

EXTRADYADIC RELATIONSHIPS IN PREMARITAL
COUPLES: GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE
FACTORS INFLUENCING EXTRADYADIC
INVOLVEMENT

By

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Purpose of the Study	4
Conceptual Framework	5
General Statement of the Hypotheses	16
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	18
Extramarital Relationships	18
Definitions	19
Permissive Sexual Attitudes and Behaviors	20
Marital Satisfaction	23
Individual Characteristics	28
Gender Differences	32
Extradyadic Relationships	36
Definitions	37
Permissive Sexual Attitudes and Behaviors	38
Relationship Satisfaction	40
Individual Characteristics	43
Gender Differences	46
Link between Extramarital and Extradyadic Relationships	47
III. METHODOLOGY	53
Research Design	53
Sample	53
Instrumentation and Measurement	55
Data Collection Procedures	64
Data Analysis	65
IV. RESULTS	70
Behaviors and Reasons for Extradyadic Relationships	70
Characteristics of Extradyadic Relationships	71
Examination of Hypotheses	73
Other Research Questions Addressed	81

Chapter	Page
V. DISCUSSION	83
Significant Results that Support the Hypotheses	83
Factors related to occurrence of extradyadic relationship	83
Factors related to type of extradyadic relationship	87
Significant Results that did not Support the Hypotheses	90
Gender differences in type of involvement	90
Gender differences in reasons for engaging in extradyadic relationships	93
Limitations	95
Implications for Future Research	97
Implications for Practice	100
REFERENCE LIST	102
APPENDIXES	110
APPENDIX A - TABLES AND FIGURES	111
APPENDIX B - QUESTIONNAIRE	117
APPENDIX C - INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL	128
VITA	

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
I	Characteristics of the Participants	112
II	Variables Assessed in Questionnaire	113
III.	Reasons for Engaging in an Extradyadic Relationship	114
IV	Behaviors that Constitute Being Unfaithful	115

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
1	Permissive Sexual Attitudes: Interaction between Type of Extradyadic Relationship and Gender	116

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Extramarital relationships have been the focus of many research studies, particularly over the last two decades. Research has found that 15-70% of married individuals have an affair sometime during their marriage (Hite, 1981, 1987; Kell, 1992; Laumann, Gagnon, Michael, & Michaels, 1994; Reinisch & Beasley, 1990; Weiderman, 1997). The discrepancy may be accounted for by the definition of affair used by the researchers and by the methods used in investigating the prevalence of affairs. Despite the discrepancy in the prevalence of affairs, substantial agreement exists that more men than women have an affair (Glass & Wright, 1985; Hite, 1981, 1987; Laumann et al., 1994; Reinisch & Beasley, 1990; Thompson, 1984; Weiderman, 1997)

Although extramarital relationships have been the focus of a considerable amount of study, sexual and emotional relations outside of other committed, intimate relationships have received little attention. A few researchers (e.g., Buunk, 1980; Thompson, 1984) have included cohabitators, but research is lacking on extradyadic relationships during committed dating or courtship (Roscoe, Cavanaugh, & Kennedy, 1988). Extradyadic relationships refer to emotional or sexual behavior outside of a committed dating relationship between unmarried, noncohabitating partners who have an expectation of dating and sexual exclusivity in their relationship (Seal, Agostinelli, & Hannett, 1994). In addition, there are three types of extradyadic relationships discussed in the literature (a) a sexual but not emotional relationship, (b) an emotional but not sexual relationship, and (c) a combination of emotional and sexual relationship (Glass & Wright, 1985, 1992;

Hurlbert, 1992; Thompson, 1984). This study focused on these three types of extradyadic relationships.

Extradyadic relationships are important to study because research suggests that the dating behaviors and social scripts that we develop during courtship most likely will be what we bring into marriage (Glass & Wright, 1985; Weiss & Slosnerick, 1981). Weiss and Slosnerick (1981) stated that individuals bring to marriage established scripts for sexuality, love, and extramarital relationships. Therefore, one's attitudes and behaviors toward extradyadic relationships during courtship will most likely correlate with one's attitudes and behaviors toward extramarital relationships. Current research suggests that the reasons for engaging in extradyadic relationships during courtship strongly parallel the reasons most frequently cited for engaging in extramarital relationships (Roscoe et al., 1988). In other words, the way men and women approach extramarital relationships coincides with their sexual behaviors in their premarital or dating relationships (Glass & Wright, 1985). Consequently, research exploring extradyadic relationships would help clarify the link between extradyadic and extramarital relationships.

Given the quantity of information available regarding extramarital relationships and the lack of information regarding extradyadic relationships, it is valuable to learn more about whether the variables that are salient for extramarital relationships (e.g., permissive sexual attitudes and behaviors; marital dissatisfaction, and individual characteristics such as unresolved issues, personality types, and biological factors) are also salient variables with extradyadic relationships. In addition, the research suggests that gender plays an important role in influencing a person to engage in an extradyadic or extramarital

relationship. The traditional sex role stereotypes in our culture define men and women's involvement and their views toward sex, love, and relationships. First, men are seen as the aggressors and the initiators of sex within the relationship, whereas women are seen as being passive and as the ones who set the limits on the couple's intimacy (Lottes, 1993). Secondly, men are traditionally viewed as the "breadwinners," whereas women traditionally have stayed at home and have put their relationships above their own prestige or careers (Maybach & Gold, 1994). Thirdly, men and women have been socialized to view sex and love differently. For example, men may view sex without love as okay; whereas women typically associate sex with love and affection (Glass & Wright, 1985, 1992). These gender differences suggest that gender is an important variable to research.

Glass and Wright's (1985) study on gender differences found that sex roles can clarify our understanding of extradyadic and extramarital involvements because men and women differ in their attitudes toward extramarital and extradyadic involvement, their reasons for engaging in an extramarital or extradyadic relationship and in the type of extramarital involvement. Research shows that men and women differ in the type of extramarital involvement in ways that reflect traditional sex roles (Glass & Wright, 1985). For example, traditionally men are mostly interested in sex and are cautious about becoming emotionally involved; however, women are socialized to value romance, love, and commitment and to make sexual activity contingent on these things (Lottes, 1993). Therefore, men tend to engage in sexual extramarital relationships without love and women tend to engage in emotional (in love) extramarital relationships or a combination of emotional and sexual extramarital relationships (Glass & Wright, 1985, 1992). These

findings suggest that examining gender differences in type of involvement would be an area for future research in extradyadic relations.

The current research on gender differences in extradyadic relations focuses more on attitudes and reasons for involvement. Using self report data, research has found that men and women differ in their attitudes and justifications for engaging in an extradyadic relationship (Hansen, 1987; Medora & Burton, 1981; Roscoe et al., 1988). Overall, men tend to be more accepting of extradyadic relations and more likely to engage in extradyadic relations than women. In addition, men's involvement tends to be associated with individual characteristics such as their attitudes, beliefs, and values (Glass & Wright, 1985), yet women's involvement in extradyadic relationships is typically associated more with relationship satisfaction (Roscoe et al., 1988). Glass and Wright (1985) concluded that these sex difference findings suggest that men and women follow different paths in the development of extramarital relationships and that these paths reflect the traditional sex roles in our culture. Therefore, these findings suggest that gender as a marker for sex roles can clarify our understanding of extradyadic relationships as well.

Purpose of the Study

Past research indicates that men and women typically differ in their attitudes toward extradyadic relations, in the types of extradyadic relations that they are involved in, and in their reasons or justifications for having an extradyadic relationship. The present study is designed to investigate selected factors associated with men and women engaging in extradyadic relationships. The factors related to a person engaging in an extradyadic relationship may be both conscious and unconscious. The reasons or justifications that a

person gives for having an extradyadic relationship may account for only a small part of the factors that are related to a person having an extradyadic relationship. These are the conscious explanations for one's behaviors. However, there are some factors that may unconsciously influence a person to engage in an extradyadic relationship such as being a risk taker, being sexually permissive, or feeling uncomfortable with commitment.

This study has two purposes. First, this study will try to examine several of the factors that have been found to be salient in the literature on extramarital and extradyadic relationships. Many of these variables have been looked at separately but a few variables (e.g., risk taking) have not been directly linked to extradyadic relationships. This research will bring these salient variables together in one study and try to demonstrate a link between extradyadic relationships and extramarital relationships. Secondly, this study is interested in looking at the gender differences in the pathways that lead to a particular type of extradyadic relationship. There are three types of extradyadic relationships including sexual relationships, emotional relationships and combination (sexual and emotional) relationships. Most studies on extradyadic relationships have only addressed sexual extradyadic relationships. Therefore, this study is both explanatory and exploratory.

Conceptual Framework

One theory that has been widely used in the research on intimate relationships is the social exchange theory. The social exchange theory provides a useful framework for analyzing a variety of interpersonal processes and interactions. The social exchange theory is concerned with the factors that influence a relationship to remain stable or to dissolve. The basic premise of this theory suggests that humans are rational beings who

make decisions based on their experiences and expectations in order to receive the most rewards and the least costs. In other words, a person will choose the relationship that provides the greatest rewards; if there is no such relationship, then the person will choose the relationship that provides the least costs. Another assumption of the social exchange theory is that people constantly compare their current relationship to their expectations of the relationship and to alternative relationships. The person then chooses between alternative relationships and behaviors, by ranking the actual or expected experiences associated with each relationship or behavior and selecting the best alternative (Sabatelli & Shehan, 1993).

There are several concepts that are central to the social exchange theory including rewards, costs, comparison level, comparison level for alternatives, and norm of fairness or equity. Thibaut and Kelly (1959) defined rewards as pleasures, satisfactions, and gratifications that a person enjoys. For example, personal attraction, social acceptance, respect, power and compliance may be some rewards (D. Cox, & C. Herder, personal communication, December 1995). Emerson (1976) defined costs as either aversive stimuli (e.g., painful or boring work performed) or as rewards forgone (e.g., time and effort that could have been put to better use somewhere else). However, in terms of intimate relationships, costs can be defined as any status, relationship, interaction, or feeling disliked by an individual (Nye, 1979). The social exchange theory suggests that people monitor their rewards and costs in relation to their comparison levels and then select the best alternative.

Thibaut and Kelly (1959) defined the concepts of the comparison level of

exchange (CL), which is the expected reward from the social exchange, and the comparison level for the alternatives (CL alt), which is the perception of the level of outcomes from alternatives (Floyd & Wasner, 1994). The comparison level of exchange is influenced by cultural norms and the person's previous relationship experiences. Society has norms for relationships which dictate the expectations and commitments of the relationship. For example, in America, marriage is traditionally considered a life-long monogamous relationship. The expectations for marriage in America are that the marriage will last until one of the spouses dies and the partners will remain faithful to each other throughout their marriage. Next, a person brings into the relationship his or her own beliefs, values, and experiences about relationships. These two factors influence the expectations of rewards and costs that a person will have for a given relationship (McDonald, 1981).

Next, the comparison level of alternatives depends on the perception of the quality of the alternatives and the availability of the alternatives. The perception of the alternatives focuses on the likelihood of the alternative relationships being satisfying and having more rewards than the current relationship. In addition, the perception of the alternatives looks at how accessible the alternative relationships would be. For example, a person needs to think about how confident he or she is that he or she will find an equally desirable alternative relationship and how much time it would take him or her to find this alternative relationship (Floyd & Wasner, 1994).

Finally, norms of fairness or equity are determined by evaluating the ratio of rewards to costs and comparing it to the person's expectations of what will be the rewards

and costs in a given relationship. The equity theory is an expansion of the social exchange theory. The equity theory suggests that people not only evaluate their own costs and rewards in a relationship, but they also compare their benefits in the relationship to their partner's benefits in the relationship. Individuals feel overbenefitted when they perceive that the proportion of rewards to costs are greater for themselves than their partner. On the other hand, individuals will feel underbenefitted when they perceive that their rewards compared to the costs is less than their partner's rewards. Inequity occurs when a person feels overbenefitted or underbenefitted in the relationship (Floyd & Wasner, 1994). When inequity occurs within a relationship, then the person who is overbenefitted or underbenefitted will feel distressed. This is the second proposition of the equity theory (Floyd & Wasner, 1994; Hatfield, Traupmann, Sprecher, Utne, & Hay, 1985). Inequity is a central variable within intimate relationships because inequity influences the relationship satisfaction, the commitment and stability of the relationship, and possible extradyadic relationships (Cate, Lloyd, Henton, & Larson, 1982; Floyd & Wasner, 1994).

According to the social exchange theory, a person compares the rewards and costs in his or her relationship to his or her expectations and his or her alternatives. When a person decides that the alternative is better than the current relationship, then the person will pursue the alternative, which in this study is engaging in an extradyadic relationship. There are several factors that might be related to a person choosing an alternative relationship over the current relationship including relationship satisfaction, commitment, risk taking, and permissive sexual attitudes and behaviors. Relationship satisfaction and commitment are two variables related to intimate relationships that have been thoroughly

addressed by the Social Exchange Theory.

The first factor is relationship satisfaction. Using the social exchange theory, Belk and Coon (1993) have defined relationship satisfaction by the following equations:

$$\text{Outcomes} = \text{Rewards} - \text{Costs}$$

$$\text{Satisfaction} = \text{Outcomes} - \text{Comparison Level of Exchange}$$

In other words, a person will monitor the outcomes of his or her relationship and if the outcomes fall above his or her expectations or fall within his or her expectations, then the person will feel satisfied within the relationship. On the other hand, if the outcomes of his or her relationship fall consistently below the person's expectations for the relationship, then the person will tend to feel dissatisfied with the relationship and seek alternatives.

In addition, inequity within a relationship can affect a person's relationship satisfaction. According to the equity theory, when a person feels overbenefitted or underbenefitted in a relationship, then the person will feel distressed. The more inequitable the relationship is the more distressed and unhappy the person will feel and thus, the person will seek an alternative relationship or behavior that will relieve the person's distress or unhappiness.

Next, commitment has been found to be a central variable in distinguishing between social and economic exchange. Commitment has been found to be a stabilizing mechanism that helps maintain a relationship (McDonald, 1981). Commitment can be seen as either an outcome variable or a mediating variable. Belk and Coon (1993) describe commitment as an outcome by stating that a person's level of commitment is influenced by his or her relationship satisfaction and equity within a relationship. For

example, if a person feels inequity within his or her relationship, then the person will experience some dissatisfaction and distress within the relationship. In order to reduce his or her distress, the person will reduce his or her commitment to the relationship and maybe even end the relationship. Belk and Coon (1993) define commitment by the following equation:

$$\text{Commitment} = \text{Satisfaction} - \text{Alternatives} + \text{Investment}$$

According to this definition, a person will be committed to the relationship as long as the person is satisfied in the relationship, is invested in the relationship, and has poor available romantic alternatives (Rusbult, 1983).

On the other hand, commitment can also be seen as a mediating variable for relationship satisfaction and available alternatives. First, the research on intimate relationships has found that commitment and relationship satisfaction are positively correlated (Sprecher, Metts, Burleson, Hatfield, & Thompson, 1995). This finding suggests that as a person's level of relationship satisfaction increases, so will the person's level of commitment. Secondly, a person's level of commitment and relationship satisfaction may be related to how the person perceives his or her alternatives. For example, if a person has a high level of commitment and relationship satisfaction, then the person will perceive his or her alternatives as less desirable. In addition, if a person has a high level of commitment to his or her relationship, then the person will be less likely to dwell on the uncertainty in the relationship. This is important to the stability or instability of the relationship, because when a person feels uncertain about his or her relationship, then the person is more likely to monitor and evaluate the rewards and costs in the

relationship and to compare the relationship to alternative relationships. Therefore, if a person is committed to the relationship, then he or she is less likely to assess alternative relationships or less likely to find alternative relationships desirable.

The variables of risk taking and permissive sexual attitudes and behaviors have not been directly addressed by the social exchange theory, but they have been found to be salient variables in the research on extradyadic and extramarital relationships (Lowenstein, 1994; Seal et al., 1994). The social exchange theory can apply to risk takers in the sense that a risk taker likes variety and becomes easily bored. The first assumption will be that risk takers are more likely to have had a variety of experiences in the past and a person's experiences affect the person's comparison level of exchange and the person's expectations for the relationship. Therefore, if the rewards within the relationship fall below the person's expectations or experiences, then the person will be more likely to find alternative relationships as more desirable. Another assumption is that a risk taker is more likely to become easily bored in the current relationship and thus he or she will seek alternatives to relieve his or her boredom and find excitement. However, risk takers may seek not only alternative relationships but also alternative behaviors. A third assumption is that risk takers often like to participate in risky activities for the thrill and excitement. Therefore, a risk taker in a monogamous relationship may decide to engage in extradyadic behavior because this type of behavior can be risky. The person may feel a sense of excitement because he or she is participating in a behavior that goes against the norms of society for a committed dating relationship and there is a sense of excitement in trying not to get caught by one's partner. Hence, in these three situations the risk taker will compare the rewards

of the current relationship to the comparison level of alternatives and most likely decide that the alternatives offer the greater rewards.

Next, Belk and Coon (1993) described how sexual behaviors apply to the social exchange theory. Sexual acts have different meanings depending on the type of model used and the level of commitment and love in the relationship. First, according to the economic exchange model, sex between dating partners is considered a commodity, especially for women who offer sex in exchange for material gifts (e.g., going out to a nice restaurant, receiving an expensive gift). In the social exchange model, sex is considered a way to show commitment and bonding within the relationship. Finally, in the romantic love model, sex is a way to express feelings to your partner or celebrate a sense of oneness. These findings relate to permissive sexual attitudes in that the meaning that sexual behaviors have for the person with liberal attitudes may be different from the meaning that sex has for someone with conservative attitudes. A person with permissive sexual attitudes is more likely to engage in uncommitted sexual relations (Hansen, 1987; Seal et al., 1994). Therefore, the assumption would be that a person with permissive sexual attitudes would more likely view sex as a commodity and view sex without love as okay. Also, with more permissive attitudes the person is more likely to engage in an alternative relationship such as an extradyadic relationship (Seal et al., 1994) because there is nothing to discourage the person from engaging in these behaviors. These assumptions are based on the finding that permissive sexual attitudes and permissive sexual behaviors are related. However, it is important to note that the research in this area has not clearly shown that permissive sexual attitudes predict permissive sexual behaviors (Maykovich, 1976).

Additionally, a person with permissive sexual behaviors and attitudes may have different experiences and expectations than someone with less sexual experience or more conservative sexual attitudes. Therefore, the person's previous sexual experiences will influence the person's comparison level of exchange. If the person has permissive sexual attitudes, then the person may not follow the norms of society or share the same values and beliefs which also influences the comparison level of exchange. If the experiences and rewards in the current relationship fall short of the person's expectations or previous experiences, then the person may find an alternative relationship as more desirable.

The previous sections have explained the social exchange theory and discussed how the theory can be applied to the variables that are related to a person engaging in an extradyadic relationship. This section will discuss how the theory applies to extradyadic relationships in general, which is best explained by the following analogy:

Lovers, of course, often devote much time and energy to pleasing their beloved. But the owner of a new Cadillac or a fancy sports car devotes endless hours to polishing it or spends considerable money keeping it in working condition. He does these things not out of any devotion to the car but only because the thrill and ego-fulfillment of driving such a beautiful car requires that he do such things for it. And when the car begins to require sacrifices that outweigh the benefits it gives, he trades it in. He had "given" but only in order to "get" (Belk & Coon, 1993, p. 396).

