

Intermediate Relationships and a Nuanced, Feministic Evolutionary Psychology

A Quantitative Study of Relationship Status, Sexual Behavior and Emotions.

Nina Charlotte Søsnes

Graduate Thesis in Clinical Psychology

Supervisors: Leif Edward Ottesen Kennair and Mons Bendixen

Trondheim, May 2018

Preface

At the beginning of this project my main goal was to correct evolutionary psychology on the areas where I found the theory lacking. For a long period of time I have been agonizing over the evolutionary psychology discourse, which is occupied with sex differences. From a political stand point I believe a person should be allowed to do or be whatever they choose to be, without expectations from society tied to biological sex. Research about sex differences, especially when it comes to research on romantic involvement and sexual behavior can, the way I see it, contribute to lower tolerance for diversity. This is not caused by the research in itself, but in the overconfident way it often is presented, as an absolute truth. The assumption that the root of our behavior lies deep within our genetics, as something we are not even conscious about stands out as an oversimplification of human behavior and development, that does not coincide with modern take on psychology and behavior as a result of a biopsychosocial transactional process. This project has for me been a positive way to learn about evolutionary psychology and try to make sense of it within a feministic framework. By introducing intermediate as a relationship category I believed we would see a more nuanced picture of sexual behavior, and I was hopeful that I could prove that the ancient belief that casual sex is damaging to women's mental health was wrong. I hope this research can contribute to developing evolutionary psychology, and maybe lead to more studies on intermediate relationships.

This graduate thesis is based on a quantitative research project. The research project is not a part of any other bigger project. I have been responsible for developing predictions, developing the questionnaire, distribution of questionnaires and recruitment of respondents. Analysis of the data was mainly done by me, but with close attention and collaboration with the supervisors. The questionnaire is added in appendix.

I want to thank all the respondents that have answered the questionnaire for their participation. Kyrre Svarva helped me with layout of the questionnaire and scanning the results. I want to thank him for the great help. I also must send a thank you to Mons Bendixen for indispensable help with the analysis and statistics. And last, but not least, a great thank you to Leif Edward Ottesen Kennair for your insight, good debates, inspiration and all help. I could never have done this without their help, and I am very grateful.

Abstract

Many studies in evolutionary psychology (EP) make a major distinction between short-term vs. long-term relationship status. The current study suggests that relationships with low commitment and intermediate duration are frequent. There is reason to assume that; sexual strategies theory predicts that there will be sex differences in satisfaction depending on relationship status, where men in general are more satisfied with opportunities for short-term mating than women are. Possibly women in intermediate relationships are less satisfied due to low commitment from partners. Third wave feminism predicts that women in intermediate relationships will be more or equally satisfied than men, due to possible exploration of sexuality with greater safety than short-term allows. Participants (N=529) answered questions regarding relationship status, satisfaction and excitement, commitment and quality, and expectancies and sexual behavior. Sample were Norwegian students. 10% of the respondents belonged in the intermediate group. The results are inconsistent with both theoretical approaches. Both sexes are more satisfied in long-term relationships than short-term. There are no sex differences among singles, inconsistent with both perspectives. There were no sex differences in the intermediate group. The intermediates had the same levels of satisfaction as the singles, while excitement was similar to those in relationships. The implications of the findings in relation to both evolutionary psychology and third wave feminism, as well as implications for further research on sexual behavior, are discussed.

Content

Preface

Abstract

Intermediate Relationships and a Nuanced, Feministic Evolutionary Psychology	1
1. <i>Introduction</i>	1
1.1. Intermediate relationships	1
1.2 Evolutionary psychology and sexual strategies theory	6
1.3 Third wave feminism	8
1.4 Evolutionary psychology vs. third wave feminism	11
1.5 Aims and predicitons	14
2. <i>Methods</i>	15
2.1 Participants	15
2.2 Procedure	16
2.3 Materials	16
3. <i>Results</i>	19
3.1 Intermediates	19
3.2 Prediction 1 – sex differences in satisfaction and excitement	19
3.3 Predicton 2 – expectations of romantic relationship	22
3.4 Prediction 3 – what predictors influence satisfaction and excitement?	23
3.5 Research questions – Differences within the relationship categories and sex differences.	28
4. <i>Discussion</i>	30
4.1 Prevalence and categorization	30
4.2 Prediction 1 - Satisfaction and excitement	30
4.3 Prediction 2 – Expectations	32
4.3 Prediction 3 - Commitment, Expectations and Sociosexuality	33
4.4 Research questions - Qualitative differences and dimensions	35
4.5 Evolutionary Psychology vs. Third Wave Feminism.	37
4.6 Limitations and implications for further research	39
4.7 Conclusions	41
References	42
Appendix	47

Intermediate Relationships and a Nuanced, Feministic Evolutionary Psychology

1. Introduction

Human sexual behavior has for a long time excited researchers and is used as evidence supporting evolutionary sciences and theories. This has created controversy surrounding evolutionary psychology with social constructionist feminists as one of the largest critics. This paper will discuss the different views of human sexual behavior, and attempt to bridge the gap through introducing new factors in studying sex differences in sexual behavior.

1.1. Intermediate relationships

1.1.1 Relevance. Research on human behavior regarding sexuality, mating behavior and partner preferences have mostly been focused on a dichotomous perception of single and not-single (William Pedersen, Putcha-Bhagavatula, & Miller, 2011). Mostly studies on casual sex, focus on single individuals and casual sexual encounters, or stable relationships and marriage (Pedersen et al., 2011). Particularly in the younger population semi-committed relationships are emerging (García, Soriano, & Arriaza, 2014; Lehmler, VanderDrift, & Kelly, 2011). These are the type of stable sexual relationships, with or without friendships, that are not defined as romantic relationships and are often non-exclusive (Glenn & Marquardt, 2001). Throughout the paper these types of relationships will be referred to as intermediate relationships.

In an article by Pedersen et al. (2011) on sex differences and critique on evolutionary psychology, he pointed out the lack of studies on individuals in intermediate relationships, and that this should be the path forward for evolutionary psychology as it might lead us to unusual patterns of sex differences. This especially since it is common amongst college students, which typically is the population that participates in studies on evolutionary psychology (Pedersen et al., 2011). Intermediate relationships in this paper will include all forms of stable sexual relationships that cannot be categorized as a romantically committed relationship. This includes friends with benefits, sexual relationships without commitment, and committed sexual relationships without the emotional commitment you find in a romantic relationship. In Pedersen et al.'s (2011) study they found no sex difference in resources spent on attaining short-term and long-term relationships, which is in contrast to previous research.

In this study they introduced intermediate relationships, which can account for the differences. Some previous research by Pedersen, Miller, Putcha-Bhagavatula & Yang (2002) suggests that almost all individuals in the end seek to end up in a long-term relationship (98.9 % men and 99.2 % women). To add to the research of human mating and romantic experiences these types of relationships can add new information regarding human behavior (Pedersen et al., 2011).

1.1.2. Operationalization and frequency. In research articles, uncommitted sexual relationships of different durations have several names, and operationalization is needed. Examples are: chance-encounters, one night stands, hookups, friends with benefits, open relationships etc. (Grello, Welsh, & Harper, 2006). Friends with Benefits (FWB) is the most frequently studied of the mentioned. FWB has the same ingredients as normal friendship, with emotional contact, understanding and bonding through activities (Sprecher & Regan, 2002). What separates friends with benefits from regular friendships is the physical intimacy. This brings the relationship closer to a romantic relationship, but still it is without the passion and commitment of a full-blown romantic relationship (Glenn & Marquardt, 2001). In addition, you find those who engage in stable sexual relationships without friendship, and those who are in an early stage of a relationship, with uncommitted sexual intimacy that may evolve into a romantic committed relationship later (Fielder & Carey, 2010). In a study of 125 students approximately 60% of the students report that they have been in a FWB-relationship (Bisson & Levine, 2009). This was also found in Pedersen et al.'s study (2011), where 62.9% responded that they had a sexual relationship of intermediate duration.

These types of hookups are thought to be an important part of adolescent and young adult development of sexual preferences and social identity (Weitbrecht & Whitton, 2017). It is also hypothesized that these types of unstructured sexual relationships are young adult's way of seeking companionship and intimacy, and that many of them presumably have a hope for the relationship evolving into a serious romantic relationship (Weitbrecht & Whitton, 2017). However, only a minor number of intermediate relationships turn into something more than casual hookups, according to the small number of studies on the subject (Garcia & Reiber, 2008; Grello et al., 2006). When you look at it the other way around a study found that 67% of individuals in a romantic relationships state that the relationship started as casual hooking up (England, Shafer, & Fogarty, 2008), which indicates that these relations can be an important cue to understanding romantic pair-bonding in young adults.

1.1.3 Sexual behavior and mental health.

According to the World Health Organization (WHO) sexual health is defined as “A state of physical, emotional, mental and social well-being related to sexuality; it is not merely the absence of disease, dysfunction or infirmity. Sexual health requires a positive and respectful approach to sexuality and sexual relationships, as well as the possibility of having pleasurable and safe sexual experiences, free of coercion, discrimination and violence. For sexual health to be attained and maintained, the sexual rights of all persons must be respected, protected and fulfilled” (Edwards & Coleman, 2004p. 1) . Our psychological health is of importance to our sexual health and vice versa (García et al., 2014). Considering the nature of intermediate relationships, with intimacy through sexual intercourse, but without the psychological intimacy of a full-blown relationship, we can wonder how this affects sexual health and our psychological wellbeing. Examining sex differences and feelings in these types of sexual relationships is interesting when it comes to theories about sex difference, but can also provide information about psychological and sexual health.

Earlier studies and literature on the field of intermediate relationships show that individuals involved in FWB- relationships do not have higher frequency of negative emotions than individuals who do not engage in these types of relationships (Eisenberg, Ackard, Resnick, & Neumark-Sztainer, 2009). It has been found that the positive emotions outweigh the negative for both sexes (Lewis, Granato, Blayney, Lostutter, & Kilmer, 2012). This implies that these types of relationships are most of all a positive contribution to young people’s sexual development. Of course, as I will get back to later, feelings will vary with expectations (García et al., 2014; Lehmiller et al., 2011), commitment (Owen & Fincham, 2011) and possibly vary with sex (Buss & Schmitt, 1993). For example, even though both sexes report more positive than negative feelings, women report less positive emotions than men (Lehmiller et al., 2011).

1.1.4 Intermediate relationships – commitment and expectations. Lehmiller, VanderDrift & Kelly (2011) have concluded that friendship and bonding is an important aspect of intermediate relationships. This is in concordance with Sternberg’s (1986) Triangular Theory of love where commitment, passion and intimacy are the most important components of relationship satisfaction. This is also in concordance with Rubin’s theory

(1970) when he assumes that love is a result of an interpersonal attitude that consists of a affiliative and dependent need (Rubin, 1970).The importance of commitment is showed in several studies. Madey & Rogers (2009), found that the association between relationship satisfaction and attachment security is mediated by commitment and intimacy. A new study by Grebe et al. (2017) has shown increased levels of oxytocin in individuals who experience higher investment than their partner, indicating that they put a great deal of resources into the relationships when they percept that it is a discrepancy in commitment. If commitment is as important as suggested this might also play an important part in intermediate relationships as well. What is the appeal of these relationships? The feeling of stability without commitment, or on the contrary the excitement caused by lack of commitment?

Women have reported absence of commitment as one of the core motivational factors in a study By Gusarova, Frasier and Alderson (2012). Still, in other studies, friendships and closeness are reported as motivational factors for both sexes (Lehmiller et al., 2011). In the Gusarova, Frasier and Alderson (2012) study they also found that when absence of commitment is one of the core motivational factors, both women and men will report greater satisfaction with the relationship. This points to how our expectations help form our satisfaction. Gusarova and colleagues (2012) also investigated expectations about emotional complications and potential desire for the relationship to develop into something more than just an intermediate relationship. They found that both sexes reported unexpected emotional complications. More women than men reported that they wanted the relationship to evolve into more than a short-term relationship, and this correlated with having a negative experience of the FWB-relationship for both sexes. This was also tested in a study by Lehmiller et al. (2011) where they found that 69% of women hoped that the relationship would evolve and only 40% of men.

For the most part studies of intermediate relationships concern previous experiences with e.g. FWB-relationships (Gusarova et al., 2012; Lewis et al., 2012; Owen & Fincham, 2011). In Garcia et al's study (2014) they focused on current relationship status. To use only respondents who currently are in an intermediate relationship would provide more direct information about emotions (Lehmiller et al., 2011), and when including respondents who are in a relationship you get the advantage of grounds for comparison (Birnie-Porter & Hunt, 2015)

1.1.5 Sociosexuality. Sociosexuality (SOI) is described as an individual variety in desired frequency of intercourse, preferred number of sexual partners, inclination towards extramarital affairs, attitudes towards casual sex and frequency and content of sexual thoughts (Simpson & Gangestad, 1991). Many of these sociosexual behaviors covary, and has therefore been suggested that their a part of the same phenomenon; sociosexuality. It has often been used in studies with casual sex, and is also included in some studies on intermediate relationships (Simpson & Gangestad, 1991; Vrangalova & Ong, 2014).

It has been observed a sex difference in SOI, where men more often have an unrestricted sociosexual orientation than women (Schmitt, 2005; Simpson & Gangestad, 1991). It is said that this might be an expression of different sexual strategies (Buss & Barnes, 1986; Buss & Schmitt, 1993). Still it is important to ad that if you put studies of the components of SOI against one another, the variability you will find within each sex will be greater than the variability between the sexes (Simpson & Gangestad, 1991; Snyder, Simpson, & Gangestad, 1986). There has been proposed several models for explaining the individual variance that is not explained by sex (Simpson, Wilson & Winterheld, 2004). Many of these components can vary with the culture you are brought up in, for example how conservatively you are brought up (Simpson & Gangestad, 1991). Personality traits, like extraversion (Eysenck, 1976), disinhibition and self-monitoring (Snyder et al., 1986) for example, can also contribute to sociosexual orientation.

