

INTERGENERATIONAL PROCESSES OF SEXUAL AGENCY AND SEXUAL SATISFACTION
WITH PARENT-YOUTH DYADS, MODERATED BY INTERSECTING IDENTITIES

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DEDICATION

I want to dedicate this dissertation to my family- past, present, and future generations. To my grandparents for valuing education and family above all else. To my dad for doing the best he could with what he had and consistently trying to leave things better than when he found them. To my mom for her selfless dedication in providing for her children and grandchildren. To Heather for literally being with me since day one, embodying grace, and breaking the cycle. To Matthew for being the epitome of loyalty. To Michael for continuing to choose recovery each day. To Alex, for loving the person I did not believe I could become and sharing your life with me. While the Eddy and Munro branches of our family tree are like night and day, both sides taught me that I am fiercely loved, to be passionately curious, and that integrity is who you are when no one is watching. It seems only fitting that the latest branch (Monteleone) does the same.

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ABSTRACT

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INTERGENERATIONAL PROCESSES OF SEXUAL AGENCY AND SEXUAL SATISFACTION WITH PARENT-YOUTH DYADS, MODERATED BY INTERSECTING IDENTITIES

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To date, an insufficient amount of research takes a contemporary stance towards youth (operationalized as adolescence and early emerging adulthood) sexuality by viewing sexual exploration as a normative, ethical, and foundational imperative for developing satisfying and healthy sexual relationships in adulthood (Bay-Cheng, 2019; Halpern, 2023). Despite youth sexual development at the intersection of family and broader socio-cultural systems (Kaestle et al., 2021), familial and sociocultural influences on youth sexual agency and sexual satisfaction have been predominantly examined from single-axis viewpoints. Thus, there is a profound need for these constructs to be explored within a feminist-informed family systems framework. This study examined sexual agency, sexual satisfaction, and intersecting identities using a sample from the German Panel Analysis of Intimate Relationships and Family Dynamics (pairfam; Brüderl, Garrett, et al., 2022; Brüderl, Schmiedeberg, et al., 2022; Huinink et al., 2011). An actor-partner interdependence moderation model (Garcia et al., 2015a; Kenny et al., 2006) and latent structural equation modeling (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000; Maslowsky et al., 2014) was utilized to examine how the latent moderating variable of social class impacts the strength and direction of the relationship between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction within parent-youth dyads. Understanding the relationship between intersecting identities, intergenerational processes, sexual agency, and sexual satisfaction could inform specific interventions for parents and youth. Examining positive facets of sexual well-being (i.e., sexual agency and sexual satisfaction) may counterintuitively yield insight into preventative measures against sexual risk (Harden, 2014). Finally, clinical implications and future steps were considered.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Youth is a unique developmental stage, the transition between life as a dependent being (childhood) and expectations of independent living (adulthood). During this time, youth navigate risks and opportunities that have the potential to impact their life well into old age (Liang et al., 2019a). Youth is a pivotal stage of development referred to as “a window of opportunity,” a time when youth are primed for shaping the behaviors that tend to become ingrained during adulthood and have both an immediate and long-term impact on health (Zimmerman et al., 2019). Growing evidence suggests that sexual exploration in youth is considered an ethical imperative, given that it forms “the foundation of sexual and relational [competency] in adulthood” (Bay-Cheng, 2019, p. 137). Further data indicates bidirectional pathways between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction (Brasileiro et al., 2021; Couture et al., 2022; Hensel et al., 2011; Zimmer-Gembeck, 2013; Zimmer-Gembeck et al., 2011), making sexual exploration in youth an essential developmental milestone in preparation for satisfying romantic relationships in adulthood (Halpern, 2010; Haydon et al., 2014). Chmielewski and colleagues' (2020) findings support the assumption that youth's “sexually agentic feelings about having pleasurable as well as safe sexual experiences mutually encouraged each other” (p. 10). These studies support the need for a greater understanding of moderating factors that shape the development of sexual agency and sexual satisfaction.

Sexuality researchers have been challenged to examine contextual and reciprocal factors, such as the interaction of families, cultural differences, and youth sexuality, to understand sexual well-being better (Halpern, 2010, 2023; Haydon et al., 2014). Research on youth sexual development posits that sexual agency might be a proximal measure of wellness because “sexual well-being is about sexual empowerment, where agency and resources play a key role in determining youths' ability to navigate their surrounding contexts” (Kågesten & van Reeuwijk, 2021, pp. 3–4). Additionally, sexual well-being cannot be measured with behaviors alone, such as frequency data on sexual engagement, but requires assessing psychological measurements, such as sexual agency and sexual satisfaction, to understand the process fully (Halpern, 2010). Thus, there is a great need to examine the potentially positive intersection of

youth's sexual behavior and function (sexual agency and sexual satisfaction) and context (families and intersecting identities) as likely reciprocal and bidirectional constructs of overall sexual health and wellness (Haydon et al., 2014; Hensel et al., 2011; Impett & Tolman, 2006).

Multiple pathways between parent-youth relationships and youth sexual outcomes exist, yet there remains a great need to understand how parental relationships shape their children's sexual outcomes (Pop & Rusu, 2019). This study expands on extant research on the relationship between intersecting identities, intergenerational processes, sexual agency, and sexual satisfaction in parents and youth. The sample for this study came from the German Panel Analysis of Intimate Relationships and Family Dynamics (pairfam; Brüderl, Garrett, et al., 2022; Brüderl, Schmiedeberg, et al., 2022; Huinink et al., 2011). A detailed data analysis plan provides an overview of an actor-partner interdependence moderation model (APIMoM; Garcia et al., 2015a, 2015b) examining the relationship between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction between and within parent-youth dyads. Moderation using latent structural equation modeling (LMS; Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000; Maslowsky et al., 2014) expanded the APIMoM model to explore when and for whom sexual agency is associated with sexual satisfaction (Garcia et al., 2015a; Hall & Sammons, 2013). Understanding the relationship between intersecting identities, intergenerational processes, sexual agency, and sexual satisfaction could inform specific interventions for parents and youth. Examining positive facets of sexual well-being (i.e., sexual agency and sexual satisfaction) may counterintuitively yield insight into preventative measures against sexual risk (Halpern, 2010). Finally, clinical implications and future steps were considered.

Statement of the Problem

This study addressed three interwoven problems within the current research on youth and family sexual development. First, the bulk of literature on youth sexual development and health tends to examine pathology (i.e., sexually transmitted illness (STI), unwanted pregnancy, mental illness) or preventative behaviors (i.e., contraception use, sexual delay/refusal skills). Furthermore, a critique of attitudes towards youth sexuality in the 1980s is still relevant today: "The distinction of [sexual] coercion and [sexual] consent has been organized simply and respectively around age and marital status — which effectively

resolves any complexity and ambivalence” (Fine, 1988, p. 42). Pathologizing sexual behavior problematizes it rather than contextualizing sexuality within broader sociocultural conditions (Glick, 2000; Ivanski & Kohut, 2017). For example, statistics on high rates of STIs in youth may be a symptom of the lack of comprehensive education. Similarly, it could be that sexual dysfunction is a symptom of the lack of healthy and satisfying sexual engagement. Centering preventative behavior in youth sexuality research affirms what should be done to prevent pathology if, and only if, one engages in sexual conduct. Risk/deficit paradigms frame sexual behavior in youth as inherently problematic rather than as a critical developmental milestone and ethical imperative (Harden, 2014). For instance, it would be considered gross neglect to approach similar milestones in youth (e.g., motor, verbal, or interpersonal skills) from an if-and-only-if standpoint (e.g., If and only if you must learn to walk at such a young age, please wear a helmet, avoid sharp corners, and do so away from the family home; Bay-Cheng et al., 2009). Conversely, emerging paradigm shifts in the sexual research community center positive outcomes (i.e., intimacy, pleasure, satisfaction), thereby conveying that youth’s sexual behavior is not inherently good nor bad and is, in fact, developmentally appropriate, normative, and possibly beneficial with support and guidance. Redirecting away from if/when and towards how/with what support has the potential to tap powerful mechanisms to achieve overall health and success in life. Crucially, sex-positive approaches require a both/and stance (both pleasure and prevention) while navigating sexuality (Harden, 2014).

Please note, within the context of this study, ‘normative’ does not imply sexual activity, abstinence, or anything in between as being privileged or prioritized. Culturally normative refers to what is considered socially acceptable within a given cultural context (Lansford et al., 2023) and implies that human beings, regardless of age, are entitled to be regarded as sexual beings (Bay-Cheng, 2013). Behaviors considered culturally normative may also indicate social competency in adolescence and emerging adulthood (Lansford et al., 2023) and can thus function as benchmarks for developmental success.

Second, the assumption that parent-youth relationships are indicative of lifetime well-being for both the parent and the youth predicates nearly all systemic couple and family interventions (Cousineau et

al., 2019; Lansford et al., 2023; Schneiderman et al., 2005). Relationship qualities between parent-youth dyads transmit intergenerationally (Brüderl, Drobnič, et al., 2022; Goldberg et al., 2019; Savelieva et al., 2017; Sklar et al., 2016), resulting in parents' romantic relationships impacting their children's romantic relationships (Collins et al., 2002; Conger et al., 2000; Yoshida & Busby, 2012). Abundant data suggests that parents across the globe frequently avoid open, positive, and direct communication with youth about sexuality (especially pleasure), which negatively affects youth's sexual development (Evans et al., 2020; Flores & Barroso, 2017; Mullis et al., 2020). Additionally, research on how families shape youth sexual development has historically been limited to (1) risks and deficits, (2) parent-youth relationship quality, (3) parent-youth sexual communication (Boislard et al., 2016; Halpern, 2023; Kaestle et al., 2021). Risks/deficit frameworks for family sexual development might be considered isomorphic to the process mentioned earlier in youth sexual development research.

Third, it is well understood that implicit and explicit reciprocal processes drive how families, youth, and sociocultural surroundings bidirectionally influence one another's development (Kaestle et al., 2021). For youth, "families are the social institution at the intersection of youth development and broader social systems" (Kaestle et al., 2021, p. 874). Nevertheless, studies on intergenerationally transmitted sexual patterns (which are scarce in and of themselves) rarely incorporate a feminist-informed sex-positive framework. Failure to do so erases the overlapping systems shaping sexual development, leading to an incomplete or inaccurate conceptualization, and perpetuating historical inequity (Fahs & McClland, 2016; Jones, 2019; Mitchell et al., 2021). Age (adult/youth), gender (men/women), and roles (parent/children) are facets of an intersecting identity. Thus, examining contraception use (protection) *and* sexual satisfaction (pleasure) in youths could implicitly convey that both are equally essential outcomes for youth. Examining only contraception use in youths might implicitly perpetuate historical narratives viewing youth as irresponsible/inept and sexual behavior as dangerous/deviant. Those problematic narratives become further compounded if additional layers of identity are considered, such as gender, due to gender-based sexual scripts. If traditional scripts suggest sexual satisfaction in youth is at best unimportant and, at worst, deviant, and if purity standards suggest women's sexuality should be protected

(while men's sexual behavior is praised), adolescent girls stand at a precarious intersection not of their own making.

For these reasons, the current study examined the theoretically and empirically supported dyadic process of intersecting identities and positive sexual development within a family system on the presumption that parents, youth, and society co-develop simultaneously (Bay-Cheng, 2013). Though healthy sexual development occurs across the lifespan, youth sexual development might be the fulcrum for lifelong healthy sexuality (Halpern, 2023). Thus, I addressed the above concerns by focusing on the sexual agency, sexual satisfaction, and intersecting identities of parents and their youth within a feminist-informed family systems framework.

Purpose of the Study

This study utilized a feminist-informed family systems theory to empirically examine the relationship between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction in parent-youth dyads moderated by intersecting identities. Though influences outside of family interactions (i.e., school, media, peers) are critical factors in youth's sexual identity development, parents remain strong influencers in shaping youth's sexual futures. Among sexually active young adults, supportive parent-youth sexual communication positively correlated with long-term sexual self-esteem. These results suggest that open and comfortable sexual communication between parents and youth resulted in greater adult sexual well-being (Riggio & Saggi, 2015). Further evidence comes from the use of sexual genograms for understanding the transgenerational transmission of sexual schemas, sexual behaviors, and sexual identity development (Belous et al., 2012; Hof & Berman, 1986; Schwartz, 2011). Ultimately, increases in positive parent-youth sexual communication improved greater youth sexual agency (Klein & Brunner, 2018), sexual autonomy (Verbeek et al., 2020), and sexual self-esteem (Foshay & O'Sullivan, 2020), suggesting that both the content and process are relevant variables (Astle & Anders, 2022).

Sexual development research gaps this study attempted to address included insufficient literature grounded in sex positivity, a normative and positive approach toward youth sexuality. Youth aged 15 to 26 were used to address this gap. As such, I assumed that youth sexual experimentation is a necessary,

inevitable, and ethical path toward helping youth acquire sexual skills and competencies that are foundational for adult health and wellness (Bay-Cheng, 2013; Fortenberry, 2013a, 2013b; Tolman & McClelland, 2011). To balance decades of risk-deficit research on youth sexual development, I targeted sexual satisfaction outcomes. Sexual satisfaction is a facet of sexual wellness, which is a “marker of equity” and is considered a “meaningful population indicator” of health (Mitchell et al., 2021, p. e611; WHO, 2020). While sexual satisfaction has been examined at length for adults, few studies explore what sexual satisfaction might look like in youth. It stood to reason that identifying possible pathways towards increased sexual satisfaction can positively impact the overall well-being of youth.

Furthermore, the feminist-informed family systems approach toward youth sexuality was another gap this study addressed. As a public health issue, sexuality must be examined with an interconnected framework that accounts for individual, family, and societal systems (Kaestle et al., 2021; Mitchell et al., 2021). Sexual identity, including sexual script development, begins in childhood and is influenced by parent-youth interactions (Astle & Anders, 2022; Evans et al., 2020; Flores & Barroso, 2017; Kaestle et al., 2021; Wiederman, 2005). Families represent the nexus that connects youth to society (Kaestle et al., 2021), and parents are predominant influencers in youth’s sexual socialization (de Graaf et al., 2010; De Graaf et al., 2018; Martin et al., 2007; Nurgitz et al., 2021). Abundant literature connects parent-youth communication to short-term sexual wellness in youth and long-term sexual wellness in adults (Evans et al., 2020; Flores & Barroso, 2017; Grey et al., 2022; McKay & Fontenot, 2020; Mullis et al., 2020).

This study’s methodology addressed the gap in feminist-informed family systems research in three ways: (a) sample, (b) measures, and (c) analysis. First, two generations were included in this study (parents and their children) to examine sexual communication within a family system. Intergenerational research can guide parents and communities on how to support their youth’s sexual development. Second, parent-level and youth-level measurements yielded novel insight into sexual communication within a family system and a romantic partnership as separate but interconnected perspectives. Measuring how people in the dyad interacted with their respective sexual partners captured a unique insight into potentially bidirectional influences. Results help guide systemic interventions intended to change

intergenerational patterns of sexual communication and sexual satisfaction. Third, I employed statistical analysis that simultaneously examined (rather than controlling for) the multifaceted identity of parents and youth. In doing so, the possibility of identifying sources of strength was embedded in compounded identities while also yielding insight into populations that may currently be under-resourced.

Bay-Cheng (2013) stated that “deficit- and fear-based notions of young people’s sexuality are not just attributes of abstinence-only policies and programs; rather, they are indicative of a broader cultural association – if not equation – of risk and youth sexuality” (p. 142) and suggested to equate instead “enabling sexual development” with “ensuring sexual safety” (p. 133). One possible method of disrupting that equation was to pursue countercultural research. Therefore, my study contributed to a long overdue paradigm shift in which antiquated narratives of sexual development are challenged.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The relationship between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction is well established, as are single-axis factors that impact both constructs (i.e., gender and socioeconomics). Furthermore, the intergenerational impact on sexual agency (Brassard et al., 2015) and sexual satisfaction (Rossetto & Tollison, 2017) have individually been explored in previous studies. Therefore, the current study examined the previously mentioned relationships in novel ways by using an APIMoM (Chow et al., 2015; Garcia et al., 2015a, 2015b; Kenny et al., 2006) in which the link between sexual agency (predictor variable) and sexual satisfaction (outcome variable) was moderated by intersecting identities. Notably, known institutional inequity related to gender and age could support the assumption that parents (versus youth) and fathers/mothers (versus sons/daughters) will have greater sexual agency and satisfaction than their counterparts. However, a sex-positive framework focuses on well-being rather than deficit or dysfunction. Furthermore, a lack of intersectional research on intergenerational sexual legacies leaves little evidence for hypothesizing gender-based between-group differences. Consequently, I attempted to balance theoretical frameworks by grounding this study’s purpose and methodology in feminist-informed family systems theory while privileging sex-positive and family-systems theory in my research questions

and hypotheses. Three main research questions were addressed, along with three primary hypotheses, which are also listed below. See Table 1 for a concise reference to hypotheses.

1. Actor Effects:

- R1. How is one's sexual agency associated with their own sexual satisfaction across roles (parent/youth) and gender (father/mother and son/daughter) in a family system (dyad)?
- H1. Based on previous research suggesting that sexual agency is positively related to sexual satisfaction in adults, I hypothesized that positive actor effects will be observed between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction regardless of the participant's role (parent or youth). When parents or youth indicate low sexual agency, actor effects will result in self-reported lower levels of sexual satisfaction.

2. Partner Effects:

- R2. How are intergenerational processes of sexual agency associated with sexual satisfaction across roles (parent/youth) and gender (father/mother and son/daughter) in a family system (dyad)?
- H2. Based on empirical evidence supporting intergenerational transmission of sexual frequency (Yabiku & Newmyer, 2022), sexual communication (Grossman & Richer, 2023), and sexual satisfaction (McNulty et al., 2016), and evidence suggesting parents are the initial and strongest influences of youth's gender-based sexual scripts (Rossetto & Tollison, 2017), I hypothesized that positive parent-partner effects will be observed between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction. Though the theoretical tenets of family systems theory and intersecting identities support the assumption of a bidirectional relationship, the lack of empirical evidence led me to hypothesize that the significant youth Partner effects will not be observed.

3. Interaction Effects:

- R3. How do intergenerational processes of intersecting identities moderate sexual agency and sexual satisfaction associations across roles (parent/youth) and gender (father/mother and son/daughter) in a family system (dyad)?
- H3. Framed by feminist-informed theory of intersecting identities, I hypothesized that intersecting identities will significantly moderate the relationship between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction. Though intersecting identities do not necessarily equate to the deficit, there is sufficient evidence that financial stressors influence sexual behaviors and health. Like H2, I hypothesize that parent social class will positively and significantly moderate actor and partner effects, whereas youth social class will not be significantly impactful.

Key Definitions

The following section briefly defines salient terms employed throughout the study and are organized alphabetically rather than by importance.

- Gender: Gender was defined as a social structure (Risman, 2004) that effectively stratifies one's lived experience and is assumed to be an inherent form of group-based power (Pratto & Espinoza, 2001). Gender-based power delineates divergent "individual behavior and interpersonal relations based on assumed differences between men and women" (Horne & Johnson, 2019). The term gender is employed with three distinct assumptions: (a) gender-based power is asserted at the familial and societal levels such that their arbitrary institutional hierarchies privilege men and subordinate women, (b) gender is a key link between systems of age and who has control over their own sexuality (Pratto & Espinoza, 2001), and (c) parents are the first and arguably most influential socializers to imbue stereotypical gender ideologies in their children (Rossetto & Tollison, 2017).
- Intersecting Identity: Examining identity and power as mutually constituted, conceptualizing identity as stratified by privilege and oppression (Crenshaw, 1989, 1991; del Rio Gonzalez et

al., 2021). Feminist informed framework guided the inquiry, methods, analysis, and interpretation of research (Few-Demo, 2014). The current study specifically assesses the intersection of age, gender, and social class with the assumption that each is intricately connected to familial processes and sexual well-being.

- Normative: What is socially acceptable within a cultural context (Lansford et al., 2023). Sexually ‘normative’ does not privilege or prioritize sexual activity, abstinence, or anything in between; it views human beings, regardless of age, as entitled to be regarded as sexual beings (Bay-Cheng, 2013).
- Roles: The dyadic familial relationship between group members referred to father-youths, mother-youths, parents-sons, and parents-daughters. As such, roles also delineate societal stratifications of inequitable power and obligation between parents and youth and fathers/sons and mothers/daughters (Pratto & Espinoza, 2001). Parents are the de facto authority as a function of their age (old versus young), whereas youths’ vulnerability positions them as subordinates (Pratto & Espinoza, 2001). Fathers (men) are the de facto authority in patriarchal societies compared to mothers (women) as a function of gender (Pratto & Espinoza, 2001). Similarly, familial and societal hierarchies position sons over daughters.
- Sex Positivity: Feminist origins; examining sexuality and power as mutually constituted, conceptualizing sexuality as not inherently problematic nor liberating but as having the potential to be valuable and healthy (Glick, 2000; Harden, 2014; Maes et al., 2023).
- Sexual Agency: Individual and social capacity to shape “immediate experiences and the longer courses of [one’s life] through sexuality” (Bay-Cheng, 2019, p. 463). The link between sexual self-efficacy (*knowing*), sexual communication (*doing*), and sexual wellness (*being*; Kågesten & van Reeuwijk, 2021). Sexual agency was employed with the assumption that an inherent power imbalance exists at the intersection of gender and age (Pratto & Espinoza, 2001).

- Sexual Communication: Implicitly and explicitly sharing sexual wants and desires with a sexual partner; also, sometimes called sexual disclosure (Harris et al., 2014). Sexual communication was employed assuming that societal and familial power imbalances by age and gender shape sexual communication such that adults (parents) and men's sexual communication is praised. In contrast, youth and women's sexual communication is silenced.
- Sexual Satisfaction: "The degree to which an individual is satisfied or happy with the sexual aspect of his or her relationship" (Sprecher & Cate, 2004, p. 236). Framed "both as a construct and as an experience, influenced by individual, social and cultural factors" (Ogallar-Blanco et al., 2022, p. 1). Considered an "umbrella term" for pleasurable agentic experiences to determine a subjective, relational, and global evaluation of individual or partnered sexuality, "which may include being satisfied with having no sexual activity" (Alarcão et al., 2022, p. 2). This term was employed with three distinct assumptions: (a) the pleasure gap phenomenon (Laan et al., 2021; Wetzel & Sanchez, 2022) is a symptom of gender-based sexual satisfaction inequity, (b) societal and familial constructs frame satisfaction as deviance for youth and women, (c) the bulk of human sexuality research erase sexual pleasure and marginalization to focus deficit and risk (Jones, 2019) instead; this is especially true for youth and women.
- Sexual Self-Efficacy: Self-perceived sense of control over one's sexual behaviors, experiences, and outcomes (Assarzadeh et al., 2019; Bandura, 1982). This term is employed with two distinct assumptions: (a) The perception of controlling one's own sexuality intersects with tangible markers of societal and familial inequity whereby governmental control over women and youth's sexuality (i.e., regulating reproductive rights; lack of sexual education regulation) and (b) familial legacies privilege/encourages sexual behavior in sons and protects/restricts them in daughters.

- **Social Class:** Stratified ranking system indicating access to societal resources, materials, and support (Durante & Fiske, 2017). Composite variable comprised of economic/financial deprivation (EFD; Schwarz et al., 1997, as cited in Thönnissen et al., 2021), and subjective social status (SSS; Operario et al., 2004). This term was employed with the assumption that societal and familial institutions of social class have a strong and complex relationship with sexual wellness and financial/societal privilege is transmitted intergenerationally.
- **Youth:** Parsimonious term referred to adolescent and emerging or young adults aged approximately 15 to 26 years old (Bay-Cheng et al., 2021; Suleiman et al., 2017). The terms youth and emerging adult are intermittently applied to signify pubertal onset (youth) and the later phases of sexual maturation (emerging/young adult; Suleiman et al., 2017). Within the context of this study, youth are assumed to hold less familial and societal power relative to adult counterparts (parents), and therefore, regarding youth as a marginalized population (Bay-Cheng et al., 2021).

Summary

Despite evidence supporting youth sexuality as a normative developmental process, most research focuses on risk-based exploration of youth sexuality (Fortenberry, 2014a, 2014b; Halpern, 2023; Jones, 2019; Tolman & McClelland, 2011). Imperative as sexual exploration in youth might be (Bay-Cheng, 2019) as the foundation for adult sexual wellness (Zimmerman et al., 2019), the skills necessary for achieving satisfaction within partnered sexual experiences are far from intuitive (Jones et al., 2018). Sexual agency, examined within familial and socio-cultural contexts, may provide insight into healthy sexual development in youth. Given that sexual agency is “closely shaped by, and shaping, the agency of intimate partners as well as other people in [one’s] social networks” (Kågesten & van Reeuwijk, 2021, p.7), the dyadic analysis examined sexual agency as a parallel process. Moderation analysis helped reconceptualize sexual agency and sexual satisfaction as reflections of societal and familial equity rather than personal traits. Such an approach redirects interventions away from targeting individuals and towards addressing the systems shaping the sexual lives of youth (Bay-Cheng, 2019). Furthermore, moderation in

this study assumes that intertwining structural and societal conditions are inseparable from women and youth's sexual agency and sexual satisfaction, aligned with a feminist-informed family systems approach, and expanded extant sex-positive literature.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Youth, referring to adolescents and emerging adulthood (Bay-Cheng et al., 2021), is a critical time for foundational conversations, decisions, and experiences that impact outcomes related to adult health and wellness (De Meyer et al., 2022). A vital milestone in youth includes navigating romantic relationships and sexual intimacy (Conger et al., 2010; Lanz & Tagliabue, 2007; Mishra et al., 2010; Pfaus et al., 2012). Despite this, the bulk of research exploring sexual development in youth fails to frame it as a developmentally typical and ethically imperative task rather than inherently riddled with risk (Bay-Cheng, 2013; Horne & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2005; Långström & Hanson, 2006; Tolman & McClelland, 2011; Vasilenko et al., 2011; Vasilenko et al., 2012; Zimmer-Gembeck et al., 2011). That said, a paradigm shift in contemporary youth sexual health research paves the way for taking a developmental (i.e., sexual exploration in youth is typical/healthy) and sociopolitical (i.e., incorporating context and ethics) stance. The overlap of sexual health, youth development, and family systems is increasingly recognized as the inseparable and mutually constituted intersection of public (societal) and private (familial) institutions (Few-Demo et al., 2014; Few-Demo & Allen, 2020; Glick, 2000; Kaestle et al., 2021; Mayseless & Keren, 2014; Rauer et al., 2013). Much like societal systems of privileges and inequities transmit across generations of families, familial systems of privileges and inequities shape the societies in which they live. For example, intergenerational sexual wellness and socioeconomic interactions can have immediate and longstanding ramifications (Bay-Cheng, 2013; Cheng et al., 2014), such that youth sexual health serves as a proxy for equity, justice, economic development, and well-being at the familial and societal level (Higgins et al., 2022; Mitchell et al., 2021; World Health Organization, 2006). Sexual health as a proxy for equity and justice “is not merely the absence of disease, dysfunction or infirmity” (World Health Organization, 2006, p. 9) but a multifaceted construct inclusive of sexual agency and sexual satisfaction (Bucx & Seiffge-Krenke, 2010; Hadiwijaya et al., 2020; Meeus, 2016; Seiffge-Krenke, 2003; Seiffge-Krenke et al., 2010; Walper & Wendt, 2015). Thus, whether examining

sexual health and development in individual youth, family systems, or social systems, moving beyond a risk/deficit approach is critical.

The bridge connecting sociocultural contexts, intergenerational family processes, and youth sexual health for the current study is underpinned by feminist-informed family systems theory and sex positivity frameworks. The family systems in which youth development occurs are mutually constituted with sociocultural influence such that intergenerational processes and intersecting identities shape sexual development and overall health/wellness in youth (Kaestle et al., 2021; Mayseless & Keren, 2014; Rauer et al., 2013). The specific pathways in which youth learn to form healthy, agentic, and satisfying sexual relationships remain largely unexplored due to the long-standing focus on risk/deficit. However, extant research suggests that the parent-youth relationship predicts youth romantic and sexual partnerships. Understanding how parent-level sexuality (sexual experiences between a parent and the parent's sexual partner) might influence youth-level sexuality (sexual experiences between youth and the youth's sexual partner) within the context of intersecting identities represents a gap in current research. Intergenerational patterns of relationship satisfaction (Yoshida & Busby, 2012) and sexual frequency (Yabiku & Newmyer, 2022), sexual onset (Johnson & Tyler, 2007), and sexual empowerment (Quijano-Ruiz & Faytong-Haro, 2021), support exploration into intergenerational patterns of sexual satisfaction and sexual agency. Therefore, this literature review begins with theoretical overviews, followed by youth sexual development at the individual and family level, before addressing the key constructs of sexual satisfaction and sexual agency.

Theoretical Framework

Feminist-Informed Family Systems Theory

A foundational tenet within family systems theory is that members are mutually influenced, and relational processes like values and beliefs are transmitted across generations (Kerr & Capaldi, 2019; Kerr & Bowen, 1988). Relational templates originate, develop, and transmit within and across shared realities of a family system for youth to use throughout their lifetimes when engaging with others (Samfira, 2022) via intergenerational transmission of implicit and explicit processes (Rauscher et al., 2020; Rossetto &

Tollison, 2017). Parents lay the groundwork for how their children navigate romantic partnerships, including relational conflict, emotional closeness, and communication (Baptist et al., 2012; Fey et al., 2023). In this way, parents are “custodians of social values,” to where their children are at times considered “bound” or “restrained” within the intergenerational relationship, much like individuals and families can be bound and restricted within societal systems (Evans, 2007; Lansford et al., 2023; Rutgers et al., 2021; Vanwesenbeeck et al., 2021, p. 211).

Feminist-informed family systems theory posits that socially stratified privilege and inequity are simultaneously learned, recreated, and intergenerationally transmitted within and between private (familial system) and public (societal system) spheres (Crosnoe, 2021; Few-Demo & Allen, 2020). Feminist and intersectional schools of thought date back to Sojourner Truth challenging an audience of abolitionist women to recognize her race and sex simultaneously (1851; McKissack, 1992); Anna Julia Cooper asserting the education of Black women is fundamental to advancement of Black people (1892); Toni Cade Bambara (1892; Bambara, 1970) shifting the published feminist gaze to include Black women; The Combahee River Collective (1977) coining the term ‘identity politics’ (Izenberg, 2016) by intersecting feminism, civil rights, and heteronormativity as mutually constituted; Frances Beal (1969a; 1969b) articulating how capitalism and sexism “doubled” the oppression faced by Black women; and Gloria Anzaldua (1987) leveraging her experiences as a queer Chicana to push the “borders” of how traditional categories like race and sex are defined. Scholarship by bell hooks underscored the longstanding intersection of capitalist, patriarchal, and racist exploitation of women’s bodies (1981), Angela Davis’ integration of Marxism with Black feminism to challenge the American prison system (1982), and Patricia Hill Collins’ outline of the ‘matrix of domination’ (1989) worked in conjunction with Crenshaw during the second wave of feminism to challenge single-axis conceptions of inequality that failed to acknowledge interlocking oppression (Moffitt et al., 2020). While historically, family system theory may have adopted neutrality, feminist-informed family systems theory explicitly calls out power imbalances.

Intersecting feminist ideology with family systems connects intergenerational processes in the family to historical and contextual processes in society (Few-Demo, 2014). It differs from traditional family systems theory by assuming socially constructed facets of identity empower and oppress individuals and families, which can be sources of conflict (Few-Demo, 2014). In the same way that family systems theory originated from the need to move beyond an individual lens and recognize the multidirectional pathways forming and constraining family lives (Alshareef & Klear, 2019), feminist theory originated from the need to recognize the social construction of identity as non-discrete, interwoven within sociopolitical and historical hierarchies of power that constitute contemporary society. Critical examination of “the mutual influences of individual and structural power on family agency (e.g., members, history, functioning) and social structures (e.g., institutions, ideologies)” is a hallmark of feminist-informed research (Rossetto & Tollison, 2017, p. 62). Attending to how family processes form (i.e., norms and expectations) and perform (i.e., roles and gender) acknowledges that interesting identity shapes behavior and can contribute to an inequitable social system (Few-Demos & Allen, 2020).

Integrating critical and family systems theories is far from a novel approach (D’Arrigo-Patrick et al., 2017; Few-Demo et al., 2014; Knudson-Martin & Mahoney, 1999; McDowell et al., 2019). Though a comprehensive review of feminist theory and family systems theory is outside the scope of this paper (see Curtis et al., 2020; Few-Demo, 2014; Few-Demo & Allen, 2020), several studies have blended the two theories because “cultural patterns of oppression are not only interrelated but are bound together and influenced by the intersectional systems of society” (Collins, 2003, p. 42). In this way, families have multiple layers of interdependent identities (i.e., class, marginal/minority race or ethnicity, gender or sexual minorities, and so on) that contribute to differing degrees of privilege and subjugation during youth sexual development. Doing so helps to understand how, when, and for whom multifaceted identities impact sexual agency and sexual satisfaction patterns intergenerationally (Harden, 2014; Manning & Denker, 2021). These theories recognize power as a critical force inherent in individual identity, relational interactions, and societal conditions, precisely, how power is reproduced and maintained within and between relationships.

All families have stratified identities that co-construct their life experiences via implicitly and explicit communication patterns (Boylorn, 2021; Thompson et al., 2022). Relational patterns and culture are co-constructed by communication and modeling such that “relationships are both cultural and communicative processes” (Scollo & Poutiainen, 2018, p. 131). Culturally prescribed identities are enacted within familial relationships, resulting in communication processes that “reproduce and maintain the asymmetries of power” (Hegde, 1996, p. 310; Rossetto & Tollison, 2017). Kaestle et al. (2021) suggest that a feminist-informed family systems framework for understanding youth sexual development attends to the process and context within a family. Family process refers to familial interactions and how families *do* sexual development with their youth (Allen & Henderson, 2017; Buehler, 2020; Daly, 2007; Kaestle et al., 2021). Family context refers to multifaceted cultural and environmental variations contributing to family processes (Allen & Henderson, 2017; Coontz, 2015; Kaestle, 2016; Kaestle et al., 2021). Family systems theory naturally overlaps with aspects of feminist theory because both view individuals as stratified by their lived experiences. However, feminist theory extends the conversation to explicitly recognize and attempt to change imbalances of power stemming from social and familial stratification.

Sex Positive Framework

Intersecting identities (examining identity and power as mutually constituted, conceptualizing identity as stratified by privilege and oppression; Carbado et al., 2013; Cho et al., 2015; Crenshaw, 1989, 1991, 2011) and sex positivity (examining sexuality and power as mutually constituted, conceptualizing sexuality as not inherently problematic; Glick, 2000; Harden, 2013; Maes et al., 2023) developed in resistance to the idea that neither individual facets of identity nor specific sexual practices can be understood as singular or hierarchical constructs. Failure to apply feminist-informed sex-positive frameworks can recreate systems of oppression by privileging specific identities or sexual practices at the expense of others (Crenshaw, 1989; Glick, 2000). Harden (2014) suggested that a risk-focused conceptualization of sexuality exposes underlying messaging that sexuality is inherently dirty, dangerous, immoral, or perverse for those outside of the hegemonic purview (i.e., the very young and the very old,

the un-married and uncommitted, people of color, those with disability or neurodivergence, and so on). Feminist-informed sex-positive theories are rarely applied to empirical research on sexual health and wellness. This section briefly overviews the origin of feminist-informed sex-positivity while discussing how it has been applied or (un)done in recent research.