This analogy of the car applies to lovers as well. If the person feels that he or she is not receiving what he or she had expected, or what he or she thinks he or she deserves, or if the person feels underbenefitted in the relationship, then the person will "trade the once-beloved in on a new model" (Belk & Coon, 1993, p. 396). In other words, a person who is considering an extradyadic relationship will more likely engage in the relationship if the person decides that the rewards in the current relationship do not meet the person's expectations or if the person feels inequity within the relationship. From the social exchange perspective, individuals in dating relationships often monitor their relationship by comparing it to past dating relationships or by comparing their relationship to their friends' dating relationships (McDonald, 1981). In addition, a person in a dating relationship will examine his or her inputs into the relationship, such as gifts given to his or her dating partner, the amount of time he or she spends with his or her dating partner, and things that he or she does for his or her dating partner (e.g., typing his or her paper, running errands). Then the person will compare his or her inputs to the inputs and outcomes that he or she receives from his or her dating partner. If the person feels that he or she is putting more into the relationship than his or her dating partner, then the person will feel underbenefitted, which leads to the person feeling dissatisfied in the relationship.

Consequently, when a person feels dissatisfied with the relationship or feels the relationship is inequitable, then the person will more likely compare the present relationship to alternative relationships. If an alternative (extradyadic) relationship is perceived as having more rewards, then the person will seek the alternative relationship. In addition, an extradyadic relationship can be a way to regain equity in the dating

relationship. For example, one person in an inequitable relationship usually feels underbenefitted. Therefore, the person can gain a sense of balance in the relationship by turning to another relationship to receive some of the benefits that he or she is missing in his or her dating relationship. Another way to look at how an extradyadic relationship can help restore equity in the dating relationship is by examining the impact that it has on the current dating relationship. For instance, a person in an inequitable relationship who feels underbenefitted and engages in an extradyadic relationship will be putting less into the dating relationship than before. Thus, his or her inputs should be similar to his or her dating partner's, which will balance the relationship. Therefore, according to the social exchange theory, a person will engage in an extradyadic relationship if rewards can be maximized and costs can be minimized. The rewards can be either the benefits and outcomes that the person receives from the extradyadic relationship itself, or the reward may be the equity balance that has occurred in the dating relationship as a result of the extradyadic relationship. However, the person must weigh the rewards of having an extradyadic relationship against the potential costs. One potential cost of having an extradyadic relationship is that dating relationship may end when his or her partner finds out about the extradyadic relationship.

In conclusion, the social exchange theory has been found to be a valid theory in explaining how different factors influence the dissolution or instability of a relationship. This theory will be useful in analyzing how the factors described in this section, including relationship satisfaction, level of commitment to the relationship, or individual characteristics such as permissive sexual attitudes, permissive sexual behaviors, and level

of risk taking, may relate to a person engaging in an extradyadic or alternative relationship.

Hypotheses

1. Males are more likely to have a sexual extradyadic relationship than females, who are more likely to have an emotional or a combination (emotional and sexual) extradyadic relationship.

2. Men and women differ in their reasons for engaging in an extradyadic relationship.

3. Women who are less satisfied in their current relationship are more likely to have an extradyadic relationship than women who are satisfied in their current relationship.

4. Men who are less satisfied in their current relationship are more likely to have an extradyadic relationship than men who are satisfied in their current relationship

5. Women who are less satisfied in their current relationship are more likely to report having higher sexual involvement within the extradyadic relationship than men who are less satisfied in their current relationship.

6. Women who are less satisfied in their current relationship are more likely to report having higher emotional involvement within the extradyadic relationship than men who are less satisfied in their current relationship

7. Individuals who are in an inequitable relationship are more likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship than individuals in an equitable relationship.

8. Men who are high risk takers are more likely than men who are low risk takers to engage in an extradyadic relationship.

9. Women who are high risk takers are more likely than women who are low risk takers to engage in an extradyadic relationship.

10. Individuals who have low commitment and trust in a relationship are more likely than individuals who have high levels of commitment and trust to engage in an extradyadic relationship.

11. Individuals who have permissive sexual behaviors are more likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship than individuals who have conservative sexual behaviors.

12. Individuals who have permissive sexual attitudes are more likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship than individuals who have conservative sexual attitudes.

13. The following variables will be related to the type of extradyadic relationship that the person engages in as a function of gender: relationship satisfaction, equity, commitment, risk taking, permissive sexual attitudes, and behaviors.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will review the current literature concerning extramarital relationships and extradyadic relationships. There has been very little research done on extradyadic relationships in premarital couples. However, the current research in this area suggests that there is a parallel between extradyadic relationships and extramarital relationships. Therefore, this review will focus on extradyadic relationships by drawing on the extramarital literature. In addition, this review will address the factors that are related to a person having an "affair." The goal of this review is to bring together the variety of literature on the variables influencing affairs. The findings of this research are summarized in these four categories: permissive sexual attitudes and behaviors, relationship satisfaction, individual characteristics, and gender differences. These categories are the salient variables that are found to be related to both extradyadic and extramarital involvement. This review is organized into three main sections. The first section will discuss the current literature on extramarital affairs; the second section will discuss the current literature on extradyadic relations; and the third section will discuss how extramarital affairs and extradyadic relations parallel one another.

Extramarital Relationships

The organization of this section is as follows: the first subsection discusses definitional issues; the second subsection focuses on permissive sexual attitudes as a factor that is related to affairs; the third subsection discusses how different areas of marital

dissatisfaction, such as unmet needs, inequity, and distance regulation, may be related to a person having an affair; the fourth subsection discusses individual characteristics including level of commitment and trust, unresolved issues, personality types, and biological factors; and the fifth subsection will focus on gender differences in extramarital involvement.

Definitional Issues

The first area that needs to be discussed is definitional issues. Extramarital relationship and extramarital involvement are terms that refer to a wide range of behaviors outside the traditional marriage bond. Extramarital involvement can refer to behaviors ranging from flirtation to sex (Thompson, 1983). There is an array of terminology in the field of extramarital relations including the terms: extramarital sex (EMS), adultery, infidelity, and affair. Extramarital sex focuses on sexual contact outside of the married dyad (Maykovich, 1976, Thompson, 1983); the term adultery arises from legal usage defining and describing sexual relations with anyone other than one's spouse (Thompson, 1983). Infidelity is considered to be a moral issue dealing with a breach of trust, a betrayal of a relationship, and a breaking of an agreement. The literature delineates many types of infidelity including accidental infidelity, philandering, and romantic affairs (Pittman, 1989). The difference between these types of infidelities is in the motives for engaging in the infidelity. For instance, some affairs "just happen by accident" without any forethought; some affairs occur because the people have fallen in love; and some affairs occur because the spouse is sexually permissive. Lastly, an affair is defined by Webster's Dictionary as an amorous relationship between two people not married to each other. The literature describes three types of affairs: sexual but not emotional, sexual and

emotional, emotional but not sexual (Glass & Wright 1985, 1992; Hurlbert, 1992). Most articles in this research area do not clarify the terms that they use and most of the articles use the terms listed above interchangeably. These definitional problems reveal that there is a need for increased rigor in specifying what type of an affair--sexual, emotional, or a combination; the sexual behavior under consideration; who is involved in the affair; and the nature of the affair. In addition to the lack of clarity in defining the terminology in this area of research, the meaning of each behavior or term discussed above can be different for different individuals. Therefore, this lack of specificity leaves the results as inconclusive to interpretation.

Permissive Sexual Attitudes and Behaviors

Singh, Walton, and Williams' (1976) study on extramarital sexual permissiveness suggests that the more liberal (i.e., tolerance of atheists, socialists, and communists) a person is the greater the chances of his or her approval of premarital sexual permissiveness and thus the greater the approval of extramarital sexual permissiveness. However, the literature on permissive sexual attitudes has conflicting findings. The current statistics of sexual attitudes show that the approval of premarital intercourse has increased but the approval of extramarital relations has decreased (Rubinson & De Rubertis, 1991; Smith, 1990). Rubinson and De Rubertis (1991) found that in a survey of 188 college students, 91% of males approve of premarital intercourse and 84% of females approve of premarital intercourse. In addition, the actual percentage of men having premarital sex has increased by approximately 12% between 1965 and 1980, whereas the increase for females is approximately 35% for this time period (Rubinson & De Rubertis, 1991). These statistics

show that permissive attitudes and behavior of premarital sex have increased but the statistics are the opposite for extramarital intercourse.

Acceptance of extramarital sex has decreased significantly from 12% accepting in 1972 to 3% in 1987 (Robinson & De Rubertis, 1991). The research shows that people have a high disapproval of extramarital sex (Sheppard, Nelson, & Andreoli-Mathie, 1995; Thompson, 1983); however, the statistics on extramarital behavior suggest that it is still a prevalent activity in our society. Hite (1981, 1987) found in her studies on monogamy in marriages that 72% of men (married two years or more) had engaged in an extramarital affair and 70% of women (married for five years or more) had engaged in extramarital affairs. In addition, Kell (1992) cited that Lawson (1990) found 60-70% of married men and 50-60% of married women have an affair at some time during their marriage.

However, these numbers contrast sharply with the Kinsey Institute Report (Reinisch & Beasley, 1990), Laumann et al. (1994), and Weideman (1997) studies. The Kinsey Institute did an analysis of six studies and found that 37% of married men and 29% of married women have had a sexual affair (Reinisch & Beasley, 1990). Laumann et al. (1994) estimated that the percentage of people engaging in extramarital affairs is between 15-25%. In addition, Weideman (1997) estimates that out of a sample of 884 men, 22.7% have engaged in an extramarital affair and 11.6% of 1288 women have had an affair. These statistics show a significant decrease in the prevalence of extramarital affairs over the other studies (e.g., Hite, 1981, 1987, Lawson, 1990). However, their method of collecting data might account for the low figures. These three studies were conducted by face to face interviews, which may inhibit a person from reporting, especially if there are

other people in the room. For example, 21% of the respondents in the Laumann et al. (1994) study were interviewed with a child, spouse, or other person in the room. Also, in the Kinsey Institute study they interviewed both husbands and wives, interviewing the husband one day and the wife the next day (Reinisch & Beasley, 1990). This interview time frame may have inhibited reporting and, thus, may account for their low figures. A second problem with these studies is that they were investigating sexual affairs only. The incident rate of extramarital affairs would probably increase if emotional affairs were included in the definition. These findings suggest that there needs to be more rigor in the methodology used in the research of extramarital affairs.

Despite the discrepancy in the prevalence statistics, these findings show that the percentage of people engaging in an extramarital affair is higher than the percentage of people that find extramarital affairs acceptable. These findings seem to raise many questions such as: if so many people are against extramarital affairs, then why are so many having extramarital affairs? One explanation may be that permissive attitudes are not necessarily the cause of permissive behavior. In other words, what people do might be quite different from how they feel about what they are doing (Maykovich, 1976; Sheppard et al., 1995).

Another possible explanation may be that the link between premarital sex and extramarital sex is not in the attitudes toward these permissive behaviors, but in the actual engaging in these permissive behaviors. Those that engage in premarital sex may more likely engage in extramarital sex (Atwater, 1979; Thompson, 1983). Recent studies have found that married individuals who reported extramarital involvement remember having

had considerable premarital sexual experience (Atwater, 1979; Bukstel, Roeder, Kilmann, Laughlin, & Sotile, 1978). In addition, those who have had a variety of premarital sexual partners are more likely to have a variety of sexual partners after getting married (Bukstel et al., 1978). Atwater (1979) found in his study on forty women who had engaged in extramarital affairs that 80% of the women had premarital sex with their husbands and half of these women had engaged in premarital sex with other men besides their husbands. These findings suggest that perhaps the link between extramarital sex and premarital sex is in the actual engaging in these sexual behaviors. In conclusion, the research in this area has conflicting findings but the overall consensus seems to be that permissive sexual attitudes may not influence a person to have an affair as much as a history of permissive sexual behaviors.

Marital Satisfaction

Research shows that marital satisfaction has been a prime predictor of extramarital affairs. Marriage satisfaction is related to reasons for engaging in extramarital affairs for both men and women (Glass & Wright, 1977) but has been found to be a more prevalent reason for women (Moulton, 1977). In addition, the research shows that marital satisfaction is related to the type of extramarital affair. For example, Glass and Wright (1985) suggest that those who have a high marital satisfaction would engage in a sexual affair while those with a low marital satisfaction will more often engage in an emotional affair. A person's level of marital satisfaction can be influenced by several factors. These factors include the person feeling dissatisfied with his or her sex roles, the person feeling there is inequity in the marriage, the person feeling that his or her needs are not being

fulfilled in the marriage, or the person feeling smothered in the marriage.

The data seem to indicate that dissatisfaction with sex roles and the responsibilities in the marriage are more salient predictors of affairs for women than men. Women are traditionally the ones that are responsible for the house cleaning and child care. Thus, it is understandable that many women feel overburdened with responsibility and undercompensated for the things they accomplish. A woman may feel that her sense of self is being smothered by her role as a wife and mother. Therefore, a housewife may have an affair in order to regain her sense of autonomy outside the role of mother and wife. She may have an affair in order to raise her self esteem and make herself feel that she is still attractive and she can still be adventurous. On the other hand, the husband may have an affair for a number of reasons. First, he may engage in an affair because he feels that his wife is boring and he wants some excitement in his life. Secondly, he may turn to a lover for attention because his wife spends too much of her time with the children. Finally, he may engage in an affair as a way to escape the pressures and responsibilities of having a family (Pittman, 1989). Therefore, role expectations may support affairs taking place because when two people become cluttered by roles and responsibilities within a marriage, they may look outside the marriage for something loving, playful, affectionate, and fun (Kell, 1992).

Another reason that a person may feel dissatisfied in the relationship is because of inequity within the marriage. Prins, Buunk, and Van Yperen (1993) found that women tend to feel underbenefitted in the marriage and men feel overbenefitted in a marriage. This leads to men having a higher degree of relationship satisfaction than women.

Therefore, this study found that inequity is related more to women having affairs than it is to men having affairs because women tend to feel underbenefitted and, thus, dissatisfied with their relationship. If women have an attitude of approval toward extramarital sex and they are dissatisfied in the marriage, then they are likely to engage in extramarital sex. However, the study by Prins et al. (1993) found that inequity is not a prime influence on men having extramarital affairs; they stated that men who have affairs can feel underbenefitted or overbenefitted in their marriage. Thus whether or not men engage in extramarital affairs seem to be more or less independent of the way they feel about their marriage or their level of relationship satisfaction. However, this finding tends to be misleading because Floyd and Wasner (1994) found in their research that a person tends to become dissatisfied when he or she is either overbenefitted or underbenefitted in the relationship, suggesting that equity does play a part in influencing both men and women to engage in an extramarital relationship.

Another influence of marital dissatisfaction is whether a person's needs are unmet within the relationship. An affair can sometimes be seen as a way to fulfill one's unmet needs. For example, Kell (1992) states that marital therapists take the view that an affair plays an important role within a couple's interactions, in that the third party may be pulled into the couple's interactions to balance the system. A couple may unconsciously use the third party for their own purposes. This is why an extramarital affair is sometimes referred to as the eternal triangle. The triangle consists of the unfaithful spouse, the lover, and the betrayed spouse. First, the unfaithful spouse may be discontent in the marriage but still wants to have the marriage; so in order to find his or her sense of contentment, he or she

has an affair. Thus, he or she is having his or her needs met by a third person, so that he or she can remain in his or her marriage. The unmet needs may include providing nurturance and emotional support, raising self esteem, and promoting self-actualization (Pam & Pearson, 1994). Often, when these needs are not met within the marriage relationship, the dissatisfied person will turn to someone else for fulfillment. Secondly, the affair provides the couple with a way to break the impasse in the marriage. The affair may either reduce the tension between the couple because the unfaithful spouse has found a way to find contentment, or raise the level of tension between the couple to a point in which the couple is forced to examine the problems in their marriage (Napier & Whitaker, 1988). As Napier and Whitaker (1988) state, "the affair demands that the couple communicate on a more profound level than they have in the past." Thus, the affair may also be a way of meeting the needs of the couple by bringing new life into the marriage.

Another reason for marital dissatisfaction is that one spouse may feel smothered or controlled in the marriage relationship. The smothered person may have an affair to escape the suffocation he or she is feeling in the marriage. "An affair may be thought of as an emotional distance regulator. The very existence of a third person in the marital system indicates that the couple is having trouble handling problems of separateness and closeness" (Scarf, 1987, p. 131). An affair may be an attempt to get distance from the spouse or an attempt to seek closeness with a lover. For example, when the less content partner cannot get his or her needs of intimacy fulfilled in the marriage then the person will turn to a third party (the lover) to fulfill the needs of intimacy. Another way that an affair functions as a distance regulator is by relieving the pressure of confronting the difficulties

in the marriage. This enables the couple to keep together a badly flawed marriage that they want to retain but not repair (Kaslow, 1993). For example, Napier and Whitaker (1988) have found that most couples are afraid of the deadness in marriage. Thus, one partner may turn to another person and have an affair in order to avoid the deadness; at the same time the affair will bring energy back into the marriage.

Another aspect that influences a person's marital satisfaction is the outside world and the media. Kell (1992) states that one factor in society that strongly supports affairs taking place is the "maintaining of myths about marriage through books, magazines and ideals, with most people pretending that their marriages are better than they are, all of which lead to a great disappointment with the real thing" (p. 159). The media glamorizes marriage and portrays it as though marriage should always be candle light dinners, roses, and breakfast in bed. However, this is not what marriage is like for the average couple; thus, some couples get caught up in this glamorization and become dissatisfied because their marriage is not like the marriages in the soap operas. This finding leads one to believe that a person who is highly influenced by the media may develop unrealistic expectations of marriage and his or her spouse. When the reality turns out to be less than his or her expectations, the person becomes dissatisfied with his or her relationship.

Another influence on one's expectations of marriage is the behaviors modeled by one's parents. According to the social learning theory, an individual's parents' marriage influences the individual's expectations of marriage (Crosbie-Burnett & Lewis, 1993). Consequently, an individual's expectations of marriage will then influence his or her level of marital satisfaction. For example, if a person grew up in a family where his or her

parents were very affectionate with each other, then the person would expect his or her spouse to show affection. If the person is married to someone who does not show affection or does not like to be affectionate, then the person will become disappointed and dissatisfied in the marriage. Another behavior that may be modeled by one's parents is being unfaithful and having extramarital affairs. Atwater (1979) found that one variable that may contribute to a person engaging in an extramarital affair is if the person knew someone who had an affair, such as the person's parents. He found in his study of forty women that about half of these women had known someone who had an affair. Most of these people were peers but some of them were parents and other relatives. Therefore, the behaviors that parents model for their children will influence their children's expectations of marriage.

In conclusion, the research shows that the area of marital dissatisfaction is complex with many factors influencing a person's relationship dissatisfaction. A person having an affair may be influenced by dissatisfied sex roles, inequity, unmet needs, a need for distance, the myths about marriage through the media, or his or her parents' marriage. The degree to which these areas affect each gender or an individual person is still unclear. A person may be influenced by one variable or a combination of variables that constitute a dissatisfied marriage.

Individual Characteristics

Another set of variables for extramarital affairs represents individual characteristics. This includes unresolved issues that a person may have; personality characteristics which include the person's ability to develop commitment and trust in a

relationship and the person's level of risk taking; and biological characteristics. Jagers (1989) stated that an affair is a manifestation of individual problems that have developed out of the particular chemistry of the couple. In other words, an affair is an indicator that one of the partner's needs are not being met within the relationship or the relationship is not allowing that partner the opportunity to grow and mature. Therefore, Jagers (1989) suggests that an affair can be a signal that it is time to look closely at each person's areas of needed personal growth. Some of the key personal issues that relate to a person engaging in an affair are self esteem, power, security, dependency, reality orientation, moral development, locus of control, and connectedness (Jagers, 1989). An affair is the symptom of unmet needs or unresolved issues in an individual. Therefore, if the affair is recognized as the symptom and not the problem, then the person will be able to explore the issues that have led him or her to have an extramarital affair and, thus, use the affair as an opportunity for psychological growth.

Schuham and Bird (1990) describe the personality of the prominent man that has an affair as a person who grew up in a loveless, task oriented family that prizes power; therefore, the person has not learned how to interact with others in an intimate and loving way. He feels uncomfortable with the level of openness, trust, and vulnerability in marriage, so he turns to someone else (Jagers, 1989). Also, the man may feel uncomfortable with commitment. For example, "the emotional demands and expectations of a limitless commitment to one woman sometimes produces anxious withdrawal in a man laboring under guilt toward women" (Kell, 1992, p. 163). Kell (1992) explains that the man feels trapped, feeling that he has failed to give his spouse all she needs and he has

failed to give her all he believes he should give her. These feelings lead the man to feel anxious, which leads the man to an affair. The affair is a way that the man can get relief from his anxiousness, inner pain, and unmet nurturing needs. The man substitutes sex for the unmet needs of love and nurturing (Schuham & Bird, 1990).

However, an affair also may provide the man with the opportunity for psychological growth. An affair may be seen as the only pathway to assertion of selfhood for the person. The person is able to feel a sense of autonomy and get fulfillment of his or her ego satisfying needs like the desire for novelty, adventure, pseudo intimacy, and sexual experimentation. The affair can also be a time of sexual reawakening (Kaslow, 1993; Kell, 1992). Kaslow (1993) cited Napier (1991) as saying that women often venture into an extramarital affair as a way to escape from a culturally imposed prison that denies them their sexual voice, and these women stated that the affair reawakened their sexuality. In addition, Kell (1992) found that men often experience renewed feelings of desire and warmth when they are with a new lover. Both the men and women in these studies stated that they felt a sense of joy in rediscovering the missing parts of him or herself (i.e., their sexuality). Therefore, these studies show that the affair was an opportunity for psychological growth.

Next, research has found that there are particular personality types that are more at risk for having an affair. Lowenstein (1994) has identified the big 'T' and the little 't' personality types. A person with a little 't' personality practices low risk taking and is more likely to seek a balanced, stable, and quiet life. On the other hand, people with the big 'T' personality are risk takers, thrill seekers, and stimulation seekers. They enjoy

uncertainty, unpredictability, novelty, and variety as well as complexity. The big 'T' individuals are easily bored, impulsive, and like variety, especially variety in sex. Consequently, the big 'T' individuals are the people that are more prone to have extramarital affairs. Infidelity could be a serious problem with big 'T' couples and big 'T' / little 't' couples.

The biggest problem tends to be with big 'T' and little 't' couples. Big 'T' individuals tend to like a great deal more sex and variety of sexual activities than little 't' individuals and hence big 'T' individuals may well seek sex outside of marriage. Also, big 'T' individuals have premarital sex at a younger age, have more sex partners, and usually know the person for a shorter time before having sex with the person. These characteristics put this type of person at a greater risk to get involved in an extramarital affair (Lowenstein, 1994)

The next area of research has found some indication of a biological factor that influences individuals to have affairs. The study by Booth and Dabbs (1993) has found that the level of testosterone and the level of marital happiness have a negative relationship. Thus, men with high levels of testosterone tend to have a more unhappy marriage. This may be because men with high levels of testosterone are sensation seekers and, therefore, tend to become bored with marriage more quickly and seek out other partners. Booth and Dabbs (1993) found that men with high testosterone levels are 38% more likely to have an extramarital affair than men with lower levels of testosterone. This finding raises some important considerations when exploring the gender influences on affairs. It raises questions such as: are women with higher levels of testosterone more at

risk to have an extramarital affair or is this biological link only true for men? Nevertheless, these findings need to be reviewed cautiously because the testosterone coefficients were modest and the results are based on a single serum assay. This is an area that needs future research because a biological link to extramarital affairs will dramatically influence the way that practitioners help couples who have the presenting problem of extramarital affairs.

In conclusion, the research in the area of individual characteristics has an array of variables. The research indicates that there may be certain personality types that are more at risk to have an affair. The research also indicates that there may be a biological factor as well, which could change society's view of extramarital involvement. However, the degree that biology and personality relate to affairs versus situational factors in influencing a person to have an affair is still unclear. A person's decision to have an extramarital affair may be influenced by a combination of the person's individual characteristics (e.g., uncomfortable with intimacy and feelings, prefers adventure) and the person's situation (e.g., unhappy marriage). This issue of biology versus the situation has been a long-standing debate in research and it seems to be an area that needs further investigation in the research on extramarital affairs.

Gender Differences

The sex difference findings in Glass and Wright's (1985) study suggest that sex roles can clarify our understanding of the association between marital dissatisfaction and extramarital relationships. The findings on sex roles suggest that it is important to study both emotional and sexual involvement in affairs, because men and women tend to differ in the type of extramarital involvement in ways that reflect traditional sex roles. For

example, men are more likely to have a sexual affair and women are more likely to have an emotional affair. The only time that this may not hold true is when relationship satisfaction is a mediating variable (Glass & Wright, 1985). Glass and Wright (1985) found that in this situation women tend to engage in combination (both sexual and emotional) affairs.

Despite these findings on the different types of extramarital affairs, the literature on extramarital affairs generally reflects the male bias for defining extramarital behavior as extramarital sexual intercourse. Research has found that men are more likely than women to engage in extramarital sex (Glass & Wright, 1985; Sheppard et al., 1995), engage in extramarital sex more frequently, experience extramarital sex earlier in their marriage, and have more extramarital partners (Glass & Wright, 1977, 1985, 1992). In addition, men are more likely to engage in extramarital sex without any thoughts of love or emotion while women are more likely to say that a person needs to be in love (Glass & Wright, 1985, 1992).

Glass and Wright (1985) confirmed the findings of a previous study by Thompson (1984) that men tend to get involved in more sexual affairs while women get involved in more emotional affairs without sexual intercourse. Glass and Wright (1985) examined 148 males and 153 females and found that 63% of men and 47% of women had engaged in an emotional and/or sexual extramarital affair. They found that of those who had an extramarital affair, 44% of the men stated that their affair involved sexual intercourse with no emotional involvement while only 11% of the women reported having a sexual affair without emotional involvement. This finding coincides with the fact that women tend to

be more emotionally involved in their extramarital relationships (Glass & Wright, 1985; Spanier & Margolis, 1983) and their extramarital affairs tend to last longer than men's affairs (Glass & Wright, 1977). Glass and Wright (1977) cited Gurgal, Bowers, and Furstenburg (1969) as reporting that female affairs last longer. In addition, Hite (1987) reported that 23% of women have affairs that last 3-5 years. Unfortunately, the length of men's affairs was not reported and the methodology used in these two studies cannot be critiqued because the Gurgal et al. (1969) study is an unpublished manuscript and the Hite (1987) study did not describe the methodology used in establishing these figures.

Nevertheless, these findings raise an interesting question about the methodology used in investigating the gender differences in the length of affairs. For instance, if women are involved in an extramarital affair with a man, then it seems logical to assume that men would have the same length of affairs as women. Therefore, there needs to be more clarity on how this gender difference was determined. Nevertheless, Glass and Wright (1985) concluded that these sex difference findings suggest that men and women follow different codes in behavior in the development of extramarital relationships and that these codes reflect the traditional sex roles in our culture.

Glass and Wright (1985) have found that there appears to be a stronger link for women than for men between the state of their marriage and the occurrence of an extramarital involvement. The research seems to show that women are more affected by relationship variables (Atwater, 1979; Hurlbert, 1992; Prins et al., 1993). Atwater (1979) found that for women the "person they become involved with" is rarely more important than the "situation" in getting involved in an extramarital affair. In about one-half of all the

cases of affairs, an unsatisfactory marriage was part of the situational motivation for the women to have an affair. For example, women tend to look outside their marriages to satisfy their unmet emotional needs such as finding love, happiness, and affection (Glass & Wright, 1985; Medora & Burton, 1981). In contrast, men's extramarital involvements are more associated with individual characteristics such as their attitudes, beliefs, and values, than with their marital dissatisfaction (Glass & Wright, 1985).

However, the research indicates that sex roles not only affect the type of affair that men and women engage in and the reasons for having an affair, but also the pathway that they follow in the development of an affair. Atwater (1979) found that most women do not plan to have an affair. In keeping with traditional male and female gender roles, women usually remain passive and do not initiate the extramarital affair. On the other hand, just as men are typically the initiators of traditional marital sexuality, they are also the initiators of extramarital affairs. Atwater (1979) also found that in a few instances the women became involved partly because they did not know how to gracefully counter the expectations of an aggressive male. The concept of gender roles socializes women to be more passive and women are not taught how to effectively communicate "no" in sexual interaction.

In conclusion, the research indicates that studying sex roles and gender is an important factor in understanding extramarital affairs. The gender differences affect the type of affair that men and women engage in as well as the pathway that leads them to the affairs. Women tend to be more affected by relationship variables and men by individual variables. In addition, men and women differ on who initiates the extramarital affair and

on their justifications for having an affair. Nevertheless, there are many aspects of gender in relation to extramarital affairs that still need further investigation, including the length of extramarital affairs and the individual characteristics of those who engage in an extramarital affair.

Extradyadic Relations

There is limited research in the area of extradyadic relationships among premarital couples. However, the current research in this area suggests that there is a parallel between extradyadic relationships and extramarital relationships. In essence, the only difference between these two types of relationships is that one occurs in couples that are married and one occurs in couples that are not married. Therefore, in order to demonstrate the similarity between these two types of relationships, the organization of this section will parallel the section on extramarital affairs.

The organization of this section is as follows: the first subsection discusses definitional issues; the second subsection focuses on permissive sexual attitudes and permissive sexual behaviors as factors that are related to extradyadic relations; the third subsection discusses how different areas of relationship dissatisfaction may be related to a person having an affair; the fourth subsection discusses individual characteristics including level of commitment and personality types; and the fifth subsection will focus on gender differences in extradyadic relationships.

Definitional Issues

There is an array of terminology in the field of extradyadic relations including the following terms: extrapremarital intercourse, dating infidelity, and extradyadic relations. The term extrapremarital intercourse is defined as "when one party of a bonded pair has sexual relations with someone other than his or her regular partner" (Lieberman, 1988, p. 292). Infidelity is a breach of trust, a betrayal of a relationship, and a breaking of an agreement (Pittman, 1989). Therefore, dating infidelity can be defined as a betrayal of the dating relationship. Lastly, extradyadic relations can refer to romantic and sexual behavior outside of committed dating relationships between unmarried, noncohabitating partners who have an expectation of dating and sexual exclusivity in their relationships (Hansen, 1987; Seal et al., 1994). There are three types of affairs described in the literature which include: sexual but not emotional, emotional but not sexual, and a combination of sexual and emotional (Hurlbert, 1992; Glass & Wright, 1985, 1992; Sheppard et al., 1995; Thompson, 1984). However, the type of extradyadic relationship is usually not specified in the research; thus, there needs to be an increased rigor in specifying the type of extradyadic relationships --sexual, emotional, or a combination.

There are several limitations to address when reviewing the research on extradyadic relationships. First, most articles in this research area use a different term to describe extradyadic relations which makes it difficult to accurately generalize and communicate the research findings. Secondly, the articles on this topic do not clearly define what they mean by an extradyadic relationship. The general definition for an extradyadic relationship is defined as going out or having sex with someone other than

your dating partner while in a committed dating relationship. The key element that is missing from the current definitions on extradyadic relations is a clear definition of what is a committed dating relationship. It is difficult to determine if a person has "cheated on his girlfriend or her boyfriend" without a frame of reference for what is a committed dating relationship. Lieberman (1988) addressed this issue by stating that if there are no expectations of exclusiveness in the relationship, then extradyadic relations do not occur. However, this explanation is still vague and leaves the notion of "exclusiveness" open for interpretation. This element of commitment is not necessarily a problem in defining extramarital affairs because marital status becomes the frame of reference for determining if an extramarital relationship has occurred, but in the extradyadic research their needs to be a clearly defined starting point.

In this paper, the term extradyadic relationship is defined as emotional or sexual behavior outside of a committed dating relationship between unmarried, noncohabitating partners who have an expectation of dating and sexual exclusivity in their relationship. In addition, a committed dating relationship means that the couple has been dating for at least two weeks. Therefore, by clearly delineating a time frame as a starting point for a committed relationship, this should help alleviate some of the vagueness and definitional issues in this study.

Permissive Sexual Attitudes and Behaviors

The research on permissive sexual attitudes has conflicting findings. The first area of research focuses on people's attitudes toward premarital, extradyadic relations, and extramarital affairs. There seems to be a double standard because most people approve of

premarital intercourse but they disapprove of extradyadic relations (Lieberman, 1988). In addition, the findings show that people clearly disapprove of extramarital relationships more than extradyadic relationships (Lieberman, 1988; Sheppard et al., 1995). Lieberman (1988) explained that extramarital relationships are perceived as more serious because they disrupt a marriage, which has a more permanent bond than dating relationships. Therefore, a person's attitude differs based on the type of relationship and the seriousness of the consequences.

Another area of research focuses on people with permissive sexual attitudes. Research has found that permissive sexual attitudes are the most salient predictor of extradyadic relations, especially for men (Hansen, 1987). Another term that relates to sexual permissiveness is sociosexuality which refers to people's willingness to engage in uncommitted sexual relations. People with an unrestricted orientation, compared to those with a restricted orientation, are more likely to engage in sex at an earlier point in their relationships, have multiple partners, and become involved in sexual relationships characterized by a lack of love or commitment (Seal et al., 1994). In addition, Seal and his colleagues (1994) found that unrestricted people are more willing and more likely to engage in extradyadic relations regardless of whether they are in a casual dating or a serious dating relationship. These findings suggest that the more liberal a person is, the greater the chances of the person engaging in an extradyadic relationship.

The next area related to permissive sexual attitudes is permissive sexual behavior. There seems to be a discrepancy between attitudes toward extradyadic relations and engaging in extradyadic relationships. Extradyadic relations are prevalent during courtship

and although a large proportion of people engage in extradyadic relations, there is no evidence of a widespread acceptance of this behavior (Hansen, 1987). This raises many questions about the link between attitudes and behavior. On one hand, there is a high disapproval of extradyadic relations, yet many people engage in this type of behavior. On the other hand, permissive sexual attitudes have been found to be salient predictors of extradyadic relations. This leads to the possible explanation that "extradyadic permissiveness may indeed predispose one to engage in extradyadic relations. On the other hand, one may become more permissive after engaging in extradyadic relations" (Hansen, 1987, p. 389).

In conclusion the research in this area has conflicting findings. There is a clear disapproval of extradyadic relations; however, despite the disapproval of extradyadic relations, they are prevalent. In addition, there needs to be further clarity on how sexual permissiveness influences a person and to what degree sexual permissiveness influences a person to engage in an extradyadic relationship.

Relationship Satisfaction

Research has shown that relationship satisfaction is a salient predictor for extradyadic relations, especially for women (Roscoe et al., 1988). There are many factors that may influence a person's relationship satisfaction including equity, commitment to the relationship, and communication. Relationship satisfaction is related to a person's expectations for the relationship and the outcomes that they receive from the relationship. For example, when outcomes tend to fall consistently below expectations, then people tend to be dissatisfied with the relationship. On the other hand, when outcomes fall above

expectations, then the person tends to be satisfied with the relationship. People evaluate their relationship based on outcomes and realistic expectations obtainable from the relationship (Sabatelli, 1988).

One factor that is related to relationship satisfaction is equity. One way of looking at equity in a relationship is whether or not the partner feels overbenefitted or underbenefitted in the relationship. People tend to become dissatisfied with their relationship when they fall on either end of these extremes (Floyd & Wasner, 1994). When individuals feel inequity or dissatisfaction in their relationship, then other alternatives may be viewed as more desirable than the current relationship (Floyd & Wasner, 1994). Thus, those who are dissatisfied in their relationship would be more likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship.

Another factor related to relationship satisfaction is commitment to the relationship. Sanderson and Kurdek (1993) found that high relationship satisfaction and commitment are related to a perception of high rewards and few costs in the relationship, a small difference between the current relationship and the partner's view of an ideal relationship, few desirable alternatives (e.g., other dating partners), and a high investment in the relationship. These findings suggest that a person with high relationship satisfaction would find other alternatives less desirable than the current relationship, and thus would be less likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship. In addition, Sprecher and her colleagues (1995) found that relationship satisfaction and commitment to the relationship are positively correlated. As the level of relationship satisfaction and especially the level of commitment increases, then this acts as an inhibitor for those with low sexual

permissiveness and to a lesser degree, those with a high sexual permissiveness (Seal et al., 1994). The research suggests that level of commitment and relationship satisfaction may indeed be related to whether or not a person engages in an extradyadic relationship, but the research findings are unclear as to the amount of influence that each of these variables have on each other and on extradyadic relationships.

Another factor that affects premarital relationship satisfaction is supportive communication. Vera and Betz (1992) found that higher levels of relationship satisfaction correlated with higher levels of self disclosure for both men and women. In addition, women in serious relationships were more satisfied if they perceived their partner as having a high degree of expressiveness, which includes receiving companionship, empathy, and affection from one's partner (Siavelis & Lamke, 1992; Sprecher et. al., 1995). High relationship dissatisfaction and a low degree of expressiveness in the committed relationship may be related to women engaging in extradyadic relationships; several research studies have found that women often justify having an affair because their emotional needs including love, happiness, and affection, are not met (Medora & Burton, 1981).

In conclusion, the research on relationship satisfaction and extradyadic relations is limited but the research suggests that relationship satisfaction is a factor that is related to a person's decision to have an extradyadic relationship. There seem to be many factors that influence a person's relationship satisfaction, including equity, communication, and expressiveness in the relationship. In addition, the research states that relationship satisfaction and commitment are positively correlated. The research findings in this area

suggest that the level of satisfaction and commitment experienced in a relationship may be related to whether or not a person will have an extradyadic relationship. Therefore, the research shows that there may be a combination of variables involved in influencing a person's relationship satisfaction and the person's decision to have an extradyadic relation.

Individual Characteristics

Research has reported a variety of individual differences that correlate with extradyadic involvement including gender role traditionality, dating experience, religiosity, and sexual attitudes (Hansen, 1987; Seal et al., 1994). Hansen (1987) found that, in a sample of 122 women, the likelihood of these women engaging in an extradyadic relationship is positively related to their having liberal sexual attitudes, extradyadic permissiveness, and nontraditional gender role orientation. In addition, he found that for these women, extradyadic relations are negatively related to their level of religiosity. However, for the 93 men in the sample, Hansen (1987) found that the only significant variables were extradyadic permissiveness and years dating which were positively related to extradyadic relations. Although Hansen's (1987) study seems to be the only study that has looked directly at individual characteristics and extradyadic relationships, other research done on dating relationships and extramarital affairs suggest that personality characteristics are significant variables that should be addressed when looking at extradyadic relations.

The personality characteristics that seem to influence a person's willingness to engage in an extradyadic relationship include the person's ability to develop commitment and trust in a relationship and the person's level of risk taking. Commitment is defined as

a psychological attachment to one's partner and to the relationship which means that the person wants to remain together as a couple, and the person is invested in maintaining the relationship (Floyd & Wasner, 1994; Rusbult, 1983; Sprecher et al., 1995). Rusbult (1983) postulated that an individual's commitment to maintain his or her romantic relationship is a function of the person's satisfaction, investments, and available alternatives. In other words, commitment results from feeling satisfied and rewarded in the relationship, feeling highly invested in the relationship, and perceiving desirable alternatives as unavailable.

Davis and Strube (1993) found that relationship satisfaction is a significant predictor of commitment, especially for women. This is due to the fact that relationship satisfaction and commitment are positively correlated (Sprecher et al., 1995). Therefore, the research suggests that those with low relationship satisfaction and low commitment would be more likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship. Another factor that is related to commitment is available alternatives. Davis and Strube (1993) found, in their study on romantic commitment between black and white dating couples, that black men have more alternatives in dating partners; thus, they are less committed in their dating relationships. On the other hand, the lower the person's commitment to the dating relationship, then the more desirable he or she perceives alternative relationships.

In addition, research shows that high commitment seems to have an inhibitory influence on people engaging in extradyadic relationships. Seal and his colleagues (1994) found that individuals that have a restricted sociosexuality (less sexually permissive attitudes and behaviors) were less likely to engage in extradyadic relations when their level

of commitment and length of relationship increased. Therefore, based on the social exchange theory and the research in this area, one might conclude that if a person is committed to the relationship, then desirable alternatives will be perceived as unavailable and the person will be less likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship.

The research on risk-taking or sensation-seeking personalities focuses more on relationship satisfaction and risk taking behaviors. The research in this area primarily focuses on dating couples and married couples, but the research does not address extradyadic relationships. Research shows that partners that have the same score or level of sensation seeking tend to have a higher relationship satisfaction than those partners in which one has a high score of sensation seeking and the other partner has a score of low sensation seeking (Schroth, 1991). These findings suggest that risk takers with low relationship satisfaction may be more likely to engage in extradyadic relationships because they are the type to get easily bored in their current relationship and may seek variety by turning to someone outside of their dating relationship (Lowenstein, 1994).

In conclusion, there are a wide variety of articles on commitment in dating relationships but the research on commitment and extradyadic relationships is limited. The research suggests that those with low commitment to the relationship tend to have low relationship satisfaction and thus may more likely engage in an extradyadic relationship. A personality characteristic that may be related to extradyadic relations is risk taking. The research on risk taking and extradyadic relationships is nonexistent; but there are a few articles on risk taking and extramarital affairs which suggest that those who are risk takers are more likely to engage in extradyadic relationships. The research findings in this area

show that both level of risk taking and level of commitment are correlated to relationship satisfaction, but the findings are unclear as to what degree personality characteristics such as risk taking and the ability to commit to a relationship influence a person to engage in an extradyadic relationship.

Gender Differences

Research shows that sex roles can clarify our understanding of extradyadic involvement. Men and women differ in their attitudes and justifications for engaging in an extradyadic relationship. Men tend to be more accepting of extradyadic relationships than women (Hansen, 1987; Sheppard et al., 1995; Wilson & Medora, 1990) and more likely to engage in extradyadic relationships (Hansen, 1987; Wilson & Medora, 1990). In addition, men often focus more on physical and sexual components, such as sexual incompatibility or physically unattractiveness of the partner, as justifications for an extradyadic relationship (Medora & Burton, 1981; Roscoe et al., 1988). Women, on the other hand, tend to focus more on emotional components (Roscoe et al., 1988). Many research studies have found that women rank relationship dissatisfaction as the primary reason for engaging in an extradyadic relationship (Roscoe et al., 1988). This may be due to the fact that the traditional sex role of women in our culture is one of being a nurturer and being more emotional. Therefore, women tend to focus on the emotional aspects of a relationship such as love, communication, and feelings of closeness in the relationship. Thus, if these aspects are missing in the relationship then the woman will become less satisfied in the relationship and more likely to have an affair.

In conclusion, the current research on gender differences in extradyadic relations

focuses more on attitudes and reasons than actual behavior. Overall, men tend to be more accepting of extradyadic relations and more likely to engage in extradyadic relations than women. In addition, men tend to focus on sexual components and women tend to focus on emotional components. Future research in this area needs to focus more on how gender influences extradyadic relations, especially the type of extradyadic relations that men and women engage in such as sexual, emotional, or a combination of sexual and emotional.

The Link between Extramarital Affairs and Extradyadic Relations

Extramarital affairs have been the focus of many research studies over the past two decades, yet, extradyadic relations is an area that has been neglected by researchers. There are several factors that may account for this area of research being neglected. First, extradyadic relations are a phenomenon that is difficult to define which makes it difficult to investigate how prevalent it is within the dating population. Second, since the level of commitment in dating relationships is not as strong as commitment within marital relationships, because there is no legal or religious bond, this phenomenon of extradyadic relations seemed unimportant to study. In addition, the consequences of extradyadic relations on a dating relationship (e.g., ending the relationship) appear to be less serious because there is usually no children or property involved. However, researchers are now realizing that this is an important topic to study and an area that needs more widespread understanding, because a person's dating behaviors are often related to a person's behaviors in marriage. Weiss and Slosnerick (1981) stated that during an individual's

dating experience, the individual forms social scripts about love, marriage and extramarital relationships which the individual brings into his or her marriage. This suggests that understanding dating behaviors and premarital relationships will enrich our understanding of an individual's behaviors during marriage such as engaging in extramarital affairs.

More specifically, current research indicates that the reasons for engaging in extradyadic relationships strongly parallel the reasons given for engaging in extramarital relationships (Roscoe et al., 1988). In addition, Glass and Wright (1985) raise the notion that perhaps the way men and women approach extramarital relationships coincides with their sexual behaviors in their dating relationships. However, there have been no studies conducted that have looked at whether people who engage in extradyadic relationships are those who later engage in extramarital affairs. Therefore, a comparison between the two types of relationships (extradyadic and extramarital) should be viewed with caution. Nevertheless, based on these findings, it would be logical to assume that the variables that have been found to be salient predictors of extramarital affairs would also be salient predictors of extradyadic relations. In addition, the reasons for engaging in an extradyadic or extramarital relationship may be the same but society's view toward these relationships and the implications that these types of relationships have on a marriage or dating relationship are perceived differently (Lieberman, 1988; Sheppard et al., 1995). Lieberman (1988) stated that extramarital affairs are viewed differently because marriage is seen as a more permanent relationship with significant emotional and legal commitment. Thus, a disruption of a permanent relationship such as marriage is viewed with more disapproval than the disruption of a less permanent relationship such as a dating

relationship. Therefore, the difference between an extramarital affair and an extradyadic relationship is based on the level of commitment and permanence of the relationship.

The salient variables in extramarital affairs include permissive sexual attitudes and behaviors, relationship satisfaction, and individual characteristics such as risk taking.

First, the research in extramarital affairs and extradyadic relations have unclear findings about the relationship between permissive sexual attitudes and extradyadic and extramarital relationships. These findings are unclear because most people disapprove of extradyadic and extramarital affairs; however, a large proportion of people still engage in these types of relationships (Lieberman, 1988; Roscoe et al., 1988; Sheppard et al., 1995; Thompson, 1983). Secondly, extramarital research has found that those who engage in premarital sex are more likely to engage in an extramarital affair (Atwater, 1979; Thompson, 1983). This finding suggests that there may be a strong link between permissive sexual behavior and extramarital affairs. Unfortunately, there is currently little research done on permissive sexual behaviors in extradyadic relations. Nevertheless, this is an area that research should focus on to explore the possible link between permissive sexual behaviors and extradyadic relations.

Next, research on the relationship between extramarital and extradyadic relationships and relationship satisfaction suggests that this is a salient predictor for women engaging in extradyadic involvement. The research shows that relationship satisfaction can be influenced by many factors including dissatisfaction with sex roles and responsibilities, inequity, unmet needs, commitment, and communication. Equity and commitment are the two factors discussed in both the extradyadic and the extramarital

literature. First, a person who feels underbenefitted or overbenefitted in the relationship will feel that the relationship is inequitable and thus the person will become dissatisfied with the relationship (Floyd & Wasner, 1994; Prins et al., 1993). Secondly, the research shows that relationship satisfaction and commitment are positively correlated (Sprecher et al., 1995). Thus, if a person feels dissatisfied with the relationship then his or her level of commitment to the relationship will decrease and alternative relationships will be perceived as desirable. In other words, the findings on relationship satisfaction suggest that those who are less satisfied in their relationships will be more likely to engage in extradyadic and extramarital relationships (Glass & Wright, 1977; Roscoe et al., 1988).

Other salient variables that may be related to a person engaging in an extramarital or extradyadic relationship are individual characteristics. Research on extramarital relationships have included such characteristics as personality types, unresolved issues, level of commitment, and biological factors. On the other hand research on extradyadic relationships has looked at personality types, level of commitment, dating experience, and religiosity. The two individual characteristics that have been found in the literature on both extramarital and extradyadic relations are risk taking and commitment. The research suggests that those who are easily bored and want variety are more likely to engage in extramarital relationships (Booth & Dabbs, 1993; Lowenstein, 1994). The research on risk taking and extradyadic relations have shown a less direct connection between the two variables. Schroth (1991) found that level of risk taking can influence a person's relationship satisfaction which in turn influences whether or not a person may engage in an extradyadic relationship.

Next, the research on commitment has found that high commitment seems to inhibit a person from engaging in an extradyadic relationship because the person views alternative relationships as less desirable (Seal et al., 1994). Therefore, a person who has a low level of commitment to the relationship would be more likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship. In addition, the research on extramarital relationships demonstrates a similar finding. Kell (1992) explained that a man who feels uncomfortable with commitment will more likely engage in an extramarital relationship. Accordingly, expectations of high commitment to a relationship and to one woman sometimes makes a man feel trapped and anxious; thus, the man will have an affair in order to relieve some of his anxiousness and feelings of being smothered. These findings suggest that the meaning that a person gives to the word "commitment" and the level of commitment that the person has toward his or her partner and the relationship will be related to the person's likelihood of engaging in an extradyadic or extramarital relationship.

Finally, gender has been found to play an important role in the type of affair that a person engages in, the reasons or justifications for engaging in the affair, and the pathway that the person follows when engaging in an affair. In general, the research on both extramarital affairs and extradyadic relations have found that men are more likely to engage in extramarital or extradyadic relationships. Further, they tend to justify their reasons based on more physical components and individual characteristics (Glass & Wright, 1977, 1985, 1992; Hansen, 1987; Medora & Burton, 1981; Roscoe et al., 1988; Sheppard et al., 1995). On the other hand, research shows that women are more likely to become involved in an extramarital or extradyadic relationship because of emotional

components such as relationship dissatisfaction and unmet needs of companionship and affection (Glass & Wright, 1985; Roscoe et al., 1988; Sheppard et al., 1995); and women are more likely to say that a person needs to be in love for extramarital or extradyadic sexual relationships to be acceptable (Glass & Wright, 1985, 1992). These findings suggest that research on the relationship between gender and extramarital or extradyadic relationships can provide valuable information on this topic.

In conclusion, the research suggests that many of the salient variables for extramarital affairs may also be related to extradyadic relationships. This study will try to demonstrate a link between extramarital relationships and extradyadic relationships. The research on extradyadic relations is limited and many of the variables discussed have not been looked at directly in comparison to extradyadic relationships; rather these variables have been connected indirectly to extradyadic relationships. This study will try to bring together several of the variables found to be salient in the literature and examine the variables that have not been linked to extradyadic relationships such as risk taking. It is important to note that these variables may not influence extramarital affairs and extradyadic relationships the same because people view these relationships differently. Therefore, it would be valuable to learn more about how these variables that are salient predictors of extramarital affairs influence extradyadic relationships.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

Design

This study is both an exploratory and explanatory one which examined the gender differences in relation to extradyadic relationships. Most studies on extradyadic relationships or dating infidelity have only addressed sexual extradyadic relationships. The current study considered three types of extradyadic relationships, including exclusively sexual relationships, exclusively emotional relationships, and combination (sexual and emotional) relationships. Also, this study explored the extent to which the variables that have been found to be salient variables in the extramarital literature apply to extradyadic relationships.

The research method used in this study was survey research utilizing a self-report questionnaire. The questionnaire included existing measures and was developed for this study to investigate extradyadic relationships and the factors that are involved in extradyadic relationships.

Sample

The participants were selected from classes in the Political Science Department of a southwestern university in the spring semester of 1998. These classes were chosen because this is a required class for all undergraduate students and, thus, this sample of students should be representative of the student population. A list of American Government sections offered in the Spring of 1998 was obtained through the class schedule book. There are eighteen sections of American Government offered in the Spring

of 1998 with approximately 60-90 students per section. The international sections were not included because the author wanted a representative sample of college students from the United States. The rationale for wanting a representative sample of the United States is that a large proportion of the studies on extramarital relationships consist of American samples and the author wanted to be able to compare the results of this study with the current literature to see if there is a link between the factors that affect extradyadic relationships and extramarital affairs. A simple random sampling technique, using a random numbers chart, was used to randomly select five sections out of the seventeen sections available. In addition, selection with replacement was used to get a total of five classes for the sample.

There were 372 students enrolled in the five sections selected for this study. This study had a response rate of 80% with 296 questionnaires being completed. However, forty-six of these participants did not meet the criteria for the sample because they were either married, cohabitating, over the age limit, had never had a dating relationship, or had been dating for less than two weeks. These participants were eliminated from the analysis. In addition, thirty-seven questionnaires were eliminated from the analysis due to inconsistencies among the questions that assessed the type of extradyadic relationship. Therefore, the participants in this study consisted of a convenience sample of 211 undergraduate students at a southwestern university. The sample consisted of non-married, non-cohabitating students between the ages of 18 and 30 years. This sample was chosen because this is the time frame in which most individuals experience the largest percentage of their dating experience.

A description of the 211 participants in this study is presented in Table 1 (Appendix A). Most of the participants (94.8%) were single, never married, non-engaged, non-cohabitating individuals. Most participants ($n = 210$, 99.5%) were in heterosexual relationships; however, one (.5%) was in a homosexual relationship. The participants include 90 males (42.7%) and 121 females (57.3%). The range in age was from 18 to 29 years, with the mean age being 19.4 years. Most ($n = 149$, 71%) of the participants were freshmen. The sample was predominately Caucasian ($n = 183$, 87.6%), with eight (3.8%) American Indian, six (2.9%) African American, three (1.4%) Asian, and three (1.4%) Hispanic; six (2.9%) participants classified themselves as "Other." In addition, a large percentage of the participants reported having some kind of religious affiliation: 64.4% Protestant, 17.3% Catholic, 5.9% Christian, and 3.0% Non-Denominational; 5.4% were classified as "Other" (e.g., Assembly of God, Mormon, Pentecostal, Muslim, Jewish, Buddhist) because of their low frequency. There were eight participants (4.0%) that stated that they had no religious affiliation.

Most participants ($n = 125$, 59.8%) reported that they were currently in a dating relationship. The participants reported the status of their dating relationships as follows: 36 casual (17.1%); 46 steady (21.9%); 94 serious (44.8%); 25 pre-engaged (11.9%); and 9 engaged (4.3%). The length of time that these couples had been dating ranged from 2-4 weeks to more than 24 months. The median length of these relationships was 6-9 months.

Instrumentation and Measurement

The research instrument is an 81-item self report questionnaire (see Appendix B) which was adapted from existing measures by the author to obtain information about

extradyadic relationships, permissive sexual attitudes and behaviors, relationship satisfaction, level of risk taking, and level of commitment. A table of the variables assessed in the questionnaire can be found in Table 2 (Appendix A). The demographic section includes seven questions about the participants' age, gender, major in college, year in school, marital status, dating status, ethnicity, religion, and living arrangement.

The remaining questions were designed to address the nine primary variables investigated in this study. The dependent variables are the existence of an extradyadic relationship (whether or not the person had an extradyadic relationship) and the type of extradyadic relationship (sexual relationship, emotional relationship, or a combination of sexual and emotional relationship). The independent variables included gender, permissive sexual attitudes, permissive sexual behaviors, relationship satisfaction, equity, level of commitment, and level of risk taking. Assessment of the dependent and independent variables in this study will be discussed separately.

Extradyadic relationships. Extradyadic relationships are defined as romantic (sexual, emotional, or a combination) behavior outside of a committed dating relationship between unmarried, noncohabitating partners who have an expectation of dating and sexual exclusivity in their relationship (Seal et al., 1994). Extradyadic relationships were measured by asking subjects the following four questions:

The first question assessed the existence of extradyadic relationships. The question asked, "Have you ever been unfaithful to your partner?" The respondents answered either "yes" or "no." The next three questions were based on the extramarital scales by Glass and Wright (1985) and they assessed the type of extradyadic relationship (sexual,

emotional, or a combination). These three questions by Glass and Wright (1985) have been used in a couple of research studies (Glass & Wright, 1985, 1992); however, none of the studies reported reliability or validity.

A six point continuum of sexual involvement was measured by the following question: "What is the greatest extent that you have been sexually involved with someone other than your dating partner?" Possible answers were: 1. "no sexual or physical involvement," 2. "kissing," 3. "hugging and caressing," 4. "petting," 5. "oral sex," 6. "sexually intimate without intercourse," and 7. "sexual intercourse."

An emotional extradyadic relationship is defined as a strong emotional ("in love") relationship or romantic involvement with another person without sexual intercourse (Glass & Wright, 1992; Thompson, 1984). In addition, an emotionally intimate friendship that becomes sexualized (e.g., sexual tension or sexual attraction is expressed verbally with an agreement to abstain from actual sexual behavior) or evolves into romantic love has crossed the critical threshold between friendships and extradyadic relationships (Glass & Wright, 1992). The degree of extradyadic romantic emotional involvement was measured by the following five point item: "What is the greatest extent that you have been emotionally involved (romantically involved without having sexual intercourse, "in love") with someone other than your dating partner?" Possible responses were: 1. "no emotional involvement," 2. "slight emotional involvement," 3. "moderate emotional involvement," 4. "strong emotional involvement," and 5. "extremely deep emotional involvement."

An extradyadic relationship that involves both sexual intercourse and romantic love or strong emotional involvement is labeled as a combination extradyadic relationship.

The degree of a combination of emotional and sexual involvement was based on this six point continuum question: "Take a moment to reflect on the times that you have been involved with someone other than your dating partner. How would you describe these experiences?" Responses included: 1. "never involved sexually or emotionally," 2. "entirely sexual," 3. "mainly sexual," 4. "more sexual than emotional," 5. "more emotional than sexual," 6. "mainly emotional," and 7. "entirely emotional."

Permissive Sexual Attitudes. For this study, permissive sexual attitudes are defined as liberal views toward uncommitted sexual relations such as premarital sexual activity. Permissive sexual attitudes were measured by the updated 4-item version of the Reiss Premarital Sexual Permissiveness Scale (Schwartz & Reiss, 1995). This scale addresses attitudes toward premarital sex. The scores ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). Schwartz (1993) found in his research on American and Swedish women that this Likert-type scale has a Cronbach alpha coefficient of internal consistency reliability of .73 for the English and .71 for the Swedish. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of internal consistency reliability for this sample was .89. In addition, this short version scale has been found to have a high construct validity with the 12-item long version of the Reiss Premarital Sexual Permissiveness Scale (Schwartz & Reiss, 1995).

Another measure on permissive sexual attitudes was also included in the questionnaire but it was not used in the examination of the hypotheses. The second measure was adapted from Hansen (1987). This measure consists of nine items which address attitudes toward extradyadic and extramarital relationships. For each item, respondents were asked to state how much they agreed with each statement based on a

6-point Likert-type scale. The possible answers ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). For example, respondents were asked the degree to which they agreed or disagreed that "it is acceptable for a married person to engage in petting with someone other than his or her marriage partner." Each subject's permissiveness score was the total for all nine items. Hansen (1987) reported that the alpha reliability coefficient was .93 for the items addressing extradyadic permissiveness. Cronbach alpha coefficient of internal consistency reliability for this sample was .94 for items addressing extradyadic permissiveness and .88 for items addressing extramarital permissiveness.

This measure was included because the author wanted to use these questions in a future study that would combine both the Reiss Premarital Sexual Permissiveness Scale, Hansen's (1987) questions on extradyadic attitudes, and the questions adapted from Hansen (1987) on extramarital attitudes in an attempt to find a reliable measure that could tap several areas of permissive sexual attitudes instead of just one or two areas. These questions were not used in the examination of the hypotheses because the author wanted a general measure of permissive sexual attitudes that had been widely used and highly reliability. The questions that tapped extramarital permissive attitudes were developed by the author and had not been tested for reliability prior to this study and Hansen's questions on extradyadic permissive attitudes have not been widely used.

Permissive Sexual Behaviors. The researcher has conceptualized permissive sexual behaviors as engaging in uncommitted sexual behaviors, engaging in premarital sex, having a variety of sexual partners, and/or engaging in extradyadic relationships.

Permissive sexual behavior was assessed by the 7-item Sociosexuality Orientation

Inventory developed by Simpson and Gangestad (1991). This scale assesses the subjects' willingness to engage in uncommitted sexual relations. A sociosexuality score was calculated using the following items: number of different partners in the past year; number of different partners foreseen in the next five years; number of lifetime one night stands; frequency of sexual fantasies and thoughts; and three items tapping attitudes toward casual uncommitted sex (e.g., "sex without love is okay"). Item 77, addressing attitudes toward casual uncommitted sex, was reverse scored prior to aggregating items 75 to 77 on the questionnaire. A composite score for the Sociosexual Orientation Inventory (SOI) was determined by using the following weighting scheme: $SOI = 5 \times (\text{number of partners in the past year}) + 1 \times (\text{number of partners foreseen}) + 5 \times (\text{number of one night stands}) + 4 \times (\text{frequency of sexual fantasy}) + 2 \times (\text{aggregate of the three items tapping attitudes toward engaging in casual, uncommitted sex})$. In addition, the maximum value of item 66 (number of partners foreseen) was limited to 30 partners foreseen. A higher score indicated an unrestricted sociosexual orientation and higher permissive sexual behaviors.

This scale has an overall Cronbach alpha coefficient of internal consistency reliability of .73. In addition, the last three items tapping attitudes has a Cronbach alpha of .83 (Simpson & Gangestad, 1991). Cronbach alpha coefficient of internal consistency reliability for this sample was .83. Simpson and Gangestad (1991) reported that this scale has been shown to have both discriminant and convergent validity. Further, their research found that the scale has a correlation between unrestricted individuals, who tend to feel relatively comfortable engaging in sex without commitment or closeness, and the following factors: 1) engaging in sex at an earlier age, 2) willingness to have sex with

more than one partner at a time, 3) expressing less commitment.

Relationship satisfaction. Relationship satisfaction is defined in this study as a person's overall happiness in the relationship and how satisfied the person feels that his or her needs are met in the relationship. Relationship satisfaction was measured using the 7-item Relationship Assessment Scale developed by Hendrick (1988). This scale is considered a generic measure of relationship satisfaction. For example one question asks, "In general, how satisfied are you with your relationship?" A 5-point Likert-type response format was used with the scores ranging from 1 (low satisfaction) to 5 (high satisfaction). Items 4 and 7 (which are questions 32 and 35 on the questionnaire) are reverse scored. Hendrick (1988) reported that this scale has an alpha reliability of .86 and a criterion validity of .80 with the Dyadic Adjustment Scale by Spanier (1976). This sample had a Cronbach alpha coefficient of internal consistency reliability of .86.

Equity. Equity is a construct that is related to relationship satisfaction. Equity is defined as the expectations that people have of what will be the rewards and costs in a given relationship. Inequity occurs when a person feels overbenefitted or underbenefitted in the relationship (Floyd & Wasner, 1994). Equity was assessed by the Walster, Walster, and Traupmann (1978) measure which has been used in several research studies over the past two decades (e.g., Floyd & Wasner, 1994; Prins et al., 1993; Winn, Crawford, & Fischer, 1991); however, none of the studies reported or calculated reliability. This measure is an inequity score calculated from the formula recommended by Walster et al. (1978). The measure includes four items (-4= extremely negative to +4 = extremely positive) in which the subjects rate separately the positiveness of their own input to the

relationship (Ia), their partner's input to the relationship (Ib), their own outcomes from the relationship (Oa), and their partner's outcomes from the relationship (Ob). These ratings are entered into the following formula:

$$\text{Inequity} = \text{absolute value of } [(Oa - \text{Expected } Oa)/Ia],$$

$$\text{where Expected } Oa = Ia + \{Ia \times [(Ob - Ib)/Ib]\}.$$

The respondents's relationships were classified from the scores on the inequity formula as follows:

$$\text{Greatly underbenefitted} = -31.00 \text{ to } -.51$$

$$\text{Slightly underbenefitted} = -.50 \text{ to } -.10$$

$$\text{Equitably treated} = .00$$

$$\text{Slightly overbenefitted} = +.10 \text{ to } +.50$$

$$\text{Greatly overbenefitted} = +.51 \text{ to } +31.00$$

Floyd and Wasner (1994) reported that the formula derived from this measure has a .89 correlation with an alternate formula by Harris (1983).

Commitment. Commitment is defined as both a psychological attachment to one's partner and the relationship and the intention to remain together as a couple. Commitment is influenced by a person's level of satisfaction, level of investment in the relationship, and possible alternatives (Rusbult, 1983). Commitment was measured by the 9-item Lund Commitment scale (Lund, 1985) which looks at commitment to the present relationship and length of time in current relationship. This Likert-type scale has a response format of 1 (low commitment) to 5 (high commitment). Items 2 and 6 (which are questions 37 and 41 on the questionnaire) are reverse scored. Higher scores indicate high commitment to

the relationship. This scale has a Cronbach alpha coefficient of internal consistency reliability of .82. In addition, Winn and her associates (1991) reported that the Cronbach alpha for the Lund Commitment Scale was .88 for individuals in close same sex friendships and .95 for dating individuals. This sample had a Cronbach alpha coefficient of internal consistency reliability of .91. In terms of intercorrelations among scales, this scale has also been found to be significantly correlated ($r=.73$, $p < .01$) with the Contentment/Distress scale (Winn, et al., 1991).

Risk Taking. For this study, high risk takers were conceptualized as having the following characteristics: they are sensation seekers; they like variety; they like taking risks; they are thrill seekers; and they become easily bored. The level of risk taking was assessed by using twelve items from the form V of the Sensation Seeking Scale (SSS) developed by Zuckerman, Eysenck, and Eysenck (1978). The questions address different areas of sensation seeking which is one dimension of risk taking. The areas addressed were thrill and adventure seeking, boredom susceptibility, and disinhibition. For example, one item is "I like to have new and exciting experiences and sensations even if they are a little unconventional or illegal." The respondents were asked to check all items that they felt applied to them. The items that were marked were scored as a 1 and the items left blank were scored as 0. The items on this index were added together to get a general risk taking score. The possible levels of risk taking or sensation seeking are classified as follows: 0 to 3 (not a risk taker); 3 to 6 (slight risk taker); 6 to 9 (moderate risk taker), and 9 to 12 (high risk taker). The general sensation seeking scale (form IV) has an alpha coefficient of .72 for males and .80 for females. In addition, the twelve items chosen for

this questionnaire were among the items selected for the new form V (SSS) and had a factor loading between .34 and .68. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of internal consistency reliability for this sample was .74.

Social Desirability Measure. A social desirability measure was included in the questionnaire to examine the tendency of participants to answer personal questions in a socially favorable way. The Idealistic Distortion scale from the PREPARE inventory developed by Olson, Fournier, and Druckman (1982) was used to assess the participants' tendency to idealize aspects of their relationships. The scale consists of five questions which comprised items 50 to 54 on the current questionnaire. For each item, respondents were asked to state how much they agreed with each statement based on a 5-point Likert-type scale with a response of "1" or "2" being the less idealistic response. Item 52 was reverse scored. The items were added together to get a general idealistic score. Possible scores range from 5 to 25 with a higher score indicating high idealistic responses. The Idealistic Distortion scale of PREPARE has a Cronbach alpha of .88 and a retest reliability of .79 (Fournier, Olson, & Druckman, 1983). This sample had a Cronbach alpha coefficient of internal consistency reliability of .78.

Data Collection Procedure

The self administered questionnaire was distributed at the beginning of the class hour by the researcher. Along with the questionnaire was a consent form explaining the purpose of the research and stressing that confidentiality would be maintained. The participants were told that the purpose of the study was to investigate college students' dating behaviors and relationships along with their sexual attitudes. In addition, the

participants were informed that participation was voluntary and they would remain anonymous because there was no identifying information on the questionnaire. The participants dropped off the questionnaire and the consent form in two separate piles at the front of the classroom. The average length of time for completing the questionnaire was fifteen to twenty minutes.

Data Analysis

Once collected, the data were analyzed using the SPSS-X Data Analysis System Release 4.1 (1988). In order to identify the gender differences in the attitudes toward extradyadic relationships, in the reasons for having extradyadic relationships, and in the type of extradyadic relationship that a person engages in, the following conceptual hypotheses were examined in this study:

1. Men will report having sexual extradyadic relationships and women will report having emotional or combination extradyadic relationships. Chi square using the Mantel-Haenszel statistic was conducted for comparing men and women.
2. Men are more likely than women to report the following reasons for having an extradyadic relationship: boredom, looking for variety, lack of commitment to the relationship, and sexual problems in the relationship; women are more likely than men to report dissatisfaction with the relationship and falling in love as reasons for engaging in an extradyadic relationship. Five chi squares using the Mantel-Haenszel statistic were conducted for comparing men and women.

3. Women who have lower scores on the Relationship Assessment Scale will more likely report having an extradyadic relationship than women who have higher scores on the Relationship Assessment Scale. A one tail t-test was conducted for comparing relationship satisfaction scores according to involvement in an extradyadic relationship.
4. Men who have lower scores on the Relationship Assessment Scale will more likely report having an extradyadic relationship than men who have higher scores on the Relationship Assessment Scale. A one tail t-test was conducted for comparing relationship satisfaction scores according to involvement in an extradyadic relationship.
5. Women who have lower scores on the Relationship Assessment Scale will more likely report higher sexual involvement within the extradyadic relationship than men with lower scores on the Relationship Assessment Scale. The scores from the relationship satisfaction scale were grouped into three categories (e.g., low, medium, and high) according to percentiles in order to compare individuals with low satisfaction to individuals with medium or high satisfaction. Low satisfaction scores ranged from 9 to 24. Medium satisfaction scores ranged from 25 to 29, and high satisfaction scores ranged from 30 to 35. Analysis was a group comparison using a two-way ANOVA.

6. Women who have lower scores on the Relationship Assessment Scale will more likely report higher emotional involvement within the extradyadic relationship than men with lower scores on the Relationship Assessment Scale. The scores from the relationship satisfaction scale were grouped into three categories (e.g., low, medium, and high) according to percentiles in order to compare individuals with low satisfaction to individuals with medium or high satisfaction. Low satisfaction scores ranged from 9 to 24; medium satisfaction scores ranged from 25 to 29; and high satisfaction scores ranged from 30 to 35. Analysis was a group comparison using a two-way ANOVA.

7. Individuals who are in inequitable relationships are more likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship than those who are in an equitable relationship. A chi square using the Mantel-Haenszel statistic examined the level of equity in the dating relationship and whether or not the individual engaged in an extradyadic relationship. Subjects were divided into two categories which were individuals in an inequitable relationship (e.g., those who have a score reflecting being either greatly overbenefitted (+.51 to +31.00) or greatly underbenefitted (-.51 to -31.00) in their relationship on the Walster, Walster, and Traupmann Equity Formula) versus individuals in an equitable relationship (those who have a score of slightly overbenefitted, slightly underbenefitted or equitably treated (-.50 to +.50) on the Equity Formula). The dependent measure was the existence of an extradyadic relationship.

8. Men who have higher scores on the Sensation Seeking Scale will more likely report having an extradyadic relationship than men who have lower scores on the risk taking scale. A one tail t-test was conducted for comparing risk taking scores according to involvement in an extradyadic relationship.
9. Women who have higher scores on the Sensation Seeking Scale will more likely report having an extradyadic relationship than women who have lower scores on the risk taking scale. A one tail t-test was conducted for comparing risk taking scores according to involvement in an extradyadic relationship.
10. Individuals who have lower scores on the Lund Commitment Scale will more likely report having an extradyadic relationship than those who have higher scores on the Lund Commitment Scale. A one tail t-test was conducted for comparing commitment scores according to involvement in an extradyadic relationship.
11. Individuals who have high scores on the Sociosexual Orientation Inventory will more likely report having an extradyadic relationship than individuals who have low scores on the Sociosexual Orientation Inventory. A one tail t-test was conducted for comparing sociosexual orientation scores according to involvement in an extradyadic relationship.
12. Individuals who have higher scores on the Reiss Sexual Permissiveness Scale will more likely report having an extradyadic relationship than individuals who have lower scores on the Reiss Sexual Permissiveness Scale. A one tail t-test was conducted for comparing sexual permissive attitude scores according to involvement in an extradyadic relationship.

13 Scores on the Relationship Assessment Scale, the Walster, Walster, and Traupmann Equity Formula, The Lund Commitment Scale, The Sensation Seeking Scale, the Sociosexual Orientation Inventory, and the Reiss Sexual Permissiveness Scale will be related to the type of extradyadic relationship (e.g., sexual, emotional, or a combination) that the person engages in as a function of gender. Two-way ANOVAS were run on each variable and the type of extradyadic relationship except for the variable equity. Chi Square was used to examine the relationship between equity and type of extradyadic relationship because the variables were both categorical.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This study was designed to examine the gender differences in the pathways that lead to a particular type of extradyadic relationship. These differences will be analyzed in conjunction with several of the factors that have been found to be salient in the literature on extramarital and extradyadic relationships.

Behaviors and Reasons for Extradyadic Relationships

Approximately one-third of the sample ($n = 71$) reported that they had been unfaithful to their partner. There were two questions that addressed behaviors and reasons for engaging in extradyadic relationships. The first question listed possible reasons for having an extradyadic relationship and the participants ranked which reason they thought was most important. The three most important reasons that were reported for having an extradyadic relationship were falling in love with another person ($n = 60$, 31.3%), dissatisfaction with the relationship ($n = 49$, 25.5%), and lack of commitment to the relationship ($n = 31$, 16.1%). A complete list of the reasons reported for engaging in an extradyadic relationship are shown in Table 3 (Appendix A). The second question contained a list of behaviors and the participants marked which behaviors they felt would constitute being unfaithful. The behaviors that the participants considered as being unfaithful (Table 4 in Appendix A) are as follows: sexual intercourse ($n = 209$, 99.1%); sexual interactions such as kissing, necking, and petting ($n = 208$, 98.6%); emotional involvement with someone else ($n = 157$, 74.4%); going out to dinner in a secluded place ($n = 130$, 61.6%); cybersex on the Internet ($n = 128$, 60.7%); spending an evening with

someone else at his or her house ($\underline{n} = 67, 31.8\%$); going to the movies ($\underline{n} = 58, 27.5\%$); dancing with him or her ($\underline{n} = 38, 18\%$); chat room communications on the Internet ($\underline{n} = 19, 9\%$).

Characteristics of Extradynamic Relationships

There were three types of extradynamic relationships examined in this study including sexual, emotional, and combination extradynamic relationships. Operationalization of the dependent variable, type of extradynamic relationship, was needed for the analysis in order to determine if the extradynamic relationship was exclusively sexual, exclusively emotional, or a combination. Items 24, 25, and 26 on the questionnaire (see Appendix B) addressed the type of extradynamic relationship. However, the results between these three questions were inconsistent. Therefore, the type of extradynamic relationship (e.g., sexual, emotional, or combination) was determined by the reported behaviors on the question addressing sexual extradynamic relationships and the question addressing emotional extradynamic relationships. Item 26 on the questionnaire which asks the participants: "take a moment to reflect on the times that you have been involved with someone other than your dating partner. How would you describe these experiences," was not used because when the results from item 26 were compared with the behaviors in item 24 and 25 there were inconsistencies. These inconsistencies may be due to the participants having difficulty in categorizing their extradynamic relationship in terms of overall sexual and emotional involvement. Items 24 and 25 may be easier and clearer to understand because the participants are reporting behaviors. Therefore, a combination extradynamic relationship was calculated by using the other two questions (item 24 and 25) in order to

get more accurate results. A combination extradyadic relationship was determined by the participant reporting some type of sexual involvement (e.g., kissing to sexual intercourse) on item 24 and reporting some type of emotional involvement (e.g., slight to extremely deep emotional involvement) on item 25. A sexual extradyadic relationship was determined by the participant reporting some type of sexual involvement on item 24 of the questionnaire, and no emotional involvement on item 25 of the questionnaire. An exclusively emotional extradyadic relationship was determined by the person reporting some type of emotional involvement on item 25 and reporting no sexual involvement on item 24.

The results of the study found that there were 81 sexual extradyadic relationships, 32 emotional extradyadic relationships, and 98 combination of sexual and emotional extradyadic relationships. The sexual extradyadic relationships ranged from kissing to sexual intercourse. The three predominant sexual behaviors in extradyadic relationships were as follows. kissing ($n = 33$, 29.7%), petting ($n = 21$, 18.9%), and sexual intercourse ($n = 37$, 33.3%). It is important to note that these numbers include sexual behaviors in exclusively sexual extradyadic relationships and combination extradyadic relationships. The level of emotional involvement in the extradyadic relationship ranged from slight emotional involvement to extremely deep emotional involvement. A combination extradyadic relationship ranged from mainly sexual involvement with slight emotional involvement to mainly emotional involvement with slight sexual involvement. The length of time that these extradyadic relationships lasted ranged from less than 24 hours to more than one year. The median length of these relationships was between less than 24 hours to

two weeks.

Examination of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 predicted that men are more likely to report having a sexual extradyadic relationship and women are more likely to have an emotional or a combination (sexual and emotional) extradyadic relationship. The results of the Mantel-Haenszel Chi Square showed that Hypothesis 1 was not supported. There were significant gender differences in the type of extradyadic relationship that an individual engaged ($\chi^2 = 8.93$, $df = 1$, $p < .01$) but the gender differences were not in the direction hypothesized. The results show that men ($n = 52$, 58%) are more likely than women ($n = 46$, 38%) to have a combination extradyadic relationship. In addition, women ($n = 56$, 46%) are more likely to engage in sexual extradyadic relationships than men ($n = 25$, 28%). The differences between men ($n = 13$, 14%) and women ($n = 19$, 16%) who engage in emotional extradyadic relationships are much smaller.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that men would report different reasons for engaging in an extradyadic relationship than women. Men are more likely to report the following reasons: boredom, looking for variety, lack of commitment to the relationship, and sexual problems in the relationship; however, women are more likely to report dissatisfaction with the relationship and falling in love with another person. The results of the Mantel-Haenszel Chi Square showed that Hypothesis 2 was partially supported. There was a significant finding for boredom ($\chi^2 = 7.26$, $df = 1$, $p < .01$), and for looking for variety ($\chi^2 = 6.15$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$). These results show that a higher proportion of men are more likely to report boredom ($n = 18$, 20%) as a reason for having an extradyadic relationship

than women ($n = 9$, 7.4%). In addition, 112 (92.6%) women stated that boredom was not a reason for having an extradyadic relationship compared to 72 (80%) men who reported that it is not a reason. The results also show that there was a significant gender difference in reporting the reason of looking for variety. The findings show that 18 (20%) men compared to 10 (8.3%) women stated that looking for variety would be a reason for having an extradyadic relationship. On the other hand, 111 (91.7%) women and 72 (80%) men stated that looking for variety would not be a reason for engaging in an extradyadic relationship. There was no significant gender difference in reporting the following reasons for engaging in an extradyadic relationship: sexual problems in the relationship, lack of commitment to the relationship, dissatisfaction with the relationship, or falling in love with another person. Men and women are both likely to report these reasons for engaging in an extradyadic relationship.

Hypothesis 3 states that women who are less satisfied in their relationship will be more likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship than women who are more satisfied in their current relationship. The results of the one tail t-test supported Hypothesis 3 showing that there was a significant relationship between level of satisfaction in the relationship and engaging in an extradyadic relationship ($t = -2.43$, $p < .01$). Women who are less satisfied in their relationship are more likely to have an extradyadic relationship.

Hypothesis 4 states that men who are less satisfied in their relationship will be more likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship than men who are more satisfied in their current relationship. The results of the one tail t-test supported Hypothesis 4 showing that there was a significant relationship between level of satisfaction in the

relationship and engaging in an extradyadic relationship ($t = -2.28, p < .05$). Men who are less satisfied in their relationship are more likely to have an extradyadic relationship than men who are more satisfied in their relationship.

Hypothesis 5 states that women who are less satisfied in their relationship will be more likely to report higher sexual involvement in an extradyadic relationship than men who are less satisfied in their current relationship. The results of the two-way ANOVA show that this hypothesis was not supported. There was a non-significant interaction between gender and relationship satisfaction in relation to level of sexual involvement. However, the main effects show that there is a significant relationship between level of sexual involvement and gender, ($F = 18.50, p < .001$) but there is not a significant relationship between level of sexual involvement and level of relationship satisfaction. The results suggest that men have higher sexual involvement in an extradyadic relationship than women but it is not a function of their level of relationship satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6 states that women who are less satisfied in their relationship will be more likely to report higher emotional involvement in an extradyadic relationship than men who are less satisfied in their current relationship. The results of the two-way ANOVA show that this hypothesis was not supported. The interaction between gender and relationship satisfaction in relation to emotional involvement was non-significant, but there were significant main effects. There are significant gender differences ($F = 8.36, p < .01$) in the level of emotional involvement within an extradyadic relationship, but the findings are in the opposite direction than hypothesized. These findings suggest that men have higher emotional involvement in an extradyadic relationship than women. In addition, the results

show that there is a significant relationship between level of emotional involvement and level of relationship satisfaction ($F = 10.86, p < .001$). The post hoc test (Tukey) found that low relationship satisfaction ($M = 2.81, p < .05$) significantly differs from both medium ($M = 2.02$) and high ($M = 1.94$) levels of relationship satisfaction. Thus, those with lower levels of relationship satisfaction have higher emotional involvement in the extradyadic relationship than those with medium or high levels of relationship satisfaction.

Hypothesis 7 predicts that individuals who are in an inequitable relationship are more likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship than those who are in an equitable relationship. The results from the Mantel-Haenszel Chi Square partially supported Hypothesis 7, showing that there is a significant relationship between level of equity in the relationship and likelihood of engaging in an extradyadic relationship ($\chi^2 = 6.65, df = 1, p < .01$). Those who have an equitable relationship are more likely to report not having an extradyadic relationship ($n = 111, 71\%$) than to report having an extradyadic relationship ($n = 45, 29\%$). The differences between those individuals who are in an inequitable relationship are much smaller; there were 26 (48%) individuals in an inequitable relationship who reported having an extradyadic relationship and 28 (52%) individuals in an inequitable relationship who reported not having an extradyadic relationship. Of those who reported having an extradyadic relationship, a higher proportion was found for those in inequitable relationships ($n = 26, 48\%$) than for those in equitable relationships ($n = 45, 29\%$).

Hypothesis 8 states that men who are high risk takers are more likely to report having an extradyadic relationship than men who are low risk takers. The results of the

one tail t-test support Hypothesis 8, showing that there is a significant relationship between level of risk taking and engaging in an extradyadic relationship ($t = 3.57, p < .001$). The results show that men who are high risk takers are more likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship than men who are low risk takers.

Hypothesis 9 states that women who are high risk takers are more likely to report having an extradyadic relationship than women who are low risk takers. The results of the one tail t-test support Hypothesis 9, showing that there is a significant relationship between level of risk taking and engaging in an extradyadic relationship ($t = 2.25, p < .05$). The results show that women who are high risk takers are more likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship than women who are low risk takers.

Hypothesis 10 predicts that individuals who are less committed to their dating relationship are more likely to report having an extradyadic relationship than those who have a higher commitment to their relationship. The results of the one-tail t-test show that Hypothesis 10 was supported. There was a significant relationship between level of commitment and engaging in an extradyadic relationship ($t = -2.18, p < .05$). Individuals with lower levels of commitment are more likely to report having an extradyadic relationship.

Hypothesis 11 predicts that individuals who have permissive sexual behaviors are more likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship than individuals with more conservative sexual behaviors. The results of the one tail t-test support Hypothesis 11, showing that there is a significant relationship between permissive sexual behaviors and engaging in extradyadic relationships ($t = 6.53, p < .001$). Individuals who have more

permissive sexual behaviors are more likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship.

Hypothesis 12 predicts that individuals who have permissive sexual attitudes are more likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship than individuals with more conservative sexual attitudes. The results of the one tail t-test support Hypothesis 12, showing there was a significant relationship between permissive sexual attitudes and engaging in an extradyadic relationship ($t = 3.48, p < .001$). Those who have high permissive sexual attitudes are more likely to have an extradyadic relationship.

Hypothesis 13 predicted that relationship satisfaction, equity, commitment, risk taking, permissive sexual behaviors and permissive sexual attitudes would be related to the type of extradyadic relationship (e.g., sexual, emotional, or a combination of sexual and emotional) that the person engaged in as a function of gender. The results show that Hypothesis 13 was partially supported because four of the six variables were found to be related to type of extradyadic relationship. First, a chi square test was used to examine the relationship between equity and type of extradyadic relationship because the variables were both categorical variables. However, the cell frequencies were too low to run a chi square test on the variable equity and type of extradyadic relationship.

Secondly, two-way ANOVAS were run on the rest of the variables and the type of extradyadic relationship. The results show that there are four variables that have a significant relationship with the type of extradyadic relationship. The four variables are commitment, relationship satisfaction, risk taking, and sexually permissive behaviors. The findings suggest that the relationship between the type of extradyadic relationship and the variable permissive sexual attitudes was non-significant. The results of two-way

ANOVAS will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

The results of the two-way ANOVA show that there was a non-significant interaction between gender and type of extradyadic relationship in relation to level of commitment. However, there was a significant main effect for type of extradyadic relationship. The results show that there is a significant relationship between level of commitment and type of extradyadic relationship ($F = 3.16, p < .05$). The post hoc test (Tukey) found that there is a significant ($p < .05$) difference between sexual ($M = 33.84$) and combination ($M = 29.72$) extradyadic relationships. Individuals who engage in sexual extradyadic relationships have higher levels of commitment than those who engage in combination extradyadic relationships.

The results of the two-way ANOVA show that there was a non-significant interaction between gender and type of extradyadic relationship in relation to level of relationship satisfaction. However, there was a significant main effect for type of extradyadic relationship. The results show that there is a significant relationship between level of relationship satisfaction and type of extradyadic relationship ($F = 8.30, p < .001$). The post hoc test (Tukey) found that those who have combination extradyadic relationships ($M = 25.1, p < .05$) significantly differ from those who have emotional ($M = 27.7$) or sexual ($M = 28.7$) extradyadic relationships. The findings suggest that those who have combination extradyadic relationships have significantly lower relationship satisfaction than those who have emotional or sexual extradyadic relationships.

In addition, the results of the two-way ANOVA show that the interaction between gender and type of extradyadic relationship in relation to level of risk taking was non-

significant, but there were significant main effects. There are significant gender differences in the level of risk taking ($F = 13.88, p < .001$). The findings suggest that men have higher levels of risk taking than women. In addition the results show that there is a significant relationship between level of risk taking and type of extradyadic relationship ($F = 5.33, p < .01$). The post hoc test (Tukey) found that there is a significant ($p < .05$) difference between sexual ($M = 3.9$) and combination ($M = 5.6$) extradyadic relationships. The findings suggest that those who engage in combination extradyadic relationships have higher levels of risk taking than those who have sexual extradyadic relationships.

Next, the results of the two-way ANOVA show that there is significant interaction ($p < .01$) between gender and type of extradyadic relationship in relationship to permissive sexual behaviors (see Figure 1 in Appendix A for the results). The results show that those in a combination extradyadic relationship have the highest level of permissive sexual behaviors; however the level of permissive sexual behaviors is higher for men ($M = 49.4$) than for women ($M = 25.6$). The difference between men and women for the other types of extradyadic relationships is not as large. Men who engage in emotional extradyadic relationships have somewhat higher permissive sexual behaviors ($M = 26.6$) than women who engage in emotional extradyadic relationships ($M = 21.4$). Next, men who have sexual extradyadic relationships engage in somewhat higher permissive sexual behaviors ($M = 22.3$) than women who have sexual extradyadic relationships ($M = 20.4$).

Finally, the results of the two-way ANOVA show that there was a non-significant interaction between gender and type of extradyadic relationship in relation to permissive sexual attitudes. In addition, the findings suggest that there is no relationship between

permissive sexual attitudes and type of extradyadic relationship. However, there was a significant main effect for gender. There are significant gender differences in permissive sexual attitudes ($F = 6.68, p < .01$). The results show that men have higher permissive sexual attitudes than women.

Other Research Questions Addressed

In addition to the thirteen hypotheses examined in this research study, this section was included to examine an important issue related to this study. Although relevant to the purpose of this study, this issue is peripheral to the hypotheses and therefore treated separately.

An important issue examined in this study was whether or not these participants were answering the questions honestly or in a socially desirable manner. Therefore, the social desirability measure was correlated with the relationship satisfaction scale, the commitment scale, and the questions addressing the three types of extradyadic relationships (e.g., sexual, emotional, or combination). The results show the following correlations with social desirability: relationship satisfaction ($r = .70$), commitment ($r = .59$), emotional extradyadic relationships ($r = -.20$), combination extradyadic relationships ($r = -.14$), and sexual extradyadic relationships ($r = -.08$). In addition, the correlations between social desirability and commitment is somewhat higher for women ($r = .65$) than for men ($r = .48$), however, the other correlations with social desirability did not differ by gender. Because of the degree of correlations between social desirability and both relationship satisfaction and commitment, participants may have overrated their level of relationship satisfaction and their level of commitment to the relationship. This is a

limitation to this study because the results show that the participants were answering these questions in a socially desirable manner. However, it appears that social desirability was low when the type of extradyadic relationships (e.g., sexual, emotional, or combination) was high. Thus, these results would not be a limitation to this study.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the current study was twofold. First, this study examined several of the factors that have been found to be salient in the literature on extramarital and extradyadic relationships in order to see if the variables that are related to an extramarital affair are also related to an extradyadic relationship. Secondly, this study looked at the gender differences in the factors related to a particular type of extradyadic relationship. There were three types of extradyadic relationships (e.g., sexual relationships, emotional relationships and combination of sexual and emotional relationships) examined in this study. The current chapter will consider and suggest possible meanings of the significant results found that support the hypotheses and suggest possible interpretations of the results that did not support the hypotheses. Implications for practitioners and educators as well as suggestions for future research are offered.

Significant Results that Support the Hypotheses

Factors related to occurrence of extradyadic relationships. The results of this study show that relationship satisfaction, equity in the relationship, level of commitment to the relationship, level of risk taking, and permissive sexual attitudes and behaviors are related to whether an individual engages in an extradyadic relationship. Therefore, it seems that both relationship variables and individual variables play a significant role in a person having an extradyadic relationship. The two relationship variables investigated in this study were relationship satisfaction and equity. The findings of this study show that individuals who are less satisfied in their relationship are more likely to have an

extradyadic relationship than those who are satisfied in their relationship. This finding coincides with the previous literature on extradyadic relationships (Roscoe et al., 1988) and extramarital affairs (Glass & Wright, 1977) which found that relationship satisfaction is a prime predictor of extradyadic relationships and extramarital affairs.

In addition, this study found that there is a significant relationship between level of equity and the likelihood of engaging in an extradyadic relationship. Those in an equitable relationship are less likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship. This would make sense because, according to the equity theory, individuals who are in an equitable relationship would feel satisfied within the relationship (Walster, et al., 1978); thus, they would find alternative relationships less desirable.

Also, the findings suggest that those who have extradyadic relationships are more likely to be in an inequitable relationship. The current research in this area tends to support this finding. First, Floyd and Wasner (1994) found that individuals who feel either overbenefitted or underbenefitted in their relationship will feel dissatisfied because their relationship is inequitable. Secondly, Prins et al. (1993) found that those who have an inequitable relationship are more likely to engage in an extramarital affair.

The findings of this study indicate that individual characteristics are also related to a person engaging in an extradyadic relationship. First, the results show that individuals with lower levels of commitment to the relationship are more likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship. Kell's (1992) finding supports this idea because he found that married men who have affairs are uncomfortable with commitment. In addition, this finding is supported by social exchange theory which states that a person with high

commitment is less likely to find alternative relationships (e.g., extradyadic relationships) desirable (Floyd & Wasner, 1994). However, if the person has a low commitment to the relationship, he or she is more likely to find an extradyadic relationship desirable. The finding of the current study is important because the previous research on extradyadic relationships has not directly linked commitment to extradyadic relationships.

Commitment has been linked to extramarital affairs (e.g., Kell, 1992), but it has not been studied directly in the research on extradyadic relationships.

Next, permissive sexual attitudes have been linked to extradyadic relationships. The results show that individuals with permissive sexual attitudes are more likely to have an extradyadic relationship. In addition, men are more likely than women to have permissive sexual attitudes. Therefore, these findings support Hansen's (1987) statement that permissive sexual attitudes are related to extradyadic relationships during courtship for men. In addition, the results of this study found that those with high permissive sexual behaviors are more likely than those with low permissive sexual behaviors to have an extradyadic relationship. This finding is supported by the literature on extradyadic relationships (Seal et al., 1994) and extramarital relationships (Atwater, 1979; Bukstel et al., 1978). Seal and his colleagues' (1994) found that unrestricted individuals (persons with permissive attitudes and behaviors) are more willing to engage in an extradyadic relationship regardless of their dating stage. In addition, the research on extramarital relationships found that married individuals who reported having extramarital relationships remember having had considerable premarital sexual experience (Atwater, 1979; Bukstel et al., 1978). These findings suggest that those individuals who have permissive sexual

attitudes and behaviors are more likely to have an extradyadic relationship. However, the relationship between sexual permissive attitudes and sexual permissive behaviors is still unclear. It is difficult to tell if permissive sexual attitudes predispose a person to engage in permissive sexual behaviors or if a person becomes more permissive in his or her sexual attitudes after engaging in permissive sexual behaviors (Hansen, 1987). The literature does not find a consistent relationship between attitudes and behaviors.

Finally, this study found that level of risk taking is related to a person engaging in an extradyadic relationship for both men and women. Those who are high risk takers are more likely to engage in an extradyadic relationship than those who are low risk takers. Previous research on extradyadic relationships has not directly linked risk taking to extradyadic relationships, but risk taking has been linked to extramarital relationships (Lowenstein, 1994). Lowenstein's (1994) finding coincides with the results of this study because he found that individuals with a big 'T' personality (risk takers) are more likely to have an extramarital affair.

In general, individual characteristics and the status of their relationship are important factors for both men and women. Overall, these findings suggest that many of the variables that have been found to be salient in the extramarital literature are also salient for extradyadic relationships. This leads one to think that the factors related to a person having an extramarital affair are the same factors that are related to a person to having an extradyadic relationship, suggesting a clear link between extradyadic and extramarital relationships.

Factors related to type of extradyadic relationship. Another significant result of this study is the finding that there are four variables that are related to the type of extradyadic relationship in which a person will engage. These variables are commitment, relationship satisfaction, risk taking, and permissive sexual behaviors. The only two variables that were not found to be related to the type of extradyadic relationship were permissive sexual attitudes and equity. However, due to low cell frequency, equity was not tested.

The results found that relationship satisfaction is related to the type of extradyadic relationship. Individuals who have combination extradyadic relationships have lower levels of relationship satisfaction than those who engage in only a sexual or emotional extradyadic relationship. This finding is supported by Glass and Wright (1985) who found that those who have combination extramarital relationships have the lowest level of marital satisfaction. Glass and Wright (1985) suggested that both sexual and emotional extramarital relationships are associated with marital dissatisfaction. However, when both aspects (e.g., sexual and emotional) are combined in an extramarital relationship, then these relationships will be associated with the highest degree of marital dissatisfaction.

The study also found that commitment is related to the type of extradyadic relationship. Those who have sexual extradyadic relationships have higher levels of commitment than those who engage in combination extradyadic relationships. This may be explained by the notion that many people consider sexual needs as biological urges which everyone has, and that fulfilling these sexual needs are just a physical release and nothing more. Therefore, people with high commitment to their relationship may feel that

having an emotional or a combination extradyadic relationship would be more of a betrayal to their dating relationship than a sexual relationship because these relationships include emotional intimacy and thoughts of love as opposed to a physical way of fulfilling basic biological needs. This finding is important because previous research on extradyadic relationships has not examined the relationship between commitment and type of extradyadic relationship.

Additionally, the results indicate that those who have sexual extradyadic relationships have lower levels of risk taking than those who engage in combination extradyadic relationships. This may be due to the fact that risk takers find it exciting to take risks, and fulfilling sexual needs through an extradyadic relationship requires little time or risk. However, in order to establish a relationship with both emotional and sexual involvement more time would be required and the risk of being caught by one's partner would be increased. Therefore, a combination extradyadic relationship would require a person who is more of a risk taker than a sexual extradyadic relationship. In addition, men have higher levels of risk taking than women which suggests that men would be more likely to engage in a combination extradyadic relationship than women. However, there has been no previous literature on the relationship between risk taking and type of extradyadic or extramarital relationship in which to compare these findings.

Lastly, the findings of this study show that there is an interaction between gender and type of extradyadic relationship in relation to permissive sexual behaviors. Those who have combination extradyadic relationships have the highest level of permissive sexual behaviors; however, for those in combination extradyadic relationships, men have higher

levels of permissive sexual behaviors than women. The gender differences for the other types of extradyadic relationships are not as large. Perhaps when these individuals become emotionally involved with someone other than their dating partner, they are also more likely to become sexually involved with the person because they have high permissive sexual behaviors. However, it is also important to keep in mind that just because an individual has permissive sexual behaviors does not mean that his or her relationships are exclusively sexual in nature; but at the same time he or she would be less likely to have an exclusively emotional relationship than a combination relationship. Therefore, individuals, particularly men, with permissive sexual behaviors are more likely to engage in combination extradyadic relationships. Another possible explanation is that men with permissive sexual behaviors may feel freer than women to become both emotionally and sexually involved in a relationship because women usually have more societal constraints put on them than men. These findings are important because there has been no previous literature on the relationship between permissive sexual behaviors and type of extradyadic or extramarital relationship.

In summary, the results suggest a difference in how various factors relate to the type of extradyadic relationship. In general, the results suggest that those who engage in sexual extradyadic relationships have higher relationship satisfaction and commitment, and lower levels of risk taking than those who engage in combination or emotional extradyadic relationships. The differences between combination and emotional extradyadic relationships are less dramatic in these areas. Those who engage in combination extradyadic relationships tend to have higher levels of risk taking and permissive sexual

behaviors, and lower levels of relationship satisfaction and commitment than those who have emotional extradyadic relationships. Overall, emotional extradyadic relationships had fewer differences in relation to combination and sexual extradyadic relationships than combination and sexual had to each other. The findings related to emotional extradyadic relationships suggest that individuals with higher levels of relationship satisfaction are more likely to have an emotional or sexual extradyadic relationship than a combination extradyadic relationship. However, it is important to remember that this finding does not necessarily mean that people with high relationship satisfaction have emotional extradyadic relationships, but that those that have emotional extradyadic relationships have higher levels of relationship satisfaction than those that have combination extradyadic relationships. This finding is supported by Glass and Wright (1985) who suggested that both emotional and sexual extramarital affairs are related to lower levels of marital dissatisfaction, whereas those relationships that are characterized by a combination of sexual and emotional are related to higher levels of marital dissatisfaction.

In general, these findings suggest that studying the type of extradyadic relationship would provide useful information. It would give us a greater understanding of the pathways that lead to extradyadic relationships because it will provide more precise information on how different factors are related to a person engaging in a particular type of extradyadic relationship.

Significant Results that did not Support the Hypotheses

Gender differences in type of involvement. The results show that men are more likely to have a combination of sexual and emotional extradyadic relationships and women

are more likely to have sexual extradyadic relationships. In addition, the results suggest that there are no gender differences in engaging in an emotional extradyadic relationship. This finding conflicts with the current literature on gender differences and type of extramarital affair (Glass & Wright, 1985; Thompson, 1984). Glass and Wright (1985) stated that men and women tend to differ in the type of extramarital involvement in ways that reflect traditional sex roles. They found that men are more likely to have sexual affairs and women are more likely to have emotional or combination affairs. In addition, they reported that men are more likely to engage in extramarital sex without any thoughts of love or emotion while women are more likely to say that a person needs to be in love (Glass & Wright, 1985, 1992). Thompson (1984) also found that men are more likely to have sexual extramarital relationships, but the gender differences between emotional and combination extramarital relationships were not very large. This discrepancy in the current findings may be due to an emphasis on non-traditional gender roles in this generation or to the tendency for individuals who are not married to follow less traditional gender roles than those who are married.

In addition, this study found that men become more sexually and emotionally involved within the extradyadic relationship than women. This is partially supported by Glass and Wright (1985) who found that overall the degree of sexual involvement in extramarital affairs is greater for men than women; however, they also found that the degree of emotional involvement in extramarital relationships is greater for women. Once again this may be due to an emphasis on non-traditional gender roles among this sample.

For men, although their level of emotional involvement is related to their level of

relationship satisfaction, the extent of their sexual involvement is not related to their relationship satisfaction. Therefore, these findings suggest that men with lower levels of relationship satisfaction become more emotionally involved in the extradyadic relationship. This would coincide with Glass and Wright's (1977) finding that those with lower marital satisfaction tend to have emotional extramarital affairs.

In summary, the gender differences in the degree of sexual and emotional involvement within the extradyadic relationship can help explain the previous results on the gender differences in type of extradyadic relationships. For example, the findings suggest that men become more emotionally and sexually involved in an extradyadic relationship than women. This finding coincides with the gender differences in type of extradyadic relationship which found that men are more likely than women to engage in a combination of sexual and emotional extradyadic relationships.

In addition, these findings suggest that, although women engage in more sexual extradyadic relationships than men, men's level of sexual involvement is higher within the extradyadic relationship than women's sexual involvement. In other words, women may have a sexual extradyadic relationship that consists of just kissing and petting but men's extradyadic relationship would consist of sexual intercourse. In conclusion, the findings on the gender differences in the extent of sexual and emotional involvement and in the type of extradyadic relationship appear to coincide with one another. In addition, the results on the degree of sexual and emotional involvement help explain the gender differences found in the type of extradyadic relationships that a person will engage in.

Gender differences in reasons for engaging in extradyadic relationships. Next the results of this study suggest that men and women's ideas concerning the reasons why a person would engage in an extradyadic relationship were congruent because only two statistical differences occurred. Although the results showed that most of the men and women reported in this study that boredom and looking for variety are not valid reasons for having an extradyadic relationship, a higher proportion of women than men reported that these reasons are not valid. However, among those who reported that boredom and looking for variety are valid reasons for having an extradyadic relationship, a higher percentage of men than women stated that these reasons were valid. This finding that more men than women report boredom and looking for variety is supported by Glass and Wright (1985) who found that men are influenced by individual characteristics, such as beliefs and attitudes, rather than the status of the relationship. These variables are associated with the individual characteristic of risk taking because individuals who are risk takers tend to become easily bored, be impulsive and like variety (Lowenstein, 1994). In addition, Lowenstein (1994) found that big "T" personalities (risk takers) are more likely to engage in extramarital affairs.

A surprising finding is that there were no gender differences in reporting sexual problems in the relationship, level of commitment, dissatisfaction in the relationship, or falling in love with another person as reasons for having an extradyadic relationship. These findings show a discrepancy with the current literature on extradyadic relationships which states that the two primary reasons for women to have an extradyadic relationship are dissatisfaction in the relationship and falling in love with another person and the two

primary reasons for men are sexual incompatibility and lack of communication (Roscoe et al., 1988).

Overall, the findings that were found to conflict with the current literature on gender differences in this area of research pertained to women being predominately influenced by relationship variables and emotional aspects (Atwater, 1979; Glass & Wright, 1985; Hurlbert, 1992; Roscoe et al., 1988). One possible explanation for the lack of expected gender differences among the relationship or emotional aspects may be due to the fact that this study is sampling a different generation than past researchers. The latest findings in this particular area were done in the mid 1980s. This generation has been taught to break away from the traditional sex roles and to be more open about one's feelings (Ellman & Taggart, 1993; Goodman, 1992; McWilliams, 1992). This leads to more equalitarian thinking and less stereotypical gender differences. In addition, with less traditional sex roles many women now share the same attitudes as men toward sexual relations in that women no longer believe that a person has to be "in love" when having a sexual relationship (Lottes, 1993). Thus, the findings that women are not more likely than men to have an emotional affair may be due to many women feeling that sex without emotional involvement is acceptable. Also, this may be explained by the point that women in the 1990s are more independent and, thus, they may be less emotionally dependent on a dating partner as they once were. This may be due to women having other avenues to pursue that will provide them with the emotional support and needs that they used to receive only from a partner. In addition, this generation has been raised to be more open with their feelings; thus, both men and women will be more open to expressing their

relationship dissatisfaction and the fact that their needs are not met. Also, men today may be more open to emotional involvement than in more traditional eras.

Limitations

One limitation of this questionnaire is its length and the time required to complete the questionnaire. This may limit the participants' willingness to complete the questionnaire or the participants' ability to take the time to seriously think about each question. However, due to the paucity of research on extradyadic relationships, there is a need for an extensive study of the variables that are related to a person engaging in extradyadic relationships, which necessitated a longer questionnaire to address all the variables. The information obtained from this study will help expand our knowledge of extradyadic relationships and help bridge the gap between extradyadic relationships and extramarital relationships. Therefore, even a small sample size provides useful information. Nevertheless, the findings of this study need to be viewed with caution when applied to other populations because of limited generalizability of the findings. This study was conducted at a southwestern university, in which the student population may have more conservative sexual views than other areas of the United States.

Another limitation pertains to the private and sensitive topic of this study which may make some respondents feel uncomfortable. This limitation raises the possibility that the respondents may not truthfully answer the questions on the questionnaire. However, since the respondents remained anonymous in this study, the author hoped that this alleviated the respondents' discomfort with the topic.

Nevertheless, a social desirability measure was included to examine whether or not

the participants were answering in a socially desirable manner. The results suggest that both men and women answered the questions about relationship satisfaction and commitment in a socially desirable manner. This is a limitation to this study because it suggests the participants did not honestly answer the questions about their relationships. Therefore, the results pertaining to relationship satisfaction and commitment need to be viewed with caution.

In addition, with a self administered questionnaire there is always the possibility that the respondents may misinterpret or misunderstand the questions. For the questions that address the existence of extradyadic relationships, thirty-seven questionnaires were eliminated from the analysis due to inconsistencies among these questions. For example, some of the participants marked that they had been sexually involved but not emotionally involved with another person other than their dating partner; then on the question asking how they would typically describe their extradyadic involvement, the participants stated that the relationship was more emotional than sexual. This also occurred for those who stated that they had only been emotionally involved with another person other than their dating partner; these participants would mark on the last question that their involvement was typically more sexual than emotional. These discrepancies in the participants' answers suggests that the questions were unclear to the participants.

Another inconsistency was that the participants marked that they had been sexually and emotionally involved on the questions addressing extradyadic involvement, but on the question that addressed the length of the extradyadic relationship, the participants marked "not applicable." It appears that the participants in this study may have misinterpreted

these questions asking if they had been sexually or emotionally involved with someone other than their dating partner as meaning someone else in the past instead of meaning an extradyadic relationship. On the other hand, there is the possibility that some of the participants answered the extradyadic questions thinking of times when they were involved with someone else while in a previous dating relationship. This may explain some of the inconsistencies found in the thirty-seven questionnaires that were eliminated.

Another inconsistency found was that several of the participants reported that they had been faithful to their dating partner; but on the questions addressing sexual and emotional involvement with another person, they marked “yes” to some of these behaviors. These questionnaires were kept in the analysis. The rationale for keeping these questionnaires was that some people may feel that kissing or petting or emotional involvement does not constitute being unfaithful to one’s partner. Therefore, these people who had slight sexual or emotional involvement with another person marked “no” to the question asking if they had been unfaithful. This assumption is a possible limitation to this study. Therefore, the results of hypothesis one and thirteen need to be taken with caution because they are the hypotheses that would be affected by these questionnaires that were kept in the analysis.

Implications for Future Research

This study found that one-third of the sample had an extradyadic relationship. This finding indicates that extradyadic relationships is a prevalent activity among college age dating couples. The implication of this finding suggests that extradyadic relationships is an area that needs further investigation and needs to be taken more seriously, especially if the

social scripts that a person develops during his or her courtship is what he or she will bring into marriage (Weiss & Slosnerick, 1981). This theory would suggest that those who have extradyadic relationships while they are in a committed dating relationship would more likely have an extramarital affair. This implication could have a devastating impact on marriages. Future research needs to examine the relationship between those who have extradyadic relationships while dating and those who later have extramarital affairs. There needs to be a greater understanding of the link between extradyadic relationships and extramarital affairs.

Some potentially useful implications for future research are suggested by the limitations of the current study. This study needs to be replicated in order to clear up the inconsistencies in the questions that addressed the type of extradyadic relationship. As mentioned earlier, this was a limitation of this study. There needs to be more specific and clearer questions that will tap the type of extradyadic relationship that the person had. There also needs to be a clearer way of addressing the issue of whether or not the person had an extradyadic relationship because some people may engage in an extradyadic relationship but feel that they were not unfaithful to their partner. Therefore, future research needs to develop more concise and clear questions to determine the existence and type of extradyadic relationships.

Another area that needs a better measure is sex roles. In this study, gender was used as a marker for sex roles but this may not be the best measure to use when examining sex roles. Using gender as a marker for sex roles, makes the assumption that most men and women today follow the traditional sex roles which according to the findings in this

study seem to not be true. Therefore, future research may want to use a different measure such as gender role expression, gender role orientation, or gender role expectations in order to get more accurate information on how sex roles relate to the type of extradyadic relationship in which men and women engage.

In addition, future studies may want to replicate this study and examine how the various relationship and individual variables mediate each other and influence a person to have an extradyadic relationship. For example, the greater prevalence of risk taking in men may explain the higher involvement of men than women in permissive sexual behaviors with combination extradyadic relationships. Also, risk taking may mediate the relationship between permissive sexual attitudes and behaviors. In general, researchers need a better understanding of the context surrounding the occurrence and experience of extradyadic relationships. This would include examining the extradyadic relationship itself in order to understand the rewards and costs of this alternative relationship. Therefore, case studies may be a useful approach to studying extradyadic relationships because they would allow the researcher the opportunity to discuss in depth the extradyadic relationship and the situation surrounding the extradyadic relationship with the participant.

Another area for future research is examining the marriages of the participants' parents in order to see how modeling and family structure relate to a person engaging in an extradyadic relationship. Atwater (1979) found that individuals who have parents' that commit adultery are more likely to engage in extramarital affairs themselves. This finding raises the question of intergenerational influence which would be an interesting area to investigate with extradyadic relationships. In addition, it would be helpful to explore

whether young adults from divorced families are more likely to have an extradyadic relationship than those from intact families. This area of research could open up another set of variables (e.g., family characteristics) that may be related to extradyadic relationships.

Implications for Practice

This research into extradyadic involvement also has several implications for issues of interest to practitioners working with individuals and couples. First, the results of this study show that there are some clear individual characteristics and relationship characteristics that are related to whether a person engages in an extradyadic relationship. Practitioners can work with individuals on their difficulty with relationship commitment and their attitudes toward permissive sexual behaviors and risk taking in order to help the person understand how these factors affect their intimate relationships. In addition, practitioners can work with couples who are dissatisfied in their relationship in order to strengthen the relationship and prevent extradyadic relationships. In addition, these individuals can benefit from this knowledge by becoming aware that their patterns during courtship parallel the patterns in marriage. Thus, by understanding problematic behaviors they can learn to establish more positive behaviors for future relationships.

In addition, the results show that the gender differences in the factors that are related to a person to having an extradyadic relationship and the type of extradyadic relationship the person has are not as significant as once considered. Therefore, practitioners and educators need to work on reducing the stereotypes of men and women. Individuals need to be educated on how sex roles have changed and how these changes

affect their relationships.

In conclusion, extradyadic relationships is an area where there is a limited amount of research. Nevertheless, the findings of this study suggest that this is a prevalent activity among college students which could have serious consequences on future relationships and perhaps marriages. By learning about extradyadic relationships, perhaps researchers, educators, and practitioners can help enhance the stability and /or quality of dating as well as marital relationships.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A
TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 1

Characteristics of Participants

Characteristic	N (211)	%	Characteristic	N (211)	%
<u>Sex</u>			<u>Marital Status</u>		
Male	90	42.7%	Single (Never Married)	200	94.8%
Female	121	57.3%	Single (Previously Married)	4	1.9%
			Engaged	7	3.3%
<u>Age</u>			<u>Status of Dating Relationship</u>		
18	64	30.3%	Casual	36	17.1%
19	32	43.6%	Steady	46	21.9%
20	23	10.9%	Serious	94	44.8%
21	14	6.6%	Pre-engaged	25	11.9%
22+	18	8.5%	Engaged	9	4.3%
<u>Year In School</u>			<u>Length of Dating Relationship</u>		
Freshman	149	71.0%	2-4 weeks	13	6.2%
Sophomore	34	16.2%	1 month	14	6.6%
Junior	17	8.1%	1-6 months	62	29.4%
Senior	10	4.8%	6-12 months	35	16.6%
			12-24 months	43	20.4%
			More than 24 months	44	20.9%
<u>Religion</u>			<u>Partner's Age</u>		
Protestant	130	64.4%	Under 18	18	8.6%
Catholic	35	17.3%	18	50	23.8%
Christian	12	5.9%	19	55	26.2%
Non Denominational	6	3.0%	20	24	11.4%
Other	11	5.4%	21	30	14.3%
None, Agnostic	8	4.0%	22+	33	15.7%
<u>Ethnicity</u>			<u>Partner's Ethnicity</u>		
Caucasian	183	87.6%	Caucasian	184	87.6%
American Indian	8	3.8%	African American	7	3.3%
African American	6	2.9%	Hispanic	7	3.3%
Asian	3	1.4%	American Indian	4	1.9%
Hispanic	3	1.4%	Asian	3	1.4%
Other	6	2.9%	Other	5	2.4%

Table 2

Variables Assessed by Questionnaire

Variables	# of Items	Item Response Range	Item Measurement Level
Extradyadic Relationships			
Existence of Relationship	1	2 categories	Nominal
Type of Relationship	3	1-6	Nominal
Permissive Sexual Attitudes	13	1-6	Interval (Likert-Type)
Permissive Sexual Behaviors	7	10-216	Interval
Relationship Satisfaction	7	1-5	Interval (Likert-Type)
Equity	4	5 categories	Nominal
Commitment	9	1-5	Interval (Likert-Type)
Risk Taking	12	0-1	Interval

Table 3

Reasons for Engaging in an Extradyadic Relationship

Reasons for being Unfaithful	N	%
Falling in love with another person	60	31.3%
Dissatisfaction with the relationship	49	25.5%
Lack of commitment to the relationship	31	16.1%
Revenge/Anger	17	8.9%
Looking for variety/ Experimentation	9	4.7%
Boredom	8	4.2%
Involved in a long distance relationship	8	4.2%
Prove sexual attractiveness/ Raise self esteem	5	2.6%
Sexual Problems in the Relationship	1	.5%
Other	4	2.1%

Table 4

Behaviors that Constitute being Unfaithful

Behaviors which Constitute being Unfaithful	N	%
Sexual intercourse	209	99.1%
Sexual interactions (flirting/kissing/necking/petting)	208	98.6%
Emotionally involved with someone else	157	74.4%
Going out to dinner in a secluded place	130	61.6%
Cybersex on the Internet	128	60.7%
Spending an evening with someone else at his or her house	67	31.8%
Going to the movies	58	27.5%
Dancing with him or her	38	18.0%
Chat room communications on the Internet	19	9.0%

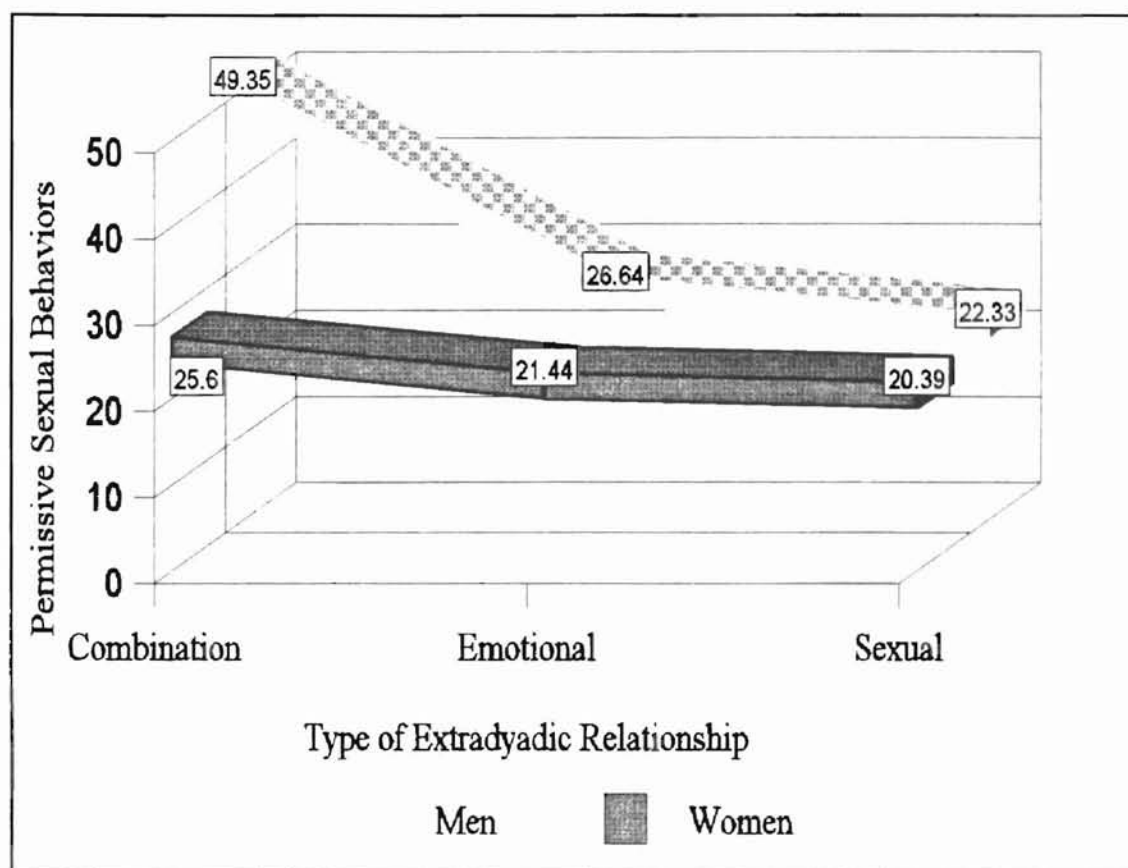


Figure 1. Permissive Sexual Behaviors: Interaction between Type of Extradyadic Relationship and Gender

APPENDIX B
QUESTIONNAIRE

CONSENT FORM

You have been selected to take part in an important research project sponsored by the Department of Family Relations and Child Development. **Your name will not be used in any way so that we can guarantee confidentiality and you can feel free to express your most honest opinions.**

The purpose of the project is to examine dating behaviors, dating relationships, and sexual attitudes of college students. You are invited to comment on your experiences in your present or past dating relationship. The questionnaire will take approximately 15 to 20 minutes to complete

Participation in the project is voluntary and strictly confidential. Your name will not be put on your questionnaire, so there will be no way to identify your responses. Also, if you do not want to answer a particular question, you do not have to do so. However, the more complete the questionnaire, the more helpful it will be for the statistical analysis we will perform on the data. All responses will be kept confidential. Do not put any identifying information on the questionnaire. In addition, the questionnaires will be kept in a locked file cabinet, separate from your consent forms. The information obtained in this study will help us clarify and understand the link between extradyadic relationships and extramarital relationships

"I hereby authorize or direct **Rebecca Jovanovich**, or assistants of her choosing, to perform the following survey. This is done as part of an investigation entitled, **'Extradyadic relationships in premarital couples: Gender differences in the factors influencing extradyadic involvement.'**"

"I understand that participation is voluntary, that there is no penalty for refusal to participate, and that I am free to withdraw my consent and participation in this project at any time without penalty after notifying the project director."

Thank you for your participation in the study. If you have any questions please call Rebecca Jovanovich at (918) 836-1391 or you may also contact Gay Clarkson, IRB Executive Secretary, 305 Whitehurst, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK 74078, telephone number (405) 744-5700.

I have read and fully understand the consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily.

Date: _____ Time: _____ (a.m./p.m.)

Signed: _____
Signature of Subject

I certify that I have personally given this consent form to all participants before having them complete the questionnaire.

Signed: _____
Rebecca Jovanovich (Primary Investigator)

QUESTIONNAIRE

GENERAL BACKGROUND INFORMATION (Please answer each question)

1. Age: _____ 2. Gender: Male _____ Female _____
3. College Major _____
4. Year in School: _____ Freshman _____ Sophomore _____ Junior _____ Senior _____
5. Marital Status: _____ Single (Never Married) _____ Single (Previously Married) _____ Cohabiting _____ Engaged _____ Married _____
6. Ethnicity: _____ African American _____ American Indian _____ Asian _____ Caucasian _____ Hispanic _____ Other _____
(Please Specify)
7. Religion: _____ Catholic _____ Protestant _____ Jewish _____ Muslim _____ Buddhist _____ Hindu _____ Other _____
(Please Specify)
8. Where do you live? _____ On campus _____ Off campus
9. Have you ever been in a dating relationship? _____ Yes _____ No
10. Are you currently in a dating relationship? _____ Yes _____ No _____ Other

**** If you are not currently in a dating relationship, please consider a past meaningful dating relationship with someone of the opposite sex, while answering this questionnaire.**

If you have not been in a dating relationship, then please skip to question number 21.

11. What is your partner's age? _____
12. What is your partner's gender? _____ Male _____ Female
13. What is your partner's ethnicity? _____ African American _____ American Indian _____ Asian _____ Caucasian _____ Hispanic _____ Other _____
(Please Specify)
14. How would you define the status of the dating relationship you presently have or have had with this person?
_____ Casual dating _____ Steady dating _____ Serious dating
_____ Pre-engaged _____ Engaged
15. How long have you been in this relationship?
_____ 0-2 weeks _____ 2-4 weeks _____ 1 month _____ 1-3 months
_____ 3-6 months _____ 6-9 months _____ 9-12 months _____ 12-18 months
_____ 18-24 months _____ More than 24 months

16. How many hours a week do you see your boyfriend/girlfriend? _____
17. Do you and your boyfriend/girlfriend only date each other? ____ Yes ____ No
18. Have you and your boyfriend/girlfriend discussed and agreed to date only each other? ____ Yes ____ No
19. Do you view your relationship as exclusive (you and your partner will only date each other)? ____ Yes ____ No
20. In your opinion, do you think that your partner views your relationship as exclusive (you will only date each other)? ____ Yes ____ No
21. If two persons were in a serious dating relationship (in other words, they have assumed that they will only date each other), which of the following behaviors with another person would constitute being "unfaithful"? **Check all that apply.**

- ____ Spending an evening with someone else at their house
- ____ Going to the movies
- ____ Going out to dinner in a secluded place
- ____ Dancing with him or her
- ____ Sexual interactions (flirting/kissing/necking/petting)
- ____ Sexual intercourse
- ____ Emotionally involved with someone else
- ____ Chat room communications on the Internet
- ____ Cybersex on the Internet
- ____ Other Please describe _____

22. What are some reasons a person in a serious dating relationship would be "unfaithful" to a dating partner? (Please rank all of the items that apply from 1 -10, with 1= the most important reason)

- ____ Dissatisfaction with relationship
- ____ Boredom
- ____ Revenge/Anger
- ____ Jealousy
- ____ Looking for variety/ Experimentation
- ____ Lack of commitment to relationship
- ____ Falling in love with another person
- ____ Sexual problems in the relationship
- ____ Involved in a long distance relationship
- ____ Prove sexual attractiveness/ Raise self esteem
- ____ Other Please describe _____

****If you have not been in a dating relationship, then please skip to question number 55**

23. Have you ever been "unfaithful" to your partner? Yes ____ No ____

24. What is the greatest extent that you have been sexually involved with someone other than your dating partner? (Please check the one that best describes your involvement)

☐ No sexual or physical involvement
☐ Kissing
☐ Hugging and caressing
☐ Petting (Sexual touching or fondling in an attempt to produce erotic arousal without intercourse)
☐ Oral sex (Stimulation of the male or female genitals by the use of the tongue, lips, and mouth).
☐ Sexually intimate without intercourse (Contact between genitals without penetration)
☐ Sexual intercourse.
☐ Other, please describe _____

25. What is the greatest extent that you have been emotionally involved (romantically involved without having sexual intercourse, "in love") with someone other than your dating partner? (Please check the one that best describes your involvement)

☐ No emotional involvement
☐ Slight emotional involvement
☐ Moderate emotional involvement
☐ Strong emotional involvement
☐ Extremely deep emotional involvement

26. Take a moment to reflect on the times that you have been involved with someone other than your dating partner. How would you describe these experiences? (Please check the one that best describes your experiences)

☐ Never involved sexually or emotionally
☐ Entirely sexual
☐ Mainly sexual
☐ More sexual than emotional
☐ More emotional than sexual
☐ Mainly emotional
☐ Entirely emotional

27. How long did the extradyadic relationship last? ☐ Not applicable

☐ Less than 24 hours ☐ 1 day to 2 weeks ☐ 2 to 4 weeks
☐ 1 to 3 months ☐ 3 to 6 months ☐ 6 months to 1 year
☐ More than 1 year

28. If the extradyadic relationship (the emotional or sexual relationship with another person other than your dating partner) resulted in an unplanned pregnancy, what results would you anticipate? (Please check the one.)

☐ Strengthen the extradyadic relationship and end the dating relationship
☐ Strengthen the extradyadic relationship and have no effect on the dating relationship
☐ End extradyadic relationship and strengthen the dating relationship
☐ End extradyadic relationship and weaken the dating relationship
☐ End both relationships
☐ No effect on either relationship

Please mark the number for each item which best answers that item for you. In addition, when answering the following questions, please think about your current relationship or your most recent relationship

29. How well does your partner meet your needs?
 1 2 3 4 5
 Poorly Average Extremely Well
30. In general, how satisfied are you with your relationship?
 1 2 3 4 5
 Unsatisfied Average Extremely Satisfied
31. How good is your relationship compared to most?
 1 2 3 4 5
 Poor Average Excellent
32. How often do you wish you had not gotten into this relationship?
 1 2 3 4 5
 Never Average Very Often
33. To what extent has your relationship met your original expectations?
 1 2 3 4 5
 Hardly at all Average Completely
34. How much do you love your partner?
 1 2 3 4 5
 Not Much Average Very Much
35. How many problems are there in your relationship?
 1 2 3 4 5
 Very few Moderate Very Many
36. How likely is it that your relationship will be permanent?
 1 2 3 4 5
 Very unlikely Moderately Very likely
37. How attracted are you to either a single life style or other potential partners?
 1 2 3 4 5
 Not Much Moderately Very Much
38. How likely is it that you and your partner will be together six months from now?
 1 2 3 4 5
 Very unlikely Moderately Very likely
39. How much trouble would ending your relationship be to you personally?
 1 2 3 4 5
 Not much Moderate Very much

40. How attractive would a potential partner have to be for you to pursue a new relationship?
- | | | | | |
|---------------------|---|---------|---|-----------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Not very Attractive | | Average | | Very attractive |
41. How likely are you to pursue another relationship or single life in the future?
- | | | | | |
|---------------|---|------------|---|-------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Very unlikely | | Moderately | | Very likely |
42. How obligated do you feel to continue this relationship?
- | | | | | |
|---------------|---|------------|---|------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Hardly at all | | Moderately | | Completely |
43. In your opinion, how committed is your partner to this relationship?
- | | | | | |
|---------------|---|------------|---|------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Hardly at all | | Moderately | | Completely |
44. In your opinion, how likely is your partner to continue this relationship?
- | | | | | |
|---------------|---|------------|---|-------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Very unlikely | | Moderately | | Very likely |
45. Considering what you put into your relationship compared to what you get out of it and what your partner puts in compared to what he or she gets out of it, how does your relationship stack up? (Please check **one** that best fits your relationship)
- ☐ My partner is getting a much better deal
☐ My partner is getting a moderately better deal
☐ My partner is getting a slightly better deal
☐ We are both getting an equally good or bad deal
☐ I am getting a slightly better deal than my partner
☐ I am getting a moderately better deal than my partner
☐ I am getting a much better deal than my partner

Using the following scale please answer the questions below.

- | | | | | | | | | |
|--|-----------------------|------------------|------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|------------------------|------------------|-----------------------|
| | Extremely
Positive | Very
Positive | Moderately
Positive | Slightly
Positive | Slightly
Negative | Moderately
Negative | Very
Negative | Extremely
Negative |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
46. All things considered, how would you describe your contributions to your relationship?
- | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
47. All things considered, how would you describe your partner's contributions to your relationship?
- | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
48. All things considered, how would you describe your outcomes from your relationship?
- | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
49. All things considered, how would you describe your partner's outcomes from your relationship?
- | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

Please use the following scale to answer the following questions about your relationship.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5
50. My partner and I understand each other completely.	1	2	3	4	5
51. My partner completely understands and sympathizes with my every mood	1	2	3	4	5
52. There are times when my partner does things that make me unhappy.	1	2	3	4	5
53. Every new thing I have I learned about my partner has pleased me.	1	2	3	4	5
54. My partner has all the qualities I've always wanted in a mate.	1	2	3	4	5

The following questions concern your attitude regarding premarital sexual intercourse and dating relationships. Please choose the number that best represents your opinion.

	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6
55. I believe that premarital sexual intercourse is acceptable if one is in a love relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	6
56. I believe that premarital sexual intercourse is acceptable if one is in a relationship involving strong affection.	1	2	3	4	5	6
57. I believe that premarital sexual intercourse is acceptable if one is in a relationship involving moderate amounts of affection.	1	2	3	4	5	6
58. I believe that premarital sexual intercourse is acceptable even if one is in a relationship without much affection.	1	2	3	4	5	6
59. It is acceptable for a male in a committed dating relationship to engage in erotic kissing with someone other than his dating partner	1	2	3	4	5	6
60. It is acceptable for a male in a committed dating relationship to engage in petting with someone other than his dating partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
61. It is acceptable for a male in a committed dating relationship to engage in sexual intercourse with someone other than his dating partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
62. It is acceptable for a female in a committed dating relationship to engage in erotic kissing with someone other than her dating partner	1	2	3	4	5	6
63. It is acceptable for a female in a committed dating relationship to engage in petting with someone other than her dating partner	1	2	3	4	5	6
64. It is acceptable for a female in a committed dating relationship to engage in sexual intercourse with someone other than her dating partner.	1	2	3	4	5	6
65. It is acceptable for a married person to engage in erotic kissing with someone other than his or her marriage partner	1	2	3	4	5	6

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5	6

66. It is acceptable for a married person to engage in petting with someone other than his or her marriage partner. 1 2 3 4 5 6
67. It is acceptable for a married person to engage in sexual intercourse with someone other than his or her marriage partner. 1 2 3 4 5 6

Please answer all of the following questions honestly and as accurately as you can.

68. With how many different partners have you had sexual intercourse within the past year? ____
69. How many different partners do you foresee yourself having sexual intercourse with during the next five years? (Please give a specific, realistic estimate). ____
70. With how many different partners have you had a one night stand (sex on one and only one occasion)? ____
71. How often do you fantasize about having sex with someone other than your current dating partner? (Check one)
- ____ never
 - ____ once every two or three months
 - ____ once a month
 - ____ once every two weeks
 - ____ once a week
 - ____ a few times each week
 - ____ nearly every day
 - ____ at least once a day
72. How long did you know your boy/girlfriend before you had sexual intercourse?
- ____ Less than 1 week
 - ____ More than a week, but less than a month
 - ____ 1-2 months
 - ____ 3-5 months
 - ____ 6-10 months
 - ____ 11-15 months
 - ____ 16-24 months
 - ____ More than 2 years
 - ____ Never had sexual intercourse

73. If an unplanned pregnancy resulted from having sexual intercourse with your boy/girlfriend, what results would you anticipate? (Please check one)

☐ Get married
☐ Strengthen the relationship but will not get married
☐ Weaken the relationship
☐ End the relationship
☐ No effect on the relationship
☐ Other Please describe _____

74. How would you rate yourself on attitudes concerning premarital sexual behavior?

☐ Very conservative/traditional
☐ Moderately conservative
☐ Slightly conservative
☐ Slightly permissive
☐ Moderately permissive
☐ Very permissive

75. Sex without love is okay.

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

76. I can imagine myself being comfortable and enjoying casual sex with different partners.

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

77. I would have to be closely attached to someone (both emotionally and psychologically) before I could feel comfortable and fully enjoy having sex with him or her.

Strongly disagree Strongly agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

78. Rate how confident you feel that there is an equally desirable alternative relationship currently available.

Not at all Totally
Confident Confident

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

79. Looking at your current relationship, check which available alternative seems the most desirable?

☐ Ending the relationship and dating someone else
☐ Ending the relationship and being without involvement
☐ Keeping the relationship the same
☐ Progressing the relationship to a more serious stage (e.g., cohabitating, getting engaged, or getting married)
☐ Having an extradyadic relationship/ getting involved with another person while in a serious dating relationship
☐ Not applicable

80. How much time do you think it would take you to find another desirable alternative dating relationship?

☐ Less than one month
☐ 2-4 months
☐ 4-6 months
☐ 6 months to 1 year
☐ More than 1 year

81. Please check all the statements that apply to your likes or the way you feel.

☐ I have no patience with dull or boring persons.
☐ I prefer friends who are excitingly unpredictable.
☐ I usually don't enjoy a movie or a play where I can predict what will happen in advance.
☐ I can't stand watching a movie that I've seen before.
☐ I sometimes like to do things that are a little frightening.
☐ I like wild "uninhibited" parties.
☐ I often like to get high (drinking alcohol or using drugs).
☐ I like to have new and exciting experiences and sensations even if they are a little unconventional or illegal.
☐ I like to date members of the opposite sex who are physically exciting.
☐ A person should have considerable sexual experience before marriage.
☐ I think I would enjoy the sensations of skiing very fast down a high mountain slope.
☐ I would like to try parachute jumping.

APPENDIX C

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW

Date: February 24, 1998

IRB #: HE-98-058

Proposal Title: EXTRADYADIC RELATIONSHIPS IN PREMARITAL COUPLES: GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE FACTORS INFLUENCING EXTRADYADIC INVOLVEMENT

Principal Investigator(s): Kathleen Briggs, Rebecca Jovanovich

Reviewed and Processed as: Expedited

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

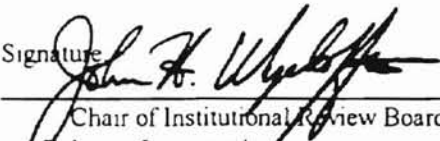
ALL APPROVALS MAY BE SUBJECT TO REVIEW BY FULL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD AT NEXT MEETING, AS WELL AS ARE SUBJECT TO MONITORING AT ANY TIME DURING THE APPROVAL PERIOD.

APPROVAL STATUS PERIOD VALID FOR DATA COLLECTION FOR A ONE CALENDAR YEAR PERIOD AFTER WHICH A CONTINUATION OR RENEWAL REQUEST IS REQUIRED TO BE SUBMITTED FOR BOARD APPROVAL.

ANY MODIFICATIONS TO APPROVED PROJECT MUST ALSO BE SUBMITTED FOR APPROVAL.

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Disapproval are as follows:

Signature


Chair of Institutional Review Board
cc: Rebecca Jovanovich

Date: February 27, 1998

VITA

Rebecca Ann Jovanovich

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis. EXTRADYADIC RELATIONSHIPS IN PREMARITAL COUPLES
GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE FACTORS INFLUENCING
EXTRADYADIC INVOLVEMENT

Major Field: Family Relations and Child Development

Biographical:

Personal Data. Born in Englewood, Colorado, on July 16, 1972, the daughter of Neill and Norma McDaniel.

Education. Graduated from Douglas County High School, Castle Rock, Colorado in June of 1990, received Associate of Science degree in Psychology from Ricks College, Rexburg, Idaho in April of 1992; received Bachelor of Science degree in Psychology from Brigham Young University in April of 1994, completed the requirements for the Master of Science degree in Family Science at Oklahoma State University in July 1998

Experience: Internship at The Center for Family Services, Stillwater, Oklahoma, January 1997 to December 1997 .