When it comes to sexual satisfaction it is found that SOI can predict sexual satisfaction in a relationship, but only for women (Simpson & Gangestad, 1991). In a study by Vrangalova & Ong (2014) they have looked at SOI's moderating role in wellbeing in "Friends with Benefit-relationships (FWB). As they predicted they found that SOI had a moderating role, after both measurements over 12 consecutive weeks, and over a whole academic year. They noted that they found very few sex differences. They tested for sex differences in the link between SOI and sex-frequency, and found that unrestricted sociosexual orientation increased the likelihood of engaging in sexual activities for both sexes. They also investigated the interaction between SOI and self-esteem, level of anxiety and life satisfaction, regarding frequency of sexual encounters, also here the sex differences were absent. Can this imply that SOI will predict wellbeing in intermediate relationships more accurately than sex?

1.2 Evolutionary psychology and sexual strategies theory

Different psychological theories will provide different explanations for the positive and negative feelings that may emerge in intermediate relationships. Sexual strategies theory (SST) is based on evolutionary psychology (EP). First and foremost, SST seeks to explain how sex differences in fitness has developed throughout times. Trivers (1972), was the leading theorist in parental investment theory, which is the precedent of SST. Parental investment theory states that in each species there is one sex which is high in parental investment, for most species this is the female. The high investing sex spend time and resources on carrying the offspring, on lactation and parenting. The low investing sex, often male, put their resources in intra-sexual competition. The females choose the mates based on what will give them and their offspring the best reproductive success (Buss, 1998).

Reproductive success will here be determined by both genetics and the support they would get raising the offspring. The theory states that an individual's mating strategy will be determined by what is both least risky and least costly, in a given environment. For example, will the mating strategy of an alfa male chimpanzee differ from those who are of lower rank, caused by different limitations in partners to mate with and differences concerning survival in the different layers of the social hierarchy (Geary, 1998). When trying to explain human mating SST states that due to the different costs for men and women they will develop different mating strategies. The different costs refer to women's energy in carrying the baby and lactation in contrast to men's minimum effort in their offspring, which consists of minutes of sexual interaction (Buss, 1998).

If this is correct, we can expect different mating strategies for men and women, where casual sex would be beneficial for men, but not for women. This tendency for example shows in men's larger interest in and larger accept for casual hookups, which was shown in a meta-analysis by Petersen & Hyde (2010). Men fantasize more than women, and seek casual sex to a larger degree (Kennair, Schmitt, Fjeldavli, & Harlem, 2009). The same tendencies are shown in studies of mental health and casual sex, where men who engage in casual sex report fewer depressive symptoms and less worry than the males who do not, and that the pattern is reversed for women (Grello et al., 2006; Townsend & Wasserman, 2011). This is connected to the notion that our sexual strategies are not explicit in our consciousness, but something that lies deep within our emotions, and guides our actions and behavior. In other words, our

emotions are strongly linked to our sexual strategy (Buss, 1989). This is evident in our cognition, where women are shown to have more romantic thoughts even after a casual hookup (Townsend & Wasserman, 2011).

1.2.2 The bi-parental human. However, there are indications that suggest that humans are somewhat different from many other species. Humans are bi-parental, meaning that both sexes often put effort into raising their offspring, and both select mates. This results in intra-sexual competition for both sexes (Buss, 1998). It is important to note that sexual strategies theory leaves room for both women and men to engage in short-term mating behavior, but on different terms and for different reasons. For men, this will, as previously mentioned, be the best reproductive strategy, resulting in the largest number of offspring. For women, it is an adaptive strategy when it occurs as infidelity to secure better genes for the offspring (Gangestad & Thornhill, 1997). It is also important to note that casual sex is a way for women to find a potential mate for a long-term relationship (Grello et al., 2006). Sexual strategies theory is often criticized for not considering that casual sex has different costs for women and men, where women are at larger risk when it comes to unwanted pregnancy, violence and sexual assaults (Garcia, Reiber, Massey, & Merriwether, 2012). In concordance with evolutionary psychology women should be more satisfied with the relationship if it has elements of commitment (Birnie-Porter & Hunt, 2015; Buss & Schmitt, 1993).

1.2.3 - Studies of sexual strategies theory and sexual behavior. Scientists from this tradition seek to prove that there are stable sex differences when it comes to sexual behavior and relationship behavior. As previously mentioned, studies on sexual behavior regards one night stands or relationships. Even though marriage is a common practice in most cultures, the divorce rates, adultery rates and serial marriages suggest that polygamous behavior is quite regular (Buss & Schmitt, 1993), and that this should also be studied as a part of human sexual behavior. This can also be seen in the tendency for both sexes to engage in casual hookups. For example, it is suggested that 60-80% of all American college students engage in casual hookups (Garcia et al., 2012).

Seen from an evolutionary psychology perspective you could expect that intermediate relationships would provide more negative consequences for women than for men. This considering that they can be described as the best mating strategy for men, but not as favorable for women when it comes to uncertainty surrounding support from the sexual

partner if the sexual interaction would result in offspring. Studies show that women report more negative feelings than men (Townsend & Wasserman, 2011), have larger sense of sexual guilt, being uncomfortable and in general have fewer positive emotions regarding casual sex (Owen & Fincham, 2011) and show a greater deal of regret concerning casual sexual encounters (Kennair, Bendixen, & Buss, 2016). You can also find similar results in a study regarding sexual satisfaction, where they found highest satisfaction amongst women who were in cohabitants or married (Pedersen & Blekesaune, 2003). The results were not the same for men. In a review by Ockami & Shackelford (2001) they constituted that men are more comfortable with sexual relationships without emotions.

When it comes to the potential influence of sociosexuality (SOI), evolutionary psychology predicts that more men than women will have a unrestricted sociosexual orientation (Vrangalova & Ong, 2014). This because of the earlier mentioned differences in investment in offspring (Buss & Schmitt, 1993). It is natural to predict that SOI will moderate positive and negative feelings, but that sex will explain more of the variance than SOI. Men are also more likely to be pleased with the relationship if there is a high occurrence of sexual intercourse, and low sense of commitment (Geary, 1998).

Of course, this is a quite an oversimplification considering that both men and women want feelings of love and commitment, and that long-term mating can be adaptive also for males given the right conditions (Buss & Schmitt, 1993). It is also stated that all humans have a need to belong and form social and emotional bonds (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Baumeister & Leary (1995) state that these attachment bonds to other humans influence health and well-being. Still it is not unreasonable to expect to see a tendency for men, to at least be more content than women when in an uncommitted relationship (Lehmiller, VanderDrift, & Kelly, 2014).

1.3 Third wave feminism

Feminism is defined as “social movement and political program aimed at ameliorating the position of women in society” (Campbell, 2006, p.63). From a feminist perspective, the battle for women’s free sexuality is considered of importance (Fausto-Sterling, 2000), and some consider intermediate relationships a way for women to take control over their own sexuality. Intermediate relationships are a safer way to engage in uncommitted sex, and avoid risk factors like violence and rape. It could also be a way of achieving sexual pleasure without

being perceived as loose or “slutty” (Lehmiller et al., 2011; Williams & Jovanovic, 2015). This is attenuated by the sexual double standard, where men are permitted to have as many sexual partners as they may like, while women are only allowed to enjoy the pleasures of sexual activity within the frames of a romantic relationship (Milhausen & Herold, 1999). Studies show that women report more positive than negative feelings in these types of relationships (Lehmiller et al., 2011). One study of 119 individuals found that women reported even more positive feelings than men (García et al., 2014). Similar results were found in a study by Owen & Fincham (2011), where they found no sex difference in the ratio between positive and negative experiences. Bay-Cheng, Robinson & Zucker (2009) found that women reported more feelings of desire, wanting and pleasure when they were in a FWB-relationship compared to all other relationship types. These results indicate that intermediate relationships can contribute positively to women’s well-being.

1.3.1- Definitions of third wave feminism. Third wave feminism (TWF) arose in the 90s as a reaction to the second wave feminists in the 80s. The main issue for the younger generation of feminists was feminist identity, furthermore how this collective identity led to conformity and the loss of independent thinking and flexibility (Snyder, 2008). They aimed at removing themselves from the second wave, which they saw as anti-male, anti-sex and anti-fun. They view the second wave as victim-feminism and point out second wave feminisms self-righteousness (Heywood, 2006). Most importantly, third wave feminism aims to claim back what is lost in the second wave. Examples listed are to give up marriage to fight the patriarchy, and to give up beauty, instead of expanding the definition of beauty. Third wave feminists take women’s sexuality back by letting women choose for themselves, there is no one way to be a woman (Snyder, 2008). The main idea is that women should interact with men as equals. To be free to explore and communicate their sexual desires and play with both femininity and masculinity (Snyder, 2008). It is a normal misconception that feminism equals that men and women should be alike. The third wavers view equality as a possibility for both sexes to act as they want , regardless of the sex you are born into. Third wavers seek to reach broader, as it is a movement with not just a sole purpose or a clearly defined common goal, but a movement to fight for equality in general, with emphasis on environmental and economic issues, and social justice. To isolate gender as single variable will not help this bigger agenda (Heywood, 2006).

TWF attempts to reshape the definitions of sex and gender. They reject the notion of “women” as an entity and of feminism as a unitary concept. Their ideas about identity embrace the use of ambiguity and contradictions, which is shaped by postmodern theory. It culminates in a belief of identity as something fluid, and this fluid nature also applies to human sexuality (Heywood, 2006). The third wave can be described as non-essentialist, because of their refusal of binary definitions of gender and their approach to transgender individuals. By rejecting the definition of what is female, third wave feminism embraces non-judgement (Snyder, 2008). This is particularly visible in their view of sexuality, with a wish to prevent conformity in sexual desires. Or in other terms, to communicate that there are more ways to be sexual than to engage in heterosexual monogamous sexual behavior. An example is their embracement of pornography, that often features lesbian, gay and transgender individuals, butch women or other sexual minorities or marginalized groups (Karaian & Mitchell, 2009). It is stated that by honoring all types of sexual desire, people will be freer to explore their own desires (Heywood, 2006). The postmodern way of viewing the world also shapes the feministic research. Often feministic research is qualitative and seeks to unravel assumptions and discourses. Quantitative sciences are often criticized for the assumption that sex is an independent variable that can be used to measure causation, when sex might also be viewed as an independent variable (Harding, 1987).

1.3.2- Sexual agency. This feministic agenda is connected to third wave feminisms battle for sexual agency (Williams & Jovanovic, 2015). Sexual agency includes acknowledging female sexual desires, the freedom to express those desires, and social support to explore those desires without negative sanctions from society. In practice this would mean that women get to prevent sexually transmitted diseases, unwanted pregnancy, are allowed to refrain from sex when it is unwanted and also that they are allowed to communicate their sexual desires (Curtin, Ward, Merriwether, & Caruthers, 2011). In Lehmillier and colleagues (2011) study they found that sex was a key motivational factor for men, and that emotional connection was the most important factor for women. Still they found that women also report sex as an important factor. They argue that there is often more shame tied to having sexual desires as a woman, especially if it occurs outside of an emotional relationship, and that this could explain the results they found in motivational factors. This supports the notion that intermediate relationships promote women’s sexual agency, providing a safe arena to enjoy the pleasure of sex without social stigma, or the risks of casual sexual encounters (Williams & Jovanovic, 2015). The social stigmas are a key factor here, where evolutionary psychologists

argue that the fact that women tend to regret casual sex more (Kennair et al., 2016) and that casual sexual encounters can carry negative emotional consequences for women (Townsend & Wasserman, 2011), stems from a wish for a stable partner to raise offspring with.

Feministic researchers argue that the negative emotions and regret might have risen from stigma, both internalized and externalized (Henry, 2004).

Third wave feminism is a mainly a political movement (Heywood, 2006), and development of predictions is therefore a challenge. The predictions in this paper will be a result of feministic critique of EP and a feministic political view, in combination with previous research that proposes alternative explanations for variance than EP. That women report that lack of commitment is one of the key factors to enter an intermediate relationship supports the notion that this can be used as safe place for sexual exploring (Gusarova et al., 2012). The feministic viewpoint that other factors shape the experience of our sexual life is supported in the earlier mentioned studies about intermediate relationships and both commitment (Grebe et al., 2017; Lehmler et al., 2011; Madey & Rodgers, 2009) and expectations (García et al., 2014; Gusarova et al., 2012). As previously mentioned commitment is of importance when it comes to relationship satisfaction (Birnie-Porter & Hunt, 2015), and this is evident for both sexes. Therefore, it will be natural to assume that commitment will explain a lot of the variance in positive and negative feelings. As previously mentioned Sociosexuality matters for what you think about casual sexual interaction and will also predict a person's sexual behavior (Penke & Asendorpf, 2008). Considering that Sociosexuality can be shaped by upbringing, religion and culture (Eysenck, 1976; Simpson & Gangestad, 1991), this might not merely be a result of biological and evolutionary sex differences. From a feministic viewpoint, especially if belonging to the third wave, you would predict that Sociosexuality will explain the variance in feelings and expectations better than biological sex.

1.4 Evolutionary psychology vs. third wave feminism

Feministic scientists arguing against evolutionary psychology often bring forth the problem with evolutionary scientists display of men as macho and female as coy. This is a perception of women that prevails, even though it is found in many species that women also are polygamous, and in some species infidelity is widespread (Fausto-Sterling, Gowaty, & Zuk, 1997). Women might not be as coy as biologists and evolutionary psychologists suggest. It is argued that SST looks away from the large portion of investment men also put into their offspring, and that both sexes engage in both short-term and long-term mating, and differ

from other species (Pedersen et al., 2011). This can also be seen in the tendency, for both sexes, to seek love and commitment (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Buss, 1994; Buss & Schmitt, 2011).

Focusing on the feministic researchers who attempt to bridge the gap between feminism and evolutionary psychology we find Sarah Blaffer Hrdy (1986). Hrdy is a feminist biologist who puts focus on the perspective of females as coy and passive. Even biological mechanisms, such as fertilization, many accepted theories explain this process with the egg as passive and the sperm as active, which is now found not to be true (Beldecos et al., 1989). This is just an example to illustrate how deep the misconceptions about women's passive role goes. Hrdy (1986) underlines the many types of primates where females show promiscuous behavior, and invests a quite large amount of resources in this behavior. She refers to a number of possible explanations for this behavior, some of them genetic explanations, e.g. 1) that females seek genetic variance in their offspring, 2) that they copulate if they are paired with a male with weaker genetic material than other males, 3) that they should mate with a larger number of males to ensure conception (Smith, 1984; as cited in Hrdy, 1986). Other explanations are behavioral, the oldest of them is called the "prostitution hypothesis", where women trade sexual intercourse for resources e.g. higher status. Other theories include that women exhibit this behavior to discourage weaker members of the group from leaving or as a strategy for confusing the males about paternity, and thereby protect their offspring from being killed or attacked by the group (Hrdy, 1986). This is connected to the wish for an Evolutionary Psychology that acknowledges agency in women when it comes to mating strategies (Kruger, Fisher & Wright, 2013).

Griet Vandermassen (2005) states that women have an evolved sexual attraction to males who embody traits that would make them able to look after them and their child. Traits like male investment and commitment. Even though this would give men an incentive to show commitment, the uncertainty when it comes to paternity and the fact that a child's life does not depend on parental investment from males, implies that men have more to gain from shifting partners and mating effort. This results in a conflict of the sexes where women desire more investment than men are willing to give them. Vandermassen (2005) underlines that feminists should be looking towards Evolutionary Psychology to explain the conflict between the sexes and understand the differences that have arisen. She points out the power of context when it comes to shaping psychological development in EP theory. "Our evolved dispositions

are triggered by environmental cues, and changes in the environment will lead to changes in the way they express themselves”, she states (Vandermassen, 2005, p.179). Perhaps EP can teach us something about the origin of power structures and gender inequality?

Third wave feminism and evolutionary psychology are at a clinch. When sexual strategies theory tries to explain our behavior based on how the two sexes meet, and have met, different challenges facing reproduction, and feminists belonging to the third wave completely denies the definition of what is male and what is female. They operate on different levels of analysis, and this is a problem for the debate between the two groups (Vandermassen, 2005). Some third wave feminists, have reservations concerning science altogether, and this represents an additional issue. Third wave feminism is mostly a political movement (Heywood, 2006), which makes it difficult to create predictions that can be tested empirically. Vandermassen (2005) argues that feminism cannot completely remove themselves from what they see as “traditional” science, and from the belonging epistemology, when the conclusions about how women are suppressed and that power structures favorite men are based on the same epistemology. The feministic approach should be used to think critically about sex and gender, and thus revealing biases (Kruger, Fisher and Wright, 2013).

The debate is often sidetracked by an interpretation of Evolutionary Psychology through the naturalistic fallacy (Frankena, 1939). This is a concept based upon the idea that whenever referring to something as biological, you imply that biological means natural, and that all that is natural is good. This is mostly a phenomenon we see in psychology more than in other disciplines. For example, genetic diseases like cerebral palsy which is biological and therefore is considered “natural”, is not considered good. Evolutionary psychologists seek to explain human behavior and identify biological factors that influence our behavior, but this does not mean that we should not seek to avoid behavior that can hurt us or others (Vandermassen, 2005). For example, an evolutionary explanation for rape does not justify the action, it merely serves the purpose of understanding how this can have evolved (Palmer & Thornhill, 2003). Still other critics say that evolutionary scientists do not take ethical responsibility when it comes to how they convey their results (Wilson, Dietrich, & Clark, 2003).

Feminists do not necessarily disagree that we can observe sex differences on average, but they are discordant when it comes to where these differences come from. A feministic viewpoint is

more along the line of social role theory, which consists of a belief that sex differences is something we are taught (Eagly & Wood, 1999). This is one of the bi-products of post-modern thinking, and carries a wish to embrace identity fluidity (Heywood, 2006). Social role theory is a subject worth an entire paper alone, and will therefore only be covered by this mention.

1.5 Aims and predicitions

The aim of this study is to discover individuals in intermediate relationships, and hopefully through this establish the existence of the concept. Considering the studies mentioned earlier on Friends with Benefits (FWB) and casual sex, for example Bisson & Levine (2009), found that approximately 60% of the students in their study had engaged in a FWB-relationship. We predict that a portion of the respondents will fit in to the intermediate categories. We expect a lower portion of respondents than in Bisson & Levine's (2009) study, since we have only included individuals who are currently engaging in an intermediate relationship. In Garcia et al.'s (2014) study they solely used respondents who were currently in a FWB relationship, which made up 11% of the total number of respondents. We can anticipate approximately the same number of respondents, considering that the age of the respondents is within the same age range.

1.5.1 Predictions.

1.)

a.) Evolutionary Psychology (EP): Differences in sexual strategies between men and women will influence satisfaction in a given relationship status. Both men and women will be content in relationships, but women more than men. Men will be more content than women in both intermediate relationships and in the single with one night stands (ONS) group.

b.) Third Wave Feminism (TWF): Sex is relative and fluid, and is shaped by what we are learned by society. Therefore, we predict that there will not exist a sex difference when it comes to satisfaction in different relationship statuses.

2.)

a.) EP: Due to women's large investment in offspring, and the assumption that this will lead to women preferring relationships over casual sexual relationships, women will report higher expectations that the relationship evolves into a romantic relationship than men, regardless of relationship status.

b.) TWF: The intermediate relationships are a safe way to explore sexual agency and both men and women wish for sexual freedom. Hence, we predict that expectations will be similar for both sexes, and SOI will have a moderating role.

3.)

EP a.) Sociosexuality (SOI), commitment and expectations will have an influence on satisfaction in given relationship statuses, but sex will be the better predictor.

TWF b.) The influences of SOI, commitment and expectations will predict relationship satisfaction better than sex.

1.5.2 Research questions. It will be interesting to investigate whether people with different relationship statuses will vary greatly in which degree they can be said to be romantic-unromantic; close-distanced; sexual-not sexual; committed – non-committed; short-term – long-term; emotional – superficial; boyfriend/girlfriend – sex partner. We could expect that the individuals who engage in one night stands occasionally are placed on the end of the dimensions where the relationship is non-committed, short-term, superficial and sexual.

When it comes to the intermediate relationships it is more difficult to anticipate a pattern, because it is possible that this category encompasses larger variance. Some of them probably are more in concordance with the pattern of a traditional relationship, and some of them may be in relationships that have more qualities typical of more casual sexual encounters. The research question here will be to see if the intermediates qualitatively differ from the romantic, committed relationships and the single population. We will also look at sex differences in categorization. Do women and men put qualitatively similar relationships into different categories? And if they do; how do they differ? This will give us an understanding of the constructs that is relationship categories, and that can give us information about different categorization for men and women.

2.Methods

2.1 Participants

The participants were recruited from the Norwegian University of Science and Technology, and they were asked to answer a four-page questionnaire. The data collection was carried out in October 2017. There was a total of 529 respondents. 308 women, 216 men and 4 that identified as “Other definitions of gender”. The participants age ranged from 18 to 46 years

old, with a mean of 22.5 ($SD=2.9$). Out of the total number of respondents 491 (92.8%) were heterosexual, 9 (1.7%) homosexual, 23 (4.3%) bisexual and 3 (0.6%) other. There were no exclusion criteria; all students regardless of relationship status, gender, sexual orientation could answer the questionnaire. The analysis included individuals who were 30 years or younger, who were heterosexual and had a traditional view of gender.¹

2.2 Procedure

The questionnaires were distributed in lectures and cafeterias at Norwegian University of Science and Technology in Trondheim. We covered lectures at different levels in education to ensure both young and older respondents. The questionnaire was also distributed to several groups at the student union “Studentersamfundet”. The questionnaire was titled: “Feelings and experiences related to relationship status”. The distributor gave information to the respondents during distribution. The information regarded aspects such as; answering the questionnaire was voluntary and that it could contain a wide range of personal questions. Further on they got information about anonymity. They then were instructed not to write anything on the questionnaire that could identify them, and that they had to refrain from answering if they had answered the questionnaire at an earlier time. The distributor was never present when the respondents handed in the questionnaires, to ensure the anonymity. The students filled in the forms during the 15-minute break in the lecture. Anonymity was ensured by the distributor leaving the room and leaving a box marked “answers” and then collected the box after the lecture. The questionnaire was distributed in the same manner at the Student Union at rehearsals or meetings. There was no course credit given for participation.

2.3 Materials

2.3.1 Questionnaire and Translation. The questionnaire investigated respondent’s emotions in their relationship status and their sociosexual orientations. Furthermore, expectations and commitment to partner was investigated. Alongside this we investigated qualitative aspects of the relationships using dimensions. Some parts of the questionnaire are scales that originally were written in English (García et al., 2014; Lehmler et al., 2011; Rubin, 1970). These were translated by the author of the paper, and revised by bilingual supervisor.

¹ This excluded 51 respondents. Some of the respondents belonged in several of the categories excluded. Categories excluded were other definitions of gender, homosexual, bisexual, age over 30.

2.3.2 Relationship status. Relationship statuses included in the questionnaire were: 1. Married/domestic partnership (14,2). 2. Romantic relationship (28,3%). 3. Exclusive sexual relationship (2,9%). 4. Non-exclusive sexual relationship (2,7%). 5. Friends with benefits (2,9%). 6. Single but engages in one night stands occasionally (17,5%). 7. Single (30%) and 8. Other (1,5%), where the respondent specified what “other” meant to them. For individuals in category six, single with ONS, we asked that they answered the questionnaire with their last sexual partner in mind. Those who chose “other” were included after checking for specification, where all the respondents described intermediate relationships.

Some of the different categories were merged due to conceptual similarities.

Married/domestic partnership was merged with individuals in romantic relationships.

Categories 3-5 which all regard intermediate relationships was merged, category 8 “other” was also added to the intermediate category. Single with ONS and single without ONS were kept separate. (García et al., 2014; Garcia et al., 2012; Lehmiller et al., 2011, 2014; Siebenbruner, 2013). This resulted in four categories: In a relationship (43.1%), Intermediate (10%), Single with ONS (17,2%) and Single without ONS (29,7%). Individuals who were in the “single without ONS”-category only answered demographic questions, questions about feelings and SOI. This due to lack of partner to use as point of reference in the subsequent questions.

2.3.3 Feelings. Positive and negative emotions were measured on a 5-point Likert scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. They were asked “in my relationship status I feel”: Thereafter ten different emotions, half of them considered positive and half considered negative were listed. This is done in similar fashion to Owen & Fincham’s study (2011). Emotions listed were: happy, adventurous, pleased, excited, attractive (positive), and uncomfortable, disappointed, empty, confused, used (negative). After a maximum likelihood factor analysis with oblique rotation, we identified two main factors; *Excitement* ($\alpha=.514$) and *Satisfaction* ($\alpha=.870$). The factors are correlated, $r=.268$.

2.3.4 Dimensions. In addition to the categorization of relationship status we included a 7-item set of questions where respondents could place the relationship on 7-point dimension scale. The scales presented were: 1.) Sexual – Non-sexual. 2.) Close – Distanced. 3.) Emotional – Superficial. 4.) Long-term – Short-term. 5.) Committed – Uncommitted. 6.) Relationship – Sex-partner. 7.) Romantic – Unromantic.

After a maximum likelihood factor analysis with oblique rotation two main factors were discovered; these factors were given the names *Uncommitted* ($\alpha=.930$) and *Superficial* ($\alpha=.869$). A low score indicating higher level of commitment and closeness, and a higher score indicating the opposite. The scores are correlated $r=-.816$, but we have chosen to keep both factors. The dimension “Sexual – Not sexual” was not included in either of the factors due to low contribution.

2.3.5 Sociosexuality. Sociosexuality was measured by the revised Sociosexuality Orientation Inventory (Penke & Asendorpf, 2008). The inventory is designed to capture both people’s sociosexual behaviors, attitudes towards casual sexual encounters and sexual fantasies. Sample items for the behavioral, attitudinal and desires components were: “How many sexual partners have you had the over the last 12 months”, “Sex without emotions is ok” and “in daily life, how often do you spontaneously fantasize about having sex with someone you just met?”. These questions measure up to a total measure on Sociosexuality (SOI-total), which can range from Restricted to Unrestricted. Scaling and scoring was done in similar fashion to Penke & Asendorpf (2008). Internal consistency for the components respectively and for the sum score was good (SOI-behavior: $\alpha=.863$, SOI-attitudes: $\alpha=.822$, SOI-desire: $\alpha=.866$ and SOI-total: $\alpha=.856$).

2.3.6 Love and attachment. Participants were asked to answer a self-report version of Rubin love scale (Rubin, 1970) to measure relationship commitment. The love scale consists of three components, but factor analysis showed only one main factor. The components *Affiliative and dependent need*, *Predisposition to help* and *Absorption* are measured by questions such as “If I could never be with her/him again, I would feel miserable”, “If she/he was feeling badly, my first duty would be to cheer her/him up” and “I feel very possessive towards him/her”. A higher score indicated higher levels of love and commitment. It is a one-dimensional scale, with good internal consistency ($\alpha=.930$).

Rubin’s love scale correlates well with Ellis’ (1998) measurement on partner investment. This indicates that the love scale is somewhat correlated to our attachment behaviors. It also correlates well with Sternberg’s (1986) triangular love scale (Sternberg, 1997), which provides external validation. The correlations between Rubin’s love scale and liking-scale and

Sternberg's triangular love scale have been shown to have moderate to strong correlations (Sternberg, 1997).

2.3.9 Expectations. Questions from Gusarova et al. (2012)'s study of well-being in "FWB"-relationships were used as inspiration for examining expectations. This section concerns the respondent's thoughts when entering the relationship, and whether, or not these expectations have been met. Due to conceptual differences in the questions only two of the items were kept in the sum-score; *Expectations* ("That we would be close" and "That we will end up in a romantic relationship"). The sum score had good internal consistency ($\alpha=.807$). The respondents were also asked whether their expectations were met or not. Expectations met for the same items make the sum score *Expectations met*, internal consistency was weak ($\alpha=.616$).

To examine the aspect of wanting the intermediate relationship to develop into something more we included a range of questions. Sample items were: "I hope for relationship to develop to a romantic and committed relationship", "I hope we terminate the relationship altogether" and "I have talked to my partner about becoming a couple" Responses were measured on a 5-point scale, ranging from "Strongly agree" to "Strongly disagree". These results were not included in the analysis due to lack of respondents in the intermediate category.

