

**AN EMPIRICAL STUDY ON SEXUAL
BEHAVIOUR IN RELATION TO
SEXUAL ATTITUDE AND
PERSONALITY**

Thesis

Submitted for the award of the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology

By

SUNIDHARAN C. S.

**DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY
UNIVERSITY OF CALICUT
KERALA - 673 635**

Department of Psychology
University of Calicut
Kerala - 673635

Dr. J. Baby
Reader in Psychology (Retd.)

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the thesis entitled "AN EMPIRICAL STUDY ON SEXUAL BEHAVIOUR IN RELATION TO SEXUAL ATTITUDE AND PERSONALITY" submitted by Mr. Sunidharan C.S., Research Scholar, Department of Psychology, to the University of Calicut, for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology, is a record of bonafide research work carried out by him under my supervision and guidance. The result reported in the thesis has not been submitted to any other University or Institution for the award of any degree or diploma.

Calicut University Campus,
13.07.2010

Dr. J. Baby
Guide and Supervisor

DECLARATION

I, Sunidharan C.S., do hereby declare that the work reported in the thesis is original and carried out by me in the Department of Psychology, University of Calicut. I further declare that this thesis or any part of this has not been submitted for any award of degree or diploma in this or any other University.

Calicut University Campus,
13.07.2010

Sunidharan C. S.
Research Scholar
Department of Psychology
University of Calicut
Kerala - 673635

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

It is with deepest sentiments that I express my indebtedness and gratitude to Dr. John Baby, Reader in Psychology (Rtd), Dept. of Psychology, University of Calicut, for his valuable guidance and advice, without which this study could not have been possible. His constant encouragement, constructive criticism and worthwhile suggestions have been the major forces behind this research work.

The investigator expresses his sincere gratitude to Dr. Manikandan, Head, Dept. of Psychology, University of Calicut, and Dr. Anita Ravindran, Former Head, Dept. of Psychology, University of Calicut, for all the administrative and academic support and facilities extended for the accomplishment of the study.

The investigator also expresses his sincere gratitude to Dr. Jayan, Prof., Dept. of Psychology, for his support and advice.

The investigator thankfully remembers the Principals and teaching staffs of the colleges who very willingly cooperated with the data collection process of the study.

The investigator is deeply indebted to all the respondents who participated and made possible this study.

The investigator expresses sincere thanks to the librarians and authorities of many libraries, especially, librarians of Dept. Psychology, University of Calicut; Central library of Kerala University and British Library, Thiruvananthapuram. Finally I thank all friends and well wishers who cooperated with the study and inspired the investigator is also deeply acknowledged.

SUNIDHARAN C. S.

CONTENTS

Acknowledgement

Contents

List of Tables

CHAPTE R	TITLE	PAGE NO.
I.	INTRODUCTION	1 - 21
II.	REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES	22 - 86
III.	METHODOLOGY	87 - 95
IV.	RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	96 - 164
V.	SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION	165 - 173
	REFERENCE	
	APPENDIX	

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Title	Page No.
3.1	Demographic profile of the sample	88
4.1	Chi-square test on the frequency and percentage of Sexual behaviours reported by male and female subjects	97
4.2	Point bi-serial correlation between different Sexual behaviours - Males	104
4.3	Point bi-serial correlation between different sexual behaviours - Females	105
4.4	Percentage of responses to the Sexual Permissiveness Scale items by male, female and total sample (Total sample (N) =470, Male (n) = 276, female (n)= 194)	109
4.5	Significance of difference between the mean scores obtained by male and female subjects in Sexual Permissiveness Scale	118
4.6	Significance of difference between the Mean scores obtained for each item of Sexual Permissiveness Scale by male and female subjects	120
4.7	One way ANOVA of sexual permissiveness of religious groups	122
4.8	Multiple comparison of means (Scheffe's procedure) of sexual permissiveness based on religions religion	123
4.9	Summary of ANOVA. Subjected to forceful sex and gender (2 x 2)	124
4.10	Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on sexual behaviour of subjected to forceful sex	125
4.11	Summary of ANOVA. Homosexual act and Gender (2 x 2)	126
4.12	Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Homosexual act	127
4.13	Summary of ANOVA. Intercourse and Gender (2 x 2)	127
4.14	Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Sexual intercourse	128
4.15	Summary of ANOVA. Masturbation and Gender (2 x 2)	129
4.16	Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Masturbation	129
4.17	Summary of ANOVA. Difficulty to control sex and Gender (2 x 2)	130
4.18	Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Difficulty to control sex	130
4.19	Summary of ANOVA. Guilty and Gender (2 x 2)	131
4.20	Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Guilty	131
4.21	Summary of ANOVA. Pornography and Gender (2 x 2)	132

Table	Title	Page No.
4.22	Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Pornography use	132
4.23	Summary of ANOVA. Talking Sex and Gender (2 x 2)	133
4.24	Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on talking sex	133
4.25	Summary of ANOVA. Love with opposite sex and Gender (2 x 2)	134
4.26	Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Love with opposite sex	135
4.27	Summary of ANOVA. Love with Same sex and Gender (2 x 2)	136
4.28	Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Love with same sex	136
4.29	Summary of ANOVA. Love failure and Gender (2 x 2)	137
4.30	Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Love failure	137
4.31	Summary of ANOVA. Fear of opposite sex and Gender (2 x 2)	138
4.32	Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Fear of opposite sex	138
4.33	Summary of ANOVA Secrecy in Sex and Gender (2 x 2)	139
4.34	Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Secrecy	139
4.35	Correlations between Sexual Permissiveness and Personality Dimensions	140
4.36	Summary of ANOVA of Inertia by different behaviours \times sex (2x2)	141
4.37	Mean and standard deviation of Inertia Dimension of personal on different sexual behaviours	143
4.38	Summary of ANOVA of Activation by different behaviours \times sex (2x2)	147
4.39	Mean and standard deviation of Activation on different sexual behaviours	179
4.40	Summary of ANOVA of Stability by different behaviours \times sex (2x2)	155
4.41	Mean and standard deviation of Stability on different sexual behaviours	157

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Title	Page No.
4.1	Interaction Effect: Sexual behaviour of subjected to Forceful sex × Gender	125
4.2	Interaction Effect: Sexual behaviour of Intercourse × Gender	128
4.3	Interaction effect: Activation dimension of personality X pornography use	154

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix	Title
1.	Mathew IAS Rating Scale
2.	Sexual Permissiveness Scale
3.	Sexual Behaviour Survey

Chapter I
INTRODUCTION

Sexuality is widely accepted as a fundamental and important dimension of human life. Sexuality and sexual behavior are normal aspects of human development. Sexual activity in humans is an instinctive form of physical intimacy. It may be performed for the purposes of biological reproduction, expressing affection, spiritual transcendence and/or having fun and enjoying oneself.

The desire to have sex is one of the basic drives of human behavior. While sex is a natural phenomenon there are many rules and codes around it. Religions, cultures, philosophies and legal systems – systems concerned with shaping human behaviour, have established different sexual values and behavioural norms.

Meaning of Sexuality

‘Sex’ a word frequently used in everyday language in many different contexts. Most commonly it refers to biological sex (male /female) and as a description of physical activities (having sex). The word ‘sexuality’ has a much broader meaning since it refers to all aspects of being sexual.

Generally the broader term ‘sexuality’ is used to encompass sexual practice, desire, identities and gender distinctions. Sexual practice is generally considered to be pleasurable. It is associated with love, intimacy and desire. As a physical relationship, it is generally seen as a matter of private concern and is experienced subjectively. But in the contemporary society, sex is around us all the time. It is used to entertain, sell directly itself and a wide range of other products (Saraga, 1998).

According to Plummer (1995), sexuality is an ever present, ever evolving, multifaceted resource of every human being. It is an energy driven psychological vehicle for pleasure, self- discovery, attachment and self-esteem. The rules a culture establishes about sexual contact, pattern or rules that regulate sexual behavior between or among the sexes and what is considered normal or abnormal, natural or unnatural, sinful or morally correct, all these factors affect all aspects of sexuality and sexual practice in any specific culture.

Every person has sexual feelings, attitudes and beliefs, yet each individual's experience of sexuality is unique, because it is processed through a uniquely personal perspective. Sexuality is thus a complex phenomenon, and has several aspects. It includes the various ways of expressing sexuality and the various sexual preferences or dislikes that people have. Sexuality also includes how one regards one's body and self-image and the manner in which societal norms affect the construction of the same. It also includes the way we communicate our sexual feelings and needs, what stands we take on matters relating to sex, the ethics and values that we uphold on sexual matters and so on. All these affect the way we see others and ourselves as sexual beings and how we express our sexuality. Sexuality thus has biological, psychosocial, behavioural, religious, ethical and cultural dimensions.

Models of sexuality

Sex, a great and mysterious motive force in human life, has indisputably been a subject of absorbing interest to mankind through the ages. It has long been recognized as a rich confusing tangle in which biological drives, socio-cultural meanings, formative individual experiences and additional factors play powerful roles (Baumeister, 2000).

According to biological model, sex is conceptualized as ultimately a reproductive function, a function necessary to life and physical features that people find attractive are precisely those that have been reliably correlated with reproductive success throughout human existence (Goldenberg, et al.

1999). The significance of sexuality for many biologists is undoubtedly inherent in the requirement of reproduction- requirement and from this point of view, sexuality should be considered as a sort of 'biological insurance on life'.

To psychoanalytic perspective, sex is a problem because it conflicts with demands of civilization. Culture puts restriction and regulation on sexual relations thereby necessitating the sublimation of the resulting excess libidinal energy into aim-inhibited substitutes, such as love and friendship (Freud, 1938). Having shifted from Freud's emphasis on sex as an instinct, object relation theory focused interrelationship between the capacity for sensuality and the development of object relations (Anderson & Cyranowski, 1999). Sensual pleasure becomes the vehicle for seeking object relations and thus the quest of sexuality is not only discharge of sexual pleasure but object seeking (Fairburn, 1952). But learning theorists argued that the conditioning (Reiss, 1967), imitation and identification (Bandura, 1982), are important in developing sexual behaviour. Cognitive theorists proposed that self-schema is influential in the processing of sexually relevant social information and they guide sexual behaviour(Anderswon and Cyranowski, 1994).

Socio-cultural perspective give due concern to the culture and socialization process in shaping sexual desire, often mediated by language as an ordering principle that is shared in common with other people (Hicks & Leitenberg, 2001). People have script people for how to behave in sexual situation (Simon & Gagnon, 1987). At least two persons are involved in a sexual situation, so there is exchange of resources (material or symbolic) between or among people and/or refers to one of the major exchange concepts, which are rewards, costs and reciprocity (Thibault & Kelley, 1952).

Like all human behaviour, sexual behaviour is symbolic (Laumann, et al, 1994). As Kimmel and Fracher (cited in Longmore, 1998) stated that "we are sexual is determined by a biological imperative toward reproduction, but

how we are sexual-where, when, how often, with whom, and why-has to do with cultural learning, with meanings transmitted in a cultural setting”.

The natural aspects of sex are challenged by the modern writers such as Foucault and others. They 'deconstructed' sex and suggest particular beliefs about sexuality tell us of the ways power is distributed, mediated and produced within modern culture (Foucault,1980). Sexual power as being embodied in different levels of social life, queer theorists see sexuality everywhere and everything as sexualized (Sanderson, 2001). But there is still power imbalance, control of men over women, every sphere, sexual desire is shaped by patriarchal society as part of its efforts to exploit and subjugate women (Kitzinger,1987) and power is potentially important an important predictor of power is a predictor of sexual behaviour (Browning, et al, 1999).

Human sexual behavior in its myriad forms is indeed a set of social facts, but these social facts find their origin in the nature of the human organism itself and its incredibly powerful drive to make more of those organisms.

Although we have a certain amount of evidence of the effects of environment on the biological individual, we have very little that addresses the interaction between culture and biology (Lock,1998). Sex is pleasurable, true, but it is also necessary for the survival of the human species. The long-standing tension between the procreative and the pleasurable aspects of sex has befuddled theoreticians ranging from Aristotle to Freud. The failure to adequately resolve this conflict has resulted in the conceptual muddle of the present day, in which sexual enjoyment is sometimes pathologized as an obsessive/compulsive disorder, rather than celebrated as an evolutionary adaptation (Abramson & Pinkerto, 1995).

Sexual Development and Attitude

Human behavior is always the product of the complex interaction between biological predispositions and the total physical and social environment. Sexual development is a process that begins at conception and ends at death. The principle forces are biological maturation/aging; progression through the socially defined stages of childhood, adolescence, adulthood, and later life; and one's social relationships during each of these stages (De Gaston, et al.,1996). These forces interact to influence the person's sexual identity, sexual attitudes and sexual behaviour (Miller & Fox, 1987).

Sex is mainly explored during adolescence (Werner-Wilson, 1998). Socialization has long been a major factor in the societal control of various aspects of sexuality (Kirkpatrick, 1984). Individuals learn norms, information, and behaviors relevant to sexual activity during their development ((Brown, et al.,1986., Ward and Rivadeneyra, 1999., Chatters, 2000., Mackay,2000).

Sexual Behaviour

Sexual behavior include constellation of behavior and physical activities that are involved in the expression of erotic feelings or desires. Sexual activities may be characterized by factors such as physical activities, frequency, the presence or absence of partners, number of partners over a life time, the gender and the age of the partner. Adults have several options with regard to sexual lifestyle (De Lamater & Friedrich, 2002).

There are a number of sexual activities and behaviors that are socially accepted and or non-accepted that may prevail in the society in many forms. Generally the most natural heterosexual activity is the coitus, which is penetration of vagina by penis. A brief description of most significant sexual behaviors and acts, which are under consideration of the study and substantive areas relevant to sexuality, are discussed here.

Marital Sex

Marriage is the social context in which the sexual expression is thought to be most legitimate. It is the most common sexual lifestyle in almost all

societies. The regularity of sexual relations in marriage has been found to be governed by diverse factors. Perhaps foremost among these are the age and health of the partners (DeMaris,1997). Sexual satisfaction is an important aspect of marital satisfaction (Blumstein & Schwartz, 1983).

Sexual Orientation

Sexual desire for members of the opposite sex is the sexual orientation of the majority of the individuals and is accepted as the normal in virtually all societies. A minority of individuals is sexually attracted to members of their own sex. (Herdt 1996).The term ‘sexual orientation’ has generally been used to refer to heterosexual, homosexual, or bisexual preference in choosing sexual partner or the range of preferences in choosing partners from completely homosexual to completely heterosexual (Kinsey, et al., 1948). Experimentation with homosexual activity is fairly common during adolescence (Masters & Johnson, 1988). Same-sex sexual relations have taken two principle forms in human societies- situational homosexuality and preferential homosexuality (Sanderson, 2001).

Sexual Abuse

Sexual abuse is the exploitation of a child or young person for sexual gratification, or any sexual activity between an adult and a child (John, et al., 2002). Sex between children and adults, are common in our society, and the incidence is increasing. Parents, relatives, and friends may inflict their passions on children of the same or opposite sex (Finkelhor, 1986). Sensitivity to the problem of child abuse is a surprisingly recent phenomenon (DeMause, 1974). Satinover (1996) argued that pedophilia is an acceptable aspect of sexuality, especially of homosexuality.

Incest

Incest among humans is sexual activity between close family members. It can be defined as ‘sexually oriented physical contact between family members’ which must be kept secret (Canavan et al., 1992). Incest can range

from inappropriate touching or fondling to intercourse. There are several different types of sexual contact that are labeled as incest: father-daughter, stepfather-daughter, father-son, stepfather-son, mother-son, stepmother-son, mother-daughter, and stepmother-daughter. Those are all considered parental incest. Incest is a taboo in most societies and a criminal offence and an impediment to marriage in most countries, as well as being opposed by most modern religions (Kazdin, 2000). Although of long-standing theoretical interest in the social sciences, it is only in recent years that researchers and the helping professions have begun to address the reality of incest as a social problem (Rosenfeld, 1979).

Masturbation

Masturbation may be defined as stimulating one's genitals, not necessarily to orgasm, for the purpose of gaining sexual pleasure (Mish, 1996). It is sexual stimulation designed to produce an orgasm through any means except sexual intercourse. Although historically, masturbation was socially prohibited as a physically and psychologically destructive behavior, today it is more widely accepted as a normal and enjoyable part of human sexuality (Hillman, 1975) and much more socially acceptable especially in adolescent (Smith et al, 1998., Allison, 2002). Regardless of cultural attitude and prohibition, masturbation has been found in all societies (Zilbergeld, 1992., Lauman, et al, 1994) and it has been observed in hundreds of animal species. It appears to play a critical role in sexual maturation and self knowledge (Kinsey ,1953) People's attitudes about masturbation differ widely and in the 20th century has seen a radical changes in attitude about masturbation (Davidson& Darling,1993

Pornography

The term pornography is often used to label products that one finds unacceptable, is often tied to censorship, and is likely to be shameful to many who reveal personal use of pornography (Traeen, et al, 2002). A normal part of late childhood and preadolescence for boys is exposure to pornography.

Recently the consumption of pornography has increased in terms of supply, variability, and accessibility (cited in Traeen, et al.,2002). The rapid, worldwide growth of the Internet leads to unprecedented opportunities in accessing the wide varieties of sexually explicit materials that differ from traditional forms of pornographic materials, such as magazines and videos. In most, portrays men are dominant and exploitative whereas women are subordinate and victimised (Smith, 1976). Most of the feminists like Dworkin (cited in Traeen, et al.,2002) believe that pornography reflect and perpetuates status inequalities and violence between men and women. But other feminists believe that pornography reflects, perpetuates, and celebrates the diversity of sexual interest (Paglia,1992).

Rape

Rape is most cruel coercive sexual behavior and more common in violent culture and in culture where women are treated as the property of men (Sanday, 1981). Research showed that every woman was vulnerable to attack, even in her own home and from someone she knew and that most rape victims fall into the age group of 16-25 years. Most victims know their perpetrator prior to the rape (Rickert & Weimann, 1998). Rape can be distinguished as stranger rape, acquaintance rape, date rape or marital rape (Koss & Harvey, 1991). Early feminist scholars of rape, such as Brownmiller and Griffin (cited in Freetly & Kane, 1995) argued that rape was not a sexual crime but a crime of power. They claimed that it is precisely the power differential that is the basis on which rape operates. Rape now became an expression of how the average man viewed the average woman and viewed as a major weapon (perhaps the major weapon) by which patriarchy kept women in their place.

Pre marital Sex

Sexual activity has become a common aspect of adolescent relationships Chilman (cf. Nguyen et al, 1994) noted that there is a substantial increase in sexual activity in adolescents as the result of more permissive attitudes toward sexual relations. During 20th century premarital sex has become an important issue (Fisher, 1989., Sharma, 2001). Different theories have been proposed in an attempt to understand this phenomenon.

Love Relationship

Adolescence is a period characterized by novelty in many areas, including in love and sexuality. With their increased interest for a significant other, teenagers are increasingly motivated by the desire and need to share intimacy within an exclusive interpersonal relationship. Some of these relationships are based on mutuality and interdependence (Higgins, et al, 2002). In contemporary culture, sex is viewed predominantly as an intimate basis for the union between two people who are in love. Adolescents show a

growing acceptance of premarital sexual activity if the relationship involves someone they love (Werner-Wilson, 1998). Adolescents, especially females, believe that it is acceptable to engage in premarital sexual activity within the boundaries of a dating relationship.

Sex Guilt

Sex Guilt is related to feeling badly about doing something specifically wrong or condemning a specific behavior (What I did.). McClintock (cf. Higgins et al, 2002) defines guilt as our conscience telling us we have done something wrong. Mosher and Tomkins (1988). defined sex guilt as a "generalized expectancy for self-mediated punishment for violating or anticipating violating standards for proper sexual conduct. Researchers have found that sex guilt appears to inhibit sex-related behaviors and attitudes in a variety of situations. It has been negatively correlated with sexual experiences such as having sexual intercourse, engaging in masturbation and limiting sexual participation to less intimate forms of sexual expression. Studies also demonstrated a relationship between sex guilt and religiosity(Higgins et al, 2002).

Sex Education

Adolescence is characterized by information seeking regarding developmental tasks. During the earliest period such as the preschool, sex relevant development task include the identification of one's own gender and comprehending reproductive knowledge. They gather a great deal of information about the ways of expressing male-female intimacy through observation of parental models. The mass media offer an attractive alternative source of information (John, 2000). Brown et al. (1993) concluded that the mass media are important providers of sex education. Lewis (cited in Reddy, 1983) noted that adolescent who obtain information from parents behave more conservately and more responsible in terms of contraceptive use than those who receive information from peers.

Sex in cultural context

The affluent societies of the Western world have witnessed a tremendous cultural and social transformation of sexuality during the 1980s and 1990s. Both its real and symbolic effects may indeed be more consequential than those brought about in the course of the rapid, noisy sexual revolution of the 1960s and 1970s. The 'neo sexual' revolution is dismantling the old patterns of sexuality and reassembling them anew. In the process, dimensions, intimate relationships, preferences and sexual fragments emerge, many of which had been submerged, were unnamed, or simply did not exist before. In general, sexuality has lost much of its symbolic meaning as a cultural phenomenon. Sexuality is no longer the great metaphor for pleasure and happiness, nor is it so greatly overestimated as it was during the sexual revolution. It is now widely taken for granted, much like egotism or motility. Whereas sex was once mystified in a positive sense, as ecstasy and transgression, it has now taken on a negative mystification characterized by abuse, violence, and deadly infection. These processes go hand in hand with the commercialization and globalization of sexuality (Volkmar, 1998). The women's movement, along with the sexual revolution, made sweeping changes in the way women acted and were perceived (Reiss, 1967).

With introduction of internet, the access and availability of erotic photos, videos, live sex acts and web-cam strip sessions became very easy. Our culture has seen dramatic changes in regard to attitude towards sex in past years. These changes have been almost universally in the direction of liberalization of a most restrictive set of mores. Abortion reforms, sexually explicit movies, magazines and books, homosexuality, transsexualism, open marriage etc all these made current situation as of sexual acceptance, freedom and release.

Personality

In Eastern psychology, many theories were developed to explain qualities of a person. One among them is based on the typology of *trigunas*.

In much of the Indian philosophical discussion the term 'guna' is used to refer to the notion of a 'quality' or 'attribute' of a substance or thing (Larson & Bhattacharya, 1987). It is assumed that *prakrithi* has three 'gunas' or factors namely *satva* or essence, *rajas* or motion and *tamas* or inertia. The presence of segments of each of three factors comprises the temperamental aspects of human personality. Among *trigunas*, *satva* is a state of equilibrium, signifying purity and harmony. *Rajas* indicates passion, activity and motion, while *tamas* indicates inertia, inactivity, sloth and foolishness. The apparent variations in the inter-individual as well as intra-individual psychological behaviour are due to the relative expression at a given movement of the *trigunas* (Tripathi & Pandey, 2002).

The basic description of these *gunas* as follows:

Sattva- This *guna* is the tendency in things to continue and continuance is best when it is pure, that is freed from all things which cause it either to arise or decline. It is the tendency to remain places, a calm serene and undisturbed by any internal or external tendency. The man dominated by *sattva* is characterized by intelligence and clarity of vision. It is desire and emotions are under his control. He is free from lust, anger and greed

Rajas- The conditioning factor in regard to *rajas* are of non specific nature belong life in general, more subjective than objective. In general there is a thirst for life, the pleasurable values of ordinary life. *Rajsa* is born of passion and desire (Mishra,1994)

Tamas The reference to the word indicates no specific virtue is implies to *tamas* (inert dark) which forms, as it were, the inert basis of mental life itself (Natraja Gura, 1989). This is the tendency in things to degenerate decline decay and die.

The three *gunas* - *Satwa*, *Rajas*, *Tamas* - are the essential components (or energies) of mind, describing the mental state of the mind of a person.

The three components of personality are seen to different degrees in everybody in every culture. There are group wise differences and also culture wise differences. Inertia is the result of overall inhibition (with possible cortical excitation) resulting from restrictiveness. It is seen in people subjected to a great deal of social restriction. Activation is seen in people having to be adventurous and active to survive. Stability at cortical level involves balance or transcendence (Mathew, 1995).

Personality and Sexuality

Human sexuality is defined broadly as a function of total personality, especially to feelings of personal worth (Jeammets, 2005). The sexual dimension of personal life must be evaluated both in terms of its own characteristics value and its relation to other dimension of personal experience. The role of personality in sexuality may operate differently depending on the developmental stage in one's sexual life (Anderson and Cyranowski 1994).

Sex in Indian Context

India played a significant role in the history of sex, from writing the first literature that treated sexual intercourse as a science. In India, sex is reputed to value its pleasurable aspect more highly than do Western culture and it may be argued that India pioneered the use of sexual education through art and literature.

Traditionally family is the nucleus of Indian society. Family provides for satisfactory of fundamental biopsychic drive of sex. Many cultural taboos, still prevalent, affect the sexual expression of individual. But over the past half-century, science and technology, new economic patterns, the growing influence of the media and the diminishing influence of religion have brought about vast changes in people's mores, beliefs and life-styles(cf. Abraham & Abraham, 1998). With the influence of Western culture, the present generation of youth are facing a number of problem that are ultimately forcing them to violate the traditional norms as laid down by the society. As a result, the traditional norms of sexual patterns are being changed. With the advent and spread of AIDS and HIV, brought a major shift occurred not only in the public awareness but also in the matters of sexual health, attitude and behavior. But as Mane and Maitra (cf. Reddy, 1983) inferred, 'relatively little is known about the sexual behaviour and attitudes towards different aspects and forms of sexual activity in India. All these necessitate understanding the behavioral and psychological characteristics within the framework of sexuality.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Sexuality is pivotal to being human. Individuals express their sexuality through beliefs, attitudes, behaviours and experiences. A person's sexuality is an integral dimension of personality. Expressions of sexuality have been shown to vary according to historical period, as well as between and within different societies and cultures. There are wide variations in sexual attitude and behavior from one culture to another (Abramson & Pinkerton, 1995).

Interest in human sexual behaviour and the factors influencing it has probably never been greater than it is today (Bancroft,1989). As Kinsey stated, “the more we study the development of modern sexuality, the more we believe in the importance and significance”.

Sex is also probably the least talked about subject and the one which carries the biggest taboo. The silence around sexuality unfortunately leads to various social problems. However things are changing now, people are talking about sexuality everywhere and issues centred on youths’ sexuality have become the subject of interest and concern to society. But the scientific attempt to understanding sexuality is only very few in Indian changing situation, especially in Kerala culture, and what is available is mainly regarding the problem behaviour outcomes. Researchers were challenged to take a broader perspective of sexual development (Bancroft, 2003) and to characterize the wider array of normative developmental sexual aspects rather than continue to characterize the sexual experience as damaging and painful. In this context, the investigator feels a study related to sexual behaviour in relation to attitude and personality is worthful to understand the changing aspects of sexuality. The present study is attempt to investigate the sexual related behaviours and permissive attitude in relation to personality make-up. The study is also aims to examine background variable differences in behaviours and attitude.

Recent work suggests that individuals engage in their most extensive identity exploration during emerging adulthood-the period from approximately 18 to 25 years of age-rather than early adolescence (Arnett, 2000). To gain an understanding of new social direction, for the study, respondents aged 17-24 years, were drawn from the colleges wherein exchange and development of ideas and beliefs of changing society and self are encouraged to manifest.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The present study is entitled “An Empirical study on Sexual Behaviour in relation to Sexual Attitude and Personality”.

DESCRIPTIONS OF KEY TERMS

The key terms involved in the study are explained below in order to have clear about the study.

Sexual behaviour

Sexual behavior is not only of basic biological importance, but of central social importance. In human beings, the meaning of sexual behavior in this sense is sometimes even less clear. The term "sexual behavior" can have three different basic meanings, depending on the background and scientific interest of the investigator. The modern definition is related to all actions and responses related to pleasure seeking. Generally Sexual behavior include constellation of behavior and physical activities that are involved in the expression of erotic feelings or desires (De Lamater & Friedrich, 2002). In this study, the term ‘sexual behaviour’ is used to denote any act or activities or behaviour that is related to sexuality in general and involved in the expression of sexual desire or erotic feelings.

The normal or deviant sexual behaviour or related acts or activities of adult are the considered in the present investigation. The study focuses the sexual act or behaviour or related activities like subjected to forceful sex, done forceful sex, homosexual act, sexual intercourse, illegitimate relation, masturbation, difficulty to control sex, sex guilt, pornography, paedophilic tendency, talking sex, group sex, love with opposite sex, love with same sex, love failure, fear of opposite sex , prostitution and secrecy in sex. The respondents are categorised on the basis of the experienced or engaging these acts are considered in the study and each behaviour or act is treated as independent variable.

Sexual attitude

Attitude is a set of behaviour in the context of a work. It is the predisposition to respond in a particular manner towards the issue. According to Certo (1977) “ an attitude is a predisposition to react to a situation, person or concept with a particular response. The response can be either positive or negative. It is a learned reaction-one that results from an individual’s observation, direct experience or exposure to other attitudes”. Individual attitudes are deeply rooted in the values of the society in which they live, and it is this interaction between the individual actor and their social setting that shapes both the individual and the society in which they live

The total score in the Sexual permissiveness scale is considered as the attitude score. This variable is treated as dependant variable in the study.

The present study focuses on

Personality

The Oxford Dictionary defines personality as ‘the distinctive character or qualities of a person, often as distinct from others’ personal existence or identity, the condition of being a person’ (cf.Pant,2002). In the present study, the Eastern of concept of personality-Satva, Rajas, Thamas are used. Here the investigator used I A S scale (Mathew, 1995) to measure these traits. On the whole the rating scale yields three separate score in each dimension are treated separately.

Gender

Gender is dichotomously categorized into male or female based on biological being.

Religion

Only belongingness to a particular religion is considered in the present investigation. Three major different religions- Hindu, Muslim, Christian- in Kerala state is considered.

Objectives

The objectives set for the present study are:

1. To identify the sexual behaviours and its interrelationship and to assess the level of sexual permissiveness of unmarried student population.
2. To find out whether there exists any differences in sexual permissiveness related to sexual behaviour.
3. To find out whether there exists any relationship between sexual permissiveness and personality dimensions and differences in dimensions of personality related to sexual behaviour.

Hypotheses

The following are the hypotheses set for the present investigation.

1. Male and female subjects differ in their sexual behaviours.
2. Sexual behaviours are interrelated in male.
3. Sexual behaviours are interrelated in female.
4. Male subjects are more permissive than female subjects.
5. Subjects belonging to different religions differ in their sexual permissiveness.
6. Subjects having a particular sexual behaviour are more permissive than those who are not having it.
7. Sexual permissiveness is positively related to Inertia dimension of personality.
8. Sexual permissiveness is positively related to Activation dimension of personality.

9. Sexual permissiveness is negatively related to Stability dimension of personality.
10. Subjects having a particular sexual behaviour and those who do not have such behaviour differ in Inertia dimension of personality.
11. Subjects having a particular sexual behaviour and those who do not have such behaviour differ in Activation dimension of personality
12. Subjects having a particular sexual behaviour and those who do not have such behaviour differ in stability dimension of personality

Scope and implication of the study

Sexual research is less attended field by psychologist in India particularly in Kerala. The Western and developed countries are making use of the psychological studies related to sex. A developing country like India where sex is even a less discussed topic the studies on sexuality is much significance.

The present study in this context can be examined from two angles-theoretical and applied. Theoretically this study will examine the prevailing sexual behaviour and attitude and its relationship to personality make up.

In the application side the findings may have implication for the sex education programme and better understanding of sexual aspects of youth population. It may have implications for health professionals who is helping the youths of different ages and dealing couples relationship problem.

ORGANIZATION OF THE REPORT

The study is reported under five chapters, viz, Introduction, Review of Related studies, Method, Result and Discussion and Summary and Conclusion and Suggestion

The first chapter narrates almost all the important aspects of the study viz,

- i) Need and significance of the study
- ii) Statement of the problem
- iii) Definition of key terms
- iv) Objectives of the study
- v) Hypotheses
- vi) Scope and implications

In the second chapter review of related studies and respective findings in the aspects of different sexual behaviours, sexual attitude, studies in personality and sexual aspects and Indian studies on sex are summarized.

Method, the third chapter describes in details about the design of the study. This chapter includes four sections:

Section A : Sample

Section B : Measures

Section C: Procedure

Section D : Statistical analysis

Chapter IV deals with the results and its discussion

Chapter II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Sexuality is a broad term that encompasses a wide range of behaviors and emotions and beliefs. The exploration of sexuality, thus, covers a range of areas, such as knowledge of and attitude towards matters concerning sex, sexual behaviour and sexual experiences, sexual health and sex education and social interaction.

Past research on sexual behavior may be viewed as a progressive evolution from less taboo concerns (animal behavior, studies of primitive cultures, and abnormality) to the succession of "shocks" that attended the extension of sexual knowledge to the normal, contemporary human sphere with Freud, Kinsey, and Masters and Johnson. Social psychologists were attracted to this area by the revolutionary societal changes in attitudinal permissiveness and in actual behavior. Sex research is of special value to psychology field because it has built-in experimental impact, its technology includes the direct nonverbal assessment of a motivational-emotional state, and it is of obvious relevance to innumerable real- life issues (Byrne, 1976).

This present investigation focused on the sexual behaviour in relation to sexual attitude and personality. In order to understand the relationship, it is necessary to review the scientific literature of sexuality with regard to attitude, behaviours and personality. Here an attempt is effort has been made to explore the areas of sexual research and reviewed some studies relevant to the present investigation. The review focuses on scientific sexual research and the literature regarding socio-cultural factors, sexual attitude, different sexual behaviours and personality. Though the studies used in the in this literature

review are mainly based on Western populations, however the Indian studies, though few, are also included in the present survey.

STUDIES ON SEXUAL ATTITUDE

Sexual attitudes have been extensively studied among adolescents and adults (Oliver & Hyde, 1993). Many studies have been conducted on attitudes toward sexual practices (Bryan, Aiken, & West, 1999), sexual permissiveness (Oliver & Hyde 1993), and sexual desire (Regan, 1998), to quote only a few. One of the most complete instruments for studying sexual attitudes is the `Sexual Attitudes Scale developed by Hendrick and Hendrick (1987a). They have shown that people in general were not very permissive. Typical permissiveness items are "I would like to have sex with many partners" and "Casual sex is acceptable." In their 1987 study, the mean response observed to such items on a sample of several hundred students was about 2.25 on a 5-point disagree-agree scale; that is, the mean response is closer to the disagree pole of the scale than to the agree pole. In a later study (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1995), the overall mean was only about 2.00, which corresponds to "moderately disagree." The authors also showed that women tend to be even less permissive than men. The difference observed between women and men was approximately one point (Oliver & Hyde, 1993). Hendrick and Hendrick (1987b) have also shown that people in general were moderately instrumentalist.

Many research (Herek & Capitano, 1995) indicated that gender, time, age, parents and family environment, race, region, education, and religious affiliation are associated with sexuality attitudes.

Gender

A large body of scientific research documents four important gender differences in sexuality. First, on a wide variety of measures, men show greater sexual desire than do women. Second, compared with men, women place greater emphasis on committed relationships as a context for sexuality. Third, aggression is more strongly linked to sexuality for men than for women. Fourth, women's sexuality tends to be more malleable and capable of change over time. These male-female differences are pervasive, affecting thoughts and feelings as well as behavior, and they characterize not only heterosexuals but lesbians and gay men as well. Reviews of empirical research on diverse aspects of human sexuality have identified four important male-female differences. These gender differences are pervasive, affecting thoughts and feelings as well as behavior, and they characterize not only heterosexuals but lesbians and gay men as well.

Many lines of research demonstrate that men show more interest in sex than women (see review by Baumeister et al., 2001). Compared with women, men think about sex more often. They report more frequent sex fantasies and more frequent feelings of sexual desire. Across the life span, men rate the strength of their own sex drive higher than do their female age-mates. Men are more interested in visual sexual stimuli and more likely to spend money on such sexual products and activities as X-rated videos and visits to prostitutes. When Regan and Berscheid (1999) asked young adults to define sexual desire, men were more likely than women to emphasize physical pleasure and sexual intercourse. In contrast, women were more likely to "romanticize" the experience of sexual desire, as seen in one young woman's definition of sexual desire as "longing to be emotionally intimate and to express love for another person" (p. 75). Compared with women, men have more permissive attitudes toward casual premarital sex and toward extramarital sex.

Another gendered pattern concerns the association between sexuality and aggression. This link has been demonstrated in many domains, including individuals' sexual self-concepts, the initiation of sex in heterosexual relationships, and coercive sex. Andersen, Cyranowski, and Espindle (1999) investigated the dimensions that individuals use to characterize their own sexuality. Both sexes evaluated themselves along a dimension of being romantic, with some individuals seeing themselves as very passionate and others seeing themselves as not very passionate. However, men's sexual self-concepts were also characterized by a dimension of aggression, which concerned the extent to which they saw themselves as being aggressive, powerful, experienced, domineering, and individualistic.