Sex-positive frameworks originated amidst feminist, queer, and sexuality scholarship that most often “focused on outcomes of [sexuality] for the “average” male or female youth,” thereby erasing the layered impact of “personal, relational, and situational factors” (Queen & Comella, 2008; Vasilenko & Lanza, 2014, p. 14). Positive sex frameworks maintain the belief that (a) sexuality is not inherently problematic nor liberating but does have the potential to be valuable and healthy for “[diverse and] differing desires and relationships structures, and individual choices based on consent”, (b) promoting/prioritizing sexual engagement over abstinence, disregarding risk-management, and sexual repression function as the antecedent to perpetuating oppression (i.e., puritanism, patriarchy, and heterosexism); (c) not all sexual behavior is healthy nor suggests that all ages should be engaging in sexual activity; (d) protection from unwanted consequences requires an equal measure of promoting explicit knowledge and access to sexual wellness support; and (e) sexual development across the lifespan is culturally normative (Kågesten & van Reeuwijk, 2021; Landers & Kapadia, 2020; Queen & Comella, 2008, p. 278). Sex positivity overlaps with feminist theory as both examine identity’s multidimensional impact on one’s lived experiences. Challenging single-axis (i.e., individually attending to identity facets) conceptions of inequality and one-size-fits-all categorization of the ‘average’ (e.g., hegemonic) experience obscures interlocking oppression faced by multiple marginalized individuals (Moffitt et al., 2020). Furthermore, integrating intersecting identity with a sex-positive framework fosters critical reflection of ‘positive’ constructs that may inadvertently perpetuate systemic inequity.

Sex positivity prioritizes previously ignored constructs of sexual development, such as sexual competency, pleasure, consent, and agency, that significantly contribute to relational intimacy and overall well-being (Harden, 2014). Nevertheless, sexual agency has historically assumed agentic behavior to be a singular, individualistic, and static quality (Glick, 2000; Ivanski & Kohut, 2017). Sexual satisfaction

research has similarly examined “sexual interactions as a product of their dyadic environment rather than a sum of individual experiences” (Impett et al., 2020, p. 293). In contrast, feminist-informed sexual agency is interwoven with identity and life course, such as socially prescribed roles or familial expectations, that shape and organize the “doing” of sexual agency (Hitlin & Elder, 2007; Impett et al., 2020, p. 293; Rutgers et al., 2021; Vanwesenbeeck et al., 2021). I believe that the same approach can and should be applied to sexual satisfaction, however. Youth frequently must navigate a multitude of messages and norms that often conflict with agentic and satisfying action when deciding “what types of (sexual) feelings or activities are acceptable, for whom, and under what circumstances” (Kågesten & van Reeuwijk, 2021, p. 6). Furthermore, a lack of evidence is available to delineate between what sexual behavior is harmful versus beneficial to the development of youth sexual health (Harden, 2014). It can be argued that future research on youth sexuality should consider positive outcomes of sexual behavior as relational and contextualized by sociocultural conditions.

Youth Sexuality

Biopsychosocial Sexual Development

The term “adolescence” generally refers to the onset of puberty and ends at the age when youth are socially approved to reproduce (Suleiman et al., 2017). Kar et al. (2015) and Liang et al. (2019b) defined adolescence as broadly beginning at 10 years of age. However, Suleiman et al. (2017) noted that the onset of puberty is continuously declining across the globe (suggesting adolescence for some begins before age 10). The average age of sexual behavior onset (most often construed as sexual intercourse) across the globe ranges from 15.5 to 24.5 years of age (Wellings et al., 2006), but reproducing at age 15 (‘teen pregnancy’) is generally not socially acceptable. As a culturally universal stage, adolescence is designed to prepare youth for adulthood autonomy across the globe (Lansford et al., 2023), with the biological ability to encounter adult-like consequences of sexual maturation but before being fully independent of their families of origin (Schlegel, 1995). Many cognitive, social, and behavioral changes occur during this time, marking the psycho-physiological onset of puberty, the sexual reproduction maturation process (Suleiman et al., 2017). Though youths can physically engage in sexual activity and

reproduction, they frequently do not have the cognitive maturation, experiential or educational knowledge, or social permission to care to do so (Schalet, 2011; Suleiman et al., 2017). Nevertheless, exploring romantic and sexual relationships is a critical task in preparation for adulthood (Collins, 2003; Fortenberry, 2013a, 2013b; Furman & Collibee, 2014; Furman & Shaffer, 2003; Furman & Winkles, 2011). Such preparation includes the bidirectional development and refinement of communication, self-regulation, and reciprocity within their relationships (Collins, 2003; Fortenberry, 2013a; Suleiman et al., 2017).

Traditional markers of sexual development in western nations outlined by Suleiman et al. (2017) were contrasted between when reproduction becomes a biological option (onset of puberty/sexual maturation) versus when conception is socially acceptable (post-secondary education) versus when sexual activity and childbearing/parenthood historically began (post-marital union). Thus, the same sexual behavior problematized as dangerous, dysfunctional, and immoral in youth becomes a marker of satisfaction and wellness in adulthood (Harden, 2014). Taken all together, the window during which markers of sexual maturation in youth occur has not only elongated but possibly shifted sequencing (Liang et al., 2019b; Starrs et al., 2018) such that it is difficult to draw a clear line between adolescence and other stages of life (Suleiman et al., 2017). Studies of ‘youth’ and ‘emerging’ or ‘young’ adult sexual health utilize participants ranging from as young as 12 years of age (de Graaf et al., 2010; van de Bongardt & de Graaf, 2020) to 32 years of age (Vasilenko, 2017), with many referencing youths approximately 15-24 years old. Colloquial qualifiers such as ‘early,’ ‘middle,’ and ‘late’ youths overlapping with terms like ‘emerging’ and ‘young’ adult remind the reader that all concepts are socially constructed and ever-changing.

As pubertal hormones and priming for novel social interactions in adolescence rewire the brain (Suleiman et al., 2017; Victor & Hariri, 2016), there is a co-occurrence of increasing sexual activity. In western cultures, youth frequently engage in sexual activity well before being considered fully independent adults. Based on a 25-year review of the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent to Adult Health (Add Health) research in the United States, most participants (90%) engaged in a variety of sexual

behaviors between the ages of 15 and 20 years old (Vasilenko, 2022). Similar data in the United States suggests that the number of youths reporting sexual intercourse increases at least 20% every 2 years (20-21% by age 15, 48-53% by age 17, and 77-79% by age 20; Martinez & Abma, 2021). One third of economically diverse Canadian high-school youth ($n = 1,757$; $M\ age = 15.53$) self-reported engaging in partnered sexual activity (oral sex or vaginal intercourse; Kotiuga et al., 2022). Among the same sample, roughly 15% of 14-year-olds and over 50% of youth 17 to 18 reported engaging in partnered sexual activity (oral sex or vaginal intercourse). In the largest national study on adolescent health (Add Health), 48% of heterosexual 16- to 18-year-olds ($n = 4,158$) reported engaging in intercourse (Vasilenko, Kugler, et al., 2015). Most participants were classified as culturally normative (15 years old or older when they first engaged in intercourse) and low risk (sexual behaviors with one romantic partner as opposed to non-relationship partners and sexual behavior with multiple partners).

A wealth of outcome studies correlates youth sexual behavior with risk. For example, higher rates of depression were observed in youth who reported multiple sexual partners, early sexual onset, intercourse outside of a partnered relationship, and being a woman (Meier, 2007; Shulman et al., 2009; Vasilenko, 2017). Directionality remains unclear due to observing preexisting depression in youth engaged in sexual activity (Grello et al., 2003; Monahan & Lee, 2008). Perhaps chasing directionality distracts from recognizing the overlapping social conditions that likely restrict or promote economic, sexual, and mental health impacting youth development. Relatedly, studies examined familial influence and determined that parenting styles and parent-youth relationship quality impact youth delaying/reducing intercourse (Coley et al., 2013; Grossman, Black, & Richer, 2020; Grossman, Pearce, & Richer, 2020). However, far less is known about what helps establish or strengthen positive outcomes such as youth sexual satisfaction. Taking a feminist-informed sex-positive look at youth sexual development is critical for combating counter-narratives of youth sexuality as shameful, abnormal, or deviant (Harden, 2014). McCarthy and Grodsky (2011) suggested that “at worst, denying the culturally normative dimension of youth sex creates unnecessary associations between sexuality and adverse outcomes, associations that may result in a self-fulfilling prophecy” (p. 230).

In summary, contemporary social viewpoints suggest moving away from questioning *if* youth sexual behavior is healthy and moving towards examining *when* and *for whom* is youth sexual behavior healthy. Extant literature suggests that sexual activity during youth is culturally normative yet complex, reciprocal, and multidimensional (Kågesten & van Reeuwijk, 2021). Therefore, examining pathways toward healthy sexual development in the context of western cultures requires viewing sexual activity as relatively common and potentially healthy for youth.

Critically Examining Youth Sexual Relationships

Utilizing a critical lens contributes to a flexible conceptualization of sexual outcomes and relationship structures. Several scholars have explored how sexual satisfaction and functioning were impacted by covariates such as relationship structure (married, dating, non-dating, and other qualifiers; (Mallory, 2022; Mallory et al., 2019). Additional variables have been examined such as quality, communication, timing, and behavior based on factors such as level of commitment (i.e., hook-up versus long-term; McCarthy & Grodsky, 2011; Mendle et al., 2013; Shulman et al., 2009; Vasilenko et al., 2012), gender and ethnicity (Regan et al., 2004; Vasilenko, Kreager, et al., 2015; Vasilenko, Kugler, et al., 2015), and geography (Kanth et al., 2023; Leavitt et al., 2020; Scollo & Poutiainen, 2018). However, there are several reasons to examine youth sexuality without attending to the degree of structure, commitment, time, or similar covariates to satisfying sexual functioning.

First, culture dictates how relationships develop, how they are classified and prioritized, and any relationship's value (Carbaugh, 2007; Scollo & Poutiainen, 2018). Though a stronger romantic partnership may lead to increased sexual communication (van de Bongardt & de Graaf, 2020; Widman et al., 2006) and most of the youth explore their sexuality with a partner (Marston & King, 2006; van de Bongardt & de Graaf, 2020), the terminology, status, or specific sexual behaviors that describe such a partnership varies. Differentiating between 'talking', 'hooking up', 'courting', 'dating', and a 'committed' partnership depends on the culture in which the term is used. Each represents a variation in how individuals communicate, connect, commit (or do not), and behave with one another (Scollo & Poutiainen, 2018).

Sociodemographic variables can also influence terminology, such as how more cisgender women reported engagement in sexual activity within a committed partnership compared to how cisgender men reported more often engaging in casual sexual activity (van de Bongardt & de Graaf, 2020). “Social class is a stratification system that ranks people by their differential access to material, social, and cultural resources, which shapes their lives in important ways” (Durante & Fiske, 2017, p. 43) and can be defined based on an individual’s choices and other people’s expectations. As a facet of social class, financial resources directly link to sexual wellbeing (Higgin et al., 2022). The societal permission cisgender men receive to engage in sexual activity compared to cisgender women may impact their reports. In addition to sex, socioeconomics (SES) can impact terminology. For example, a qualitative study of cultural nuances among college women found that higher SES participants clearly distinguished between ‘hooking up’ (anything except sexual intercourse) and ‘having sex’ (sexual intercourse) compared to their middle- and low-class SES peers (Armstrong et al., 2014). Disentwining relationship terminology with relationship value is particularly relevant for youth relationships that have historically been erroneously trivialized and devalued due to age and developmental stage (Collins et al., 2009; Harden, 2014; Seiffge-Krenke, 2003). Beyond the semantics, Ogallar-Blanco et al. (2022) noted that factors driving sexual satisfaction were related to “attraction to, and confidence with the sexual partner or the absence of a feeling of obligation to do something unwanted” rather than factors such as love or commitment (p. 15), which suggests that relational intimacy and agency are valuable constructs that can exist separately from the degree of romantic engagement.

Second, reinforcing a hierarchical value between one form of sexual connection versus another (i.e., prioritizing dating versus non-dating sexual interactions) can perpetuate archaic messages of sexual abnormality and deviancy by suggesting a proscribed way of how to “do” sexual connection (Harden, 2014). Consequently, there is the potential to facilitate a self-fulfilling prophecy, particularly in a younger population that has historically been vulnerable to such messaging (Calzo, 2013; Harden, 2014; McCarthy & Grodsky, 2011; Monahan & Lee, 2008). Suleiman et al. (2017) suggest that defining relationships from platonic to romantic might be particularly difficult for youth as they navigate social pressure and

constraints. Furthermore, sexual scripts permit hetero-culturally normative men to value sex without commitment, whereas cisgender women's sexual scripts devalue such behavior.

Third, examining communication and interpersonal processes within the context of intersecting identities recognizes that “communication is not equally possible or valued because of preconceived biases interwoven into the fabric of cultural and societal contexts” (Boylorn, 2021, p. 260). At the same time, a recent study noted that communicating sexual wants and needs highly correlated with feeling as if one had control over their partnered sexual activity regardless of whether youth indicated they were in a committed versus casual relationship (van de Bongardt & de Graaf, 2020). Consequently, conceptualizing all participant's self-reported sexual relationships as valid for the current study was an acknowledgment that sexual relationships hold multidimensional meanings and value within a partnership, a family, and a society.

Sexual Satisfaction

Defining Sexual Satisfaction

Sexual satisfaction in the current study referred to “the degree to which an individual is satisfied or happy with the sexual aspect of his or her relationship” (Sprecher, 2004, p. 236). Framed “both as a construct and as an experience, influenced by individual, social and cultural factors” (Ogallar-Blanco et al., 2022, p. 1). Considered an “umbrella term” for pleasurable agentic experiences to determine a subjective, relational, and global evaluation of individual or partnered sexuality, sexual satisfaction includes “the possibility (and diversity)” of heterogeneous sexual self-disclosure, pleasurable agentic experiences, and sexual functioning to determine a subjective and a “global appraisal people make about their sexual life (which may include being satisfied with having no sexual activity)” (Alarcão et al., 2022; Ford et al., 2019, p. 218; Lawrance & Byers, 1995). This term was employed with three distinct assumptions, (a) the pleasure gap phenomenon (Frederick et al., 2018; Laan et al., 2021; Wetzel & Sanchez, 2022) is a symptom of gender-based sexual satisfaction inequity, (b) societal and familial constructs frame satisfaction as deviance for youth and women, (c) the bulk of human sexuality research

erase sexual pleasure and marginalization to focus deficit and risk (Jones, 2019) instead- this is especially true for youth and women.

Defining and measuring sexual satisfaction poses a challenge due to the vast variety in literature. Historical definitions broadly refer to the general level of enjoyment (physically and emotionally) with sexual aspects of a relationship (Sprecher & Cate, 2004; Impett & Tolman, 2006). Contemporary understandings of sexual satisfaction frame it “both as a construct and as an experience, influenced by individual, social, and cultural factors” (Ogallar-Blanco et al., 2022, p. 1). Socio-cultural factors impact not only how an individual or a relationship defines sexual satisfaction but also the sense of autonomy or agency to achieve sexual satisfaction and healthy relationship functioning (Alarcão et al., 2022; Anderson, 2020; Gruskin & Kismödi, 2020; Laan et al., 2021; Sánchez-Fuentes et al., 2014). Differentiating between global sexual satisfaction and satisfaction from intercourse may be unimportant, as a cross-sectional study of German women found both constructs to be significantly interdependent (Philippsohn & Hartmann, 2009). In other words, sexual satisfaction is inclusive of “cognitive (e.g., well-being), physical (e.g., sexual response), individual (e.g., pleasure), and relational aspects (e.g., mutuality)” (Couture et al., 2022, p. 305).

Relatedly, in a mixed-methods study of youth (18-25 years of age) on defining sexual satisfaction, most participants considered process (sense of connection, trust, and security) and partnership (attending to and prioritizing partner’s experience) as essential (McClelland, 2014). The exception came from heterosexual men who related orgasm to “fulfilling [their] duty as a partner,” indicating “orgasm as essential to the definition of sexual satisfaction,” which is supported by related research suggesting that women’s pleasure significantly affected men’s sexual satisfaction (Velten & Margraf, 2017, p. 88). In the same study, participants defining sexual satisfaction indicated bidirectional influences related to a sense of connection and security. Those feelings with a partner led to sexual satisfaction and were a satisfactory outcome of partnered sex. In summary, within the framework of feminist-informed family systems, sexual outcomes must be contextualized based on the lived experiences of those under examination. Researchers are thus challenged to examine contextual factors,

such as the impact of families and cultural differences, to understand sexual well-being better (Halpern, 2010).

Global Sexual Satisfaction

The field of sexual research commonly identifies sexual satisfaction as a subjective metric for overall relationship quality because it theoretically and empirically reflects key dimensions of relational wellness like communication and connection processes (McClelland, 2010, , 2014; Pascoal et al., 2014; Sánchez-Fuentes et al., 2014). Cross-sectional (Cheng & Smyth, 2015; Laumann et al., 2006; Rainer & Smith, 2012) and longitudinal (Schmiedeberg et al., 2017; Stephenson & Meston, 2015) research documents the positive and potentially protective relationships between life and sexual satisfaction. Such outcomes imply that sexual satisfaction can be an indicator and predictor of overall life satisfaction. In direct support of the belief that sexual behavior is not problematic (Jones, 2019), sexual satisfaction is positioned at the intersection of intimate justice (McClelland, 2010, 2014). Relatedly, as a facet of sexual wellness, sexual satisfaction must be conceptualized “as individually experienced but socially and structurally influenced” (Lorimer et al., 2019, p. 849). Feminist scholars contend that a sense of entitlement towards sexual pleasure and its accompanying sexual agency represents a powerful pathway to aspirations and demands that exceed patriarchal and colonial systems of oppression (Chmielewski et al., 2020; Lorde, 1984). Recognition that sexual satisfaction is not synonymous with sexual revolution or sexual liberation is of critical note because satisfaction is but one (albeit key) facet of the fight for sexual liberation (Glick, 2000). Such logic locates sexuality as the problem rather than targeting the socio-political practices constructing sexuality. Within youth sexual development, the call for balancing deficit-focused metrics by including and prioritizing sexual satisfaction has been repeated for decades (Dennison & Russell, 2005; Tolman & McClelland, 2011).

Dyadic Sexual Satisfaction

The extensively researched link between sexual satisfaction and relationship satisfaction is well established. Theoretical (Lawrance & Byers, 1995; Maxwell & McNulty, 2019), qualitative (Schoenfeld et al., 2017), cross-sectional (Impett et al., 2013), and longitudinal (Fallis et al., 2016; McNulty et al.,

2016; Meltzer et al., 2017; Quinn-Nilas, 2020; Vowels & Mark, 2020; Zhao et al., 2022) studies support correlation and directionality linking sexual satisfaction and relationship satisfaction. Daily diary entries indicated that sexual experiences one day enhanced sexual satisfaction in the following days (Meltzer et al., 2017) and bidirectionally predicted one another (Zhao et al., 2022). Similarly, for months (Fallis et al., 2016) and years (McNulty et al., 2016), data on relational and sexual satisfaction revealed that each construct bidirectionally predicts the other. Thus, sexual satisfaction earlier in the relationship was a protective factor against relationship dissatisfaction later in the relationship (Fallis et al., 2016; Quinn-Nilas, 2020). Perhaps more importantly, the interconnection between relational and sexual satisfaction indicated parallel trajectories of co-change, suggesting these constructs codevelop in a systematic process (Quinn-Nilas, 2020). However, these studies used primarily married participants with mean ages ranging from 23.5 to 63.36 years of age and a wide range of measurement intervals (i.e., 12 days, 2 months, 10 years) between assessments. More research is needed of marginalized populations, such as how sexual satisfaction impacts romantic relationships in youth.

Personal Sexual Satisfaction

Though researchers tend to position sexual satisfaction directly with deficit and risk, the average person does not. What goes unsaid versus what is articulated when non-clinical studies ask ‘lay’ people to define/describe sexual satisfaction is profound. Whether part of hegemonic or marginalized groups, participants (mean age ranging from 22.6 to 36.5 years old) omit topics like dysfunction and disease when defining and describing sexual satisfaction, instead focusing on sentiments of trust, openness, and pleasure with a partner (McClelland, 2014; Pascoal et al., 2014; Pascoal et al., 2019). It, therefore, might be assumed that even individual sexual satisfaction is deeply intertwined with partnership and pleasure. The ‘lay’ person’s sentiments support how family systems theory has been applied to sexual satisfaction research. Rather than distinguish between relational and individual sexual satisfaction, family systems theory conceptualizes sexual satisfaction as a mutual experience of individual pleasure and dyadic pleasure, “a two-dimensional concept where personal and relational dimensions are inter-influential” (Pascoal et al., 2014, p. 27). Feminist-framed interviews of high school youth talking about their sexuality

reflected an inner struggle during which they “talked freely about fears and, in the same breath, asked about passions,” illustrating the overlapping “issues of gender, power, and sexuality” and how “notions of sexual negotiation cannot be separated from sacrifice and nurturance” (Fine, 1988, p. 35). These results suggest that individuals conceptualize pleasure from a place of desire rather than deficit while also recognizing the dyadic and sociocultural components inherent in sexual satisfaction.

Sexual Satisfaction Problems

Both sexual health and wellness in youth have lasting effects on sexual health as adults (Cheng et al., 2014; Fortenberry, 2014; Långström & Hanson, 2006; Zimmer-Gembeck & French, 2016). Nevertheless, a recent study of sexual pleasure in sexually active youth ages 14 to 17 in the United States found that 16.4% reported little to no pleasure during partnered experiences within the last 12 months (Beckmeyer et al., 2021). Relatedly, the national German Health and Sexuality Survey of participants ($n = 4,955$) ranging in age from 18 to 75 years old found that roughly one-third of men (30.2%) and nearly half of women (45.7%) reported sexual problems within the last 12-months (Briken et al., 2020). Within their lifetime, men and women reported experiencing sexual problems at some point in their relationships (55.1% and 72.5%, respectively) and reported clinically significant sexual dysfunction (13.3% and 17.5%, respectively; Briken et al., 2020). As sexual experiences shape sexual worldviews and become the foundation for adult sexual expectations and desire (Fortenberry, 2014; Pfaus et al., 2012; Tolman & McClelland, 2011; Widman et al., 2022; Wight & Fullerton, 2013), greater understanding of what might improve sexual satisfaction in youth is an essential area of research. Specifically, Beckmeyer et al. (2021) and Briken et al. (2020) results suggest the need for research on what factors might drive youth sexual satisfaction as a proactive step toward improving adult sexual wellness. Despite this, relatively few studies examine youth sexual satisfaction (Beckmeyer et al., 2021). The lack of research on youth sexual satisfaction is likely a reflection of societal beliefs that sexuality during youth is considered dangerous, deviant, or something to be prevented.

Intergenerational and Intersecting Sexual Satisfaction

Youth first learn how to engage with romantic partners by how their parents engage with them (Koerner & Fitzpatrick, 2002; Young & Schrodtt, 2016) as children “mimic similar tactics, behavior, and roles in their romantic relationships” (Rauscher et al., 2020, p. 99). Implicit and explicit parental modeling is the earliest and most influential source of information about self and others, including ideologies about gender and sexuality (Rauscher et al., 2020; Rossetto & Tollison, 2017; Sennott & Mollborn, 2011). In this way, dyadic processes such as sexual communication (Warren & Warren, 2015) and sexual satisfaction (Rancourt et al., 2016) are learned over time within our familial and societal environments. Parental (partner-level) relationship processes, including the quality of the couple’s emotional connection communication, bidirectionally affected parent-youth (family-level) relationships (Kouros et al., 2014; Sears, 2016; Widman et al., 2016; Zemp et al., 2016)). Bridges et al. (2004) found that the degree of affection within one’s family of origin correlated with reports of overall lifetime sexual satisfaction in adults. Yet there remains a notable gap in systemic family research on youth sexual satisfaction. Furthermore, the question of what makes sexual satisfaction important within a family remains largely unexplored. It might be that research must first verify that sexual satisfaction has value to a family system before understanding the driving mechanisms.

Family processes related to sexual satisfaction might provide intergenerational and intersecting insight. Expectations for satisfaction in adulthood, including sexual satisfaction, develop from societal and familial experiences during youth (Beckett et al., 2010; Fortenberry & Hensel, 2022; Nurgitz et al., 2021; Zimmer-Gembeck & French, 2016; Warren & Warren, 2015). Implicit and explicit sex-based sexual socialization is transmitted from parents to youth as well as from social conditions to youth, thereby teaching youth “that girls and boys should behave differently in sexual situations (Evans et al., 2020; 2021, p. 536). Reviews of youth sexual development and parenting reveals that gender-based sexual scripts (i.e., cognitive models) position men as the sexual initiations, starting by praising and promoting boy’s sexual development (Alvarado et al., 2020; Olmstead, 2020). Whereas girls are positioned as gatekeepers, sexual development is protected, prevented, and punished (Alvarado et al.,

2020; Olmstead, 2020). It then comes as no surprise that, socially, men's pleasure is more highly valued compared to women's pleasure (Hall et al., 2019; McClelland, 2010). Men tend to value sexual gratification more than their peers (Conley & Klein, 2022; Peplau, 2003), possibly explaining the more robust association men indicated between their sexual and relational satisfaction (McNulty et al., 2016). Likely, the process is far less linear in that it is possible that because men might value sexual satisfaction over relationship satisfaction, their sexual pleasure and gratification are more highly valued. Conversely, women are thought to value contextual/relational satisfaction more than their male peers (Cheng & Smythe, 2015).

Facets of individual and relational identity are stratified or compounded by multiple aspects of one's experience, such as sex, socioeconomics, and education. In a systematic review of sexual satisfaction publications ($n = 197$) spanning 1979-2012, Sánchez-Fuentes et al. (2014) reported disparate results on the interaction between single-axis socio-demographics (i.e., sex, age, religiosity) and sexual satisfaction. It is possible that "sampling, analysis, and interpretation have disguised, rather than challenged, the role of social structures in sustaining inequalities" (Higgins et al., 2022, p. 941). It is also possible that conflicting results came from different measurement instruments or failure to consider co-occurring experiences (age and disease, religiosity, and sexual guilt; Sánchez-Fuentes et al., 2014). Feminist-informed approaches would argue that the latter suggestion (examining co-occurring experiences) should be foundational to future research on sexual satisfaction. McClelland (2010) suggested that examining sexual satisfaction through a social justice lens includes recognizing "social and sexual stigmas as antecedents to sexual satisfaction ratings" (p. 305). Stereotypes based on gender and social class often create a double standard regarding who is allowed to seek (expectations and entitlement), much less experience, sexual pleasure (Fahs & McClelland, 2016; Fine, 1988; Tolman, 2012; Tolman & McClelland, 2011). Examining the intersection of sex and class requires recognizing the multidimensional boundaries of sexual behavior. Specifically, how perceptions of sexual differences (i.e., promiscuity vs. sexual restraint) rarely exist without demarcations of class and social advantage (Vanwesenbeeck et al., 2021). Understanding how satisfaction shapes sexual interactions within

intersecting identities can inform parents, educators, and communities in their efforts to facilitate healthy youth sexual development (Jones, 2019).

Sexual Agency

Healthy sexual development for youth depends on developing sexual agency within the bounds of individual, familial, and societal influences and constraints (Evans, 2007; Harden, 2014; Vanwesenbeeck et al., 2021). Sexual agency for the purpose of this study was defined as simultaneously balancing individual influence with societal conditions, “normative expectations, and the wider structural context” (Vanwesenbeeck et al., 2021, p. 384) to shape “immediate experiences and the longer courses of [one’s life] through sexuality” (Bay-Cheng, 2019, p. 463). Kågesten and van Reeuwijk (2021) position sexual agency (capacity/ability) as the link between sexual self-efficacy (*knowing*), sexual communication (*doing*), and sexual wellness (*being*). As overlapping constructs frequently used interchangeably in sexuality research (Maes et al., 2023), these variables are developmental antecedents and continuous barometers for psychological, sexual health, and sexual well-being in youth (Harden, 2014; Zimmer-Gembeck, 2013). This section briefly introduces agency as both personal and political before reviewing the two pillars of sexual agency: sexual self-efficacy and sexual communication. The lifelong importance of sexual agency, contextualized within social conditions, makes it a critical variable when examining youth’s sexual development (Bay-Cheng, 2019; Cha, 2022; Kågesten & van Reeuwijk, 2021).

Cross-cultural studies of sexual health and wellness suggest agency (globally defined as actualized empowerment measured by the extent to which youth felt heard and seen and by the ability to make autonomous decisions) might function as an antecedent among youth for sexual communication and sexual behavior (Koenig et al., 2020). Agency is frequently conceptualized as an individual choice, inherent freedom, and static aptitude to effectively be seen and feel heard, “associated with intentionality, (problem-directed) coping behavior, resilience, competency, assertiveness, mastery, [and] autonomy” (Bay-Cheng, 2019; Kågesten & van Reeuwijk, 2021; Vanwesenbeeck et al., 2021, p. 379). Historical definitions of sexual agency center on the individual ability or capacity to assertively navigate self-advancing sexual choices (Chmielewski et al., 2020; Horne & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2005; Tolman, 2002).

Individualized conceptualizations of agency focusing exclusively on behavior imply that a lack of agency reflects internal deficit or underdevelopment rather than more accurately recognizing the external social inequalities governing choice and change (Bay-Cheng, 2019; England, 2016). Failure to view personal characteristics contextualized by political conditions has long plagued research on agency, sexual or otherwise (England, 2016).

A more expansive view of agency framed within feminist-informed family systems theories contextualizes the individual self and interpersonal other within societal conditions, all central to healthy sexual development (Bandura, 1982; Cense, 2019; Kågesten & van Reeuwijk, 2021). Sociodemographic conditions thus “temporally [embed]” sexual agency as a process in the “past, present, and future” trajectories of youth (Cha, 2022, p. 2).

Sexual Self-Efficacy

Defining Sexual Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to an individual’s conviction in their ability to generate a specific outcome via their behaviors (Bandura, 1977). This term was employed with two distinct assumptions: (a) The perception of controlling one’s own sexuality intersects with tangible markers of societal and familial inequity whereby governmental control over women and youth’s sexuality (i.e., regulating reproductive rights; lack of sexual education regulation) and (b) familial legacies privilege/encourages sexual behavior in sons and protects/restricts them in daughters. Exercising self-efficacy, applying one’s inner competencies, values, and resources, is mediated by outside influences such as interpersonal relationships and broader societal contexts (Blum et al., 2014; Kågesten & van Reeuwijk, 2021). The concept of self-efficacy has been extended to explore beliefs and convictions about sexual health and wellness.

Definitions of sexual self-efficacy include one’s belief, confidence, conviction, or perceived ability to control sexual situations and outcomes (Closson et al., 2018), confidence in “their knowledge, skills, and comfort to carry out” behaviors impacting sexual health (Koch et al., 2013, p. 345), assert sexual preferences (Harden, 2014; Kågesten & van Reeuwijk, 2021), consent or refuse sexual activity (Brar et al., 2020; Couture et al., 2022), “express voice and influence and make decisions by drawing on resources

at multiple levels” (Kågesten & van Reeuwijk, 2021, p.7), and to navigate sexual personhood. For this study, sexual self-efficacy was defined as the self-perceived sense of control over one’s sexual behaviors, experiences, and outcomes (Assarzadeh et al., 2019; Bandura, 1982).

Prioritizing Sexual Self-Efficacy

Sexual self-efficacy “strongly [correlates] with greater well-being across multiple measures for both young men and women,” suggesting sexual self-efficacy is a critical variable in the development of healthy sexuality, regardless of sex, but mainly “during the late teens and early 20s” (Zimmer-Gembeck & French, 2016, p. 1). Nevertheless, a recent systematic review of sexual self-efficacy (Assarzadeh et al., 2019) noted that most articles found that sexual self-efficacy functioned as a protective factor in their research. Abundant data suggests that sexual self-efficacy is a predictor of multiple outcomes such as relationship satisfaction (Vaziri et al., 2010), contraception use (Closson et al., 2018; Evans-Paulson et al., 2021; Longmore et al., 2003; Willie et al., 2018), sexual safety and risk-taking (Addoh et al., 2017; England, 2016; Hsu et al., 2015; Torregosa & Patricio, 2022; Widman et al., 2006, 2016). Furthermore, sexual self-efficacy contributes to increased sexual well-being (Mastro & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2015), fosters sexual empowerment (Satinsky & Jozkowski, 2015), positively correlates with sexual pleasure and satisfaction (Nurgitz et al., 2021), and effects youth well into adulthood by impacting socioeconomic inequality (Cha, 2022). Perceived sexual self-efficacy has a bidirectional relationship with sexual outcomes, such that high sexual self-efficacy can increase protective sexual health behaviors, and low sexual self-efficacy can decrease sexual health behaviors (Bandura, 1977; Bay-Cheng, 2019; Closson et al., 2018). Believing one has a solid capacity to discuss sexual preferences may or may not result in successfully expressing one’s desires with a partner because self-efficacy is not synonymous with motivation, performance, or action (Bandura, 1977). Bay-Cheng (2019) posits that sexual self-efficacy is not necessarily enough to promote healthy sexual development, as evidenced by how condom use is frequently moderated by relational power (Marston & King, 2006), such that sexual coercion can override an inner sense of efficacy.

These studies suggest that sexual self-efficacy can be an influential predictor variable but should not be examined in a social vacuum. Like systems theory provides a micro view of sexual self-efficacy in the family, feminist theory attends to a macro view of how stratified identities influence the co-construct, or restriction, of sexual self-efficacy. Given that the ability to express one's sexual desires is a crucial principle of sexual wellness (Kågesten & van Reeuwijk, 2021), it is vital to understand the mechanism for strengthening the capacity to initiate and sustain sexual self-efficacy. In summary, feminist-informed family systems theories are woven throughout the exploration of self-efficacy because they impact the origin of sexual self-efficacy (as developed and maintained within the family system) with the conditions and constraints impacting how, when, and for whom sexual self-efficacy impacts sexual outcomes.

Sexual Communication

Defining Sexual Communication

Sexual communication in the current of the current study referred to implicitly and explicitly sharing sexual wants and desires with a sexual partner; also, sometimes called sexual disclosure (Harris et al., 2014). Sexual communication was employed assuming that societal and familial power imbalances by age and gender shape sexual communication such that adults (parents) and men's sexual communication is praised. In contrast, youth and women's sexual communication is silenced. Though overall communication within a relationship facilitates relationship satisfaction (Egeci & Genoz, 2006), and sexual self-disclosure facilitates sexual wellness (La France, 2019; MacNeil & Byers, 2005), several studies have found that sexual communication and general communication are distinctly different (Jones et al., 2018; MacNeil & Byers, 2009; Oattes & Offman, 2007). Talking about sexuality might be a separate skill from discussing non-sexual topics in a relationship (Jones et al., 2018). Within the context of this study, sexual communication (also at times referred to as sexual disclosure) was operationalized as sharing sexual wants and desires with a sexual partner (Harris et al., 2014).

Intergenerational Sexual Communication

Most parents reported disappointment and frustration with a lack of sexual communication in their family of origin, but few approached their own children with a notably different approach

(Christensen et al., 2017; Ferguson et al., 2023; Morawska et al., 2015). Replicated sexual communication patterns from one generation to the next imply that sexual communication/socialization is an intergenerational process. In addition to the content of sexual communication, or lack thereof, attitudes like shame and discomfort towards sexual communication were also found to be transmitted intergenerationally (Ferguson et al., 2023) due to a multitude of barriers that impede open and comfortable sexual communication between parents and youth. Extensive literature reviews examining parent-youth sexual communication at local and global levels cite barriers like a sense of discomfort, inadequate knowledge, and cultural norms across the lifespan (DiIorio et al., 2003; Evans et al., 2020; Flores & Barroso, 2017; Malacane & Beckmeyer, 2016; McKay & Fontenot, 2020; Mullis et al., 2020; Rogers, 2017; Stone et al., 2013). It might be, therefore, considered isomorphic that extensive research also documents similar impediments to partner-level sexual communication (Byers, 2011; Manning & Denker, 2021). Ultimately, there is reason to believe that examining sexual communication at the parent level and youth level could create positive change in youth sexual development based on family systems theory (Rossetto & Tollison, 2017).

Prioritizing Sexual Communication

Sexual communication is critical for healthy sexual experiences and foundational for sexual well-being. Individual and relational sexual communication (both verbal and nonverbal) is directly related to reports of sexual satisfaction (Blunt-Vinti et al., 2019), as is sexual self-disclosure (Byers & Demmons, 1999; MacNeil & Byers, 2009). A recent meta-analysis on couples' sexual communication (frequency, quality, self-disclosure) on sexual functioning (inclusive of sexual satisfaction) and cultural influences (relationship structure, duration, gender, socio-sexuality) indicated that sexual communication positively correlated with sexual functioning (Mallory et al., 2019). Gender-based differences emerged, indicating that women were more influenced by sexual communication and sexual functioning. Specifically, sexual communication increased aspects of sexual functioning like desire and orgasm, both correlated with sexual satisfaction.

Sexual Agency and Sexual Communication

Though increased sexual self-efficacy does not automatically equate to increased sexual communication, previous studies (Quinn-Nilas et al., 2016) support the belief that sexual communication is directly predicted by sexual self-efficacy (Brasileiro et al., 2021, p. 10). Furthermore, sexual communication and self-disclosure correlated with sexual satisfaction among youth (Théorêt et al., 2017). However, talking about sexuality is heavily impacted by identity because factors such as gender-based inequity directly affect discourse (Curtis et al., 2020; Fine, 1988; Tolman, 2012; Tolman & McClelland, 2011). Thus, examining sexual communication, like research on sexual satisfaction, requires intentionally incorporating analysis that captures how stratified identities can impact youth sexual development.

Sexual Agency and Sexual Satisfaction

Programs designed to improve youth sexual health document significant success by targeting sexual self-efficacy and sexual communication as mechanisms of change (Brasileiro et al., 2021). Recent cross-cultural research on global early youth agency and sexual communication found that increased agency was associated with higher odds of sexual communication in youth (Koenig et al., 2020). Power-based constructs can and should be measured differently based on sociodemographic contexts. However, cross-cultural studies of cisgender 10–14-year-old youth suggest some aspects of agency might transcend various communities (Koenig et al., 2020; Zimmerman et al., 2019). Across the globe, data from these studies noted that the ability to communicate aspects of one’s inner world (“voice” one’s choices and opinions) represents a universal form of agency (Zimmerman et al., 2019). Universality did not translate to equity as young men reported greater agency across the globe than their female peers, “keeping with other literature that demonstrates a growing equity gap and reinforced gender norms in later adolescence” (Zimmerman et al., 2019, p. 8). Conversely, utilizing a subset of the global population, the effects of sex on the relationship between general agency and sexual communication were negligible (Koenig et al., 2020). The different findings may reflect the assumption that general agency, much like general communication, requires domain-specific measurements compared to sexual agency and sexual communication because they represent potentially divergent constructs and skills (Jones et al., 2019; Zimmerman et al., 2019).

Direct agentic communication is fundamental for sexual development and sexual satisfaction (Alvarado et al., 2020). Dyadic analysis suggests that positive sexuality is significantly associated with improved sexual outcomes, such as sexual satisfaction for men and women (Rancourt et al., 2016). A recent study of German participants noted the vital association between sexual pleasure and satisfaction with sexual health and sexual communication (Klein et al., 2022). Sexual agency and sexual wellness are not necessarily a universal correlation. There is a lack of sufficient sexual research framed on the presumption that agency “[depends] on personal frames of reference as well as on the opportunities and restrictions provided by the (immediate and distant) personal and structural context, including moral and ideological frameworks and dominant sexual stories” (Vanwesenbeeck et al., 2021, p. 384). Dyadic analysis, therefore, of self-agency and sexual communication is particularly important for understanding youth development because most of their sexual interactions take place within a relationship (van de Bongardt & de Graaf, 2020).

Relatedly, intersecting social structures can also drastically shift sexual agency and self-efficacy, such as the intersection of sex and race (Chmielewski et al., 2020) or economic class and social status (Armstrong et al., 2014)- to name a few. Attention towards agency inequity remains relevant because it runs parallel to “the pleasure gap” (an empirically documented phenomenon in which heterosexual men experience significantly more sexual pleasure than female peers; Frederick et al., 2018; Laan et al., 2021; Wetzel & Sanchez, 2022). Based on extant literature, Chmielewski et al. (2020) suggest that sexual agency discourse emphasizes the constructs of pleasure and protection as coexisting for White women but in opposition to Black women due to women of color historically represented as hypersexual. Applying a similar logic might explain why social class tends to demarcate sexual agency among women (Armstrong et al., 2014) and within families (Cha, 2022). In this way, the matrix of oppression (Collins, 2003) is made clear by varying forms of intersectionality (representational, political, and structural; Crenshaw, 1991) and elevates the relevancy of examining sexual agency and intersecting identities. Examining contextual and reciprocal factors of sexual development, such as the interaction of families’ cultural differences, can lead to a better understanding of youth sexual well-being. Furthermore, examining

positive facets of sexual well-being (i.e., satisfaction) may counterintuitively yield insight into preventative measures against sexual risk in youth (Halpern, 2010). Together, these results underscore the importance of examining sexual agency and sexual satisfaction as overlapping constructs with an ongoing need for analysis that attends to intersecting identities.

Geographic Context

Social Constructions of Gender in Germany

Germany tends to mirror other Western countries in terms of gender-based socialization. Consistently, data suggests that women engage in unequal divisions of domestic care such as housework and child-rearing (Chidambaram & Scheiner, 2020; Konietzka et al., 2021; Nisic & Trübner, 2023). Intergenerational research noted that unpaid domestic work is more commonly relegated to girls and women, relative to boys and men, when such behavior is demonstrated in the family-of-origin (Cordero-Coma & Esping-Andersen, 2018). Literature utilizing a recent wave of pairfam data found that women objectively completed more housework compared to men but did not perceive discrepancies as conflictual unless they believed in egalitarian relationships (Nisic & Trubner, 2023). A previous dyadic study (Horne & Johnson, 2018) on pairfam couples ($n = 1,932$ couples) suggested that geographic location (i.e., living in East Germany) was significantly correlated with men's sense of autonomy and traditional gender role attitudes assessed via self-reports. However, correlations between East German women's autonomy and attitudes were twice as high as their male counterparts. Though longitudinal relationship satisfaction was not affected by geography for either gender, it was significantly correlated with autonomy regardless of gender. The bulk of these studies equate equity with shared domestic labor in societal and familial spheres. However, gender-based studies on unequal division of labor suggest that inequity in the one context (i.e., housework), reflects inequity in other lived experiences.

Social Constructions of Sexuality in Germany

Germany has a history of pioneering research on contraception and leading legislation on sexual minority welfare while state socialism constrained the space between private and public sexual health (Harris, 2014). More recent research cites liberal sexual attitudes towards sexual minorities and reproductive rights (i.e., abortion care), while noting a clear preference for monogamy and lack of acceptance towards having multiple sexual partners over time (Klein & Brunner, 2018). Sexual scripts (i.e., schemas) in Germany align with traditional gender attitudes in which men are the initiators and women are the gatekeepers of sexual activity (Tomaszewska, 2014; Tomaszewska et al., 2023). National surveys indicate German may hold more liberal views of sexuality compared to other European countries such that German youth reported younger sexual debut and were more likely to regard casual sexual encounters as normative (Tomaszewska, 2014). That said, among 18–75-year-old German residents, a national survey found that age was not correlated with sexual satisfaction as, “sexual satisfaction appears to be present to a similar extent in all age groups” (Dekker et al., 2020, p. 645). Extant literature called for future research to examine sexuality in the family sphere to better understand the restrictive and liberal norms that socialize youth in and out of the home (Tomaszewska, 2014).

Social Constructions of Race in Germany

Several governments throughout Europe have considered erasing “race” from their lexicon such as Germany’s consideration to remove race from their constitution (Jugert et al., 2022; Tomasi, 2021). With the United Kingdom and Ireland as the exception, continental Europe responded to World War II atrocities by eliminating race as a scientifically sound and analytical category; resulting in the discontinuation of race-based data collection (Goldberg, 2006; Moffitt et al., 2020; Möschel, 2011; Simon, 2012). Extensive arguments against a ‘race-mute’ and ‘colorblind’ approach, particularly as it applies to the social construction and impact of race, have been rejected (Möschel, 2011). It is, therefore, unsurprising that the current data set (pairfam) measures ethnicity but does not ask participants for their race.

Summary

Sexuality and family processes are multidimensional constructs that straddle the public-private binary because they are inseparable from the sociocultural context in which they are studied (Few-Demo et al., 2017; Glick, 2000). Sexuality is one of the many public health topics that require a systemic feminist-informed framework to recognize the multilayered context of justice, equity, health, and pleasure underpinning sexual well-being (Higgins et al., 2022; Mitchell et al., 2021; Oosterhoff et al., 2014). For youths, in particular, existing data suggests that the interaction between sexual wellness and identity is intertwined with socioeconomic status. Such a relationship exists at the individual, partner, and family levels and can have an immediate and longstanding impact (Cheng et al., 2014; Bay-Cheng, 2013). Sexual health is a proxy for equity and well-being in a population because the lived experience of sexual wellness includes context and surroundings (Higgins et al., 2022; Mitchell et al., 2021). Culture influences how, when, why, and for whom certain milestones (e.g., committed partnerships, education, childbearing/rearing, careers, etc.) are valued and prioritized (Fortenberry, 2014; Maysseless & Keren, 2014; Suleiman et al., 2017). While identity and behavior are frequently considered from an individual level, doing so can perpetuate the notion that certain groups are “failing” versus “succeeding” at accessing sexual wellness rather than examining the structural and social conditions that foster both outcomes (Fine & McClelland, 2016).

Within families and sexual relationships, members continuously shape and are shaped by a co-constructed culture unique to their own intersecting identities and experiences (Kerr & Bowen, 1988; Few-Demo et al., 2017). On the familial level, parents’ relationships and parent-youth interpersonal processes shape their children’s romantic and sexual values and relationships (Collins, 2003; Collins et al., 2009; Conger et al., 2000; Overbeek et al., 2007; Truant et al., 1987; Warren & Warren, 2015). Intergenerational effects (Kerr & Bowen, 1988) could be particularly salient during adolescence, a critical time for foundational conversations, decisions, and experiences that impact long-term outcomes related to adult health and wellness (De Meyer et al., 2022). Societally, socio-cultural factors create and maintain power dynamics while shaping what a family or sexual relationship “is or ought to be” (Few-Demo et al.,

2017, p. 179; Harden, 2014). Based on previous feminist-informed relational scholarship (LeMaster, 2014), it can be argued that sexual development is privileged and subjugated “dependent upon the interplay of one’s multiple identity locations about broader institutional, structural, familial, and social discourses” (Few-Demo et al., 2017; Harden, 2014). Thus, the current study employed feminist-informed family systems theory to examine multidirectional interaction between families, youth sexual development, and facets of intersecting identity.

The bulk of human sexuality research is isomorphic to Western sexuality discourse where desire and pleasure are erased and marginalization is instead focus on “risk, disease, and dysfunction and [reinforce] heteronormativity” (Bay-Cheng, 2013; Fine, 1988; Jones, 2019, p. 643). It is, therefore, unsurprising that youth sexuality research historically focused heavily on risk and harm reduction including unwanted pregnancies, sexually transmitted infections, sexual coercion, early onset (i.e., intercourse beginning at 14 years of age or younger), multiple sexual partners, and intimate partner violence (Boislard et al., 2016; DiIorio et al., 2003; Harden, 2014; Jones, 2019; Kågesten & van Reeuwijk, 2021). More recently, the call for normalizing youth sexual exploration as a vital developmental task and ethical imperative shifts the focus from sexual risk to sexual health and equity (Bay-Cheng, 2013; Boislard et al., 2016; Halpern, 2023). Reconceptualizing youth sexual behaviors as culturally normative, healthy, and developmentally instrumental (Bay-Cheng, 2013; Halpern, 2010; Harden, 2014; Vasilenko et al., 2014; Tolman & McClelland, 2011) has been part of an overall shift towards a sex-positive framework that views sexuality across the lifespan as an indicator of overall health and wellness (Harden, 2014; Kågesten & van Reeuwijk, 2021; Suleiman et al., 2017). Feminist and family systems scholarship (Few-Demo et al., 2017) aligns with a positive sexual framework (Bay-Cheng, 2012; Harden, 2014; Ivanski & Kohut, 2017; Queen & Comella, 2008; White et al., 2023) by seeking to empower marginalized voices. Consequently, the current study utilized a sex-positive framework to examine the relationship between sexual agency and sexual communication.

Youth sexual health correlates with sexual health throughout their lifespan (Fortenberry, 2014; Långström & Hanson, 2006). However, insufficient research has been conducted to understand the

underlying mechanisms of healthy youths' sexual development (Fortenberry, 2014). Research on youth ages 17 to 21 found indirect effects between sexual self-efficacy, communication, pleasure, and wellness (Mastro & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2015). More so than formal or informal education (i.e., sexual education or families, culture, and society), Fortenberry (2014) posited that youths might learn a great deal from their sexual experiences, suggesting the need for additional research on satisfying youth-partner sexual interactions. Furthermore, outcomes pass through multiple generations, such as parenting style (Savelieva et al., 2017) and the correlation between educational attainment and reproduction (Johnson & Tyler, 2007). Though developing sexual well-being occurs across the lifespan, youth sexual development might be the fulcrum for lifelong healthy sexuality (Halpern, 2023).

The current study added to the growing body of empirical research utilizing feminist-informed and positive sexuality frameworks to counter the risk, disease, and deficit-focused literature on youth sexuality (Bay-Cheng, 2013; Christensen et al., 2017; Harden, 2014). Instead of asking *how* and *why* sexual agency predicts sexual satisfaction as if the relationship between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction is thought to be caused by intersectional identity, I utilize moderation to understand *when* and *for whom* sexual agency predicts sexual satisfaction (Hall & Sammons, 2013). A nuanced perspective of the current study included dyadically examining sexual agency and sexual satisfaction within a family systems lens. This study expanded beyond the interdependence between partner reports of sexual communication and sexual satisfaction by examining intergenerational associations. The current study had three main research questions and corresponding hypotheses, as seen in Table 1.

- R1. How is one's sexual agency associated with their sexual satisfaction across roles (parent/youth) and gender (father/mother and son/daughter) in a family system (dyad)?
 - H1. Actor effects will be positive and significant for both parents and youth.
- R2. How are intergenerational processes of sexual agency associated with sexual satisfaction across roles (parent/youth) and gender (father/mother and son/daughter) in a family system (dyad)?

- H2. Partner effect will be positive and significant for parents only.
- R3. How do intergenerational processes of intersecting identities buffer sexual agency and sexual satisfaction associations across roles (parent/youth) and gender (father/mother and son/daughter) in a family system (dyad)?
 - H3. Interaction effects will be positive and significant when moderated by parent social class only.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Feminist-informed family systems theory framed the hypothesized study's methodology to examine sexual experiences as co-created within partner, familial, and societal contexts. Sexual agency, sexual satisfaction, and social class are complex constructs requiring a multiprong analytic approach. Earlier scholarship examined actor-partner effects on the relationship between sexual communication (Queen & Comella, 2008; Roles & Janssen, 2020) and sexual functioning (Velten & Margraf, 2017), with sexual satisfaction as the outcome variable. It has also been asserted that sexuality is “best explained by considering actor, partner, and interpersonal dimensions” (Velten & Margraf, 2017), and feminist-informed literature advocates for focusing on positive sexual outcomes rather than focusing on dysfunction and deficit (Jones, 2019). Furthermore, failure to utilize a feminist-informed framework at the onset of the study design runs the risk of disregarding social positioning as an interdependent and multi-directional determinant of health (Miani et al., 2021). Thus, the hypothesized study explored intergenerational processes of sexual agency as a predictor variable for sexual satisfaction outcomes in parent-youth dyads while moderating for intersecting identities. Despite the limits of pairfam data collection (a single measure that conflates sex with gender and flattens participants into binary categories), this study took a feminist-informed approach to recognize social justice complexities—specifically, the intersection of sex and social class. The hypothesized study had three main research questions and three main corresponding hypotheses, as seen in Table 1.

Research Questions/Hypotheses

- R1. How is one's sexual agency associated their sexual satisfaction across roles (parent/youth) and gender R1. How is one's sexual agency associated with their sexual satisfaction across roles (parent/youth) and gender (father/mother and son/daughter) in a family system (dyad)?

- H1. Actor effects will be positive and significant for both parents and youth.
- R2. How are intergenerational processes of sexual agency associated with sexual satisfaction across roles (parent/youth) and gender (father/mother and son/daughter) in a family system (dyad)?
 - H2. Partner effect would be positive and significant for parents only.
- R3. How do intergenerational processes of intersecting identities buffer sexual agency and sexual satisfaction associations across roles (parent/youth) and gender (father/mother and son/daughter) in a family system (dyad)?
 - H3. Interaction effects will be positive and significant when moderated by parent social class only.

Table 1*Labeling System for Regression Coefficient Paths*

H	Parent Sexual Satisfaction (Y1)			Youth Sexual Satisfaction (Y2)		
	Path	Label	b_h	Path	Label	b_h
Hypothesized Paths						
R1/H1: Sexual Agency Actor Effects (AX)	1a. $X1 \rightarrow Y1$	AX1	+	1b. $X2 \rightarrow Y2$	AX2	+
R2/H2: Sexual Agency Partner Effects (PX)	2a. $X2 \rightarrow Y1$	PX1	N.S.	2b. $X1 \rightarrow Y2$	PX2	+
R3/H3: Social Class Interaction Effects						
Partner Sexual Agency*Partner Social Class (PXPZ)	3a. $X2Z2 \rightarrow Y1$	PXPZ1	N.S.	3b. $X1Z1 \rightarrow Y2$	PXPZ2	+
Partner Sexual Agency*Actor Social Class (PXAZ)	3c. $X2Z1 \rightarrow Y1$	PXAZ1	+	3d. $X1Z2 \rightarrow Y2$	PXAZ2	N.S.
Actor Sexual Agency*Partner Social Class (AXPZ)	3e. $X1Z2 \rightarrow Y1$	AXPZ1	N.S.	3f. $X2Z1 \rightarrow Y2$	AXPZ2	+
Non-Hypothesized Paths						
Social Class Actor Effects (AZ)	$Z1 \rightarrow Y1$	AZ1	N.H.	$Z2 \rightarrow Y2$	AZ2	N.H.
Social Class Partner Effects (PZ)	$Z2 \rightarrow Y1$	PZ1	N.H.	$Z1 \rightarrow Y2$	AZ2	N.H.
Actor Sexual Agency*Actor Social Class (AXAZ)	$X1Z1 \rightarrow Y1$	AXAZ1	N.H.	$X2Z2 \rightarrow Y2$	AXAZ2	N.H.

Note. Though gendered roles are embedded into the research questions, design, and analysis, directionality was not hypothesized a priori.

Abbreviations: *R* = research question, *H* = hypotheses, *Path* = regression coefficient path, *Label* = path label, b_h = hypothesized beta values, *X1* = parent sexual agency, *X2* = youth sexual agency, *Z1* = parent social class, *Z2* = youth social class, * = moderated by, + = positive and statistically significant beta value, N.S. = not statistically significant beta value, N.H. = non-hypothesized beta values.

Procedures

This study utilized secondary data from the longitudinal German pairfam study (Brüderl et al., 2018; Brüderl, Garrett, et al., 2022; Brüderl, Schmiedeberg, et al., 2022; Huinink et al., 2011). The pairfam study was designed to collect data annually from multiple cohorts and actors from 2008 (Wave 1) through 2022 (Wave 13). Pairfam explores intergenerational processes such as the transmission of communication and coping behaviors. The pairfam study includes thousands of variables collected across 13 waves from eight perspectives of a family system, including parents and their youths. Parents were the primary participants in the longitudinal study, referred to as “anchors” in the pairfam dataset. At the same time, the youths were the children of the anchors in the longitudinal study. When the anchor’s children reached 15 years of age or older, they were referred to as “step-ups” in the pairfam study. When youths transitioned into becoming step-ups, they were given anchor questionnaires (such that their questionnaires were identical to those given to their parents) and step-up-specific questionnaires. Germany is considered to hold liberal viewpoints similar to other western nations regarding sexual socialization (Klein & Brunner, 2018), which is perhaps why youth at the age of 15 years old begin to answer questions about their sexual relationships. For this study, the original datasets will be reduced to include only focal variables from Waves 5 to 13, from parents and their youths. Participants responded to study target variables every other year such that data for this study came from Wave 5, Wave 7, Wave 9, Wave 11, and Wave 13. See Huinink et al. (2011) for a conceptual review of the pairfam project. The external validity of the pairfam study was established through previous research (Brüderl et al., 2018). The Institutional Review Board at Texas Woman’s University reviewed this study and determined it was exempt due to not involving human subjects.

Family Identification Number System

A sub-sample was created of parent-youth dyads in which each member responded to questions related to target variables. Specifically, pairfam assigned each participant a unique identification number of at least six digits. Nested within each ID, the first three or more digits identified the family system (family ID), the hundreds place indicated the participant’s role within the family system (zero indicated

the participant was a parent, and two indicated the participant was the parent's child), and the tens and ones places indicated the sequence within the family system (01 indicated the participant was the anchor's first child to join the study). The sequence did not always mirror birth order (i.e., child 201 was not always older than child 202). For example, the participant with ID 111,000 reflects a parent of the family system 111, and their child would be identified as 111,201. With the same logic, participant 21,446,203 represents the third child to join the study but the second child born into family system 21,446.

Dataset Aggregations

Each wave of data was divided by respondents such that parents' (anchors) responses to Wave 11 were a separate dataset from their youth (step-ups) responses to Wave 11. Thus, there were five anchor datasets, one for each target wave (Wave 5 through Wave 13, biennially) and five step-up datasets:

1. Each dataset was reduced to demographic and target variables by dropping unused variables and resaving the dataset.
2. Each variable in each dataset was relabeled. In other words, in the Wave-7-Anchor dataset, ID becomes p7id to reflect that the data source was parents (anchors), Wave 7.
3. Using the previously described family identification number system, I created a family identification number (FamID) for each participant in each dataset using the previously described coding system. For example, the participant with ID 111,000 was given the FamID 111, the participant with ID 21,446,203 was given the FamID 21,446, and so on.
4. Per wave, parent and youth data were combined via the add variable, one-to-one merge by FamID. Consequently, each wave featured a dataset of cases organized dyadically (individual cases represented a parent-youth family system).
5. For each wave, cases were manually reviewed for duplication and missingness.
 - First, duplicate FamIDs were identified and assessed. When two or more youths shared a family ID (FamID 6,208 was listed twice, once for youth 6,208,201 and once for youth 6,208,202), the sibling with more missing data was removed.

- Second, cases with missing dyadic data (data was present for one member of the dyad but not the other) were removed.
6. Waves were combined via the add variable, one-to-one merge by FamID. Consequently, each case (parent-youth family system) could have one to five waves of data in wide format.
 7. Each case was manually reviewed for duplication, mismatches, and missingness.

First, duplicate FamIDs were identified and assessed.

- When two or more youths shared a family ID (FamID 6,208 was listed twice, once for youth 6,208,201 and once for youth 6,208,202), AND those cases had multiple waves of data, I verified that cases were correctly matched. Specifically, FamID 6,208a contained data for 6,208,201 only, and FamID 6,208b contained data for 6,208,202 only.
 - Cases of mismatched data (FamID 6,208a contained data for 6,208,201 on Wave 5 and 6,208,202 on Wave 7; FamID 6,208b contained data for 6,208,202 on Wave 5 and 6,208,201 on Wave 7) were manually corrected.
 - Second, any case with multiple waves of data was assessed for mismatches and manually corrected. For example, if FamID 111,000 contained data for 111,201 on Wave 5 and 111,202 on Wave 7, I manually divided the data into two cases: FamID 111,000a contained data for 111,201 on Wave 5, and FamID 111,000b containing data for 111,202 on Wave 7.
 - Third, when two or more youths shared a family ID (FamID 6,208 was listed twice, once for youth 6,208,201 and once for youth 6,208,202), the sibling with more missing data was removed.
8. Each case was narrowed down to contain one wave of data. When a FamID contained two or more waves, the retained wave had the least amount of missing data on variables used in the

analysis. If an equal amount of data was presented for multiple waves, the first available wave of data was selected to capture younger participants.

9. Managing excessive missingness on focal variables related to sexual satisfaction and agency, of which there were five items. A count variable indicated the number of questions each dyad member answered. Cases in which one or more members of the dyad did not answer at least one of the five items were removed.

Samples

The final sample included parent-youth dyads; thus, the unit of analysis consisted of a parent-youth dyad. More specifically, a dyad referred to one of the following relationships: mother-son ($n = 236$), father-son ($n = 99$), mother-daughter ($n = 249$), or father-daughter ($n = 95$). It is important to note that the pairfam questionnaire was organized such that if participants indicated they had never engaged in sexual intercourse, they were not presented with questions about sexual agency. Conversely, all participants were asked to indicate their level of sexual satisfaction, regardless of sexual intercourse history. Prior engagement in sexual activity is a common qualifier for research participants (de Graaf et al., 2010) due to the immense differences between sexually active youth versus their sexually non-active peers. However, having engaged in sexual intercourse was not a prerequisite for the current study if the participant responded to the question about sexual satisfaction, because sexual satisfaction involves multiple factors beyond just intercourse (Hajek et al., 2022). The only inclusion criterion was the availability of dyadic data (responses collected from parents and youths).

In addition to the primary sample ($N = 679$ dyads, which I called the ‘whole sample’ or ‘sample 1’), I created sub-samples to aid in analyzing intersecting identities. Specifically, throughout the analysis, I grouped observations by gender such that I used data from all fathers and their youths ($N = 194$ father-youth dyads, sample 2), mothers and their youths ($N = 485$ mother-youth dyads, sample 3), sons and their parents ($N = 335$ parent-son dyads, sample 4), and daughters and their parents ($N = 344$ parent-daughter dyads, sample 5). In doing so, samples were moderated by age (parent-youth) and gender (father-youth vs mother-youth dyads and parent-son vs parent-daughter dyads).

Descriptive Statistics

Whole Sample of Parent-Youth Dyads

The main sample consisted of parent-youth dyads ($N = 679$ dyads), as seen in Table 2. Descriptive statistics (see Table 2) indicated that parents were predominantly mothers ($n = 485$, 71.43%), an average of 44.72 years old ($SD = 3.73$), German natives ($n = 520$), with no history of migration ($n = 656$, 76.58%), and most completed at upper secondary school (12th grade; $n = 344$, 50.66%). Parents more often reported no history of migration ($n = 520$, 76.58%). Youth gender was evenly distributed ($n = 344$ daughters, 50.66%), with an average age of 17.86 years old ($SD = 2.05$), and identified as German natives ($n = 379$, 55.82%), with no history of migration ($n = 350$, 51.55%), and were either enrolled in or completed high school ($n = 418$, 61.56%). Appendix A through Appendix D depict demographic statistics on subsamples.

Table 2*Demographics: Sample 1. Parent-Youth Dyads*

	Parents			Youths		
	%	M(<i>SD</i>)	R	%	M(<i>SD</i>)	R
Sex	100.00	1.71 (0.45)	1-2	100.00	1.51 (0.50)	1-2
Male	28.57			49.34		
Female	71.43			50.66		
Age	99.85	44.72 (3.73)	31-50	100.00	17.86 (2.05)	15-26
ISEI	89.10	45.13 (20.19)	14-89	30.93	36.19 (14.35)	12-79
10-29	29.16			13.40		
30-50	22.24			10.90		
51-70	24.74			5.74		
71-90	12.96			0.88		
Missing	10.90			69.07		
Migration Status	96.61	1.3 (0.64)	1-3	59.65	1.26 (0.66)	1-3
No Migration	76.73			51.55		
History						
1st Generation	10.60			0.74		
2nd Generation	9.28			7.36		
Missing	3.39			40.35		
Ethnicity	96.61	1.56 (1.22)	1-5	65.10	1.43 (1.13)	1-5
German Native	76.58			55.82		
Non-German	20.03			9.28		
Native						
Missing	3.39			34.90		
Education	99.85	4.97 (1.65)	1-8	98.67	4.35 (1.45)	0-7
Currently enrolled	0.00			1.47		
No degree	2.06			3.09		
Lower Sec.	6.77			18.11		
Upper Sec.	50.66			61.56		
Post Sec. Non-Ter.	9.13			5.74		
1st Stage of Ter.	29.75			8.69		
2nd Stage of Ter.	1.47			0.00		
Missing	0.15			1.33		

Note. *N* = 679 parent-youth dyads. Abbreviations: % = percentage of total cases, *M* = mean, *SD* =

standard deviation, *R* = range, ISEI = international socio-economic index of occupational status, Sec. =

secondary, Ter. = tertiary. Education was based on the international standard classification of education

(including those still enrolled). The ISEI groups occupations based on income and education such that

lower numbers represent higher social class.

Measures

Sexual Agency (Predictor)

The following four manifest items were combined into one latent variable referred to as sexual agency: (a) “I am a very good sex partner,” (b) “If I want something specific during sexual contact, I say or show it,” (c) “I can fulfill sexual needs and desires of my partner very well,” and (d) “I can express my sexual needs and desires very well.” The inclusion of relational and dyadic items (“I am a very good sex partner,” “I can fulfill sexual needs and desires of my partner very well”) are theoretically and empirically supported by the belief that one’s sexual satisfaction is linked to perceptions of one’s partner’s satisfaction (Impett et al., 2020; Maes et al., 2023; Salerno et al., 2015). Additionally, these items closely resemble items from the Female Sexual Subjectivity Inventory (FSSI; Horne & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2006), the Men’s Sexual Subjectivity Inventory (MSSI; Zimmer-Gembeck & French, 2016), and the Sexual Communication Self-Efficacy Scale (Quinn-Nilas et al., 2016). Previous studies utilized similar items to measure sexual agency (Cherkasskaya & Rosario, 2017; Chmielewski et al., 2020). Respondents answered each question on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from one (‘never’) to five (‘always’). Mean scale computation created an overall score such that higher scores indicate a greater level of sexual agency. Participants were asked to self-report their interactions with their sexual partners. Thus, at the parent-level, parents were asked to consider their sexual experiences with their adult partners. Similarly, at the youth-level, youth were asked to consider their sexual experiences with their youth partners. Cronbach’s alpha of sexual agency items indicated sufficient scale reliability for parents ($\alpha = .83$ to $.88$) and youths ($\alpha = .77$ to $.88$), based on whether they were assessed by the whole sample or stratified by gender (see Table 2).

Sexual Satisfaction (Outcome)

Sexual satisfaction was measured using a single-item manifest variable. Ogallar-Blanco et al. (2022) noted a lack of consensus on how sexual satisfaction is measured. However, a single-item measurement of sexual satisfaction is shared among similar research (e.g., Sánchez-Fuentes et al., 2014) and is an empirically supported approach (Mark et al., 2014). Thus, the current study mirrored previous

scholarship by utilizing a single-item measurement of sexual satisfaction. Participants were asked to rate their sexual satisfaction on an 11-point Likert scale (“How satisfied are you with your sex life?”).

Responses were re-coded to align with the sexual agency scale by condensing from an 11-point scale to a 5-point scale. Higher scores of sexual satisfaction indicated a greater level of sexual satisfaction in the partnership.

Intersecting Identities (Moderators)

Role/Age

Role was measured by attending to which original dataset individual participants were used. Specifically, if the participant data came from anchor datasets, they were considered parents. If the participant data came from step-up datasets, they were considered youth. Role was then used as a proxy for age differences in that parents represented individuals in middle adulthood and youth represented adolescents and emerging adults.

Gender

Participant gender was synchronized from data collected across waves and alternative datasets while accounting for measurement error. Pairfam used the following criteria for generating gender information, “(1) Self-reported sex information was preferred over proxy information. (2) The value stated most often was used. (3) If two values had been stated equally often, the most recent value was preferred” (Brüderl, Drobnič, & Hank, 2022, p. 34). Out of the parent-youth dyads ($N = 679$), the study consisted of individual men ($n = 539$) and women ($n = 829$). Stratified by role, the study consisted of fathers ($n = 194$), mothers ($n = 485$), sons ($n = 335$), and daughters ($n = 344$).

Social Class

Social class was measured using a continuous latent variable comprising three items of manifest economic/financial deprivation (EFD; Köppen et al., 2018; Schwarz et al., 1997, as cited in Thönnissen et al., 2021). Related studies of sexual agency utilize similar composites to measure social class (Cha, 2022), and extant literature on socioeconomic status advocates for moving beyond single-item measure (Yang et al., 2020). Existing research studies support the assumption that parental opportunities, resources, and

similar markers of social stratification are handed down through generations (Perelli-Harris et al., 2010). The current study considered the social class a between-dyads and within-dyads moderator. Therefore, scores differed from one dyad to the next (between), and scores differed from one dyad member to the other (within; Chow et al., 2015; Garcia et al., 2015a).

Social class was measured using parent and youth responses to three items: (1) “We often have to forego something because we have to watch our budget”; (2) “We are mostly short of money”; and (3) “How satisfied are you generally with your household’s financial situation?” Respondents answered the first two questions on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from one (‘not at all correct’) to five (‘completely correct’). Results were reverse coded such that higher scores indicate less deprivation. Financial satisfaction was originally an 11-point Likert scale ranging from zero (‘very dissatisfied’) to 10 (‘very satisfied’). Financial satisfaction results were re-coded on a 5-point scale such that higher scores indicated greater satisfaction. Cronbach’s alpha of social class items indicated sufficient scale reliability for parents ($\alpha = .80$ to $.90$) and youths ($\alpha = .79$ to $.89$), based on whether assessed by the whole sample or stratified by gender. See Table 3 for social class Cronbach’s alpha coefficients based on specific identities.

Table 3*Scale Reliability Scores for All Dyads*

Sample	Sexual Agency (X)				Social Class (Z)			
	Parents (X1)		Youths (X2)		Parents (Z1)		Youths (Z2)	
	N (%)	α	N (%)	α	N (%)	α	N (%)	α
Whole Sample								
1. Parent-Youth Dyads	494 (72.80)	.873	305 (44.90)	.806	674 (99.30)	.879	666 (98.10)	.869
Stratified by Parent Gender								
2. Father-Youth Dyads	144 (74.20)	.855	71 (36.60)	.862	194 (100.00)	.859	188 (96.90)	.841
3. Mother-Youth Dyads	350 (72.20)	.879	234 (48.20)	.785	480 (100.00)	.886	478 (98.60)	.878
Stratified by Youth Gender								
4. Parent-Son Dyads	253 (75.50)	.880	125 (40.40)	.790	331 (98.80)	.865	328 (97.90)	.856
5. Parent-Daughter Dyads	241 (70.10)	.866	170 (49.40)	.816	343 (99.70)	.891	338 (98.30)	.879

Note. N = number of valid parent-youth dyad cases, % = percentage of total cases, α = Cronbach's alpha.

Preliminary Analysis Plan

Descriptive and Correlational Statistics

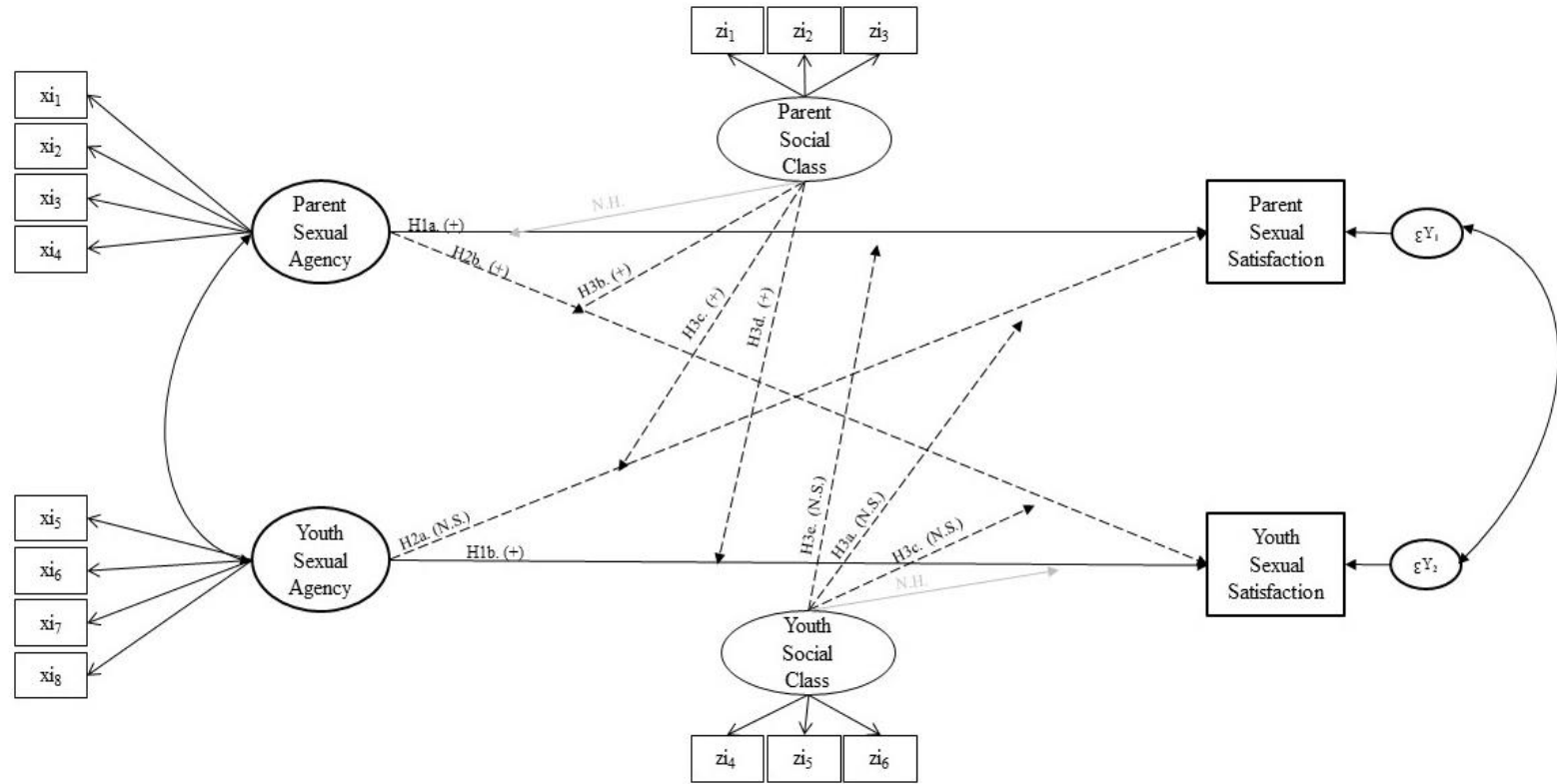
The preliminary analysis assessed for missingness, outliers, and descriptive and correlational statistics in Statistical Package for Social Sciences software (SPSS) to verify assumptions of normality. Assumptions of normality among the data were evaluated based on skewness and kurtosis. Primary variables were assessed using Kline's (2016) assumptions of normality based on skewness (less than or equal to 3.0) and kurtosis (less than or equal to 10) using SPSS 27. Second, variables were centered around their sample means (Garcia et al., 2015a) in preparation for the APIMoM analysis in MPlus 8. Centering variables reduces collinearity between interactions and allows moderation results to be interpretable (Aiken & West, 1991; Cook & Kenny, 2005, 2016; Garcia et al., 2015a; Gillis et al., 2016; Kenny et al., 2006). For the same reason, centering is recommended when employing latent structural equation modeling (LSM; Cheung et al., 2021). Additionally, statistical significance was tested at an alpha level of .05 unless otherwise noted.

Design Overview

The hypothesized APIMoM employed structural equation modeling to dyadically assess the relationship between agency and satisfaction and the latent moderating effects of social class on this association (Garcia et al., 2015a; Garcia et al., 2015b). Latent predictor (agency) and latent moderator (social class) variables were used to reduce measurement error, which required LSM (Cheung et al., 2021; Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000). Figure 1 depicts a conceptual view of the overall model. The following section provides a brief overview of actor-partner and latent structural equation modeling employed in this study.

Figure 1

Conceptual Model: APIMoM With LMS



Note. Conceptual depiction of the hypothesized baseline actor-partner interdependence moderation model (APIMoM) using latent structural equation modeling (LMS). Abbreviations: xi = sexual agency indicators, zi = social class indicators, (+) = positive and significant hypothesized outcome, (N.S.) = non-significant hypothesized outcome, N.H. = non-hypothesized outcome.

Actor-partner interdependence modeling (APIM) has long regarded as an ideal strategy for analyzing non-independent data because it accounts for shared residuals/errors and precisely assesses interdependencies among participants (Kenny et al., 2006; Kenny & Judd, 1996; Peugh et al., 2013). The current study utilized non-independent data by sampling participants from the same family systems (parent-youth dyads). Several terms were especially salient in the APIMoM. For instance, there were *actor effects*, referred to the intrapersonal association between an individual's agency or social class and their own satisfaction, and *partner effects*, referred to the interpersonal association between an individual's agency or social class and their partner's satisfaction (Garcia et al., 2015a; Peugh et al., 2013). In the current study, partner effects were defined about exogenous variables (agency and social class). Hence, parent sexual agency/social class to youth sexual satisfaction ($X_1 \rightarrow Y_2$; $Z_1 \rightarrow Y_2$) was referred to as the *parent partner effect*, and youth sexual agency/social class to parent sexual satisfaction ($X_2 \rightarrow Y_1$; $Z_2 \rightarrow Y_1$). *Moderator effects*, referred to the two-way interaction of sexual agency and sexual satisfaction moderated by social class (Garcia et al., 2015a; Peugh et al., 2013), were defined as the moderating variable (social class). Hyphenated terminology clarified moderator effects such that the agency variables were hyphenated with the social class variable (Garcia et al., 2015a). In other words, youth sexual agency to youth sexual satisfaction moderated by parent social class ($X_2Z_2 \rightarrow Y_1$) was referred to as the *parent partner-partner moderator*, and parent sexual agency to parent sexual satisfaction moderated by youth social class ($X_1Z_1 \rightarrow Y_2$) was referred to as the youth *partner-partner moderator*.

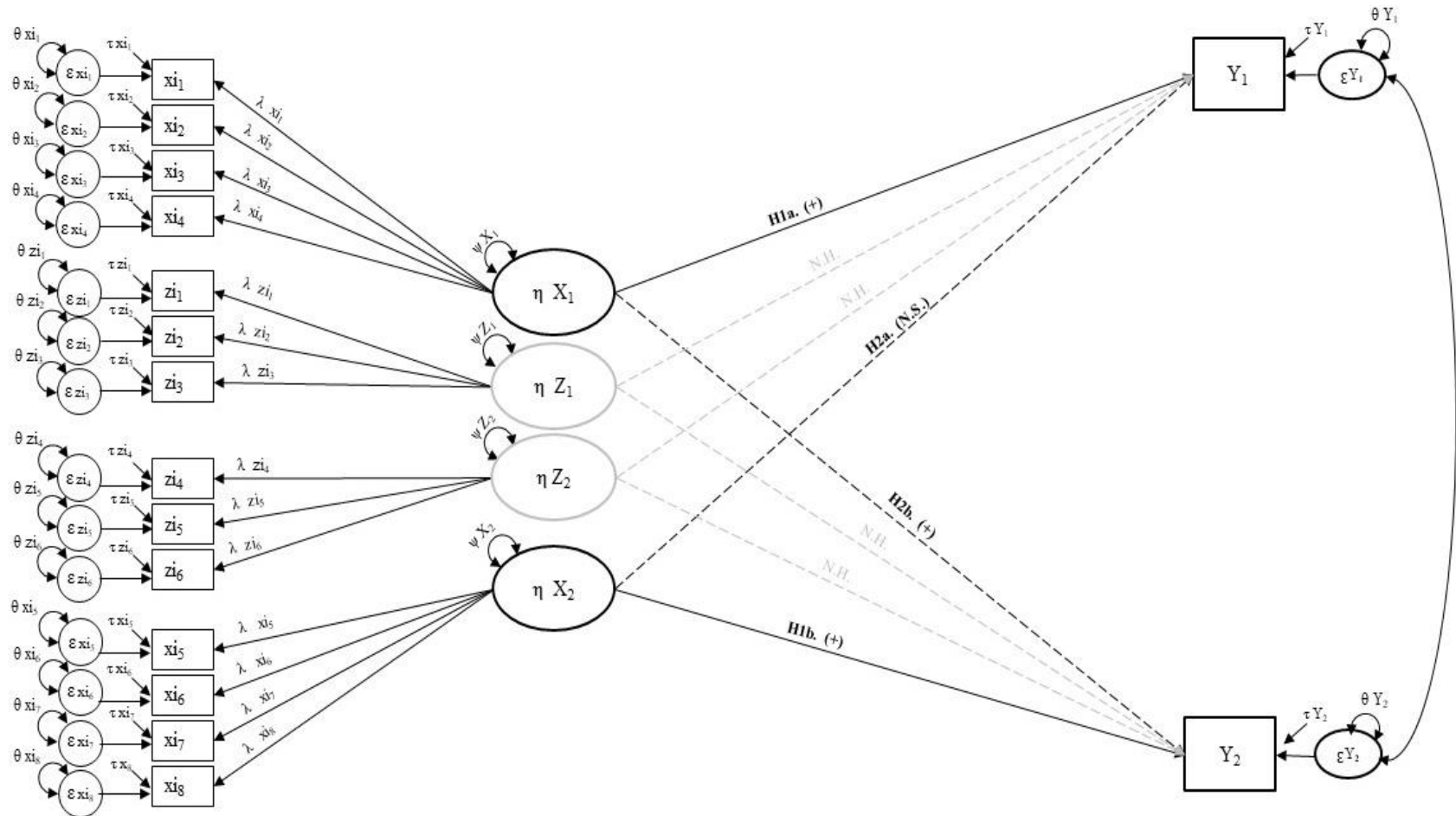
The methods section describes in-depth information regarding model creation and analysis. However, the current study utilized a specific naming standard to delineate between many models. First, APIM analysis dictates comparison between a fully saturated model (model-a; Ma), with a fully constrained model (model-b; Mb), to verify empirical distinguishability (described in the analysis plan). If distinguishability is empirically validated, constraint testing (described in the analysis plan) is used to identify the most parsimonious model, a partially constrained model (Mc).

Second, LMS requires creating two core models: a baseline null model with only direct effects and a latent moderation hypothesized model with latent interaction terms (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000). Thus, the current study utilized a *baseline/null APIMoM* (M0, Figure 2), where parent and youth sexual agency and social class scores were used to predict both parent sexual satisfaction and youth sexual satisfaction, embedded within the *full APIMoM* (M1, Figure 3), referred to the addition of moderation effects (Garcia et al., 2015a; Peugh et al., 2013). Combining APIM with LMS resulted in the following six core models:

1. A fully saturated model *without* latent interaction terms (M0a).
2. A fully saturated model *with* latent interaction terms (M1a).
3. A fully constrained model *without* latent interaction terms (M0b).
4. A fully constrained model *with* latent interaction terms (M1b).
5. A partially constrained saturated *without* latent interaction terms (M0c).
6. A fully constrained model *with* latent interaction terms (M1c).

Figure 2

Statistical Model: M0. Basic/Baseline APIMoM (No Interactions)



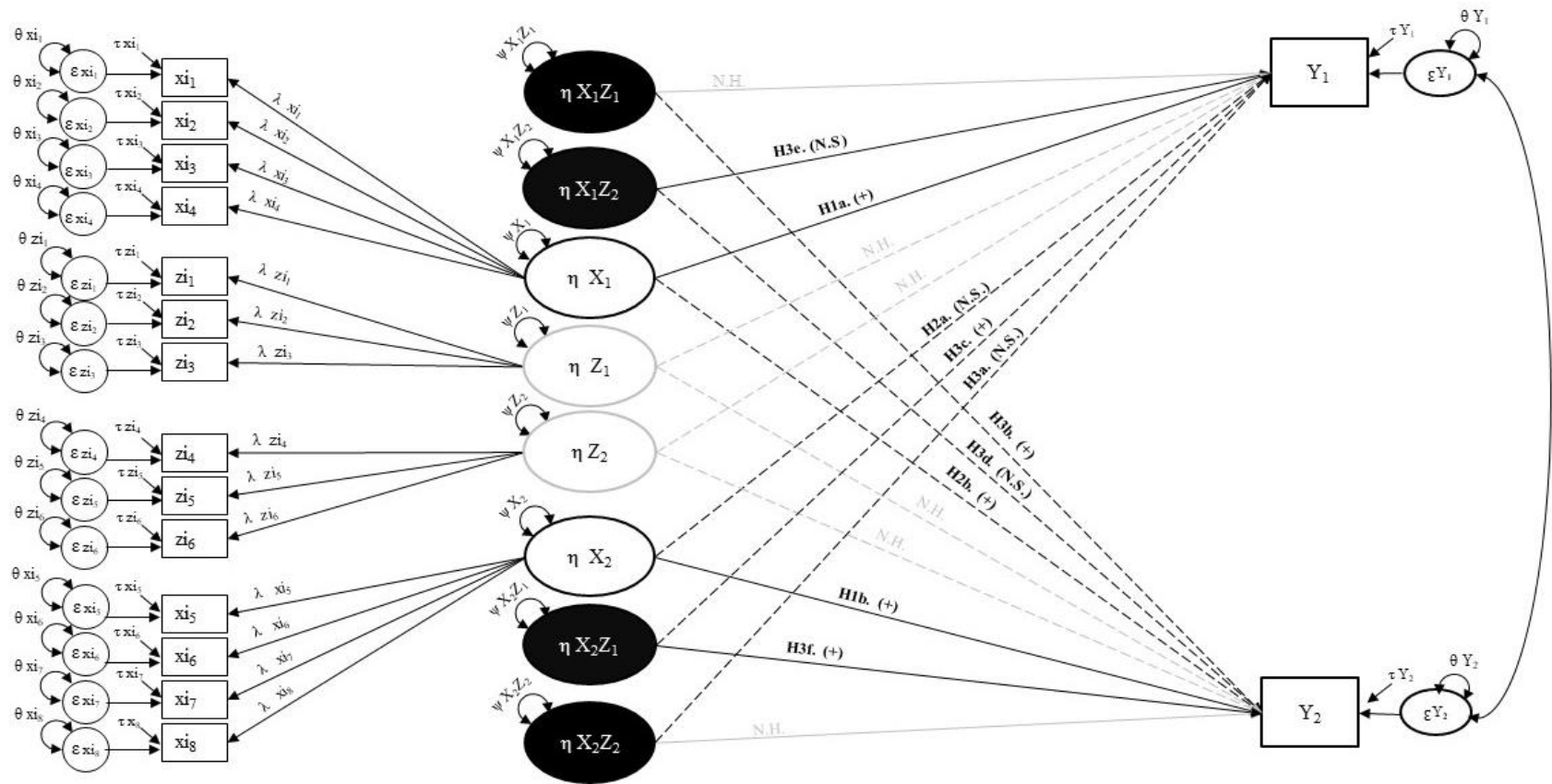
Note. Statistical depiction of the hypothesized baseline actor-partner interdependence moderation model without interaction terms (M0. APIMoM)

using latent structural equation modeling (LMS). Abbreviations: X = sexual agency predictor variable, xi = sexual agency indicator, Z = social

class moderator variable, z_i = social class indicator, Y = outcome: sexual satisfaction), (+) = positive and significant hypothesized outcome, (N.S.) = non-significant hypothesized outcome, N.H. = non-hypothesized outcomes.

Figure 3

Statistical Model: M1. Full APIMoM (With Interactions)



Note. Statistical depiction of the hypothesized full actor-partner interdependence moderation model with interaction terms (M1. APIMoM) using latent structural equation modeling (LMS). Abbreviations: X = sexual agency predictor variable, xi = sexual agency indicator, Z = social class

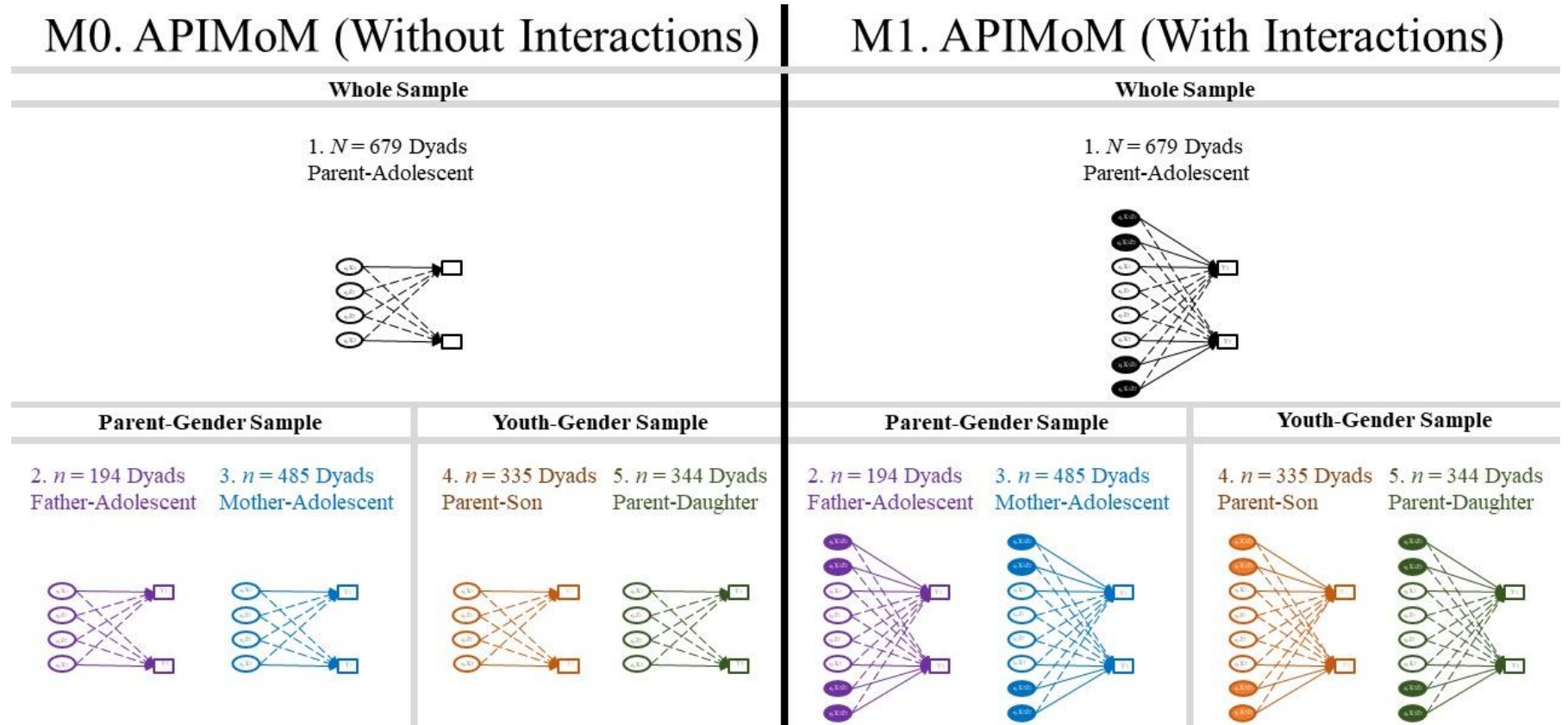
moderator variable, z_i = social class indicator, Y = outcome: sexual satisfaction), XZ = sexual agency and social class interaction effect, (+) = positive and significant hypothesized outcome, (N.S.) = non-significant hypothesized outcome, N.H. = non-hypothesized outcomes.

Finally, examining intersecting identities via APIMoM with LMS requires comparing each core model (M0a, M0b, M0c, M1a, M1b, and m1c) across multiple dyads. Due to the analysis' complexity, simply examining data with dyad-sex as a grouping variable would have resulted in insufficient and unequal sample sizes for some of the dyads ($n = 99$ father-son dyads, $n = 95$ father-daughter dyads, $n = 236$ mother-son dyads, $n = 249$ mother-daughter dyads). Therefore, analysis grouped by dyad gender would produce unstable/unreliable results.

Instead, I utilized one main sample (sample one) and four subpopulations (samples two through five). In other words, I first constructed dyadic models for all parents and youths (sample 1; $N = 679$ dyads) in the whole sample (W-M0a, W-M0b, W-M0c, W-M1a, W-M1b, W-M1c). To reduce the computational complexity in an already convoluted design, I opted to run each model one at a time per distinguishing variable (gender) rather than utilizing a group latent class modeling approach. Therefore, I repeated the same process I used when analyzing the whole sample but employed the USEOBSERVATIONS command in MPlus to define specific participants. The result was four separate subsamples consisting of fathers and their youths (Sample 2; $N = 194$ dyads; F-M0a, F-M0b, F-M0c, F-M1a, F-M1b, F-M1c), mother-youth dyads (Sample 3; $N = 485$ dyads; M-M0a, M-M0b, M-M0c, M-M1a, M-M1b, M-M1c), parent-son dyads (Sample 4; $N = 335$ dyads; S-M0a, S-M0b, S-M0c, S-M1a, S-M1b, S-M1c), and parent-daughter dyads (Sample 5; $N = 344$ dyads; D-M0a, D-M0b, D-M0c, D-M1a, D-M1b, D-M1c). In summary, all analysis was run separately for each of the five samples, see Figure 4.

Figure 4

Total APIMoM Models



Note. Conceptual depiction two core models across five samples. Specifically, the full sample was grouped by parent gender to form two subgroups (sample 2: father-youth dyads and sample 3: mother-youth dyads). Then, the full sample was grouped by youth gender to form two subgroups (sample 4: parent-son dyads and sample 5: parent-daughter dyads). Then, both the baseline APIMoM (no interactions) and full

APIMoM (with interactions) were tested on each of the five individual samples. Abbreviation: APIMoM = actor partner interaction moderation model.

Estimator and Model Fit Indices

Though the individual variables in this study demonstrated normal distribution, moderation involves the product of normally distributed variables, violating the normality assumption required for other traditional estimators, such as maximum likelihood (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2014). Therefore, missingness was managed using maximum likelihood with robust standard error (MLR) estimation for all analyses in MPlus because it accounts for nonnormality incurred with latent interaction effects (Cheung et al., 2021). The term nested was used throughout the analysis and referred to implementing stepwise/hierarchical constraints. In other words, model-one constraints remained in model-two; however, model-two imposed additional constraints absent in model-one (MacCallum et al., 2006).

Traditional chi-square distributions are not provided when using MLR estimation, and instead, Mplus reports the Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square ($SB\chi^2$) values and scale correction factors (SCF). Therefore, chi-square difference testing using the Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square ($TRd-SB\chi^2$) can be conducted for testing model fit such that a statistically significant $TRd-SB\chi^2$ indicates a potential increase/decrease in model fit (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2013; Carter & Colwell, 2023; Gareau et al., 2016; Satorra & Bentler, 2001). For instance, $SB\chi^2-TRd$ can assess for changes in absolute fit between fully saturated baseline/null APIMoM models (M0a) and fully constrained baseline/null APIMoM models (M0b; Asparouhov & Muthén; Gareau et al., 2016; Satorra & Bentler, 2001). More specifically, $SB\chi^2-TRd$ can be computed by entering both model's MLR chi-square test of model fit values (also known as the $SB\chi^2$), degrees of freedom, and SCFs for into an online calculator (Carter & Colwell, 2023). As MLR is a common estimator for actor-partner models, the $SB\chi^2$ is commonly used for chi-square difference testing (Gareau et al., 2016).

Loglikelihood ratio testing can also sufficiently compare model fit (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000; Maslowsky et al., 2014; Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2017). Mplus outputs provide loglikelihood of the null model (LL H0) values with each analysis, whereas $SB\chi^2$ and other fit indices are not provided when conducting LMS. MLR scaled loglikelihood difference testing ($LL-TRd$) can be completed using an Excel supplementary spreadsheet by Cheung et al. (2021). More specifically, $LL-TRd$ can be computed by

entering the comparative (least restrictive model) and nested (most restrictive) LL H0 value, the LL H0 scaling correction factor for MLR, and the number of free parameters into the Cheung et al. (2021) spreadsheet. However, it is critical to note that SBx^2-TRd and $LL-TRd$ are known to be mathematically equivalent and produce identical outcomes when accounting for rounding errors (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2013). In other words, results of the difference testing scaling correction (cd) and the chi-square difference test (TRd) are identical (aside from rounding error), regardless of whether computed with the SBx^2 value, SBx^2 SCF, and degrees of freedom versus the LL H0 value, LL0 SCf. And number of free parameters. Since most of the analysis plan involves LMS, $LL-TRd$ was the primary chi-square difference test used and reported throughout structural model testing.

Statistically significant chi-square difference tests indicate that the two models are significantly different from one another and, therefore, not considered equivalent. If the less parsimonious model, least restrictive/less complex comparison model, was significantly different from the more parsimonious model, most restrictive/more complex nested model, it was assumed that the nested model fit the data better than the comparative model (Asparouhov & Muthén; Cheung et al., 2021; Gareau et al., 2016; MacCallum et al., 2006; Satorra & Bentler, 2001). In other words, adding complexity improved model fit.

Given that classical indices of model fit can be biased based on sample size (such as chi-square; (Kline, 2016; Putnick & Bornstein, 2016; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998), alternative fit indices and informative criteria were used to measure and compare the goodness of fit among nested models. Indices included root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), and Akaike Information Criterion (AIC). Kline (2016) suggested that adequate model fit was established when each index's respective cut-off values were met: RMSEA was less than .08, CFI and TLI were greater than .90, and SRMR was less than .10. As noted in several publications, the cut-off recommendations vary throughout the literature such that some scholars surmise a lack of model fit if CFI changes were greater than .010 (Chen, 2007; Cheung & Rensvold, 2002), .005 (Chen, 2007) or .002 (Meade et al., 2008); and changes in RMSEA were more than .030, .015, .010 (Chen, 2007; Rutkowski & Sevтина, 2014). Stand-alone AIC values are not an

interpretable metric of model fit, but when models are compared, the smaller AIC indicates a smaller loss of information and is, therefore, optimal (Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2017). For example, if the more constrained model yielded a lower AIC, it was concluded that it better fit the data than the less restrictive model (Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2017). Therefore, model fit was evaluated based on a combination of indices, including absolute fit (χ^2), approximate fit (RMSEA/CFI/TLI/SRMR), and information criteria (AIC). As described by Cheung et al. (2021), previous scholarship suggests comparing the baseline/null APIMoM with the full APIMoM based on their Akaike information criterion (Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2017) and loglikelihood values with the MLR estimator (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2013; Cheung et al., 2021; Satorra & Bentler, 2001). Both the LL-TRd and AIC difference tests compared nested hypothesized models (e.g., less constrained model versus more constrained model) to determine if the two were statistically different (LL-TRd) and if information loss (AIC) overshadows goodness of fit (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000; MacCallum et al., 2006; Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2017).

Conflicting Absolute Fit and Information Criteria

If the LL-TRd and AIC difference testing results conflict, the LRT was given greater weight because “the AIC does penalize for model complexity, and the inclusion of the interaction terms increases model complexity a great deal” (Maslowsky et al., 2014; Sardeshmukh & Vandenberg, 2017, p. 741). For instance, a model that yields inconsistent results ($\Delta\text{LRT p-value} < .05$; $\text{AIC}_0 > \text{AIC}_1$) simultaneously suggests that the baseline/null APIMoM, relative to the full APIMoM, is optimal because it represents less information loss (smaller AIC) but fits the data significantly worse (statistically significant LRT).

Measurement Model Analysis Plan

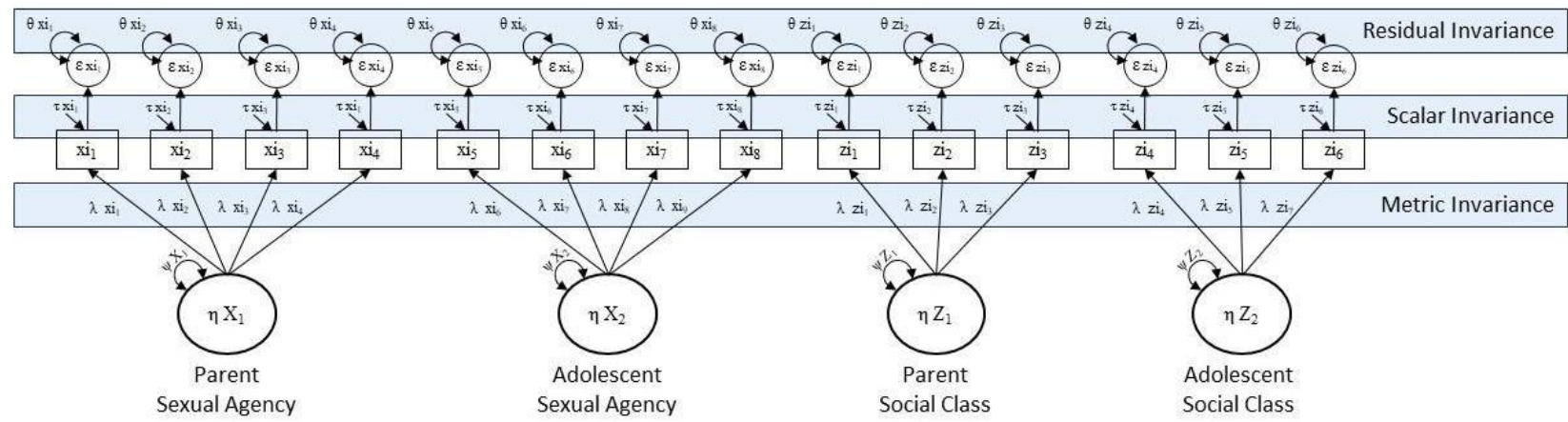
Measurement Invariance/Equality

Using latent variables relied on observed indicators compiled to represent a construct. For example, the construct of “sexual agency” may represent the responses to specific psychosexual questionnaire items. The dyadic latent analysis involves comparing study parameters (e.g., factor loadings, means, regression slopes, etc.) to identify differences between two groups (parents and youths (van de Schoot et al., 2012). Though dyadic analysis typically implies a degree of interdependence,

specific steps were taken to confirm that constructs hold equivalent (invariant) meanings across groups. For the outcomes to be meaningful, ruling out-group member bias via invariance testing was essential (Putnick & Bornstein, 2016). Without confirming invariance, different results could not be singularly attributed to group membership (Kline, 2016). Failure to establish invariance could have resulted in several problems, such as an increased likelihood of type-one errors and decreased replicability (Sakaluk, 2019). Additionally, Desa et al. (2018) noted that the “lack of measurement invariance can introduce bias across subgroups in the survey and lead to ambiguous and erroneous conclusions about cross-cultural differences between the groups involved in the survey about the respective underlying constructs that are measured” (p. 2). The current study used measurement invariance testing via nested CFAs (Kline, 2016) to verify that manifest agency and social class indicators assess the same abstract concepts. In other words, gradually imposing cross-group equality constraints resulted in trimming from a free baseline model to more restrictive models (Kline, 2016). Trivial changes in fit indices between the less restrictive and more restrictive models indicated that the two models were not significantly different and supported the invariance assumption (Putnick & Bornstein, 2016). See Figure 5 for a conceptual model of the measurement invariance models

Figure 5

Metric Equivalence/Invariance



Note. Conceptual model of metric equivalence/invariance for the current study (Putnick & Bornstein, 2016).

First, a freely estimated CFA assessed for configural invariance to determine if the model form (“pattern of item loadings”) between parents and youths was consistently well-fitted for both dyad members (Gareau et al., 2016; Putnick & Bornstein, 2016; Sakaluk et al., 2019). Good baseline model fit indicated that items shared equivalent factorial structures (Desa et al., 2018) and supported the assumption of configural invariance. Second, factor loadings were constrained to equality to assess for metric invariance, and fit indices between the metric and configural models were compared. When metric invariance was supported, indicator mean scores between groups were comparable because they were considered to have equivalent factor loadings (Desa et al., 2018; Putnick & Bornstein, 2016). Third, factor loadings and item intercepts were constrained to equality to assess for scalar invariance and fit indices between the scalar and metric models were compared. When scalar invariance was supported, factor mean scores between groups were comparable because they were considered to have equivalent indicator intercepts (Desa et al., 2018; Putnick & Bornstein, 2016). Fourth, factor loadings, item intercepts, and item residual error variances were constrained to equality to assess for residual invariance and fit indices between the residual and scalar models were compared. When residual invariance was supported, the latent construct partially explained measurement error for parents and youths (Gareau et al., 2016).

If fit statistics indicated the model fit the data poorly during the sequential constraints, it was assumed that more restrictive models would be rejected. For example, if model fit significantly worsened (chi-square difference testing was significant) when comparing a less restrictive model in which parameters were freely estimated (configural invariance) to a more restrictive model in which factorial loadings were constrained (metric invariance), the assumption of metric invariance was rejected (Kline, 2016). Additionally, because chi-squares are sensitive to sample size (Kline, 2016) and, therefore, should not be the sole determinant of model fit (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998), the stricter model was rejected if two or more fit statistics indicated a lack of invariance. In cases where invariance was rejected, partial invariance (releasing one or more parameter constraints) was assessed (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Accepting a partial invariant model implied that one or more parameters were

restricted, indicating one or more parameters were equal across groups (Desa et al., 2018; Kline, 2016). The final measurement model is established by measurement invariance testing. The measurement model with the most confirmed invariance is used going forward in all analyses (Robitzsch & Lüdtke, 2020).

Structural Model Analysis Plan

The hypothesized analysis assessed whether an individual's social class (actor moderator) moderated the actor and partner effects of agency on satisfaction and whether the partner's social class (partner moderator) moderated the relationships between agency and satisfaction (Garcia et al., 2015a). Consequently, two types of latent mixed moderators (gender and social class) were part of the analysis. The first mixed-moderator (social class), referred to a variable that differed both within and between dyads. As a result, two moderators were constructed in Mplus and added to a basic APIM model (parent social class and youth social class), thereby transitioning into APIMoM. The second hypothesized mixed moderator (gender/role) distinguished members within dyads by age, member one (parents) from dyad member two (youths), and between dyads by gender, such as comparing sample two (father-youth dyads) to sample three (mother-youth dyads).

Testing mixed-moderators simultaneously within actor-partner interdependence was a multi-step estimation process that involved creating two core models (baseline/null APIMoM model (M0 with no interaction effects) and a full APIMoM (M1 with interaction effects) that were then used to individually analyze each dyadic sample. The following section reviews the construction of each model, followed by procedures for empirically assessing distinguishability and ending with constraint testing to identify the final model.

Constraint Testing

Liberal Cutoff Alpha Value for Distinguishability Testing

Though statistical significance is typically assumed at a .05 alpha level, Kenny and Lederman (2010; Ledermann et al., 2011) recommend increasing the cutoff to .20 alpha level, mainly when the sample size is small. Though it is unclear what represents a 'small' sample size, recent research testing dyadic distinguishability applied liberal alphas ($p < .10$ to $p < .20$) for sample sizes ranging from 111

romantic partner dyads (Sadikaj et al., 2020), 116 romantic partner dyads (Brauer et al., 2021), 534 married partner dyads (Jiang et al., 2020), 843 parent dyads (Godbout et al., 2023). Likely liberal alphas were utilized for establishing distinguishability because a more restrictive alpha (i.e., $p < .05$) may indicate false indistinguishability (Sadler et al., 2011). Furthermore, in the Cook and Kenny (2005) study of 203 mother-adolescent dyads, authors reiterated that “according to Myers (1979), a liberal test ($p < .20$, two-tailed) should be used in testing whether there is nonindependence because the failure to detect nonindependence could lead to bias in significance tests” (pp. 101-102). Therefore, if chi-square difference testing results were statistically significant ($p < .20$), dyad members were considered significantly different based on participant’s role/age, such that a baseline/null APIMoM would have four actor effects and four partner effects (Cook & Kenny, 2005; Kenny & Lederman, 2010). If the reverse proved empirically true ($p > .20$) and it was assumed that no theoretical or empirical difference existed between the dyad members (referred to as an indistinguishable dyad), the baseline/null APIMoM analysis would be reduced to two actor effects and two partner effects. However, except for constraint testing (via omnibus test of distinguishability, group mean difference testing, and individual parameter testing), alpha levels needed to be below .05 to be considered significant.

Omnibus Distinguishability

Parents and youths were theoretically distinguished based on their differing roles. Thus, the participant role was a dichotomous within-dyads moderating variable in the analysis. The baseline/null APIMoM (M0) estimated agency and social class main effects on satisfaction (actor and partner pathways). In other words, agency and social class were predictors of satisfaction, and it was theoretically assumed that effects were moderated based on the participant’s role (referred to as a distinguishable dyad). The initial baseline/null model fully saturated all parameters (M0a). Assuming adequate model fit, the next step constrained all like parameters across dyad members to equality (M0b). Chi-square difference testing compared M0a to M0b to assess whether constraining all like parameters to equality significantly worsened M0a fit.

The full APIMoM estimated agency and social class regressed on satisfaction (now called conditional effects) and estimated interaction terms (referred to as moderation effects). Thus, in addition to agency and social class functioning as predictors, product terms of agency and social class are added to the model as predictors of satisfaction. The initial model fully saturated all parameters (M1a). Assuming adequate model fit, the next step constrained all like parameters to equality (M1b). If chi-square difference testing results were statistically significant ($p < .20$; Cook & Kenny, 2005), dyad members were considered significantly different, such that the full APIMoM would have four actor effects, four partner effects, and eight interaction effects (Kenny & Lederman, 2010). If the reverse proved empirically true and assumed that no theoretical or empirical difference existed between the dyad members (indistinguishable dyad), the baseline/null APIMoM analysis would be reduced to two actor, two partner, and four interaction effects.

Group Means Difference Testing

Beginning with a fully saturated model in which all parameters are freely estimated results in the least parsimonious model, as evidenced by zero degrees of freedom (Kenny et al., 2006). Though saturated models yield perfect fit, two strategies of constraint testing were employed to identify the most parsimonious model while maintaining adequate model fit (Kenny & Lederman, 2010). First, like previous APIM research (Shafer et al., 2014), group mean comparison for variable differences (i.e., parent sexual agency actor effects minus youth sexual agency actor effects) identified statistically significant differences ($p < .20$; Cook & Kenny, 2005) between dyad members in the freely estimated models (M0a and M1a). Paths that yielded statistically significant differences were released to estimate in the final model freely. Paths that were not significantly ($p > .20$) different were constricted in the final model for parsimony (Kenny & Lederman, 2010).

Individual Parameter Difference Testing

Testing. Second, chi-square difference testing between constrained models was used to identify the most parsimonious model. Specifically, like-parameters (i.e., parent sexual agency actor path and youth sexual agency actor path) were constrained one at a time while the remaining parameters were left

freely estimated, a technique known as a partial constraint. If the difference in absolute and relative model fit between the fully saturated and partially constrained model was not significant ($p > .20$; Cook & Kenny, 2005), the constraints were maintained for parsimony (Kenny & Lederman, 2010). The final model (M0c and M1c) reflected the partial constraints that improved parsimony.

LMS Significance Testing

Once measurement invariance, model fit, and distinguishability have been verified, the next step is to test whether adding latent two-way interactions via latent structural equation modeling (LMS; Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000) yielded models significantly better than the baseline models. Cheung et al. (2021) and Asparouhov and Muthén (2013) provide step-by-step instructions for LMS. Provided the baseline/null APIMoM (M0a) showed a good model fit, the full APIMoM (M1a) was estimated by including latent interactions. Four latent interaction terms were created by defining them in model command statements. Next, the full APIMoM (M1a) was compared to the baseline/null APIMoM (M0a) using LL-*TRd* and changes in AIC (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000; MacCallum et al., 2006; Sardeshmukh & Vanderberg, 2017). The null model and interaction models might, on their own, show good fit. However, if the interaction model is not statistically significantly different relative to the null model, it is rejected. A significant *TRd* ($p < .05$) and reduced AIC (M0a AIC > M1a AIC). Indicates that the hypothesized model fit was improved by adding latent interactions, and the null model was rejected.

Dyadic Patterns

If the results of the fully saturated models yield sizeable, standardized actor and partner effects ($B \geq .10$), dyadic pattern testing will be conducted (Kenny & Lederman, 2010). Dyadic patterns, referred to as the k parameter, represent “the ratio of the partner effect to the actor effect” and offer insight into relational processes that may remain invisible if only assessing direct and moderation effects (Kenny & Lederman, 2010, p. 360). Rather than relying solely on significance testing, strong effects ($B \geq .10$) permit interpretable estimation of the k parameter, whereas trivial effects are regarded as unstable (Kenny & Lederman, 2010). Phantom variables (“latent variables that have no substantive meaning and no disturbance”) are added to partner paths in fully saturated models to estimate the k -parameter via

mediation (Kenny & Lederman, 2010, p. 362). Saturated model fit, with or without phantom variables, are statistically equivalent and globally identified because all paths are estimated (Gareau et al., 2016). However, due to normality violations, bootstrapping will be used (Kenny & Lederman, 2010).

Path Analysis

If adding latent interactions resulted in improved model fit, regression coefficients in the latent models were examined for significance. If the reverse was true, baseline/null APIMoM regression coefficients were examined. Therefore, regression coefficients for the most parsimonious and significant models will be examined. Results will be compared to the study hypotheses. Two-way interaction will be plotted to aid in visually interpreting the interaction's statistically significant effects (Dawson, 2014). However, interactions without statistical significance cannot be plotted because they are not interpretable (Dawson, 2014).

Multisample Comparison

Each sample served a specific purpose for examining the intersection of age, gender, and social class on sexual agency and sexual satisfaction. First, the whole sample of parent-youth dyads was stratified by age and social class. Therefore, while not directly comparable to the subpopulations (due to violations of independence), speculations about differences that emerge with gender stratification can be made. Second, father-youth and mother-youth dyadic samples were directly comparable because participants had zero overlap. The same was true for parent-son and parent-daughter dyads. Each pairing offered the ability to examine the impact of gender on sexual agency and sexual satisfaction while simultaneously stratified by age and moderated by social class. Directly comparing subsamples vertically (father-youth versus parent-son) again violates assumptions of independence.

Summary

Feminist-informed family system theory structured each step of the current study's analysis with the goal of examining the relationships between sexual agency, social class, and sexual satisfaction intersecting identities in parent-youth dyads. Expecting differences and parallels between family systems and intersecting identities suggests that actor and partner effects may vary in magnitude based on the

socio-cultural impact of unique identities. As such, the planned analysis used APIMoM with LMS to examine the direct actor effects of sexual agency on sexual satisfaction for individuals (research question one) and partner effects between parent-youth dyads (research question two). Interactions between individual (actor) and relational (partner) experiences, as they were influenced by intersecting identities (moderator), were examined in this study (research question three). Understanding when and for whom actor and partner sexual agency effects occurred was assessed by incorporating latent mixed moderators (constructs that vary both in-between and within) into an APIMoM analysis (Garcia et al., 2015a; Kenny et al., 2006; Hall & Sammons, 2013).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The following section outlines the analytic results of dyadic personal (actor) and intergenerational (partner) relationships between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction, moderated by social class. In addition to analyzing all parent-youth dyads (sample one), participants were stratified by parent gender (samples two and three) and by youth gender (samples four and five). Youth gender was equally distributed between father-youth dyads ($n = 99$ father-son, $n = 95$ father-daughter) and mother-youth dyads ($n = 236$ mother-son, $n = 249$ mother-daughter), suggesting that observed changes within/between father-youth and mother-youth samples were truly the result of parent gender differences. Conversely, parent gender was not equally distributed between parent-son dyads ($n = 99$ father-son, $n = 236$ mother-son) and parent-daughter dyads ($n = 95$ father-daughter, $n = 249$ mother-daughter). Therefore, changes within/between parent-son and parent-daughter samples might more accurately be interpreted as mother-son and mother-daughter dynamics. Statistical significance throughout all analysis was assumed when alpha values were below .05, except for distinguishability testing, which was assumed significant when alpha values were below .20 (Cook & Kenny, 2005; Kenny & Lederman, 2010). Preliminary statistics and measurement model results will be reviewed prior to structural model results.

Preliminary Analysis Results

Correlational Statistics

Whole Sample of Parent-Youth Dyads

Pairwise bivariate correlations ranged from 0.01 to 0.84 in absolute among all study variables for the full sample of parent-youth dyads (see Table 4 and 5). Specifically, two of the three social class indicators appeared to have high vertical (predictor variables measured by the same construct) correlation, a common phenomenon in multivariate analysis (Kock & Systems, 2012). Though regression correlations above .80 or .90 can indicate multicollinearity (Fields, 2018), conflating correlation with collinearity can lead to spurious assumptions (Kock & Lynn, 2014). As such, collinearity diagnostics were undertaken via simple linear regression (Ha & Ban, 2020). Pairwise regression analysis of all agency and social class

indicators on satisfaction yielded acceptable tolerance limits (.260 – .601) because they were above 0.1 and acceptable variance inflation factors of (1.664 – 3.851). After all, they were below 10 (Fields, 2018). Durbin-Watson results were acceptable (2.167 and 1.882) because values between one and three indicate a lack of autocorrelation. These results suggested that the correlations imply significant associations rather than multicollinearity (Kock & Lynn, 2014). Correlational statistics on subsamples are available in the appendix.

Table 4*Correlations and Descriptives: 1a. Parents in Parent-Youth Dyads*

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. I am a very good sex partner	--							
2. Can say/show specific wants during sexual contact	.49*	--						
3. Fulfill my partner's sexual needs & desires very well	.67*	.61*	--					
4. I can express my sexual needs & desires very well	.57*	.78*	.70*	--				
5. Satisfaction with household's financial situation	.02	-.03	-.03	.01	--			
6. Often have to forego something because of budget ^R	-.02	-.04	-.04	-.02	.66*	--		
7. Mostly short of money ^R	-.01	-.06	-.06	.00	.66*	.81*	--	
8. Sexual satisfaction	.40*	.31*	.34*	.41*	.13*	.01	.07	--
Descriptive Statistics								
Number of parent-youth dyads	504	531	517	531	675	674	675	635
Mean	3.39	3.51	3.60	3.50	3.67	3.63	3.72	6.11
Standard Deviation	.91	1.06	.90	1.00	.98	1.17	1.24	2.65
Skewness	-.25	-.36	-.47	-.42	-.51	-.47	-.63	-.55
Kurtosis	.00	-.52	.26	-.20	-.10	-.59	-.63	-.42

Note. *N* = 679 parent-youth dyads. ^R = reverse coded. * = $p \leq .05$.

Table 5*Correlations and Descriptives: 1b. Youth in Parent-Youth Dyads*

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. I am a very good sex partner	--							
2. Can say/show specific wants during sexual contact	.42*	--						
3. Fulfill my partner's sexual needs & desires very well	.54*	.39*	--					
4. I can express my sexual needs & desires very well	.52*	.69*	.55*	--				
5. Satisfaction with household's financial situation	-.04	.01	-.09	-.03	--			
6. Often have to forego something because of budget ^R	.06	.06	.00	.03	.61*	--		
7. Mostly short of money ^R	.01	.09	-.02	.07	.61*	.84*	--	
8. Sexual satisfaction	.31*	.22*	.33*	.32*	.03	.04	.02	--
Descriptive Statistics								
Number of parent-youth dyads	314	334	320	332	670	673	671	547
Mean	3.73	3.79	3.92	3.80	3.99	3.98	4.06	6.37
Standard Deviation	.84	.93	.78	.87	.91	1.02	1.06	2.67
Skewness	-.37	-.70	-.37	-.61	-.84	-.87	-1.08	-.47
Kurtosis	-.03	.48	-.25	.38	.72	.22	.59	-.63

Note. *N* = 679 parent-youth dyads. * = $p \leq .05$.

Measurement Analysis Results

Measurement Invariance/Equality

A nested confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) structural equation model assessed measurement invariance to ensure psychometrically sound latent constructs across dyad (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). Each sample was separately tested for measurement invariance; see Table 6 for a compilation of results.

Configural Invariance

First, the configural invariance (freely estimated) models of youth all dyadic samples showed a good fit regardless of identity, as evidenced by non-significant p-values and adequate absolute values of alternatives fit indices (RMSEA = .016 to .030, CFI = .988 to .996, TLI = .984 to .995, SRMR = .030 to .056). In other words, the baseline/null organization of latent factors (sexual agency and social class) was supported for each sample of intersecting parents and youth dyads at the model level (Putnick & Bornstein, 2016).

Metric Invariance

Second, metric invariance (constrained factor loadings) testing between each sample of parent-youth dyads showed a good fit regardless of family role, as evidenced by non-significant *TRds* and adequate absolute values of alternatives fit indices (RMSEA = .018 to .027, CFI = .944 to .995, TLI = .911 to .994, SRMR = .028 to .051). Additionally, alternative model fit indices changes did not exceed .01 in absolute value, suggesting the metric model constrictions resulted in non-significant model fit differences. Thus, the contributions of each indicator on the latent constructs are similar between parents and youths in each sample (Putnick & Bornstein, 2016) and indicator mean scores between groups can be compared (Desa et al., 2018).

Scalar Invariance

Third, scalar invariance (constrained factor loadings and item intercepts) testing between each parent and youth dyadic sample showed a good fit regardless of family role. Despite a significant *TRd* for father-youth dyads ($SB\chi^2(75) = 13.19, p > .05$), alternative fit indices indicated acceptable fit (RMSEA (CI) = .037 (.000-.058), CFI = .980, TLI = .974, SRMR = .061) and the alternative model fit indices

changes did not exceed .01 in absolute value. Results for the remaining dyads indicated non-significant *TRd*, adequate model fit (RMSEA = .012 to .026, CFI = .992 to .998, TLI = .990 to .997, SRMR = .030 to .044), and alternative model fit indices changes did not exceed .01 in absolute value. Therefore, all difference testing results indicated equivalent item intercepts and supported the assumption of scalar/strong invariance (Putnick & Bornstein, 2016). In other words, latent factor means scores between parents and youths can be compared (Desa et al., 2018).

Residual Invariance

Fourth, factor loadings, item intercepts, and item residual error variances were constrained to equality to assess for residual invariance in dyads. All except daughter-parent dyads yielded statistically significant *TRd* and had one or more alternative model fit indices exceeding .01 in absolute value. Such results indicate that adding additional constraints worsened model fit. Though parent-daughter results included adequate model fit ($SB\chi^2(79) = 103.42, p < .05$, RMSEA (CI) = .030 (.009-.045), CFI = .998, TLI = .996, SRMR = .038) and changes in alternative model fit indices did not exceed .01 in absolute value (Δ RMSEA = .004, Δ CFI/TLI = -.004, Δ SRMR = .002), all models were tested for partial residual invariance so that their measurement models would remain identical. Utilizing the same measurement model for structural testing supports the assumption that the interpretation of the latent variables is consistent when looking at the various dyad pairings.

Partial Residual Invariance. Partial residual invariance was tested by releasing individual equality constraints. Residual indicator items for zi2/zi5 were released, and the partially constrained model (4.1) was compared to the scalar model, resulting in non-significant changes in absolute model fits for all dyads. Additionally, regardless of identities, partial residual invariance for all dyads had adequate model fit (RMSEA = .015 to .041, CFI = .973 to .997, TLI = .969 to .996, SRMR = .032 to .072). Finally, except for one index on father-youth dyads (Δ SRMR = .011), alternative model fit indices changes did not exceed .01 in absolute value. Consequently, difference testing indicated partially equivalent measurement error and supported partial residual invariance (Putnick & Bornstein, 2016). In other words, measurement error for sexual agency across parents and youth dyads was fully explained by the latent

construct. In contrast, the latent construct partially explained the measurement error of social class (Gareau et al., 2016). With the completion of invariance testing, no further measurement model analysis was needed. The next analytic step was to assess the structural model.

Table 6*Measurement Equivalence/Invariance Testing*

Sample/Models	$SB\chi^2$ (df)	RMSEA (90% CI)	CFI	TLI	SRMR	M Comp	CD	$SB\chi^2$ TRd (Δ df)	Δ RMSEA	Δ CFI	Δ TLI	Δ SRMR
1. Whole Sample of Parent-Youth Dyads												
W-Step 1. Config.	75.71 (62)	.018 (.00-.03)	.996	.994	.028	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
W-Step 2. Metric	79.24 (67)	.016 (.00-.03)	.997	.995	.030	W-S1	1.18	3.93 (5)	-.002	.001	.001	.002
W-Step 3. Scalar	79.29 (72)	.012 (.00-.26)	.998	.997	.030	W-S2	1.00	0.05 (5)	-.004	.001	.002	.000
W-Step 4. Residual	111.15 (79)	.024 (.01-.04)	.991	.990	.031	W-S3	1.63	28.76* (7)	.012	-.007	-.007	.001
W-Step 4.1 P. Res.	89.97 (78)	.015 (.00-.03)	.997	.996	.032	W-S3	1.52	9.38 (6)	.003	-.001	-.001	-.001
2. Father-Youth Dyads												
F-Step 1. Config.	69.49 (62)	.025 (.00-.05)	.992	.988	.051	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
F-Step 2. Metric	78.43 (67)	.030 (.00-.05)	.988	.984	.056	F-S1	1.08	8.45 (5)	.005	-.004	-.004	.005
F-Step 3. Scalar	91.22 (72)	.037 (.00-.06)	.980	.974	.061	F-S2	0.93	13.19* (5)	.007	-.008	-.010	.005
F-Step 4. Residual	114.95 (79)	.048 (.03-.07)	.962	.956	.071	F-S3	1.37	19.72* (7)	.011	-.018	-.018	.010
F-Step 4.1 P. Res.	103.29 (78)	.041 (.01-.06)	.973	.969	.072	F-S3	1.23	11.17 (6)	.004	-.007	-.005	.011
3. Mother-Youth Dyads												
M-Step 1. Config.	79.63 (62)	.024 (.00-.04)	.944	.911	.033	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
M-Step 2. Metric	86.59 (67)	.025 (.00-.04)	.993	.990	.036	M-S1	1.16	6.88 (5)	.001	-.001	-.001	.003
M-Step 3. Scalar	89.39 (72)	.022 (.00-.04)	.994	.992	.036	M-S2	0.98	2.77 (5)	-.003	.001	.002	.000
M-Step 4. Residual	106.57 (79)	.027 (.01-.04)	.990	.989	.036	M-S3	1.65	14.08* (7)	.005	-.004	-.003	.000
M-Step 4.1 P. Res.	97.69 (78)	.023 (.00-.04)	.993	.992	.036	M-S3	1.53	8.02 (6)	.001	-.001	.000	.000
4. Parent-Son Dyads												
S-Step 1. Config.	69.88 (62)	.019 (.00-.04)	.995	.993	.039	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
S-Step 2. Metric	73.40 (67)	.017 (.00-.04)	.996	.995	.041	S-S1	1.08	3.80 (5)	-.002	.001	.002	.002
S-Step 3. Scalar	84.13 (72)	.022 (.00-.04)	.993	.991	.044	S-S2	0.93	10.78 (5)	.005	-.003	-.004	.003
S-Step 4. Residual	111.46 (79)	.035 (.02-.05)	.981	.978	.046	S-S3	1.45	21.12* (7)	.013	-.012	-.013	.002
S-Step 4.1 P. Res.	93.15 (78)	.024 (.00-.04)	.991	.990	.046	S-S3	1.33	8.47 (6)	.002	-.002	-.001	.002

Sample/Models	$SB\chi^2$ (df)	RMSEA (90% CI)	CFI	TLI	SRMR	M Comp	CD	$SB\chi^2$ TRd (Δ df)	Δ RMSEA	Δ CFI	Δ TLI	Δ SRMR
5. Parent-Daughter Dyads												
D-Step 1. Config.	77.79 (62)	.027 (.00-.05)	.992	.988	.032	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
D-Step 2. Metric	79.84 (67)	.024 (.00-.04)	.994	.991	.034	D-S1	1.67	2.65 (5)	-.003	.002	.003	.002
D-Step 3. Scalar	88.22 (72)	.026 (.00-.04)	.992	.990	.036	D-S2	0.98	8.41 (5)	.002	-.002	-.001	.002
D-Step 4. Residual	103.42 (79)	.030 (.01-.05)	.988	.986	.038	D-S3	1.61	12.92 (7)	.004	-.004	-.004	.002
D-Step 4.1 P. Res.	99.13 (78)	.028 (.00-.04)	.989	.988	.038	D-S3	1.50	9.82 (6)	.002	-.003	-.002	.002

Note. Abbreviations: $SB\chi^2$ = Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square, df = degrees of freedom, $RMSEA$ = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, CFI = Comparative Fit Index, TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index, $SRMR$ = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual, M Comp = comparison of nested models, CD = difference testing scaling correction, TRd = chi-square difference test, Δ = change, Config. = configural invariance, Metric = metric invariance, Scalar = scalar invariance, Residual = residual invariance, P. Res. = partial residual invariance. Partial residual invariance testing was established by releasing item “often have to forego something because of budget” for adults and youth. Significant $SB\chi^2$ TRd indicated by * $p \leq .05$.

Structural Model Analysis Results

Distinguishability Testing

Though theoretically distinguishable, loglikelihood difference (*TRd*) testing was completed to verify empirical distinguishability for each model, as seen in Table 6. Dyad members were considered distinguishable by role (parent versus youth) if differences were statistically significant if $p < .20$ (Kenny & Lederman, 2010). Depending on the outcome of empirical omnibus distinguishability testing, the baseline APIMoM featured four (indistinguishable dyad) or eight (fully distinguishable dyad) one-way outcomes (main effects). Similarly, an indistinguishable APIMoM featured four one-way and four two-way (interaction) effects, whereas the distinguishable dyad had eight main and eight interaction effects.

To aid in brevity, the following acronyms were used to delineate between models and samples. The baseline/null APIMoM, without interaction terms, was referred to as M0. The full APIMoM, with interaction terms, was referred to as M1. Fully saturated models were distinguished with the letter a (i.e., M0a. and M1a.), fully constrained were distinguished with the letter b (i.e., M0b. and M1b.), and partially saturated were distinguished with the letter c (i.e., M0c and M1c.). The first and main sample, all parent-adolescent dyads, were distinguished with 1. W (i.e., 1.W-M0a, 1.W-M0b, 1. W-M0c, 1. W-M1a, 1. W-M1b, 1. W-M1c). The second sample, a subset of the main sample, referred to father-youth dyads and was distinguished with 2. F (i.e., 2. F-M0a, 2. F-M0b, 2. F-M0c, 2. F-M1a, 2. F-M1b, 2. F-M1c). The third sample, a subset of the main sample, referred to mother-youth dyads and was distinguished with 3. M (i.e., 3. M-M0a, 3. M-M0b, 3. M-M0c, 3. M-M1a, 3. M-M1b, 3. M-M1c). The fourth sample, a subset of the main sample, referred to parent-son dyads and was distinguished with 4. S (i.e., 4. S-M0a, 4. S-M0b, 4. S-M0c, 4. S-M1a, 4. S-M1b, 4. S-M1c). The fifth sample, a subset of the main sample, referred to parent-daughter dyads and was distinguished with 5. D (i.e., 5. D-M0a, 5. D-M0b, 5. D-M0c, 5. D-M1a, 5. D-M1b, 5. D-M1c).

Omnibus Distinguishability Testing

Omnibus difference testing results indicated all dyads were empirically distinguishable at the baseline/null (M0, without interaction terms) and full APIMoM (M1, with interaction terms) levels based

on statistically significant TRd ($p < .20$). Changes in AIC largely supported chi-square difference testing in that most of the fully saturated models had lower AICs compared to their fully constrained models. Therefore, future analysis progressed with the confirmed assumption that each dyadic sample was empirically distinguishable by role.

Group Means Difference Testing

Intending to identify the most parsimonious models, constraint testing via group means (see Tables 7 and 8) differences were estimated with model constraints in the fully saturated models. Unstandardized regression coefficients supported the assumption of indistinguishability and suggested the need for individual constraint testing to identify the most parsimonious models. Results for the baseline/null APIMoM s (M0, without interactions). Each model also had one or more pathways that were not significantly different ($p > .20$), except for parent-daughter dyads. Sexual agency actor (ax) and partner (px) effects significantly impact overall model fit. However, sexual agency actor effect group mean differences were only significant for parent-son dyads ($b = -0.55, p = .17$). Conversely, all remaining direct effects did not significantly differ from one dyad member to the next. Though group means testing did not support distinguishability for parent-daughter dyads, individual constraint testing (next section) is recommended.

Group mean difference testing results for full APIMoMs (M1, with interactions) further supported indistinguishability, including for parent-daughter dyads. Each model also had two or more pathways that were not significantly different ($p > .20$). Sexual agency actor and partner paths differences remained statistically significant, in addition to sexual agency actor-social class partner moderation paths (axpz) and sexual agency partner-social class actor moderation path (pxaz). The remaining paths in the full APIMoM did not significantly differ from one dyad member to the next, reinforcing the need for individual constraint testing.

Given that several hypotheses posited that differences would emerge based on role, group mean difference testing results suggest that some of the hypotheses might already be rejected. For example, hypothesis #2 posited that parent social class would significantly relate to sexual satisfaction, but the

same would not be valid for youths. However, results suggested that parent-daughter social class partner effects were not significantly different between parent and daughter dyad members. Further testing will shed more light on outcomes as they relate to hypotheses.

Table 7

Group Means Testing: M0a. Baseline/Null APIMoM (No Interactions), Fully Saturated

	1. Whole Sample				2. Father-Youth				3. Mother-Youth				4. Parent-Son				5. Parent-Daughter			
	b (S.E.)	p	E	H	b (S.E.)	p	E	H	b (S.E.)	p	E	H	b (S.E.)	p	E	H	b (S.E.)	p	E	H
Hypothesized Parameters																				
H1. Sexual Agency Actor Effects (AX)	-.22 (.22)	.32	C	S	.17 (.38)	.65	C	S	-.33 (.28)	.23	C	S	-.55 (.40)	.17	F		.06 (.26)	.82	C	S
H2. Sexual Agency Partner Effects (PX)	-.57 (.23)	.01	F	S	-.72 (.40)	.08	F	S	-.57 (.28)	.04	F	S	-1.17 (.33)	.00	F		-.17 (.30)	.57	C	PR
Non-Hypothesized Parameters																				
Social Class Actor Effects (AZ)	-.05 (.23)	.84	C	--	.01 (.40)	.98	C	--	-.04 (.27)	.88	C	--	.06 (.35)	.86	C	--	-.33 (.29)	.25	C	--
Social Class Partner Effects (PZ)	.23 (.22)	.29	C	--	.19 (.41)	.65	C	--	.22 (.26)	.40	C	--	.31 (.33)	.35	C	--	.25 (.27)	.36	C	--

Note. Abbreviations: APIMoM = actor-partner interdependence moderation model, M0a = APIMoM without interaction effects, fully saturated, b (S.E.) = unstandardized regression coefficient (standard error), *p* = *p*-value of the unstandardized regression coefficient, *E* = decision to constrain or freely estimate parameter based on significant *p*-values, *H* = hypothesized outcome, C = constrain parameter, F = freely estimate parameter, S = results supported experimental hypothesis, PR = results partially rejected experimental hypothesis. Differences in paths were statistically significant if $p < .20$ (Kenny & Lederman, 2010), suggesting they should be freely estimated in the most parsimonious model.

Table 8*Group Means Testing: M1. Full APIMoM (With Interactions), Fully Saturated*

	1. Whole Sample				2. Father-Youth				2. Mother-Youth				4. Parent-Son				5. Parent-Daughter			
	b (S.E.)	p	E	H	b (S.E.)	p	E	H	b (S.E.)	p	E	H	b (S.E.)	p	E	H	b (S.E.)	p	E	H
Hypothesized Parameters																				
H1. Sexual Agency Actor Effects (AX)	-.26 (.21)	.22	C	S	.18 (.34)	.60	C	S	-.38 (.27)	.16	F	S	-.60 (.38)	.12	F	S	-.03 (.25)	.90	C	S
H2. Sexual Agency Partner Effects (PX)	-.57 (.23)	.01	F	S	-.72 (.42)	.09	F	S	-.56 (.28)	.05	F	S	-1.22 (.33)	.00	F	S	-.10 (.29)	.72	C	PR
H3. Interaction Effects																				
Partner Sexual Agency Moderated by Partner Social Class (PXPZ)	.09 (.27)	.73	C	PR	.25 (.45)	.57	C	PR	.06 (.34)	.86	C	PR	.30 (.42)	.47	C	PR	.09 (.36)	.81	C	PR

	1. Whole Sample				2. Father-Youth				2. Mother-Youth				4. Parent-Son				5. Parent-Daughter			
	b (S.E.)	p	E	H	b (S.E.)	p	E	H	b (S.E.)	p	E	H	b (S.E.)	p	E	H	b (S.E.)	p	E	H
Partner Sexual Agency Moderated by Actor Social Class (PXAZ)	.37 (.29)	.20	F	S	.03 (.47)	.52	C	PR	.36 (.37)	.33	C	PR	.25 (.46)	.59	C	PR	.55 (.39)	.16	F	S
Actor Sexual Agency Moderated by Partner Social Class (AXPZ)	-.51 (0.25)	.04	F	S	-.64 (.36)	.08	F	S	-.47 (.32)	.15	F	S	-.40 (.47)	.39	C	PR	-.60 (.32)	.06	F	S
Non-Hypothesized Parameters Social Class Actor Effects (AZ)	.00 (.24)	.99	C	--	-.21 (.45)	.64	C	--	.03 (.29)	.93	C	--	.03 (.38)	.95	C	--	-.34 (.32)	.30	C	--
Social Class Partner Effects (PZ)	.24 (.23)	.31	C	--	.19 (.43)	.66	C	--	.26 (.29)	.36	C	--	.45 (.36)	.21	C	--	.28 (.33)	.40	C	--

	1. Whole Sample				2. Father-Youth				2. Mother-Youth				4. Parent-Son				5. Parent-Daughter			
	b (S.E.)	p	E	H	b (S.E.)	p	E	H	b (S.E.)	p	E	H	b (S.E.)	p	E	H	b (S.E.)	p	E	H
Actor Sexual Agency Moderated by Actor Social Class (AXAZ)					.36 (0.35)	.31	C	--	-.12 (.33)	.73	C	--	.00 (.47)	.99	C	--	.03 (.31)	.93	C	--

Note. Models: APIMoM = actor-partner interdependence moderation model, M1 = APIMoM with interaction effects, b (S.E.) = unstandardized

regression coefficient (standard error), p = p-value of the unstandardized regression coefficient, E = decision to constrain or freely estimate

parameter based on significant p-values, H = hypothesized outcome, C = constrain parameter, F = freely estimate parameter, S = results supported

experimental hypothesis, PR = results partially rejected experimental hypothesis. Differences in paths were statistically significant if $p < .20$

(Kenny & Lederman, 2010), suggesting they should be freely estimated in the most parsimonious model.

Individual Constraint Testing

Constraint testing utilized fully saturated models but altered the syntax to constrain individual parameters in a model, one at a time (referred to as partial constraints). The partially constrained models were compared to the fully saturated models to identify significant changes in model fit and increased AIC. Compared to the fully saturated model, the constraints on that parameter were retained if the singularly constrained parameter did not significantly change model fit ($p > .20$) and had a higher AIC. Conversely, individual parameters were released to freely estimate if constraining them worsened model fit ($p < .05$) or decreased AIC. Again, results indicated that each model had one or more statistically significant parameters ($p < .20$; Cook & Kenny, 2005), supporting the assumption of indistinguishability. Also similar, each model had one or more parameters that were not significantly different ($p > .20$), supporting the creation of parsimonious models in which some parameters were constrained, and some were freely estimated. Tables 9 and 10 depict the results of constraint testing for the baseline/null APIMoMs and full APIMoMs, respectively.

Table 9*Individual Constraint Testing: M0. Baseline/Null APIMoM (No Interactions)*

	1. Whole Sample				2. Father-Youth				2. Mother-Youth				4. Parent-Son				5. Parent-Daughter			
	p	Δ AIC	E	H	p	Δ AIC	E	H	p	Δ AIC	E	H	p	Δ AIC	E	H	p	Δ AIC	E	H
Hypothesized Parameters																				
H1. Sexual Agency Actor Effects (AX)	.35	-0.97	C	S	.62	-1.77	C	S	.25	-0.53	C	S	.19	0.31	F	S	.82	-1.95	C	S
H2. Sexual Agency Partner Effects (PX)	.01	4.86	F	S	.11	1.51	F	S	.02	2.39	F	S	.00	9.31	F	S	.56	-1.63	C	PR
Non-Hypothesized Parameters																				
Sexual Satisfaction Intercept	.01	4.22	F	--	.17	-.30	F	--	.77	-1.92	C	--	.82	-1.95	C	--	.00	13.11	F	--
Sexual Satisfaction Variance	.88	-1.97	C	--	.49	-1.44	C	--	.65	-1.75	C	--	.68	-1.79	C	--	.81	-1.93	C	--
Social Class Actor Effects (AZ)	.84	-1.96	C	--	.99	-2.00	C	--	.88	-1.97	C	--	.86	-1.96	C	--	.25	-0.72	C	--

	1. Whole Sample				2. Father-Youth				2. Mother-Youth				4. Parent-Son				5. Parent-Daughter			
	p	ΔAIC	E	H	p	ΔAIC	E	H	p	ΔAIC	E	H	p	ΔAIC	E	H	p	ΔAIC	E	H
Social Class Partner Effects (PZ)	.29	-0.85	C	--	.66	-1.78	C	--	.40	-1.26	C	--	.34	-1.03	C	--	.37	-1.25	C	--

Note. Abbreviations: *APIMoM* = actor-partner interdependence moderation model, *M1* = APIMoM with interaction effects, *p* = p-value

loglikelihood difference testing using scaled correction, ΔAIC = change in Akaike Information Criterion, *E* = decision to constrain or freely estimate parameter based on significant p-values, *H* = hypothesized outcome, *C* = constrain parameter, *F* = freely estimate parameter, *S* = results supported experimental hypothesis, *PR* = results partially rejected experimental hypothesis. Differences in paths were statistically significant if $p < .20$ (Kenny & Lederman, 2010), suggesting they should be freely estimated in the most parsimonious model.

Among the baseline/null APIMoMs (M0, without interaction terms), three paths stood out as having a significant impact on model fit ($p < .20$) when constrained to equality: sexual agency actor effects (ax), sexual agency partner effects (px), and sexual satisfaction intercepts (y-int). Specifically, sexual agency actor paths did not worsen model fit when constrained to equality for most samples, except for parent-son dyads ($TRd(1) = 1.71, p = .19, \Delta AIC = 0.31$), and the constraints were therefore held in their final models (partially constrained APIMoMs) to increase parsimony. In contrast, constraining sexual agency partner paths to equality did significantly worsen model fit for every sample except parent-daughter dyads ($TRd(1) = .35, p = .56, \Delta AIC = 13.11$), and were therefore freely estimated in their final models. Finally, sexual satisfaction intercepts significantly impacted all except mother-youth dyads ($TRd(1) = .08, p = .77, \Delta AIC = -1.92$) and parent-son dyads ($TRd(1) = .05, p = .82, \Delta AIC = -1.79$). Ultimately, in each partially constrained baseline/null APIMoM, most parameters in each of the samples were constrained for parsimony. Partner sexual agency pathways were released to freely estimate in all sample except parent-daughter dyads, due to having a significant impact on model fit when constrained. The remaining constrained pathways are indicated in Table 9 and 10.

Table 10*Individual Constraint Testing: M1. Full APIMoM (With Interactions)*

	1. Whole Sample				2. Father-Youth				2. Mother-Youth				4. Parent-Son				5. Parent-Daughter			
	p	ΔAIC	E	H	p	ΔAIC	E	H	p	ΔAIC	E	H	p	ΔAIC	E	H	p	ΔAIC	E	H
Hypothesized Parameters																				
H1. Sexual Agency Actor Effects (AX)	0.28	-0.47	C	S	0.52	-1.75	C	S	0.23	-0.03	C	S	0.14	0.87	F	S	0.91	-1.99	C	S
H2. Sexual Agency Partner Effects (PX)	0.00	4.79	F	S	0.12	1.35	F	S	0.00	2.37	F	S	0.00	10.54	F	S	0.72	-1.87	C	PR
H3. Interaction Effects																				
Partner Sexual Agency*Partner Social Class Interaction Effects (PXPZ)	0.73	-1.89	C	PR	0.57	-1.66	C	PR	0.86	-1.97	C	PR	0.46	-1.54	C	PR	0.81	-1.94	C	S
Partner Sexual Agency*Actor Social Class (PXAZ)	0.16	-0.32	F	S	0.51	-1.60	C	PR	0.28	-0.98	C	PR	0.58	-1.71	C	PR	0.10	0.08	F	S
Actor Sexual Agency*Partner Social Class (AXPZ)	0.03	1.56	F	S	0.00	0.30	F	S	0.15	-0.15	F	S	0.38	-1.25	C	PR	0.07	0.91	F	S

	1. Whole Sample				2. Father-Youth				2. Mother-Youth				4. Parent-Son				5. Parent-Daughter			
	p	ΔAIC	E	H	p	ΔAIC	E	H	p	ΔAIC	E	H	p	ΔAIC	E	H	p	ΔAIC	E	H
Non-Hypothesized Parameters																				
Sexual Satisfaction Variance	1.00	-2.00	C	--	0.52	-1.52	C	--	0.75	-1.88	C	--	0.73	-1.86	C	--	0.50	-1.48	C	--
Sexual Satisfaction Intercept	0.00	4.88	F	--	0.12	-0.71	F	--	0.03	1.85	F	--	0.90	-1.99	C	--	0.00	13.86	F	--
Social Class Actor Effects (AZ)	1.00	-2.00	C	--	0.63	-1.77	C	--	0.93	-1.99	C	--	0.95	-2.00	C	--	0.29	-0.82	C	--
Social Class Partner Effects (PZ)	0.31	-0.84	C	--	0.67	-1.79	C	--	0.36	-1.02	C	--	0.18	-0.10	F	--	0.39	-1.16	C	--
Actor Sexual Agency*Actor Social Class (AXAZ)	0.96	-2.00	C	--	0.23	-1.27	C	--	0.73	-1.89	C	--	1.00	-2.00	C	--	0.94	-2.00	C	--

Note. Abbreviations: APIMoM = actor-partner interdependence moderation model, M1a = APIMoM with interaction effects, fully saturated, p = p-value loglikelihood difference testing using scaled correction, ΔAIC = change in Akaike Information Criterion, E = decision to constrain or freely estimate parameter based on significant p-values, C = constrain parameter, F = freely estimate parameter, S = results supported experimental hypothesis, PR = results partially rejected experimental hypothesis. Differences in paths were statistically significant if $p < .20$ (Kenny & Lederman, 2010), suggesting they should be freely estimated in the most parsimonious model.

As seen in Table 9, results of the full APIMoM (M1, with interaction terms) were like the baseline/null APIMoM in that ax , px , and $y\text{-int}$ remained statistically significant, in addition to significant $axpz$ and $pxaz$. Patterns of significance in constraint testing were like those found in group mean testing. For example, ax was once again significant only for parent-son dyads ($TRd(1) = 2.20$, $p = .14$, $\Delta AIC = .87$). Together, individual constraint testing supports the assumption of distinguishability for each sample. Additionally, results indicate that the most parsimonious models will constrain some parameters while allowing other parameters to be freely estimated. Like the baseline APIMoM, most parameters were constrained in the final full APIMoM for parsimony. In addition to sexual agency partner pathways, sexual agency actor-social class partner interaction terms were commonly released to freely estimate in the full APIMoM, due to having a significant impact on model fit when constrained.

Like how group mean difference testing refuted several hypotheses, results of individual constraint testing suggested similar outcomes. For instance, when comparing parent-son dyads constraint testing results, the fourth hypothesis (parent-partner effects will be significant, but youth partner effects will be non-significant) differed between the baseline/null and full APIMoM. Specifically, partner effects were not significant and therefore constrained to equality in the baseline/null APIMoM (rejecting hypothesis #4), whereas the opposite was confirmed in the full APIMoM (M1). Therefore, if the full APIMoM proves to be significantly better than the baseline/null APIMoM (tested in the next section), path regression coefficients may support hypothesis #4. Conversely, adding latent interactions did not affect model constraints in the remaining models.

LMS Significance Testing

Given that the final and most parsimonious models showed adequate model fit without interaction effects, the next step was to verify that adding latent interaction terms significantly improved model fit. Each null APIMoM (M0, without interactions) and full APIMoM (with interaction terms) was tested for significance to explore how restrictions in the name of parsimony (fully saturated versus fully constrained versus partially constrained) might impact the interaction between social class and sexual agency/sexual satisfaction and results were reported in Table 11.

Table 11

LMS Significance Testing: M1. Full APIMoM (With Interactions), Partially Constrained

Samples	Mcomp	LL (prm)	SCF	CD	TRd (Δ prm)	p	AIC	Δ AIC	Decision
Whole Sample of Parent-Youth Dyads									
W-M0.	-	-11,113.72 (50)	1.23	-	-	-	22,327.45	-	-
W-M1.	W-M0.	-11,105.37 (55)	1.19	0.83	20.25 (5)	0.001	22,322.74	-4.71	Reject
Father-Youth Dyads									
F-M0.	-	-3,042.19 (50)	1.20	-	-	-	6,184.38	-	-
F-M1.	F-M0.	-3,039.89 (55)	1.18	0.93	4.92 (5)	0.425	6,189.79	5.41	Accept
Mother-Youth Dyads									
M-M0.	-	-8,040.29 (49)	1.23	-	-	-	16,178.57	-	-
M-M1.	M-M0.	-8,033.83 (55)	1.19	0.85	15.19 (6)	0.019	16,177.66	-0.91	Reject
Parent-Son Dyads									
S-M0.	-	-5,424.59 (50)	1.23	-	-	-	10,949.18	-	-
S-M1.	S-M0.	-5,421.68 (55)	1.20	0.90	6.44 (5)	0.266	10,953.37	4.19	Accept
Parent-Daughter Dyads									
D-M0.	-	-5,646.50 (49)	1.20	-	-	-	11,391.00	-	-
D-M1.	D-M0.	-5,638.82 (55)	1.16	0.85	18.05 (6)	0.006	11,387.63	-3.37	Reject

Notes. Latent structural equation modeling (LMS) significance testing in which null baseline models (no interactions) were compared to full

models (with interactions) to verify the addition of interaction terms significantly changed each model. Abbreviations: *APIMoM* = actor-partner interdependence moderation model, *M0* = APIMoM without interaction effects, *M1* = APIMoM with interaction effects, *Mcomp* = comparison of nested models, *LL* = loglikelihood x2 value for robust maximum likelihood, *prm* = free parameters, *SCF* = loglikelihood scaling correction factor for robust maximum likelihood, *TRd* = loglikelihood difference testing using scaled correction, Δ = change, *AIC* = Akaike Information Criterion, *Decision* = LMS outcome, Accepted = results accepted the null model, Rejected = results rejected the null model. The null (most parsimonious/least complex) model was rejected if $p < .05$ (Klein & Moosbrugger, 2000).

First, all dyadic models failed to improve when parameters were fully constricted. In other words, adding fully constrained social class interaction terms (M1b) did not improve the fully constrained null models (M0b). Conversely, adding latent social class interactions to fully saturated (M1a) and partially constrained APIMoMs (M1c) represented a significant improvement in model fit, relative to their null models, for all parent-youth dyads (W-M1a: $TRd(8) = 19.69, p = .01$; W-M1c: $TRd(5) = 20.25, p < .001$), mother-youth dyads (M-M1a: $TRd(8) = 16.15, p = .04$; M-M1c: $TRd(5) = 15.19, p = .02$), and parent-daughter dyads (D-M1a: $TRd(8) = 18.81, p = .02$; D-M1c: $TRd(5) = 18.05, p = .01$). For parent-youth and parent-daughter dyads, including social class interaction terms resulted in decreased AIC, indicating less loss of information, but not for the fully saturated mother-youth dyad ($\Delta AIC = 1.74$). In other words, examining how social class moderates the relationship between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction in these samples better fits the data than models without intersecting identities. Therefore, the interaction terms were retained in models W-M1a, W-M1c, M-M1a, M-M1c, D-M1a, and D-M1c.

Changes in r-square suggested that the addition of latent interaction explained an additional 3-6% of the variance in parent sexual satisfaction for parent-youth dyads ($f = .04, p < .001$), mother-youth dyads ($f = .03, p < .001$), and parent-daughter dyads ($f = .06, p < .001$). Similarly, changes r-square suggested that the addition of latent interaction explained an additional 1-4% of the variance in youth sexual satisfaction for parent-youth dyads ($f = .01, p < .001$), mother-youth dyads ($f = .04, p < .001$), and parent-daughter dyads ($f = .01, p < .001$). In other words, though interactions significantly improved the models, effects size of was minimal.

Non-significant $TRds$ and increased AICs indicated that the addition of latent interaction terms worsened model fit relative to null models for father-youth dyads and parent-son dyads. Therefore, the less complex models (M0) featuring no interaction terms were accepted as better fitting the data relative to models in which latent interactions were added (M1).

Dyadic Patterns

If the standardized actor and partner effects of the fully saturated models were sizeable, ($B \geq .10$), dyadic pattern testing was to be conducted (Kenny & Lederman, 2010). Absolute values of standardized

regression coefficients ranged from .00 (sample 3: mother-youth dyads, social class partner effect, $B = .00, p > .05$) to .61 (sample two: father-youth dyads, sexual agency actor effect, $B = .61, p < .001$).

However, most standardized betas were of insufficient size to test dyadic patterns. In this case, Kenny and Lederman (2010) advised against estimating k parameters.

Path Analysis

Hypothesized Relationships

After establishing that adding interaction terms improved model fit, the next step was to examine regression coefficients for each dyad's most parsimonious and significant models (as seen in Table 12 and 13). The final APIMoMs of each sample indicated that parent sexual agency explained 23-36% of the variance in parent sexual satisfaction outcomes ($R^2 = .23$ to $.36, p < .001$), supporting the goodness of model fit. Similarly, the final APIMoMs models explained 19-40% ($R^2 = .19$ to $.40, p < .001$) of the variance in youth sexual satisfaction outcomes. All final models demonstrated that they explained a statistically significant amount of overall variance ($R^2 = .19$ to $.40, p < .05$). Though adding social class as a moderator of the relationship between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction did not significantly improve the father-youth dyad or parent-son dyad models, the results of their baseline/null APIMoM (M0) deserve attention. Data for the first four hypotheses were available for all dyadic samples. However, the last four hypotheses focused on the interaction effects of social class relative to sexual agency and sexual satisfaction relationships. Therefore, only results for the whole sample of parent-youth dyads, mother-youth dyads, and parent-daughter dyads were available.

Table 12*Regression Coefficients: Final APIMoMs (Hypothesized Parameters)*

	1. Whole Sample ^a			2. Father-Youth ^b			3. Mother-Youth ^a			4. Parent-Son ^b			5. Parent-Daughter ^a		
	b (S.E.).	B	H	b (S.E.).	B	H	b (S.E.).	B	H	b (S.E.).	B	H	b (S.E.).	B	H
H1. Sexual Agency Actor Effects (AX)															
H1a. X1→Y1	1.34* (.11)	.50*	S	1.61* (.17)	.61*	S	1.17* (.16)	.44*	S	1.05* (.18)	.40*	S	1.44* (.16)	.54*	S
H1b. X2→Y2							1.55* (.23)	.45*	S	1.57* (.30)	.43*	S			
H2. Sexual Agency Partner Effects (PX)															
H2a. X2→Y1	-.29 (.18)	-.09	S	-.43 [†] (.24)	-.16 [†]	S	-.23 (.24)	-.07	S	-.50 [†] (.28)	-.14 [†]	S	.05 (.14)	.02	S
H2b. X1→Y2	.36* (.13)	.14*	S	.20 (.30)	.07	R	.37* (.15)	.14*	R	.69* (.18)	.25*	S			R
H3. Sexual Agency-Social Class Interaction Effects															
Sexual Agency Partner- Social Class Partner Interaction Effects (PXPZ)															
H3a. X2Z2→Y1	-.14 (.13)	-.06	S	-	-	-	-.03 (.16)	-.01	S	-	-	-	-.11 (.17)	-.04	S
H3b. X1Z1→Y2			R						R						R
Sexual Agency Partner- Social Class Actor Interaction Effects (PXAZ)															
H3c. X2Z1→Y1	.60* (.17)	.19*	S	-	-	-	.34* (.17)	.11*	S	-	-	-	.73* (.22)	.24*	S
H3d. X1Z2→Y2	.17 (.18)	.06	S						R				.19 (.23)	.70	S

	1. Whole Sample ^a			2. Father-Youth ^b			3. Mother-Youth ^a			4. Parent-Son ^b			5. Parent-Daughter ^a		
	b (S.E).	B	H	b (S.E).	B	H	b (S.E).	B	H	b (S.E).	B	H	b (S.E).	B	H
Sexual Agency															
Actor- Social															
Class Partner															
Interaction															
Effects (AXPZ)															
H3e. X1Z2→Y1	-.14 (.13)	-.04	S	-	-	-	-.16 (.17)	-.05	S	-	-	-	.00 (.17)	.00	S
H3f. X2Z1→Y2	.36* (.16)	.12*	S				.35 [†] (.20)	.10 [†]	R						R

Note. Abbreviations: APIMoMs= actor-partner interdependence moderation models, *b* = unstandardized regression coefficients, S.E. = standard

error, *B* = standardized regression coefficients, *H* = hypothesized outcome, *S* = regression results support hypothesis, *R* = regression results reject

hypothesis, X1 = parent sexual agency, X2 = youth sexual agency, Z1 = parent social class, Z2 = youth social class, Y1= parent sexual satisfaction,

Y2 = youth sexual satisfaction. ^a = M1. APIMoM (with interactions), ^b = M0. APIMoM (without interactions).

* = $p \leq .05$, [†] = $p \leq .10$.

Table 13*Regression Coefficients: Final APIMoMs (Non-Hypothesized Parameters)*

	1. Whole Sample ^a			2. Father-Youth ^b			3. Mother-Youth ^a			4. Parent-Son ^b			5. Parent-Daughter ^a		
	b (S.E).	B	H	b (S.E).	B	H	b (S.E).	B	H	b (S.E).	B	H	b (S.E).	B	H
Non-Hypothesized Parameters															
Y1-R2	-	.28*	-	-	.36*	-	-	.23*	-	-	.20*	-	-	.35*	-
Y2-R2		.23*	-		.40*	-		.19*	-		.25*	-		.27*	-
Y1-INT	6.09* (.10)	2.26*	-	-.28 (.19)	-.11	-	.06 (.13)	.02	-	6.10* (.13)	2.30*	-	-.06 (.15)	-.02	-
Y2-INT	6.49* (.13)	2.48*	-	.16 (.29)	.06	-	.16 (.15)	.06	-			-	.50* (.17)	.20*	-
Social Class Actor Conditional Effects (AZ)															
Z1→Y1	.27* (.11)	.10*	-	0.30† (.18)	.09†	-	.23† (.13)	.09†	-	.44* (.16)	.17*	-	.07 (.15)	.03	-
Z2→Y2															
Social Class Partner Conditional Effects (PZ)															
Z2→Y1	-.05 (.10)	-.02	-	-0.26 (.20)	-.10	-	.00 (.12)	.00	-	-.19 (.15)	-.07	-	.11 (.15)	.04	-
Z1→Y2															
Sexual Agency Actor-Social Class Actor Moderation Effects (AXAZ)															
X1Z1→Y1	-.09 (.12)	-.03	-	-			-.08 (.15)	-.03	-	-			-.11 (.13)	-.04	-
X2Z2→Y2															

Note. APIMoMs= actor-partner interdependence moderation models, *b* = unstandardized regression coefficients, S.E. = standard error, *B* =

standardized regression coefficients, *H* = hypothesized outcome, X1 = parent sexual agency, X2 = youth sexual agency, Z1 = parent social class, Z2 =youth social class, Y1= parent sexual satisfaction, Y2 = youth sexual satisfaction, R2 = r-squared, INT = intercept. ^a = M1. APIMoM (with interactions), ^b = M0. APIMoM (without interactions).

* = $p \leq .05$, [†] = $p \leq .10$.

H1. Sexual Agency Actor Effects. Results for all dyads supported the first hypothesis, which predicted positive actor effects for sexual agency regardless of the participant's role ($bs = 1.05$ to 1.61 , $p < .05$). Regardless of role, a participant's higher sexual agency was linked with higher levels of sexual satisfaction.

H2. Sexual Agency Partner Effects. The second hypothesis, that significant partner effects will be observed between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction for parents but not for youths, was partially supported. H2a was fully supported in that youth sexual agency did not significantly affect parent sexual satisfaction for any dyadic samples. H2b was partially supported by significant parent-partner effects for the whole sample of parent-youth dyads ($b = 0.36$, $p < .05$) and parent-son dyads ($b = 0.69$, $p < .05$). However, parent sexual agency was not significantly linked with youth sexual satisfaction for the remaining dyads. Therefore, when social class was high for parents in the whole sample or parent-son dyads, their youth sexual satisfaction was also high.

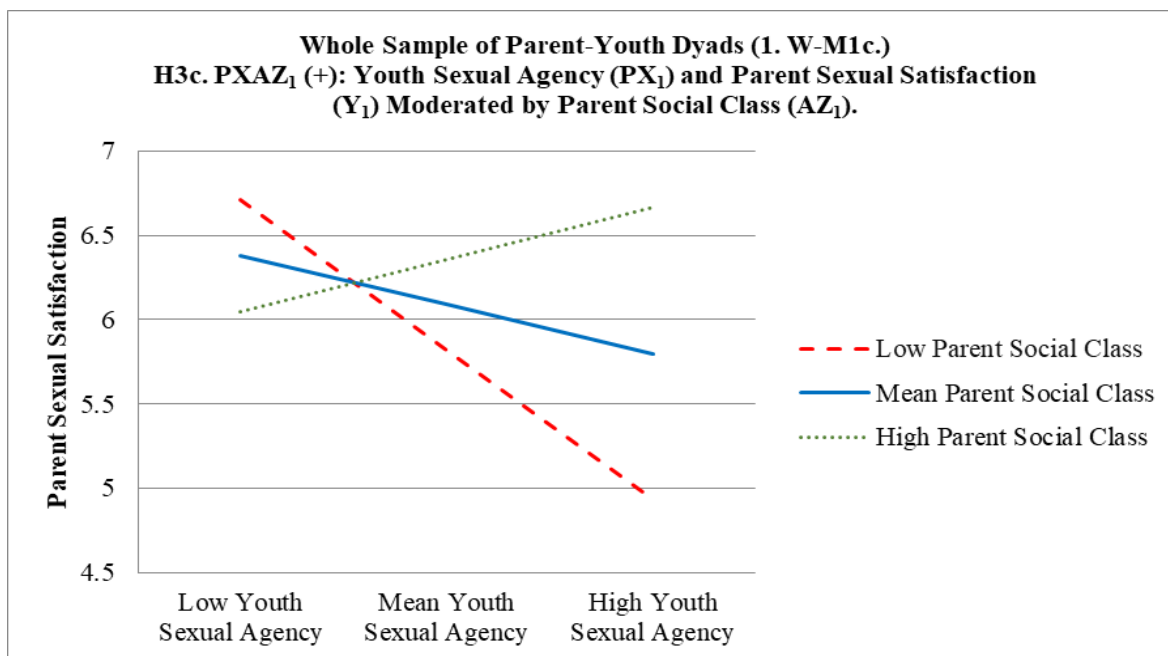
H3. Interaction Effects. The third hypothesis, that interaction effects will be observed for parent social class but not for youth social class, was partially supported. Results indicated that youth social class did not moderate the relationship between youth sexual agency and parent sexual satisfaction (supporting H3a., $PXPZ_1$). Results indicated that parent social class did not moderate the relationship between parent sexual agency and youth sexual satisfaction (rejecting H3b., $PXPZ_2$).

H3c. Whole Sample (W-M1c.) Youth Partner-Paren Actor Moderator (PXAZ₁). For the whole sample of parent youth dyads, parent social class significantly moderated youth sexual agency partner effects on parent sexual satisfaction, as evident in Figure 6. Actor effects between parent's social class and parent's satisfaction were significant ($az1: Z1 \rightarrow Y1$, $b = .27$, $p < .05$), but partner effects between the youth's sexual agency and parent sexual satisfaction were not significant ($px1: X2 \rightarrow Y1$, $b = -.29$, $p > .05$). However, moderating youth's sexual agency partner effects by parent's social class actor effects ($pxaz1: X2Z1 \rightarrow Y1$, $b = .60$, $p < .05$), significantly changed the association between parent's sexual agency and parent's sexual satisfaction due to the existence of a conditional relationship. When parent social class was low, lower youth sexual agency was linked with higher parent sexual satisfaction,

indicating that youth sexual agency has a negative relationship with parent sexual satisfaction. When parent social class was high, higher youth sexual agency was linked with higher parent sexual satisfaction, indicating that youth sexual agency has a positive relationship with parent sexual satisfaction. In other words, as parent social class decreased from high to low, youth sexual agency went from positively to negatively associated with parent sexual satisfaction. Notably, when parent social class was in the middle, the negative relationships between youth sexual agency and parent sexual satisfaction was buffered but remained negative.

Figure 6

Moderation Graph: H3c. PXAZ₁: 1. Parent-Youth Dyads

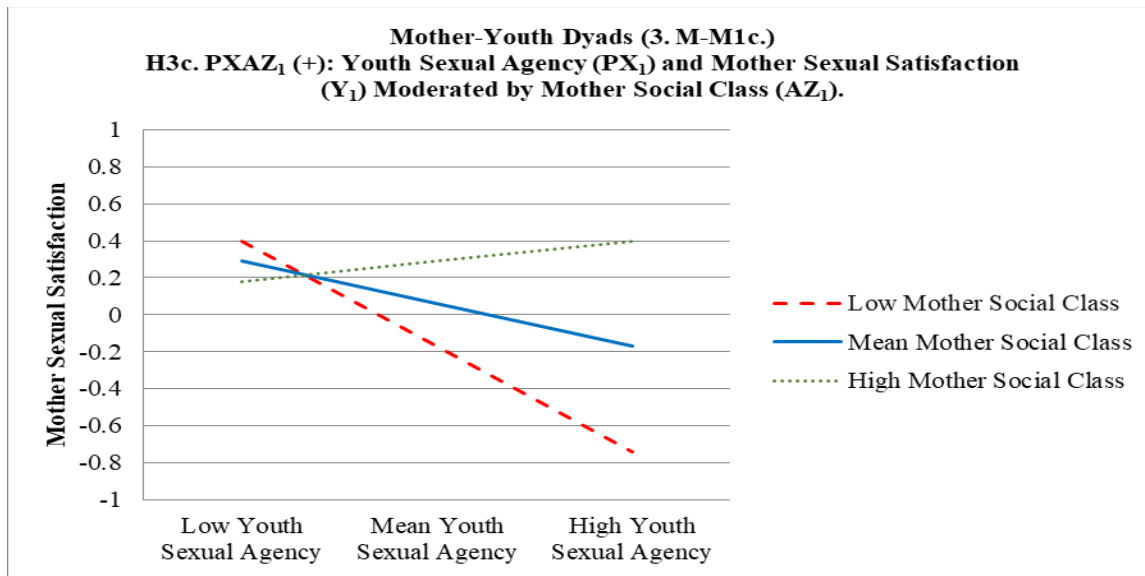


Note. In the whole parent-youth dyadic sample, the statistically significant youth sexual agency-parent social class interaction effect was plotted by entering unstandardized regression coefficients for the independent variable (px1: X2->Y1, $b = -.29, p > .05$), moderating variable (az1: Z1->Y1, $b = .27, p < .05$), interaction variable (pxaz1: X2Z1->Y1, $b = .60, p < .05$) and sexual satisfaction intercept (y1-int: $b = 6.09, p < .05$).

H3c. Mother-Youth Sample (M-M1c.) Youth Partner-Parent Actor Moderator (PXAZ₁). In the mother-youth dyadic sample, mother social class significantly moderated youth sexual agency partner effects on mother sexual satisfaction, as evident in Figure 7. Actor effects between mother's social class and mother's sexual satisfaction were not significant (az1: Z1->Y1, $b = .23, p > .05$), and partner effects between the youth's sexual agency and parent sexual satisfaction were also not significant (px1: X2->Y1, $b = -.23, p > .05$). However, moderating youth's sexual agency partner effects by mother's social class actor effects (pxaz1: X2Z1->Y1, $b = .34, p < .05$), significantly changed the association between youth sexual agency and mother's sexual satisfaction, due to the existence of a conditional relationship. When mother's social class was low, low sexual agency in youth was linked with higher sexual satisfaction in mother, indicating that sexual agency in youth had a negative relationship with mother sexual satisfaction. When mother's social class was high, higher youth sexual agency was linked with slightly (as evident by a nearly flat regression line) higher mother sexual satisfaction, indicating that sexual agency in youth had a weakly positive relationship with mother's sexual satisfaction. In other words, as mother social class decreased from high to low, sexual agency in youth went from being strongly positively to weakly negatively associated with mother's sexual satisfaction. Given the relatively flat slope, it is possible that decreased social class reduces youth's partner effects to the point of being non-significant. Notably, when mother's social class was at the mean, the negative relationships between youth sexual agency and mother sexual satisfaction was buffered but remained weakly negative and therefore may no longer be significant.

Figure 7

Moderation Graph: H3c. PXAZ₁: 3. Mother-Youth Dyads



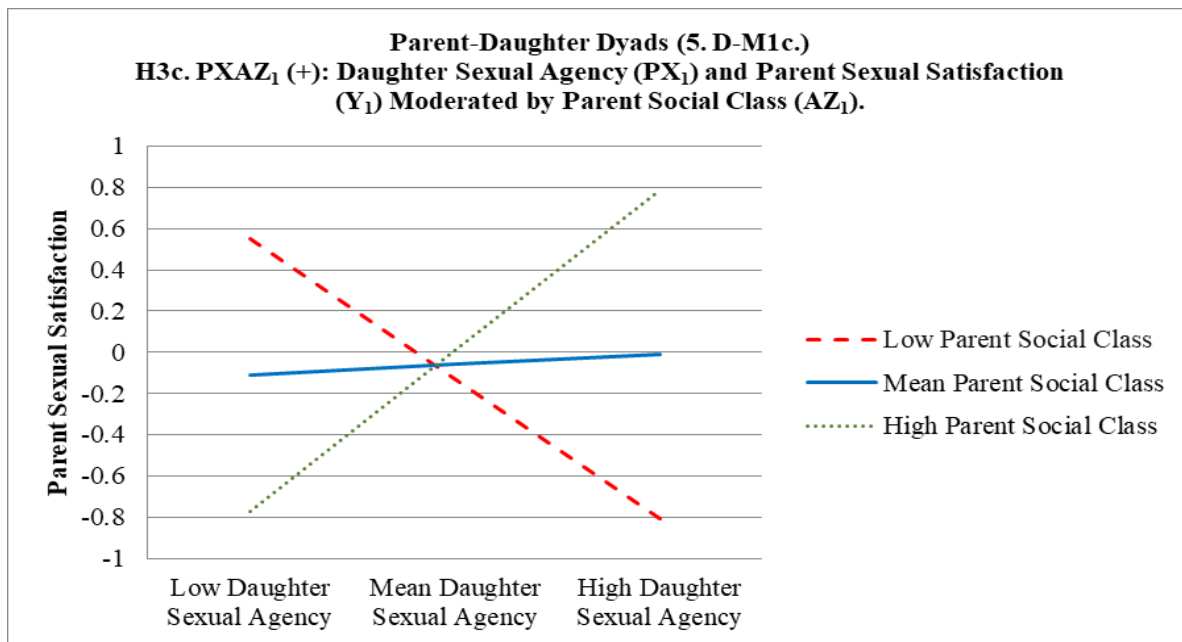
Note. For mother-youth dyads, the statistically significant youth sexual agency-parent social class interaction effect was plotted by entering unstandardized regression coefficients for the independent variable (px1: X2->Y1, $b = -.23$, $p > .05$), moderating variable (az1: Z1->Y1, $b = .23$, $p > .05$), interaction variable (pxaz1: X2Z1->Y1, $b = .34$, $p < .05$) and intercept (y1-int, $b = .06$, $p > .05$).

H3c. Parent-Daughter Sample (D-M1c.) Youth Partner-Parent Actor Moderator (PXAZ₁). For parent-daughter dyads, parent social class significantly moderated the relationship between sexual agency in daughters and sexual satisfaction in parents, as evident in Figure 8. Actor effects between parent social class and parent sexual satisfaction were not significant (az1: Z1->Y1, $b = .07$, $p > .05$), and partner effects between the daughter's sexual agency and parent sexual satisfaction were also not significant (px1: X2->Y1, $b = .05$, $p > .05$). However, moderating daughter's sexual agency partner effects by parent's social class actor effects (pxaz1: X2Z1->Y1, $b = .73$, $p < .05$), significantly changed the association between daughter's sexual agency and parent's sexual satisfaction due to the existence of a conditional relationship. However, the effect was not apparent for parents with mean social class. When parent social class was low, lower sexual satisfaction in daughters was linked with higher sexual satisfaction in parents,

indicating a negative relationship between daughter sexual agency and parent sexual satisfaction. When parent social class was high, higher sexual satisfaction in daughters was linked with high sexual satisfaction in parents, indicating a positive relationship between daughter sexual agency and parent sexual satisfaction. In other words, as parents social class decreased from high to low, sexual agency in daughters went from being positively to negatively associated with parent sexual satisfaction. Notably, the relationship between daughter sexual agency and parent sexual satisfaction appears to disappear when parent social class was in the middle.

Figure 8

Moderation Graph: H3c. PXAZ₁: 5. Parent-Daughter Dyads



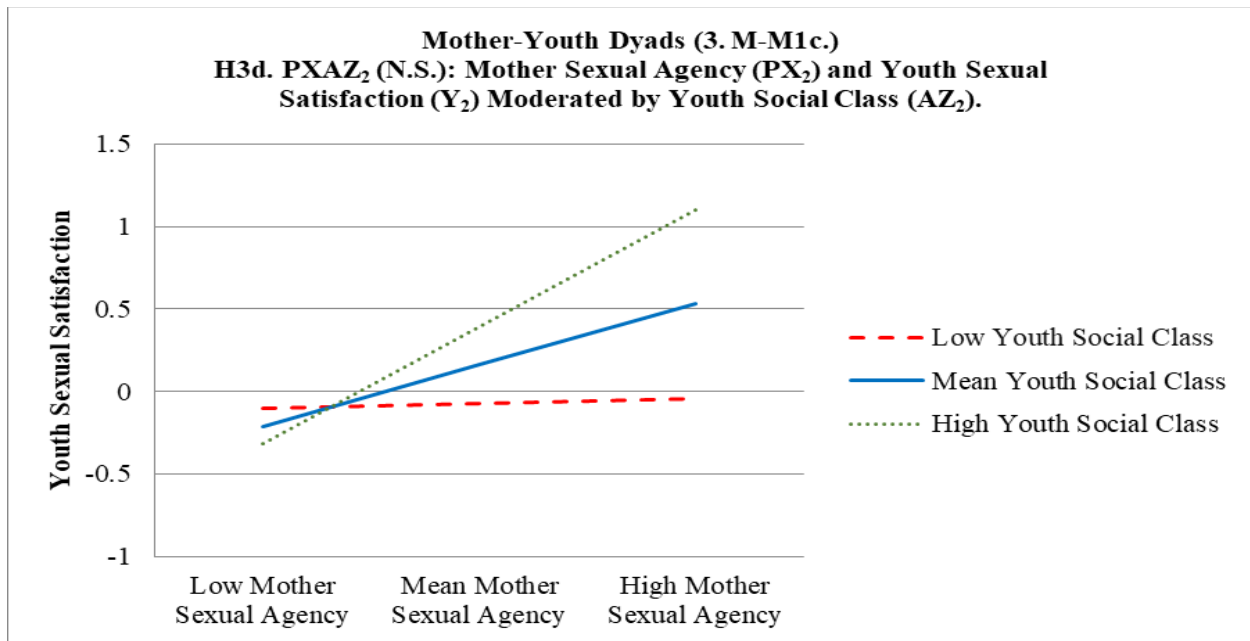
Note. In the parent-daughter dyadic sample, the statistically significant daughter sexual agency-parent social class interaction effect was plotted by entering unstandardized regression coefficients for the independent variable (px1: X2->Y1, $b = .05$, $p > .05$), moderating variable (az1: Z1->Y1, $b = .07$, $p > .05$), interaction variable (pxaz1: X2Z1->Y1, $b = .73$, $p < .05$) and sexual satisfaction intercept (y1-int, $b = -.06$, $p > .05$).

H3d. Results supported H3d for two of the three dyads. Social class did not moderate the relationship between parent sexual agency and youth sexual satisfaction for the whole parent-youth dyad or parent-daughter dyad.

H3d. Mother-Youth Sample (M-M1c.) Parent-Partner-Youth Actor Moderator (PXAZ₂). In mother-youth dyads, youth social class significantly moderated the relationships between sexual agency in mothers and sexual satisfaction in youth, as evident by Figure 9. Actor effects between youth social class and youth sexual satisfaction were not significant (az2: Z2->Y2, $b = .23, p > .05$) and mother's sexual agency partner effects on youth's sexual satisfaction were also not significant (px2: X1->Y2, $b = .37, p > .05$). However, moderating mother's sexual agency partner path by youth social class (pxaz2: X1Z2->Y2, $b = .34, p < .05$) significantly changed the relationship between mother sexual agency and youth sexual satisfaction due to the existence of a conditional relationship. When youth's social class was low, the relationship between sexual agency in mothers and sexual satisfaction in youth plateaued. When youth's social class was high, low sexual agency in mothers was linked with low sexual satisfaction in youth, indicating a positive relationship between mother sexual agency and youth sexual satisfaction. In other words, as social class in youth decreased, the positive influence of mother's sexual agency on youth's sexual agency weakened. Notably, the effect was not apparent until the youth's social class was at or above the mean, indicating that youth with low social class might remain unaffected by parent sexual agency partner effects.

Figure 9

Moderation Graph: H3d. PXAZ₂: 3. Mother-Youth Dyads



Note. In the mother-youth dyadic sample, the statistically significant mother sexual agency-youth social class interaction effect was plotted by entering unstandardized regression coefficients for the independent variable (px2: X1->Y2, $B = .37, p > .05$), moderating variable (az2: Z2->Y2, $B = .23, p > .05$), interaction variable (pxaz2: X1Z2->Y2, $B = .34, p < .05$) and intercept (y2-int, $B = .16, p > .05$).

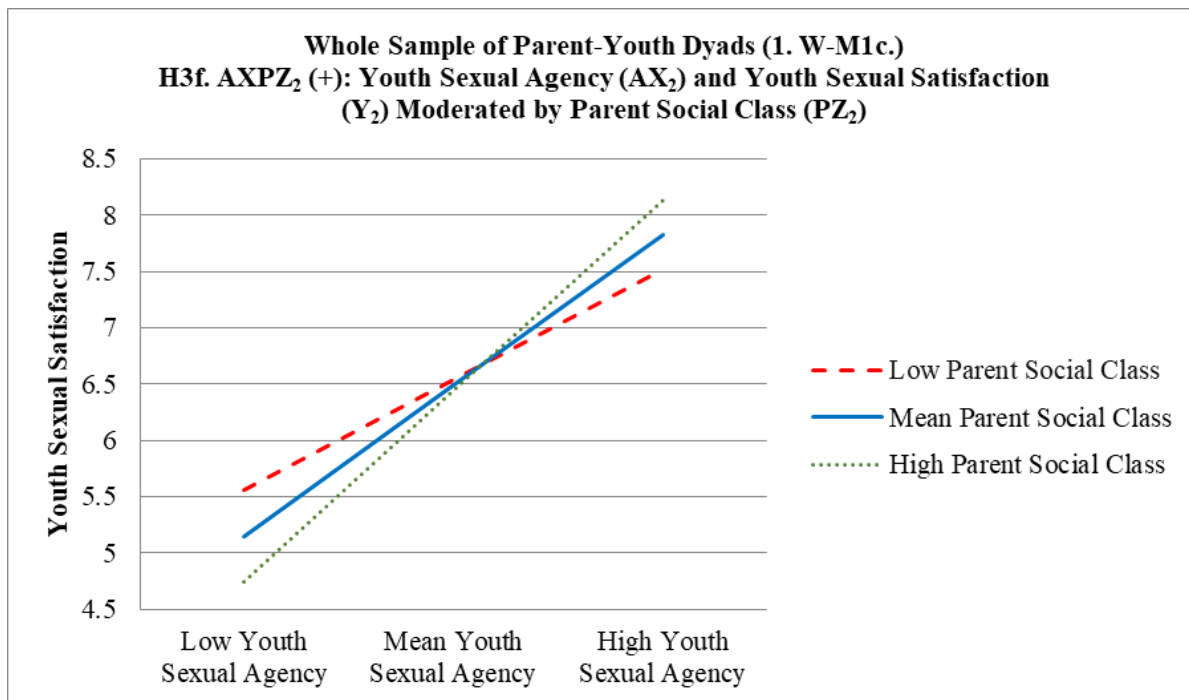
H3e. AXPZ₁. In full support of H3e, youth social class did not moderate the relationship between parent sexual agency and parent sexual satisfaction for any dyad.

H3f. Whole Sample (W-M1c.) Youth Actor-Parent Partner (AXPZ₂). In partial support of H3f, parent social class moderated the relationship between youth sexual agency and youth sexual satisfaction for the whole dyad of parents and youths (as evident by Figure 10) but not for mother-youth dyads or parent-daughter dyads. Actor effects for youth sexual agency and youth sexual satisfaction were positive and significant (ax2: X2->Y2, $b = 1.34, p < .05$), whereas parent social class actor effects on youth sexual satisfaction were not significant (pz2: Z1->Y2, $b = -.05, p > .05$). However, moderating youth sexual agency actor paths by parent partner social class (axpz2: X2Z1->Y2, $b = .36, p < .05$) significantly

changed the association between youth sexual agency and youth sexual satisfaction. When parent social class was low, high sexual agency in youth was associated with high sexual satisfaction in youth, indicating a positive relationship between youth sexual agency and youth sexual satisfaction. However, as parent social class decreased, the relationship between youth sexual agency and youth sexual satisfaction weakened. In other words, the effect was most apparent when parent social class was low, indicating that lower parent social class has a greater impact on youth sexual agency-youth sexual satisfaction than higher parent social class.

Figure 10

Moderation Graph: H3f. AXPZ₂: 1. Parent-Youth Dyads



Note. In the whole parent-youth dyadic sample, the statistically significant relationship between youth sexual agency and youth sexual satisfaction moderated by parent social class was plotted by entering unstandardized regression coefficients for the independent variable (ax₂: X₂->Y₂, $b = 1.34$, $p < .05$), moderating variable (pz₂: Z₁->Y₂, $b = -.05$, $p > .05$), interaction variable (axpz₂: X₂Z₁->Y₂, $b = .36$, $p < .05$) and intercept (y₂-int, $b = 6.49$, $p < .05$).

Non-Hypothesized Relationships

Social Class Actor Effects (AZ; Non-Hypothesized). Positive and statistically significant social class actor effects were only observed in the whole sample of parent-youth dyads (sample 1: $b = 0.27, p < .05$) and parent-son dyads (sample 4: $b = 0.44, p < .05$). Therefore, in the whole sample and parent-son dyads, regardless of role, high individual social class was associated with high individual sexual satisfaction.

Social Class Partner Effects (PZ; Non-Hypothesized). All dyadic samples indicated that youth social class did not affect parent sexual satisfaction. Similarly, all dyadic samples indicated that parent social class did not affect youth sexual satisfaction.

Sexual Agency Actor Effects Moderated by Social Class Actor Effects (AXAZ; Non-Hypothesized). Actor-actor interaction results indicated that one's social class did not moderate the relationship between participant reports of sexual agency and sexual satisfaction for the whole sample of parent-youth dyads ($b = -.09, p > .05$), mother-youth dyads ($b = -.08, p > .05$), and parent-daughter dyads ($b = -.11, p > .05$).

Summary

The current study was founded to increase empirical research utilizing a feminist-informed positive sexuality framework to counter risk, disease, and deficit-focused literature on youth sexuality (Bay-Cheng, 2013; Christensen et al., 2017; Harden, 2014). While expanding extant literature on the relationship between individual sexual agency and sexual satisfaction for youth (research question one), a nuanced perspective examined intergenerational parent-youth dyads (research question two) framed by family systems theory. Assumptions about power differentials supported several computationally intensive approaches such as CFAs, APIMoMs, and LMS methodology. The culmination of these models simultaneously analyzed roles (parent/youth), gender (mother/father and son/daughter), and social class (research question three). Results supported measurement invariance and omnibus distinguishability across dyad members. Constraint and means testing contributed to the formation of more parsimonious models by freely estimating parameters with significant differences keeping parameters without

significant differences constrained to equality. LMS significance testing verified that further complicating models with the addition of interaction terms significantly improved the parent-youth dyad, mother-youth dyad, and parent-daughter dyad. Finally, path analysis results fully supported hypothesis one (actor effects), partially supported hypothesis two (partner effects), and partially supported hypothesis three (interaction effects). Results will be contextualized by extant literature in the next section.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This study examined three overarching topics, which included (a) youth-level sexuality as a normative and potentially beneficial developmental milestone (research question one), (b) dyadic parent and youth-level sexuality as a function of intergenerational processes (research question two), and (c) the intersection of sexuality, gender, age, and social class as familial and societal conditions stratifying lived experiences (research question three). Grounded in feminist-informed family systems theory and a sex-positive framework, the employed methodology combined confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), measurement invariance testing (ME/I), multisample actor-partner interdependence moderation modeling (APIMoM), and latent structural equation modeling (LMS) to uncover within and between-group processes between strength-based targets, sexual agency, and sexual satisfaction. Results of the statistical labyrinth provided empirical support for many of the hypothesized outcomes, including statistically significant and positive actor effects, partner effects, and interaction effects. Perhaps more importantly, similarities between and within samples provided a nuanced perspective of familial and societal processes. Thus, the following section contextualizes notable findings in extant literature before identifying limitations and suggestions for future research.

Sexual Agency

Sufficient measurement invariance of sexual agency between dyad members and across samples indicated that this construct could adequately be compared across the developmental lifespan (sex positive framework), familial generations (family systems theory) and intersecting identities (feminist informed theory; Gareau et al., 2016). The current study's findings supported previous research indicating sexually agentic indicators were invariant by gender for youth (15 years old on average; Paquette et al., 2023) and individuals ranging from 18 to 35 years old (Amaro et al., 2023). While there was strong statistical support that sexual agency was measured consistently, there may be several societal nuances in sexual agency for men and women of different generations. For example, outside of a sex positive framework, the concept of youth sexual agency is often a proxy for sexual refusal skills (the

ability to say no to sex) rather than empowered negotiation (the ability to say no *and* yes to sex). When stratified by gender, societal and familial messages permit and privilege men's sexual engagement in that it is allowed and encouraged, and sexual enjoyment is expected. Conversely, women's sexual engagement is prohibited/protected in that they are the 'gatekeepers' and purity, rather than sexual enjoyment, is the expectation. Perhaps in reflection of such differences, previous outcomes notated gender-based variance in how sexual questions were interpreted (Maes et al., 2023; Vowels & Mark, 2020). Notably, as significant sexual agency actor effects and partner effects are reviewed in the next section, verified measurement invariance indicated that observed differences in the current study were not the result of group membership bias.

Personal Sexual Agency (Actor Effects; R1/H1)

The *process* of personal sexual agency as it related to sexual satisfaction (actor effects) highlighted both similarities and differences across samples. First, within dyads stratified by role (sample one) or by role and parent-gender (samples two and three), sexual agency actor effects were indistinguishable. Though dyadic partners were in developmentally different life phases based on their age/role, the link between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction remained strong, indistinguishability indicated role/age did not moderate the experience of personal sexual agency on sexual satisfaction. Sexual agency actor effects for parent-son dyads (sample four) were distinguishable and parent-daughter dyads (sample five) were not. Recall that parent-son and parent-daughter dyads were predominantly comprised of mother-son and mother-daughter dyads. Therefore, the relationship between son's sexual agency and son's sexual satisfaction was invariant to the relationship between mother's sexual agency and mother's sexual satisfaction. Conversely, the relationship between daughter's sexual agency and daughter's sexual satisfaction was equal to mother's sexual agency and mother's sexual satisfaction. Previous literature supports gender-based differences in the experience of sexual agency (Maes et al., 2023), which could explain why mothers and daughters were indistinguishable, but mothers and sons were not.

Significant and sizeable regression coefficients supported hypotheses 1a and 1b, indicating that strong actor effects existed *between* dyadic samples (stratified by gender) and *within* dyadic memberships (stratified by age). These results support findings in a recent study of German participants in which age did not moderate reports of sexual satisfaction (Dekker et al., 2020), but contrasted with literature suggesting that, when asked about personal sexual satisfaction, women considered/reported their partner's satisfaction rather than their own (Maes et al., 2023). Similar processes of sexual agency and sexual satisfaction might represent evidence of shared lived experiences such that a parallel, if not bidirectional, relationship exists between parents and youth in families and society. Support for this assumption comes from previous intergenerational research suggesting that the intersection of familial and societal experiences during youth shape adult sexual satisfaction expectations (Beckett et al., 2010; Fortenberry & Hensel, 2022; Nurgitz et al., 2021; Zimmer-Gembeck & French, 2016; Warren & Warren, 2015). Current findings, therefore, represent potential evidence of similar socialization at the familial or societal level.

Intergenerational Sexual Agency (Partner Effects; R2/H2)

Youth Sexual Agency Partner Effects (H2a)

As hypothesized, youth's sexual agency did not have a statistically significant effect on parent sexual satisfaction, (H2a). Like previous intergenerational research, results indicated gender-based differences in youth (Branje et al., 2020; Yoshida & Busby, 2012). In father-youth and mother-youth dyads, youth's sexual agency partner effects on fathers trended towards significance while effects on mothers did not- suggesting that youth sexual agency had greater influence on father sexual satisfaction than on mother sexual satisfaction. However, given the difference in sample size, it might be that greater power in father-son dyads would eliminate such differences. In parent-son and parent-daughter dyads, sons' sexual agency partner effects neared significance while daughters were far from significant- suggesting that son's sexual agency, relative to daughters, had greater influence on parent sexual satisfaction. More specifically, sons had a greater influence on mothers relative to daughters, since parent-youth dyads were predominantly comprised of mothers. Such findings might be related to boys' sexual development being promoted and privileged relative to girls. It might be that sons had greater power than

daughters; a theory supported by research on divergent gender roles in German families (Cordero-Coma & Esping-Andersen, 2018). If so, son's level of influence/power, relative to daughters, could reflect the patriarchal societal power afforded to men versus women. Extant literature would explain such a relationship by citing that men/boys tend to hold greater economic power, as evidenced by less unpaid labor in the home and increased value on paid labor outside of the home (Chidambaram & Scheiner, 2020).

Parent Sexual Agency Partner Effects (H2b)

As hypothesized, parent sexual agency partner effects were significant for the whole sample of parent-youth dyads (sample one), mother-youth dyads (sample three) and parent-son dyads (sample four). These findings align with previous research suggesting parent-youth relationships directly relate to adolescent sexual pleasure. Specifically, supportive parental relationships positively correlated with pleasurable sexual experiences and intimacy, particularly in youth, whereas greater degrees of controlling parental relationships were associated with decreased pleasure and increased guilt among youth (de Graaf et al., 2010). Such results contribute to extant literature because sexual satisfaction, sexual pleasure, and sexual wellness remain notoriously under-researched, particularly as they relate to sexual development in youth (Espinosa-Hernández et al., 2017; Fortenberry & Hensel, 2022; Nogueira Avelar e Silva et al., 2018). Unsurprisingly, current findings reflected statistically significant mother-partner effects (mother's sexual agency on youth sexual satisfaction), whereas the same was not true for fathers, given traditional gender scripts. It might be assumed that mothers' more significant influence over youth relative to fathers supports previous studies that found women complete the bulk of childcare and domestic duties, while fathers are more likely to work outside of the home (Chidambaram & Scheiner, 2020; Cordero-Coma & Esping-Andersen, 2018). Much like in other Western countries, German women complete disproportionately more unpaid domestic duties than men, impacting how, when, and where they can work outside of the home (Chidambaram & Scheiner, 2020).

Parents' sexual agency having a significant impact on sons' sexual satisfaction relative to daughters could also be attributed to familial and societal sexual scripts that more often privilege men's

sexual satisfaction. If gender scripts were traditional in these participants, the fact that parents did not affect their daughter's sexual satisfaction could indicate that gatekeeping messages toward daughters do not improve their satisfaction. Indeed, societal messages devaluing girls/women's pleasure have been heavily tied to gender-based pleasure gaps to the extent that social structure, rather than biology, creates and perpetuates such a gap (Laan et al., 2021; Wetzel & Sanchez, 2022). Future research might explicitly explore intergenerational agency to gain better insight into these processes.

Finally, social and developmental factors might explain why the current study found significant parent-partner effects but nonsignificant youth-partner effects. Research on aging and gender-based processes explains how age could stratify the lived experience of sexual agency and sexual satisfaction. Studies show that youth regulate via external cues guided by norms and expectations, whereas the locus of control shifts to internal regulation with age (Freund et al., 2009). In other words, societal and familial expectations significantly impact youth more than youth influence parents. Parents might be able to help youth shift to internal regulation by explicitly labeling societal processes, such as gender scripts, and supporting more individual expression rather than social conformity.

Sexual Agency Moderated by Social Class

Social class as a measured construct was invariant across all samples regardless of gender and role. Family systems theoretical tenets of intergenerational constructs aligned with invariance findings, suggesting that social class was bi-directionally shaped between parents and youth regardless of gender. Feminist-informed theory conflicted with invariance findings because social class is shaped by gender such that mothers and daughters tend to have less economic power relative to fathers and sons. However, the next section discusses differences in intergenerational processes and lived experiences of social class.

Gendered effects were found between samples based on how adding latent interactions to baseline models affected model fit. Examining the relationship between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction at the intersection of social class improved model fit for mother-youth and parent-daughter dyads. While increased model fit does not imply significant interactions, it suggests that accounting for interactions improved data analysis. Conversely, father-youth and parent-son dyads were not improved by

adding social class interaction effects, resulting in the rejection of interaction effects for father-youth and parent-son dyads. In other words, social class did not significantly change the relationship between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction for fathers and sons. Changes in social class may have a significant conditional effect on mothers and daughters because women in patriarchal societies have less control over material resources (Cordero-Coma & Esping-Andersen, 2018; Pratto & Espinoza, 2001). As mentioned, the gendered division of labor results in disproportionately more women with unpaid obligations towards duties in the home (i.e., childcare/caretaking), whereas men's most significant obligations are more often outside of the home (i.e., paid employment; Cordero-Coma & Esping-Andersen, 2018; Pratto & Espinoza, 2001). Gendered ideologies that contribute to constricting labor divisions (when and for whom equity is afforded) are most influential in one's family of origin (DiIorio et al., 2003) as parents "[encourage] and [model] sex and gender-appropriate behaviors, cultural stereotypes, values, and beliefs about self and society for their children" (Rossetto & Tollison, 2017, p. 65).

Furthermore, social class may not impact father and son sexual agency on sexual satisfaction because of gendered differences in reports of sexual satisfaction. Men consistently report greater levels of sexual satisfaction relative to women, a phenomenon known as the pleasure gap (Laan et al., 2021; Wetzel & Sanchez, 2022). Sexual satisfaction appraisal is nuanced, consisting of multiple factors (McClelland, 2014), but the current study utilized a single indicator to measure sexual satisfaction in participants. Multifaceted measurements of sexual satisfaction may help illuminate how social class could affect individuals with diverse sociopolitical contexts of sex and sexual satisfaction (McClelland, 2014).

Social Class as a Moderator (Interaction Effects; R3/H3)

Social class, a proxy for individually held economic power (Cho et al., 2020), dramatically shapes individual, familial, and societal culture and experiences. Such an approach was based on the belief that underlying processes related to intersecting identities can have profound implications on outcomes (Bauer et al., 2021). More specifically, social constructions of gender and age intersect with social class to create uniquely overlapping systems of sexual inequity or privilege (Afzali et al., 2020; Bancroft et al., 2011; Cranney, 2017; Higgins et al., 2022). Findings supported these assumptions to the degree that youth and

parent sexual agency on youth and parent sexual satisfaction were moderated by youth and parent social class.

Parent Social Class Moderating Youth Sexual Agency on Parent Sexual Satisfaction (H3c.)

High Parent Social Class. Social class was observed to moderate the relationship significantly and positively between youth sexual agency and parent sexual satisfaction when the parent's social class was high. In other words, among dyads where parents reported higher levels of social class, as youth sexual agency increased, parent sexual satisfaction also increased. Recall that youth sexual agency effects on parent sexual satisfaction (partner effects) were not significant when social class was not taken into effect. Conversely, high parent social class significantly changed the youth's partner effects to create a positive relationship (as youth sexual agency increased, parent sexual satisfaction increased). High social class significantly moderating conditional effects is not surprising given a recent review linking social class to sexual wellness, referred to as "erotic inequity" (Higgins et al., 2022, p. 940). Of the nearly 50 studies from over 20 countries, 94% of the articles they reviewed found that "individuals with higher socioeconomic status also reported greater indicators of sexual wellbeing" and ultimately concluded that "connections between economic conditions and sexual wellbeing are not just a likely hypothesis but an empirically documented phenomenon at the individual level (Higgins et al., 2022, pp. 944-951).

Low Parent Social Class. However, it was surprising that low social class did not have the same effect as high social class. Specifically, the relationship between youth sexual agency and parent sexual satisfaction flattened to insignificance or became weakly negative (as youth sexual agency increased, parent sexual satisfaction decreased) as parent social class decreased. Families with lower social class work more extended hours outside the home; therefore, intergenerational effects may be divergent relative to higher social class families. In other words, parent-youth time together could be a privilege afforded to those with higher social class, whereas economic disempowerment reduces the time spent between parents and youth. However, if that line of logic is accurate, time away from parents (and perhaps traditional gender scripts in the home) results in increased sexual agency in youth. Additional research is required before conclusive statements can be made.

Negative effects of low-parent social class were most pronounced in parent-daughter dyads such that the interacted graph formed an ‘x’ pattern, suggesting that low-parent social class and high social class had nearly opposite effects on the relationships between youth sexual agency and parent sexual satisfaction. Given that negative interactions for low parent social class also suggest that when youth sexual agency decreased, parent sexual agency increased. Family systems theory might help to explain the observation by highlighting isomorphic processes. If an individual reports low sexual agency, it is possible that agentic behavior in other relationships, such as parent-youth dynamics, is also low. Furthermore, low agency in youth could outwardly present as compliance or deference towards parents, which might reduce conflict or stress in the home. The link between stress/conflict and satisfaction has been observed previously, such that greater sexual satisfaction is associated with less stress/conflict (Sánchez-Fuentes et al., 2014). Future research is needed to explore underlying mechanisms possibly contributing to the negative relationship between youth sexual agency and parent sexual satisfaction when moderated by low parent social class.

Youth Social Class Moderating Mother Sexual Agency on Youth Sexual Satisfaction (H3f.)

Though youth’s social class significantly and positively moderated the relationship between their parent’s sexual agency and the youth’s sexual satisfaction when the youth’s social class was high. In other words, among dyads where youth reported higher levels of social class, as the mother’s sexual agency increased, the youth’s sexual satisfaction also increased. Recall that the mother’s conditional sexual agency effects on youth sexual satisfaction (partner effects) were significant even when social class was not taken into effect. Similarly, youth’s conditional social class actor effects on their sexual agency (actor effects) were trending towards significance in mother-youth dyads. However, it is still surprising that high accounts of social class in youth significantly changed mother-partner sexual agency effects on youth satisfaction because, when youth social class was low, the interaction plateaued. Like other findings, only high social class impacted the relationships between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction.

One possible explanation is to consider the privilege afforded by higher social class as accompanied by the privilege of sexual satisfaction. As previously mentioned, higher SES begets higher

satisfaction. For example, higher educational attainment, which is also correlated with higher sexual satisfaction (Babayan et al., 2018; Ruiz-Munoz et al., 2013), tends to correlate with higher SES. Increased education correlates with increased communication, such as self-disclosure of sexual preferences (Do et al., 2018; MacNeil & Byers, 2009; Rausch & Rettenberg, 2021). Youth who reported higher educational attainment among their parents were more likely to expect sexual pleasure during partnered interactions than their peers (Melhado, 2015), and expectation of sexual pleasure is correlated with higher rates of sexual satisfaction (Cheng et al., 2014; Cheng et al., 2015). Higher education also correlates with more egalitarian gender attitudes (Cordero-Coma & Esping-Andersen, 2018). For example, Cordero-Coma and Esping-Andersen (2018) noted that “more highly educated mothers are more likely to teach their sons to be responsible for domestic work, regardless of the parents’ division of housework” (p. 1016). Future research would do well to incorporate educational attainment into study designs to account for possible confounding relationships.

Relatedly, lower SES has previously correlated with lower expectations for sexual pleasure (Cheng et al., 2014), previously described as a critical variable in sexual satisfaction outcomes. Such relationships are likely not linear because expectations for satisfaction in adulthood, including sexual satisfaction, develop from societal and familial experiences during youth (Beckett et al., 2010; Fortenberry & Hensel, 2022; Nurgitz et al., 2021; Zimmer-Gembeck & French, 2016; Warren & Warren, 2015). Therefore, it could be that sexual satisfaction was not unaffected by sexual agency so much as the expectations for satisfaction are, as the graph displayed, unrelated. In other words, sexual satisfaction is satisfactory until expectations rise with privilege.

Additional Intersecting Identities Findings (Non-Hypothesized)

Social Class Actor Effects

Though actor effects for the social class were not hypothesized, notable findings emerged. First, social class actor effects were constrained to equality in all final models, and, except for parent-daughter dyads, all models yielded near-significant or significant and positive effects. Implications include intergenerational processes of how social class affects sexual satisfaction such that parent and youth

social class actor effects were so similar that they were empirically indistinguishable. As previously mentioned, sexual satisfaction is associated with poverty, such as increased income related to increased sexual satisfaction (Afzali et al., 2020; Bancroft et al., 2011; Cranney, 2017; Nomejko & Dolińska-Zygmunt, 2015). Given that poverty tends to reduce physical and emotional health overall, it is likely that similar effects occur with sexual satisfaction (Higgins et al., 2022). If nothing else, similar results have been observed in the relationship between SES and sexual satisfaction in that higher SES and more significant economic resources were positively correlated with sexual satisfaction (Casique, 2020; Do et al., 2018; Ji & Norling, 2004). Contributing factor include the privilege higher social class affords to explore and investigate sexual development such that those with higher social class report higher expectations for sexual pleasure (Bay-Cheng & Goodkind, 2016; Cheng et al., 2014; Higgins et al., 2022).

Between youth, parent-son dyads had statistically significant and positive social class actor effects, whereas parent-daughter dyads did not. Moderating sexual agency on sexual satisfaction by social class was not significant for fathers or sons. Together these findings suggest that social class was less impactful on father and son sexual agency, providing further evidence that sexual agency might be largely related to patriarchal scripts. A reverse relationship was observed for mothers and daughters in that their direct social class actor effects were not significant but moderating by social class was significant- indicating that social class has a strong relationship with sexual agency for women. A literature review on sexual equity within sociocultural contexts (Higgins et al., 2022) both supported and conflicted with these outcomes. For instance, some results noted a non-significant relationship between men's sexual satisfaction and social class for youth and adults while others consistently found positive and statistically significant associations between sexual satisfaction and social class regardless of gender. Women's sexual satisfaction was almost unanimously associated with social class, even in studies where the same relationship was not significant for men. However, it is important to point out that a variety of measures and constructs were used to conceptualize social class (including factors like education, financial stressors, and income at the individual level and across familial generations and romantic partnerships) and sexual satisfaction (including sexual pleasure, sexual self-efficacy, orgasmic ability, and sexual

functioning). Additionally, the current and previous findings imply that gender shapes the relationship between social class and sexual satisfaction.

Social Class Partner Effects

Though not a hypothesized parameter, social class partner effects were constrained to equality in each model for each dyadic sample. Dyadically constrained social class partner parameters implied that each member was so similar that the responses from parents versus from youth were empirically equivalent. It is possible that adolescent reports of social class closely mirrored their parents' reports and vice versa, implying that both members of the dyad held similar views of their family's social class. Therefore, the relationship between social class and sexual satisfaction was indistinguishable by role (age), even when stratified by gender. Furthermore, regardless of age or gender, social class partner effects were non-significant. These findings could point to bidirectional patterns between parents and youth just as quickly as the result of a flaw in the study. As mentioned, previous scholarship suggests accounting for education when assessing sexual satisfaction because "better-educated individuals can communicate more efficiently, [and] greater schooling facilitates a more satisfactory sexual relationship" (Rainer & Smith, 2012, p. 595). Family income, parental education, and parent employment were associated with sexual satisfaction in a recent literature review (Higgins et al., 2022). Thus, identical processes of insignificance could indicate intergenerational or bidirectional patterns between parent and youth, irrespective of age or gender, such that all members share similar social class appraisals and experiences. However, a lack of data cannot conclusively support such an assumption. It is equally possible that no partner effects were observed because of an unknown variable/factor. Thus, the results did not contradict assumptions of intergenerational processes but did not conclusively support such assumptions. In summary, additional research on the intersection of SES with sexual satisfaction is needed (Sánchez-Fuentes et al., 2014; Velten & Margraf, 2017).

Summary of Sexual Agency and Interaction Effects

The current study's results substantiated the profound importance of contextualizing sexual agency and sexual satisfaction within developmental lifespans (sex positive framework), familial generations (family systems theory), and intersecting identities (feminist informed theory). By utilizing a sex-positive framework to focus on positive facets of sexual development (sexual agency and sexual satisfaction), findings indicated the need for recognizing youth as sexual citizens and targeting sexual agency as a critical factor in lifelong sexual satisfaction (Halpern, 2010; Haydon et al., 2014). By examining familial dyads, a clear link between intergenerational sexual agency and sexual satisfaction emerged, supporting previous findings of bidirectional pathways between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction (Brasileiro et al., 2021; Couture et al., 2022; Hensel et al., 2011; Zimmer-Gembeck, 2013; Zimmer-Gembeck et al., 2011). Shared familial and societal experiences likely contributed to parents and youth mirroring one another in their (a) interpretation of sexual agency and social class as constructs, (b) several indistinguishable actor, partner, and interaction parameters (Beckett et al., 2010; Fortenberry & Hensel, 2022; Nurgitz et al., 2021; Zimmer-Gembeck & French, 2016; Warren & Warren, 2015). Gender-based similarities in path outcomes likely shaped and were shaped by the traditional sexual scripts passed down through generations and across sociocultural systems (Evans et al., 2020; Evans et al., 2021; Rauscher et al., 2020; Rossetto & Tollison, 2017). For example, significant mother sexual agency partner effects relative to fathers could be explained by expectations for women to shoulder more domestic labor than fathers (Chidambaram & Scheiner, 2020; Cordero-Coma & Esping-Andersen, 2018). Significant mother sexual agency partner effects with sons but not with daughters could be explained by how mothers have historically been more permissive of sons' sexual engagement/exploration relative to daughters (Alvarado et al., 2020; Olmstead, 2020). Non-significant social class interaction effects for father-youth and parent-son dyads could indicate that men's historically higher reports of sexual satisfaction (Frederick et al., 2018; Laan et al., 2021; Wetzel & Sanchez, 2022) make them less sensitive to changes in social class. Additionally, satisfying sexual experiences for men is a societal expectation regardless of social class whereas the same is not true for women (Higgins et al., 2022). For women, higher sexual

satisfaction appeared to be a privilege of higher social class (Bay-Cheng & Goodkind, 2016; Cheng et al., 2014; Higgins et al., 2022).

Implications

Findings in the current study suggest gender-based differences in the experience of sexual agency and sexual satisfaction in family systems while substantiating sexual outcomes as “social and political [processes], embedded in social life and power dynamics” (Higgins et al., 2022, p. 942). A nuanced understanding of sexual wellbeing emerged by incorporating contextual and relational factors, such as familial interactions moderated by intersecting identities, into sexual agency and sexual satisfaction research (Halpern, 2010, 2023; Haydon et al., 2014).

Previous research exploring gendered economic disempower in couples and families noted that participants with more egalitarian views were observed to have more equitable relationships (Chidambaram & Scheiner, 2020; Cordero-Coma & Esping-Andersen, 2018). For societies with a more accepting and culturally normative view of conceptualizing youth sexual behavior, youth did not associate sexual intercourse with depression, guilt, and anxiety (Madkour et al., 2010; Schwartz, 1993). Therefore, family therapists, educators, and policymakers can bring awareness and initiate discussion/education about implicit and explicit sexual processes in the family. For example, women are likely to hear about sexual risk and protection, whereas men learn about sexual promotion and sexual positivity (Evans et al., 2020; Flores & Barroso, 2017; Sevilla et al., 2016). Conversation about systemic and symbolic sexual scripts are needed to explicitly discuss societal message related to sexual agency and sexual satisfaction (Rossetto & Tollinson, 2017). Understanding intergenerational patterns means recognizing that parents might be unaware or uncomfortable with challenging socio-cultural norms. Therefore, it is up to educators and clinicians to model conversations about being shaped by and shaping who has the power and privilege to say/feel/experience topics related to sexuality. Discussing sexual agency and satisfaction as an intersection of social justice and sexual wellness aligns with viewing youth’s “sexually agentic feelings about having pleasurable as well as safe sexual experiences mutually encouraged each other” (Chmielewski et al., 2020, p. 10). As advised by previous scholarship and supported by the current

study's findings, "focus on the performance of gender roles within multiple systems and family processes to examine how power and agency are negotiated in the face of enabling and constraining structural forces" (Rossetto & Tollinson, 2017, p. 63).

Furthermore, the fact that actor and partner sexual agency was associated with sexual satisfaction implied that addressing these topics with individuals, couples, and families could create rippling systemic change. Couples' therapists could potentially intervene in legacies of sexual oppression by addressing these topics within romantic partnerships. Taking a feminist-informed family systems approach, sexual agency genograms could yield insight on sociocultural patterns passed down through generations and help partners externalize a process that would otherwise remain isolating and silent. Helping mothers recognize that the dynamics within their adult sexual partnerships become mirrors for their daughter's youth sexual partnerships might empower them to discuss sexual negotiation rather than sexual refusal with their daughters. Explicit conversations may be particularly important for mothers with low social class to help shift to a positive relationship (as parent sexual agency increases, youth sexual relationship increases). Even addressing sexual agency individual therapy could begin reshaping that person's sexual citizenship and such changes could positively impact others in the family system.

The significant impact of social class on mother and daughter sexual agency implicated the importance of contextualizing women's sexual experiences within sociocultural conditions. While findings underscored the importance of sexual agency for all participant's sexual satisfaction, recognizing the unique impact social class had on women combines positive sex frameworks with feminist informed theory. In doing so, providers gain a broader understanding of their client's experience and begin to change societal and familial patterns of female oppression. Failure to consider how intersecting identities shape and are shaped by sociocultural factors can lead to perpetuating historical patterns of oppression.

Limitations

This study was limited by secondary data, which restricted available indicators for analysis. Additionally, unequal group sizes prevented independent analysis based on gender. Instead, I compared data based on parent gender (father-youth versus mother-youth dyads) and adolescent gender (parent-son

versus parent-daughter dyads). A distinct limitation of this study is the lack of dyadic data within a sexual partnership. Relying on one person's report of sexual satisfaction has not, historically, shed light on the perceptions of a partner's sexual satisfaction (Couture et al., 2022; Joel et al., 2020). Thus, future studies might consider triadic analysis that considers familial and partner perceptions of sexual satisfaction. A single-item measurement of sexual satisfaction, while sufficient (Mark et al., 2014; Sánchez-Fuentes et al., 2014), is not ideal. Galovan et al. (2023) suggest that focusing on sexual satisfaction level offers limited information compared to an approach that examines the meaning of sexual satisfaction. Future research should consider multiple indicators of sexual wellness and sexual meaning-making, such as the "cognitive (e.g., well-being), physical (e.g., sexual response), individual (e.g., pleasure), and relational aspects (e.g., mutuality)" (Couture et al., 2022, p. 305).

Finally, a limitation of this study was reducing social class indicators to subjective questions about finances as opposed to a broader conceptualization. Economic prospects diverge when stratified by gender, even in households with dual-earning models (i.e., both parents work outside of the home; Chidambaram & Scheiner, 2020). The economic power and social status afforded by increased paid work to fathers suggests that familial status is lower for mothers (Chidambaram & Scheiner, 2020; Cordero-Coma & Esping-Andersen, 2018). However, the current study cannot draw such direct conclusions due to not considering indicators for gender scripts. Furthermore, Previous studies have noted that increased education correlated with increased sexual satisfaction (Babayan et al., 2018; Ruiz-Munoz et al., 2013). Results indicated that increased education correlated with increased communication, such as self-disclosure of sexual preferences (Do et al., 2018; MacNeil & Byers, 2009; Rausch & Rettenberg, 2021). Youth who reported higher educational attainment among their parents were more likely to expect sexual pleasure during partnered interactions than their peers (Melhado, 2015), and expectation of sexual pleasure is correlated with higher rates of sexual satisfaction (Cheng et al., 2014; Cheng et al., 2015). Future research should incorporate measures of education into their conceptualizations of intersecting identities.

Future Research

First and foremost, future research must continue to contextualize sexual development and intergenerational patterns of sexual outcomes by societal and relational forces. The overlap of constructs like sexual satisfaction, sexual agency, and social class represents one possible intersection of sex positive and feminist informed research. However, many other facets need exploration such as race, disability, and other institutions of inequity shaping sexual lives (Higgins et al., 2022). In some parts of the world, systemic barriers impede such investigation. Race-based atrocities led to the elimination of race-based data collection in many continental European areas (Moffitt et al., 2020). National colorblind policies collect data on other identity markers (i.e., nationality/citizenship) for fear of perpetuating race as a social (i.e., subjugated) construct, in what Moffitt et al. (2020) referred to as “racism without race” (p. 1). At the same time, intersectionality theory emerged from a power gap in which women and people of color were legally protected from discrimination, but women of color were disproportionately unserved. Decades of research across the globe verifies the qualitatively divergent (often exponentially subjugated) experiences those with intersecting identities face. Thus, I urge future researchers to consider intersectionality by examining the relationship between youth sexual agency and sexual satisfaction using race/ethnicity data. Furthermore, given that sociodemographic features may be essential covariates, future studies of similar populations should consider how geographical location (i.e., East Germany versus West Germany) impacts gender roles (Horne & Johnson, 2019) and, by proxy, agency, and satisfaction. Additionally, future research should strive to utilize latent constructs, such as measuring sexual satisfaction with multiple indicators, to capture potential nuances by intersecting identities. Finally, there remains a great need for additional data on father-youth relationships to understand how they might be similar or different from mother-youth relationships.

Summary

Research contextualizing youth sexual satisfaction by intersecting identities is scarce and represents a significant gap in the understanding of youth sexual wellness. This study supported previous research underscoring the importance of examining between and within differences rather than singularly

focusing on single-axis differences (Armstrong et al., 2014). Consequently, this study was designed to “consider the conditions beyond the singular individual body” by analyzing how intersecting identities and social conditions shape sexual outcomes (Fine & McClelland, 2016; Higgins et al., 2022, p. 942). Notable findings included significant and sizable actor effects between sexual agency and sexual satisfaction across all samples. Empirical evidence for parent-partner effects supported extant literature suggesting that parents significantly influence youth’s sexuality through implicit and explicit modeling of norms and expectations. Implications include that regardless of age, epicene roles (all parent- all youth), or gendered roles (i.e., father/mother and son/daughter), sexual agency and sexual satisfaction are irrefutably linked. Family systems theory might attribute these results to the shared meaning of overlapping filial experiences. In contrast, feminist theory might attribute invariance to co-occurring sociocultural experiences outside the home (i.e., societal norms). Regardless, results suggest that sexual agency is a potential change mechanism for improving sexual satisfaction in individuals and families. Additionally, social class significantly changed the relationships between parent sexual agency and youth sexual satisfaction to the extent that future studies are advised to incorporate multiple measures of intersecting identities.

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APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHICS: SAMLPE 2. FATHER-YOUTH DYADS

Father-youth dyads ($N = 194$ dyads) consisted of fathers and their youth. Fathers had an average age of 45.31 ($SD = 3.44$) years old, were predominantly German natives ($n = 153$, 78.87%) with no history of migration ($n = 154$, 79.38), and most completed high school ($n = 156$, 46.57%). The father's youths were evenly distributed among gender ($n = 95$ daughters, 48.97%), averaged 17.44 ($SD = 1.78$) years of age, most often identified as German natives ($n = 133$, 68.56%) with no history of migration ($n = 125$, 64.43%) and enrolled in or completed high school ($n = 124$, 63.92%). See table below for additional descriptive statistics for father-youth dyads.

Table A.1*Demographics: Sample 2. Father-Youth Dyads*

	Fathers			Father's Youths		
	%	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>R</i>	%	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>R</i>
Sex	100.00	1 (0.00)	1-1	28.57	1.49 (0.50)	1-2
Male	100.00			1.03		
Female	-			48.97		
Age	28.42	45.31 (3.44)	31-50	28.57	17.44 (1.78)	16-26
ISEI	27.10	45.05 (22.07)	14-89	7.95	34.83 (13.22)	12-62
10-29	34.54			12.89		
30-50	20.62			9.28		
51-70	21.13			5.67		
71-90	18.56			0.00		
Missing	5.15			72.16		
Migration Status	27.54	1.27 (0.62)	1-3	20.62	1.19 (0.57)	1-3
No Migration History	79.38			64.43		
1st Generation	8.25			1.55		
2nd Generation	8.76			6.19		
Missing	3.61			27.84		
Ethnicity	27.54	1.49 (1.15)	1-5	22.24	1.37 (1.06)	1-5
German native	78.87			68.56		
Non-German Native	17.53			9.28		
Missing	3.61			22.16		
Education	28.57	5.14 (1.66)	1-8	28.28	4.29 (1.38)	0-7
Currently enrolled	0.00			0.52		
No degree	1.79			4.12		
Lower Sec.	8.06			20.10		
Upper Sec.	46.57			63.92		
Post Sec. Non-Ter.	11.64			3.09		
1st Stage of Ter.	30.75			7.22		
2nd Stage of Ter.	1.19			0.00		
Missing	0.00			1.03		

Note. $N = 194$ father-youth dyads. Abbreviations: % = percentage of total cases, M = mean, SD = standard deviation, R = range, ISEI = international socio-economic index of occupational status, Sec. = secondary, Ter. = tertiary. Education was based on the international standard classification of education (including those still enrolled). The ISEI groups occupations based on income and education such that lower numbers represent higher social class.

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHICS: SAMPLE 3. MOTHER-YOUTH DYADS

Mother-youth dyads ($N = 485$ dyads) consisted of mothers and their youth. Mothers had an average age of 44.48 ($SD = 3.82$) years old, were predominantly German natives ($n = 367$, 75.67%) with no history of migration ($n = 367$, 75.67%), and most completed high school ($n = 188$, 54.65%). The mother's youths were evenly distributed among gender ($n = 249$ daughters, 51.34%), averaged 18.04 ($SD = 2.13$) years of age, most often identified as German natives ($n = 246$, 50.72%) with no history of migration ($n = 225$, 46.39%) and enrolled in or completed high school ($n = 294$, 60.62%). See table below for additional descriptive statistics for mother-youth dyads.

Table A.2*Demographics: Sample 3. Mother-Youth Dyads*

	Mothers			Mother's Youths		
	%	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>R</i>	%	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>R</i>
Sex	71.43	2.00 (0.00)	2-2	71.43	1.51 (0.50)	1-2
Male	-			48.66		
Female	100.00			51.34		
Age	71.43	44.48 (3.82)	31-50	71.43	18.04 (2.13)	15-26
ISEI	62.00	45.16 (19.34)	14-89	22.97	36.66 (14.74)	12-79
10-29	27.01			13.61		
30-50	22.89			1.55		
51-70	26.19			5.77		
71-90	10.72			1.24		
Missing	13.20			67.84		
Migration Status	69.07	1.32 (0.64)	1-3	39.03	1.29 (0.70)	1-3
No Migration History	75.67			46.39		
1st Generation	11.55			0.41		
2nd Generation	9.48			7.84		
Missing	3.30			45.36		
Ethnicity	69.07	1.59 (1.24)	1-5	42.86	1.47 (1.16)	1-5
German native	75.67			50.72		
Non-German Native	21.03			9.28		
Missing	3.30			40.00		
Education	71.28	4.90 (1.64)	1-8	70.40	4.38 (1.48)	0-7
Currently enrolled	0.00			1.86		
No degree	2.33			2.68		
Lower Sec.	5.52			17.32		
Upper Sec.	54.65			60.62		
Post Sec. Non-Ter.	6.69			6.80		
1st Stage of Ter.	28.78			9.28		
2nd Stage of Ter.	1.74			0.00		
Missing	0.29			1.44		

Note. $N = 485$ mother-youth dyads. Abbreviations: % = percentage of total cases, M = mean, SD = standard deviation, R = range, ISEI = international socio-economic index of occupational status, Sec. = secondary, Ter. = tertiary. Education was based on the international standard classification of education (including those still enrolled). The ISEI groups occupations based on income and education such that lower numbers represent higher social class.

APPENDIX C

DEMOGRAPHICS: SAMPLE 4. PARENT-SON DYADS

Parent-son dyads ($N = 335$ dyads) consisted of parents and their sons. Son's parents were predominantly female ($n = 236$ mothers, 70.45%), had an average age of 44.81 ($SD = 3.79$) years old, were mostly German natives ($n = 258$, 77.01%) with no history of migration ($n = 258$, 77.00%), and most completed high school ($n = 156$, 46.57%). The sons averaged 17.88 ($SD = 2.08$) years of age, frequently identified as German natives ($n = 192$, 57.31%) with no history of migration ($n = 179$, 53.43%) and enrolled in or completed high school ($n = 213$, 63.58%). See table below for additional descriptive statistics for parent-son dyads.

Table A.3*Demographics: Sample 4. Parent-Son Dyads*

	Son's Parents			Sons		
	%	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>R</i>	%	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>R</i>
Sex	49.34	1.70 (0.46)	1-2	100.00	1.00 (0.00)	1-1
Male	29.55			100.00		
Female	70.45			-		
Age	49.19	44.81 (3.79)	31-50	49.34	17.88 (2.08)	15-26
ISEI	44.33	46.29 (20.32)	14-89	16.79	34.46 (14.17)	12-79
10-29	27.16			15.22		
30-50	23.28			13.43		
51-70	25.37			4.18		
71-90	14.03			1.19		
Missing	10.15			65.97		
Migration Status	47.28	1.29 (0.63)	1-3	30.49	1.25 (0.65)	1-3
No Migration History	77.00			3.43		
1st Generation	9.60			1.19		
2nd Generation	9.30			7.16		
Missing	4.20			38.21		
Ethnicity	47.28	1.52 (1.17)	1-5	32.84	1.44 (1.16)	1-5
German native	77.01			57.31		
Non-German Native	18.81			9.25		
Missing	4.18			33.43		
Education	49.34	5.04 (1.65)	0-1	49.19	4.36 (1.43)	0-7
Currently enrolled	0.00			0.60		
No degree	1.79			3.88		
Lower Sec.	8.06			17.31		
Upper Sec.	46.57			63.58		
Post Sec. Non-Ter.	11.64			5.07		
1st Stage of Ter.	30.75			9.25		
2nd Stage of Ter.	1.19			0.00		
Missing	0.00			0.30		

Note. $N = 335$ parent-son dyads. Abbreviations: % = percentage of total cases, M = mean, SD = standard deviation, R = range, ISEI = international socio-economic index of occupational status, Sec. = secondary, Ter. = tertiary. Education was based on the international standard classification of education (including those still enrolled). The ISEI groups occupations based on income and education such that lower numbers represent higher social class.

APPENDIX D

DEMOGRAPHICS: SAMPLE 5. PARENT-DAUGHTER DYADS

Parent-daughter dyads ($N = 344$ dyads) consisted of parents and their daughters. Daughter's parents were predominantly female ($n = 249$ mothers, 72.38%), had an average age of 44.63 ($SD = 3.67$) years old, were mostly German natives ($n = 262$, 76.16%) with no history of migration ($n = 263$, 76.45%), and most completed high school ($n = 188$, 54.65%). The daughters averaged 17.85 ($SD = 2.02$) years of age, frequently identified as German natives ($n = 187$, 54.36%) with no history of migration ($n = 171$, 49.71%) and enrolled in or completed high school ($n = 205$, 59.59%). See table below for additional descriptive statistics for parent-daughter dyads.

Table A.4*Demographics: Sample 5. Parent-Daughter Dyads*

	Daughter's Parents			Daughters		
	%	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>R</i>	%	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>R</i>
Sex	50.66	1.72 (0.45)	1-2	100.00	2.00 (0.00)	2-2
Male	27.62			-		
Female	72.38			100.00		
Age	50.66	44.63 (3.67)	35-50	50.66	17.85 (2.02)	15-25
ISEI	44.77	43.97 (20.03)	14-89	14.14	38.25 (14.37)	12-71
10-29	31.10			11.63		
30-50	21.22			8.43		
51-70	24.13			7.27		
71-90	11.92			0.58		
Missing	11.63			72.09		
Migration Status	49.34	1.31 (0.64)	1-3	29.16	1.27 (0.68)	1-3
No Migration History	76.45			49.71		
1st Generation	11.63			0.29		
2nd Generation	9.30			7.56		
Missing	2.62			42.44		
Ethnicity	49.34	1.60 (1.26)	1-5	32.25	1.42 (1.10)	1-5
German native	76.16			54.36		
Non-German Native	21.22			9.30		
Missing	2.62			36.34		
Education	50.52	4.91 (1.65)	1-8	49.48	4.35 (1.47)	0-7
Currently enrolled	0.00			2.33		
No degree	2.33			2.33		
Lower Sec.	5.52			18.90		
Upper Sec.	54.65			59.59		
Post Sec. Non-Ter.	6.69			6.40		
1st Stage of Ter.	28.78			8.14		
2nd Stage of Ter.	1.74			0.00		
Missing	0.29			2.33		

Note. $N = 344$ parent-daughter dyads. Abbreviations: % = percentage of total cases, M = mean, SD = standard deviation, R = range, ISEI = international socio-economic index of occupational status, Sec. = secondary, Ter. = tertiary. Education was based on the international standard classification of education (including those still enrolled). The ISEI groups occupations based on income and education such that lower numbers represent higher social class.

APPENDIX E

CORRELATIONS AND DESCRIPTIVES: SAMPLE 2A. FATHERS IN FATHER-YOUTH DYADS

Table A.5

Correlations and Descriptives: Sample 2a. Fathers in Father-Youth Dyads

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. I am a very good sex partner	--							
2. Can say/show specific wants during sexual contact	.44*	--						
3. Fulfill my partner's sexual needs & desires very well	.65*	.53*	--					
4. I can express my sexual needs & desires very well	.60*	.72*	.68*	--				
5. Satisfaction with household's financial situation	.09	.07	-.03	.08	--			
6. Often have to forego something because of budget ^R	.03	-.03	-.05	-.02	.61*	--		
7. Mostly short of money ^R	.09	.03	-.03	.08	.67*	.75*	--	
8. Sexual satisfaction	.44*	.39*	.38*	.53*	.10	-.05	.11	--
Descriptive Statistics								
Number of father-youth dyads	147	153	147	153	194	194	194	189
Mean	3.42	3.40	3.58	3.42	3.69	3.74	3.82	5.88
Standard Deviation	.77	1.03	.84	.95	.91	1.10	1.20	2.66
Skewness	.13	-.21	-.39	-.25	-.33	-.56	-.74	-.51
Kurtosis	.19	-.69	.57	-.40	-.26	-.34	-.47	-.51

Note. $N = 194$ father-youth dyads. ^R = reverse coded. * = $p \leq .05$.

APPENDIX F

CORRELATIONS AND DESCRIPTIVES: SAMPLE 2B. YOUTH IN FATHER-YOUTH DYADS

Table A.6

Correlations and Descriptives: Sample 2b. Youth in Father-Youth Dyads

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. I am a very good sex partner	--							
2. Can say/show specific wants during sexual contact	.40*	--						
3. Fulfill my partner's sexual needs & desires very well	.68*	.62*	--					
4. I can express my sexual needs & desires very well	.54*	.68*	.78*	--				
5. Satisfaction with household's financial situation	-.09	-.13	-.11	.03	--			
6. Often have to forego something because of budget ^R	.12	-.09	-.02	.03	.56*	--		
7. Mostly short of money ^R	.03	-.08	.01	.03	.53*	.82*	--	
8. Sexual satisfaction	.36*	.35*	.45*	.49*	.08	.06	.00	--
Descriptive Statistics								
Number of father-youth dyads	72	74	71	74	190	192	191	146
Mean	3.78	3.89	3.82	3.91	4.07	4.01	4.17	6.33
Standard Deviation	.86	.94	.90	.80	.89	.97	.98	2.80
Skewness	-.23	-.68	-.35	.01	-1.00	-.78	-1.13	-.35
Kurtosis	-.57	.16	-.59	-1.04	1.13	-.01	.70	-.93

Note. *N* = 194 father-youth dyads. ^R = reverse coded. * = $p \leq .05$.

APPENDIX G

CORRELATIONS AND DESCRIPTIVES: SAMPLE 3A. MOTHERS IN MOTHER-YOUTH DYADS

Table A.7

Correlations and Descriptives: Sample 3a. Mothers in Mother-Youth Dyads

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. I am a very good sex partner	--							
2. Can say/show specific wants during sexual contact	.51*	--						
3. Fulfill my partner's sexual needs & desires very well	.68*	.64*	--					
4. I can express my sexual needs & desires very well	.57*	.80*	.71*	--				
5. Satisfaction with household's financial situation	.00	-.06	-.03	-.02	--			
6. Often have to forego something because of budget ^R	-.03	-.04	-.03	-.01	.67*	--		
7. Mostly short of money ^R	-.04	-.09†	-.06	-.03	.66*	.83*	--	
8. Sexual satisfaction	.39*	.28*	.33*	.36*	.14*	.04	.06	--
Descriptive Statistics								
Number of mother-youth dyads	357	378	370	378	481	480	481	446
Mean	3.38	3.56	3.61	3.53	3.66	3.59	3.68	6.21
Standard Deviation	.97	1.07	.93	1.01	1.01	1.19	1.25	2.65
Skewness	-.31	-.43	-.51	-.49	-.55	-.42	-.58	-.58
Kurtosis	-.16	-.41	.17	-.11	-.09	-.67	-.68	-.37

Note. *N* = 485 mother-youth dyads. ^R = reverse coded. * = *p* ≤ .05.

APPENDIX H

CORRELATIONS AND DESCRIPTIVES: SAMPLE 3B. YOUTH IN MOTHER-YOUTH DYADS

Table A.8

Correlations and Descriptives: Sample 3b. Youth in Mother-Youth Dyads

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. I am a very good sex partner	--							
2. Can say/show specific wants during sexual contact	.43*	--						
3. Fulfill my partner's sexual needs & desires very well	.50*	.32*	--					
4. I can express my sexual needs & desires very well	.52*	.69*	.48*	--				
5. Satisfaction with household's financial situation	-.03	.04	-.08	-.05	--			
6. Often have to forego something because of budget ^R	.04	.09	.01	.03	.62*	--		
7. Mostly short of money ^R	.01	.13*	-.02	.07	.64*	.85*	--	
8. Sexual satisfaction	.30*	.17*	.29*	.27*	.00	.03	.03	--
Descriptive Statistics								
Number of mother-youth dyads	242	260	251	258	480	481	480	401
Mean	3.71	3.76	3.93	3.77	3.95	3.97	4.02	6.38
Standard Deviation	.83	.93	.78	.89	.91	1.04	1.08	2.62
Skewness	-.42	-.72	-.50	-.72	-.79	-.89	-1.05	-.52
Kurtosis	.15	.60	.33	.53	.62	.28	.51	-.49

Note. *N* = 485 mother-youth dyads. ^R = reverse coded. * = $p \leq .05$.

APPENDIX I

CORRELATIONS AND DESCRIPTIVES: SAMPLE 4A. PARENTS IN PARENT-SON DYADS

Table A.9

Correlations and Descriptives: Sample 4a. Parents in Parent-Son Dyads

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. I am a very good sex partner	--							
2. Can say/show specific wants during sexual contact	.54*	--						
3. Fulfill my partner's sexual needs & desires very well	.62*	.63*	--					
4. I can express my sexual needs & desires very well	.61*	.78*	.71*	--				
5. Satisfaction with household's financial situation	.10	.02	-.01	.09	--			
6. Often have to forego something because of budget ^R	.04	.01	.00	.04	.64*	--		
7. Mostly short of money ^R	.00	-.06	-.06	.04	.64*	.78*	--	
8. Sexual satisfaction	.30*	.26*	.28*	.36*	.20*	.10†	.14*	--
Descriptive Statistics								
Number of parent-son dyads	257	270	263	268	332	331	332	317
Mean	3.39	3.50	3.62	3.54	3.77	3.69	3.77	6.16
Standard Deviation	.90	1.05	.91	.97	.95	1.15	1.22	2.68
Skewness	-.30	-.37	-.39	-.45	-.53	-.48	-.65	-.60
Kurtosis	.26	-.52	.07	-.08	-.02	-.60	-.60	-.33

Note. *N* = 335 parent-son dyads. ^R = reverse coded. * = *p* ≤ .05.

APPENDIX J

CORRELATIONS AND DESCRIPTIVES: SAMPLE 4B. SONS IN PARENT-SON DYADS

Table A.10

Correlations and Descriptives: Sample 4b. Sons in Parent-Son Dyads

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. I am a very good sex partner	--							
2. Can say/show specific wants during sexual contact	.37*	--						
3. Fulfill my partner's sexual needs & desires very well	.57*	.38*	--					
4. I can express my sexual needs & desires very well	.48*	.60*	.55*	--				
5. Satisfaction with household's financial situation	.03	-.02	-.08	-.03	--			
6. Often have to forego something because of budget ^R	.14	.04	.04	.06	.59*	--		
7. Mostly short of money ^R	.10	.07	.05	.05	.58*	.82*	--	
8. Sexual satisfaction	.24*	.08	.39*	.30*	.01	.06	.01	--
Descriptive Statistics								
Number of parent-son dyads	139	147	141	146	331	333	331	272
Mean	3.91	3.82	3.93	3.84	4.02	.08	4.14	5.97
Standard Deviation	.73	.86	.74	.83	.90	.97	1.00	2.71
Skewness	-.08	-.55	-.20	-.63	-.92	-.96	-1.16	-.28
Kurtosis	-.59	.45	-.41	.82	1.00	.52	.96	-.78

Note. $N = 335$ parent-son dyads. ^R = reverse coded. * = $p \leq .05$.

APPENDIX K

CORRELATIONS AND DESCRIPTIVES: SAMPLE 5A. PARENTS IN PARENT-DAUGHTER DYADS

Table A.11

Correlations and Descriptives: Sample 5a. Parents in Parent-Daughter Dyads

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. I am a very good sex partner	--							
2. Can say/show specific wants during sexual contact	.44*	--						
3. Fulfill my partner's sexual needs & desires very well	.72*	.60*	--					
4. I can express my sexual needs & desires very well	.54*	.77*	.69*	--				
5. Satisfaction with household's financial situation	-.05	-.06	-.06	-.08	--			
6. Often have to forego something because of budget ^R	-.07	-.09	-.08	-.07	.67*	--		
7. Mostly short of money ^R	-.02	-.07	-.05	-.04	.69*	.84*	--	
8. Sexual satisfaction	.50*	.36*	.41*	.46*	.05	-.08	.00	--
Descriptive Statistics								
Number of parent-daughter dyads	247	261	254	263	343	343	343	318
Mean	3.40	3.52	3.57	3.46	3.57	3.58	3.68	6.07
Standard Deviation	.94	1.07	.90	1.02	1.01	1.19	1.25	2.63
Skewness	-.21	-.36	-.57	-.38	-.47	-.45	-.61	-.51
Kurtosis	-.21	-.50	.47	-.30	-.18	-.58	-.66	-.51

Note. $N = 344$ parent-son dyads. ^R = reverse coded. * = $p \leq .05$.

APPENDIX L

CORRELATIONS AND DESCRIPTIVES: SAMPLE 5B. DAUGHTERS IN PARENT-DAUGHTER DYADS

Table A.12

Correlations and Descriptives: Sample 5b. Daughters in Parent-Daughter Dyads

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1. I am a very good sex partner	--							
2. Can say/show specific wants during sexual contact	.45*	--						
3. Fulfill my partner's sexual needs & desires very well	.54*	.40*	--					
4. I can express my sexual needs & desires very well	.55*	.75*	.55*	--				
5. Satisfaction with household's financial situation	-.09	.02	-.10	-.03	--			
6. Often have to forego something because of budget ^R	-.02	.06	-.03	.01	.63*	--		
7. Mostly short of money ^R	-.06	.10	-.07	.08	.64*	.85*	--	
8. Sexual satisfaction	.40*	.32*	.29*	.33*	.05	.05	.07	--
Descriptive Statistics								
Number of parent-daughter dyads	175	187	181	186	339	340	340	275
Mean	3.59	3.76	3.88	3.77	3.96	3.89	3.99	6.75
Standard Deviation	.89	.99	.85	.90	.92	1.06	1.10	2.57
Skewness	-.37	-.76	-.59	-.59	-.77	-.77	-.99	-.67
Kurtosis	-.15	.40	.18	.12	.51	-.01	.28	-.29

Note. $N = 344$ parent-daughter dyads. * $p \leq .05$. R = reverse coded.

APPENDIX M

OMNIBUS DISTINGUISHABILITY TESTING: M0. BASELINE/NUL APIMoM (NO INTERACTIONS)

Table A.12

Omnibus Distinguishability Testing: M0. Baseline/Null APIMoM (No Interactions)

Model	Mcomp	LL (prm)	SCF	CD	TRd (Δ prm)	p	AIC	Δ AIC	Decision
Sample 1. Whole Sample of Parent-Youth Dyads									
W-M0a. FS	-	-11,112.34 (54)	1.22	-	-	-	22,332.67	-	-
W-M0b. FC	A-M0a. FS	-11,120.71 (48)	1.24	1.03	16.31* (6)	.01	22,337.41	4.73	Reject
W-M0c. PC	W-M0a. FS	-11,113.72 (50)	1.23	1.05	2.63 (4)	.62	22,327.45	-5.24	-
Sample 2. Father-Youth Dyads									
F-M0a. FS	-	-3,041.68 (54)	1.19	-	-	-	6,191.37	-	-
F-M0b. FC	F-M0a. FS	-3,046.65 (48)	1.20	1.11	8.91 (6)	.18	6,189.29	-2.07	Reject
F-M0c. PC	F-M0a. FS	-3,042.19 (50)	1.20	1.03	0.99 (4)	.91	6,184.38	-6.99	-
Sample 3. Mother-Youth Dyads									
M-M0a. FS	-	-8,037.77 (54)	1.21	-	-	-	16,183.55	-	-
M-M0b. FC	M-M0a. FS	-8,042.71 (48)	1.23	1.01	9.82 (6)	.13	16,181.42	-2.13	Reject
M-M0c. PC	M-M0a. FS	-8,040.29 (49)	1.23	1.01	4.97 (5)	.42	16,178.57	-4.98	-
Sample 4. Parent-Son Dyads									
S-M0a. FS	-	-5,423.46 (54)	1.22	-	-	-	10,954.92	-	-
S-M0b. FC	S-M0a. FS	-5,431.93 (48)	1.24	1.02	16.54* (6)	.11	10,959.86	4.95	Reject
S-M0c. PC	S-M0a. FS	-5,424.59 (50)	1.23	1.06	2.14 (4)	.71	10,949.18	-5.73	-
Sample 5. Parent-Daughter Dyads									
D-M0a. FS	-	-5,645.62 (54)	1.18	-	-	-	11,399.24	-	-
D-M0b. FC	D-M0a. FS	-5,654.16 (48)	1.21	0.97	17.52* (6)	.01	11,404.32	5.07	Reject
D-M0c. PC	D-M0a. FS	-5,646.50 (49)	1.20	1.01	1.74 (5)	.88	11,391.00	-8.24	-

Note. Abbreviations: APIMoM = actor-partner interdependence moderation model, M0 = APIMoM without interaction effects, M0a = fully

saturated, M0b = fully constrained, M0c = partially constrained, *Mcomp* = comparison of nested models, *LL* = loglikelihood x2 value for

maximum likelihood robust, prm = free parameters, SCF = loglikelihood scaling correction factor for maximum likelihood robust, TRd = loglikelihood difference testing using scaled correction, Δ = change, p = p-value for Trd, AIC = Akaike Information Criterion. The null (most parsimonious/fully saturated) model was rejected if the difference between the null and hypothesized (fully constrained) model was $p < .20$ (Kenny & Lederman, 2010).

APPENDIX N

OMNIBUS DISTINGUISHABILITY TESTING: M1. FULL APIMOM (WITH INTERACTIONS)

Table A.14

Omnibus Distinguishability Testing: M1. Full APIMoM (With Interactions)

Model	Mcomp	LL (prm)	SCF	CD	TRd (Δ prm)	p	AIC	Δ AIC	Decision
Sample 1. Whole Sample of Parent-Youth Dyads									
W-M1a. FS	-	-11,103.37 (62)	1.18	-	-	-	22,330.74	-	-
W-M1b. FC	W-M1a. FS	-11,117.29 (52)	1.23	0.91	30.53 (10)	.00	22,338.59	7.85	Reject
W-M1c. PC	W-M1a. FS	-11,105.37 (56)	1.19	1.03	3.88 (6)	.69	22,322.74	-8.00	-
Sample 2. Father-Youth Dyads									
F-M1a. FS	-	-3,038.18 (62)	1.14	-	-	-	6,200.37	-	-
F-M1b. FC	F-M1a. FS	-3,044.65 (52)	1.19	0.89	14.54 (10)	.15	6,193.30	-7.07	Reject
F-M1c. PC	F-M1a. FS	-3,039.89 (55)	1.18	0.87	3.94 (7)	.79	6,189.79	-10.58	-
Sample 3. Mother-Youth Dyads									
M-M1a. FS	-	-8,030.64 (62)	1.16	-	-	-	16,185.29	-	-
M-M1b. FC	M-M1a. FS	-8,039.89 (52)	1.21	0.91	20.30 (10)	.03	16,183.78	-1.51	Reject
M-M1c. PC	M-M1a. FS	-8,033.83 (55)	1.19	1.00	6.35 (7)	.50	16,177.66	-7.62	-
Sample 4. Parent-Son Dyads									
S-M1a. FS	-	-5,419.76 (62)	1.18	-	-	-	10,963.51	-	-
S-M1b. FC	S-M1a. FS	-5,430.96 (52)	1.23	0.93	24.11 (10)	.01	10,965.92	2.41	Reject
S-M1c. PC	S-M1a. FS	-5,421.68 (55)	1.20	0.99	3.90 (7)	.79	10,953.37	-10.14	-
Sample 5. Parent-Daughter Dyads									
D-M1a. FS	-	-5,637.69 (62)	1.14	-	-	-	11,399.37	-	-
D-M1b. FC	D-M1a. FS	-5,650.87 (52)	1.20	0.82	32.20 (10)	.00	11,405.74	6.38	Reject
D-M1c. PC	D-M1a. FS	-5,638.82 (55)	1.16	0.96	2.37 (7)	.94	11,387.63	-11.74	-

Note. Abbreviations: APIMoM = actor-partner interdependence moderation model, M1 = APIMoM with interaction effects, M1a = fully saturated, M1b = fully constrained, M1c = partially constrained, *Mcomp* = comparison of nested models, *LL* = loglikelihood x2 value for maximum likelihood robust, *prm* = free parameters, *SCF* = loglikelihood scaling correction factor for maximum likelihood robust, *TRd* = loglikelihood difference testing using scaled correction, Δ = change, *p* = p-value for Trd, *AIC* = Akaike Information Criterion. The null (most parsimonious/fully saturated) model was rejected if the difference between the null and hypothesized (fully constrained) model was $p < .20$ (Kenny & Lederman, 2010).