3.Results

3.1 Intermediates

10% of the population fit into the intermediate categories, sexual relationship with commitment (exclusiveness), sexual relationship without commitment (open sexual relationship) and Friends With Benefits.

3.2 Prediction 1 – sex differences in satisfaction and excitement

3.2.1 Satisfaction. To investigate sex differences in satisfaction and excitement a two-way 2(sex: woman vs. man) X 4 (relationship status: In a relationship vs. intermediate, single with ONS and single without ONS) ANOVA was conducted to compare the main effect relationship status and sex, and the interaction effects of relationship status and sex on satisfaction and excitement.

The main effect yielded an F-ratio $F(3, 467)=47.15$ $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .232$, indicating significant differences in satisfaction between the different relationship statuses. The main effect of sex yielded a F-ratio of $F(1,467)=.873$ $p > .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$, indicating that the main effect of sex was not significant. The interaction effect of relationship status and sex yielded a F-ratio of $F(3, 467)=1.31$ $p > .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .008$, and was not significant. Levene's test was significant $F(7,478)=5.98$, $p < .001$. The differences are demonstrated in Figure 1.

Post hoc using Bonferroni revealed that individuals in a relationship ($M=4.51$, $SD=.504$), were significantly more satisfied than all intermediates ($M=3.89$, $SD=.842$), $p < .01$, single with ONS ($M=3.63$, $SD=.750$), $p < .01$, and single without ONS ($M=3.92$, $SD=.675$) $p < .01$. There were no significant differences between intermediates and single with ONS (mean difference = .230, $p > .05$) and single without ONS (mean difference = -.050, $p > .05$). There was a significant difference between single with ONS and single without ONS (mean difference = -.279, $p < .05$), where the single without ONS were more satisfied.

3.2.2 Excitement. A two-way 2(sex: woman vs. man) X 4(relationship status: In a relationship vs. intermediate, single with ONS, single without ONS) ANOVA revealed a main effect of relationship status on Excitement, $F(3, 465)=41.74$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .212$, but not for sex, $F(1, 465)=2.44$, $p > .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .005$. There was a significant interaction between relationship status and sex $F(3, 465)=7.68$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .047$. Levene's test was significant, $F(5,310)=2.54$, $p < .05$. The results are demonstrated in figure 1.

Post hoc on relationship status, using Bonferroni, revealed that individuals in a relationship ($M=3.73$, $SD=.616$), were not significantly more excited than intermediates ($M=3.75$, $SD=.639$) $p<.05$, but were significantly more excited than single with ONS ($M=3.46$, $SD=.580$) $p<.01$, and single without ONS ($M=2.96$, $SD=.691$) $p<.001$. There were no significant differences between intermediates and single with ONS (mean difference=.230), $p=.073$, but a significant difference between intermediates and single without ONS (mean difference=-.792), $p<.001$. There was a significant difference between single with ONS and single without ONS (mean difference=.506, $p<.001$).

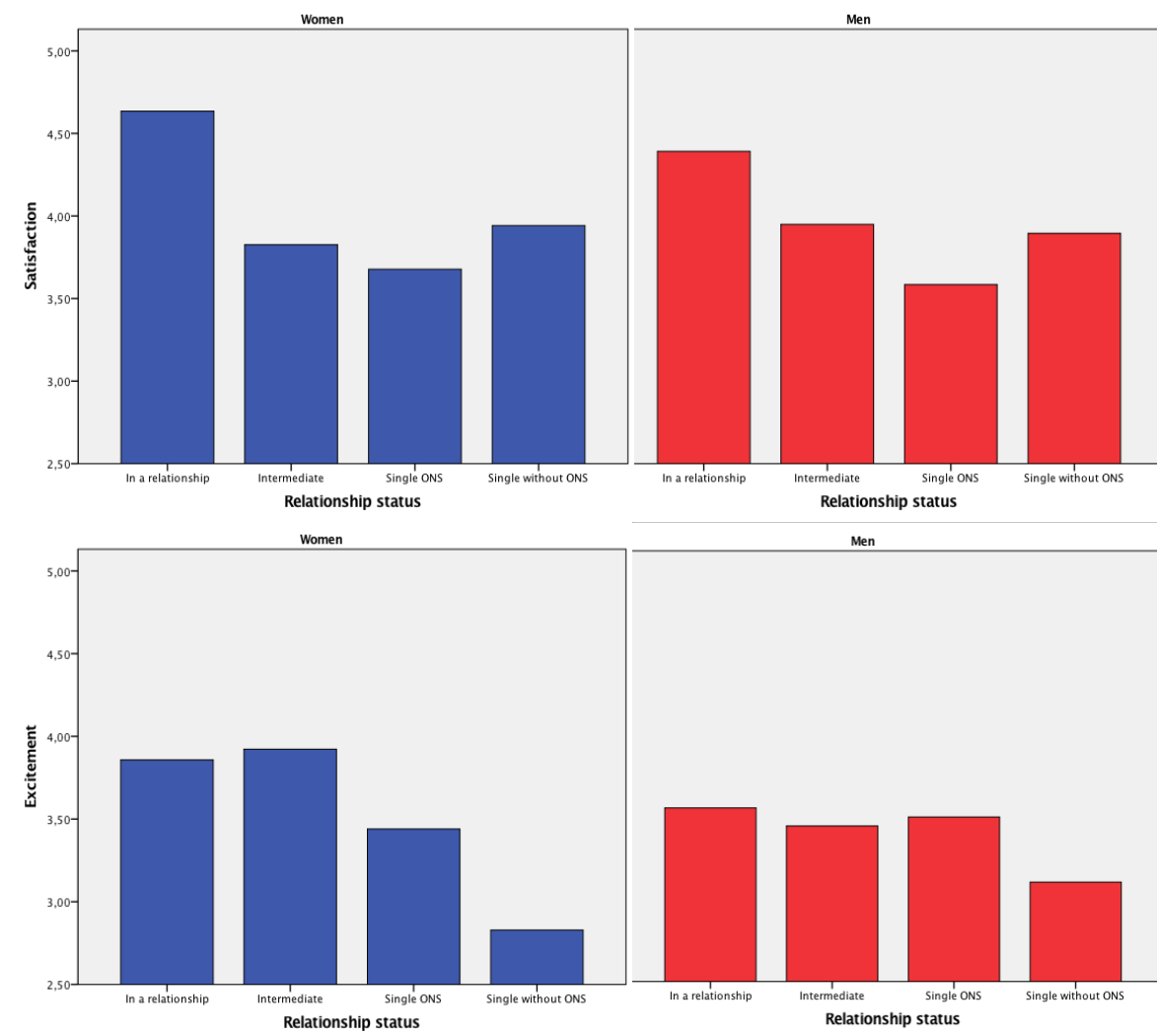


Figure 1: Demonstrating that women feel more excitement in relationships than men. You can also see that the intermediates are more similar to individuals in a relationship when it comes to excitement, but similar to single ONS when it comes to satisfaction.

A t-test with sex as predictor variable and excitement as dependent variable was conducted, with the data split on relationship status, to test in which groups the sex differences were significant. The independent samples t-test revealed a significant result in the single without casual sex between women ($M=2.83$, $SD=.644$) and men ($M=3.11$, $SD=.717$), $t(144)=-2.43$, $p < .05$, $d=-.407$. The difference between women ($M=3.44$, $SD=.549$) and men ($M=3.51$, $SD=.630$) in the single with one-night-stand condition was insignificant, $t(81)=-.498$, $p=.620$, $d=-.118$. For the intermediate group there was a significant difference between women ($M=3.92$, $SD=.623$) and men ($M=3.45$, $SD=.564$), $t(45)=2.57$, $p < .05$, $d=.791$. For the individuals in relationships there was a significant difference between women ($M=3.86$, $SD=.633$) and men ($M=3.56$, $SD=.552$), $t(199)=3.47$, $p < .001$, $d=.505$.

3.3 Prediction 2 – expectations of romantic relationship.

A two-way ANOVA 2(sex: women vs. men) X 4 (relationship status: in a relationship, intermediate relationship and single with one-night stand) revealed a insignificant main effect of sex on Expectations $F(1, 310)=.170$, $p=.680$, $\eta_p^2=.001$. The main effect of relationship status was significant $F(2, 310)=101.33$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2=.395$. There was no significant interaction effect between sex and relationship status on excitement, $F(2, 310)=1.34$, $p=.262$, $\eta_p^2=.009$. Levene's test was significant $F(5,310)=2.54$, $p=.029$, and the results have to be interpreted with caution.

A post hoc test using Bonferroni showed that there were significant differences between all the groups. In a relationship ($M=4.02$, $SD=.834$) was significantly different from intermediates ($M=3.00$, $SD=1.10$), $p < .001$ and significantly different from single ONS ($M=2.26$, $SD=.959$), $p < .001$. The intermediates were significantly different from singles with ONS $p < .001$.

Table 1. shows correlations between expectations and potential predictors for the intermediate group. The strongest predictor is SOI-behavior with a small negative correlation.

Table 1

Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 Expectations	-					
2 Sex	.170	-				
3 SOI- total	-.240*	.196	-			
4 SOI-B	-.338*	.017	.821**	-		
5 SOI-A	-.141	.145	.746**	.501**	-	
6 SOI-D	-.062	.281	.702**	.353*	.221	-

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

3.4 Prediction 3 – what predictors influence satisfaction and excitement?

3.4.1 Sex differences – Rubin. To control for a general sex difference in commitment we conducted a two-way 2(sex: woman vs. man) x 3(relationship status: in a relationship vs. intermediate vs. single with ONS) ANOVA with Commitment (Rubins) as dependent variable. There was a significant main effect of relationship status, $F(2, 305)= 282.75$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.600$. There was no significant main effect of sex $F(1, 305)=.103$, $p=.749$, $\eta_p^2=.000$. The interaction effect of sex and relationship status was significant, $F(2, 339)=3.02$, $p=.050$, $\eta_p^2=.019$. A t-test split on relationship status showed that there was biggest difference between women ($M=7.26$, $SD=.758$) and men ($M=6.88$, $SD=1.01$) in individuals who were in a relationship, $t(144.36)=2.88$, $p<.05$, $d=.402$. There were no significant differences between women ($M=5.57$, $SD= 1.22$) and men ($M=5.40$, $SD=1.88$), $p=.759$, $d=.107$ in the intermediate group. There were also no significant differences between women ($M=3.60$, $SD=1.26$) and men ($M=4.00$, $SD=1.49$), $p=.250$, $d=.290$ in the single with ONS. Levene's test for the two-way ANOVA was significant $F(5)=11.67$, $p<.001$, and this has to be taken in to consideration when interpreting the results.

3.4.2 Sex differences – SOI. SOI was analyzed in similar fashion to Rubins, to reveal any potential general sex differences. The two-way 2(sex: woman vs. man) x 3(relationship status: in a relationship vs. intermediate vs. single with ONS) ANOVA with SOI as dependent variable revealed sex difference in sociosexuality (SOI) and an interaction effect between SOI and relationship status. The main effect of relationship status on sociosexuality was significant, $F(2,325)=60.327$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.271$. The main effect of sex status on SOI was significant, $F(1,325)=20.676$, $p<.001$, $\eta_p^2=.060$. The interaction effect between relationship

status and sex on SOI was not significant, $F(2,325)=.319, p=.727, \eta_p^2=.002$. Levene's test was not significant, $F(5,325)=1.357, p=.240$.

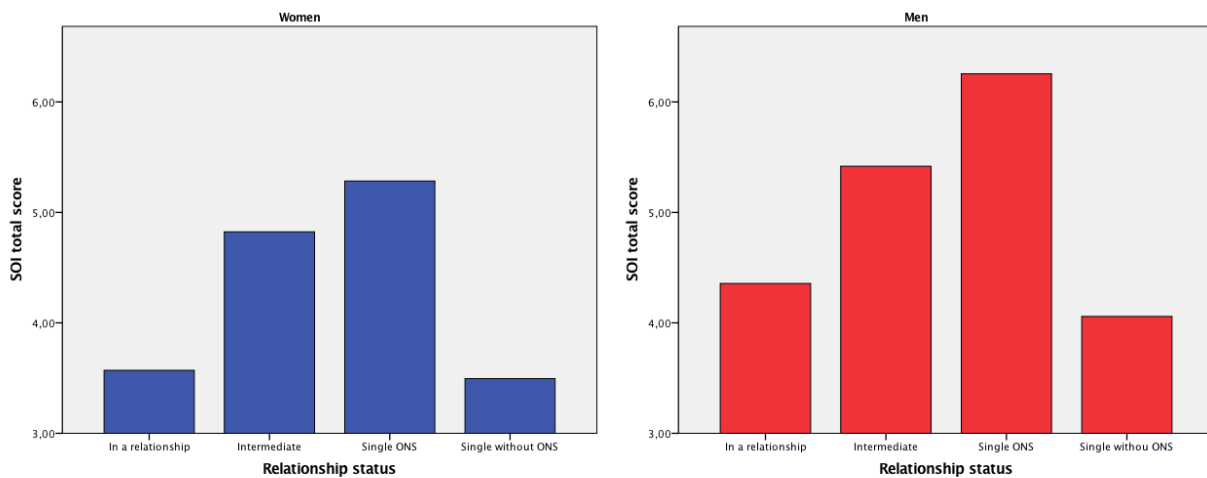


Figure 2: The figure shows sex difference in SOI-total. The Y-axis represents scores in means.

Factorial ANOVAs were done on each component of SOI. We found a strong main effect of relationship status on the behavior component, $F(2,326)=40.327, p < .001, \eta_p^2=.198$. Sex had no main effect, $F(1, 326)=.519, p=.472, \eta_p^2=.002$. There was no significant interaction effect, $F(2,326)=1.60, p=.204, \eta_p^2=.010$. Levene's test was not significant, $F(5, 326)=1.75, p=.122$. On the attitudes component in SOI we see a main effect of relationship status $F(2, 328)=12.43, p < .001, \eta_p^2=.070$. There was also a significant main effect of sex $F(1, 328)=10.05, p=.002, \eta_p^2=.030$. There was no significant interaction effect $F(2, 328)=.185, p=.832, \eta_p^2=.001$. Levene's test was significant, $F(5,328)=5.813, p<.001$. For the desire component in SOI there was a significant main effect of relationship status $F(2, 324)=71.39, p<.001, \eta_p^2=.306$ and also a significant main effect for sex, $F(1, 324)=45.75, p < .001, \eta_p^2=.124$. The interaction effect was not significant, $F(2, 324)=.691, p=.502, \eta_p^2=.004$. Levene's test was significant, $F(5,324)=8.92, p<.001$.

Table 2
Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Relationship status	-									
2 Sex	.029	-								
3 Satisfaction	.531**	-.085	-							
4 Excitement	.168**	-.181*	.317**	-						
5 SOI_B	-.427**	-.001	-.197**	.088	-					
6 SOI_A	-.250**	.207**	-.104	.049	.495**	-				
7 SOI_D	-.499**	.359**	-.468**	-.100	.381**	.423**	-			
8 Rubins	.779**	-.049	.510**	.271**	-.371*	-.318*	-.456*	-		
9 Expectations	.632	-.013	.316**	.071	-.364*	-.298*	-.338*	.667**	-	
10 Expectations met	.095	.036	.245**	.057	-.069	-.021	-.122*	.087	.286**	-

**Correlations significant at the .01 level

*Correlations significant at the .05 level

Table 3.1
Women

Correlations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Relationship status	-								
2 Satisfaction	.579**	-							
3 Excitement	.256**	.327**	-						
4 SOI-B	-.371**	-.145*	0,08	-					
5 SOI-A	-.255**	-.041	.085	.557**	-				
6 SOI-D	-.608**	-.512**	-.041	.416**	.350**	-			
7 Rubins	.842**	.490**	.250**	-.343**	-.313**	-.557**	-		
8 Expectations	.633**	.289**	.031	-.346**	-.249**	-.436**	.664**	-	
9 Expectations met	.227**	.329**	-.051	-.036	.001	-.234**	.188*	.318**	-

**Correlations significant at the .01 level

*Correlations significant at the .05 level

Note: Correlations marked with bold text have a sex difference of .100 or more

Table 3.2
Men
Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Relationship status	-								
2 Satisfaction	.473**	-							
3 Excitement	.050	,274**	-						
4 SOI-B	-.521**	-.271**	,110	-					
5 SOI-A	-.278**	-,165	,105	,431**	-				
6 SOI-D	-.459**	-,420**	-,047	,412**	,439**	-			
7 Rubins	.695**	,534**	,296**	-,411**	-,317**	-,359**	-		
8 Expectations	.635**	,356**	,134	-,388**	-,382**	-,260**	,673**	-	
9 Expectations met	-.075	,139	-,067	-,082	-,058	-,046	-,062	,239**	-

**Correlations significant at the .01 level

*Correlations significant at the .05 level

Note: Correlations marked with bold text have a sex difference of .100 or more

3.4.3 Factors associated with satisfaction and excitement. Having the results of the analysis of SOI and attachment in mind we can now look at Table 2. Table 2 show correlations for satisfaction and excitement with different predictors. The single without ONS were left out of this analysis. The correlations between satisfaction and excitement, and correlations between the different SOI components are not further mentioned. The table show a significant small to moderate correlation for SOI-desire and satisfaction, but not for the other SOI components. In contrast to satisfaction, the three SOI components show no association with excitement. Commitment has a moderate correlation with satisfaction. Expectations has a small significant correlation with satisfaction. There is also a significant low to moderate correlation with relationship status and satisfaction. There are no strong or moderate correlations for excitement, but the correlation with Commiment is significant.

There are differences in correlations based on relationship status revealed by a bivariate correlation table split on relationship status. For individuals in relationships SOI-desire ($r=-.375, p<.001$) and commitment ($r=.356, p<.001$) were the only significant, small or larger, correlation with satisfaction. For the intermediates, there were no significant, small or larger, correlations. For single with ONS there were significant correlations between satisfaction and

SOI-attitudes ($r=.246$, $p<.05$) and expectations ($r=-.255$, $p<.05$), and they are both of small magnitude.

Table 3. show the correlation tables split on sex. We looked further in to all significant correlations with discrepancies of $r=.100$ or more. The differences were calculated with Fischers r to z -transformation. The difference in correlations for SOI-behavior and Satisfaction between women ($r=-.145$, $N=197$) and men ($r=-.271$, $N=134$) was not significant, $z=1.17$, $p=.242$. The difference in correlations for Expectations met and Satisfaction between women ($r=.329$, $N=182$) and men ($r=.139$, $N=129$) was not significant, $z=1.74$, $p=.082$. The difference between women ($r=-.557$, $N=182$) and men ($r=-.359$, $N=126$) in the correlation between SOI-desire and Rubins was significant, $z=2.16$, $p<.05$. The difference between women ($r=-.436$, $N=186$) and men ($r=-.260$, $N=129$) for SOI-desire and Expectations, was not significant, $z=1.74$, $p=.082$. This was also the case for SOI-desire and Expectations met, where the difference between women ($r=-.234$, $N=183$) and men ($r=-.046$, $N=129$) was not significant, $z=1.66$, $p=.097$. Lastly there was a significant difference between women ($r=.188$, $N=179$) and men ($r=-.062$, $N=126$) in the correlation between Rubins and expectations met, $z=2.15$, $p<.05$.

There were several sex differences in correlations with relationship status, but only a few were significant. The correlation between relationship status and satisfaction had no significant sex difference between women ($r=.579$, $N=198$) and men ($r=.473$, $N=135$), $z=1.3$, $p=.194$. The same goes for the difference between women ($r=.256$, $N=196$) and men ($r=.050$, $N=135$) in relationship status' correlation with excitement. This difference was not significant, $z=1.88$, $p=.060$. The difference between women ($r=-.371$, $N=198$) and men ($r=-.521$, $N=134$) in relationship status correlation with SOI-behavior was not significant, $z=1.67$, $p=.095$. Women ($r=-.608$, $N=197$) and men ($r=-.495$, $N=133$) in correlation between relationship status and SOI-desire was not significant, $z=1.85$, $p=.064$. There was a significant difference between women ($r=.842$, $N=184$) and men ($r=.695$, $N=127$), $z=3.18$, $p<.01$ in the relationship status' correlation with expectations. There was also a significant difference between women ($r=.277$, $N=183$) and men ($r=-.075$, $N=129$), $z=2.64$, $p<.01$ in correlation between relationship status and expectations met.

3.5 Research questions – Differences within the relationship categories and sex differences.

To investigate differences on the six dimensional measures for both relationship status and sex a descriptive analysis of means on each dimension, with relationship status (in a relationship, intermediate and single with ONS) as between subject factor and data split on sex was carried out. Following t-tests of each dimension, with sex as between-subjects factor and data split on relationship status shows significant sex differences. The descriptive statistics are summarized in Table 4 and illustrated in Figure 3.

To investigate sex differences in the two main factors, Uncommitted and Superficial, a 2(women vs. men) X 3(in a relationship, intermediate, single ONS) two-way ANOVA was conducted for each factor. For Uncommitted a there was a significant main effect of relationship status, $F(2,305)=628.18, p<.001, \eta_p^2=.805$. There was no significant main effect of sex, $F(1,305)=1.12, p=.805, \eta_p^2=.004$. The interaction effect was significant $F(2,305)=3.52, p<.05, \eta_p^2=.023$. Levene's test was significant, $F(5,305)=20.96, p<.001$. For Superficial there was a significant main effect of relationship status $F(2,308)=153.76, p<.001, \eta_p^2=.455$. $F(1,308)=10.12, p<.01, \eta_p^2=.032$. The interaction effect was significant $F(2,308)=.715, p=.490, \eta_p^2=.005$. Levene's test was significant, $F(5,308)=5.76, p<.001$.

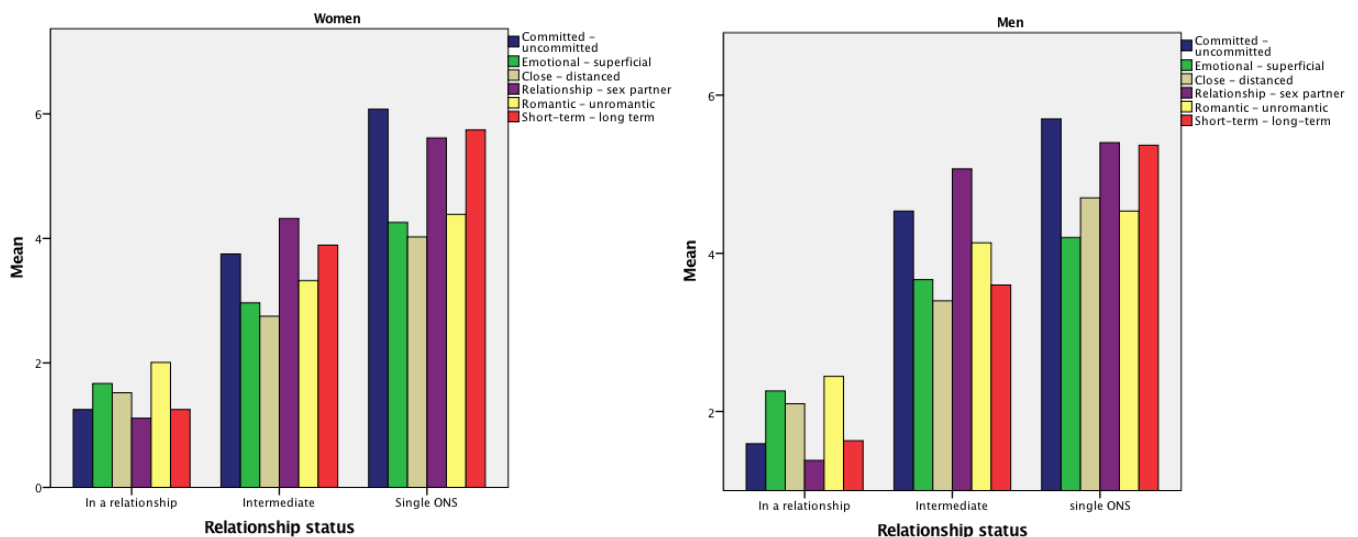


Figure 3: The figures show the differences in the profiles between men and women on the six dimensions. The Y-axis show means of the scores on each dimension.

Table 4.

			Descriptives			t-test			
Variable			Mean	SD	N	t	df	sig.	d
Committed - uncommitted	In a relationship	Women	1,25	.759	115	-2,79	151,27	.008**	.400
		Men	1,59	.932	81				
	Intermediate	Women	3,75	1,67	28	-1,37	41	.188	.411
		Men	4,53	2,10	15				
	Single ONS	Women	6,08	1,06	39	1,25	70	.217	-.292
		Men	5,70	1,44	30				
Emotional - superficial	In a relationship	Women	1,67	1,04	115	-3,42	197	.001***	.513
		Men	2,26	1,25	81				
	Intermediate	Women	2,96	1,20	28	-1,41	21,53	.173	.478
		Men	3,67	1,72	15				
	Single ONS	Women	4,26	1,52	39	.155	50,01	.878	-.033
		Men	4,20	2,06	30				
Close - distanced	In a relationship	Women	1,52	.967	115	-3,42	143,62	.001***	.506
		Men	2,10	1,30	81				
	Intermediate	Women	2,75	1,21	28	-1,47	41	.151	.444
		Men	3,40	1,68	15				
	Single ONS	Women	4,03	1,66	39	-1,38	70	.174	.375
		Men	4,70	1,90	30				
Relationship - sex partner	In a relationship	Women	1,11	.369	115	-2,32	98,23	.023*	.359
		Men	1,38	.995	81				
	Intermediate	Women	4,32	1,59	28	-1,36	41	.183	.422
		Men	5,07	1,94	15				
	Single ONS	Women	5,62	1,87	39	.446	67	.657	-.110
		Men	5,40	2,11	30				
Romantic - unromantic	In a relationship	Women	2,01	1,17	115	-2,71	197	.007**	.309
		Men	2,44	1,05	81				
	Intermediate	Women	3,32	1,28	28	-1,68	41	.101	.502
		Men	4,13	1,89	15				
	Single ONS	Women	4,38	1,84	39	-.241	68	.810	.080
		Men	4,53	1,89	30				
Short-term - long term	In a relationship	Women	1,25	.633	115	-3,06	129,11	.003**	.464
		Men	1,63	.968	81				
	Intermediate	Women	3,89	1,47	28	.558	41	.580	-.170
		Men	3,60	1,92	15				
	Single ONS	Women	5,74	1,44	39	1,04	67	.304	-.246
		Men	5,37	1,56	30				

Note: ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$

T-tests on the factor Uncommitted were conducted, split on relationship status, with gender as independent variable. The t-test showed a significant difference between women ($M=1.20$, $SD=.417$) and men ($M=1.52$, $SD=.854$) in the relationship group, $t(110.01)=-3.14$, $p<.01$. There was no significant difference between women ($M=3.99$, $SD=1.41$) and men ($M=4.40$, $SD=1.79$) in the intermediate group, $t(41)=-.830$, $p=.411$. The same goes for the single with ONS group, where there was no significant difference between women ($M=5.81$, $SD=.982$) and men ($M=5.49$, $SD=1.07$), $t(67)=1.30$, $p=.198$.

4. Discussion

4.1 Prevalence and categorization

The aim of this study is to discover individuals in intermediate relationships, and hopefully through this establish the existence of the concept. 10% of the individuals in the population studied fitted in to the intermediate categories at the time of the study, which shows that the tendency for young adults to engage in these relationships is present, and the number is somewhat consistent with previous findings (García et al., 2014; Lehmler et al., 2011). This is still somewhat lower than you would expect from Pedersen et al.'s article, where they argue that intermediate relationships are widely occurring. Considering that the respondents were not informed of the aims of the study, we assume that this result is not due to biased responses, and that it shows us a realistic picture of the frequency of intermediate relationships.

4.2 Prediction 1 - Satisfaction and excitement

The analysis of both Satisfaction and Excitement gave insight in sex differences in contentment in different relationship statuses, and how they are expressed. Satisfaction seems to be best predicted best by relationship status, and not by sex. The respondents are significantly more satisfied in relationships than in any other category. Intermediate individuals were more content than the single groups. The lack of sex difference in satisfaction in the intermediate and the single with ONS group does not fit with the predictions from Sexual strategies theory (SST) (Buss, 1998). SST states that men would be more satisfied with an intermediate relationship and as single with ONS than women. The current results are not in concordance with other studies that show that women experience a range of negative emotions, compared to men, when engaging in casual sexual relationships (Kennair et al., 2016; Owen & Fincham, 2011; Townsend & Wasserman, 2011). The results fit the predictions from Third Wave Feminism (TWF). TWF predicts neither a main effect of

sex or interaction effect. These results also fit Hrdy's (1986) assumption that women engage in promiscuous behavior with their own agenda, and that this does not implicate that they will experience negative emotions when doing so.

The lack of sex difference in satisfaction can be explained by a general human need to make social bonds (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), which would explain why individuals in relationships in general are more satisfied than the others. This coincides with the correlations between satisfaction and commitment. Another possible explanation is that you gain both high sex frequency and status in a relationship (Buss, 1994), which is beneficial for both sexes. This, aligned with the fact that both sexes invest in their offspring (Buss, 1998), provides an SST-explanation for the lack of sex differences in satisfaction. Still, considering that the results fit with the feministic prediction that there would be no observed sex difference when it came to satisfaction across the different relationship statuses, this can be used to back up their theories. In other words, this gives us more reason to believe that the notion that sex is off less significance than many of the other factors when it comes to satisfaction. Third wave feminism explains this lack of sex difference by underlining that our sexual behavior is shaped by what we learn by society, and that the sex you are born into does not set boundaries for our room of actions or thoughts (Snyder, 2008). If this is true, we cannot predict certain feelings or behaviors from individuals based on their biological sex.

It is considered surprising that the single without ONS are more satisfied than individuals with ONS, where we at least would have expected that men would be less satisfied due to the low sex frequency. This has little mention in earlier studies, since studies often concentrate on the differences between relationships and casual sex, and exclude individuals who are single and don't engage in casual sex (Birnie-Porter & Hunt, 2015). New theories could be derived from this, and it would be interesting to study this further, towards finding the factors linked to the difference in satisfaction between the two single groups. Levene's test was significant for the ANOVA and the results should be interpreted with caution, given that there might be heterogeneity in variance. The heterogeneity in variance can be caused by discrepancies in sample sizes for the different groups, but it could also be an expression of differences in how the different groups spread around the mean.

The pattern was somewhat different for *Excitement*, where we observed a significant interaction effect between sex and relationship status. Men are significantly less excited in

romantic relationships, which can be explained by SST, where this is considered a less beneficial mating strategy for men than for women (Buss, 1998; Geary, 1998). Similar results have been found in previous studies (Pedersen & Blekesaune, 2003). There is a possibility that the lack of sex difference in satisfaction is expressed in feelings of excitement. It is interesting that women feel more excitement in intermediate relationships than men, and no significant sex difference in the single with ONS-condition. From a SST perspective, these relationship statuses could be considered as the man's arena, where sex frequency is high, but commitment is low. The lack of sex difference fits the feministic approach, where intermediate relationships are looked at as something that promotes sexual agency (Williams & Jovanovic, 2015). There is a discrepancy in the mean scores for intermediates on Satisfaction and Excitement. They group with the single on the Satisfaction measure, but group with individuals in relationships on the Excitement measure. This tells us that there is a probability that the satisfaction observed is caused by a spike in positive sexual emotions. This would also coincide with the feministic approach, where sexual agency is considered a motivational factor for engaging in intermediate relationships (Williams & Jovanovic, 2015). Here we have a similar problem with heterogeneity of variance, which is most likely affected by the discrepancies in sample size for the different groups.

4.3 Prediction 2 – Expectations

For *Expectations*, the lack of sex differences can indicate that other factors play a larger role. This is different from earlier studies that have shown a sex difference, where women often expect that the relationship to evolve into a committed relationship (Gusarova et al., 2012; Lehmillier et al., 2011). This result does not fit the prediction from evolutionary psychology, where the prediction would be that women have expectations of or wishes for a committed relationship to a larger degree than men do. This prediction is rooted in the assumption that women use short-term mating as a strategy to meet potential long-term partners (Grello et al., 2006). From a feministic view, you would expect that SOI, as an expression of sexual liberalism and individual differences, would predict Expectations to a larger degree than “biological sex” (Snyder, 2008). In our study, the only SOI-component with a significant correlation with expectations, was SOI-behavior, which had a small negative correlation with Expectations. Individuals who to a large extent engage in casual sex may have no or lesser expectations of the relationships evolving into a romantic relationship. This suggests that the predictions from third wave feminism do not fit either, and that other factors than the ones studied in this paper may be of importance when it comes to expectations. This could be an

interesting starting point for further research on the topic. When interpreting these results, it is important to keep in mind that in our study there were less than fifty respondents who fit into the category “intermediate”, and the findings lack statistical power.

4.3 Prediction 3 - Commitment, Expectations and Sociosexuality

There is shown an increase in commitment when moving from single to in a relationship. Still, men are less committed than women across relationship statuses. This might be connected to our finding that men also rate their relationship as more superficial than women across relationship statuses. This suggests that men are somewhat less invested in relationships than women, which is a fit with predictions from EP, where relationships are less beneficial as a reproductive strategy for men than for women (Buss, 1998; Geary, 1998). Relationship status predicted scores on Sociosexuality, but there was also a main effect of sex, where men are more unrestricted than women. This is consistent with previous findings related to sex differences in SOI (Schmitt, 2005) and this might relate to the differences we can observe when it comes to sex difference in commitment and superficiality. This indicates that men in general are more sexually liberal than women, and this can potentially influence commitment. Considering that SOI-behavior had no significant main effect of sex, the behavior and desire components are the most important for understanding sex differences in SOI. This resides well with previous studies where men are more inclined to want and like casual sexual encounters than women are (Buss & Schmitt, 1993; Kennair et al., 2009; Schmitt, 2005). Overall these results support the predictions from EP to a larger degree than TWF, with both interaction effects and main effects of sex.

Our findings suggest that men are more unrestricted than women in their sexual desires. As previously mentioned, this supports the EP-notion that men are more sexually liberal or that they desire a larger number of partners, and that this is caused by different reproductive strategies (Buss & Schmitt, 1993). But, of course, the same results can also be interpreted to support social role theory, where you would look at the sex differences in SOI-desire, and the side effects in Expectations and Commitment, as an expression of how men and women are brought up differently and meet different expectations from society regarding sexual behavior and conduct (Eagly & Wood, 1999; Snyder, 2008). Further, the differences may be a result of feelings of shame and anxiety for women caused by the sexual double standard (Milhausen & Herold, 1999; Williams & Jovanovic, 2015). Both the expectations from society and shame caused by the sexual double standard can lead to lower report of sexual desires and fantasies.

Even with an anonymous questionnaire, TWF would connect a low report of desires and fantasies to the assumption that expectations and shame also restricts sexual fantasies (Henry, 2004).

In our study, there were several sex differences in the relationship between the desire component of SOI and the other predictors. Overall there is a stronger negative correlational relationship for women, especially for SOI-D's negative relationship with Commitment and Expectations. What do these results implicate? They can indicate that women's sociosexual orientation have more influence on their mating strategies than for men. In other words, it takes an unrestricted sociosexual orientation for a woman to involve themselves in uncommitted relationships without expectations. This would fit with the feministic prediction that SOI moderates expectations, but that SOI-desire is the only component with effect. Moderation effects of SOI that occur to only women, have been found in other studies as well (Simpson & Gangestad, 1991).

Keeping sex differences in Commitment and SOI in mind, can be helpful when interpreting the factors influencing Satisfaction and Excitement. Commitment is the factor with strongest influence on both Satisfaction and Excitement and this is evident for both sexes. This fits the assumption that friendship and bonding is an important ingredient in all relationship types, including the intermediate ones and for the ones who engage in casual sexual relationships (Lehmiller et al., 2011; Madey & Rodgers, 2009; Sternberg, 1986). It also fits well with Baumeister and Leary's (1995) theory about the importance of social bonds. There was discovered a small negative associating between the desire component of SOI and satisfaction. Earlier studies have suggested that Sociosexuality can predict relationship satisfaction, but only for women (Simpson & Gangestad, 1991). In the current study this is only true for the desire component of SOI, but without a sex difference. This is in concordance with Vrangalova & Ong's (2014) study where SOI had a moderating role in Friends with Benefits-relationships, with few sex differences. A negative correlation between SOI-desire and Satisfaction can suggest that having an unrestricted sociosexual orientation when it comes to desires is connected to low relationship satisfaction. There was also found a correlational relationship between Expectations and Satisfaction, which tells us that having expectations about the relationship evolving has an association with relationship satisfaction. This is predicted from both EP and TWF, and is consistent with previous research (Gusarova et al., 2012).

Considering that we found a strong association between relationship status and both Satisfaction and Excitement it is natural to think that the other correlations are influenced by this effect. We found significant differences between the different relationship statuses regarding how the predictors influence both Satisfaction and Excitement. For those in relationships, SOI-desire and commitment were factors that had a correlational relationship with Satisfaction and Excitement. For individuals in intermediate relationships there were no significant correlations of magnitude, and this was also the case for the single with ONS. This can indicate that there are other predictors of relationship satisfaction and excitement than the ones studied here can be part of the explanation of the individual variance. Especially when it comes to individuals who are intermediate relationships or are single with ONS.

Some sex differences regarding the predictors are not directly linked to Excitement and Satisfaction. We discovered a significant sex difference in the correlation between SOI-desire and Commitment. Where there was a moderate negative correlation for women there was only small negative correlation for men. This can indicate being unrestricted when it comes to sexual desires is a moderating factor for how committed you are to your partner, and that the association is stronger for women. This is somewhat in concordance with Vrangalova & Ong (2014), who found that having an unrestricted SOI increased the likelihood of engaging in casual sexual activities, but without sex difference. Considering that the results are correlational it is important to note that they have no implications of causality, and that the relation between the two variables also could be turned the other way around, where low sense of commitment in the relationship can lead to increase in desires and fantasies about casual sexual encounters.

In sum these results tell us that the factors which influence satisfaction the most is commitment, the desire component of SOI and expectations. Further on, there is a connection between commitment and SOI-desire. The predicted effects of sex from an EP-perspective was not present, and the strong connection between the predictors and satisfaction that was predicted from TWF was only shown to some extent.

4.4 Research questions - Qualitative differences and dimensions

The analysis' of the dimensions, tied to the research question, showed evident differences between intermediate relationships and other relationship types. The single with ONS viewed

their relationship as more Uncommitted and Superficial than both intermediates and those in relationships. Further on, the intermediates rated their relationship as more Uncommitted and Superficial than those in relationships. These findings indicate that the different relationship statuses place themselves on different points of the scales, and that their profiles are significantly different. This backs up the notion that intermediate relationships are qualitatively different from both romantic relationships and sexually active single individuals. This is in concordance with other studies of intermediate relationships, e.g. studies of FWB-relationships (Garcia & Reiber, 2008; Grello et al., 2006; Lehmiller et al., 2011), where they define FWB-relationships as something qualitatively different from romantic relationships.

The use of dimensions also showed qualitative sex differences. The only significant sex differences are observed in the relationship category, where sex differences are significant on all the dimensions. Men in relationships have a higher score, indicating that they perceive the relationship as less committing, close etc., on all the dimensions. For the intermediate category and the single with ONS, there are no significant sex differences. Still, there might be reason to believe that there are noteworthy sex differences in the intermediate group. The significance levels are likely effected by the small number of respondents in this category. When looking at the intermediate group some of the differences speak in favor of SST and some speak in favor of third wave feminism. For example, on the dimension “Committed - Uncommitted” men have a higher score than women, indicating a lower sense of commitment. This coincides with SST (Buss, 1998), and with some of the previous research on the matter (Gusarova et al., 2012; Townsend & Wasserman, 2011). For the dimension “Short-term – Long-term” the pattern was reversed, and women had a higher score than men, though with a modest effect size. This supports the feministic approach, where they view intermediate relationships not only as a pathway to romantic relationships, but as something that has intrinsic value in itself (Williams & Jovanovic, 2015).

The feministic assumption that women also can be content with casual sex, and especially with intermediate relationships, is backed by the overall lack of sex differences when it comes to satisfaction, excitement, expectations and on the dimensions in both the intermediate group and for the single with ONS. This coincides with the idea that women are allowed to express sexual desires and also are allowed to seek sexual gratification without experiencing distress or shame (Curtin et al., 2011). This also coincides with some of the previous research (García et al., 2014; Lewis et al., 2012). Several other studies find contrasting results, where they find

sex differences in these groups when it comes to emotions (Grello et al., 2006; Lehmillier et al., 2011; Townsend & Wasserman, 2011).

We have found that men in general perceive their relationship as more Superficial than women. This indicates that they in general view their relationship as less emotional, close and romantic than women across different relationship statuses. For the factor *Uncommitted* there was a significant main effect of relationship status and a significant interaction effect with sex, where there was a sex difference between individuals in relationships. This might indicate that the predicted tendency, from an EP stand point, that men are less committed and not as invested as women (Birnie-Porter & Hunt, 2015; Geary, 1998), is most predominant in romantic relationships. When thinking about the non-existing sex difference on Satisfaction in association with the main effect of sex on superficiality, the results become more nuanced. Both sexes are more content in relationships, consistent with Baumeister & Leary's (1995) assumption of our need to belong, but given that men perceive it as less superficial, they are content with less emotional, close and romantic relationships than women.

4.5 Evolutionary Psychology vs. Third Wave Feminism.

The results are contradicting and do not fully support one of the approaches over the other. The overall lack of sex differences found in both the intermediate group and for the single with ONS when it comes to both Satisfaction and Excitement stand out as results supporting TWF, where it is stated that other factors explain individual variance within each relationship status better than sex (Heywood, 2006). This also stands out as a finding that supports the assumption that women to a larger degree than assumed by EP also are inclined to engage in, and enjoy both casual sexual encounters and intermediate relationships (Curtin et al., 2011; Williams & Jovanovic, 2015). This finding is interesting in connection to the view of women as agents in their own environment proposed by Kruger, Fisher & Wright (2013). Possibly, this is an indication of how society today trigger these mating strategies in young individuals. Perhaps this is an expression of how evolved mechanisms are triggered by changes in environment, as proposed by Vandermassen (2005).

The correlations between Satisfaction and Excitement and the other predictors coincides with both theories. Commitment is the predictor with the strongest correlational relationship with both Satisfaction and Excitement. None of the frameworks neglect the value of commitment, and here the results can be said to point in both directions. This provides a common ground

for the two theories to meet; they agree that other factors than sex are of importance. Commitment is important in an evolutionary perspective where social bonds and a sense of belonging is important for both survival and reproductive success via sex frequency and status (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Buss, 1994). In third wave feminism, there are no specific mentions of commitment, but a focus on a need to feel safe to be able to explore sexuality (Williams & Jovanovic, 2015). This brings us back to Vandermassen (2005) and the idea that men will evolve traits that show women that they will help raise the child. Commitment is considered one of these traits, and this coincides with our results where commitment seems to be of importance. Buss & Schmitt (2011) argue that even though the sexes have developed sex-differentiated mating strategies, some of the challenges they face are the same. One of these challenges is finding a partner who will commit to them over an extended period. This leads to development of commitment promoting mechanisms, such as love.

The sex differences in the desire component of Sociosexuality and superficiality, where men are more unrestricted and perceive their relationship as more superficial, coincide with the EP approach. This supports the hypothesis that men and women have different reproductive strategies (Buss & Schmitt, 1993). For superficiality, there was a tendency for a reversed pattern, especially for the single with ONS group. This was also the case for some of the items for the intermediate group. This gives us reason to believe that there might be more nuances and greater variation within these groups which could lead to new knowledge about sexual behavior.

The contradictory results give us reason to believe that there are elements of both approaches that should be used for further research. This also gives us reason to believe that there is a lot to gain from an integrated view, as suggested by Vandermassen (2005). For many of our findings you could twist the results to fit into one of the theories or the other. For example, for the lack of sex difference in Satisfaction we have argued that this result support TWF, but it can also be an expression of evolved mechanisms to seek companionship (Buss & Schmitt, 2011). Evolutionary psychology seeks to explain evolved sex differences (Buss & Schmitt, 1993), and third wave feminisms main goal is equality between the sexes (Snyder, 2008). These agendas are not necessarily contradictory, and there is a possibility that exploring how sex differences and conflicts between the sexes have risen can contribute positively in achieving the goal of equality. Knowledge about unconscious mechanisms will help us gain consciousness and increase the probability of making conscious decisions.

4.6 Limitations and implications for further research

There are several methodological challenges in this study, that should be addressed. As previously mentioned, there were few respondents in the intermediate category, which challenges the statistical power. Due to the small number of respondents in the intermediate category we left out a segment of the questionnaire answered only by intermediates from the analysis. The questions regarded hopes for the relationship and thoughts about the future. Hopefully with a larger number of respondents this could be included to shed light on how intermediates view their relationship. There was also a heterogeneity of variance in many of the analyses comparing intermediates with other relationship categories, which may influence the reliability of the analysis. Mostly we conducted post hoc tests on the data to identify differences, but on some of the data we conducted several t-tests on the same phenomenon. This was the case for the analysis of the individual dimensions. This increases the chance of type 1 errors, where there is an increased chance of false positives.

10 % of the population studied were in intermediate relationships, which is as predicted. However 10% is only a small margin of the population compared with individuals who are married/cohabitants or in romantic relationships, single individuals with ONS and single without ONS. This tells us that it is less common than other relationship types. However, in other studies, asking participants of their previous experiences with e.g. FWB-relationships, the percentages rise to 60% (Bisson & Levine, 2009; Pedersen et al., 2011). In a previously mentioned study 67% of the population studied stated that their romantic relationship had started as casual hookups (England et al., 2008), and other studies show that only a small portion of casual sexual relationships develop into a romantic relationship (Garcia et al., 2012; Grello et al., 2006). With those examples in mind, there is reason to think that these relationship types have a higher occurrence in the younger cohort, possibly as a gateway to relationships. There might also be reason to think of intermediate relationships as fleeting or temporary, due to the more casual nature of these relationships. The population the respondents were collected from are mainly students, and on average a low age. Therefore, we cannot assume that this is occurring in all age groups across life situations. To investigate this, you would have to broaden the search and ask respondents in all age groups.

Though small in numbers the intermediates represent a qualitatively different category from both the single and those in relationships. Considering that this study implicates some lack of

sex differences you would expect from an evolutionary point of view, this group could provide material for a more nuanced evolutionary psychology, and be used to back up feministic theories that attenuate women's sexual agency and aptitude for casual sex (Snyder, 2008; Williams & Jovanovic, 2015). For this to be possible you would have to get a larger number of respondents to assure statistical power in the intermediate group. Another possibility is to ask respondents about previous intermediate experience, similar to previous mentioned studies (Gusarova et al., 2012; Lehmillier et al., 2011; Lewis et al., 2012; Owen & Fincham, 2011), since approximately 60-70% of the respondents in earlier studies have reported previous experience with intermediate relationships (Bisson & Levine, 2009; Pedersen et al., 2011). The consequence here is potentially that the respondents don't give an exact account of their emotions since they will be based on memories rather than reporting your feelings in the present (Lehmillier et al., 2011).

From a feministic point of view problems arise with using questionnaires and statistical analysis as a tool. Third wave feminism as a movement, with a post modernistic view of the world, would not agree that the findings you get from a survey study shows us the reality, they would argue that we study discourses and learned attitudes (Harding, 1987). That makes challenges when conducting a study with double hypothesis, such as this one, because the theories require different scientific methods. A potential solution to this problem would be to conduct a study with both quantitative and qualitative data and use an integrated analysis with both types of data. The problem could also be avoided by being aware of own presumptions and political opinions when analyzing the data and not force the data to fit the hypothesis by pulling out respondents that don't fit the norm (Harding, 1987). To solve the problem with outliers it is a possibility to add them to the analysis by describing them separately. This would provide exiting information about the individuals who do not fit the characteristics of the main tendency.

It is important to note that feministic research does not neglect sex differences. The difference is that many believe that the differences that you can find in average does not necessarily have any applicable value in real life situations, and that they might be a result of learned attitudes (Eagly & Wood, 1999; Harding, 1987; Hrdy, 1986). This also leads back to the previously mentioned naturalistic fallacy (Frankena, 1939), where evolutionary scientists have a responsibility when it comes to how they portray their results (Wilson et al., 2003). In practice this means that one should not portray genetic predispositions and sex differences as

unchangeable and as a golden standard. An interesting take on sexual behavior would be to conduct studies on differences within each sex to enlighten diversity.

4.7 Conclusions

The aim of the study was to investigate intermediate relationships and establish the concept. This study has shown the intermediate relationships existence, but they are few in numbers in the current sample. However, they have proven to be qualitatively different from both romantic relationships and the single groups, which gives reason to think of them as conceptually unique. Further on, our study has revealed sex differences for individuals in relationships. Men perceive the relationships as less emotional, close and romantic than women and experience less excitement, which coincides with an evolutionary approach. There are no sex differences in Satisfaction across relationship statuses and a lack of sex difference in the intermediate group and in the single with One Night Stands, which supports the predictions from Third Wave Feminism. The contradictory results and alternate explanations for the differences discovered, give us reason to question both theories. At the same time this gives us reason to consider a synthesis of the approaches. The integration of female sexual agency in Evolutionary Psychology seems appropriate.

As previously mentioned, there are limitations of focusing on a dichotomy in relationship statuses. Perhaps the same limitations arise when approaching theoretical explanations. The illusion that third wave feminism and evolutionary psychology are standing on separate sides, dichotomous, and that only one of them is right would difficult to believe. The most probable option is that an explanation for human sexual and romantic behavior is a culmination of our genetics, our evolved mechanism and our learned view of the world, in other words a biopsychosocial model. The attempt to bridge the gap provided by this paper will hopefully have the potential to be a starting point of new research. An important future goal will be to formulate a nuanced, feminist evolutionary psychology.

References

- Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological bulletin*, 117(3).
- Bay-Cheng, L. Y., Robinson, A. D., & Zucker, A. N. (2009). Behavioral and relational contexts of adolescent desire, wanting, and pleasure: Undergraduate women's retrospective accounts. *Journal of sex research*, 46(6), 511-524.
- Beldecos, A., Bailey, S., Gilbert, S., Hicks, K., Kenschaft, L., Niemczyk, N., Rosenberg, R., Schaertel, S. & Wedel, A. (1989). The importance of feminist critique for contemporary cell biology. *Feminism and science*, 3(1), 172.
- Birnie-Porter, C., & Hunt, M. (2015). Does relationship status matter for sexual satisfaction? The roles of intimacy and attachment avoidance in sexual satisfaction across five types of ongoing sexual relationships. *The Canadian Journal of Human Sexuality*, 24(2), 174-183.
- Bisson, M. A., & Levine, T. R. (2009). Negotiating a friends with benefits relationship. *Archives of sexual behavior*, 38(1), 66-73.
- Buss, D. M. (1989). Conflict between the sexes: Strategic interference and the evocation of anger and upset. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 56(5), 735.
- Buss, D. M. (1994). *The evolution of desire*: New York: Basic Books.
- Buss, D. M. (1998). Sexual strategies theory: Historical origins and current status. *Journal of sex research*, 35(1), 19-31.
- Buss, D. M., & Barnes, M. (1986). Preferences in human mate selection. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 50(3), 559. DOI: 10.1037/0022-3514.50.3.559
- Buss, D. M., & Schmitt, D. P. (1993). Sexual strategies theory: an evolutionary perspective on human mating. *Psychological review*, 100(2), 204-232.
- Buss, D. M., & Schmitt, D. P. (2011). Evolutionary psychology and feminism. *Sex Roles*, 64(9-10), 768-787. DOI 10.1007/s11199-011-9987-3
- Campbell, A. (2006). Feminism and evolutionary psychology. In J. H. Barkow (Ed.), *Missing the revolution: Darwinism for social scientists* (pp. 63–99). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Curtin, N., Ward, L. M., Merriwether, A., & Caruthers, A. (2011). Femininity ideology and sexual health in young women: A focus on sexual knowledge, embodiment, and agency. *International Journal of Sexual Health*, 23(1), 48-62.
- Eagly, A. H., & Wood, W. (1999). The origins of sex differences in human behavior: Evolved dispositions versus social roles. *American psychologist*, 54(6), 408-423.

- Edwards, W. M., & Coleman, E. (2004). Defining sexual health: a descriptive overview. *Archives of sexual behavior*, 33(3), 189-195.
- 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.
- Ellis, B. J. (1998). The Partner-Specific Investment Inventory: An Evolutionary Approach to Individual Differences in Investment. *Journal of Personality*, 66(3), 383-442.
- England, P., Shafer, E. F., & Fogarty, A. C. (2008). Hooking up and forming romantic relationships on today’s college campuses. *The gendered society reader*, 3, 531-593.
- Eysenck, H. J. (1976). *Sex and Personality*. Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Fausto-Sterling, A. (2000). *Sexing the body: Gender politics and the construction of sexuality*. New York: Basic Books.
- Fausto-Sterling, A., Gowaty, P. A., & Zuk, M. (1997). Evolutionary psychology and Darwinian feminism. *Feminist studies*, 23(2), 402-417. DOI: 10.2307/3178406
- Fielder, R. L., & Carey, M. P. (2010). Predictors and consequences of sexual “hookups” among college students: A short-term prospective study. *Archives of sexual behavior*, 39(5), 1105-1119. DOI:10.1007/s10508-008-9448-4
- Frankena, W. K. (1939). The naturalistic fallacy. *Mind*, 48(192), 464-477.
- Gangestad, S. W., & Thornhill, R. (1997). The evolutionary psychology of extrapair sex: The role of fluctuating asymmetry. *Evolution and Human Behavior*, 18(2), 69-88.
- García, H., Soriano, E., & Arriaza, G. (2014). Friends with Benefits and Psychological Wellbeing. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 132, 241-247.
- Garcia, J. R., & Reiber, C. (2008). Hook-up behavior: A biopsychosocial perspective. *Journal of Social, Evolutionary, and Cultural Psychology*, 2(4), 192-208. doi:10.1037/h0099345
- 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
- Geary, D. C. (1998). *Male, female: The evolution of human sex differences*. Washington DC: American Psychological Association.
- Glenn, N., & Marquardt, E. (2001). *Hooking up, Hanging out, and Hoping for Mr. Right: College Women on Dating and Mating Today*. In *An Institute for American Values Report to the Independent Women's Forum*.

- Grebe, N. M., Kristoffersen, A. A., Grøntvedt, T. V., Thompson, M. E., Kennair, L. E. O., & Gangestad, S. W. (2017). Oxytocin and vulnerable romantic relationships. *Hormones and Behavior, 90*, 64-74.
- 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*(3), 255-267.
- Gusarova, I., Fraser, V., & Alderson, K. G. (2012). A quantitative study of "friends with benefits" relationships. *The Canadian Journal of Human Sexuality, 21*(1), 41.
- Harding, S. G. (1987). *Feminism and methodology: Social science issues*. Indianapolis: Indiana University Press.
- Henry, A. (2004). *Not my mother's sister: Generational conflict and third-wave feminism*: Indiana University Press.
- Heywood, L. L. (2006). The women's movement today. *An Encyclopedia of the Third wave Feminism*.
- Hrdy, S. B. (1986). *Empathy, polyandry, and the myth of the coy female*. In R. Bleier (ed.), *Feminist Approaches to Science*. New York: Pergamon Press, 119–146.
- Karayan, L., & Mitchell, A. (2009). Third wave feminisms. *Feminist Issues: Race, Class and Sexuality, fifth edition*. Toronto: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Kennair, L. E. O., Bendixen, M., & Buss, D. M. (2016). Sexual regret: Tests of competing explanations of sex differences. *Evolutionary Psychology, 14*(4), doi:1474704916682903.
- Kennair, L. E. O., Schmitt, D., Fjeldavli, Y. L., & Harlem, S. K. (2009). Sex differences in sexual desires and attitudes in Norwegian samples. *Interpersona, 3*, 1.
- Kruger, D. J., Fisher, M. L., & Wright, P. (2013). A framework for integrating evolutionary and feminist perspectives in psychological research. *Journal of Social, Evolutionary, and Cultural Psychology, 7*(4), 299.
- Lehmiller, J. J., VanderDrift, L. E., & Kelly, J. R. (2011). Sex differences in approaching friends with benefits relationships. *Journal of sex research, 48*(2-3), 275-284.
- Lehmiller, J. J., VanderDrift, L. E., & Kelly, J. R. (2014). Sexual communication, satisfaction, and condom use behavior in friends with benefits and romantic partners. *Journal of sex research, 51*(1), 74-85.
- Lewis, M. A., Granato, H., Blayney, J. A., Lostutter, T. W., & Kilmer, J. R. (2012). Predictors of hooking up sexual behaviors and emotional reactions among US college students. *Archives of sexual behavior, 41*(5), 1219-1229.

- Madey, S. F., & Rodgers, L. (2009). The effect of attachment and Sternberg's triangular theory of love on relationship satisfaction. *Individual Differences Research*, 7(2), 76-84.
- Milhausen, R. R., & Herold, E. S. (1999). Does the sexual double standard still exist? Perceptions of university women. *Journal of sex research*, 36(4), 361-368.
- Okami, P., & Shackelford, T. K. (2001). Human sex differences in sexual psychology and behavior. *Annual Review of Sex Research*, 12(1), 186-241.
- Owen, J., & Fincham, F. D. (2011). Effects of gender and psychosocial factors on "friends with benefits" relationships among young adults. *Archives of sexual behavior*, 40(2), 311-320.
- Palmer, C. T., & Thornhill, R. (2003). Straw men and fairy tales: Evaluating reactions to A Natural History of Rape. *Journal of sex research*, 40(3), 249-255.
- Pedersen, W., & Blekesaune, M. (2003). Sexual satisfaction in young adulthood: Cohabitation, committed dating or unattached life? *Acta Sociologica*, 46(3), 179-193.
- Pedersen, W., Putcha-Bhagavatula, A., & Miller, L. C. (2011). Are men and women really that different? Examining some of Sexual Strategies Theory (SST)'s key assumptions about sex-distinct mating mechanisms. *Sex Roles*, 64(9-10), 629-643.
- Pedersen, W. C., Miller, L. C., Putcha-Bhagavatula, A. D., & Yang, Y. (2002). Evolved sex differences in the number of partners desired? The long and the short of it. *Psychological Science*, 13(2), 157-161.
- Penke, L., & Asendorpf, J. B. (2008). Beyond global sociosexual orientations: a more differentiated look at sociosexuality and its effects on courtship and romantic relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 95(5), 1113-1135. DOI: 10.1037/00223514.95.5.11131113
- Petersen, J. L., & Hyde, J. S. (2010). A meta-analytic review of research on gender differences in sexuality, 1993–2007. *Psychological bulletin*, 136(1), 21-38.
- Rubin, Z. (1970). Measurement of romantic love. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 16(2), 265-273.
- Schmitt, D. P. (2005). Sociosexuality from Argentina to Zimbabwe: A 48-nation study of sex, culture, and strategies of human mating. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, 28(2), 247-275.
- Siebenbruner, J. (2013). Are college students replacing dating and romantic relationships with hooking up? *Journal of College Student Development*, 54(4), 433-438.

- Simpson, J. A., & Gangestad, S. W. (1991). Individual differences in sociosexuality: evidence for convergent and discriminant validity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 60*(6), 870-883.
- Simpson, J. A., Wilson, C. L., & Winterheld, H. A. (2004). Sociosexuality and romantic relationships. *Handbook of sexuality in close relationships, 87-112.*
- Smith, R. L. (1984). Human sperm competition. *Sperm competition and the evolution of animal mating systems, 602-652.*
- Snyder, M., Simpson, J. A., & Gangestad, S. (1986). Personality and sexual relations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(1), 181-190.
- Snyder, R. C. (2008). What is third-wave feminism? A new directions essay. *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society, 34*(1), 175-196.
- Sprecher, S., & Regan, P. C. (2002). Liking some things (in some people) more than others: Partner preferences in romantic relationships and friendships. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 19*(4), 463-481.
- Sternberg, R. J. (1986). A triangular theory of love. *Psychological review, 93*(2), 119-135.
- Sternberg, R. J. (1997). Construct validation of a triangular love scale. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 27*(3), 313-335.
- Townsend, J. M., & Wasserman, T. H. (2011). Sexual hookups among college students: Sex differences in emotional reactions. *Archives of sexual behavior, 40*(6), 1173-1181.
- Trivers, R. (1972). *Parental investment and sexual selection* (Vol. 136): Biological Laboratories, Harvard University Cambridge, MA.
- Vandermassen, G. (2005). *Who's afraid of Charles Darwin? : debating feminism and evolutionary theory.* Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Vrangalova, Z., & Ong, A. D. (2014). Who benefits from casual sex? The moderating role of sociosexuality. *Social Psychological and Personality Science, 5*(8), 883-891.
- Weitbrecht, E. M., & Whitton, S. W. (2017). Expected, ideal, and actual relational outcomes of emerging adults; "hook ups". *Personal Relationships, 24*(4), 902-916.
doi:10.1111/per.12220
- Williams, J. C., & Jovanovic, J. (2015). Third wave feminism and emerging adult sexuality: Friends with Benefits Relationships. *Sexuality & Culture, 19*(1), 157-171.
- Wilson, D. S., Dietrich, E., & Clark, A. B. (2003). On the inappropriate use of the naturalistic fallacy in evolutionary psychology. *Biology and Philosophy, 18*(5), 669-681.
- Wolf, N. (2006). 'Two Traditions,' from Fire with Fire. *The Women's Movement Today: An Encyclopedia of Third-Wave Feminism, 13-19.*

Appendix

OPPLEVELSER OG FØLELSER KNYTTET TIL PARSTATUS

Formålet med denne spørreundersøkelsen er å studere følelser og opplevelser knyttet til sivilstatus. Svarene vil bli brukt i undertegnede hovedoppgave ved Institutt for psykologi, NTNU.

Det er frivillig å delta i undersøkelsen, og alle som deltar er anonyme. Resultatene vil bli presentert slik at ingen enkeltpersoner kan gjenkjennes.

Takk for at du er villig til å delta i undersøkelsen!

Nina Charlotte Søsnes, psykologstudent

Leif Edward Ottesen Kennair, professor, veileder



LES DETTE FØR DU STARTER!	Skjemaet skal leses maskinelt. Vennligst følg disse reglene: <ul style="list-style-type: none">• <i>Bruk svart/blå kulepenn. Skriv tydelig, og ikke utenfor feltene. Kryss av slik: <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>.</i>• <i>Feilkryssinger kan annulleres ved å fylle <u>hele</u> feltet med farge. Kryss så i rett felt.</i>• <i>Sett bare ett kryss på hvert spørsmål om ikke annet er oppgitt.</i>
--	---

A. BAKGRUNNSINFORMASJON

1. Kjønn:

Kvinne .. ₁ Annen oppfatning
Mann ₂ av kjønn..... ₃

2. Alder:

3. Din legning:

Heterofil... ₁ Bifil ₃
Homofil ₂ Annet.... ₄

4. Sivil status: (NB: Sett bare ett kryss!)

Gift/samboer ₁ «Friends with benefits» ₅
Har kjæreste ₂ Singel men har one-night-stands av og til... ₆
Fast seksualpartner med forpliktelse (eksklusivitet)..... ₃ Singel ₇
Fast seksualpartner uten forpliktelse (åpent seksuelt forhold)... ₄ Annet (vennligst spesifiser⇩) ₈

5. Hvor *lenge* har din sivilstatus vært slik den er nå? Vennligst oppgi antall år, måneder eller uker, avhengig av hva som passer best. Vær nøye med å bruke rett felt. Under 1 uke noteres som 1 uke. ⇨

<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
År	Måneder	Uker

6. I min sivilstatus føler jeg meg ...

	Svært uenig 1	Uenig 2	Verken /eller 3	Enig 4	Svært enig 5
1. Glad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Utilpass	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Eventyrlysten ...	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Skuffet	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Fornøyd	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Svært uenig 1	Uenig 2	Verken /eller 3	Enig 4	Svært enig 5
6. Tom	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Opphisset	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Forvirret	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Tiltrekkende	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Brukt	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

B. SEX OG SEKSUELL AKTIVITET

1. Vennligst svar så ærlig som mulig på de følgende spørsmålene:

1. Hvor mange forskjellige partnere har du hatt sex (samleie) med de siste 12 månedene? 0 1 2 3 4 5-6 7-9 10-19 20+

2. Hvor mange forskjellige partnere har du hatt samleie med én og kun én gang?

3. Hvor mange forskjellige partnere har du hatt samleie med uten at du har hatt interesse for et langvarig, forpliktende forhold med personen?.....

2. På skalaen fra 1 til 9, hvor enig eller uenig er du i følgende utsagn?

Veldig uenig Veldig enig

1. Sex uten kjærlighet er OK..... 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

2. Jeg er komfortabel med tanken på å ha tilfeldig sex med forskjellige partnere

3. Jeg vil ikke ha sex med en person før jeg er sikker på at forholdet kommer til å være seriøst og varig

3. Hvor ofte opplever du følgende?

Aldri Veldig sjelden En gang hver 2-3 mnd. Ca. en gang pr. mnd. Ca. en gang hver 2. uke Ca. en gang i uka Flere ganger i uka Nesten daglig Minst en gang daglig

1. Hvor ofte fantasierer du om å ha sex med noen du ikke har et forpliktende kjærlighetsforhold til?.....

2. Hvor ofte opplever du seksuell opphisselse når du er i kontakt med noen du ikke har et forpliktende kjærlighetsforhold til?.....

3. I det daglige, hvor ofte opplever du spontane fantasier om sex med noen du nettopp har møtt?

NB: Hvis du er 100% singel, dvs. hvis du krysset av for svaralternativ 7 («Singel») på spørsmålet om sivil status på første side, er du ferdig med skjemaet nå. Takk for svarene dine! Krysset du av på et annet svaralternativ enn nr. 7, vennligst besvar resten av spørsmålene.

C. OM PARFORHOLDET DITT

Med «partner» menes her din *nåværende* partner.

Kryset du av for svaralternativ 6 på spørsmålet om sivil status på første side («har one-night-stands av og til»), tenk på din *siste* seksualpartner.

Har du flere seksualpartnere, men ingen virkelig fast partner, tenk på den du føler deg mest knyttet til.

1. Hvordan vil du beskrive forholdet du er i nå? *Se på dette som dimensjoner der man kan ligge nærmere den ene eller den andre enden, eller befinne seg et sted på midten. Sett ett kryss mellom hvert ordpar.*

- | | | | | | | | | | |
|----|----------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. | Ikkeseksuelt | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Seksuelt |
| 2. | Uforpliktende | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Forpliktende |
| 3. | Emosjonelt | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Overfladisk |
| 4. | Nært | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Distansert |
| 5. | Kjæreste | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Sexpartner |
| 6. | Romantisk | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Uromantisk |
| 7. | Kortidsforhold | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Langtidsforhold |

2. Tenk på *forventningene* dine til parforholdet du er i nå.

NB: Her setter du to kryss på hver linje.

Jeg forventet ...	I startfasen av forholdet:					Nå: Har forventningene dine blitt innfridd?		
	Svært uenig 1	Uenig 2	Verken / eller 3	Enig 4	Svært enig 5	Nei 1	Delvis 2	Ja 3
1. ... at det skulle være ukomplisert og/eller uforpliktende	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. ... at vi skulle være nære hverandre.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. ... at vi skulle bli kjærester.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. ... at partner ønsket det samme som meg.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. Hvor mange ganger i løpet av den siste uka (de siste 7 dagene) hadde du sex med partneren din ? ⇒

4. Hadde du eller din partner mensen noen av disse dagene (siste 7 dager)? For menn, svar «uaktuelt». ⇒
- | | Nei
1 | Ja
2 | Uaktuelt
3 |
|---------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Du selv..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Din partner | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

5. Tenk på partneren din. På skalaen fra 1 til 9, hvor mye vil du si at du kjenner deg igjen i følgende utsagn?

	Ikke i det hele tatt								I svært høy grad
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Om hun/han hadde det dårlig, hadde jeg prøvd å muntre henne/ham opp.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Jeg føler jeg kan betro meg til henne/ham om omtrent hva som helst....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Jeg synes det er lett å ignorere hennes/hans sine feil og mangler.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Jeg ville gjort omtrent alt for henne/ham.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Jeg føler et eierskap overfor henne/ham	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Om jeg aldri kunne være sammen med henne/ham mer, ville jeg følt meg ulykkelig	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Om jeg er ensom, er min første tanke å ta kontakt med henne/ham....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. En av mine hovedbekymringer er om hun/han har det bra.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Jeg ville tilgitt henne/ham omtrent hva som helst	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Jeg føler meg ansvarlig for at hun/han har det bra	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Når jeg er sammen med henne/ham, ser jeg mye på henne/ham.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Om hun/han hadde betrodd seg til meg, hadde det gjort meg glad.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Det hadde vært vanskelig for meg å klare meg uten henne/ham	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. Hvis du ikke har kjæreste og ikke er helt singel, dvs. hvis du krysset av for svaralternativ 3, 4, 5 eller 6 på spørsmålet om sivil status på første side: Hvor enig er du i hvert av disse utsagnene?

	Svært uenig	Uenig	Verken /eller	Enig	Svært enig
	1	2	3	4	5
1. Jeg håper vi blir kjærester	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Jeg håper vi fortsetter å være venner.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Jeg håper vi forholdet fortsetter å være som det er	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Jeg håper vi avslutter hele forholdet.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Dette forholdet har bydd på emosjonelle komplikasjoner	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Dette forholdet har vært emosjonelt uproblematisk	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Jeg har tatt opp temaet om vi skal bli kjærester	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. «Partner» har tatt opp tema om vi skal bli kjærester	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Ingen av oss er interessert i at det skal bli mer seriøst.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>