There is also growing evidence that women are more likely than men to change their sexual orientation over time. In an illustrative longitudinal study (Diamond, 2003), more than 25% of 18- to 25-year-old women who initially identified as lesbian or bisexual changed their sexual identity during the next 5 years. Changes such as these are less common for men. A further indication of malleability is that a person's.

Diverse lines of scientific research have identified consistent male-female differences in sexual interest, attitudes toward sex and relationships, the association between sex and aggression, and sexual plasticity.

Hendrick, et al. (1985) argued that the literature on gender differences in sexual attitudes is somewhat confused and contradictory, and tends to be based on short scales and global constructs such as "sexual permissiveness." Their research provided a more detailed examination of the area. The results showed that female and male subjects differed on 73 of the 102 items. Female subjects were more responsible, conventional, and idealistic, whereas male subjects were more permissive, instrumental, and control- and power-oriented. The means suggested that women were moderately conservative in sexual attitudes, whereas men were moderately permissive. Social scientists (e.g., Lottes, 1993; Reiss, 1990) also report that although gender convergence

with respect to some sexual attitudes and behaviors has occurred in the United States, evidence exists for persistence of restrictive sexual patterns and the traditional double standard that privileges men (Oliver & Hyde, 1993; Sprecher & Zeiss, 1987).

Time

A number of studies show that premarital sexual standards tend to become more liberal and more egalitarian between sexes over time, although there are some fluctuations. Earle and Perricone (1986) compared surveys from 793 undergraduates taken in 1970, 1975, and 1981. They identified significant increases in rates of premarital sex, significant decreases in average age of first intercourse, and significant increases in average number of partners over time. Harding (2003) similarly identified a sharp increase in liberal attitudes toward premarital sex between 1969 and 1973, although those over 30 years of age were generally more conservative than those younger. Wells and Twenge (2005) conducted a meta-analysis of 530 studies with a total of 269,649 participants to investigate changes in young people's sexual behavior and attitudes.

Modernization

Modernization seems to play an important role in the determination of attitudes towards premarital sexuality. Investigating the effects of immigration, Hojat et. al. (1999) compared 160 Iranian immigrants in the U.S. to 97 Iranians in Iran. Their findings revealed that those who were exposed to the American culture, especially women, were more permissive towards premarital sex as compared to Iranians in Iran. Hendrickx et. al. (2002) examined the challenges presented by a modern society and the influences of the cultural and social backgrounds among young Moroccan Islamic immigrants to Belgium. They found their participants tended to be minimally influenced by the social environment they found themselves in.

Region

Studies seemed to demonstrate significant differences between nations. There seemed to be significant variance within various regions of a nation as well. Sprecher and Hatfield (1996) compared attitudes on premarital sex and sexual permissiveness among 695 male and 972 female participants from colleges in Russia, U.S., and Japan. The study found that American participants were more accepting of premarital sex relative to Japanese and Russian participants. Kaufman et. al. (1996) compared China to the U.S. in terms of teenage sexual attitudes. Their findings indicated that Chinese teenagers were low on premarital permissiveness, although they were tolerant of those who engaged in premarital sexual activity . Ghuman (2005) investigated residential differences in married participants from the Hai Duong Province of Vietnam in 2001. The study indicated that premarital permissiveness is higher for those who lived in urban areas, had more schooling, and were married after the late 1980s.

Religion

The influence of religiosity in shaping gender roles and sexuality has been documented and illustrated by Popenoe (1988). Many authors have asserted that differences in sexual attitudes and behaviors among racial or ethnic groups can be explained by variations in social class and religiosity more than by any racial or ethnic difference. Some researchers have suggested that religiosity plays a lesser role in determining the sexual attitudes and behaviors of Black people than of White people. These researchers also suggested that Black people are more sexually permissive than are White people (Belcastro, 1985).

The role of cultural factors in explaining sexual attitudes were noted and discussed. In one study aimed at how the period, adolescence, was shaped by international economic, institutional, and social influences, Caldwell, et al (1998) argues that that traditional culture has shaped contemporary adolescence even more than has global society.

Although religion has an intrinsically close relationship to the individual, it seems to be an overwhelming social force affecting attitudes towards premarital sexuality both on a macro and on a micro level. In a sample of 527 participants ranging from 16 to 18 years of age, Sheeran et. al. found that religiosity was significantly related to sexual attitudes and anticipation of sexual intercourse but not to actual sexual activities. Hardy and Rafaelli (2003) found that teens with higher religiosity tended to delay sexual experience. Contrary to most of the literature cited above, in a sample of 191 single male and 232 single female participants whose ages ranged from 17 to 25, Jensen et. al. (1990) found that only sexual permissiveness had a main effect on sexual behavior, and that religious attendance did not have a significant effect overall except that non-permissive participants who attended church every week had one of the highest frequencies of sexual activity. In brief, religions themselves change over time. The fluctuation within a religion over time, as well as differences between religious groups have significant effects on individuals' attitudes toward women's premarital sexuality. However, higher religiosity seems to consistently and positively correlate with negative attitudes across time and religious groups.

Age

Herold and Goodwin (1981) found age to be among a number of factors that affect premarital sexual behavior. In a sample of 155 male and 218 female undergraduates between the ages of 17 and 43, Lafuente and Valc/trcel (1984) found that younger and older participants tended to disapprove premarital sexual relations, while participants aged 20 to 25 show more approval. More recently, Bersamin et. al. (2006) found increase in age to be among variables that predicted higher occurrence of both oral and vaginal sex.

Age effects on sexual attitudes were examined using the Hendrick and Hendrick (1987) Sexual Attitude Scale. The study was cross-sectional, including people from various age groups, from young adults to older adults. Factor analyses showed that older adults were shown to be less permissive than young people and this result held regardless of the participants' educational level. As regards to instrumentality, however, the pattern of differences was extremely complex

Peers

Adolescents sexuality are also influenced by their peers. In one study Brown, Clasen, & Eicher, (1986) noted that adolescent males and females report similar perceptions of peer pressure, but males are more likely to submit, peer influence being related to age. There are strong similarities between the sexual behaviors of peers, the congruence may not reflect peer pressure.

Sack et. al.(1984) found, that degree of approval from close friends was associated with the prior sexual experience of their female participants. Reed and Weinberg (1984) found perceptions of friends' sexual behavior to have adirect effect on premarital sexual behavior for women who were in a committed relationship but not for women who were dating serially. Friedman (2004) found that peers' communication of sex- related topics and perceived

peer and sibling approval of sexuality were significantly related to participants' sexual attitudes and behavior. Perceived peer approval was the most powerful factor in this study.

Educational Environment

In the following studies, education was considered a less important background variable in terms of premarital sexual behavior and attitudes. Djamba (1995) found that higher education increased the likelihood of premarital sexual activity among university level educated women. In a sample from Vietnam, Ghuman (2005) found that, although positive attitudes toward premarital sex did not constitute a majority among more educated participants, having more education increased the acceptance of premarital sex, along with living in urban areas and being married after late 1980s. Mensh et. al. (2001), on the other hand, found that for female participants, education in a gender-neutral school decreased the likelihood of premarital sex.

Parents and family environment

Although young college women rate friends, school, and books as more important than parents as sources of information about sex, parents are rated as having more influence on sexual attitudes (Sanders & Mullis, 1988). In addition, sexual permissiveness and intercourse are related to parental discipline and control, a relationship that is curvilinear (Miller, McCoy, Olson, & Wallace, 1986). Several investigators have gone beyond the bivariate relationship to show that single or divorced parents' more permissive sexual attitudes (Thornton & Camburn, 1987), lesser parental supervision, and parents' own dating activity (Whitbeck, Simons, & Kao, 1994) help explain why adolescents in some single parent families are at increased risk of pregnancy. Many researchers have investigated the association between adolescents' sexual behavior and family process variables such as parental warmth, support, parent-child communication and connectedness(Miller et al., 2001,).

Many factors have been found to influence teen sexual knowledge, attitudes, and behaviors. For example, parent-child communication has been linked to greater sexual knowledge and more conservative sexual attitudes (Fisher, 1986). Similarly, of researchers that have measured relations between closeness and sexuality, most have found that parent-adolescent relationships, mother-daughter in particular, made an impact on adolescent sexual behavior (e.g. Miller & Fox, 1987). Pick and Palos(1995) cited one study conducted by Fitzgerald & Fitzgerald, regarding the parent-adolescent relationships and it was found that among the most common problems in parent-child communication concerning sex are embarrassment, lack of knowledge, poorly defined values, fear of encouraging sexual activity, and inability to initiate and maintain a conversation about the subject. Other studies (Abramson et al., 1983) found that parents' educational level and religiosity affect communication.

There is marked consistency in this body of about two dozen studies; all but a few indicate that parent-child closeness is associated with reduced adolescent pregnancy risk through teens remaining sexually abstinent, postponing intercourse, having fewer sexual partners, or using contraception more consistently. For example, parent-child connectedness or closeness is related to both daughters' and sons' postponement of sexual intercourse (Jaccard, et al., 1996), and to more consistent contraceptive use by sexually active teens. Most of the evidence shows that parental supervision and monitoring of children is another important relationship dimension related to adolescents' sexual behaviors in ways that would lower their risk of pregnancy (Miller et al., 2001). More specifically, family rules and household routines (Ku, et al, 1994), parental supervision of dating activities (Hogan & Kitagawa, 1985), and parental monitoring of teens (Luster & Small, 1994) all have been associated with teens not having intercourse, having a later sexual debut, or having fewer sexual partners. Parental supervision and control might also reduce teen pregnancy indirectly by decreasing childrens' association with high-risk peers, and by lowering teen

alcohol and drug use, thereby decreasing teenagers' unprotected sexual intercourse.

However, Pick and Palos (1995) cited some authors like Walters & Walters who had concluded that the family has a limited influence on childrens' attitudes and sexual behavior, precisely because there is little discussion, poor perceptions, and because the parents are only one source of information.

Sibling relationships are also associated with adolescent sexual activity. Earlier sexual experience is positively correlated with older siblings who are sexually active (Hogan & Kitagawa, 1985). Werner-Wilson (1998) cited some studies revealed that earlier sexual activity of younger siblings may occur due to role modeling or it may result from greater parental permissiveness.

Social Class

Similar to educational environment, social class seemed to be considered less important factor influencing premarital sexual behavior and attitudes. Medora (1982) found that socioeconomic status was not a factor with significant effect on participants' premarital sexual attitudes. Djamba (2003) found that poverty, along with exposure to mass media, and AIDS awareness, decreased the occurrence of premarital sexual activity among the participants from Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of Congo.

Many community factors also have the profound impact on the behavior. Billy & Brewster, (1994) noted that community characteristics influence sexual behavior by providing a structure of constraints that shape the knowledge and attitude, that ultimately guide choice about the sexual behavior. In their study Weinberg, Lottes and Gordon (1997) found that community socio economic status, as indicated by income and poverty levels, housing values, and educational attainment may influence adolescents' sexual behavior. Parents or parenting adults occupy a social and economic status (SES) in the community, usually reflected by some combination of their

education, occupation, and income. Miller et al (2001) found that parents' SES is related to adolescent pregnancy; adolescents whose parents have higher education and income are more likely both to postpone sexual intercourse and to use contraception. Weinberg, Lottes and Gordon (1997) present data from a study of undergraduate students and they noted that among the men, some traditional social class differences and for the women, fewer social class differences appear.

Several researchers reported that rural individuals continue to hold more traditional attitude about sexual issues. Studying Gallup polls like between 1965 and 1975, Larson (cf. Weis & Jurich, 1985) noted that rural individuals are becoming more permissive over time, as has been true of urban areas. The persons from small communities were more likely to disapprove of premarital and extra marital sexuality and to be racially prejudicial. They concluded that the difference in attitudes by community size are more negligible and do not appear to be diminishing. Community religiosity may also influence sexual behavior by prohibiting sexual activity outside the marriage. Frehnock and Ctright (cf. Billy & Brewster, 1994) reported that a long history of research links community characteristics as indicators of a breakdown in the non marital sexual activity. Various aspects of local demography, including the community's racial and ethnic comparisons also may influence the individual's sexual behavior. Mahay et al. (2001) found that Whites were, in general, more permissive than were African American or Hispanic participants (although there were some differences by gender). But Pelletier & Herold (1988), in their study found that Whites were less likely to say premarital sex is wrong, less likely to say religion shapes their sexual behaviour

The demographic difference in sexual behavior are widely recognizes to have profound impact on sexual behavior particularly during the developmental periods. Many research (Herek & Capitano, 1995) indicated that age, race, gender, education, and religious affiliation are associated with sexuality attitudes.

Religious factors and beliefs also have impact on behavior. Possibly due to the strong a priori relevance of religious beliefs in the prediction of sexual attitudes, many studies have been devoted to examining the link between religious beliefs and sexual behavior. In one survey conducted by Schrof and Wagner (1994) found that one third of Americans (26.9 percent of men, 33.7 percent of women) tend to say their religious beliefs guide their sexual behaviour. Hendrick and Hendrick (1987b) explored the relationship between religious beliefs and sexual attitudes in two samples of students, found that very religious participants scored lower on Permissiveness, Instrumentality, and Sexual Practices. Very religious students had less liberal attitudes was also found by Miller and Olson (1988). Sheeran et al. (1993) also found the same results in adolescents aged 15 to 20. Jensen et al (1990) showed that most of the effect of religious involvement on sexual behavior was mediated by sexual attitudes. However, little is known, regarding the associated effect of age and religious belief on sexual attitudes. But some results regarding the effect of religious affiliation on sexual behavior seem to be contradictory. Le Gall, et al (2002) cited some studies showing the contradictory results. For instance, in one study it was found that Jewish students have more sexual experience than Christian students. But the study by Lottes and Kuriloff (1994) found no difference between Jews and Christians. And the study of Pluhar, et al (cf. Le Gall, et al, 2002) found that Jewish students have less sexual experience than Christian students. Mahoney and Young found a negative relationship between sexual experience and strength of religious commitment (cf. Le Gall, et al., 2002).

Through literature reviews, it has been found that women and men have different attitudes toward sexual experiences. There is a trend in conservative behaviors in regards to sex (Henshaw, 1998). In the literature, there appears to be a negative relationship between sexual attitudes and experiences, indicating a contradiction of attitudes and experiences (Tucker-Ladd, 2000). Although there appear to be more conservative sexual experiences, the sexual attitudes of individuals are becoming more liberal.

The double standard has diminished for most sexual behaviors (Sprecher & Hatfield, 1996), but may still be salient for unusual ones.

This literature review demonstrated that time period, modernization attempts, region, religion, age, personal attitudes, dating behavior, prior sexual experience, parents and peers, educational environment, and social class are variables that affect attitudes toward sexuality.

STUDIES ON SEXUAL BEHAVIOUR

In this section the studies on various sex related behavior are reviewed.

Premarital Sex

Sexual activity has become a common aspect of adolescent relationships. Specifically, there is greater acceptance of non-traditional living arrangements such as cohabitation, as well as acceptance and prevalence of premarital sex, than in the past. In a review of the research on adolescent sexual activity, White and DeBlassie (1992) noted that a number of factors were associated with sexual behavior of unmarried youths. These included age, gender, religion, coming from a broken or intact home, parental communication and discipline, sibling constellation, peer relationships, social policy and a variety of personality traits. In one study, Smith (1997) reported that the number of teenagers having sex has increased 63% in the last 20 years, with the biggest increase occurring among white, middle-class females. Feigenbaum, Weinstein and Rosen (cited in Misra & Hohman, 2000.), investigating a sample of college undergraduates, indicated that 69.6% of the males and 59.5% of the females reported having experienced sexual intercourse by the age of 17. By age 20, the figures rise to 80% for males and 76% for females (Haffner, 1997). The average age for first sex estimated by the researchers was 17.4 years for boys and 18.2 for girls. Sixty per cent of respondents said that they had sex rarely or sometimes; 14% had sex frequently. About a third of the respondents were found lacking in awareness of unsafe sexual encounters (cf. Haffner, 1997).

Sexual survey in the 1960's and 1970's showed that older generations had less permissive attitudes on such matters than younger people. In their study, Connie, et al (1994) suggested that attitudes toward marriage have also been identified as a possible correlate of adolescent sexual activity. Attitude to sex clearly vary with the nature of relationship with one's partner. This change in attitudes affected the sexual behaviour of adolescents. Pluhar et al. (1998) noted that religious affiliation, permissiveness and perception of the influence of religion in daily life were related to the probability of intercourse among college students. But the findings of the study also reported that the effect of social class, religious background or family background had little effect in sexual attitude and behaviour (cited in Connie, 1994).

In one study, Wilson and Medora (1990) distributed questionnaires to 641 undergraduates at a large southeastern university to elicit opinions concerning various forms of premarital sexual behavior. Hypotheses were developed to determine whether there were differences between the attitudes of males and females. Significant differences were found between males' and females' attitudes toward premarital sex when the couple is casually acquainted, and attitudes toward extramarital sex, oral-genital sex, and anal sex. However, significant differences were not found between males' and females' attitudes toward premarital sex when the couple is in love, attitudes toward premarital sex when the couple is engaged. Males' attitudes toward various forms of sexual behavior were more liberal than those of females. Kinnard and Gerral (1986) cited two studies. In a study by Westera and Bennett, 88% of high school males and 84% of high school females expressed attitudes supportive of premarital sexual behaviors. Another study conducted by Kozuch and Cooney found that acceptance of premarital cohabitation was higher when adolescents were exposed to significant levels of parental conflict and divorce. These researchers suggested that the observance of parental conflict is enough to convince young people that cohabitation is a necessity. The majority of studies conducted with children adolescents have

supported the idea that absence of father, especially as a result of divorce, is related to early dating behaviour.

The study by Singh, Waltan and Willians (cited in Kinnard & Gerral, 1986), findings reveal that there is consistency in sexual attitudes, especially in premarital and post marital situations. A higher proportion of those who approve PMS are also likely to be approving EMS and those who disapprove of PMS are also likely no disapprove of EMS. It becomes clear that the best explanation of extramarital sexual permissiveness is offered by premarital sexual permissiveness.

Homosexuality

Over the last 25 yrs, dramatic advances have occurred in the understanding of the development of sexual orientation. The literature has flourished especially since the advent of HIV/AIDS and the attendant concerns to understand the social, psychological, and behavioural dimensions of gay men's lives (Paul et al.1997). The likelihood that men and women reported a same-gender sex partner in the previous year increased over the 1988-1998 period. Kinsey said in both the *Male* and *Female* volumes that it was impossible to determine the number of persons who are 'homosexual' or 'heterosexual'. It was only possible to determine behavior at any given time. Instances of at least one same-sex experience to orgasm: 37% of males (Kinsey, 1948) 13% of females, (Kinsey, 1953). He noted that 10% of males in the sample were predominantly homosexual between the ages of 16 and 55. 8% of males were exclusively homosexual for at least three years between the ages of 16 and 55. 4% of white males had been exclusively homosexual after the onset of adolescence up to the time of their interviews. 2 to 6% of females, aged 20-35, were more or less exclusively homosexual in experience/response; 1 to 3% of unmarried females aged 20-35 were exclusively homosexual in experience/response (cf. The Kinsey Institute, 1999).

Rodriguez (2000) cited the review of Gonsiorek, Sell, and Weinrich, the methods used in defining and measuring sexual orientation, and briefly critiqued surveys of homosexual activity from Kinsey in 1948 to the 1994. Study by Laumann, et al.(1994) suggested that the current prevalence of predominant same-sex orientation is 4-17%. In another study on the prevalence of homosexuality and bisexuality, Bagley and Tremblay (cf. The Kinsey Institute, 1999) questioned a stratified random sample of 750 men aged 18 to 27 in Calgary and Canada using a computerized response format and three measures of homosexuality. They found that 15.3% of males reported being homosexual to some degree. Turner et al. (1998) studied a large random sample of 16- to 19-year-old males, confirmed that, on average, between 5% and 10% of adolescent males report having sexual experiences with someone of the same gender, compared with 6% of adolescent females.

Research has generally supported the existence of familial-genetic factors for male sexual orientation, but has not shed much light on the specific nature of those influences. In one study conducted by Dawood et al (2000) assessed behaviour of sixty-six men, representing 37 gay male sibling pairs on various measures including childhood and adult gender nonconformity, timing of awareness of homosexual feelings, self-acceptance, and the quality of family relationships. The findings revealed that gay brothers were similar in their degree of childhood gender nonconformity. The large majority of gay men with brothers knew about their own homosexual feelings before they learned about their brothers' homosexual feelings, suggesting that discovery of brothers' homosexuality is not an important cause of male homosexuality.

Laumann et al (1994) found that same-gender sexual behavior may be sensitive to variation in environmental and cultural conditions. First, having had a same-gender sex partner was positively associated with size of home town when growing up among men (but not among women). Second, educational attainment was positively associated with same-gender attraction, appeal, desire, and sex partners among both men and women. They also found

that younger people were more likely to report having had a same-gender sex partner since age 18 than were older people, despite having had fewer years to do so. Another research conducted by Billy et al. (1994) was consistent with the findings by Laumann et al. (1994), that men who lived in a metropolitan area at age 16 were more likely to report having had a same-gender partner. Growing up during a more sexually permissive historical period should make it easier for people to explore same-gender sexuality. They, however, did not report whether these relationships were statistically significant.

But other studies have found limited corroborating evidence. Rogers and Turner (1991), who combined data on same-gender sexual contact among males from the GSS (The GSS is a series of study of cross-sectional, nationally representative samples of civilian, non-institutionalized, English-speaking adults age 18 and older), the 1970 Kinsey survey, and a local 1989 survey conducted in Dallas, Texas, found a positive relationship for same-gender sexual contact with father's education, but not with size of place growing up, age, or the respondent's own education. Thus, there is some indication that same-gender sexual behavior is influenced by cultural and environmental factors, but the evidence from large-scale social surveys is inconsistent.

There is also growing evidence that women are more likely than men to change their sexual orientation over time. In an illustrative longitudinal study Diamond (2003) observed that more than 25% of 18- to 25-year-old women who initially identified as lesbian or bisexual changed their sexual identity during the next 5 years. Changes such as these are less common for men.

Herek and Glunt's (cf. Hirt & Schellenberg, 1999) study showed that negative attitudes toward homosexuals are prevalent in American and Canadian societies. Regarding the attitudes toward homosexual behaviour, men were found to be much more negative and disapproving about homosexual behavior than women (Herek & Capitanio, 1995 ; Kite &

Whitley, 1996). Kempf and Kasser (1996), in their study noted that men's negative attitudes were very evident particularly when it involves male homosexuality. In their meta-analysis, Kite and Whitley (1996) affirmed the often-cited finding that men hold more negative attitudes toward homosexuality than do women. They also determined that men's attitudes toward homosexuality are particularly negative when the person being rated is a gay man rather than a lesbian. In one study aimed at assessing the attitude towards lesbians, gay men, bisexual women, and bisexual, by Steffens and Wagner (2002) in a national representative sample of 2, 006 self-identified heterosexual women and men living in Germany, found that women hold more favorable attitudes toward homosexuals than toward bisexuals, whereas men did not differentiate. Knowing a homosexual person was an important predictor of attitudes. Both same-sex and opposite-sex sexual attractions were substantially related with attitudes.

Data on attitudes toward homosexuality have been reported for 16 industrialized countries. The result suggests that tolerance for homosexuality is linked with post-materialist values (Cf. Widmer et al, 1998). Another study conducted by Kite and Whitley (1996) indicated that erotic value attributed to lesbianism have been found to mediate sex differences in attitudes toward homosexuality.

Hong (1984) cited studies of Herek , Capitanio and Marsiglio, noted that the highly educated and nonreligious were found to be more positive and approving also as in other research. In another study among general public, Hong (1984) identified two factors, Acceptance and Normality. Sex, age, church attendance, and education variables were found to be significant on the Acceptance factor only; the female, younger, more educated, and less frequent church attenders held more accepting attitudes. For all categories of analysis, prevailing attitudes on Acceptance were less conservative, while attitudes towards Normality of homosexuality remained uniformly restrictive. When

compared with college students, the results revealed far more conservative attitudes.

The meta-analysis study of Oliver and Hyde (1993), surveyed 177 usable sources that reported data on gender differences on 21 different measures of sexual attitudes and behaviors, shows that there were no gender differences in attitudes toward homosexuality or in sexual satisfaction.

The review of substantial previous research reveals a link between homosexuality and a history of childhood sexual abuse. Tomeo et al. (2001) in their study on a non-clinical sample of 942 adults found that 46% of homosexuals and 22% of lesbian women reported homosexual molestation in childhood. This compared to childhood homosexual molestation rates of only 7% of heterosexual men and 1% of heterosexual women.. The female victims had a mean age of 13 at the time of the same-sex abuse, while the comparable group of abused boys had a mean age of 11.

Attitudes towards homosexuality, therefore, involve multidimensional concepts; the effects of personal characteristics on these dimensions and with different populations should be discussed separately. And methodological difficulties in research remain with continued needs for more delineated definitions of sexual orientation and empirically derived databases of population statistics of gay men and lesbians.

Sexual Abuse

Child sexual abuse is common in our society, and the incidence is increasing. It is often believed that there has been a sharp increase in the number of sexual offences committed against children in the later part of the 20th century. Sexual freedom, pornography, and the permissive attitudes since the 1960s, may have contributed to the increase in the prevalence of child sexual abuse. In Europe, 10-20% of all women and 3-10% of all men have experienced sexual abuse before the age of 18, according to one surveys (Svedin & Back, 2002).

However, a review of the literature reveals conflicting evidence of the prevalence. Some researchers have estimated that over 50% of the female child population will experience some form of sexual abuse before the age of 18, while others have reported rates of 11% and lower (Juliette & Usha, 2000). While a meta-analytic study among college students, Rind, Tromovitch, and Bauserman (1998) reported mean prevalence rates of 17% and 28% for males and females respectively, the range for males was 3% to 37%, and for females 8% to 71%. Such wide variation in the prevalence rate is due to differences in the definition of child sexual abuse, the type of sample used, design and measurement techniques.

Regarding the prevalence of traumatic events, research by Turner and Lloyd (1995) has shown that women are more likely to be exposed to sex-related trauma and that men are more likely to be exposed to violence and physical assault traumas. The results regarding the demographic variables has also shown differences for sex, education, race and religiosity. In an attempts to identify and compare variables that characterize differences between female and male victims, Pierce and Pierce, (1985) compared 125 substantiated cases, observed significant differences between female and male victims in the following areas: family composition, the perpetrator of the abuse, variables contributing to the continuation of the abusive situation and the type of services provided to the sexually abused child and family. Evrim (2004) in his study observed that the most commonly reported familial pattern is rigid and patriarchal family pattern with a harsh father using force quite frequently.

A survey completed 1996 of 10,868 adolescent females from one Midwestern state indicates that 10% had experienced sexual abuse by an adult or by someone older than themselves -9% in the past and 1% in an ongoing situation (Luster & Small, 1997). It is also evidenced that past and current victims of sexual abuse had had more sexual partners during the past year than their peers who had never been sexually abused. Regardless of sexual

abuse history, teenagers whose activities were closely monitored by their parents, who received high levels of parental support and whose parents disapproved of teenagers having sex had fewer sexual partners than other adolescents.

Many studies had shown that sexual abuse is associated with family dysfunction. Family dysfunction may be seen as both a risk factor for abuse and a result of the disclosure of abuse. For eg., Svedin and Back (2002) studied a clinical sample of 18 adolescent girls and 20 adult women to determine study how adolescents and adults, sexually abused during their childhood, experienced their family life and family climate in their family of origin. They found that the majority of the participants kept quiet about the abuse during their childhood. The abuse took place for an average of 2.5 years among the adolescents and 6 years in the adult group. They also noted that the majority of both adolescent men and women described their relationships in the family of origin as deviant or interrupted. An overview of a substantial body of the literature is organized by exploring three dimensions of abuse: the parental relationship, the psychopathology of abusive parents and the psychodynamics of motivation. None of these dimensions taken alone provides a satisfactory understanding of the phenomenon of abuse. An integrative model is offered wherein child abuse is regarded as a function of three general factors: stresses on the parent, ego weaknesses of the parent, and vectors that direct the parent's violent impulses against the child (Felthous, 1984). In a related study intended to identify familial risk factors which differentiate sexually abused young girls from non abused girls, Mian et al (1994) indicated that the families of abused girls had less harmony and stability in the marital unit and were headed by less competent parents. Mothers in both abuse groups were significantly more likely to have experienced sexual abuse as children.

Regarding the dynamics of families characterized by sexual abuse, in his study, Alexander (1992) noted the insecure parent-child attachment

(rejection, role reversal/parentification and fear/unresolved trauma) are frequently found in the abuse.

Psychosocial problems are often seen as both short and long-term consequences of sexual abuse and there are many studies attempted to address the issue of abuse. In one study, Lang et al (1999) investigated the association between objective and subjective characteristics of childhood sexual abuse and psychopathology in later life. The sample consists of 404 Dutch female adults who had been sexually abused in their childhood or adolescence. Stepwise multiple regression analyses showed a moderate association between psychopathology and objective characteristics of the abuse, such as number of different types of abusive events and the duration of the abuse. However, more strongly associated with later psychopathology were variables reflecting coping style, such as the degree of self-blame, and circumstantial factors, such as the emotional atmosphere in the family of origin and the reactions after disclosure. Shearer and Herbert (1987) in their study noted a variety of presenting complaints in adults might be signals of unresolved, remote sexual trauma. These include memory problems, confusion, impulsive or self-injurious behavior, unexplained somatic complaints and many others. Evrim (2004) in his found that the clinical features and impacts of the sexual abuse on the child varies according to the relation between abusers and the child, form of abuse, duration of abuse, presence of physical assault, developmental phase, child age and psychological development before the abuse. Sexual abuse history may result in psychiatric disorders including anxiety, depression, substance dependence, suicide act, borderline personality disorder, posttraumatic stress disorder. Abuse negatively affects interpersonal relationships and self esteem of abused individuals.

In a in a longitudinal, prospective study of the long-term effects of childhood sexual abuse, Noll et al (2002) assessed the sexual attitudes and activities of 77 sexually abused and 89 comparison women (mean age = 20.41, SD = 3.38) 10 years after disclosure. The findings revealed that abused

participants were more preoccupied with sex, younger at first voluntary intercourse, more likely to have been teen mothers and endorsed lower birth control efficacy than comparison participants. When psychological functioning earlier in development was examined, sexual preoccupation was predicted by anxiety, sexual aversion was predicted by childhood sexual behavior problems, and sexual ambivalence (simultaneous sexual preoccupation and sexual aversion) was predicted by pathological dissociation.

Shulman and Horne (2006) have found significant differences in sexual behaviors and attitudes between women who were victims of childhood sexual abuse and those who were not. Women with abuse histories tend to engage in earlier and riskier sexual behaviors, appear to be more sexually preoccupied, and are at greater risk for adolescent pregnancy. Wellman (2003) conducted one study to assess the beliefs of 824 male and female college students concerning sexual abuse, and the participants' own experience with such abuse. Results indicate that women have much stronger pro-social beliefs, attitudes, and emotional reactions to sexual abuse and to abusers and victims than men do.

Though there are many studies, Alexander (1992) argued that research on sexual abuse frequently fails to address the influence of the family as a risk factor for the onset of all kinds of sexual abuse and as a mediator of its long-term effects. Green (1993) pointed out that although a wide variety of psychological sequelae have been documented in sexually abused children referred for evaluation or treatment, there appears to be considerable variability in the severity of the symptoms, and we remain ignorant of sequelae in abused children who never enter the mental health system.

Incest

Despite the notion that reports of parental sexual exploitation of their children are usually fantasies, there appear to be increasing data that incest and sexual abuse are frequently reported in the society. At present, there is

increased risk because of increased rates of divorce and step- or surrogate parenthood. In one study, Rice, et al (2002) noted that the father-daughter molesters exhibited an average absolute phallometric preference for prepubertal children and men who offended against their own daughters had less deviant sexual age preferences and were less likely to commit new sexual offenses.

In one study intended to identify familial risk factors which differentiate sexually abused young girls from non abused girls and, further, young victims of intra familial from those of extra familial sexual abuse, Mian et al, (1994) studied 112 subjects, girls aged three to five years and their families. Forty-two were the victims of intra familial sexual abuse and 28 were victims of extra familial sexual abuse while 42 girls were not the victims of abuse. Comparisons indicated that the families of abused girls had less harmony and stability in the marital unit and were headed by less competent parents. Mothers in both abuse groups were significantly more likely to have experienced sexual abuse as children. The intra familial group was differentiated from the extra familial group by worse spousal relationships, inadequate boundaries in parent-child behaviour such as parental sensitivity and trust.

Sibling incests are also prime concern in certain studies. To explore the frequently observed dynamics distinctive to the sibling incest family system, and to evaluate how these dynamics might predispose the family system to act out its dysfunction through sibling sexual conduct, Smith and Israel (1987) collected data based on 25 families. The 25 families yielded a significant pattern of common dynamics. The dynamics that were repeatedly observed throughout these cases were: distant, inaccessible parents; parental stimulation of sexual climate in the home; and family secrets, especially with regard to extramarital affairs. Dynamics might predispose the family system to act out its dysfunction through sibling sexual conduct.

Studies had concluded that the characteristics and consequences of brother-sister incest are of equal seriousness to those of father-daughter incest. For eg., in one study conducted by Rudd and Herzberger (1999), compared one group of women who were sexually abused by brothers and a second group who were sexually abused by fathers are compared with the intent to identify the differing characteristics of each type of abuse and the effects of the abuse on their adult functioning. 62 women completed questionnaires, and 14 of them (23%) had been sexually abused by a brother. A similar number of women (15) who had been sexually abused by their fathers were chosen from the overall sample for comparison. The result shows that the absence of the father as a vital force in family life played a key role in the sexual abuse of women by their brothers in every case. The duration of the sexual abuse for brother-abused women and father-abused women was lengthy. The characteristics, including use of force, are equally as serious for sisters as for daughters.

Classically, incest has been considered from both a psychological and sociological point of view to have harmful consequences. Sexual abuse contributes to and causes emotional trauma, although the child's turmoil, confusion, wish for acceptance and anxiety may be overlooked by the parent and professionals (Sugar, 1983). Rude and Herzberger (1999) cited the study in this area that explored the consequences for victims such as depression, anxiety, low self-esteem, feelings of isolation and stigma, revictimization, substance abuse, sexual difficulties, and so on.

Research is inconclusive as to the psychological harmfulness of incestuous behaviour, and evidence is reviewed on both sides of this complicated and controversial question. Quite apart from the general issue of the harmfulness of incest, a number of indicators can be derived from the nature of the incestuous episode and the early response to therapeutic assessment which aid in the clinical forecasting of probable outcome.

Rape

Rape is a growing problem in today's society. It is becoming increasingly difficult to ignore the startling statistics about this crime. It has been estimated that one in three women will be raped in her lifetime (Warshaw, 1988). Because rape is the most underreported crime in many societies, statistics of its prevalence vary widely. In a study conducted on 3187 college women, one in four of the women surveyed had been the victim of rape or attempted rape (Warshaw, 1988). Muehlenhard and Linton (1987) surveyed 341 college women, in another study, showed that fifteen percent of them reported that they had been forced to have intercourse against their will.

Study after study have demonstrated the vulnerability of young women to rape. Hall and Flannery(cited in Kershner, 1996) conducted a telephone survey of 508 Milwaukee adolescents in which 12% of the females and 2% of the males reported a sexual assault. Kershner (1996) also cited another study of 122 victims, 45 were between ages 12-14; the remaining 77 were ages 15- 17.

Numerous studies have investigated attitudes toward rape and belief in rape myths (for eg. Blumberg & Lester, 1991). Evaluation of adolescents' attitudes about rape reveals some illuminating findings. Ogletree, et al (cf. Kerhner, 1996) in their study noted that forced intercourse was considered acceptable by a significant number of both adolescent males and females in certain situations. In 1984 Malamuth (cited in Hopper, 2001)reported that in several studies an average of about 35% of male students indicated some likelihood of raping a woman. Beliefs in rape myths have also been found to be related to college men's likelihood of raping. Lynda, et al (1993) cited many studies that indicate men and women have been shown to differ dramatically in their perceptions of and attitudes toward rape, rapists and rape victims. Muehlenhard and Linton (1987) found that males being more likely to hold rape-tolerant attitudes and more likely to attribute blame to the victim than females. But the study of Lynda,et al (1993)found that men (versus women)are more likely to believe that sex is the

motivation for rape, while women (versus men) are more likely to believe that power is the motivation for rape.

Burt (1980) developed a scale to measure erroneous beliefs about rape. She found significant correlations between acceptance of rape myths & factors such as gender role traditionalism, conservative gender views and adversarial gender beliefs (e.g. women act in provocative ways that lead to rape, so rape is in part the fault of the victim). The studies suggest that at this time in history of our culture, a substantial percentage of the male population has some desire or proclivity to rape females.

Some studies have focused on the type of rape. Contrary to popular belief, the majority of rapes are not committed by strangers, but rather by acquaintances. Women are 4 times as likely to be raped by an acquaintance as by a stranger (Warshaw, 1988). The study found that 1 in 4 college women had been the victim of rape/attempted rape; the perpetrator was an acquaintance in 84% of the incidences and the aggressive acts occurred on dates in 57% of the cases. Studies investigating the differences between attitudes toward stranger and acquaintance rape have shown that people perceive the victim of an acquaintance rape as more responsible for the event than that of a stranger rape. In one study Lynda et al (1993) examined the relationship between college students' gender roles and attitudes towards rape. Subjects were 145 male and 374 female college students with a mean age, 20.1 years. The result indicated that participants classified as masculine believe in more rape myths, hold more pro-rape attitudes, and believe in more traditional gender roles than would those who were classified as feminine, androgynous, or undifferentiated. A gender by gender role interaction revealed that feminine and androgynous men were exceptions to the pattern that men had significantly less egalitarian views than women. Responses to the scenario questionnaire suggested that women and men view acquaintance rape differently, and that men may experience more attitude change as a result of a rape awareness workshop than women

Sexual Thoughts and Fantasies

Sexual thoughts and fantasy, a central aspect of human Sexual behavior, have long been of interest to sex researchers. Pelletier and Herold (1988) found that frequency of sexual fantasy has been correlated with more frequent and more varied experiences of sexuality. Robert (2000) cited the study of Moreault and Follingstad, revealed that sexual fantasy has been correlated with less sex guilt and more liberal attitudes about women's place in society.

Regarding the gender difference, research has consistently shown that men report having more frequent sexual fantasies in total than women (Leitenberg & Henning, 1995) and consistent data which suggests that on average women's sexual fantasies are more likely to involve an emotional connection with a particular partner, whereas men's fantasies are more focused on explicit sexual imagery, often without any romantic or emotional context (Leitenberg & Henning, 1995). In their study, Alfonso, et al (1992) found that among women, but not men, a greater frequency of sexual fantasy has been found to be associated with greater sexual satisfaction. The study of Fisher et al (1988) revealed that sexual frequency among women found to be more related to positive affective orientation toward sexuality, including greater erotophilia, less sex guilt, and less sex anxiety. However, the findings of Davidson and Hoffman (1986) and other researchers have not found the relationship between the frequency of sexual fantasy and these variables.

Previous research has found that a relation between sexual fantasy and day dreaming. Knafo and Jaffe, (1984) found that individuals who report a greater tendency toward nonsexual daydreaming also report experiencing sexual fantasies more often than individuals who report less of a tendency toward daydreaming. Similarly, the finding of Brannigan, Schaller, and McGarva (cf Renaud & Byers, 1993) revealed that individuals who respond in a more socially desirable manner reported significantly less sexual

daydreaming than do individuals who responded in a less socially desirable manner.

Based on conceptualizations of sexual fantasy as enjoyable and pleasant cognitions, one would expect sexual fantasy to be associated with positive affect, not negative affect. Renaud & Byers, (1999) found that items reflecting intimacy and sexual variety (e.g., having intercourse with a loved partner, making love elsewhere than the bedroom, kissing passionately) were among the most commonly experienced as positive by men and women. However, some research, (for eg. Cado & Leitenberg, 1990) has shown that some individuals appraise their sexual fantasies negatively and/or experience negative affect in response to their sexual fantasies. Gil (1990) found that 45% of a sample of 160 conservative Christians reported that they believed their fantasies were 'morally flawed or unacceptable'. Other studies have found that substantial minorities of individuals report feeling guilty or embarrassed about their sexual fantasies (Davidson & Hoffman, 1986).

Other aspects of sexuality have received more attention from researchers, is concerning content of sexual fantasies. It is assumed that women think about (and often aroused by) images of being coerced because they are more likely than men to have had such experiences. Fantasies of submission are common among women. Pelletier and Herold (1988) found that 51% of their female sample reported fantasies of being forced to submit sexually, and Knafo and Jaffe (1984) noted that the fantasy reported most frequently during intercourse for women was "I imagine that I am being overpowered or forced to surrender." Strassberg, and Locker (1998) studied in 137 college women. Results revealed that virtually every woman reported engaging in sexual fantasy on a regular basis. They also noted that more than half the subjects reported having engaged in a force fantasy and those reporting force fantasies scored as less sexually guilty and more erotophilic than those not reporting such fantasies. Those reporting force fantasies

also had more sexual experiences and engaged in more fantasizing of non force type than the other subjects.

In addition to self reported fantasies about the coersive sex, males who are sexually aggressive also are found to have a consistent amalgam of beliefs and attitude that at least support and perhaps foster their treatment. Burt (1980) for example, in his study found that males who behaves in a sexually coercive ways also are found to accept a variety of rape myths as factual.

The inconsistencies is reported regarding the studies on sexual frequency and in much of the research this may be due to poor operational definitions of sexual fantasy and serious methodological difficulties (Renaud & Byers, 2001).

Masturbation

Masturbation is one of the most prevalent sexual behaviors and is noted that a highly salient feature of sexuality for adolescent males. However, because masturbation is also one of the most sensitive behaviors for survey assessment it is rarely studied (Cantania, et al., 1990). Kinsey and his colleagues were among the first to investigate and report on masturbatory practices. Their survey reported that, 92% of males reported that they had masturbated (Kinsey, 1948). And 62% of females reported that they had masturbated (Kinsey, 1953).

Surveys of sexual behavior conducted in the United States have consistently found that a much higher percentage of men report that they masturbate than do women. This is true in general population samples (e.g., Kinsey et al., 1948, 1953), in college student samples and in younger adolescent samples (eg, Leitenberg, et al, 1993., Kinsey, 1948 & 1953). In U.S. studies, Gagnon (1985) found that, in early puberty, girls and boys typically have different experiences of sexual arousal. Most boys begin masturbating between the ages of 12 and 15, although some parents reported that their sons had experimented with masturbation during earlier childhood. Two studies found that girls are less likely to masturbate (Gagnon, 1985; Smith et al., 1996), and Gagnon (1985) reported that girls started later than boys, although Smith et al. (1996) found no significant difference in age.

In one survey (Michael, et al, 1994) found that approximately 705 of men in their late 20s masturbate, and more than 505 of women in their 30s masturbate. They also found that, in fact, women and men from their early adult years (18-24) through middle adult years (54-59) are more likely to masturbate than people in other age group. Oliver and Hyde (1993) found in their study using meta analysis of gender differences in sexual attitudes and behavior that largest gender difference was found in the incidence of masturbation. Leiteinbag, Detzer and Srebrik (1993) found a low base rate

event for women. Perhaps, Masters and Johnson (1982) acknowledge that women are more likely to have orgasm from masturbation.

In their survey, Schrof and Wagner (1994) they found that 60 percent of men and 40 percent of women masturbated in the past year. Another study of young people between 15 and 18 years of age in Australia, Smith et al. (1996) rates of masturbation, with 58.5% of young men and 42.7% of young women reporting that they had masturbated, and with 38.2% of young men reporting masturbating three or more times per week compared to only 8.7% of young women. Among couples living together, that increases to 85 percent of men and 45 percent of women. About 25 percent of men and 10 percent of woman masturbate at least once a week. But in males, masturbation after marriage occurred with reduced frequency.

There appears to be a dearth of studies exploring ethnicity or race and how these might impact on attitudes among young people. Shulman and Horne (2003), in one comparative study in the United States--between African American and European women aged 18 to 49—observed that they reported significantly different masturbatory prevalence of 51% compared to 69%, respectively. The frequency of masturbation was also significantly different, with African Americans reporting lower frequency; only 12% reporting seven times or more per month compared to 26% of European American women. Further, this study provided significant evidence that European American women who reported higher frequency of masturbation (seven to 10 times per month) had significantly more positive attitudes to discrete body parts compared with those European American women who reported only masturbating one to three times per month; however, this was not the case for African American women.

There have been few large-scale or nationally representative studies on masturbation, especially in developing countries. Quantitative analysis on Asian countries is particularly limited, with the few exceptions based largely on local or regional samples. Das et al. (2009) examined the prevalence and

sources of masturbatory practice in a nationally representative sample from China completed in the year 2000, with analysis of sources focused on 2,828 urban respondents aged 20–59. In this subpopulation, 13% (95% CI, 10–18) of women and 35% (CI, 26–44) of men reported any masturbation in the preceding year. Prevalence for people in their 20s was higher, and closer to US and European levels, especially for men.

Bockting and Coleman (2002) cited two studies that examine the influence of peer norms on masturbation. The first study by Clifford found no difference in masturbatory frequency between college women who believed they masturbated about as often as their peers and those who believed they masturbated either more or less often. In contrast the second study Greenberg found a significant positive relationship between college student's frequency of masturbation and their perception of frequency with which others masturbated.

With regard to the masturbation technique, Kinsey (1953) observed that masturbation techniques reported by females: 84% used clitoral and labial manipulation 20% used vaginal insertion 11% used breast stimulation 10% used thigh pressure 5% muscular tension 2% had fantasy alone to reach orgasm; and 11% used other techniques. Masturbation was the most important sexual outlet for single females and the second most important sexual outlet for married females.

Pleasure is another area that often is overlooked in the literature masturbation. Masturbation can be a source of both physical and psychological pleasure. Yet the role of pleasure in masturbation overlooked in research studies. Clifford (cited in Bockting and Coleman) interviewed 100 undergraduate women about their masturbation histories, techniques in masturbation, and the relationship of masturbation to intercourse. He found that masturbation had been practiced by 74%. It began most commonly as an accidental discovery. He found that 'physical pleasure' was the second most common reason. Learning the sexual nature of masturbation from peers and

written sources seemed to result in methods more imitative of heterosexual activities and to increase the enjoyment and goal-directedness of the behavior. Several techniques were related to orgasm ability in masturbation and intercourse. Women who were orgasmic in masturbation and who masturbated with that goal were more likely to continue the behavior than those with other goals. Frequency of masturbation and frequency of intercourse were not related. Masturbating to orgasm was not related to orgasm ability in intercourse.

There are many myths regarding the masturbatory practice and discussed since early years. Ellis and his contemporaries (cf. Schnarch, 1994) warned that in women excessive masturbation could lead to an aversion for coitus. It was so widely believed that masturbation led to moral and mental decay (Schnarch, 1994). The guilt factor exist because coital orgasm have come to be regarded as the norm. In one study to determine the degree of masturbatory guilt, if any, and its effects on the sexual responsiveness and sexual satisfaction of adult women Davison and Darling (1993) administered an anonymous questionnaire concerning self-perception of the female sexual response, to a sample of 868 female respondents. The 671 respondents who were the focus of this investigation had engaged in masturbation and revealed their guilt status regarding the practice. Those women who reported guilt feelings associated with masturbation were more likely to have negative feelings toward the practice and less likely to indicate positive physiological and psychological reactions after engaging in self-stimulation. Further, they were less likely to report sexual adjustment, physiological and psychological sexual satisfaction. The power of religious taboos is supported by Kinsey. He found that the incidence of masturbation was lowest in devout Roman Catholic and Protestants, while it was highest among religious inactives (The Kinsey institute).

In sum, all these studies suggest that social norms, perceived pleasure and sexual behaviour are important mediators of masturbation experience and frequency

Media and Pornography

During the past 3 decades researchers have continued to be concerned with how sex portrays in print, movie, television and internet. Sexual talk and displays are increasingly frequent and explicit in this mediated world. A content analysis by Reichert et al (cf. Lo & Wei, 2002) suggests that since the early 1980s, print advertisers have increased their use of sexually explicit images of both men and women. Numerous studies have examined the sexual content, such as articles in women's magazines and men's magazines. Brown et al (1993) studied adolescent girls' reactions to sexuality in women-oriented fashion magazines, concluding that girls risk being misinformed by these magazines, but that there is little consistency in their reactions to it. Although teen girls' and women's magazines have increased their coverage of sexual health issues over the past decade, the majority of advertising and editorial content in these magazines remains focused on what girls and women should do to get and keep their man (Brown, 2002).

It is evident that since the 1950s the presence of both nudity and sex in major motion pictures has risen dramatically (cf Lo & Wei, 2002). Abramson & Mechanic (cf Lo & Wei, 2002) noted that adolescents reported imitation of sex as they had seen in movies. Girls reported that they adopted the flirtatious postures of starlets and that after seeing a sexy movie. Boys, likewise, claimed that they learned how to kiss and make love from cinema, and some claimed to have been driven to rape.

The portrayal of sexuality on television has been of concern since the medium gained popularity. Furthermore, Buerkel-Rothfuss and Strouse (1993) reported that watching television laden with sexual activity, including soap operas as well as music television. Although the research in this area has been sparse, several findings do associate amount of TV viewing with

viewers' sexual attitudes, expectations, and behavior. For eg. Calfin, et al (1993) found that heavy regular consumption and experimental exposures to sexually-oriented genres have been related to expressing more liberal sexual attitudes. It was also noted that such people are being more accepting of sexual improprieties. Similarly, Fabes & Strouse (1987) conducted a study among adolescent girls and found that subjects who were more exposed to sexually oriented programs expressed more negative attitudes toward remaining a virgin. The result of the study also suggests that perceiving TV figures as sexual role models is associated with more permissive sexual attitudes, more extensive sexual experience

Stern and Handel (2001) in one qualitative study found three patterns of sexual media use among early adolescent girls (11-15 years old) that suggested that sexual portrayals in the media were attended to more when girls were interested personally in learning about relationship norms, strategies for establishing relationships, and tips on how to get sexually attractive. Some girls still found depictions of sex in the media (e.g., nudity in advertisements) "gross" and "disgusting," while other girls had papered their walls with images of media models they lusted after or aspired to be. Still other girls, typically those who had been involved in sexual relationships, were less enamored with the mainstream media's sexual fantasy and had turned to "oppositional" media (e.g., fringe music groups, teen-produced magazines, aka 'zines) that spoke more to the kinds of relationships they wanted.

Buerkel-Rothfuss and Strouse (1993) in their study found that females consume more sexually suggestive media (TV soap operas and pop music) than males. General media consumption was not a powerful predictor of permissiveness. Regression analyses revealed that Music Television consumption was the only media variable significantly associated with permissiveness for females. Self-esteem was positively associated with permissive attitudes and behavior for both males and females. Soap opera

consumption was significantly associated with permissive behavior for males but not for females. Sexual permissiveness for females was more significantly related to religiosity but less significantly related to self-esteem than for males. No important extraneous variable influences were found. Findings are discussed in terms of gender differences, the normative context hypothesis, social scripts, the double standard, the sexual revolution, and the cultivation hypothesis

Numerous studies have attempted regarding use of pornography. Traeen et al. (2002) analyzed use of pornographic material in a representative sample of adult Norwegians by means of a standardized questionnaire administered via personal telephone interviews. Among the 90% of participants who reported ever having examined pornography, 76% reported examining a pornographic magazine, 67% had watched a pornographic film, and 24% had examined pornography on the Internet. Significant gender differences emerged in the reporting. The percentage of men and women who reported frequent use of pornography was small.

The studies of Dines et al. and Lin and other researchers (cited in Lo, & Wei, 2002) indicate that women are less likely than men to consume frequently, to be less sexually aroused by, and to have less favourable attitudes toward pornography. Research conducted in Taiwan (Lo et al., 1999) also found that males had much higher levels of exposure to pornography than females. The study of Lottes, Weinberg, & Weller (1993) found that women are more negative and disapproving concerning pornography than are men. However, in his study, Senn, (cf. Clifford, 1993) noted that some evidence suggests that the reasons for women's negativity vary depending upon each woman's social and attitudinal characteristics.

But more recent studies (cited in Lo & Wei, 2002) found that gender was related to perceived effects of pornography on self and others. In their study, Lottes, Weinberg, and Weller (1993) found that more religious students

tended to endorse the views that sexually explicit materials are harmful, do not have positive effects, and should be restricted.

In a prospective survey of a diverse sample of early adolescents Brown and Engle (2009) observed that two-thirds (66%) of males and more than one-third (39%) of females had seen at least one form of sexually explicit media in the past year. At baseline, being black, being older, and having less-educated parents, lower socioeconomic status, and high need for sensation were related to greater exposure for both males and females. Longitudinal analyses showed that early exposure for males predicted less progressive gender role attitudes, more permissive sexual norms, sexual harassment perpetration, and having oral sex and sexual intercourse two years later. Early exposure for females predicted subsequently less progressive gender role attitudes, and having oral sex and sexual intercourse. Implications for healthy sexual socialization are discussed.

Wang and Davidson (2006) cited the study of Zheng who found that 70% of students learn about sex mostly from books and magazines, while only 7% gain knowledge from school sex education classes.

Another area of concern regarding the portrayal of sex is Internet. In one study examining specific behaviors and outcome expectations and expectancies (or attitudes) of a sample of 506 undergraduate students at a public university in Texas, Goodson, et al (2001) collected data through a self-administered questionnaire. Main results revealed that most students in the sample were infrequent and relatively new users of the Internet. Forty-three percent (43.5%) of students had sometime accessed sexually explicit materials through the Internet, but the practice was not very common. Only 2.9% said they accessed these materials 'frequently.' Male students were significantly more likely to have accessed the Internet for viewing sexually explicit materials and to claim curiosity about sex as their motivation for this behavior. In another study examining the use of Internet pornography by adolescents in Taiwan and the relationships between exposure and the sexual

attitudes and behavior, Lo & Wei, (2002) surveyed the teens. Results show that about 38% of the sample had some exposure to Internet pornography. Further, this exposure was associated with greater acceptance of sexual permissiveness and the greater likelihood of engaging in sexually permissive behavior. Most important, this exposure showed sustained relationships with sexually permissive attitudes and behavior when it was examined simultaneously with exposure to traditional pornography, general media use, and demographics. But in a national survey, Ybarra and Mitchell (2005) found that the use is up to 90% or more youth between 12 and 18 years have access to the Internet. The survey was among 1501 children and adolescents (ages 10-17 years). The self-reported data indicate that seekers of pornography, both online and offline, are significantly more likely to be male, with only 5% of self-identified seekers being female. The vast majority (87%) of youth who report looking for sexual images online are 14 years of age or older, when it is developmentally appropriate to be sexually curious. Children under the age of 14 who have intentionally looked at pornography are more likely to report traditional exposures, such as magazines or movies.

Previous empirical research on pornography suggests that pornography is produced and used primarily by men. Earlier studies found that women were more likely than men to associate pornographic materials with negative effects and also more likely to support restrictions on pornography (Thiessen, 1994). Bem (1974) noted that the research literature demonstrate that violent pornography promotes aggression against women. Donnerstein et al (cf. Davies, 1997) argued that violent pornography may promote negative attitudes towards women. But the relation between nonviolent pornography and aggressive responses is less clear. Strossen (1995) stresses that there is no consistent correlations between the availability of pornography in various countries, communities, and states and their rates of sexual offenses. He states that studies actually suggest an inverse relationship. Where there is a greater availability of pornographic material, there is a greater amount of gender equality.

In sum, the existing studies of the selection, interpretation, and application of sexual content in the media suggest that the mass media and can affect awareness of, beliefs about, and possibly actual sexual behavior. More research is needed to say more precisely with which audiences, under what circumstances, and with which content effects occur.

Sex guilt

Sex guilt was also related to sexual philosophy such that liberal sexual philosophies tended to positively correlate with less sex guilt. Gerrard (1980) found that The Mosher Sex Guilt Scale was related to a number of sexual behaviors and attitudes in 47 sexually active and 72 sexually inactive female college students. Sexually inactive subjects were found to have significantly higher sex guilt than sexually active students. The results also replicated previous findings of a relationship between sex guilt and religious affiliation and sexual experience. The data indicate significant relationships between sex guilt and attitudes toward abortion and premarital sex.

In one study, Propper and Brown (1986) studied forty-eight female college students to assess the relationship between sex guilt, moral reasoning, and perceived parental sex attitudes. Analysis indicated that Stage 4 moral reasoners had significantly higher sex guilt scores than Stage 5 reasoners. There was also a significant interaction effect between moral reasoning and perceived parental sex attitudes with respect to sex guilt, with Stage 5 reasoners from permissive family backgrounds having very low levels of guilt. The findings suggested that there is an overall negative relationship between sex guilt and moral reasoning.

In another study, investigating the effects of sex education on college students with respect to their sex information, sexual attitudes, sexual guilt, and sexual behaviours, Gnderson and Leslie (1980) administered a sex questionnaire to 156 college students on two separate occasions, once at the beginning and once at the end of a course in human sexuality. They found that sex education has many positive effects such as reduction of sexual guilt,

inhibitions, and the double standard, maintaining the traditional values of love and fidelity, and providing a healthier, more comfortable and responsible attitude toward sex.

Romantic Relations

There are many studies that aimed to examining the sequence of early sexual activity has in dating relationship. In one study, Brooke, Balka, Abernathy and Hamburg (cf. Paul et al, 2001) examined the sequence of sexual behavior of 695 African American and 637 Puerto Rican adolescents. Analyses indicated that adolescents proceed through four stages of sexual behavior: normal involvement, then deep kissing, then petting, and, finally, sexual intercourse.

In a survey of 191 college undergraduates conducted by Browning et al (1999), it was found that love, pleasure, conformity and recognition motives, often in interaction with gender, were all important predictors of sexual behavior in dating. Gender was the best predictor of initiating usual sexual behavior, whereas the love motive was the best predictor of actually engaging in usual sexual behavior. Pleasure and Recognition in interaction with gender were the best predictors of engaging in unusual sexual behavior. None of the sexual motives predicted initiating unusual sexual behavior. Findings suggest that a variety of sexual motives may underlie sexual behavior.

In a study of 480 females, Herold and Goodwin (1981) found that dating commitment and dating frequency were among the variables that had a significant effect on the so-called virginity status. Dating commitment was the second most effective variable in predicting virginity status following parental acceptance of premarital intercourse, followed by religiosity. Barber et. al. (2000) found that dating frequency predicted the timing of first intercourse together with the marital status of participants' parents. Investigating data from 54 white, monogamously dating undergraduate couples, Christopher and Cate (1988) found that the influence of love increased with developing emotional interdependence in a relationship in predicting sexual intimacy.

An extensive literature has documented the existence of coercive sexual behavior in undergraduate college/university students. These studies have revealed that a high rate of coerciveness exists within everyday dating situations and that the behavior exists along a continuum from unwanted touching through to forced intercourse (Patton, & Mannison, 1995).

Many studies have considered the link between parent's characteristics and adolescent dating behavior. Kulka and Weingarton ([cited in Browning, et al. 1999](#)) examined the national survey conducted in 1957 compared respondents from intact and divorced families of origin. Other studies conducted with adolescents have supported the idea that absence of father, especially as result of divorce, is related to early dating behaviour. Power has been recognized as an important variable in the study of romantic relationships and few studies have examined associations between power and sexual behavior even though many factors have been found to predict sexual behavior in young adults, including relational, social and individual variables. Blumstein and Schwanz (1983) found that the more powerful partner was more likely to refuse sex. Kalof (1995) found that, among adolescents, social power (defined as confidence with the opposite sex, popularity, opposite sex friends, and egalitarian gender role attitudes) was indirectly associated with less sexual behavior. These studies suggest various relationships between power and sex.

Sex Knowledge and Education

Many studies have attempted to reveal the lack of adequate knowledge about sexual and reproductive health among adolescents. For eg. in a study conducted by Barnett (1997), surveyed about 500 students 11-14 years old and found that only 27% of girls and 32% of boys knew that getting pregnant during the first intercourse was possible. Similar lack of accurate information was found in other regions among young people. In India 80% of 100 girls seeking abortion did not know that sexual intercourse could lead to pregnancy or STDs and 90% did not know about contraception. Among 370 Russian

high school students surveyed, only 25% of the girls and 35% of the boys knew that condoms were intended for only a single occasion of use.

Though medical students study anatomy and physiology of sexual organs and other related issue on sexuality, the study conducted by Zhou, et al (1998) shows that their sexual knowledge is neither complete nor correct. This study evaluated the current knowledge of sexual behavior, physiology, and attitudes 422 medical students at a conservative campus in China. Results showed that to questions concerning human sexual life, 80.7% gave correct answers, while 1.7% regarded sex as dirty. In addition, the relationship between the menstrual period and contraception was almost unknown and information on sexually transmitted diseases like AIDS was poor.

Robert (2000) had reported a close positive relationship between sex myths and sex guilt, that is people with high sex myths have been found to show guilt about sex in them. In a study among Pakistani young men, Qidwai (1999) found a high prevalence of misconceptions and guilt associated with both masturbation and nocturnal emissions. 31.4% and 62.8% of the respondents reported association of physical illness and weakness with masturbation. Association of guilt with masturbation and nocturnal emissions was 68.6% and 32% respectively. The result also shows the association of demographic variables with these prevalence figures.

Misinformation about sexuality tends to develop faulty expectations in the persons as to what normal sexual behaviour should be (Kumar, 1995). In their study, Zhou, et al (1998) noted that for adolescents, there was no formal sex education available except from sources such as magazines or booklets (59%) and from movies or radio (25%), limited parental knowledge (3.4%), and school (12%). In a related study, they also found that parents who give sexual information are those also who tend to have a more accepting and open attitude towards sexuality. In contrast, parents who are confirmed or anxious about their childrens' emerging sexuality may suppress or punish sexual expression or at best, ignore it.

The evaluation of sex education among young adults shows that formal sex education programs can increase the knowledge of reproductive health. Sexual education programs in schools have generally had positive effects on adolescent sexual knowledge (Melchert & Burnett, 1990), but have also been found not to influence adolescents' sexual attitudes or behaviors. Similarly, one study reported that neither the presence nor absence of contraceptive education in a sample of high school students was correlated with the students' contraceptive behaviors.

Sex and Personality

Sexuality is an important component of personal relationship. Few studies have examined the relationship between personality and sexuality. An early effort was that of Eysenck (1976) using his P-E-N (Psychotism, Extroversion and Neurotism) model of personality. He reported that women who had high neurotism score (characterized by anxiety, guilt, and self-consciousness) had less self-reported sexual experience, and individual especially high on Extraversion (characterized by confidence, sociability and excitement seeking) were more sexually experienced. In another study of Check and Guloein (cited in Fisher and Barak, 2001) reported that pornography use predicted rape activity for scoring high in Eysenck's psychotism.

In one study, Costa et al (cf. Anderson & Cyranowski, 1999) administered the DSFI and NEO personality inventory to 450 adults seeking treatment at a sexual dysfunction clinic. Among the female patients, Neurotism was correlated with lower levels of sexual information and poorer body images. Extraversion was correlated with more frequent fantasizing, and Openness, the most important dimension, was associated with less information and sexual experience, a negative body image and lower sexual satisfaction. Extraversion, in contrast, had positive affects across dimensions in terms of sexual experience, drive, body image and satisfaction. Openness

had similar positive effects and was also correlates with higher levels of sexual information.

Heaven et al (1999) assessed the relationships between the Big Five personality domains, attitudes to sex, and three specific sexual behaviours. Respondents were 123 undergraduate students (51 males; 72 females). Men were found to score significantly higher than women on measures of sexual curiosity and sexual excitement, while women were higher on sexual satisfaction. Neuroticism (N) and Extraversion (E) appeared to be the most important predictors of attitudes to sex, although Conscientiousness (C) and Openness to experience (O) were also implicated. N, C, and Agreeableness (A) were implicated in sexual behaviours. Some suggestions for future research are made.

In one study, Bancroft et al (2004) examined the relationship of three aspects of personality to sexual risk-taking in gay men: (1) sexual arousability, as propensity for sexual excitation, and propensity for inhibition of sexual arousal in the face of threat (measured by the Sexual Excitation, SES, and Sexual Inhibition, SIS1, SIS2, scales); (2) the relation between negative mood and sexuality; and (3) sensation seeking. Risk-taking was assessed for the past 6 months. Two patterns of association were identified. UAI and high risk oral sex were more likely in those with low inhibition of sexual response due to "threat of performance consequences" (i.e., low SIS2) and low trait anxiety (low STAI). High numbers of casual partners and frequent cruising were associated with increased sexual interest in states of depression and high propensity for sexual excitation (SES). Higher "long-term risk" was also associated with low SIS2. Unexpectedly, high SIS1, which is strongly related to vulnerability to erectile failure, was also predictive of higher long-term risk.

But regarding the personality correlates of deviant sexual thought, Williams et al (2001) in their study noted that the only significant personality

correlate was neuroticism. He commented that for neurotic individuals, sexually deviant thoughts may be intrusive and unwanted.

More limited evidence showed a relationship with impulsivity and agreeableness. Another study by Costa found that association between agreeableness and sexual risk taking behavior. It is found that a negative association between conscientiousness and sexual risk taking, particularly in protected sex. Regarding Openness to experience, a weak correlation with risky sexual behavior such as sex with strangers and with different partners was also noted. A more recent paper(Herbst, Masters, & Costa, 2002) reported an association between high neuroticism, low conscientiousness, low agreeableness, and HIV risk behaviors.

In one study exploring how personality characteristics are associated with socio-sexuality (ie, individual differences in willingness to engage in sex outside the context of a committed relationship), Wright and Reise (1997) studied a sample of 350 Asian and Caucasian college students. The result indicated that regardless of ethnicity, extroversion, low agreeableness, and erotophilia were direct predictors of unrestricted socio-sexuality. Further more openness was an indirect predictor of socio-sexuality through its association with erotophilila.

Heaven et al (2000) assessed the relationship between the Big five personality domains, attitudes to sex, and three specific sexual behaviors. Respondents were 123 undergraduate students (51 males and 72 females). Men were found to score significantly higher than women on measures of sexual curiosity and sexual excitement, while women were higher on sexual satisfaction. Neurotism (N) and Extraversion (E) appeared to be the most important predictors of attitudes to sex, although conscientiousness and openness to experience were also implicated in sexual behavior.

Smith et al (2001) argued that existing research on the relationship between exual behaviour and Five Factor Model of personality has found weak and inconsistent relationship.

The roles of Big Five personality traits (ie, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neurotism, and Openness to experience) as well as the 'Dark triad' of personality (ie, sub-clinical narcissism, Machiavellianism, and sub clinical psychopathy) in their relationship to deviant sexual thoughts and behaviours were studied by Williams et al (2001). They also tested relationship between pornography use and deviant sexual behaviour. Result indicated that psychopathy were the two main correlates of deviant sexual thoughts, where as subclinical narcissism and subclinical psychopathy correlated with deviant sexual behaviours. Furthermore analysis revealed that subclinical psychopathy moderated the relationship between pornography use and deviant sexual behaviours. That is pornography use was associated with high levels of deviant sexual behaviours.

In one study explore the relationship between male sexual behaviour and personality factors, measured by the MMPI and sensation seeking Scale. Subjects were 20 males ages 19-58. They were instructed to keep a daily record of sexual behaviors. Frequency of these behaviors was correlated with MMPI and sensation seeking subscales. Results indicated that both introversion and depression show significant correlation with autoerotic stimulation and arousal, but not with heterosexual activity. There is no significant correlation demonstrated between hypomania and sexual activity. The Boredom susceptibility subscale correlated significant with the number of partners (Husted & Allan, 1976).

Despite the importance, there has been relatively little research on relationship between the individual difference in every day sexual behaviour and individual difference in personality. In a study by Smith et al, (2001) examining the relationship between peoples' daily sexual behaviour and a measure of sexual personality (the Sexy Seven). The finding revealed that aspects of sexy seven were correlated to both positive (eg. feeling desired) and negative reaction (feeling guilty) to sexual experiences. Sexy seven was related more strongly to reactions to sexual experiences.

Some researchers have focused why people ignore the dangers in some risky sexual behaviour. Researchers (cited in Dittman, 2002) examined sexual risk-taking in more than 1, 500 men through a two-year study. The study shows that personality traits- such as sensation-seeking, sexual inhibition and excitation, mood, and assertiveness- play a role in decisions to take risks. In the study, men with high sensation-seeking scores or depression were more likely to participate in risky behavior. In their study, Pinkerton and Abramson (1995) showed that risk related dimensions of personality such as sensation seeking as a significant influence on the decision to enact a sexual behavior because of their effect on peoples' tolerance of risks and the value they place on sexual activities they place at risk.

A number of studies have been attempted to examine the association between sensation-seeking behaviour and sexual activities. Hoyle et al (2000) carried out a meta-analysis of studies that related personality factors to sexual risk taking. They found 52 such studies, 75% of which had been published since 1990. All, but a few studies involved heterosexual men and women. In 64% of studies, sensation seeking was one of the personality factors studied. Consistent evidence supported a relationship between sensation seeking and all the aspects of sexual risk taking covered by the meta-analysis, i.e., number of partners, unprotected sex, and high-risk sexual encounters, such as with a stranger. In his study, Walsh (Cf. Allison, 2000) found that sensation-seeking behaviour is associated positively with a range of sexual activities including the number of sex partners. Zuckerman et al (Allison, 2000) in their study found an association between sensation seeking and sexual impulsivity.

Weaver and Clum (1993) assessed childhood trauma experiences (e.g., sexual abuse, physical abuse, witnessed violence, and early separation experiences) and family environment characteristics were assessed with a questionnaire from a sample of depressed female inpatients; 17 were diagnosed as having borderline personality disorder (BPD), and 19 received no such diagnosis (NBPD). Significantly more BPD individuals than NBPD

individuals reported histories of sexual abuse. Of these trauma variables, they found that, sexual abuse emerged as the only significant predictor of dimensional BPD score.

Vanwesenbeeck (2001) cited the finding of Janssen and Bancroft, evidenced that the effects of exposure to sexually explicit materials on sexual arousal are mediated by the way the stimuli are given meaning in connection to personality aspects such as inhibition or excitation proneness among men. The research of Bogaert (2001) suggests that antisocial personality characteristics will encourage some individuals to seek out antisocial sexually explicit materials from among those available on the Internet.

In a study, Abramson et al (1977) examined the relationship between sex guilt, hostility and morality-conscience guilt. They found no significant correlation on the issue of personality and its relation to sexuality. However they did find evidence to partially support Trivedi and Sabini's finding that self-monitoring is related to masturbation and sexual behaviour. That explicit sexual behaviour and rates of masturbation of male subjects were positively correlated with self-monitoring, although not to a level of significance. Sexual behaviour of the female subjects did not correlate with self-monitoring at all. Subjects who masturbated revealed their guilt status regarding the practise. Subjects report guilty feelings associated with masturbation were more likely to have negative feelings towards the practise and less likely to indicate positive physiological and psychological reactions after engaging in self stimulation.

The relation between mood and sexuality has been researched to a very limited extent. One study among the adolescents conducted by Black et al (cf. Bancroft, 2002) evidenced of co morbidity between compulsive sexual behavior or 'sexual addictions' and mood disorders.

Self-esteem is another factor which may influence on adolescent sexual behavior. One study conducted by Falaye and Ajayi (2002), among 384 randomly selected Nigerian adolescents aimed at investigating the influence

of some identified psychological variables (viz: self esteem, personality trait, academic achievement) on the sexual behaviour. Findings revealed that self esteem, academic achievement motivation and personality traits (extraversion- introversion) as psychological variables significantly affect the sexual behaviour of Nigerian adolescents. There were significant influence of adolescent self esteem, academic achievement motivation and personality traits on the sexual behaviour.

In another study, Miller, Christensen, & Olson, (cited in Werner-Wilson, 1998) found that self-esteem influences adolescent sexual behavior, but is related through sexual attitudes. For example, self-esteem is positively related to sexual intercourse for adolescents who believe that intercourse is always right, but negatively related for those who believe it is wrong.

Indian Studies

Till very recently little was known about the sexual attitudes and behaviour of Indian women and men and very few studies had been conducted. Mane and Maitra (cf.Reddy, 1983) have rightly inferred that ‘relatively little is known about the sexual behavior and attitude towards different aspect and forms of sexual activity in India’. Whatever little we happen to know about sex is in bits and piece through sources like friends, acquaintances and cheap sex books (Kumar, 1993). There is a lack of data on the sexual behavior of the Indian population, especially adolescents. Most research, to date, has been clinical and has been concentrated on at-risk populations-commercial sex workers, sexually transmitted disease (STD) clinic patients, intravenous drug users, and commercial blood donors. Very few researchers have explored sexual behaviors, attitudes, and knowledge of Indian adolescents. (for eg. Bollinger, et al, 1995; Jain et al, 1994). A critical review of these studies is presented here.

Sexual Behaviour and Attitude

In order to understand sexual attitude, behavior and misconception regarding sexuality, Ghule (2007) quantitative data were collected among 1,500 rural college students (800 male and 700 female) in the age group 15–24 years in the Thane district of Maharashtra, India, during 2004. The results clearly showed that the majority of the students in the study expressed conservative attitudes towards premarital sexuality. Many students not only disagreed with casual sex but also considered it immoral. Gender bias i.e. permitting premarital sex for males and not for females, was reflected in their attitudes to some extent. Mean score indicated that male students had higher mean scores compared with their female counterparts and senior students compared with junior students, indicating more liberal attitudes towards sexuality. Bivariate analysis showed positive association between age; peer interaction; erotic exposure; habits of gutaka, tobacco, smoking and alcohol

consumption; and knowledge about reproductive health issues with attitudes towards various sexuality issues.

In one study among college students, Bhalerao (1980) found that only 18% of respondents felt that there was nothing wrong in having premarital sex. The others strongly condemned it. This is in contrast to what is observed in the affluent western nations and may be related to the cultural background of the population studied. From among the various colleges, the School of Arts had significantly higher number of permissive students. Only 23% of women were classified as liberals as against 45% of men. Thus, men were significantly more liberal than females, and the College of Women seemed to have 80.5% conservatives. In general, there was no significant correlation between their being permissive and their attitude towards the religion. The survey shows that an overwhelming number of students (95.3%) feel that sex education should form a part of their curriculum.

Reddy (1983) cited many studies on different aspects of sexual behavior in Indian context. Kakar and Chowdhary (1970) examined some aspects of sexual behavior among young men prior marriage, they found that lack of adequate information and opportunities prompted young people to turn to literature often pornographic, to experimentation with prostitute, friends, or relatives of the opposite or same sex member, covert observation of sexual activities of others and to masturbation.

The findings of various surveys consistently contradict the commonly held perception that premarital sex in India, particularly among students, is rare (Aggerwal et al., 2000). A study conducted by the National Institute of Health and Family Welfare and India's health ministry, surveyed premarital sexuality among school and college students aged 15-24 years living in slums in Delhi and Lucknow. The result concludes that a quarter to a third of India's young people indulge in premarital sex. Premarital sex was more common in Lucknow than in Delhi. Reddy and his colleagues (1983) in study of young people found that the sample youth had their first sexual experience between

the ages of 15 and 24 years. Sharma (1995) reported that over 90% of sexually active rural adolescents in Gujarat, between 5% and 10 % of them had been sexually active by age 16. Similarly Savara and Sridhar (1992) showed that among the respondents, 41 percent of unmarried men and 33 percent of married men had their first intercourse before attaining 20 years.

In another study, Savara and Sridhar (1994) reported that roughly one in five unmarried adolescents boys has engaged in sexual relations. The rates are reported among school and college students. Arunkumar (1996) cited two surveys findings available for the premarital sexual experience of female students, report that 6% among college students in Delhi and 48% among students in Chennai. He argued that difference concerned to the figures may be due to sampling bias of Chennai sample.

Result of a survey by Abraham and Kumar (1999) conducted among 966 low income college students in metropolitan Mumbai to identify levels of sexual behavior shows that 47% of male participants and 13% of female respondents had any sexual experience with a member of the opposite sex; 26% and 35% respectively, had intercourse. Individual level characteristics such as age and personal income had modest effects on students' sexual behavior and family level income variable had no significant effects. The strongest predictors of sexual behavior were student, knowledge about sexually related issues, attitude towards sex and levels of social interaction and exposure to erotic materials. However the results differed for young men and women and the effects of knowledge was inconsistent.

Some studies reported the sexual act with person other than the spouse is very much prevalent in the society. For eg. Bhattacharjee et al (2000) conducted a study among the teachers of senior secondary schools of a city in Rajasthan. The result revealed that one third of unmarried and one fifth of married males had experienced pre-marital sex. The same for unmarried and married females was 11.8 per cent and 1.5 per cent, respectively. The prevalence of extra-marital heterosexual act among married males was 15.5

per cent. One out of ten married males reported to have had both pre- and extra-marital sex. A male having pre-marital sex was 15 times more likely to have extra-marital sex. Friends, acquaintances and relatives were the important sexual partners while role of commercial sex workers was negligible.

Regarding the homosexual practice, Parasuram (1992) noted that about two fifths of them had a homosexual experience with one or two persons. In their homosexual acts, only 21 percent of them had used condoms. Ahmed (1992) in his study of truck drivers found that 15 percent of them admitted previous homosexual experience. In a study of young people, Reddy and his colleagues (1983) found that 38 percentage of women in the sample reported that their first sexual activity had been with a partner of the same sex.

Several studies conducted found that many Indian adolescents particularly males are sexually active and are likely to indulge in unsafe sexual activities making them vulnerable to STDs including HIV infection. In one study aimed to understand the sexual lifestyle of long distance lorry drivers in India, Rao et al (1999) surveyed the Sexual behaviour of 5709 long distance lorry driver. The result shows that 87% of subjects (4949 men) were sexually promiscuous, of whom only 11% (563) used condoms during commercial sex. The percentage using condoms decreased with increasing age. In the 21-30 age group, 78% of unmarried sexually promiscuous men reported having 31-60 sexual partners during the past 12 months. Only 29 of the 40 married men aged under 21 reported having sex daily. A significantly higher proportion of men over 40, compared with men under 21, were sexually promiscuous. The study also suggested that the long distance lorry drivers are crucial in spreading sexually transmitted diseases and HIV infection. They found that drivers aged over 40 were highly vulnerable and the potential for transmission of sexual diseases.

Regarding the attitude, The family Planning foundation of India undertook a study in 1990, one fourth of them expressed their acceptance of

premarital sexual contacts, 'if the boy and girl were actually in love'. Behavioral data collected from female students confirm the finding from attitudinal data more conservative than male students regarding premarital sex. It was observed that females students seem to rejecting traditional Indian repressive sexual standard of pre-marital and non-procreative sex and the gender difference are beginning to narrow. In the study of Sachdev (1998), examining student attitudes, knowledge, and sexual behavior in India, findings indicate that 58% of women and 79.1% of men viewed intimate or casual sexual relations as acceptable before marriage. Only 32.1% supported the chastity of women. Women were more sexually conservative than men in sexual attitudes and sexual behavior. 39.3% of males and 20.4% of females had engaged in premarital sex. About 50% of males and females approved of parents allowing their daughters as much sexual freedom as their sons. Females found premarital sex slightly more acceptable for a man than for a woman. Males supported premarital sex equally for men or women. 61.7% of men and 40.6% of women regarded love as the key to satisfying sexual relations. 50.4% of males and 38.6% of females accepted masturbation as healthy. 72.2% of females and 57.6% of males agreed that extramarital relations were almost always harmful to a marriage.

A survey (Sex Education Counseling Research Training and Therapy Department, 1988) of 3, 850 unmarried urban young men and women (15- to 29-year-olds) revealed no significant differences across regions in the attitudes of the young people regarding marriage and Sex. Liberal attitudes toward sexual behavior were found among both young men and women who were looking for equality in marriage. Most desired to stay in a 'joint or extended family' and 'arranged marriages (parents help in the selection of the significant others)' with some modifications, were still preferred by 60% of the sample. However, they also expressed the need to break away from tradition and marry out of their caste or religion. These findings indicate that there may be much ambiguity between the attitudes they hold and the behavior that they actually select (cf. Tikoo, 1997).

In a review of the most recent research on adolescent sexual activity, White and DeBlasie (1992) noted that a number of factors were associated with sexual attitudes and behavior of unmarried youths. These included age, gender, religion, coming from a broken or intact home, parental communication and discipline, sibling constellation, peer relationships, social policy, and a variety of personality traits.

Sexual Knowledge

Little is known about the knowledge, attitude, and sexual behaviour of adolescents. In one Indian study, conducted by Aggarwal and Sharma (2000) among adolescents, the result showed that knowledge regarding sexual intercourse, masturbation, contraception and STDs was satisfactory among 70%, 74.8%, 83.5%, and 92.6% of the respondents. Common source of knowledge about sex were friends (74.5%), pornographic films(56.2%), and books and magazines (55.1%). Only one fifth would communicate with teachers, parents and person of other gender about sex. Jayaji Krishna (cited in Reddy, 1983) noted that, in India the important informal source of sexual information for the child are peer group influence, teachers, books, movies, magazines and siblings. For the boys, the main sources of information on the topics of sex were peers, blue films, mass media campaigns and advertisements. For girls, the main sources were peers. Savara and Sridhar (1992) have noted that parents and teachers act as a source of providing sex knowledge is only 16.30% of urban, educated Indian men.

In a cross-sectional community based study conducted on 120 male adolescents in 2001 in an Urban slum community in Mumbai, Patil et al (2002) observed that 87.5% of the respondents had received information about sex and sexuality from their peers and older friends. Nocturnal emissions and masturbation were the major health concerns for 40% of those interviewed; 7.5% were sexually active.

Two thirds (1, 365) of the sample surveyed by Pathak (1994) indicated that AIDS and other STDs do not seem to be a concern for this generation In

another survey conducted by Tikoo et al. (cited in Tikoo, 1997), it was revealed that Indian adolescents have limited knowledge about human sexuality and AIDS. Males scored higher than female on both knowledge and AIDS scale. Boys were more knowledgeable than girls, with knowledge levels increasing by grades.

Aggarwal and Kumar (1996) conducted one study aimed to assess the existing level of knowledge of school children of 9th and 10th classes about Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) concluded that there were significant differences in knowledge among rural-urban and male-female students. The general level of knowledge regarding anatomy, physiology, contraception and STDs among the students was very low resulting in various myths and misconceptions. Although overall knowledge levels were low, very striking gender differences were observed. Girls were poorly informed about both the male and female anatomy, conception and contraception. In his study Sachdev (1998) found that 60.7% of students correctly identified only 33% or less of the sexual anatomy and functioning knowledge questions; only 8.2% answered over 50% correctly. Males and females were equally uninformed. Interestingly, it was found that male students showing better understanding of female sexuality than about their own sexuality. The female students, as expected, shown better understanding of their own sexuality than about male sexuality.

The general level of knowledge regarding anatomy, physiology, contraception and STDs among the students was very low resulting in various myths and misconceptions. Among Indian adolescents, some wrong beliefs myth related to sexuality are prevalent. Kumar (1996) noted that men consider wet dreams, masturbation, early ejaculation, sexual weakness and other semen-related issues as serious sexual health problems. Suppression of sexual desire was one of the major causes perceived by men for wet dreams, whereas

masturbation was seen as the major cause for perceived early ejaculation and distortion in the shape of penis. Excessive loss of semen in any form, including through masturbation and frequent intercourse, was seen as causing most sexual health problems. These beliefs impact on subsequent behaviour.

Porter (1993) surveyed 153 English-speaking adults in Calcutta regarding their knowledge and attitudes about AIDS. The group was select in the sense that 60% had attended college, and 87% of the men and 99% of the women had heard about AIDS. Misconceptions existed, and both men and women lacked specific knowledge about AIDS. Mere awareness of the disease is not a precursor to an understanding about modes of transmission and symptoms of the disease. Even though 93% of the sample was aware of AIDS, they were ignorant about its symptoms, and prejudices against people with AIDS were omnipresent. Related to this finding, the result of the study undertaken by The family Planning foundation of India in 1990 revealed that a good number of respondents were aware of at least one contraceptive method, they had very little precise knowledge. Barnett (1997) found that in India 80% of 100 girls seeking abortion did not know that sexual intercourse could lead to pregnancy or STDs and 90% did not know about contraception. The findings regarding the association between knowledge and sexual experience are specifically interesting. The current analysis showed statistically significant association between knowledge and sexual behavior. However, knowledge exhibits an inconsistent relation with sexual experience indicating that higher levels of knowledge need not necessarily lead to increases premarital sex. In summary, the results of the above studies seem to indicate that adolescents have some basic information about sex-related issues (e.g., that the pill and condom are forms of birth control). Information about more complex physiological processes such as menstruation and how birth control works is lacking. Gender differences do exist.

Studies in Kerala

Kerala is a linguistic division of India. Not many studies are currently available which unmask the sexual behavior in Keralites. It can be assumed the sexual behavior will not be so much different from other parts of India (Arunkumar, 1996). In a study conducted by university health centre, University of Kerala Thiruvananthapuram (1996) found that 17% of male and 10.7% of female students having love affair had sexual intercourse with their partners. Among the total of 1743 students from various colleges under Kerala university, 16.5% of the male students and 2.7% of the female students had sexual intercourse with outsiders. 9.7% of the male students and 1.2% of the female students had reported to have homosexual experience.

In another study conducted among 125 randomly selected people of both sexes, in a sub-urban area of Thiruvananthapuram (Jayasree, 1996) display the following observations. 62.4% of the study population reported that they know people having extra marital sexual relationships, and 56.8% of samples know people having premarital sex. In both cases reported, number of partners ranged from 1 to 10. Regarding the first intercourse of the study population, 29% of the sample revealed that they had sex with a person, other than the spouse, i.e. relatives, friend, commercial sex workers or domestic servants. All of them were males. 8.9% of the male had their first sexual intercourse before 15 years of age. 24.5% of males and 32.8% of females had it before the age of 20 years. 14% of the women reported that, their husbands have extra marital sex and 115 of the women told that their husband had premarital sexual relations. 51.1% of the male and 7.6% of the female subjects, during their life period, report having more than one partner. 69.6% of the men and 9.2% of the women masturbate. Majority of the sample never adhered their sexual problems, fears and thoughts with others, the figures being 44.8% (male) and 57.8% (female).

The same study uncovers some interesting remarks on condom use. Only 39.9% people used condoms; and of this, majority (81.8%) uses it as a method of contraception. 60.4% of the people never used condoms in their

sexual acts. The main reason for not using condom is: do not feel (71.6%), do not like (10.4%), spouse does not like (10.4%). Considering the behavior of unmarried male sample, only 3.6% said they never had an experience orgasm, which also suggest majority of unmarried, male samples had experienced some or other kind of sexual acts in life. 96.36% of them masturbated and achieved orgasm from it. One third of the unmarried male subjects (34.55) disclosed that they felt attracted to towards another male, while 27.27% said they enjoyed homosexual acts and had had intense deep homosexual experience. Interestingly 21.82% of the unmarried male subjects prefer homosexual relationships. However it also suggest that 28.57% of the unmarried female had engaged in some or other kind of sexual acts in life. 30.16% said that they had masturbated and 28.57% reported of achieving orgasm form it. 7.94% of them reported to have had attraction toward another female, 4.76% said they enjoyed homosexual acts and 3.17% had intense and deep homosexual experience, but none of them prefer homosexual relationship.

The findings of various surveys, consistently contradict the commonly held perception that pre-marital sex among students is rare.

In one study Lal et al (2000) assessed the knowledge of and attitude towards AIDS, sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) and sexuality among college students in Thiruvananthapuram district, Kerala, found that all the students in the sample had heard about AIDS. However, only 45% knew that AIDS is not curable at present. Only 34% were aware of the symptoms of STDs, and 47% knew that STDs are associated with an increased risk of AIDS. Male students and urban residents demonstrated a higher knowledge of AIDS and STDs. Students from urban areas and those practicing the Christian religion demonstrated more favorable attitudes towards AIDS.

Unni (2010) conducted one study in seven private co-educational English-medium schools in Cochin to understand adolescent attitudes in this part of the country. Queries submitted by students (n=10660) and responses to

separate pretested questionnaires for boys (n=886 received) and girls (n=589 received) were analysed. The study showed a lacuna of knowledge among adolescents with the most frequently asked queries being on masturbation, and sex and sexuality. More than 50% of adolescents received information on sex and sexuality from peers; boys had started masturbating by 12yr age and 93% were doing so by 15yr age. Although 73% of girls were told about menstruation by their parents, 32% were not aware, at menarche, that such an event would occur and only 8% were aware of all aspects of maintaining menstrual hygiene. 19% of boys succumbed to peer pressure into reading/viewing pornography; more than 50% of adolescents admitted to having had an infatuation around 13 yrs of age or after. 13% of boys admitted to having been initiated into smoking by friends; mostly between 14-16yrs age; 6.5% boys had consumed alcohol with peers or at family functions, starting between ages of 15 to 17yrs. Though >70% of adolescents were aware about AIDS, adequate knowledge about its spread and prevention was lacking.

The review can be concluded with the inference that knowledge about human sexual behaviour is fast increasing despite the contradictory nature of findings. The growing literature on sexuality shows that sexuality is a complex concept as it encompasses not only the biological and psychological, but also the social and cultural dimensions. Studies reviewed so far are done mostly in the Western culture. However the cross-cultural similarities found in these studies reveal the universality of behavioural phenomena. Scholars have pointed out that many societies around the world share common normative attitudes toward sex, including the incest taboo, condemnation of adultery, and a general concern for regulating sexuality, particularly outside wedlock (Widmer et al, 1998). The studies reviewed above are of high relevance to the present investigation.

The literature assisted in clarifying factors influencing of sexual behaviour and attitude. More specifically, the literature highlights studies that

addressed how gender influences themes in sexuality. Limitations in the literature reviewed were particularly noted in Western, heterosexual, middle class people (usually undergraduate college students). There are only few studies addressing the issues of sexuality in Indian context. The narrowness of sampling affects generalization because of the absence of diversity and cultural representation. Thus, a void exists in our cross-cultural understanding of sexuality. The proposed study seeks to fill that void.

Chapter III
METHODOLOGY

Method of research work is the totality of the procedures followed by the investigator to make study scientific and valid to the extent possible. As such it is very crucial that success of any research depends on the method adopted and the measures, techniques employed for data collection and analysis.

This chapter presents the different steps followed by the investigator in conducting the study like sample selection, statistical analysis etc. The method formulated for this purpose consists mainly of the following four sections.

Section A: Sample

The sample for the study consists of unmarried college students, both males and females, undergoing undergraduate and postgraduate course in various colleges of four major districts of Kerala state in India. Purposive sampling was used for the present study. It is characterized by the use of judgement and a deliberate effort to obtain representative sample by including presumably typical areas or groups in the sample (Kerlinger and Lee, 2000). The data collection was done through different steps. In the initial steps, the authorities of college were contacted and explained the purpose of the study and obtained the permission. After the investigator was introduced by the principal/teaching staff in each college, he approached the students who are available and willing to participate in the study. Due to sensitive nature of study, there were few risks to the subjects in the study. So the inclusion criteria were subjects who self-identified that they were comfortable to share the information. Because of the secret nature of the data, the respondents were asked to send the response sheet through post.

Though a total sample of 525 respondents were selected, 486 respondents have returned the filled response (a response rate of 92.5%) and of which 18 responses sheet were incomplete and so rejected. . The return of the response sheet also was considerably less from female subjects as compared to males. Because of the peculiar nature of the data and its collection, equal number of respondents representing the category of gender, religion, age group, educational level could not be taken.

The study was conducted on a sample of 470 college students in the age range of 17-24 years (M= 20.24 years , SD=1.86). Out of 470 students, 276 respondents were males and 194 were females. Among the respondents, 191(40.6%) belong to Hindu religion, 145 to Muslim and 134 to Christian religion. Of the participants, 202 (43%) were under graduate students and 268 (57%) were post graduate students. The socio-demographic details of the sample is given in table-

The characteristics of the sample is presented in the Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Demographic profile of the sample

Variables	Gender		Total Frequency (%)
	Male Frequency (%)	Female Frequency (%)	
Gender	276 (58.7)	194 (41.3)	470 (100)
Religion			
Hindu	120 (43.5)	71 (36.6)	191 (40.6)
Muslim	87 (31.5)	58 (29.9)	145 (30.9)
Christian	69 (25)	65 (33.5)	134 (28.5)
Education			
Graduate-student	113 (40.9)	89 (45.9)	202 (43)
Post- Graduate-student	163 (59.1)	105 (54.1)	268 (57)

Section B: Measures

The present study involves variables like sexual permissiveness, different sexual behaviours and personality dimensions. According to the nature of

attributes to be measured, appropriate measures are used. The selected measures:

- i) Sexual Permissiveness Scale
- ii) Mathew I A S Rating Scale
- iii) Sexual Behaviour Schedule

i) Sexual Permissiveness Scale

The rapidity of social and linguistic change may require more revalidation of existing scales, necessitating construction of new scale suited to a standard objective of the study (Hendrick & Hendrick, 1987). Because of the scarcity of a standard test that encompass various attitudinal dimensions of sexuality, an attitude scale was developed for the present study.

Development of the Scale

The intention was to develop a Likert type scale that could be used for the assessment of attitudes towards various behaviour dimensions of sexuality. The investigator and the supervising teacher (authors of the scale) chose this type of scale because its construction is relatively simple and the interpretation of results straightforward. For this purpose, the investigator generated an initial pool of fifty statements regarding sexual permissiveness reflecting a variety of values, attitudes, traditional areas and orientations to sex . The items were written strictly following the rules of item writing. The authors revised the items to ensure that all were clearly positive or clearly negative in their form, as well as straightforward in their meaning. The items were also reviewed by psychological experts in the field of test construction. After revision, four items did not fit into and were excluded and forty six items reflecting clearly positive or negative attitudes towards

sexuality on which all co-authors agreed were included in the raw scale. Each item and instructions were presented in the scale with translations in local language (Malayalam), to avoid the language difficulties. The scale had four scoring points (4 - strongly disagree, 3 - partially agree, 2 - not sure and 1 - disagree) in the positive direction of the attitude.

The scale standardisation sample consisted of 300 college students undergoing graduation and post graduation courses. They were in the age range of 18-22 years. Of the participants, 62% were male and 38% were females.

The forty six items scale was administered to the participants. The total data was scored in the positive direction of sexual permissiveness, that is a score of 4 was given to 'strongly agree' and 3 to 'partially agree' 2 to 'not sure' 2 and 1 score to 'disagree' for a favourable response to a positive item of sexual permissiveness. For a negative item, the reverse scores were given. That is 1 for 'strongly agree' and 2 for 'partially agree' 3 for 'not sure' and 1 score 'disagree'.

Item Analysis

After the scoring of the data, item analysis was performed. For this, the total data were arranged bringing the maximum score on top and minimum on bottom. The upper 27% (N=81) and lower 27% (N=81) were subjected to estimate bi serial correlation of scores obtained in each item by the upper and lower group. The Garret (1947) item analysis table was used. After content analysis of these items, a total of thirty two items were selected on basis of difficulty index and validity index for each item as per the standard prescribed by Garret. The items constitute the scale reflect the issues related to various aspects such as pornography, illegitimate relation, restriction and its impact, media portrayal, religious belief, sex education, masturbation, pornography, prostitution, homosexuality, perversion, family planning, non-

marital relation, divorce, sexual freedom etc. The selected items were considered in making final form (see appendix- 2)

Reliability and Validity

Reliability of the scale was found using split half method in a sample of 100 college students (50 male and 50 females) and it is found to be 0.864 which shows high reliability. The items in the test represent almost all aspect of sexuality and it was judged by psychologists expert in the field of test construction, and sought their opinion on construct validity in the unavailability of a similar test for cross validation in Kerala culture. Also the test results of significant difference and correlation in the further chapter reveals the validity of this scale.

2. Mathew IAS Rating Scales (Mathew, 1995)

The scale is a revision of two personality inventories: SRT inventory and Mathew Temperament scale. The Mathew IAS Rating scale measure three broad behavioral tendencies (personality components)-Inertia, Activation and Stability (see Appendix 1). The traits description as follows.

The IAS rating scale has 3 subtests:

1. Inertia: Lethargic, lacks energy, slow, late, fear, anxious, timid, inhibited, withdraw, inability to mix with strangers, no strong moral control, unable to assert, low self confidence etc
2. Activation: Overactive, uncontrolled energy, impatient, remain alone or be silent, internal locus of control, needing rigid external, moral control, having conflicts, individualistic etc.
3. Stability: Controlled, restful, detached action, meta motivation, be trust or slow as the situation demand, punctual philosophical, wise, self actualizing, holistic, in taking calculated risk, balanced mature, open, warmth, temporal , self acceptance.

The three component of personality are mutually exclusive. Stability is not a midpoint between the two extremes of inertia and activation, but another dimension. Inertia and activation are two contrasted types of inabilities (deficiencies and dependencies) while stability indicate the degree of freedom (Mathew, 1995).

Reliability

Reliabilities may be determined for each population for each type of rating. Reliabilities are in general high, particularly for reasonably educated adult raters. Vinodkumar (1995) report split-half reliabilities of 0.73, 0.83 and 0.86 for the scale I, A, S respectively in a sample of adult raters for self rating.

Validity

The trait classification has a high degree of construct validity as they are based on a highly developed theory anchored on time-tested traditional concept of personality.

3. Sexual Behaviour Survey Schedule

A schedule was prepared for surveying the sexual behavior of the subjects (see Appendix- 3). Twenty items regarding normal and deviant sexual behaviors are included.

1. Subjected to forceful sex.
2. Done forceful sex.
3. Homosexual experience.
4. Sexual intercourse
5. Illegitimate relation (incest),
6. Masturbation
7. Difficulty to control sex
8. Sex guilt
9. Pornography use
10. Paedophilic tendency

11. Talking sex
12. Group sex
13. Love with opposite sex
14. Love with same sex
15. Love failure
16. Fear of opposite sex,
17. Sex feeling to the aged
18. Prostitution
19. Impotency frigidity
20. Secrecy in sex

Five demographic variables, gender, age, religion and educational levels were also included in the survey schedule.

Section C: Procedure

The three tests - Mathew I A S Rating Scales, Sexual Permissiveness Scale and Sexual Behaviour Survey Schedule were printed and bound as a single booklet. All the items and instruction were in English and an exact translation to Malayalam was also given beneath each instruction and item.

In the 16 page booklet, the opening page was given for general instruction. The order of presentation of each test in the booklet was as follows-Mathew IAS Rating Scale, Sexual Permissiveness Scale and Sexual Behaviour Survey Schedule. A separate response sheet was also provided to each subject. The response sheet was printed in a postal inland letter card.

Administration

The investigator was introduced and explained the nature and purpose of the study. The subjects were instructed to answer the tests in strict confidence. They were specially instructed not to discuss the items with friend or others while they are marking their response. In the opening general instruction, it was also stressed that the name and address of the respondents should not be written anywhere in the answer sheet in order to keep up the

confidentiality of the responses and anonymity of the respondents. The respondents could return the answer sheet through post office since it was printed in a prepaid post material. In India especially in Kerala culture, very traditional and orthodox attitudes are prevailing regarding sexual behaviour; so strict confidentiality of the respondents is safeguarded in order to elicit genuine responses.

The investigator was introduced to the students by a teaching staff member of the college. The investigator approached the student respondent individually or in small groups at their college or residential hostel and explained the relevance and importance of the study. Then the test and response sheets were distributed. They were instructed to return the tests booklet through staff of the institute and the response sheet be sent directly to the investigator through post office.

Scoring

The collected answer sheet was first checked for incomplete response, which were excluded from the data set. The responses, which were complete in every sense, were scored according to the scale as described. The response to the items of Sexual permissiveness Scale had a four point category, in which a score of 4,3,2,1 was given to strongly agree, partially agree, not sure and disagree respectively for the items which were positively worded and for the negative items it is in reverse order. The score indicate sexual permissiveness. For Mathew I A S Rating, the total point for one item is 3. The response to each item was checked to ensure a total of 3 points. Added the points in each item to get three scores for I A S . The total of three scores should be 105.

Section D: Statistical Analysis

For the statistical analyses of the data, SPSS for Window Version 10.0 was employed.

The statistical techniques selected were based on the objectives set forth and hypotheses formulated for the study and the data were subjected to various statistical analyses. Descriptive statistics and frequency of responses were calculated for variables on sexual behaviour and sexual permissiveness. The responses to sexual behaviours were recoded into dichotomous variables. The investigator analysed the gender differences in subgroups using chi-square analyses. The various scores on variables under study obtained by subgroups were analyzed for its mean difference and also 't' test used to find out whether it is significant or not. In addition, ANOVA was also performed to compare more than three subgroups and Sheffe's procedure was done to determine which group differ significantly. Pearson's product-moment correlation and point bi-serial correlation coefficient were also computed to find out the extent of the relationship between the variables as per the different objectives under study.

Chapter IV
RESULT AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the results of the study. Analysis is the key aspect of any research work and it is the way to test the hypotheses formulated by the investigator. The results of the study are discussed in the following order.

- A. Results of analysis of Sexual behaviours
- B. Analysis of Sexual permissiveness attitude and the differences in the subgroups.
- C. Analysis of sexual permissiveness related to different sexual behaviours
- D. Relationship of sexual permissiveness to dimensions of personality
- E. Analysis of dimensions of personality related to different sexual behaviours

A. Results of analysis of Sexual behaviours

The purpose of this study was to examine sexual attitude and sexual behaviour in relation to personality.

As the study was conducted on unmarried adult student sample, the categories of responses to certain sexual behaviour or related act were very small. For the ease of comparison and further statistical analysis, the responses were grouped into 'yes' or 'no' categories. That is the categories of 'often' and 'rare' are grouped as 'yes'.

The frequency and percentage of the responses of 'yes' and 'no' to the 20 sex behaviours and chi-square test has done to find out the gender difference. The frequency and percentage of Sex related behaviours reported by male and female subjects and chi-square values are presented in table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Chi-square test on the frequency and percentage of Sexual behaviours reported by male and female subjects

Behaviour	Total(N=470) Frequency (%)		Male (n= 276) Frequency (%)		Female (n=194) Frequency (%)		χ^2 Value
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	
1. Subjected to forceful sex	47 (10)	423 (90)	22 (8.0)	25 (92.0)	25 (12.9)	169 (87.1)	3.05*
2. Done forceful sex	48 (8.9)	428 (91.1)	41 (14.9)	235 (85.1)	4 (2)	190 (98)	---
3. Homosexual behaviour	63 (13.4)	407 (86.6)	52 (18.8)	224 (81.2)	11 (5.7)	183 (94.3)	17.02**
4. Sexual intercourse	52 (11.1)	418 (88.9)	39 (14.1)	237 (85.9)	13 (6.7)	181 (93.3)	6.39*
5. Illegitimate sex	29 (6.2)	441 (93.8)	24 (8.7)	252 (91.3)	9 (7.8)	106 (92.2)	7.36*
6. Masturbation	287 (61.1)	183 (38.9)	212 (76.8)	64 (23.2)	75 (38.7)	119 (61.3)	69.74**
7. Difficulty to control sex	169 (36)	301 (4)	133 (48.2)	143 (51.8)	36 (18.6)	158 (81.4)	43.48**
8. Sex guilt	182 (38.7)	288 (61.3)	116 (42.0)	160 (58)	66 (34)	128 (66)	3.07*
9. Pornography use	292 (62.1)	178 (37.9)	214 (77.5)	62 (22.5)	78 (40.2)	116 (59.8)	67.47**
10. Paedophilic tendency	37 (7.8)	433 (92.2)	37 (13.4)	239 (86.6)	4 (2)	190 (98)	----
11. Talking sex	288 (61.3)	182 (38.7)	189 (68.5)	87 (31.5)	99 (51.0)	95 (49.0)	14.61**
12. Group sex	3 (0.5)	467 (98.5)	3 (1)	273 (99)	0	194 (100)	----
13. Love with opposite sex	282 (60)	188 (40)	170 (61.6)	106 (38.4)	112 (57.7)	82 (42.3)	0.70
14. Love with same sex	78 (16.6)	392 (83.4)	61 (22.1)	215 (77.9)	17 (8.8)	117 (91.1)	14.64**
15. Love failure	87 (18.5)	383 (81.5)	57 (20.7)	219 (79.3)	30 (15.5)	178 (64.5)	2.03
16. Fear of opposite sex	166 (35.3)	304 (64.7)	98 (35.5)	178 (64.5)	68 (35.1)	126 (64.9)	0.01
17. Sexual feeling to the aged	16 (3.4)	254 (96.6)	16 (5.8)	260 (94.2)	3 (1.5)	191 (98.5)	--
18. Prostitution	20 (7.2)	256 (92.8)	20 (7.2)	256 (92.8)	0	194 (100)	--
19. Impotence/ frigidity	65 (13.8)	405 (86.2)	41 (14.9)	235 (85.1)	24 (12.4)	170 (87.6)	0.59

20. Secrecy in sex	325 (69.1)	145 (30.9)	187 (67.8)	89 (32.2)	138 (71.1)	56 (28.8)	0.61
---------------------------	-------------------	---------------	---------------	--------------	---------------	--------------	------

**** Significance at 0.01 level; * Significant at 0.05 level.**

In the present sample, one in ten (10%) respondents reported to be subjected to forceful sex. But a vast majority (90%) had reported that they have no such experiences. Among respondents with such experience, 12.9 percent were females and only 8 percent were males. This prevalence rate is similar to the rate reported by Wellman (2003). Statistically significant difference is observed with more females reported such experience.

In the studied sample, 48 male respondents (8.9%) reported that they had tried to do sex by force. Many studies conducted in Western countries (cited in Hopper, 2001) reported that an average of 25% to 30% of male students reported some likelihood of raping a woman.

About 19 per cent male and 5.7 per cent female participants reported homosexual experience. That is about 13 percent of the total sample said they had sexual act with same sex. Similarly 22 percent men, 8.8 per cent women said they had been attracted to the same sex member. In both behaviours gender differences were found. In one survey, on Indian young adult, conducted in, Savara and Sridhar (1994) noted homosexual contact vary from 3% reported in interviews to ten percent in self administered questionnaire. But in the present sample, it is evidenced to 13 percent.

In the total sample about 11% percent of the respondents reported had intercourse in which 14.1% are the male and 6.7% are female. The difference between the sexes is significant. This finding is somewhat similar with a study conducted by Jejeebhoy in Gujarath using face-to-face interviews (cf. Savara and Sridhar,1994)). As compared to other studies (for eg. Savara and Sridhar 1994; Abraham & Kumar, 1999) conducted in northern states of India, low percent is evidenced in the present study. Ergene *et. al.* (cf. Abraham & Kumar, 1999) reported similarly that only a minority of undergraduate students had sexual experience or were sexually active.

Among the male respondents, 8.7% admitted that they approached sex workers for intercourse. This frequency is also low as compared to other studies. In one multicentre study, (Watsa, 1993) reported that 19% of sexually active young men admitted relations with a sex worker as did 25% of unmarried sexually active college going boys in Hyderabad (Goparaju,1993).

Only 6.2 percent respondents reported they had illegitimate sexual relations. Among these, 24 (8.7%) males and only 5 (2.6%) females with significantly more male respondents reported such experience.

In this sample, 76.8% of men and 38.7 % of women have reported engaged in masturbation.. There is a significant difference in the masturbation activity among sexes. 76.85% of males and 38.7% of females masturbated ($\chi^2= 69.74$, $p<0.0005$). Masturbation is one of the most prevalent sexual behaviors and is a highly salient feature of sexuality for young males (Laumann, et al , 1994). In one survey of Basu (cf. Savara and Sridhar,1992) 74% males in 'in-home' survey accepted having experience of masturbation. Another survey by Schrof and Wagner (1994) showed that 43 percent of women masturbate. These figures nearly correspond to the present results. But Jayasree, (1996) studied students in Kerala reported more than 90% of the male reported having the masturbatory behavior. Some investigators (Cantania, *et al*, 1990) say that masturbation is one of the most sensitive behaviors for survey assessment.

Many studies were reported gender difference in masturbation for eg, Leitenberg *et al*, 1993; Walter and Coleman 2002). Hyde and Jaffee (2000) suggested that they are young women less likely than young men to have learned how to arouse themselves .Oliver and Hyde (1993) found in their study using meta analysis of gender difference in sexual behavior and greater difference was found in the incidence of masturbation. The result of the study also supporting this observation.

Of the male respondents, 48.2% reported difficulty to control sex urge in contrast to 18.5% of the female respondents. The gender difference

observed and this is due to the difference in the level of sexual desire. Regan and Atkins (cf. Walter and Coleman 2002) pointed out that there are limited empirical work suggests that men experience desire more frequently than do women.

Regarding the sex guilt the present study reveals that about 42 percent males and 34 percent of female respondents felt guilty about sex. More male subjects reported expressing the guilt. It may be because of their more involvement of sexual acts than females. Kumar (1996) observed that sexual constraint makes people experience guilt. He noted that among the Indian adolescents, some wrong beliefs and myth related to sexuality are prevalent. These beliefs have impact on subsequent behaviour like guilt feeling.

In the present study, a total of 62.1 percent reported accessed to pornography. 77.5% of the male participants and 40.2 % of female participants reported this act and gender difference was found significant ($\chi^2= 67.47$, $p<0.0005$). Men everywhere appear to be much more naturally aroused than women by visual sexual stimuli (Sanderson, 2001). More men than women reported use of pornography in all media. Research conducted indicated that men were more interested in pleasure and women were more interested in intimacy, thus emphasizing traditional gender disparities. It may further suggest that women are socialized to perceive pornography in terms of morality rather than as a means to achieve sexual arousal (Beggan & Allison, 2003 cited in Træen & Nilsen,2006)

Sixty eight percent male and fifty one percent female respondents have indulged in talking about sex. The result indicates gender difference in this sexual act. Female subjects were less likely to talk about the sex than males. Sexuality is a topic of constant discussion among the males. Female subjects reported less talking may be because of the sample subjects for this study are from student population and as the conversations between students, especially females are often academic and study related, the discussion of sexuality and related acts is uncommon. Ussher (1997) pointed out that girls initially share

their sexual activity with peers. However, sharing such experiences sometimes invokes feelings of moral inadequacy, guilt, disgust, and anxiety and reduce communication as a means to avoid others' disapproval. Tulman (1994) also observed that the communication of sexual desires in girls lessens as a means to avoid others' disapproval.

The result also reveals that majority of female respondents (71%) consider sexual secrecy compared to male participants (67.8). But no significant difference is observed. This could be attributed to taboo dimension of sex. Public concern in sexual matters and stigmatization make people retreat into privacy.

Campuses provide an important context for interaction with opposite sex members. But the result of the study, equal percent (35%) of both male and female respondents are afraid of dealing with opposite sex. That is more than one third of the respondents in both male and female groups have this problem. Reported romantic relations by 60 percent male and 40 percent female, and 20 percent males and 15 percent female reported love failure. But no gender difference was observed in all these romantic related behaviour or act.

In conclusion the result reveals that there was statistically significant difference in the response on the eleven different aspects of sexual activities-subjected to forceful sex, homosexual act and same sex attraction, intercourse, illegitimate sex, masturbation, difficulty to control sex, sex guilt, pornography use, talking sexual matters by gender. No significant difference found in romantic activities. In all these activities male subjects more likely than females to report these activities. Among these, a large difference is observed in masturbatory practise (see table 4.1). So the first hypothesis, that is male and female subject differ in their sexual behaviour is rejected.

It is noted that males are much more likely than females to report that they have engaged in sexual acts (Herald, *et al.*, 1992). Adolescent males and females hold different values concerning sexuality contribute directly to

sexual expression (Plotnick, 1992). Most cultures encourage the male population to express their sexuality freely. The popular literature, media, advertisement, sexual beliefs, and cultural myths all create a positive climate for male.

A wide array of biological differences between men and women and the numerous and complex gender-related socio-cultural factors that shape human sexuality, including restrictive sex roles and double standards traditionally ascribed to female sexuality. Traditional gender roles set up different sexual expectations (i.e., a double standard) for men and women. Men are the initiators of sexual activity, women limit and resist sexual activity; men are more sexually active, women tie sex to romance and are more concerned with affection than sex (e.g., DeLamater, 1987; Peplau & Gordon, 1985). Female sexuality is generally more strictly controlled and sanctioned than male sexuality is (Sandfort, 1998). Moreover, sexual behavior was socially rewarding for men (Herold & Mewhinney, 1993). As Reiss (1967) noted, social criticism, stigmatization, social punishment, lowered reputation, sex guilt due to initialized values of chastity and virginity, and loss of some power seem to be some of the risks of engaging in sexual acts for women. It seems that dangers of sex are greater for women so that women have to be more cautious in the sexual matters (Herold, 2001).

Inter relationship of sexual behaviours

In this analysis, male and female subjects were considered separately since significance chi-square difference were observed in nine items out of 20 sexual behaviours. Point bi-serial correlation between different sexual behaviours were estimated and it is presented in the table 4.2 and table 4.3 for male and female subjects. .

Table 4.2

Point bi-serial correlation between different Sexual behaviours - Males

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	
1	-	.24**	.28**	.24**	.18**	.17**	.06	.20	.04	.18**	.03	-	.14**	.21**	.07	.08	-	.07	.17**	.10*	
2		-	.42**	.38**	.26**	.14**	.16**	.19**	.12**	.24**	.11*	-	.16**	.34**	.08	.01	-	.27**	.19**	.16**	
3			-	.27**	.13**	.14**	.12**	.18**	.15**	.26**	.14**	-	.14**	.68**	.05	.02	-	.06	.15**	.14**	
4				-	.24**	.19**	.08	.09	.12**	.11*	.11**	-	.13**	.17**	.14**	.03	-	.14**	.11*	.11*	
5					-	.06	.08	.15**	.07	.22**	.00	-	.02	.07	.10*	.05	-	.08	.07	.03	
6						-	.16**	.19**	.42**	.06	.29**	-	.17**	.08	.04	-.04	-	.06	-.02	.06	
7							-	.05	.13**	.12**	.09*	-	.15**	.10*	.02	-.10*	-	.08	.05	.10*	
8								-	.17**	.11*	.04	-	.06	.08	.03	.13*	-	.10*	.13**	.11*	
9									-	-.01	.35**	-	.22**	.16**	.15**	.00	-	-.01	-.03	.09	
10										-	-.06	-	.02	.35**	.08	.00	-	.14**	.19**	.04	
11											-	-	.22**	.02	.12**	.07	-	-.01	-.11*	.07	
12												-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
13													-	.07	.23**	.14**	-	.03	.05	.12**	
14														-	.06	-.01	-	.16**	.13**	.12**	
15															-	.06	-	-.02	.15**	.08	
16																-	-	.02	.05	.09*	
17																	-	-	-	-	
18																		-	-	.16**	-.07
19																			-	-	.04
20																				-	-

1. Being subjected to forceful sex 2. Done forceful sex 3. Homo sexual act 4. Sexual intercourse 5. Illegitimate sex 6. Masturbation 7. Difficulty to control 8 Sex guilt 9. Pornography 10. Paedophilic tendency 11. Talking sex. 12. Group sex 13. Love with opposite sex 14. Love with same sex 15. Love failure 16. Fear of opposite sex 17. Sex feeling towards the aged 18. Prostitution 19. Impotency 20. Secrecy in sex.

Table 4.3

Point bi-serial correlation between different sexual behaviours - Females

	1	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1	-	.30**	.32**	.03	.35**	.21**	.21	.06	-	.03	-	.17*	.31**	.09	.07	-	-	.13	.17*
3		-	.38**	.10	.12	.05	.15*	-.01	-	.06	-	.16*	.55**	-.04	-.04	-	-	.17*	.05
4			-	.21**	.21**	.24**	.06	-.01	-	.05	-	.18**	.13	.11	.06	-	-	.08	.17*
5				-	.00	-.07	.15*	.13	-	-.03	-	.07	.06	.02	.01	-	-	.03	.10
6					-	.35**	.12	.32**	-	.24**	-	.29**	.16*	.04	-.09	-	-	-.04	.10
7						-	-.03	.14*	-	.12	-	.16*	.04	.12	-.12	-	-	.06	.09
8							-	.16*	-	.00	-	.04	.04	.02	.17*	-	-	.09	-.02
9								-	-	.17*	-	.34**	.15*	.17*	-.05	-	-	-.02	.10
10									-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
11										-	-	.22**	-.06	.10	.07	-	-	.19**	.10
12											-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
13												-	.11	.22**	.10	-	-	.03	-.01
14													-	.12	-.07	-	-	.16*	.15*
15														-	-.01	-	-	.09	.17*
16															-	-		.11	.03
17																-	-	-	-
18																	-	-	-
19																		-	.17*
20																			-

1. Being subjected to forceful sex 2. Done forceful sex 3. Homo sexual act 4. Sexual intercourse 5. Illegitimate sex 6. Masturbation 7. Difficulty to control 8 Sex guilt 9. Pornography 10. Paedophilic tendency 11. Talking sex. 12. Group sex 13. Love with opposite sex 14. Love with same sex 15. Love failure 16. Fear of opposite sex 17. Sex feeling towards the aged 18. Prostitution 19. Impotency 20. Secrecy in sex.

The following observations are made from the analysis of the relationship of different sexual behaviours reported by male subjects :

The sexual behaviour being subjected to forceful sex is found significantly correlating with 10 sexual behaviours such as done forceful sex, homo sexual act, sexual intercourse, illegitimate sex, masturbation, paedophilic tendency, love with opposite sex, love with same sex, impotence and secrecy in sex. Other sexual behaviours such as difficulty to control sex, sex guilt, pornography, love failure, fear of opposite sex, and prostitution. Done forceful sex is found to be correlating significantly with homo sexual act, sexual intercourse, illegitimate sex, masturbation, difficulty to control sex, sex guilt, pornography, paedophilic tendency, talking sex, love with opposite sex, love with same sex, prostitution, impotence and sexual secrecy.

The experience of 'homosexual act' is significantly correlating with sexual intercourse, illegitimate sex, masturbation difficulty to control sex, sex guilt, pornography, paedophilic tendency, talking sex, love with opposite sex, love with same sex, impotence and sexual secrecy. The sexual behaviour of sexual intercourse is found to be significantly correlating with illegitimate sex, masturbation, pornography, paedophilic tendency, talking sex, love with opposite sex, love with same sex, love failure, prostitution, impotence and sexual secrecy.

Illegitimate sex is found to be significantly correlating with sex guilt, paedophilic tendency, but not correlated with masturbation, difficulty to control sex, pornography, talking sex, love with opposite sex, love with same sex, prostitution, impotence and sexual secrecy.

Masturbation is found to be significantly correlating with difficulty to control sex, sex guilt, pornography, talking sex and love with opposite sex. The sexual behaviour of difficulty to control sex is found to be significantly correlating with pornography, paedophilic tendency talking sex and love with opposite sex secrecy in sex but negatively correlated with fear of opposite sex. The sexual behaviour of sex guilt is found to be significantly

correlating with pornography, paedophilic tendency fear of opposite sex, prostitution, impotency and secrecy in sex. The sexual behaviour of pornography is found to be significantly correlating with talking sex, love with opposite sex, love with same sex and love failure. The sexual behaviour of paedophilic tendency is found to be significantly correlating with love with opposite sex, prostitution and impotence.

The sexual behaviour of talking sex is found to be significantly correlating with love with opposite sex, love failure and negatively correlated with impotence love with opposite sex is found to be significantly correlating with love failure, fear of opposite sex and secrecy in sex.

The sexual behaviour of love with same sex is found to be correlating with prostitution, impotency and secrecy in sex. Love failure is found to be significantly correlating with only impotency. The sexual behaviour of fear of opposite is found to be significantly correlating only with sex in secrecy. The sexual behaviour of prostitution is found to be significantly correlating only with impotency. The sexual behaviour of impotency is not found to be significantly correlating with any other behaviour.

In the analysis of inter correlations between sexual behaviours of females the following observations are made.

The sexual behaviour being subjected to forceful sex is found significantly correlating with sexual behaviours such as homo sexual act, sexual intercourse, masturbation, difficult to control sex love with opposite sex, love with same sex and sexual secrecy. The sexual behaviour of homosexual act is found to be significantly correlating with sexual intercourse, sex guilt, love with opposite sex' and 'love with same sex. The sexual behaviour of sexual intercourse is found to be significantly correlating with illegitimate sex, masturbation, difficulty to control sex, love with opposite sex, and sexual secrecy. The sexual behaviour of illegitimate sex is found to be correlating with sex guilt only. The sexual behaviour of masturbation is found to be significantly correlating with difficulty to control

sex, pornography, talking sex and love with opposite sex and love with same sex.

The sexual behaviour of difficulty to control sex is found to be significantly correlating with pornography, and love with opposite sex only. But sex guilt is found to be significantly correlating with pornography and fear of opposite sex only. The sexual behaviour of talking sex is found to be significantly correlating with love with opposite sex and frigidity only. The sexual behaviour of love with opposite sex is found to be significantly correlating with love failure only. The sexual behaviour of love with same sex is found to be significantly correlating with impotency and secrecy in sex only. The sexual behaviour of love failure is found to be significantly correlating with love secrecy in sex only. The sexual behaviour of fear of opposite sex is found to be significantly correlating only with sex in secrecy. The sexual behaviour of prostitution is found to be significantly correlating only with impotency. The sexual behaviour of fear of opposite sex is not found to be significantly correlating only with any sexual behaviour. The sexual behaviour of frigidity is found to be significantly correlating only with sex in secrecy.

The nature of interrelations of sexual behaviours of male subjects and female subjects is found to differ. More behaviours items are inter correlated in the case of male subjects, while less correlations are found in the case of females. This difference can be attributed to sex difference prevailing in Kerala culture.

B. Results of analysis of Sexual Permissiveness attitude

The sexual attitude scale measured issues of pornography, illegitimate sex relation, incest, sexual restriction and its impact, religious aspect, sex education, masturbation, sexual portrayal in media, prostitution, homosexuality, group sex, sex perversion, family planning propaganda, sex relations without marriage, divorce and sexual freedom. The response options to the item include strongly agree, partially agree, not sure and disagree. But

for the ease of comparison, the scale is converted to be a three point scale by pooling ‘strongly agree’ and ‘partially agree’ response together considering them as ‘agree’, ‘not sure’ and ‘disagree’

Table 4.4

Percentage of responses to the Sexual Permissiveness Scale items by male, female and total sample (Total sample (N) =470, Male (n) = 276, female (n)= 194)

Sl. No.	Item	Percentage of Responses								
		Agree			Not sure			Disagree		
		M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
1.	There is no harm in reading pornography	62	19	57	17	14	15	21	35	28
2.	Illegitimate sex relations should be made punishable	24	18	39	23	21	22	38	38	38
3.	Sex with blood relatives should not be considered a cruel act	18	9	34	18	22	20	45	47	46
4.	Restriction of sex will only prevent the development of society	16	12	37	19	30	24	41	37	39
5.	Rules restricting sex ultimately lead to the oppression of women and the deprived	11	18	45	27	24	26	33	25	29
6.	Sexual matters should not be included in text book	52	44	60	24	26	25	11	19	15
7.	Masturbation is wrong and unnatural	12	25	32	19	17	18	57	41	49
8.	Reading pornography is harmful	29	31	44	34	29	31	24	25	25
9.	Sexual restrictions lead to sexual violence	29	32	60	17	30	23	18	15	17
10.	Sexuality is not against religious belief	62	56	76	13	17	15	07	11	09
11.	Picturising, sexuality in cinema should be restricted	21	23	35	39	27	34	28	37	31
12.	Prostitutions should never be accepted as a job	24	26	43	20	19	20	39	35	37
13.	Individuals should be given the freedom to enjoy group sex with more than two persons	10	11	23	15	19	17	59	60	60
14.	Media gives undue importance to sex	12	12	29	37	32	35	36	35	36
15.	Sex perversions should be treated as a disease, should not be punished as a crime	51	45	73	21	15	18	09	09	09
16.	Sexuality is sin and it takes us away from divinity	16	16	31	11	17	14	62	46	55
17.	Scientific knowledge about sex at	61	50	75	09	15	12	09	17	13

Sl. No.	Item	Percentage of Responses								
		Agree			Not sure			Disagree		
		M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
	different age should be made illegal									
18.	Homosexuality/lesbianism should not be made illegal	48	37	63	17	23	20	16	17	¹ ₇
19.	Sex workers should be encouraged as they may reduce sex crimes such as rape	16	08	37	20	28	24	40	38	39
20.	It is not necessary to restrict scenes of sexual content in cinema	18	07	42	16	21	18	32	48	40
21.	There is nothing wrong in masturbation which is a natural behaviour	48	29	61	15	27	21	14	22	18
22.	Since sexuality is related to aesthetics it should not be restricted in media like television	17	13	48	20	24	22	19	30	30
23.	Illegitimate sexuality should not be considered a crime	13	09	37	21	17	19	45	42	44
24.	The increasing sexual freedom is not good	20	18	36	21	27	24	41	39	40
25.	Prostitution should be approved as a job	16	11	31	20	25	22	45	49	47
26.	Homosexuality/lesbianism should be made legal	31	30	54	23	25	24	26	17	22
27.	Nobody should have the powers to restrict sex being it the nature's gift	53	37	69	13	17	15	13	19	16
28.	Awareness about sex should propagated rather than frightening people about sexual disease	66	59	80	10	14	12	08	08	08
29.	Sexual relations without marriage should get social approval	12	13	26	14	18	16	59	57	58
30.	Laws regarding divorce should be made more liberal	27	24	47	28	24	26	27	28	27
31.	Family planning propaganda should be made more liberal	26	23	50	19	29	24	32	19	26
32.	Sexuality is not appropriate for a religious person	53	37	62	19	18	19	16	22	19

M - Male, F - Female, T-Total

The table 4.4 shows in the attitude survey, a total of 57 percent participants expressed that there is no harm in reading pornography, while 15 percent disagreed on the issue and 28 percent was not sure about it. That is more than half of the participants, however, approving of pornography.

In this study it was found that 44 percent of the participants disapproved in contrast to 37 percent approved that illegitimate sexuality should not be considered a crime. But more percent (44%) of participants not accepted (*opposing*) the statement 'sex with blood relatives should not be considered a cruel act . Similar percentage' (see table) of participants expressed positive (39%) and negative (38%) attitude to the statement 'Illegitimate sex relations should be made punishable'. Though the participants not approving illegitimate sex relations, they are not clearly favouring or unfavouring such act should be punished.

Majority (69%) of the participants think that sex as being the nature's gift and nobody should have the powers to restrict it. Sixty percent of participants opined that sexual restrictions lead to sexual violence. Similarly 45 percent observed that rules restricting sex ultimately lead to the oppression of women and the deprived, although 29 percent of the participants disapproving it. But to the item 'restriction of sex will only prevent the development of society', about similar percent of the participants approved (37%) or disapproved (39%) it.

More than three-fourth of the participants in the sample believed that sexuality is not against religious belief, but 62 percent consider it is not appropriate for a religious person. It was also found that 31 percent of the participants are of the view that sexuality is sin and it takes us away from divinity it in contrast to a moderately high percentage, 55 percent, disapproved it.

The response to the item regarding sex education, 80 percent argued that awareness about sex should be propagated rather than frightening people about sexual disease. (80 percent favoured propagating the awareness about sex rather than frightening people about sexual disease) and 75 percent argued that scientific knowledge about sex at different age should be provided through test book. But 60 percent opined that sexual matters should not be included in text book.

When asked to respond to the item on masturbation, 61 percent expressed positive view, that there is nothing wrong in masturbation which is a natural behavior, in contrast to only 18 percent expressed negative attitude.

Regarding the portrayal of sex in media and cinema, 36 percent of participants did not approve the statement media gives undue importance to sex and similar percent also expressed neutral attitude. But 48 percent accepting that as sexuality is related to aesthetics it should not be restricted in media like television. But with regard to the restriction of sexual content in cinema or picturising, sexuality in cinema, around equal percent of people approving or not approving it

Comparatively more participants (39%) are not favouring to the statement sex workers should be encouraged and similarly 47 percent of participants disapproved that prostitutions should be approved as a job.

To the issue of homosexuality, 63 percent argued that homosexuality/lesbianism should not be made illegal and 53 percent comment that it should be made legal. This is in line with the observation of Parasar (cf. Aggarwal and Sharma, 2000), that is Indian society, by and large, disapproves homosexuality and justifies it as a criminal offence even when adults indulge in private.

While replying to the statement of group sex, 60 percent disapproved in contrast only 23 percent approved it. A large majority, 73 percent accepting that sex perversions should be treated as a disease.

Half (50%) of the sample argued that family planning propaganda should be made more liberal, but among the remaining half similar percent is disapproving or not sure about it.

Fifty eight percent of the participants, showed negative attitude to the social approval of sexual relations without marriage, while one fourth of the participants replied in affirmative. The item 'laws regarding divorce should be

made more liberal' is supported by 47 percent in contrast to 27 percent disapproved it. 26% are undecided about it.

In the participants, 36 percent think that increasing sexual freedom is not good, but 40 percent is supporting and 27 percent undecided about the issue.

Overall results revealed that the majority of participants responding to this study believed sex as being the nature's gift, it is not against the religious belief, felt the necessity of sex education, believing sex perversions as a disease, pornography is acceptable, positive views about masturbation, liberal to family planning propaganda, and supporting sexual freedom; but disapproved of pre-marital sex (sexual relations without marriage), homosexuality, enjoying group sex, prostitution and illegitimate sex relations. That means sample was comparatively more conservative in their attitudes toward sex without marriage, illegitimate sex relations, enjoying group sex, prostitution and homosexuality.

Sex is one of the most important aspects of our lives. While sex is a natural phenomenon there are many rules and codes around it. Religions, cultures, philosophies and legal systems - systems concerned with shaping human behaviour, have established different sexual values and behavioural norms.

Religion is a tool that is used to restrain sexuality. Religiousness in several studies was found to have an inhibiting influence on sexuality (Kinsey, *et al.*, 1953). In the present sample, about three-fifth of the participants consider sexuality is not appropriate for a religious person.

Illegitimate sexual relations are strongly opposed in all culture. There is a general belief that sex is experienced only within the limits of marriage. In this sample 57 percent opposed the idea of sex relation without marriage. A 37-country study reported that non-Western societies like India, value chastity highly in a potential mate, than Western European countries (Buss, 1989).

Masturbation is another sexual activity influenced by cultural or religious doctrines. There is more than a lingering historical perception that, in many cultures, masturbation is a shameful and problematic activity (often based on religious doctrines), despite the fact that many modern cultures appear to accept this sexual practice as a normal part of human sexuality (Smith et al., 1996). In one study conducted in India, Patil *et al* (2002) observed that 90% out of the total respondents opined that masturbation was not a healthy practice. In contradicting to this finding, 61 percent of the respondents in this study expressed positive view about masturbation. The responses to the restriction of the sexual content in cinema, did not clearly indicate favourable or unfavourable attitude.

But the results clearly indicate that participants strongly demand the need for sexual awareness. Most of the participants in the sample agreed with the item 'awareness about sex should be propagated rather than frightening people about sexual disease'. Because the relatively recent growth of interest in sexual activity has been largely fuelled by concerns over HIV (and other sexually transmitted infections [STIs]) transmission, in India also many campaigns aimed at public awareness of HIV were introduced. But unfortunately, whatever little information is distributed to the public on sexual health mainly relates to diseases, like how sex causes venereal diseases, premarital sex or disease like AIDS. All these awareness programme mainly focuses risk avoidance, emphasising sex is something to be feared and guarded about, rather than on more positive aspects of sexual experiences.

Similarly the study also shows that an overwhelming number of students (75 percent) feel that sex education should form a part of their curriculum. Majority suggested that scientific knowledge about sex at different age should be provided to students through their text books. Like many studies, response of the participants reveals the necessity of adequate sexual knowledge. It is consistent with the finding of one survey conducted in Bombay, Bhalerao *et al* (1980) found that an overwhelming number of

students (95.3%) feel that sex education should form a part of their curriculum. Many studies (for eg, Barnett, 1997) have attempted to reveal the lack of adequate knowledge about sexual and reproductive health among adolescents.

In this study, though the participants –demanded the sex education, a moderately high percent of participants also demanded that sexual matters should not included in the text book. While there is widespread consensus that adolescents need adequate (better quality) sex education, there is often controversy over what content is appropriate for dissemination at different ages, and who are to be targeted for optimal delivery of this information. (Kumar & Tiwari, 2003). The educational system is also ambivalent about imparting sex education to be part of existing education activities or as a separate subject (Anand, 1993). In one survey Bhalerao *et al* (1980) observed that people are prejudiced about sexual education The traditional birds and bees lecture is not any longer appreciated assuming that at least that is attempted. Instead, participants would rather have a free and frank discussion on this issue with a suitable teacher, preferably a medical person.

In relation to the spread of HIV/AIDS context, an item on sex work as a job was also included in the scale. The participants in the sample did not approved it. In India the number of women engaged as sex workers is very large and it is most important source of their livelihood. But they are looked down on by society as immoral for being visibly sexual. There is a long and ongoing debate about the nature and morality of the ‘work’ that sex workers are involved in. Those who do not agree with the morality of the ‘flesh trade’ and would like it at least to disappear, if it cannot be wiped out. On the other hand those who are not judgmental about the profession, accept it as a reality, and at the same time would like to secure better living conditions and entitlements for these persons engaged in commercial sex work. But the perception of sex workers as carriers of a dreadful disease and threats to the

moral fiber and health interests of society is the major reason for the non-acceptance.

Enjoying group sex and homosexuality are the other issues related to sexuality that is not accepted

Widmer *et al.* (1998) have pointed out that many societies around the world share common normative attitudes toward sex, including the incest taboo, condemnation of adultery, and a general concern for regulating sexuality, particularly outside wedlock (Levi-Strauss, 1969; Murdock, 1960). At the same time, research has shown that attitudes toward premarital sex, homosexuality, masturbation, petting, and other sexual behavior are not constants, but present different patterns from culture to culture (Ford & Beach, 1951).

All the responses show that subjects in general were not very permissive though they showed a tendency toward permissiveness. Most of the responses to the permissive items in the attitude scale were in the direction of disagreement. This observation is in agreement with that of Hendrick and Hendrick (1995) shown that people in general are not very permissive. In one study among rural youth in India, Ghule et al (2007) found the majority of the students expressed conservative attitudes towards premarital sexuality.

To test the gender difference in sexual permissiveness, mean scores, standard deviations and 't' value are computed and is presented in table 4.5.

The mean score obtained in sexual permissiveness attitude by male (M=79.77, SD=11.55) and female (M=75.05 SD=10.38) are found to be differ significantly ($p < 0.01$ level of significance) indicating that males were more permissive than were females. Generally attitudinal difference in male and female is observed universally.

Table 4.5

Significance of difference between the mean scores obtained by male and female subjects in Sexual Permissiveness Scale

Sex	Mean	SD	N	't' value
Male	79.77	11.55	276	4.64**
Female	75.05	10.38	194	

***significance at the 0.01 level*

To determine whether male and female participants differ significantly in different issues of sexuality, that is to determine the gender difference on items of the on the issues related to sexuality, mean score, SD and 't' value obtained for each item by males and females is presented in the table 4.6.

The table reveals that in the item 1, 5, 6, 7, 16, 17, 20, 21, 27 and 32, males and females are found to differ significantly. The item 'there is no harm in reading pornography' is mostly not favoured by the male group while the female counterpart are having a comparatively less favourable attitude. The item 'rules restricting sex ultimately lead to the oppression of women and the deprived' is agreeable to females, while it is not that much agreeable to males. The same status is held by female and male subjects in the item 'sexual matters should not be included in text book'. Also the similar favourable attitude expressed by female subjects on the item 'Sexuality is sin and it takes us away from divinity'. The significantly permissive attitude is given by male subjects for the item 'Masturbation is wrong and unnatural' and 'there is nothing wrong in masturbation which is a natural behaviour'. To the item, 'scientific knowledge about sex at different age should be provided to students through their text books', male subjects showed more favourable attitude as compared to female subjects. Male subjects also differ significantly on the item 'it is not necessary to restrict scenes of sexual content in cinema' when compared to female subjects. Male and female subjects differ significantly in the item, ' Nobody should have the powers to restrict sex being it the nature's gift', as male subjects showed more favouring as

compared to female subjects. Female subjects argue that 'sexuality is not appropriate for a religious person' as compared to male subjects.

The study reveals that males are more accepting than females on issues of pornography, masturbation, sex education, sexual content in cinema and sex as nature's gift. It has been proven that women are more generally opposed to pornography, prostitution which would tend to cheapen sex and hence lower the "market value" of a woman's sexuality by making it easier for men to obtain sexual satisfaction. Studies have also shown that women are more likely than men to oppose nudity in movies (Baumeister and Vohs, 2002).

Female subjects are more disapproving than males on issues of sexual matters in the textbook and consider sex as sin and not appropriate for a religious persons. They have also expressed the view that sexual restriction lead to sexual violence. Among the 15 sex related issues, gender difference is evidenced only on issues of pornography, masturbation, sex education, sexual restriction, media portrayal (sexual content in cinema) and divine aspect of sex. Though apparently male subjects are found to express more permissive attitude as compared to female subjects, only on six issues significant difference between the sexes were observed.

Table 4.6

Significance of difference between the Mean scores obtained for each item of Sexual Permissiveness Scale by male and female subjects

Sl. No.	Item	Male (n=276)		Female (n=194)		't' value
		M	SD	M	SD	
1	There is no harm in reading pornography	2.62	1.05	2.34	1.14	2.75**
2	Illegitimate sex relations should be made punishable	2.73	1.19	2.79	1.14	0.57
3	Incest (sex with blood relatives) should not be considered a cruel act	2.09	1.15	1.92	1.01	1.66
4	Restriction of sex will only prevent the development of society	2.13	1.12	2.07	1.02	0.59
5	Rules restricting sex ultimately lead to the oppression of women and the deprived	2.19	1.02	2.45	1.04	2.66**
6	Sexual matters should not be included in text book	2.22	1.19	1.94	1.10	2.61**
7	Masturbation is wrong and unnatural	3.18	1.07	2.72	1.23	4.35**
8	Reading pornography is harmful	2.50	1.14	2.47	1.17	0.25
9	Sexual restrictions lead to sexual violence	2.75	1.05	2.72	1.06	0.30
10	Sexuality is not against religious belief	3.33	.97	3.17	1.07	1.75
11	Picturising, sexuality in cinema should be restricted	2.74	1.08	2.77	1.17	0.30
12	Prostitutions should never be accepted as a job	2.79	1.21	2.62	1.21	0.98
13	Individuals should be given the freedom to enjoy group sex with more than two persons	1.85	1.05	2.02	1.04	0.35
14	Media gives undue important to sex	2.96	0.99	2.90	1.01	0.60
15	Sex perversions should be treated as a disease, should not be punished as a crime	3.17	0.99	3.05	1.02	1.29
16	Sexuality is sin and it takes us away from divinity	1.80	1.15	2.07	1.15	2.56*
17	Scientific knowledge about sex at different age should be provided to students through their text books	3.29	0.98	2.99	1.16	2.99**

Sl. No.	Item	Male (n=276)		Female (n=194)		't' value
		M	SD	M	SD	
18	Homosexuality /lesbianism should not be made illegal	2.01	1.14	2.21	1.12	1.81
19	Sex workers should be encouraged as they may reduce sex crimes such as rape	2.25	1.12	2.03	0.98	1.28
20	It is not necessary to restrict scenes of sexual content in cinema	2.37	1.10	1.90	0.99	4.70**
21	There is nothing wrong in masturbation which is a natural behaviour	3.01	1.11	2.53	1.12	4.52**
22	Since sexuality is related to aesthetics it should not be restricted in media like television	2.39	1.07	2.28	1.04	1.12
23	Illegitimate sexuality should not be considered a crime	2.05	1.10	2.03	1.02	0.23
24	The increasing sexual freedom is not good	2.84	1.16	2.85	1.12	0.09
25	Prostitution should be approved as a job	2.04	1.13	1.87	1.02	1.72
26	Homosexuality /lesbianism should be made legal	2.44	1.17	2.27	1.05	1.59
27	Nobody should have the powers to restrict sex being it the nature's gift	3.14	1.07	2.80	1.11	3.24**
28	Awareness about sex should be propagated rather than frightening people about sexual disease	3.38	0.98	3.27	0.99	1.10
29	Sexual relations without marriage should get social approval	1.79	1.08	1.80	1.08	0.10
30	Laws regarding divorce should be made more liberal	2.49	1.15	2.40	1.13	0.84
31	Family planning propaganda should be made more liberal	2.44	1.19	2.57	1.04	1.15
32	Sexuality is not appropriate for a religious person	1.98	1.17	2.25	1.17	2.46*

**significance at 0.01 level *significance at 0.05 level

In contemporary Western society it is widely believed that sexual behavior is evaluated differently depending on whether a man or a woman engages in it (Milhausen & Herold, 2001). It is still noted, even in surveys in the United States (e.g., Laumann *et al.*, 1994), that men and women have different attitudes toward sexual behaviors.

To test the 5th hypothesis, that is whether any significant difference exists in permissiveness among subjects belonging to different religions, one way ANOVA was computed and its summary is presented in table 4.7.

Table 4.7

One way ANOVA of sexual permissiveness of religious groups

Source of variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	1979.90	2	989.95	7.95**
Within Groups	58112.48	467	124.43	
Total	60092.38	469		

** *significance at .01 level of significance*

The result revealed that there exists significant differences in the religion on the variable sexual permissive attitude ($F(2,457) = 7.95, p < 0.01$). As F value indicate significant difference among groups, Post hoc analysis, Scheffe's procedure, was attempted to know which religious group makes the difference.

To make multiple comparison, the mean scores of the subjects belonging to Hindu, Muslim and Christian was computed and it is presented in table 4.8.

From the table, it can be seen that subjects belonging to Hindu religion are significantly more permissive than subjects belonging to Muslim religion. Similarly subjects belonging to Hindu religion significantly differ with greater mean score in permissiveness from the subjects of Christian religion. But no significant difference was found in sexual permissiveness mean score between the subjects belonging Muslim and Christian. So the 5th hypothesis is accepted.

Table 4.8

Multiple comparison of means (Scheffe's procedure) of sexual permissiveness based on religions religion

Religion	Religion	Mean	Mean Difference	Std. Error
Hindu	Muslim	75.71	4.56*	1.22
	Christian	76.64	3.63*	1.25
Muslim	Hindu	80.27	-4.56*	1.22
	Christian	76.64	-.931	1.33
Christian	Hindu	80.27	-3.63*	1.25
	Muslim	75.71	.93	1.33

*. *The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.*

Several studies have suggested that religion is an important determinant of one's attitude toward sexuality (Donnelly *et al.*, 1999, Laumann *et al.*, 1994; Pluhar *et al.*). Religion potentially influences a range of decisions about sex-related issues. Reference group theory suggests that individuals will follow the teachings of their religion when determining their own sexual behaviours and attitudes (Brown and Engle 2009). In this study participants belonging to Hindu religion are more liberal as compared to the participants of other two religions.

In the previous analyses the results have shown that gender difference in sexual permissiveness attitude and in certain sexual behaviours.

In contemporary Western society it is widely believed that sexual behavior is evaluated differently depending on whether a man or a woman engages in it (Milhausen & Herold, 2001).

C. Analysis of sexual permissiveness related to different sexual behaviours

To understand the role of gender in the influence of sexual behaviour on sexual permissiveness two way- analysis has been carried out. 2 way ANOVA (2X2) have been carried out on different sexual behaviours. Two way ANOVA was carried out on sexual permissiveness score with each sexual behaviour and gender as independent variable. Those sexual behaviours, in which the frequency of response is less are excluded in the ANOVA.

Summary of the ANOVA along with concerned cell mean and standard deviations of each variable are presented separately in the following section. The results of each ANOVA are summarized in tables and corresponding cell mean and standard deviations of variables in tables.

To study the main and interaction effects of sexual behaviour and sex of the subject on sexual permissiveness, two way analysis of variance has been carried out.

Table 4.9

Summary of ANOVA. Subjected to forceful sex and gender (2 x 2)

Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F-ratio
Subjected to forceful sex	1117.72	1	1117.72	9.33**
Gender	184.75	1	184.75	0.56
Subjected to forceful sex X Gender	554.93	1	554.93	4.63**
Residual Error	55819.51	46 6	119.78	
Total	2907106.00	47 0		

** significance at the 0.01 level.

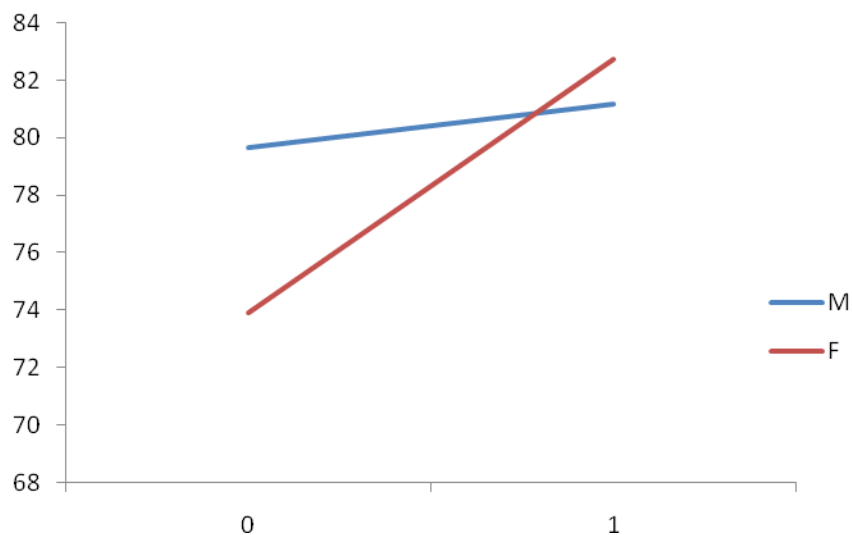
Table 4.10

Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on sexual behaviour of subjected to forceful sex

Sexual behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Not subjected to forceful sex	Male	79.65	254	11.850
	Female	73.92	169	10.175
	Total	77.36	423	11.54
Subjected to forceful sex	Male	81.18	22	7.46
	Female	82.72	25	8.478
	Total	82.00	47	7.97
Total	Male	79.77	276	11.55
	Female	75.05	194	10.38
	Total	77.82	470	11.319

Figure 4.1

Interaction Effect
Sexual behaviour of subjected to Forceful sex × Gender



The result of the ANOVA (see Table 4.9) has shown the main effect of sexual behaviour of subjected to forceful sex on sexual permissiveness. An interaction effect is also found. From the table, it can be seen that the mean score of the female group with subjected to forceful sex is the highest mean

score , while female group who had not subjected to forceful sex has the lowest mean score.

The result suggests that the sexual permissiveness is influenced by the sexual behaviour of subjected to forceful sex. As interaction effect is found the result is presented in the Figure 4.1. The interaction effect shows that there is greater variation of sexual permissiveness of female respondents who were subjected to forceful sex as compared to female respondents who had not such experience. The difference in sexual permissiveness between male and female respondents who were subjected to forceful sex is comparatively less. The result is in line with the finding of one study. Wellman *et al.* (2003) have found significant differences in sexual behaviours between women who had victims of childhood sexual abuse and those who had not.

Table 4.11

Summary of ANOVA. Homosexual act and Gender (2 x 2)

Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F-ratio
Homosexual act	542.242	1	542.242	4.432*
Gender	181.597	1	181.597	1.484
Homosexual act X Gender	201.420	1	201.420	1.646
Residual Error	55775.35	466	119.69	
Total	2907106.00	470		

* significance at the 0.05 level.

Table 4.12

Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Homosexual act

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
No Homosexual act	Male	79.4821	224	11.60561
	Female	74.6885	183	10.30183
	Total	77.3268	407	11.28074
Homosexual act	Male	81.0577	52	11.38181
	Female	81.1818	11	10.25493
	Total	81.0794	63	11.11422
Total	Male	79.7790	276	11.55973
	Female	75.0567	194	10.38242
	Total	77.8298	470	11.31940

The table 4.12 reveals that subject who had homosexual experience showed significantly greater sexual permissiveness as compared to the subject who had not such experience. But the gender of the respondents did not show any significant difference.

Table 4.13

Summary of ANOVA. Intercourse and Gender (2 x 2)

Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F-ratio
Interaction	1774.49	1	1774.49	14.82**
Gender	71.20	1	71.20	0.44
Homosexual act X Gender	440.41	1	440.41	3.68*
Residual Error	55775.35	466	119.69	
Total	2907106.00	470		

***significance at the 0.01 level.*

** significance at the 0.05 level.*

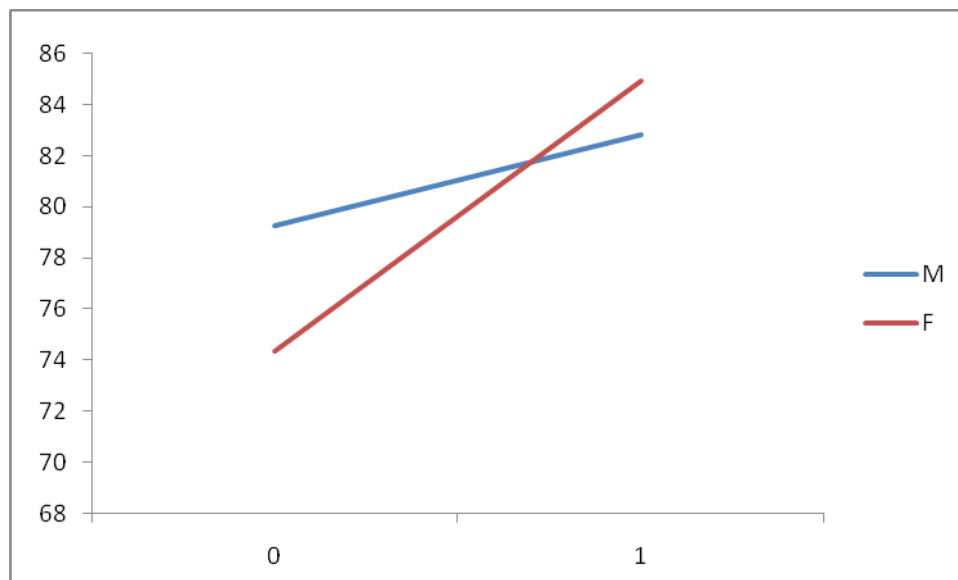
Table 4.14

Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Sexual intercourse

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
No Sexual Intercourse	Male	79.2785	237	11.68579
	Female	74.3481	181	10.10475
	Total	77.1435	418	11.28457
Sexual Intercourse	Male	82.8205	39	10.38691
	Female	84.9231	13	9.43806
	Total	83.3462	52	10.10898
Total	Male	79.7790	276	11.55973
	Female	75.0567	194	10.38242
	Total	77.8298	470	11.31940

Figure 4.2

**Interaction Effect
Sexual behaviour of Intercourse × Gender**



The result (table 4.13) reveals that, there is significant difference between the respondents who reported had sexual intercourse and had not such experience. The interaction effect shows that female respondent who had intercourse scored high on sexual permissiveness as compared to male respondents having reported intercourse. But in sexual permissiveness scores of male and female respondents without prior intercourse experience male

scored slightly high. That means the female respondents who had prior sexual experience are comparatively highly permissive. Comparing 40 Indian participants between the ages of 19 and 23 on prior sexual experience, Parsuram (1988) found that those with prior sexual experience were more permissive toward premarital sex while those with no prior sexual experience were more conservative.

Table 4.15

Summary of ANOVA. Masturbation and Gender (2 x 2)

Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F-ratio
Masturbation	1999.716	1	1999.716	16.775**
Gender	864.284	1	864.284	7.250
Masturbation X Gender	7.293	1	7.293	.061
Residual Error	55550.692	466	119.207	
Total	2907106.00	470		

** significance at the 0.01 level.

Table 4.16

Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Masturbation

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Not Masturbatory Practice	Male	76.4687	64	11.77564
	Female	73.1765	119	10.50234
	Total	74.3279	183	11.04495
Masturbatory Practice	Male	80.7783	212	11.33266
	Female	78.0400	75	9.51590
	Total	80.0627	287	10.93766
Total	Male	79.7790	276	11.55973
	Female	75.0567	194	10.38242
	Total	77.8298	470	11.31940

The sexual permissiveness of subjects who indulged in masturbation is higher than the score of those who were not reported such act. The main effect of gender is also found. The respondents who reported masturbatory

practices significantly differs on sexual permissiveness from those who did not report [F (df 1,466) = 16.77]. Das *et al.* (2007) noted a series of factors, such as liberal sexual values and sexual knowledge, are related to the current probability of masturbation (Das *et al.*, 2007).

Table 4.17

Summary of ANOVA. Difficulty to control sex and Gender (2 x 2)

Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F-ratio
Difficulty to control sex	1144.792	1	1144.792	9.460**
Gender	733.778	1	733.778	6.064*
Difficulty to control sex X Gender	295.758	1	295.758	2.444
Residual Error	56391.962	466	121.013	
Total	2907106.00	470		

** significance at 0.01 level

* significance at 0.05 level

Table 4.18

Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Difficulty to control sex

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Not Difficult to Control Sex	Male	78.8951	143	11.48221
	Female	74.0127	158	10.20740
	Total	76.3322	301	11.08584
Difficulty to Control Sex	Male	80.7293	133	11.61055
	Female	79.6389	36	10.02612
	Total	80.4970	169	11.27213
Total	Male	79.7790	276	11.55973
	Female	75.0567	194	10.38242
	Total	77.8298	470	11.31940

The table 4.17, there is a main effect of the variable, difficult to control sex on sexual permissiveness. The F-value (see table 4.17) reveals that the subjects who have reported difficulty to control sex is more permissive as compared to those who have not reported.

Table 4.19

Summary of ANOVA. Guilty and Gender (2 x 2)

Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F-ratio
Guilty	141.433	1	141.433	1.149
Gender	2369.811	1	2369.811	19.248
Guilty X Gender	11.924	1	11.924	.097
Residual Error	57372.771	466	123.118	
Total	2907106.00	470		

Table 4.20

Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Guilty

Sexual Behaviour	sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
No Guilt	Male	80.4062	160	11.80411
	Female	75.3359	128	10.30196
	Total	78.1528	288	11.42485
Guilty	Male	78.9138	116	11.20681
	Female	74.5152	66	10.59498
	Total	77.3187	182	11.16266
Total	Male	79.7790	276	11.55973
	Female	75.0567	194	10.38242
	Total	77.8298	470	11.31940

The table 4.20 reveals that though comparatively less guilty subjects are more sexually permissive as compared to more guilty, it is not found statistically significant (see table 4.19).

Table 4.21

Summary of ANOVA. Pornography and Gender (2 x 2)

Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F-ratio
Pornography	2118.609	1	2118.609	17.868**
Gender	702.794	1	702.794	5.927*

Pornography X Gender	162.152	1	162.152	1.368
Residual Error	55252.867	466	118.568	
Total	2907106.00	470		

** Significance at 0.01 level

* Significance at 0.05 level

Table 4.22

Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Pornography use

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
No Pornography use	Male	75.0968	62	10.90452
	Female	73.6810	116	10.28346
	Total	74.1742	178	10.49498
Pornography use	Male	81.1355	214	11.41226
	Female	77.1026	78	10.25467
	Total	80.0582	292	11.24058
Total	Male	79.7790	276	11.55973
	Female	75.0567	194	10.38242
	Total	77.8298	470	11.31940

From the table 4.21 it is found that sexual permissiveness of subjects who reported pornography use significantly differs from those who did not [F (df 1, 466) = 17.86]. The table 4.22 indicate that subjects who reported pornography use, scored high on permissiveness, and the main effect of gender is also observed. But no interaction effect.

The study support the observation of Traeen *et al.* (2002). He observed that pornography is one sex related act in which the respondents who indulge in masturbation differs from those who had not masturbated. Replicated studies have demonstrated that exposure to significant amounts of increasingly graphic forms of pornography has a dramatic effect on how adult consumers view women, sexual abuse, sexual relationships, and sex in general.

Table 4.23

Summary of ANOVA. Talking Sex and Gender (2 x 2)

Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F-ratio
Talking sex	932.531	1	932.531	7.676**
Gender	1907.573	1	1907.573	15.701**
Talking sex X Gender	.807	1	0.807	0.007
Residual Error	56614.303	466	121.490	
Total	2907106.00			

** significance at 0.01 level

Table 4.24

Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on talking sex

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Not Talking Sex	Male	77.8161	87	11.47346
	Female	73.5053	95	10.04868
	Total	75.5659	182	10.93848
Talking Sex	Male	80.6825	189	11.51709
	Female	76.5455	99	10.52914
	Total	79.2604	288	11.34100
Total	Male	79.7790	276	11.55973
	Female	75.0567	194	10.38242
	Total	77.8298	470	11.31940

From the table 4.23, it is evident that, for the variable sexual permissiveness, the main effects ($F = 7.67$, df 1,466, $p < 0.01$) for both variables, talking about sex (reported talking sex/not talking) and gender ($F = 15.70$, df 1,466, $p < 0.01$) is significant. But no interaction effect is found. As the cell means and standard deviations presented in the table 4.24 indicate that the group who reported talking sex has high permissiveness mean score ($M = 79.26$ and $M = 75.56$ respectively) than those who reported not talking about sex. The table 4.23 also reveals that make subjects who reported talking

about sex scored comparatively higher permissive score compared to other groups.

Table 4.25

Summary of ANOVA. Love with opposite sex and Gender (2 x 2)

Source of variance	Sum of squares	Df	Mean squares	F-ratio
Love with opposite sex	2072.542	1	2072.542	17.412**
Gender	2476.880	1	2476.880	20.809**
Love with opp sex X Gender	112.598	1	112.598	.946
Residual Error	55467.797	466	119.030	
Total	2907106.00			

*** Significance at 0.01 level*

Table 4.26

Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Love with opposite sex

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Not Love with Opposite Sex	Male	77.7264	106	12.32383
	Female	71.9634	82	9.53932
	Total	75.2128	188	11.52850
Love with Opposite Sex	Male	81.0588	170	10.89906
	Female	77.3214	112	10.42970
	Total	79.5745	282	10.85212
Total	Male	79.7790	276	11.55973
	Female	75.0567	194	10.38242
	Total	77.8298	470	11.31940

From the Table 4.25, it is evident that, for the variable sexual permissiveness, the main effect ($F = 17.41$ df 1,466, $p < 0.01$) of both variables, love with opposite sex and gender ($F = 20.80$, df 1,466, $p < 0.01$) is significant. No interaction effect is found. As the Table 4.26, shows cell means and standard deviations indicate that the group who reported love with opposite sex has high permissive mean score than those who reported not such behaviour ($M = 79.57$ and $M = 75.21$ respectively). Harrisen *et al.* (1974) found that women changed their sexual standards towards being more permissive as they accumulated dating experience.

Table 4.27

Summary of ANOVA. Love with Same sex and Gender (2 x 2)

Source of Variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F-ratio
Love with same sex	374.518	1	374.518	3.052
Gender	499.693	1	499.693	4.073*
Love with opp sex X Gender	113.369	1	113.369	.924
Residual Error	57176.471	466	122.696	
Total	2907106.00			

* *significance at 0.05 level*

Table 4.27 reveals there is no group difference on sexual permissiveness with regard to love with same sex ($F=3.05$, df 1,466, $p>0.05$). But the main effect of gender is found. No interaction effect is found.

Table 4.28

Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Love with same sex

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
No love with same sex	Male	79.4977	215	11.60038
	Female	74.6723	177	10.45580
	Total	77.3189	392	11.34206
Love with same sex	Male	80.7705	61	11.45483
	Female	79.0588	17	8.89150
	Total	80.3974	78	10.91685
Total	Male	79.7790	276	11.55973
	Female	75.0567	194	10.38242
	Total	77.8298	470	11.31940

Table 4.29

Summary of ANOVA. Love failure and Gender (2 x 2)

Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F-ratio
Love failure	374.518	1	374.518	3.052
Gender	644.177	1	644.177	5.369*
Love failure X Gender	275.937	1	275.937	13.381
Residual Error	55915.464	466	119.990	
Total	2907106.00			

Table 4.30

Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Love failure

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Not love failure	Male	79.1781	219	11.79139
	Female	73.9695	164	10.06142
	Total	76.9478	383	11.36668
Love failure	Male	82.0877	57	10.39794
	Female	81.0000	30	10.25536
	Total	81.7126	87	10.30230
Total	Male	79.7790	276	11.55973
	Female	75.0567	194	10.38242
	Total	77.8298	470	11.31940

From the Table 4.29, it can be seen that the main effect of love failure is not significant on sexual permissiveness. The Table 4.30, shows that though the mean scores of two groups differ (M=81.71, M=76.94), statistical significance is not found. The main effect of gender is found, but no interaction effect.

Table 4.31

Summary of ANOVA. Fear of opposite sex and Gender (2 x 2)

Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F-ratio
Fear of opposite sex	18.091	1	18.091	.147
Gender	2628.024	1	2628.024	21.322**
Love with opp sex X Gender	110.059	1	110.059	.893
Residual Error	57435.922	466	123.253	
Total	2907106.00		374.51	3.05

** significance at 0.01 level

Table 4.32

Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Fear of opposite sex

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
No fear of opposite sex	Male	79.5618	178	11.33013
	Female	75.5635	126	10.42343
	Total	77.9046	304	11.12222
Fear of opposite sex	Male	80.1735	98	12.01462
	Female	74.1176	68	10.31667
	Total	77.6928	166	11.70479
Total	Male	79.7790	276	11.55973
	Female	75.0567	194	10.38242
	Total	77.8298	470	11.31940

The Table 4.31 reveals the main effect of fear of opposite sex is not significant on sexual permissiveness. Though the main effect of gender found on the permissiveness, no interaction effect is evidenced.

Table 4.33

Summary of ANOVA Secrecy in Sex and Gender (2 x 2)

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F-ratio
Secrecy	572.343	2	286.171	2.339
Gender	2055.926	1	2055.926	16.806
Secrecy X Gender	28.711	1	28.711	.235
Error	56883.485	465	122.330	
Total	2907106.000	470		

The main effect of secrecy (see Table 4.33) in sex on sexual permissiveness is also not found to be differ significantly. The variable gender effect is found. No interaction effect is also found.

Table 4.34

Mean and standard deviation of sexual permissiveness of subjects on Secrecy

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
No Secrecy	Male	78.1011	89	11.06288
	Female	74.0179	56	10.51837
	Total	76.5241	145	11.00131
Secrecy	Male	80.5775	187	11.73352
	Female	75.4783	138	10.33541
	Total	78.4123	325	11.42700
Total	Male	79.7790	276	11.55973
	Female	75.0567	194	10.38242
	Total	77.8298	470	11.31940

The results reveal that subjects subjected to forceful sex, homosexual experience, masturbation, pornography, talking about sex, love with opposite sex, love failure are having significantly greater score on permissiveness. Comparatively greater difference is found on the variable of pornography use

(see table 4.21) It may be due to the fact that attitudes are mostly developed on the basis of sexual experiences.

Based on these analyses, 6th hypothesis is rejected. However among the studied sexual behaviours, out of 13 variables analysed, 7 variables supporting the hypothesis.

D. Relationship of sexual permissiveness to dimensions of personality

Table 4.35

Correlations between Sexual Permissiveness and Personality Dimensions

Variable	Inertia	Activation	Stability
Sexual permissiveness	-.20**	.30**	-.05

*** significance at the 0.01 level*

To know the relationship between sexual permissiveness and dimensions of personality, product –moment correlation was calculated and it is presented in table 4.35. The result reveals that sexual permissiveness is negatively correlated with Inertia dimension ($r=-.20, p<0.01$). The formulated hypothesis in the present investigation was sexual permissiveness is positively related to the Inertia dimension of personality. But the result showed that it is negatively related. So the 7th hypothesis is rejected.

The same statistical procedure was done to test the 8th hypothesis. The result shows that sexual permissiveness is positively correlated (.30, $p<0.01$) with Activation dimension of personality. So the 8th hypothesis is accepted.

Mathew (1995) stated that modern concept of extraversion include a mixture of Activation and Stability. In study, Heaven et al (2007) found that Neuroticism (N) and Extraversion (E) appeared to be the most important predictors of attitudes to sex. The result of the present study is somewhat in line with this previous finding.

To test the 9th hypothesis, that is sexual permissiveness is negatively related to Stability dimension, coefficient of correlation is calculated and it is shown in the table 4.35. It is not statistically significant. So the 9th hypothesis is rejected.

E. Analysis of dimensions of personality related to different sexual behaviours

To know the difference of the sexual behaviours and gender on the three dimensions –Inertia, Activation and Stability- of personality, groups are considered on the basis of subjects who reported a particular behaviour and those who did not. Two way ANOVA was computed and the results of ANOVA for Inertia dimension of personality are presented in table 4.36. The corresponding cell means and standard deviations for the groups also calculated and are presented in Table 4.37.

Table 4.36

Summary of ANOVA of Inertia by different behaviours × sex (2x2)

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F-ratio
Subjected to forceful sex	256.51	1	256.51	1.65
Sex	656.31	1	656.31	4.23*
Subjected to forceful sex X sex	721.23	1	721.23	4.65*
Residual Error	72226.82	466	154.99	
Homosexual act	8.47	1	8.47	.05
Sex	27.21	1	27.21	.17
Homosexual act X sex	0.10	1	0.10	.00
Residual Error	73225.53	466	157.13	
Sexual Intercourse	114.55	1	114.55	0.73
Sex	15.05	1	15.05	.09
Sexual Intercourse X sex	97.84	1	97.84	.62
Residual Error	73092.22	466	156.85	
Illegitimate Sex	56.11	1	56.11	.35
Sex	130.05	1	130.05	.82
Illegitimate Sex X sex	76.71	1	76.71	.49
Residual Error	73154.39	466	156.98	
Total	425345.00	470		
Masturbation	272.31	1	272.31	1.74
Sex	145.56	1	145.56	.93
Masturbation X sex	164.42	1	164.42	.48

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F-ratio
Residual Error	72814.10	466	156.25	
Difficulty to Control Sex	223.98	1	223.98	1.43
Sex	35.99	1	35.99	0.23
Difficulty to Control Sex X sex	93.85	1	93.85	0.60
Residual Error	72718.25	466	156.04	
Sex Guilt	583.76	1	583.76	3.75*
Sex	63.00	1	63.00	0.40
Sex Guilt X sex	82.38	1	82.38	0.53
Residual Error	72440.87	466	155.45	
Pornography use	43.99	1	43.99	.28
Sex	99.04	1	99.04	.63
Pornography use X sex	2.18	1	2.18	.01
Residual Error	73191.39	466	157.06	
Talking Sex	7.44	1	7.44	.04
Sex	96.84	1	96.84	.61
Talking Sex X sex	34.30	1	34.30	.21
Residual Error	73191.77	466	157.06	
Love with opposite sex	169.37	1	169.37	1.08
Sex	127.26	1	127.26	.81
Love with opposite sex X sex	319.14	1	319.14	2.04
Residual Error	72812.06	466	156.24	
Love with same sex	389.40	1	389.40	2.49
Sex	98.31	1	98.31	.63
Love with same sex X sex	7.11	1	7.11	.04
Residual Error	72775.01	466	156.17	
Love failure	389.40	1	389.40	2.49
Sex	49.28	1	49.28	.31
Love failure X sex	437.40	1	437.40	2.80
Residual Error	72777.57	466	156.17	
Fear of opposite sex	426.39	1	426.39	2.73
Sex	180.18	1	180.18	1.15
Fear of opposite sex X sex	314.34	1	314.34	2.01
Residual Error	72606.54	466	155.80	
Secrecy in Sex	5.34	1	5.34	.03
Sex	45.16	1	45.16	.28
Secrecy in Sex X sex	6.49	1	6.49	2.80
Residual Error	73227.44	466	157.14	
Total	425345.00	470		

Table 4.37 Mean and standard deviation of Inertia Dimension of personal on different sexual behaviours

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Not subjected to forceful sex	Male	27.17	254	12.88
	Female	26.98	169	12.97

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
	Total	27.09	423	12.90
Subjected to forceful sex	Male	25.50	22	6.35
	Female	33.60	25	6.92
	Total	29.80	47	7.75
Total	Male	27.03	276	12.48
	Female	27.84	194	12.55
	Total	27.37	470	12.50
Not Homosexual act	Male	26.96	224	12.18
	Female	27.80	183	12.68
	Total	27.34	407	12.39
Homosexual act	Male	27.40	52	13.85
	Female	28.36	11	10.49
	Total	27.57	63	13.26
Total	Male	27.04	276	12.48
	Female	27.84	194	12.55
	Total	27.37	470	12.50
Not Sexual Intercourse	Male	27.06	237	12.29
	Female	28.07	181	12.66
	Total	27.49	418	12.45
Sexual Intercourse	Male	26.92	39	13.72
	Female	24.62	13	10.74
	Total	26.35	52	12.98
Total	Male	27.04	276	12.48
	Female	27.84	194	12.55
	Total	27.37	470	12.50
Not Illegitimate Sex	Male	27.07	252	12.19
	Female	27.73	189	12.48
	Total	27.35	441	12.30
Illegitimate Sex	Male	26.75	24	15.55
	Female	31.80	5	16.08
	Total	27.62	29	15.47
Total	Male	27.04	276	12.48
	Female	27.84	194	12.55
	Total	27.37	470	12.50
Not Masturbation	Male	26.75	64	13.01
	Female	26.67	119	12.16
	Total	26.69	183	12.43
Masturbation	Male	27.13	212	12.35
	Female	29.68	75	13.00
	Total	27.79	287	12.55
Total	Male	27.04	276	12.48

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
	Female	27.84	194	12.55
	Total	27.37	470	12.50
Not Difficulty to control sex	Male	28.35	143	13.19
	Female	27.94	158	12.74
	Total	28.14	301	12.94
Difficulty to control sex	Male	25.63	133	11.56
	Female	27.36	36	11.84
	Total	26.00	169	11.60
Total	Male	27.04	276	12.48
	Female	27.84	194	12.55
	Total	27.37	470	12.50
Not Sex Guilt	Male	25.68	160	12.02
	Female	27.34	128	12.85
	Total	26.42	288	12.39
Sex Guilt	Male	28.91	116	12.92
	Female	28.80	66	11.98
	Total	28.87	182	12.55
Total	Male	27.04	276	12.48
	Female	27.84	194	12.55
	Total	27.37	470	12.50
Not Pornography	Male	26.63	62	12.01
	Female	27.50	116	12.74
	Total	27.19	178	12.46
Pornography	Male	27.16	214	12.64
	Female	28.33	78	12.32
	Total	27.47	292	12.55
Total	Male	27.04	276	12.48
	Female	27.84	194	12.55
	Total	27.37	470	12.50
Not Talking sex	Male	26.47	87	11.47
	Female	27.99	95	12.27
	Total	27.26	182	11.89
Talking sex	Male	27.30	189	12.94
	Female	27.69	99	12.87
	Total	27.43	288	12.89
Total	Male	27.04	276	12.48
	Female	27.83	194	12.55

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
	Total	27.37	470	12.50
Not Love with opposite sex	Male	26.75	106	12.79
	Female	29.54	82	14.65
	Total	27.97	188	13.66
Love with opposite sex	Male	27.22	170	12.32
	Female	26.59	112	10.65
	Total	26.97	282	11.67
Total	Male	27.03	276	12.48
	Female	27.83	194	12.55
	Total	27.37	470	12.50
Not Love with Same Sex	Male	26.49	215	12.17
	Female	27.55	177	12.73
	Total	26.97	392	12.42
Love with Same Sex	Male	28.98	61	13.47
	Female	30.82	17	10.32
	Total	29.38	78	12.81
Total	Male	27.04	276	12.48
	Female	27.84	194	12.55
	Total	27.37	470	12.50
Not Love Failure	Male	26.54	219	12.18
	Female	28.26	164	12.65
	Total	27.28	383	12.39
Love Failure	Male	28.96	57	13.53
	Female	25.50	30	11.91
	Total	27.77	87	13.03
Total	Male	27.04	276	12.48
	Female	27.83	194	12.55
	Total	27.37	470	12.50
Not Fear of Opposite Sex	Male	26.94	178	12.89
	Female	26.52	126	13.01
	Total	26.76	304	12.92
Fear of Opposite Sex	Male	27.22	98	11.77
	Female	30.28	68	11.32
	Total	28.48	166	11.65
Total	Male	27.04	276	12.48
	Female	27.84	194	12.55
	Total	27.37	470	12.50
Not Secrecy in	Male	27.05	89	12.45

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
sex	Female	27.48	56	11.92
	Total	27.22	145	12.21
Secrecy in sex	Male	27.03	187	12.53
	Female	27.98	138	12.83
	Total	27.43	325	12.65
Total	Male	27.04	276	12.48
	Female	27.83	194	12.55
	Total	27.37	470	12.50

From the tables 4.36 and 4.37 it can be seen that F value shows no significant main effects difference in the mean score of inertia dimension of personality for the groups subjected to forceful sex and those did not. The mean scores of the two groups are more or less equal (M=27.03; 27.83 respectively). Similar is the score in the cases of homosexual act, sexual intercourse, illegitimate sex, pornography,, talking about sex, ,love with same sex, love failure and secrecy in sex. Though the group means of other sexual behaviour, like masturbation, difficulty to control sex, sex guilt, love with opposite sex, fear of opposite sex, differ statistical significance is found only in the sexual behaviour of sex guilt (see table 4.37). That means the different Inertia dimension is not related to sexual behaviours except, sex guilt under study. The respondent with sex guilt scored high on Inertia score of personality dimension as compared to the respondents did not report sex guilt (M= 28.87 (SD=12.55) and 26.41(SD=12.39) for reported guilt respondent and no reported guilt respectively. The trait of Inertia is described as lethargic, anxious, inhibited, shy and submissive characteristics (Mathew, 1995).

The result is not supporting the 10th hypothesis, that is subjects having a particular sexual behaviour differ in the Inertia dimension of personality. So this hypothesis is rejected.

To test whether any significant difference in Activation dimension of personality, t dimension 2way ANOVA was computed the results are

presented in the Table 4.38. The means standard deviations of different groups are presented in the Table 4.39.

Table 4.38

Summary of ANOVA of Activation by different behaviours × sex (2x2)

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F-ratio
Subjected to forceful sex	280.40	1	280.40	2.46
Sex	845.68	1	845.60	7.44**
Subjected to forceful sex X sex	683.21	1	683.21	6.01*
Residual Error	52935.61	466	113.59	
Homosexual act	183.30	1	183.30	1.62
Sex	300.61	1	300.61	2.65
Homosexual act X sex	268.78	1	268.78	2.37
Residual Error	52730.93	466	113.15	
Sexual Intercourse	877.36	1	877.36	7.81**
Sex	143.89	1	143.89	1.28
Sexual Intercourse X sex	83.20	1	83.20	.74
Residual Error	52314.15	466	112.26	
Illegitimate Sex	1.33	1	1.33	.01
Sex	45.17	1	45.17	.39
Illegitimate Sex X sex	5.73	1	5.73	.05
Residual Error	53850.77	466	115.56	
Masturbation	1251.88	1	1251.89	11.10**
Sex	10.29	1	10.29	.09
Masturbation X sex	50.95	1	50.95	.45
Residual Error	52547.51	466	112.76	
Total	419539.00	470		
Difficulty to Control Sex	2.89	1	2.89	.02
Sex	6.79	1	6.79	.05
Difficulty to Control Sex X sex	507.05	1	507.05	4.43*
Residual Error	53296.59	466	114.37	
Sex Guilt	32.69	1	32.69	.28
Sex	183.29	1	183.29	1.58
Sex Guilt X sex	68.37	1	68.37	.59
Residual Error	53741.43	466	115.32	
Pornography use	1032.98	1	1032.98	9.11**
Sex	1.21	1	1.21	.01
Pornography use X sex	442.58	1	442.58	3.90*
Residual Error	52794.62	466	113.29	
Talking Sex	7.44	1	7.44	.04
Sex	98.24	1	98.24	.84

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F-ratio
Talking Sex X sex	192.87	1	192.87	1.66
Residual Error	53939.56	466	115.75	
Love with opposite sex	711.39	1	711.39	6.19*
Sex	81.07	1	81.07	.70
Love with opposite sex X sex	.06	1	.06	.00
Residual Error	53517.83	466	114.84	
Love with same sex	74.75	1	74.75	.64
Sex	81.83	1	81.83	.70
Love with same sex X sex	27.37	1	27.37	.23
Residual Error	54050.53	466	115.98	
Love failure	462.21	1	462.21	4.00*
Sex	.88	1	.88	.00
Love failure X sex	79.75	1	79.75	2.80
Residual Error	53778.84	466	115.40	
Fear of opposite sex	229.57	1	229.57	1.98
Sex	173.57	1	173.57	1.49
Fear of opposite sex X sex	124.94	1	124.94	1.07
Residual Error	53946.04	466	115.764	
Secrecy in Sex	99.28	1	99.28	.85
Sex	89.46	1	89.46	.77
Secrecy in Sex X sex	.62	1	.62	.00
Residual Error	54142.47	466	116.18	
Total	419539.00	470		

Table 4.39 Mean and standard deviation of Activation on different sexual behaviours

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Not subjected to forceful sex	Male	27.74	254	10.77
	Female	27.52	169	10.89
	Total	27.66	423	10.80
Subjected to forceful sex	Male	34.36	22	10.81
	Female	25.84	25	8.16
	Total	29.83	47	10.32
Total	Male	28.27	276	10.89
	Female	27.31	194	10.57
	Total	27.87	470	10.77
Not Homosexual act	Male	27.29	224	10.52
	Female	27.35	183	10.66
	Total	27.32	407	10.57
Homosexual act	Male	32.48	52	11.59
	Female	26.63	11	9.36

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
	Total	31.46	63	11.39
Total	Male	28.27	276	10.89
	Female	27.30	194	10.57
	Total	27.87	470	10.77
Not Sexual Intercourse	Male	27.35	237	10.91
	Female	27.09	181	10.73
	Total	27.24	418	10.82
Sexual Intercourse	Male	33.85	39	9.10
	Female	30.30	13	7.74
	Total	32.96	52	8.84
Total	Male	28.27	276	10.89
	Female	27.30	194	10.57
	Total	27.87	470	10.77
Not Illegitimate Sex	Male	28.19	252	10.80
	Female	27.32	189	10.64
	Total	27.82	441	10.73
Illegitimate Sex	Male	29.08	24	12.09
	Female	26.80	5	8.47
	Total	28.69	29	11.45
Total	Male	28.27	276	10.89
	Female	27.30	194	10.57
	Total	27.87	470	10.77
Not Masturbation	Male	24.92	64	9.81
	Female	26.18	119	9.53
	Total	25.74	183	9.63
Masturbation	Male	29.28	212	11.03
	Female	29.09	75	11.89
	Total	29.23	287	11.24
Total	Male	28.27	276	10.89
	Female	27.31	194	10.57
	Total	27.87	470	10.77
Not Difficulty to control sex	Male	29.38	143	11.80
	Female	26.79	158	10.82
	Total	28.02	301	11.35
Difficulty to control sex	Male	27.08	133	9.74
	Female	29.56	36	9.24
	Total	27.61	169	9.67
Total	Male	28.27	276	10.89
	Female	27.30	194	10.57
	Total	27.87	470	10.77

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Not Sex Guilt	Male	27.70	160	10.67
	Female	27.50	128	11.15
	Total	27.61	288	10.87
Sex Guilt	Male	29.06	116	11.20
	Female	26.94	66	9.43
	Total	28.29	182	10.62
Total	Male	28.27	276	10.89
	Female	27.30	194	10.57
	Total	27.87	470	10.77
Not Pornography	Male	27.39	62	12.05
	Female	25.11	116	9.39
	Total	25.90	178	10.42
Pornography	Male	28.53	214	10.56
	Female	30.58	78	11.43
	Total	29.08	292	10.81
Total	Male	28.27	276	10.89
	Female	27.31	194	10.57
	Total	27.87	470	10.77
Not Talking sex	Male	28.16	87	11.49
	Female	26.02	95	9.54
	Total	27.04	182	10.55
Talking sex	Male	28.32	189	10.64
	Female	28.55	99	11.39
	Total	28.39	288	10.89
Total	Male	28.27	276	10.89
	Female	27.31	194	10.57
	Total	27.87	470	10.77
Not Love with opposite sex	Male	26.69	106	11.00
	Female	25.85	82	9.97
	Total	26.32	188	10.54
Love with opposite sex	Male	29.26	170	10.75
	Female	28.38	112	10.92
	Total	28.91	282	10.81
Total	Male	28.27	276	10.89
	Female	27.31	194	10.57
	Total	27.87	470	10.77
Not Love with Same Sex	Male	27.82	215	10.79

Sexual Behaviour	Sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
	Female	27.27	177	10.75
	Total	27.57	392	10.76
Love with Same Sex	Male	29.85	61	11.24
	Female	27.76	17	8.75
	Total	29.39	78	10.73
Total	Male	28.27	276	10.89
	Female	27.31	194	10.57
	Total	27.87	470	10.77
Not Love Failure	Male	27.95	219	10.73
	Female	26.73	164	9.92
	Total	27.43	383	10.39
Love Failure	Male	29.51	57	11.55
	Female	30.50	30	13.35
	Total	29.85	87	12.13
Total	Male	28.27	276	10.89
	Female	27.31	194	10.57
	Total	27.87	470	10.77
Not Fear of Opposite Sex	Male	28.41	178	11.13
	Female	28.21	126	11.59
	Total	28.33	304	11.30
Fear of Opposite Sex	Male	28.02	98	10.53
	Female	25.63	68	8.19
	Total	27.04	166	9.69
Total	Male	28.27	276	10.89
	Female	27.31	194	10.57
	Total	27.87	470	10.77
Not Secrecy in sex	Male	27.53	89	11.59
	Female	26.64	56	10.34
	Total	27.19	145	11.09
Secrecy in sex	Male	28.63	187	10.57
	Female	27.58	138	10.69
	Total	28.18	325	10.62
Total	Male	28.27	276	10.89
	Female	27.31	194	10.57
	Total	27.87	470	10.77

The mean score of Activation of the subjects subjected to forceful sex differ from those not subjected, but the difference is significant (see table

4.39). Similarly in the case of homosexual act the mean scores of the groups differ not significantly.

The subjects reported intercourse scored high as compared to the subjects those not had such experience in the Activation dimension of personality ($F= 7.81$, $p<0.01$; $M=32.96$, $SD= 8.84$; $M=27.24$, $SD= 10.82$ respectively).

In the variable of illegitimate sex, the subjects in two groups differ, but it is not significant ($F=.01$, $df1,466$, $p>0.08$). No main effects of sexual behaviour and gender is found.

The main effect of sexual behaviour, masturbation, is found in the score of Activation dimension personality as the mean score of the subjects indulge in masturbation differ significantly from those who did not. The F-value is 7.81 ($df,1,466$, $p<0.01$) indicate the significant difference. Lippa (cited in Heaven et al,2007) found self-directed sexual desire (including the desire to masturbate) to be strongly correlated with personality traits like extraversion among men. Mathew (1995) pointed that the modern concept of extraversion includes a mixture of activation and stability. So the present finding correspond to the this finding.

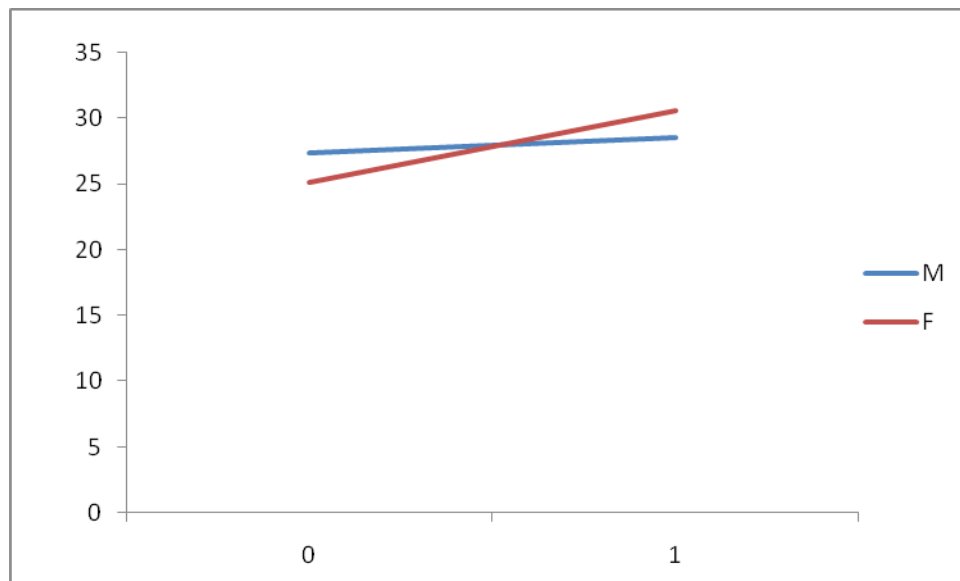
Though no there no main effects of the sexual behaviour of difficulty to control sex and gender on the Activation score, interaction effect is found. But no significant difference on the variable of sex guilt ($M=28.92$ for sex guilt group; $M=27.61$ for no sex guilty group $F= .28$, $df 1, 466$, $P>.0.05$).

The subjects who reported pornography use scored higher means on the Activation dimension of personality as compared to the those who did not. The main effect ($F=9.11$, $df 1,466$ $p<0.01$) of pornography use and interaction effect is also found.

The means of two groups presented in the table 4.39 represented in the Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.3

Interaction effect
Activation dimension of personality X pornography use



The result suggest that the male- female difference in the Activation dimension of personality are more or less same in two groups, but female subjects scored high Activation score as compared to the males.

As the subjects' mean score for two groups are almost same, no significant main effects of sexual behaviour of talking sex and gender is found.

On the variable, Love with opposite sex, the groups of reported and not reported differ ($F(df, 1,466)=6.19, p<0.01$). But no main effect of gender is found. The groups also differ with respect to the love failure, as the group who reported such experience ($F(df, 1,466)=6.19, p<0.01$). No significant difference was found in the Activation dimension of personality of those who reported love with same and did not. The F value 0.64 ($df=1,466$) $p>0.05$. Similarly the main effect of fear of opposite sex is not related to the Activation dimension of personality (see table 4.38 and 4.39). No statistical significant difference found in the main effect of behaviour, secrecy in sex and gender in the Activation dimension personality.

To sum up, the table 4.38 and 4.39 show that subjects differ in the sexual behaviour such as intercourse, masturbation, pornography use, love affair and love failure with respect to their scores of Activation dimension of personality. In the present study, it is found pornography use is demonstrated to have significant links with of Activation dimension of personality among females.

In the present investigation out of 14 sexual behaviours analysed, only 5 behaviours significantly relate do Activation dimension of personality. So the 11th hypothesis rejected.

To find out the effects of different behaviours and gender on the stability dimension of personality, 2 way ANOVA was calculated and is presented in the Table 4.40.

Table 4.40

Summary of ANOVA of Stability by different behaviours × sex (2x2)

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F-ratio
Subjected to forceful sex	1032.53	1	1032.53	4.36*
Sex	44.33	1	44.33	.18
Subjected to forceful sex X sex	5.56	1	5.56	.02
Residual Error	110178.77	466	236.43	
Homosexual act	198.22	1	198.22	.84
Sex	308.28	1	308.28	1.37
Homosexual act X sex	306.85	1	306.85	1.30
Residual Error	109955.40	466	235.95	
Sexual Intercourse	376.16	1	376.16	1.59
Sex	433.50	1	433.50	1.84
Sexual Intercourse X sex	401.40	1	401.47	1.70
Residual Error	109761.65	466	235.54	
Illegitimate Sex	42.57	1	42.57	.17
Sex	5.10	1	5.10	.02
Illegitimate Sex X sex	3.34	1	3.34	.01
Residual Error	111172.14	466	238.56	
Total	1277372.00	470		
Masturbation	2722.45	1	2722.45	11.69**
Sex	90.80	1	90.80	.39
Masturbation X sex	.24	1	.24	.00
Residual Error	108496.38	466	232.82	
Difficulty to Control Sex	245.86	1	245.86	1.050
Sex	11.69	1	11.69	.050
Difficulty to Control Sex X sex	1084.66	1	1084.66	4.631**

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F-ratio
Residual Error	109138.22	466	234.20	
Sex Guilt	447.46	1	447.46	1.89
Sex	212.31	1	212.31	.89
Sex Guilt X sex	478.78	1	478.78	2.02
Residual Error	110045.61	466	236.14	
Pornography use	1121.07	1	1121.07	4.76**
Sex	1.21	1	1.21	.01
Pornography use X sex	533.42	1	533.42	2.26
Residual Error	109592.28	466	235.17	
Talking Sex	125.05	1	125.05	.52
Sex	71.69	1	71.69	.301
Talking Sex X sex	11.72	1	11.72	1.66
Residual Error	111077.60	466	238.36	
Love with opposite sex	74.00	1	74.00	.31
Sex	32.88	1	32.88	.13
Love with opposite sex X sex	714.73	1	714.73	3.01
Residual Error	110339.28	466	236.78	
Love with same sex	558.40	1	558.40	2.36
Sex	57.42	1	57.42	.70
Love with same sex X sex	24.14	1	24.14	.10
Residual Error	110279.90	466	236.65	
Love failure	159.30	1	159.30	.67
Sex	489.10	1	489.10	2.06
Love failure X sex	488.96	1	488.96	2.06
Residual Error	110349.13	466	236.80	
Fear of opposite sex	229.57	1	229.57	1.98
Sex	55.71	1	55.71	.24
Fear of opposite sex X sex	132.83	1	132.83	.55
Residual Error	110865.30	466	237.90	
Secrecy in Sex	53.02	1	53.02	.22
Sex	134.45	1	134.45	.56
Secrecy in Sex X sex	4.73	1	4.73	.02
Residual Error	111170.27	466	238.56	
Total	1277372.00	470		

Table 4.41

Mean and standard deviation of Stability on different sexual behaviours

Sexual Behaviour	sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Not subjected to forceful sex	Male	49.73	254	43.36
	Female	51.12	169	50.43
	Total	50.28	423	50.28
Subjected to forceful sex	Male	45.13	22	49.36
	Female	45.80	25	50.43
	Total	45.48	47	49.80

Sexual Behaviour	sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Total	Male	47.32	254	47.32
	Female	46.32	169	48.14
	Total	46.83	423	47.51
Not Homosexual act	Male	46.41	254	46.31
	Female	45.28	169	41.83
	Total	45.81	423	48.95
Homosexual act	Male	48.41	22	46.13
	Female	47.38	25	47.32
	Total	47.31	47	49.38
Total	Male	48.13	276	47.61
	Female	46.23	194	43.12
	Total	47.18	470	45.86
Not Sexual Intercourse	Male	50.29	237	14.78
	Female	50.43	181	16.61
	Total	50.36	418	15.58
Sexual Intercourse	Male	43.69	39	13.04
	Female	50.54	13	13.02
	Total	45.40	52	13.25
Total	Male	49.37	276	14.71
	Female	50.44	194	16.37
	Total	49.81	470	15.41
Not Illegitimate Sex	Male	49.47	252	14.40
	Female	50.49	189	16.32
	Total	49.91	441	15.25
Illegitimate Sex	Male	48.29	24	17.94
	Female	48.40	5	20.06
	Total	48.31	29	17.94
Total	Male	49.37	276	14.71
	Female	50.44	194	16.37
	Total	49.81	470	15.41
Not Masturbation	Male	53.52	64	13.82
	Female	52.49	119	16.59
	Total	52.85	183	15.65
Masturbation	Male	48.11	212	14.77
	Female	47.19	75	15.57
	Total	47.87	287	14.96
Total	Male	49.37	276	14.71
	Female	50.44	194	16.37
	Total	49.81	470	15.41
Not Difficulty to control sex	Male	46.78	143	15.99

Sexual Behaviour	sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
	Female	50.79	158	16.89
	Total	48.89	301	16.57
Difficulty to control sex	Male	52.14	133	12.67
	Female	48.89	36	13.94
	Total	51.45	169	12.98
Total	Male	49.35	276	14.71
	Female	50.44	194	16.37
	Total	49.81	470	15.41
Not Sex Guilt	Male	51.13	160	13.98
	Female	50.41	128	17.03
	Total	50.81	288	15.38
Sex Guilt	Male	46.94	116	15.40
	Female	50.48	66	15.14
	Total	48.23	182	15.36
Total	Male	49.37	276	14.71
	Female	50.44	194	16.37
	Total	49.81	470	15.41
Not Pornography	Male	50.19	62	15.54
	Female	52.78	116	16.60
	Total	51.88	178	16.24
Pornography	Male	49.13	214	14.49
	Female	46.96	78	15.48
	Total	48.55	292	14.76
Total	Male	49.37	276	14.71
	Female	50.44	194	16.37
	Total	49.81	470	15.41
Not Talking sex	Male	50.33	87	14.73
	Female	50.82	95	15.97
	Total	50.59	182	15.35
Talking sex	Male	48.92	189	14.72
	Female	50.07	99	16.82
	Total	49.31	288	15.46
Total	Male	49.37	276	14.71
	Female	50.44	194	16.37
	Total	49.81	470	15.41
Not Love with opposite sex	Male	51.44	106	14.41
	Female	49.44	82	17.52
	Total	50.57	188	15.83
Love with opposite sex	Male	48.07	170	14.79

Sexual Behaviour	sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
	Female	51.17	112	15.52
	Total	49.30	282	15.13
Total	Male	49.37	276	14.71
	Female	50.44	194	16.37
	Total	49.81	470	15.41
Not Love with Same Sex	Male	50.29	215	14.77
	Female	50.68	177	16.52
	Total	50.46	392	15.57
Love with Same Sex	Male	46.11	61	14.14
	Female	47.94	17	14.88
	Total	46.51	78	14.23
Total	Male	49.37	276	14.71
	Female	50.44	194	16.37
	Total	49.81	470	15.41
Not Love Failure	Male	50.26	219	14.29
	Female	50.26	164	16.50
	Total	50.26	383	15.26
Love Failure	Male	45.95	57	15.88
	Female	51.43	30	15.85
	Total	47.84	87	15.99
Total	Male	49.37	276	14.71
	Female	50.44	194	16.37
	Total	49.81	470	15.41
Not Fear of Opposite Sex	Male	49.55	178	14.32
	Female	51.41	126	17.39
	Total	50.32	304	15.66
Fear of Opposite Sex	Male	49.03	98	15.46
	Female	48.63	68	14.24
	Total	48.87	166	14.93
Total	Male	49.37	276	14.71
	Female	50.44	194	16.37
	Total	49.81	470	15.41
Not Secrecy in sex	Male	49.72	89	15.80
	Female	51.13	56	17.93
	Total	50.26	145	16.61
Secrecy in sex	Male	49.19	187	14.20
	Female	50.16	138	15.75
	Total	49.61	325	14.87
Total	Male	49.37	276	14.71

Sexual Behaviour	sex	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
	Female	50.44	194	16.37
	Total	49.81	470	15.41

Table 4.40 reveals significant main effect of subjected to forceful sex on the Stability dimension of personality. The mean score of the group who did not subject to forceful sex is comparatively higher than those who were subjected. No significant difference found in the means scores of the subjects who reported homosexual act and did not. Similarly the subject who reported sexual intercourse and illegitimate sex also did not differ in their Stability scores as compared to those who did not. But the mean score of the group of the subjects who did not report masturbation scored comparatively high in the Stability dimension and the difference is statistically significant (for not masturbating group ,M= 52.84 , SD=15.64 and for reported masturbating group M=47.81 ,SD=14.96 ; F = 11.69, df 1,466, p<0.01) (see Table 4.41).

The subjects reported difficulty to control sex as compared to the subjects who have no difficulty did not significantly differ in their Stability dimension. No significant main effect of the variable sex guilt on Stability score also found in the results.

The main effect of sexual behaviour, pornography use , is found in the score of Stability dimension personality as the mean score of the subjects do not use pornographic materials differ significantly from those use it (F= 4.76, df,1,466, fp<0.01; for the subjects not pornographic use M=51.87, SD= 16.24 and for pornographic users M=48.54, SD= 14.7).

For other behaviours- talking sex, love with opposite sex, love with same sex, love failure, fear of opposite sex and secrecy in sex- no statistical difference is found in the scores of Stability dimension.

The Stability dimension of personality is related to three behaviours – subjected to forceful sex, masturbation, and pornography- only. In all these

behaviours the subjects who reported these behaviours scored less compared to the comparison groups. Only three sexual behaviours are related to Stability dimension of personality in which subjects found to be differ, the 12th hypothesis is rejected.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Overall results revealed that the majority of participants responding to this study believed sex as being the nature's gift, it is not against the religious belief, felt the necessity of sex education, believing sex perversions as a disease, pornography is acceptable, positive views about masturbation, liberal to family planning propaganda, and supporting sexual freedom; but disapproved of pre-marital sex (sexual relations without marriage), homosexuality, enjoying group sex, prostitution and illegitimate sex relations. All the responses show that subjects in general were not very permissive though they showed a tendency toward permissiveness. Most of the responses to the permissive items in the attitude scale were in the direction of disagreement. This observation is in agreement with that of Hendrick and Hendrick (1995) which indicate that people generally are not very permissive. The findings of the present study is in consistent with an Indian study. In one study among rural youth in India, Ghule et al (2007) found the majority of the students expressed conservative attitudes towards premarital sexuality.

Male respondents are apparently found to express more permissive attitude as compared to females. Gender difference is evidenced on the act of pornography, masturbation, sex education, sexual restriction, media portrayal (sexual content in cinema) and divine aspect of sex (*sex as sin*). The study reveals that males are more accepting than females on issues of pornography, masturbation, sex education, sexual content in cinema and sex as nature's gift. While female subjects are more disapproving than males on issues of sexual matters in the textbook and consider sex as sin and not appropriate for a religious persons. They are also expressed the view that sexual restriction lead to sexual violence.

With regard to the religion, respondents belong to Hindu religion is found to be more permissive as compared to other two groups. The respondents in the younger age (17-18 years) found to be less conservative and those studying post graduate course are more permissive.

With regard to the various sexual activities or related behaviours, the study reveals more male respondents than females reported experienced or indulged in different sexual activities. Significant difference was observed on the ten different aspects of sexual activities under investigation. Comparatively more male respondents reported homosexual act and same sex attraction, intercourse, illegitimate sex, masturbation, difficulty to control sex, sex guilt, pornography use and talking about sexual matters. But on sexual abuse, female respondents reported more compared to male counterparts. No significant gender difference evidenced in any of the love related activities and a large difference observed in masturbatory practise. Herald, et al. (1992) noted that males are much more likely than females to report that they have engaged in sexual acts. Adolescent males and females hold different values concerning sexuality contribute directly to sexual expression (Plotnick, 1992). Most cultures encourage the male population to express their sexuality freely.

The sexual acts of abuse, homosexual act, masturbation, pornography, talking about sex, romantic relation (love affair), and love failure differ with respect to higher permissiveness attitude for the indulged group as compared to the participants with no prior experience. There is variation in the positive direction of sexual permissiveness of female respondents who reported sexual abuse or intercourse as compared to male respondents with such experiences. Many studies have found significant differences in sexual behaviors between women who were victims of childhood sexual abuse and those who were not (Messman-Moore & Long, 2003; Noll, Trickett, & Putnam, 2003 cf. Shulman and Horne, 2006). Another study in line with this finding is that of Parsuram (1988), found that those with prior sexual experience were more permissive toward premarital sex

while those with no prior sexual experience were more conservative. Harrison et al (1974) found that women changed their sexual standards towards being more permissive as they accumulated dating experience.

In regard to the personality dimension, Activation is positively correlated with sexual permissiveness and the inertia dimension is negatively related. But in female respondents this is not significantly related. The guilty respondents scored significantly higher Inertia score of personality dimension as compared to the respondents who did not report sex guilt. Similarly the group of respondents who reported activities of intercourse, masturbation, pornography use, love affair and love failure differ with respect to higher Activation score as compared to the participants with no prior experience. The respondents who had not history abuse, masturbated, or not using pornography significantly scored high on Stability as compared to the respondents reported such activities.

Chapter V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Sexuality is an important area to consider, as it seems to be one of the most obviously natural aspects of human life. It is the one realm of conduct which involves the full gamut of emotions, cognitions, socialization, traits, heredity, and learned and acquired behaviours (Byrne, 1976).

Sexuality is viewed as a personal experience, composed of values, beliefs, myths and prejudice assimilated during the socialisation of each individual. Socialization practise with respect to sex may have broader and more generalised effects on the adolescent or adult's personality and this perception of world about him (Werner- Wilson, 1998). According to social constructionist theories, sexuality is shaped extensively by culture and socialization (Baumeister, 2000).

Sexuality is mainly explored during adolescence.

Individuals express their sexuality through beliefs, attitudes, behaviour and experiences. Attitudes are defined as relatively stable evaluations of a person, object, situation or issue (Myers, 1990). Behaviour refers to what the person actually does, such as physically engaging in particular sex acts. Sexual behaviour is a very broad expression. It covers both common and less common behaviours, and includes a wide range of sexual behaviours from marital relationships to sexual abuse.

Social psychologists agree that attitudes and actions have a reciprocal relationship, each feeding the other (Myers, 1990). Baron (1993) argued that, in general personality disposition moderate the effect of stimulus events on behaviour and consistencies of individual differences in emotions, attitudes, cognition, expectancies, fantasies and physiological actions.

It was found that specific socio-cultural factors will have a greater impact on sexuality. Sexual response depends primarily on socio-cultural factors such as meanings, context, relationship status, communication, norms and rules. Religion was also shown to have greater effect on sexuality (Popenoe, 1988).

Sex, a great and mysterious motive force in human life, has indisputably been a subject of absorbing interest to mankind through ages (DeLamater, 2002).

Social psychologists were attracted to this area by the revolutionary societal changes in attitudinal permissiveness and in actual behaviour. The growing literature on sexuality shows that sexuality is a complex concept as it encompasses not only the biological and psychological, but also the social and cultural dimensions. It can be inferred that knowledge about sexual behaviour is fast increasing despite the contradictory nature of findings.

The psychological study of sexual behaviour has only just begun to attract the attention of researchers, presumably because the investigation of intimate behaviour is still regarded as taboo. Sexuality in general and sexual behaviour in particular are poorly understood and ill served in India. There is lack of data on the sexual behaviour of the Indian population, especially adolescents. Most researches, to date, had been clinical and concentrated on at risk populations- commercial sex workers, sexually transmitted disease clinic patients, intravenous drug users and commercial blood donors.

Over the past half century, science and technology, new economic pattern, change in sex roles, complex social/communication network, the growing influence of media, diminishing influence of religion, degradation and general abuse of women and their portrayal as sex objects, are likely to have effect on attitude and behaviour. Expressions of sexuality have been shown to vary according to historical period as well as between and within different societies and cultures.

The traditional norms of sexual pattern are being changed. So it seemed worthwhile to investigate young people's attitude and behaviour in the context of somewhat conservative but rapidly changing social, cultural and moral norms.

Aim of the Study

The present study aims at a systematic analysis of the sexual attitude and behaviour of the unmarried young population using psychological instruments. It aimed at identification of the prevailing sexual behaviour of young adults in relation to sexual attitude and dimensions of personality make-up. Also to understand the effect of gender and religion.

Sex research is of special value to the fields of psychology and it is of obvious relevance to innumerable real- life issues and may lead to the development of effective interventions and helps to define more appropriate sexual health education messages.

Objectives

The objectives set for the present study are:

1. To identify the sexual behaviours, its interrelationship and to assess the level of sexual permissiveness of unmarried student population.
2. To find out whether there exists any differences in sexual permissiveness related to sexual behaviour.
3. To find out whether there exists any relationship between sexual permissiveness and personality dimensions and differences in dimensions of personality related to sexual behaviour.

Hypotheses

The following are the hypotheses formulated for the present investigation.

1. Male and female subjects differ in their sexual behaviours.
2. Sexual behaviours are interrelated in male.
3. Sexual behaviours are interrelated in female.
4. Male subjects are more permissive than female subjects.
5. Subjects belonging to different religions differ in their sexual permissiveness.
6. Subjects having a particular sexual behaviour are more permissive than those who are not having it.
7. Sexual permissiveness is positively related to Inertia dimension of personality.
8. Sexual permissiveness is positively related to Activation dimension of personality.
9. Sexual permissiveness is negatively related to Stability dimension of personality.
10. Subjects having a particular sexual behaviour and those who do not have such behaviour differ in Inertia dimension of personality.
11. Subjects having a particular sexual behaviour and those who do not have such behaviour differ in Activation dimension of personality.
12. Subjects having a particular sexual behaviour and those who do not have such behaviour differ in stability dimension of personality.

METHOD

Sample

Thus the present investigation has been undertaken with a view to examine the relationship of sexual behaviours to sexual attitude and dimensions of personality. The sample selected for the present study consisted

of 470 students, both males and females aged 17-24 from various colleges in Kerala state of India.

Tests and Variables

The Sexual Behaviour Scheduled surveyed different sexual behaviours such as subjected to forceful sex, done forceful sex, homosexual act, sexual intercourse, illegitimate sex, masturbation, difficulty to control sex, sex guilty, pornography, paedophilic tendency, talking sex, group sex, love with opposite sex, love with same sex, love failure, fear of opposite sex, prostitution, impotency/frigidity, and secrecy in sex.

For the purpose of the present investigation to measure the sexual permissiveness, a scale, Sexual Permissiveness Scale, was developed. The Scale consists of items relating to various sexual behaviours and issues that is prevalent in the society.

Mathew IAS Rating Scale used in the study measures three broad behavioural tendencies, personality components, Inertia, Activation and Stability.

Procedure

The three psychological tests, Sexual Permissiveness Scale, Sexual Behaviour Schedule and Mathew IAS Rating Scales (Mathew, 1995) were used in the study. These three tests were printed and bound as a single booklet. A separate answer sheet was also provided to each subject. The Investigator collected the data from the various colleges. As in India especially in Kerala culture, very traditional and orthodox attitudes are prevailing regarding sexual behavior, confidentiality of the respondents was safeguarded in order to elicit genuine responses.

Analysis

The scores obtained by the respondents in each of these tests have been analysed using appropriate statistical techniques like frequency,

percentage, X² test, 't' test, ANOVA, Sheffe's procedure and Pearson's product moment correlation and point bi-serial correlation

Brief Summary of Result

Sexual Behavior

The analysis of survey of sexual behaviors reveals the gender difference in different sexual behaviors. The result shows that there is statistically significant differences on eleven different sexual behaviors such as subjected to forceful sex, homosexual act and same sex attraction, intercourse, illegitimate sex, masturbation, difficulty to control sex, sex guilt, pornography use and talking sexual matters. No significant difference found in romantic activities. In all these activities male subjects were more likely than females to report these activities.

Intercorrelation of different behaviors among male subjects and female subjects were found separately . The results show that sexual behaviour, being subjected to forceful sex is found significantly correlating with more behaviours compared to others. The relationship of sexual behaviours among male shows that this sexual behaviour is significantly relating with 10 sexual behaviours such as done forceful sex, homosexual act, sexual intercourse, illegitimate sex, masturbation, paedophilic tendency, love with opposite sex, love with same sex, impotence and secrecy in sex. Similarly the analysis of relationship among females shows, this same behaviour is related to homo sexual act, sexual intercourse , masturbation, difficult to control sex, love with opposite sex, love with same sex and sexual secrecy.

Summarising the interrelationship the interrelations of sexual behaviours of male and female subjects are found to differ. More behaviour items are intercorrelated in the case of male subjects, while less intercorrelations are found in the case of females. This difference can be attributed to sex difference prevailing in Kerala culture.

Nature and pattern of sexual permissiveness

All the responses show that subjects in general are apparently not very permissive though they showed a tendency toward permissiveness. Most of the responses to the permissive items in the attitude scale were in the direction of disagreement. There are greater gender differences in permissiveness. The responses to the items clearly indicate the gender difference. Gender difference is found on issues of pornography, masturbation, sex education, sexual restriction, media portrayal (sexual content in cinema) and belief aspect of sex.

The subjects belonging to Hindu religion is found to be more permissive as compare to subjects of other religions- Muslim and Christian. But no significant difference is found between the subjects belonging to Muslim and Christian groups.

Sexual permissiveness and Sexual behaviour

The results reveal that subjects subjected to forceful sex, homosexual experience, masturbation, pornography, talking about sex, love with opposite sex, love failure are having significantly greater score on permissiveness.

Sexual permissiveness and Personality

The sexual permissiveness is significantly and positively correlated with Activation dimension and negatively correlated with Inertia dimension. No significant relation with Stability dimension.

Sexual Behaviours and Personality

The results reveal that the respondent with sex guilt scored high on Inertia dimension of personality. Subjects differ in the sexual behaviour such as intercourse, masturbation, pornography use, love affair and love failure with respect to their scores of Activation dimension of personality. The Stability dimension of personality is related to three behaviours namely subjected to forceful sex, masturbation, and pornography. In all these behaviours the subjects who reported these behaviours scored less on the

score of Stability dimension of personality compared to the comparison groups.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. All subgroups of the population could not be made adequately representing making the sample still more larger .
2. The women subjects were less in number compared to males.
3. In the measurement of sexually related attitude and behaviour , lie score analysis also should have been included to test the genuineness of the response. such an analysis could not be done in this investigation.

SCOPE FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

1. The study can be repeated on a nation wide sample.
2. The analysis can be made on large subgroups of age, marital status, education, subject of study, religion, SES and similar socio-demographic and psychological variables.
3. The study can be repeated using more sophisticated statistical analysis for better understanding of human sexual behaviour.

REFERENCES

- Abraham, A. K. & Abraham, K. C.(1998). Homosexuality: Some reflections from India .*The Ecumenical Review*, 50 (2), 234-245.
- Abraham, L, & Kumar, K A. (1999). Sexual experiences and their correlates among college students in Mumbai City, India. *International Family*, 3, (4),16-22
- Abramson, P.R. Moriuchi, K.D., Waite, M.S., and Perry, L.B. (1983). Parental attitudes about sexual education: Cross-cultural differences and covariate controls. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 12(5), 381-397.
- Abramson, P.R., & Pinkerton, S.D. (1995). *With pleasure: Thoughts on the nature of human sexuality*. Oxford : University Press.
- Abramson, P.R., Mosher, D. L., Abramson, L.M. and Wotchowsk, B.(1977). Personality correlates of Mosher Guilt Scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 41 (4), 234-246.
- Aggarwal, A.K., & Kumar, R (1996). Awareness of AIDS among school children in Haryana. *Indian Journal of Public Health*, 40 (2), 38-45.
- Aggarwal, O, & Sharma, A.K. (2000). Study in sexuality of medical college students. *India Journal of community Psychology*, 26 (3), 226-9.
- Ahmed.(1992).The International Encyclopedia of Sexuality. www2.hu-berlin.de/sexology/IES/india.html.
- Alexander, P.C. (1992). Application of attachment theory to the study of sexual abuse. *Journal of Consulting & Clinical Psychology*, 60 (1), 22-36
- Alfonso, V. C., Allison, D. B., & Dunn, G. M. (1992). Sexual fantasy and satisfaction: A multidimensional analysis of gender differences. *Journal of Psychology and Human Sexuality*, 15 (1), 19-37.

- Allison, H. (2000). Hookups: Characteristics and Correlates of College Students' Spontaneous and Anonymous Sexual Experiences. *The Journal of Sex Research*. Retrieved Feb 4 2008 from <http://www.highbeam.com/library/docFree.asp>
- Allison, H. (2002). The decloseting of masturbation? *Journal of Sex Research*, 5, 111-122.
- Anand, A. (1993). India: Introduction of sex education. *Lancet*, 8854,1207.
- Anderson, B.A., & Cyranowski, J.M. (1994). Women's sexual self schema. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 12,102-114.
- Anderson, B.A., & Cyranowski, J.M.(1999). Men's sexual self schema. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*,76 (4), 156-166.
- ArunKumar, T.S., Kochumuttom, J., Sankar, P. R., Sobhana, K and Raju, K. P. (2002) Sexual behaviour patterns in Thiruvananthapuram. Retrieved April 5 2002 from [http:// www.tharani.com/pap1.pdf](http://www.tharani.com/pap1.pdf).
- Bagemihi, B. (1999). *Biological Exuberance: Animal homosexuality and natural diversity* .New York: St. Martin press
- Balkwell, J.W and Ward. D.M.(1980). "Meaning and Behavior: An Empirical Study in Sociolinguistics." *Social Psychology Quarterly* 43, 253. Retrieved March 4, 2009 from https://www.uga.edu/~soc/people/balkwell_james_vitae.pdf
- Bancroft ,J., Janssen,E., Strong, D., Carnes,L., Vukadinovic , Z and Long, S. (2004). Sexual risk-taking in gay men: the relevance of sexual arousability, mood, and sensation seeking *Archives of sexual behaviour*, 32(6), 555-72.
- Bancroft, J (2002 b). 21st century AD. *Journal of Sex Research*, August. FindArticles.com. 23 Dec. 2001. http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_qa3876/is_3_39/ai_94130312
- Bancroft, J. (1989). *Human Sexuality and Its Problems*. London: Elsevier Health Sciences.
- Bancroft, J. (2002 a). The relation between mood and sexuality in heterosexual men. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 12 (4) 122-129.
- Bandura, A.(1982). Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American Psychologist*, 37 (2) 122-147.
- Barnett B.(1997). Education protects health, delays sex. Network. Spring.PMID: 12292388. PubMed. Retrieved from <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov> data base.

- Baumeister, R F. and Vohs, K. D.(2000). Sexual Economics: Sex as Female Resource for Social Exchange in Heterosexual Interactions. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 5, 242-273.
- Baumeister, R. F. (2000). Gender differences in erotic plasticity: The female sex drive as socially flexible and response. *Psychological Bulletin*, 126 (3), 347-374.
- Baumeister, R.F., Catanese, K.R., & Vohs, K.D. (2001). Is there a gender difference in strength of sex drive? *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 5, 242-273.
- Baxter (1985) Media violence : Exposure and content.[Electronic version] from <http://www.surgeongeneral.gov/library/youthviolence/chapter4/html>
- Bayer, A. E. (1977). Sexual permissiveness and correlates as determined though interaction analyses. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 39(2), 29-40.
- Bem, S. (1974).The measurement of psychological androgyny. *Journal of consulting and clinical psychology*, 42 (2), 155-162.
- Bhalerao VR, Daniel EE, Sundar SS, Joseph AA.(1980). Sex education: to be or not to be. *J Postgrad Med* [serial online]. <http://www.jpgm online.com/text.asp?1980/26/4/253/946>. Retrieved on June, 12, 2006.
- Bhattacharjee J., Gupta, R.S., Kumar. A., & Jain D.C. (2000). Pre- and extra-marital heterosexual behaviour of an urban community in Rajasthan, India. *Journal Communication Disorder*, 32 (1) , 33-9.
- Billy ,J.G., & Brewster, K. L (1994). Contextual effects on the sexual behavior of adolescent women, *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 56 (2) , 387-404.
- Billy, J. G., Tanfer, K., Grady, W. R., & Klepenger, D. H. (1993). The sexual behavior of men in the United States. *Family Planning Perspectives*, 25 (3) , 52-60.
- Blumberg, M. L., & Lester, D. (1991). High school and college students' attitudes toward rape. *Adolescence*, 26 (4), 127-139.
- Blumstein, P., & Schwartz, P. (1983). *American couples: Money, work, sex*. New York: William Morrow.
- Bockting, W.O., & Coleman, E.(2002).Masturbation as a means of achieving sexual health. *Journal of psychology and human sexuality*, 14(2), 23-34.
- Bogaert A.F (2001).Personality, individual differences, and preferences for the sexual media. *Archives of Sexual Behaviour*, Feb. PMID: 11286004 .PubMed.

- Bollinger, R. C., Tripathy, S. P., & Quinn, T. C. (1995). The Human immunodeficiency virus epidemic in India: Current magnitude and future projections. *Medicine*, 74 (2), 97-106.
- Bristov, J. (1997). *Sexuality: Perspective, Concepts, Meaning*. London: Routledge.
- Brown, B. B., Clasen, D. R., & Eicher, S. A. (1986). Perceptions of peer pressure, peer conformity dispositions, and self-reported behavior among adolescents. *Developmental Psychology*, 22, 521-530.
- Brown, J., Greenberg, B., & Buerkel-Rothfuss, N. (1993). Mass media, sex, and sexuality. In V. Strasburger & G. Comstock (Eds.), *Adolescent medicine*. New York: Lippincott Williams.
- Brown, J.D. (2002). Mass media influences on sexuality. *Journal of Sex Research*, 24 (3), 122-134.
- Brown, J.D., and Engle, K.L. (2009). Sexual Attitudes and Behaviors Associated With U.S. Early Adolescents' Exposure to Sexually Explicit Media. *Communication Research*, 36 (1), 129-151
- Browning, J.R., Kessler, D., Hatfield, E., and Choo, P. (1999). Power, Gender and Sexual Behavior. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 36 (2), 123-32.
- Bryan, A. D., Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1999). The impact of males proposing condom use on perceptions of an initial sexual encounter. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 25 (4), 275-286.
- Buerkel-Rothfuss, N. L., & Strouse, J. S. (1993). *Media exposure and perceptions of sexual behaviors: The cultivation hypothesis moves to the bedroom*. In B. S. Greenberg, J. D. Brown, & N. Buerkel-Rothfuss (Eds.), *Media, sex and the adolescent*. Cresskill, NJ: Hampton Press.
- Bullough, V.L. (1998). Alfred Kinsey and the Kinsey Report: historical overview and lasting contributions. *Journal of Sex Research*, Retrieved 18, May, 2008, http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_qn4158
- Bullough, V.L. (2002). Technology and Sex? *Journal of Sex Research*, Feb, http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_qn4158
- Burt, M.R. (1980). Cultural myths and support for rape. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 38 (2), 217-230.
- Byrne, D. (1976). Social Psychology and the Study of Sexual Behavior. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 3(1), 3-30.
- Cado, S., & Leitenberg, H. (1990). Guilt reactions to sexual fantasies during intercourse. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 19, 49-63.

- Caldwell, J.C., Caldwell, P., & Caldwell, B. K.(1999). The construction of adolescence in a changing world: implications for sexuality, reproduction, and marriage. *Studies of Family Planning*, 29 (2),137-53.
- Calfin, M. S., Carroll, J. L., & Shmidt, J. (1993).Viewing music-videotapes before taking a test ofpremarital sexual attitudes. *Psychological Reports*,22 (6), 475-481.
- Call, V., Sprecher, S., & Schwartz, P. (1995). The incidence and frequency of marital sex in a national sample. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 57 (3), 639-652.
- Campos,S & Sueiro, D. (1991). Stability in imagery scores. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 72, 411-414.
- Catania, J. A., Gibson, D., Chitwood, D., & Coates, T. J. (1990). Methodological problems in AIDS behavioral research: Influences on measurement error and participation bias in studies of sexual behavior. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108, 339-362.
- Caulfield, M. D. (1985) Sexuality in Human Evolution: What Is "Natural" in Sex? *Feminist Studies*,11, (2),123-134.
- Certo, S.C., (1977). Modern management. New Jesrsy: Precntice Hall.
- Chapin, J.R. (2000). Adolescent Sex and Mass Media A Developmental Approach. *Adolescence*, 2 (2) ,335-367.
- Chewning, B., & van Koningsveld, R. (1998). Predicting adolescents' initiation of intercourse and contraceptive use. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 28, 14, 1245-85.

- Childers, B., & Waszak, A.(1990) Contributions of Entertainment Television to Adolescents' Sexual Attitudes and Expectations: The Role of Viewing Amount Versus Viewer Involvement. *Journal of Sex Research*, 11(6), 18-28.
- Clifford L. B. (1993). Sexuality Attitudes: The Impact of Trauma. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 40 (4), 26-34.
- Cline,V.B. (1999) .Treatment & Healing of Pornographic and Sexual Addictions. Retrieved from April 10, 2001, from <http://www.lds.org/info/drcline.phtml>.
- Cogen, R . & Steinman,W.(1990). Sexual function and practice in elderly men of lower socioeconomic status. *Journal of Family Practice*, 3 (2), 126-34.
- Coles, C. D., & Shamp, M. J. (1984). Some sexual, personality, and demographic characteristics of women readers of erotic romances. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 13 (1), 187-209.
- Connie, J. S., Melissa D. S., Byron W. L., & Thomas A. S. (1994). Attitudes toward marriage and premarital sexual activity of college freshmen. *Adolescence*, Winter, 213-34.
- Crockett, L. J., Bingham, C. R., Chopak, J. S., & Vicary, J. R. (1996). Timing of first sexual intercourse: The role of social control, social learning, and problem behavior. *Adolescence*, 25 (7), 89-111.
- Crooks,R.R & Bauer, K. (1980). *Our sexuality*. Menlopark: CA: Benjamin/Cummings.
- Dale, K. (1999). Sexual message on television: Comparing findings from three studies. *Journal of sex research*. 36 (4), 42-59.
- Das, A., William, L., Parish, L and Laumann. (2009). Masturbation in Urban China .*Archives of Sex Behaviour*, 38 (2), 108–120
- Davidson, J. K., & Hoffman, L. E. (1986). Sexual fantasies and sexual satisfaction: An empirical analysis of erotic thought. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 22 (6), 184-205.
- Davidson, J.K., & Darling, C.A. (1993). Masturbatory guilt and sexual responsiveness among post-college-age women: sexual satisfaction revisited. *Journal of Sex Marital Therapy*,19 (1), 289-300.
- Davies, K.A. (1997).Voluntary exposure to pornography and men's attitudes toward feminism and rape, *Journal of Sex Research*, 22, (3090-113).
- Davis, J.A & Smith, T.W (1994). Data program for social sciences study sponsored by: National Science Foundation. Study The National

- Opinion Research Center. from <http://www.cpanda.org/data/a00079/a00079.html>. Retrieved 4th Oct. 2009,
- Dawood, K., Pillard, R. C. , Horvath, C. R, & William , J. M. (2000). Familial Aspects of Male Homosexuality. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*. 29 (1),155-163.
- De Gaston, J.F., Weed, S., and Jensen .L (1996). Understanding Gender Differences in Adolescent Sexuality. *Adolescence*, 31(3), 134-56.
- De Lamater, J & Friedrich,W.N (2002). Human sexual development . *Journal of Sex Research*, http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_qn2356, Fe Retrieved 18 Feb, 2009.
- Dekker, A., & Schmidt, G. (1998). Patterns of Masturbatory Behaviour Changes Between the Sixties and the Nineties . *Journal of Psychology & Human Sexuality*, 14(2&3),35-48.
- DeMaris,A. (1997). Elevated sexual activity in violent marriages: hypersexuality or sexual extortion? *Journal of Sex Research* (5), 134-53.
- Deutsch, J. (1994).*The Psychology of women*. New York: Grune & Stratton
- Diamond, L.M. (2003). Was it a phase? Young women's relinquishment of lesbian/bisexual identities over a 5-year period. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84(2), 352-364.
- Diem, G.N. (2002). Masters and Johnson St. James Encyclopedia of Popular Culture. Retrived from www.bookrags.com/Masters_and_Johnson.html on Jan, 6, 2006.
- Dittman, M. (2002), Worth the risk? *Monitor*, 34 (8), 14-17.
- Djamba, Y. (1995). Premarital sexual experience of married women in Kinshasa, Zaire. *Journal of Biosocial Science*, 27,(4), 457 - 466.
- Djamba, Y. K. (2003). Social Capital and Premarital Sexual Activity in Africa: The Case of Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of Congo. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 32 (4), 327- 338.
- Donnelly, J. Duncan, D.F, Goldfarb, E. & Eadie, C. (1999). Sexuality attitudes and behaviors of self described very religious urban students in middle school. *Psychological Reports*, 85(2), 607-610.
- Donnerstein, E., Linz, D., & Penrod, S. (1987). The Question of Pornography: Research Findings And Policy Implications. from <http://www.freespeechcoalition.com/FSCView.asp?action> Retrieved July 10, 2009
- Durham, M. G. (2004). Girls, media, and the negotiation of sexuality: A study of race, class, and gender in adolescent peer groups. In Williams, C. L.,

- & Stein, A. (ed). *Sexuality and Gender*. Massachusetts: Blackwell Publishing.
- Dworkin, A. (1989). *Pornography: Men possessing women*. New York: Dutton.
- Earle, J. R., & Perricone, P. J. (1986). Premarital sexuality: A ten-year study of attitudes and behavior on a small university campus. *Journal of Sex Research*, 22 (3), 304 - 310.
- Eisenman, R. (1982). Sexual behaviour as related to sex fantasies and experimental manipulation of authoritarianism and creativity. *Journal of personality and Social Psychology*, 43 (6), 853-860
- Elbaum, P.L (1981).The dynamics, implications and treatment of extra marital sexual relationship for the family therapist. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy*, 7 ,489-495.
- Ellis, B. J. & Symons, D.(1990). Sex Differences in Sexual Fantasy: an Evolutionary Psychological Approach. *The Journal of sex research*, 27(4), 527-555.
- Evrin, A. (2004). Childhood Sexual Abuse . *Journal of sex research*. 41(2),181-92
- Eysenck, H. (1976). *Sex and personality*. London: Open Books.
- Fabes, R. A., & Strouse, J. (1987). Perceptions of responsible and irresponsible models of sexuality: A correlational study. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 23, 70-84.1987
- Fairburn, W.R. (1952). *An object relation theory of personality*. New York. Basic Books.
- Falaye, A.O., & Ajayi, M.A. (2002). Self esteem, academic achievement motivation and personality as psychological variables significantly affect the sexual behaviour .*African Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology and Sport Facilitation* ,6 8-13. www.ajol.info/viewarticle database Retrieved Jan, 23rd , 2007.[http://](http://www.ajol.info/viewarticle)
- Federal Bureau of Investigation (1981). Retrieved from [investigation. paness.com/ federalbureauinvestigation/html](http://paness.com/federalbureauinvestigation/html)
- Felthous, AR. (1984). Is Psychosocial dynamics of child abuse. *Journal of Forensic Science*. Retrieved from.http://journalsip.astm.org/JOURNALS/FORENSIC/jofs_home.html
- Finkelhor, D. (1986). *A Sourcebook on Child Sexual Abuse*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

- Fisher, S (1989). *Sexual Image of the Self: The Psychology of Erotic Sensations and Illusions*. New Jersey: Lealawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Fisher, T. D. (1986). Parent-child communication about sex and young adolescents' sexual knowledge and attitudes. *Adolescence*, 21 (4), 517-527.
- Fisher, W. A., Byrne, D., White, L. A., & Kelley, K. (1988). Erotophobia-erotophilia as a dimension of personality. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 25 (4), 123-151.
- Fisher, W.A., & Barak,A. (2001).Internet pornography: A social psychological perspective on internet sexuality. *Journal of Sex Research*, Retrieved Nov 12, 2006 from http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m2372/is_4_38/ai_84866949
- Forster,S.E & Carveth, D.L. (1999). Christianity: A Kleinian Perspective. Retrieved Dec 24,2001 from <http://www.psychematters.com/papers/carveth.htm>
- Foucault, M. (1980). *The history of sexuality: Volume 1*. New York: Random House.
- Franzoi,S.L.(2000).*Social Psychology* (2nd ed). Boston: Mc Graw Hill.
- Frazicr, P. A, & Esterly, E. (1990). Correlates of relationship beliefs: Gender, relationship experience and relationship satisfaction. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships* , 7, 331-352.
- Freeman, J.T. (1961).Sexual capacities in the aging malefrom <http://www.psychegeriac.com/papers/carveth.htm>. . Retrieved Dec 24, 2008.
- Freetly ,A.H., & Kane, E.W.(1995).Men's and women's perceptions of non-consensual sexual intercourse. *Sex Roles*:. from http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m2294/is_n11-12/ai_18167422. Retrieved Jan 10,2007,
- Freud, S. (1962). Creative writers and daydreaming. In J. Strachy (Ed.), *The standard edition of the complete psychological works of Sigmund Freud* (Vol. 9, pp. 142-152). London: Hogarth.
- Frey, K., & Hojjat, M. (1998). Are Love Styles Related to Sexual Styles? *The Journal of Sex Research*, 35, 267-82.
- Friedman, J. L. (2004). The contribution of peers and siblings to adolescent sexual attitudes and behavior. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering*, 65, 4-B, p. 2145.

- Friedrich, W. N., Fisher, J., Broughton, D., Houston, M., & Shafran, C. R. (1998). Normative sexual behavior in children: A contemporary sample. *Pediatrics*, 101-109.
- Gagnon, J. H. (1985). Attitudes and responses of parents to preadolescent masturbation. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 14 (3), 451-466.
- Garrett, H. E.(1947). *Statistics in Psychology and Education*. New York: Longmans.
- Gerrard,M.(1980).Sex Guilt and Attitudes Toward Sex in Sexually Active and Inactive Female College Students. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 44(3),258-261.
- Ghule ,M., Balaiah B and Joshi, B. (2007). Attitude Towards Premarital Sex among Rural College Youth in Maharashtra, India *Sexuality & Culture*, 11(4), 123-128.
- Ghuman, S. (2005). Attitudes About Sex and Marital Sexual Behavior in Hai Duong Province, Vietnam. *Studies in Family Planning*, 36 (2), 95 – 106
- Gil, V.(1990). Sexual fantasy experiences and guilt among conservative Christians: An exploratory study. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 27,, 629-638.
- Goldenberg, J.L., Pyszczynski & Mc Coy, S.K. (1999). Death, sex , Love and neurotivism: why is sex such a problem, *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 77,6,1173-1187.
- Goodwin, C. J.(1995).*Research in Psychology. Methods and Designs*.New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Green, A. H. (1993). Child sexual abuse: immediate and long-term effects and intervention. *Journal of American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 32(5), 890-902.
- Green, R. (1998). *Sexual identity conflict in children and adult*. New York: Basic Books.
- Groth, A.N., A. Burgess, & L. Holmstrom. (1977). Rape, Power, Anger, and Sexuality. *American Journal of Psychiatry*. Retrieved from <http://www.psychiatryonline.org/database>.
- Gunderson, M.P and Leslie, J.M. (1980) . Effects of Sex Education on Sex Information and Sexual Guilt, Attitudes, and Behaviors *Family Relations*, 29 (3), 375-379.

- Haffner, D. W. (1997). What's wrong with abstinence-only sexuality education programs? SIECUS Report, 25, 9-13. Retrieved from <http://www.siecus.org/pubs/biblio/bibs0004.html>.
- Haidt, J.,M., Cauley., C.R., & Rozin, P. (1994). Individual difference in sensitivity to disgust. A scale sampling seven domains of disgust elicitors. *Personality and Individual Differences*,16, 235-56.
- Harding, D. J. (2003). Changing Attitudes toward Premarital Sex: Cohort, Period, and Aging Effects. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 67(2), 211 - 226.
- Hardy, S. A., & Rafaelli, M. (2003). Adolescent religiosity and sexuality: An investigation of reciprocal influences. *Journal of Adolescence*, 26(6), 731 – 739.
- Hardy, S. A., & Rafaelli, M. (2003). Adolescent religiosity and sexuality: An investigation of reciprocal influences. *Journal of Adolescence*, 26 (6), 731 - 739.
- Heaven ,P.C., Fitzpatrick, J., Craig, F.L., Kelly, P and Gareth. (2007). Relationships between daily sexual interactions and domain-specific and general models of personality traits. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 24(4), 497-515.
- Henderson J. (1983). Incest harmful? *Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*. Feb;28 (1):34-40.
- Hendrick, S ; Hendrick, C Slapion-Foote, M., and Franklin, H. (1985). Gender difference in sexual attitude. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*. 48, (6), 1630-1642.
- Hendrick, S., & Hendrick, C. (1987a). Multidimensionality of sexual attitudes. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 23, 502-526.
- Hendrick, S., & Hendrick, C. (1987b). Love and sex attitudes and religious beliefs. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 5, 391-398.
- Hendrick, S., & Hendrick, C. (1995). Gender differences and similarities in sex and love. *Personal Relationships*, 2, 55-65.
- Hendrickx, K., Lodewijckx, E, Van Royen, P., & Denekens, J. (2002). Sexual behaviour of second generation Moroccan immigrants balancing between traditional attitudes and safe sex. *Patient Education and Counseling*, 47(2), 89 – 94.
- Henshaw, S. K. (1998).Family Therapy, Legal and Ethical Aspects of Counseling Unintended pregnancy in the United States. *Family Planning Perspectives*, 30, 24-29.Retrieved from www.jstor.org/journals/01622749.html.

- Herdt, G. (Ed.). (1996). *Third sex, Third gender: Beyond Sexual Dimorphism in Culture and History*. New York: Zone Books.
- Herek, G.M., & Capitanio, J.P. (1995). Black heterosexuals' attitudes toward lesbians and gay men in the United States. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 32, 95-105.
- Herold, E. S., & Goodwin, M. S. (1981). Adamant Virgins, Potential Nonvirgins and Nonvirgins. *Journal of Sex Research*, 17(2), 97 - 114.
- Herold, E. S., & Goodwin, M. S. (1981). Premarital sexual guilt. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science*, 13 (1), 65 - 75.
- Herold, E. S., & Mewhinney, M. K. (1993). Gender differences in casual sex and AIDS prevention: A survey of dating bars. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 30, 36-42.
- Herold, E.S. (2001). The Social Dimension Of Sex – Review. **Journal of Sex Research**.
http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_372/is_38/ai_79439407. May Retrieved Dec 26, 2006.
- Hetherington, E. M., Bridges, M., & Insabella, G. M. (1998). What matters? What does not? Five perspectives on the association between marital transitions and children's adjustment. *American Psychologist*, 53, 167-184.
- Hicks, T.V and Leitenberg, H. (2001). Sexual Fantasies About One's Partner Versus Someone Else: Gender Differences in Incidence and Frequency Feb, findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_2372/is_38/ai_75820037. Retrieved Dec 26, 2007
- Higgins, L.T., Liu, Y ., Sun, C.H., and Zheng; M. (2002). Attitudes to marriage and sexual behaviors: A survey of gender and culture differences in China and United Kingdom. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*. Retrieved from Nov, 20, 2002 from <http://www.springerlink.com/content/6tqj8g6qfv/html>.
- Hillman, J. (1975). *Loose ends*. Zurich: Spring Publications. <http://counselingoutfitters.com/McCulloch.htm>. Retrieved on March 24 2006.
- Hirschfield, M. (1964). The homosexual as an Inter Sex In A .Mkrich (Ed). *The homosexuals as seen by themselves and authorities*. New York. The Citadal Press
- Hirt, E., & Schellenberg, G. (1999) Negative attitudes toward homosexuals are prevalent in American and Canadian societies. Attitudes toward Homosexuals among Students at a Canadian University.

http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_2294/is_40. Retrieved July 18, 2000, from

- Hite, S. (1981). *The Hite Report on Men and Male Sexuality*. New York: Balantine.
- Hogan, D. P., & E. M. Kitagawa. (1985). The Impact of Social Status, Family Structure, and Neighborhood on the Fertility of Black Adolescents, *American Journal of Sociology* 90 (4), 825-55.
- Hojat, M., Shapurian, R., & Nayerahmadi, H. (1999). Premarital sexual, child rearing, and family attitudes of Iranian men and women in the United States and Iran. *Journal of Psychology*, 133 (1), 19- 31.
- Hong , S.M.(1984).Australian Attitudes Towards Homosexuality: A Comparison with College Students *The Journal of Psychology*, 11 (5), 89-95.
- Hopper, J.(2001).Child Abuse Statistics, Research, and Resources. Retrieved from <http://www.jimhopper.com/abstats>.
- Hoyle, R. H., Fejfar, M. C. ,and Miller, J. D. (2000). Personality and sexual risk taking: A quantitative review. *Journal of Personality*. 68, 1203-1231.
- Hsu, B., Kling, A., Kessler, C., Knapke, K., Diefenbach, P and Elias, J. (1994). Gender differences in sexual fantasy and behavior in a college population: A ten-year replication.. http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m2372/is_41/ai_n6232412.
- Husted, J. R. & Allan E. E. (1976).Personality correlates of male sexual arousal." *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 149.www.lib.msu.edu/coll/main/spec_col/radicalism/men/msbib.htm
- Husted, J.R., & Edward, A.E. (1976). Personality Correlates of Male Sexual Arousal and Behaviour.*Archives of Sexual Behaviour*, Spring.Retrieved June 24 2001, from http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m2372/is_3_41/ai_n6232412.
- Hyde, J. S., & Jaffee, S. R. (2000). Becoming a heterosexual adult: The experiences of young women. *Journal of Social Issue*. 56 (4), 283-296.
- Inglehart R 1997 *Modernization and Postmodernization: Cultural, Economic, and Political Change in 43 Societies*. Princeton University Press, Princeton, NJ
- Institute for American Values. (1996). Marriage in America: A report to the nation. Retrieved from <http://www.americanvalues.org/html>

- Jaccard, J., Dittus, P. J., & Gordon, V. V. (1996). Maternal correlates of adolescent sexual and contraceptive behavior. *Family Planning Perspectives*, 28, 159-165.
- Jacob, K. S. Jayakumari, H., John, J. K., and John, J. J. (1989). Awareness of AIDS in India: Effect of public education through the mass media. *British Medical Journal* 29,9, 721-34.
- Jain. M. K. John. T. J., & Keusch, G. T. (1994). A review of human immunodeficiency virus infection in India. *Journal of Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndromes*, 1185-1194.
- James, W. H. (1981). The honeymoon effect on marital coitus. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 17, 114-123.
- Jayasree, A.K. (1996). A Study of Sexual Behaviour Among People residing in a suburb of Thiruvananthapuram. Health Action by people. (*Unpublished Work*)
- Jejeebhoy, S.J.(2000). Adolescent sexual and reproductive behaviour:A review of the evidence from India>Psychological Bulletin, 23 (4),347-374.
- Jensen, L., Newell, R. J., & Holman, T. (1990). Sexual behavior, church attendance, and permissive beliefs among unmarried young men and women. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion*, 29, 113-117
- Jensen, L., Newell, R. J., & Holman, T. (1990). Sexual behavior, church attendance, and permissive beliefs among unmarried young men and women. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion*, 29 (1), 113 - 117.
- John M. E., Joyce, I. T., & Chua ,Y (2002) Child sexual abuse in Singapore: Professional and public perceptions. Singapore: Singapore Children's Society. Retrieved from www.childrensociety.org.sg/services_res.htm.
- Jones, S.L. (2002). Sexual Script Theory: an integrative exploration of the possibilities and limits of sexual self-definition. *Journal of Psychology and Theology*, 12 (3),142-49.
- Juliette D. G., & Usha. K. P. (2000). Some Methodological Problems in Estimating Incidence and Prevalence in Child Sexual Abuse Research *Journal of Sex Research*, Nov.Retrieved from Nov20, 2009 from http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m2294/is_2000
- Kahn, A. S., Jackson, J., Kully, C., Badger, K., & Halvorsen, J. (2003). Calling it rape: Differences in experiences of women who do or do not label their sexual assault as rape. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 27, 233-242.
- Kakar (1989). *The Indian Psyche* .New Delhi: Penguin Books.

- Kakar, S., & Chaudhary, K (1970). *Conflict and Choice: Indian Youth in a Changing Society*. Mumbai: Somaiya Publications.
- Kaufman, G., Poston, D. L., Hirschl, T. A., & Stycos, J. M. (1996). Teenage sexual attitudes in China. *Social Biology*, 43(3), 141 - 154.
- Kazdin, A. E. (2000) (Ed). *Washington Encyclopedia of Psychology*. D.C.: Oxford. Retrieved <http://www.lasierra.edu/library/guides/socialwork.html>.
- Kemph, B. T., & Kasser, T. (1996). Effects of sexual orientation of interviewer on expressed attitudes toward male homosexuality. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 136, 401-403.
- Kerlinger, F.N., Lee, H.B. (2000). *Foundations of Behavioural Research*. Orlando: Harcourt College Publishers.
- Kershner, R. (1996). Adolescent attitudes about rape. *Adolescence*, 12(4), 122-34.
- Kingsberg, S.A. (2002). The impact of aging on sexual function in women and their partners. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*. Retrieved Dec13,2002, from http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_go2675/is_200210/ai_n7195313
- Kinsey, A., Pomeroy, W., & Martin, C. (1948). *Sexual Behavior in the Human Male*. Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders.
- Kinsey, A., Pomeroy, W., Martin, C., and Gebhard, P. (1953). *Sexual Behavior in the Human Female*. Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders.
- Kirkpatrick, M. (ed) (1984). *Women's Sexual Development: Explorations of Inner Space*. New York: Plenum Press
- Kite, M. E., & Whitley, B. E. (1996). Sex differences in attitudes towards homosexual persons, behaviour, and civil rights: A meta-analysis. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 22(3), 336-353.
- Kitzinger, C. (1987). *The social construction of Lesbianism*. London: Sage.
- Klein, G. S. (1976). *Psychoanalytic Theory: An Exploration of Essentials*. New York: International Universities Press.
- Knafo, D., & Jaffe, Y. (1984). Sexual fantasizing in males and females. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 18(10), 451-467.
- Koss & Harvey, 1991 Examples of different types of rape from the rape victim: *Clinical & Community Intervention*, 15 (2), 22-30.
- Kowalski, R.M. (1993). Inferring sexual interest from behavioral cues: effects of gender and sexually relevant attitudes. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 12 (4), 66-72.

- Ku, L., Sonenstein, F.L., and Pleck, J.H. (1994). The dynamics of young men's condom use during and across relationships. *Family Planning Perspective*, 26(6), 246–251.
- Kumar, A & V.K.Tiwari. (2003). Knowledge, attitude and behaviour towards marital sex: A study among youths from two city slums in India. *Health and Population- Perspectives and Issues*, 26(4), 126-134.
- Kumar, P. (1996) .Study of sex related myths in college students. *Journal of community psychology*, 4 (22), 341-316.
- Kunkel, D. (1999). Sexual message on television: Comparing findings from three studies. *Journal of sex research*. August, 12 (6), 234-40.
- Kuppuswami, B. (1985). *Elements of Ancient Indian Psychology*. Delhi: Vani Education books.

- Lal, S.S., Vasan, R.S., Sarma, P.S., and Thankappan, K.R(2000). Knowledge and attitude of college students in Kerala towards HIV/AIDS, sexually transmitted diseases and sexuality. *National Medical Journal of India*, 13, 231-40.
- Lange, A., de Beurs, E., Dolan, C., Lachnit, T., Sjollema., S., & Hanewald, G (1999). Long-term effects of childhood sexual abuse: objective and subjective characteristics of the abuse and psychopathology in later life. *Journal of Nervous Mental Disorder*. Mar;187(3). Retrieved Oct, 2008from PMID.
- Laumann, E. O., Gagnon, J. H., Michael, R. T., & Michaels, S. (1994). *The social organization of sexuality: Sexual practices in the United States*. Chicago: University of Chicago.
- Laumann, E., Gagnon, J., Michael, R. & Michaels, S. (1994). *The Social Organization of Sexuality*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Leiteberg, H & Henning, K.(1995). Sexual fantasy. *Psychological Bulletin*,117, (3), 469-496.
- Leitenberg, H., Detzer, M.J., and Srebnik ,D (1993). Gender Differences in Masturbation and the Relation of Masturbation Experience in Preadolescence And/or Early Adolescence to Sexual Behavior and Sexual Adjustment in Young Adulthood. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 22 (6), 12-23.
- LeVay, S. (1996). *Queer science*. Cambridge, MIT Press.
- Lo, V.H., & Wei, R.(2002). Third-Person Effect, Gender, and Pornography on the Internet. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, Vol. 46, from <http://www.beaweb.org/bea2000/papers/lo&wei.pdf>. retrieved Dec 24,2007.
- Lock, M. (1998). Menopause: Lessons from anthropology. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, 60, (6), 410-419.
- Longmore, M.A. (1998), Symbolic Interactionism and the Study of Sexuality . *The Journal of Sex Research*, 35 (2), 473-484.
- Lottes, I. L. (1993). Nontraditional gender roles and the sexual experiences of heterosexual college students. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 29(7), 645-669.
- Lottes, I., Weinberg, M., & Weller, I. (1993,). Reactions to pornography on a college campus: For or against? *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 29, 2, 69-90.

- Luster, T., & Small, S. A. (1994). Factors associated with sexual risk-taking behaviors among adolescents. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 56(3), 622-632.
- Luster, T., & Small, S. A. (1997). Sexual abuse history and number of sex partners among female adolescents. *Family Planning Perspective*. Retrieved PMID: 9323496 [PubMed]
- Lynda, A. S., Ann, S. D., Joan C. C., and Stuart A. V. (1993) Gender role and attitudes toward rape in male and female college students. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, July, 56-67.
- Mackay, J. (2000). Global sex: sexuality and sexual practice around the world. 5th congress of the European federation of sexology. Berlin. Retrieved from [www2.hu-berlin.de/sexology/ Gesund/Archiv/Pap_Mac.html](http://www2.hu-berlin.de/sexology/Gesund/Archiv/Pap_Mac.html).
- Macleod, J; Farley,M; Anderson, L and Golding, J (2008). Challenging Men's Demand for Prostitution in Scotland" Women's Support Project, Published at: http://www.rapecrisisscotland.org.uk/documents/Challenging_Men%27s_Demand.pdf. Retrieved on 10th oct,2009.
- Mahay, J., Laumann, E. O., & Michaels, S. (2001). Race, gender, and class in sexual scripts. In E. O. Laumann & R. T. Michael (Eds.), *Sex, love, and health in America: Private choices and public policies*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Malamuth, N. (1981). Experimental Research on Sexual Aggressivity. Paper presented at the Third National Conference on the Evaluation and Treatment of Sexual Aggressives, Avila, CA. <http://www.commstudies.ucla.edu/faculty/malamuth/convention.html>
- Martin, P.D., Martin,D Martin, M (2001) Adolescent Premarital Sexual Activity, Cohabitation, and Attitudes Toward Marriage. *Adolescence*, Fall, 66-76.
- Martinson, F. M. (1994). *The sexual life of children*. CT: Bergin and Garvey.
- Masters, W. H., Johnson, V. E., & Kolodny, R. C. (1982). *Human sexuality*. Boston: Little Brown Company.
- Masters, W.H., & Johnson, V.E. (1966), *Human Sexual Response*. Boston: Little, Brown.
- Mathew,V.G. (1995). Manuals for IAS Rating Scale .Department of Psychology, University of Kerala.
- McDonald, K.(1998). Sex under glass: as intrinsically interesting as any subject can be, human sexuality is inherently difficult to study.*Psychology Today*, March, 23 (5),106-22.

- Medora, N. (1982). Premarital sexual opinions of undergraduate students at a mid western university. *Adolescence*, 17 (65), 213- 224.
- Melchert, T., and Burnett, K. F. (1990), 'Attitudes, knowledge, and sexual behaviour of high-risk adolescents: implications for counseling and sexuality education', *Journal of Counseling and Development* 68 (7), 293-98.
- Mensh, B. S, Clark, W. H., Lloyd, C. B., & Emlkar, A. S. (2001). Premarital sex, schoolgirl pregnancy, and school quality in rural Kenya. *Studies in Family Planning*, 32 (4), 285-301
- Mian, M, M., LeBaron, D., and Birtwistle, D. (1994).Familial risk factors associated with intra familial and extra familial sexual abuse of three to five year old girls. *Can J Psychiatry*. Aug;39(6):348-53. retrieved from PubMed.
- Michael, (1994) R.T., John H, G., Edward, O.L., & Gina, K (1994) Sex in America. A descriptive survey. The International Encyclopedia of Sexuality: United States of America.. Retrieved from [www2.huberlin.de/sexology/ IES/usa.html](http://www2.huberlin.de/sexology/IES/usa.html).
- Michel, B. (2001). Sexuality, gender, and the couple: A sociohistorical perspective. *Annual Review of Sex Research*.Retrieved Dec 11,2002 from http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_qa3778/is_200101/ai_8947450.
- Miller, B. C., & Olson, T. D. (1988). Sexual attitudes and behavior of high school students in relation to background and contextual factors. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 24, 194-200.
- Miller, B. C., Benson, B., & Galbraith, K. A. (2001). Family relationships and adolescent pregnancy risk: A research synthesis. *Developmental Review*, 21 (6), 1-38.
- Miller, B.C., & Fox, G. L. (1987). Theories of adolescent heterosexual behavior. *Journal of Adolescent Research*,20(2), 269-282.
- Miller, B.C., McCoy, J. K., Olson, T. D., & Wallace, C. M. (1986). Parental discipline and control attempts in relation to adolescent sexual attitudes and behavior. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 48 (6), 503-512.
- Miller, E. M. (2000). Homosexuality, Birth Order, and Evolution: Toward an Equilibrium Reproductive Economics of Homosexuality. *Archives of Sexual Behavior* 29: 1-34. from http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_go2675/is_200012. Retrieved Nov26,2006.
- Mish, F. C. (Ed.). (1996). *Merriam Webster's collegiate dictionary (10th ed.)*. Springfield, MA: Merriam-Webster.

- Mosher, D. L., & Tomkins, S. S. (1988). Scripting the macho man: Hypermasculine socialization and enculturation. *Journal of Sex Research*, 25, 60-84.
- Muehlenhard, C. L., & Linton, M. A. (1987). Date rape and sexual aggression in dating situations: Incidence and risk factors. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 34 (4), 186-196.
- Myers, D.G. (1990). *Social Psychology*. London:Mc Graw Hill Ltd.
- Newcomb, M. D. (1986). Sexual behavior of cohabitators: A comparison of three independent samples. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 22 (4), 492-513.
- Newcomer, S. F., & Udry, R. (1985). Oral sex in an adolescent population. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 14 (5), 41– 46.
- Nguyet, T.M., Maheux, B., Beland, F., and Pica, L.A. (1994). Sexual behaviors and condom use: a study of suburban male adolescents. *Adolescence*, Spring, 134-42.
- Noll, J.G., Trickett, P. K., & Putnam, F. W. (2002). A Prospective Investigation of the Impact of Childhood Sexual Abuse on the Development of Sexuality. *Journal of Consulting & Clinical Psychology*. 71,3,575-586.
- Okazaki, S. (2002) .Influences of Culture on Asian Americans' Sexuality The Journal of Sex Research, Vol. 39. from http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_go2677/is_200202. retrieved Dec 20,2006.
- Oliver, M. B., & Hyde, J. S. (1993). Gender differences in sexuality: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 35 (8), 114, 29-51.
- Paglia, C. (1992). *Sex, Art, and American Culture*. New York, NY: Vintage Books.
- Pamela C. Regan, P.C & Atkins, L (2006). Sex differences and similarities in frequency and intensity of sexual desire. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 34 (1), 95-102
- Pant, A. (2002). Perspectives on Personality. Retrieved from <http://www.indiaonline.com/bisc/.html>
- Parasuraman (1992). *The International Encyclopedia of Sexuality*. www2.huberlin.de/sexology/IES/india.html.
- Pathak, R. (1994, January 31). The new generation. *India Today*, 48-51
- Patil, S.S., Chaturvedi, R., Malkar, M.B. (2002). Sexuality and sexual behaviour in male adolescent school students.

http://www.bhj.org/journal/review_664.htm.retrieved on Sept, 21, 2008.

- Patton, W & Mannison, M .(1995). Sexual coercion in high school dating. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, Sept, 3, 6, 96-110.
- Paul L.S., Brent C. M., Helen B.E., and Thomas R. L. (2001).Academic goals, achievement and age at first sexual intercourse: Longitudinal, bidirectional influences, *Adolescence*, 36 (3), 74-82.
- Paul, V., Pamela, R., June, C and Susan, K. (1997). A comparative demographic and sexual profile of older homosexually active men. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 22 (4), 182-194.
- Pelletier, L. A., & Herold, E. S. (1988). The relationship of age, sex guilt and sexual experience with female sexual fantasies. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 24 (1), 250-256.
- Pick, S ., & Palos, P.A..(1995). Impact of the family on the sex lives of adolescents. *Adolescence*, Fall.
- Pierce R, Pierce, L.H. (1985). The sexually abused child: a comparison of male and female victims Child Abuse Neglect 2,191-9. from<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science?ArticleURL/version=1&urlVersion>. Retrieved 4 June 2007.from.
- Pinkerton S.,Cecil H., Bogart ,L., & Abramson P. (2002). The pleasures of sex: An empirical investigation. *Psychological Review*, 4 (8), 186-202.
- Pluhar, E., Frongillo, E.A., Stycos, M.J. and Dempster-McClain, D. (1998). Attitudes Toward Nonmarital Sex in 24 Countries. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 22 (1), 174-180.
- Plummer,K. (1995). *Telling Sexual Stories*. London: Routledge
- Popenoe, D. (1988). *Disturbing the Nest: Family Change and Decline in Modern Societies*. New York: Aldine De Gruyter
- Porter. S. B. (1993). Public knowledge and attitudes about AIDS among adults in Calcutta India. *AIDS Care*, 5, 169-176.
- Propper, S and Brown, R.A .(1980). Moral reasoning, parental sex attitudes, and sex guilt in female college student . *Archives of sexual behaviour*, 15 (4), 232-238
- Qidwai, W. (1999). Sexual knowledge and practice in Pakistani young men. *Journal of Pakistan Medical Association*. Oct;49. Retrieved from <http://www.pakmedinet.com/view.php>.

- Rao, K.S. , Pilli, R .D ., Rao, A .S and Chalam, P .S (1998) Sexual lifestyle of long distance lorry drivers in India: questionnaire survey .*British Medical Journal*. 31(8), 162-163.
- Reddy(1983).SexualKnowledge.www2.huberlin.de/sexology/Gesund/Archiv/ies/India htm.
- Regan, P. C. (1998). Of lust and love: Beliefs about the role of sexual desire in romantic relationships. *Personal Relationships, Adolescence*, 21 (5), 139-157.
- Regan, P.C., & Berscheid, E. (1999). *Lust: What we know about human sexual desire*. CA: Sage.
- Reiss, I. L. (1990). *An end to shame: Shaping our next sexual revolution*. NY: Prometheus Books.
- Reiss, L.I, (1967). *The Social Context of Premarital Sexual Permissiveness*. USA: Rinehart and Winstorn.
- Rice, M. E., Harris, G. T ., Rice, M. E. and Harris, G. T. (2002).Men Who Molest Their Sexually Immature Daughters: Is a Special Explanation Required?. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*. 111,329-339,
- Rickert, V.J., Weimann, C.M. (1998) Date Rape Among Adolescents and Young Adults. *Journal of Pediatric Adolescent Gynecology*, 11,167-175.
- Rind, B., Tromovitch, P., & Bauserman, R.(1998). A meta-analytic examination of assumed properties of child sexual abuse.*Psychological Bulletin*, 124 (2), 22-53.
- Robinson, I. F., Balkwell, J. W., & Ward, D. M. (1980). Meaning and behavior: An empirical study in sociolinguistics. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 43, 253-258.
- Rodriguez, P.(2000). