Gender, belief in the sexual double standard, and sexual talk in heterosexual dating relationships. *Sex Roles, 53*, 239–251.
- Greenwood, J., & Guner, N. (2010). Social change: The sexual revolution. *International Economic Review, (4)*, 893. doi:10.2307/40929496
- Grello, C. M., Welsh, D. P., & Harper, M. S. (2006). No strings attached: The nature of casual sex in college students. *Journal of Sex Research, 43*, 255-267.
- Grello, C. M., Welsh, D. P., Harper, M. S., & Dickson, J. W. (2003). Dating and sexual relationship trajectories and adolescent functioning. *Adolescent and Family Health, 3*, 103-112.
- Gustafson, P. E. (1998). Gender differences in risk perception: Theoretical and methodological approaches. *Risk Analysis, 18*, 805-811.
- Hatfield, E., & Rapson, R. L. (1995). *Love and sex: Cross-cultural perspectives*. (pp. 1-291). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Hefner, R.M., & Oleshansky, B. (1976). A Model of Sex-Role Transcendence. *Journal of Social Issues, 32*(3), 197-206.
- Herold, E. S., & Mewhinney, D A.K. (1993). Gender differences in casual sex and AIDS prevention: A survey of dating bars. *Journal of Sex Research, 30*(1), 36-42.
- Hendrick, C., Hendrick, S. S., & Reich, D. A. (2006). The Brief Sexual Attitudes Scale. *Journal of Sex Research, 43*(1), 76-86.
- Hobbs, D. R., & Gallup, G. G. (2011). Song as a medium for embedded reproductive messages. *Evolutionary Psychology, 9*, 390– 416.

- Hurlbert, D.F. (1991). The role of assertiveness in female sexuality: A comparative study between sexually assertive and sexually nonassertive women. *Journal of Sex & Marital Therapy, 17*(3), 183-190. doi: 10.1080/00926239108404342
- Hynie, M., Lydon, J. E., Côté, S., & Wiener, S. (1998). Relational sexual scripts and women's condom use: The importance of internalized norms relational sexual scripts and women's condom use. *The Journal of Sex Research, 35*, 370-380.
- Impett, E. A., & Peplau, L. A. (2003). Sexual compliance: Gender, motivational, and relationship perspectives. *The Journal of Sex Research, 40*, 87-100.
- Jonason, P. K., & Marks, M. J. (2009). Common vs. uncommon sexual acts: Evidence for the sexual double standard. *Sex Roles, 60*(5-6), 357-365.
- Kays, K., Gathercoal, K., & Buhrow, W. (2012). Does survey format influence self-disclosure on sensitive question items?. *Computers in Human Behavior, 28*(1), 251-256.
- Kelly, C. (2012). Sexism in Practice: Feminist Ethics Evaluating the Hookup Culture. *Journal of Feminist Studies in Religion, 28*(2), 27-48.
- Kelly, J., & Bazzini, D. G. (2001). Gender, sexual experience, and the sexual double standard: Evaluations of female contraceptive behavior. *Sex Roles, 45*(11-12), 785-799.
- Kenneth, M., & Yitzchak M, B. (2001). The nature of human orgasm: a critical review of major trends. *Clinical Psychology Review, 21*823-856. doi:10.1016/S0272-7358(00)00069-6
- Kiene, S., Barta, W., Tennen, H., & Armeli, S. (2009). Alcohol, Helping Young Adults to Have Unprotected Sex with Casual Partners: Findings from a Daily Diary Study of

- Alcohol Use and Sexual Behavior. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 44(1), 73-80.
doi:10.1016/j.jadohealth.2008.05.008
- Kunkel, D., Eyal, K., Finnerty, K., Biely, E., & Donnerstein, E. (2005). *Sex on TV 4*. Menlo Park, CA: Henry J. Kaiser Family Foundation.
- Lambert, T. A., Kahn, A. S., & Apple, K. J. (2003). Pluralistic ignorance and hooking up. *Journal of Sex Research*, 40, 129– 133. doi: 10.1080/00224490309552174
- Larimer, M. E., Turner, A. P., Mallett, K. A., & Geisner, I. M. (2004). Predicting Drinking Behavior and Alcohol-Related Problems Among Fraternity and Sorority Members: Examining the Role of Descriptive and Injunctive Norms. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, 18, 203-212.
- Leech, T.G.J. (2010). Everything's better in moderation: Young women's gender role attitudes and risky sexual behavior. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 46437-443.
doi:10.1016/j.jadohealth.2009.10.012
- Leigh, B. C. (1989). Reasons for having and avoiding sex: Gender, sexual orientation, and relationship to sexual behavior. *Journal of Sex Research*, 26, 199-209.
- Lewis, M. A., Granato, H., Blayney, J. A., Lostutter, T. W., & Kilmer, J. R. (2011). Predictors of hooking up sexual behavior and emotional reactions among U.S. college students. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, doi: 10.1007/s10508-011-9817-2
- Lippa, R. A. (2009). Sex differences in sex drive, sociosexuality, and height across 53 nations: testing evolutionary and social structural theories. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 38, 631– 651.
- Lucke, J. (1998) Gender roles and sexual behavior among young women. *Sex Roles*, 39, 273–297.

- Malhotra, S. (2008). Impact of the sexual revolution: consequences of risky sexual behaviors. *Journal of American Physicians & Surgeons*, 13(3), 88-90.
- Ménard, A., & Offman, A. (2009). The interrelationships between sexual self-esteem, sexual assertiveness and sexual satisfaction. *Canadian Journal of Human Sexuality*, 18(1-2), 35-45.
- McIlhanev Jr, J. S., & Freda McKissic Bush, M. D. (2008). *Hooked: New science on how casual sex is affecting our children*. Northfield Publishing.
- “Nones on the Rise: One-in-Five Adults Have No Religious Affiliation”, Pew Research Center’s Forum on Religion & Public Life, Washington, D.C. (2012) http://www.pewforum.org/uploadedFiles/Topics/Religious_Affiliation/Unaffiliated/NonesOnTheRise-full.pdf, accessed on July 9, 2013.
- Owen, J., & Fincham, F. D. (2011). Young adults' emotional reactions after hooking up encounters. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 40, 321– 330. doi: 10.1007/s10508-010-9652-x
- Owen, J. J., Rhoades, G. K., Stanley, S. M., & Fincham, F. D. (2010). “Hooking up” among college students: Demographic and psychosocial correlates. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 39, 653– 663. doi: 10.1007/s10508-008-9414-1
- Park, H. S., & Smith, S. W. (2007). Distinctiveness and influence of subjective norms, personal descriptive and injunctive norms, and societal descriptive and injunctive norms on behavioral intent: A case of two behaviors critical to organ donation. *Human Communication Research*, 93, 194-218.

- Paul, E. L., & Hayes, K. A. (2002). The casualties of “casual” sex: A qualitative exploration of the phenomenology of college students' hookups. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 19*, 639– 661. doi: 10.1177/0265407502195006
- Peugh, J., & Belenko, S. (2001). Alcohol, drugs and sexual function: a review. *Journal of Psychoactive Drugs, 33*(3), 223-232.
- Peplau, L. A. (2003). Human sexuality: How do men and women differ?. *Human Current Directions in Psychological Science, 12*, 37-40. doi: 10.1111/1467-8721.01221
- Peterson, J. L., & Hyde, J. S. (2010). A meta-analytic review of research on gender differences in sexuality, 1993-2007. *Psychological Bulletin, 136*, 21-138.
- Pierce, A.P. & Hurlbert, M.K. (1999). Test-retest reliability of the Hurlbert index of sexual assertiveness. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 88*, 31-34.
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers, 36*(4), 717-731.
- Prentice, D. A. and Miller, D. T. (1993) Pluralistic ignorance and alcohol use on campus: Some consequences of misperceiving the social norm. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 64*, 243–256.
- Raykov, T. & Marcoulides, G. A. (2006). *A first course in structural equation modeling: 2nd Edition*. New York: Psychology Press.
- Regan, P. C., & Dreyer, C. S. (1999). Lust? Love? Status? Young adult's motives for engaging in casual sex. *Journal of Psychology and Human Sexuality, 11*, 1-24.
- Regnerus, Mark D. 2007. *Forbidden Fruit: Sex and Religion in the Lives of American Teenagers*. New York: Oxford University Press.

- Reiber, C., & Garcia, J. R. (2010). Hooking up: Gender differences, evolution, and pluralistic ignorance. *Evolutionary Psychology*, 8, 390–404.
- Risman, B., & Schwartz, P. (2002). After the sexual revolution: Gender politics in teen dating. *Contexts*, 1(1), 16-24.
- Schalling, D. (1978). Psychopathy-related personality variables and the psychophysiology of socialization. In: R.D. Hare & D. Schalling (Eds.), *Psychopathic Behaviour: (pp. 85-106). Approaches to research*. New York: Wiley.
- Schmidt, R. E., & Van der Linden, M. (2009). The aftermath of rash action: Sleep-interfering counterfactual thoughts and emotions. *Emotion*, 9(4), 549-553. doi:10.1037/a0015856
- Settles, R. F., Cyders, M., & Smith, G. T. (2010). Longitudinal validation of the acquired preparedness model of drinking risk. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, 24(2), 198.
- Shearer, C. L., Hosterman, S. J., Gillen, M. M., & Lefkowitz, E. S. (2005). Are traditional gender role attitudes associated with risky sexual behavior and condom-related beliefs?. *Sex Roles*, 52(5-6), 311-324.
- Simon, W., & Gagnon, J. H. (1986). Sexual scripts: Permanence and change. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 15, 97–120. doi: 10.1007/BF01542219
- Spears, N. (2006). Just moseying around and happening upon it versus a master plan: Minimizing regret in impulse versus planned sales promotion purchases. *Psychology and Marketing*, 23, 57–73. doi: 10.1002/mar.20110

- Stinson, R. D. (2010). Hooking up in young adulthood: A review of factors influencing the sexual behavior of college students. *Journal of College Student Psychotherapy, 24*(2), 98-115.
- Tabachnick, B. G. & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics: 5th Ed.* Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Townsend, J. M., Kline, J., & Wasserman, T. H. (1995). Low-investment copulation: Sex differences in motivations and emotional reactions. *Ethology and Sociobiology, 16*(1), 25-51.
- Trafimow, D., & Finlay, K. A. (2001). The importance of traits and group memberships. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 31*(1), 37-43.
- Walker, D., Messman-Moore, T., & Ward, R. (2011). Number of sexual partners and sexual assertiveness predict sexual victimization: Do more partners equal more risk?. *Violence & Victims, 26*(6), 774-787.
- Walter, H. J., Vaughan, R. D., Gladis, M. M., Ragin, D., Kasen, S., & Cohall, A. T. (1992). Factors Associated with AIDS Risk Behaviors among High School Students in an AIDS Epicenter. *American Journal of Public Health, 82*(4), 528.
- White, A. M. (2003). What happened? Alcohol, memory blackouts, and the brain. *Alcohol Research and Health, 27*(2), 186-196.
- White, H. R., Fleming, C. B., Catalano, R. F., & Bailey, J. A. (2009). Prospective associations among alcohol use-related sexual enhancement expectancies, sex after alcohol use, and casual sex. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors, 23*(4), 702-707. doi:10.1037/a0016630

- Whiteside, S. P., & Lynam, D. R. (2009). Understanding the role of impulsivity and externalizing psychopathology in alcohol abuse: application of the UPPS impulsive behavior scale. *Experimental and Clinical Psychopharmacology* 11(3), 210.
- Whiteside, S. P., & Lynam, D. R. (2001). The Five Factor Model and impulsivity: using a structural model of personality to understand impulsivity. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 30(4), 669-689. doi: 10.1016/S0191-8869(00)00064-7
- Wiederman, M. W. (2005). The gendered nature of sexual scripts. *The Family Journal*, 13, 496– 502. doi: 10.1177/1066480705278729
- Wilcox, R. R. (2001). *Fundamentals of modern statistical methods: Substantially improving power and accuracy*. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Williams, L. J., & O'Boyle, Jr., E. H. (2008). Measurement models for linking latent variables and indicators: A review of human resource management research using parcels. *Human Resource Management Review*, 18, 233-242.
- Wright, P. J. (2012). Pornography consumption, cocaine use, and casual sex among U.S. adults. *Psychological Reports*, 111(1), 305-310. doi:10.2466/18.02.13.PR0.111.4.305-310
- Wouters, C. (1998). Balancing sex and love since the 1960s Sexual Revolution. *Theory, Culture & Society*, 15(3/4), 187-214.

ABSTRACT**PREDICTORS OF POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE AFFECT FOLLOWING CASUAL SEX**

by

JACQUELINE WOERNER**December 2014****Advisor:** Antonia Abbey, PhD**Major:** Psychology (Cognitive, Developmental, & Social)**Degree:** Master of Arts

The purpose of this study was to identify predictors of positive and negative affect following a recent casual sex experience in a sample of 585 men and women using a cross-sectional design. Structural Equation Modeling analyses identified sexual satisfaction, sexual assertiveness, belief in traditional gender roles, impulsivity, alcohol use, sex-related alcohol expectancies, and peer approval of casual sex as significant predictors of positive and negative affect. Support for hypotheses regarding gender differences were found: men reported greater positive affect and sexual satisfaction, and some predictors were significant for one gender but not the other. Practical implications for emotional and sexual risk reduction as well as suggestions for future longitudinal research are discussed.

AUTBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

Jackie Woerner graduated summa cum laude with a Bachelor of Science in Psychology and Bachelor of Arts in Global Studies from Appalachian State University in 2012. She is currently a social health doctoral student at Wayne State University, working with Dr. Antonia Abbey and Dr. Catalina Kopetz. Her research interests focus on examining sexual assault perpetration and risky sexual behavior. She is specifically interested in the role of alcohol, gender norms, and normative influence in sexual aggression and risky sex. She is also interested in the effects of sexual victimization and HIV/AIDS on mental health. Other interest include cultural differences in the experience and perception of violence and abuse, as well as gender-based violence on the societal level.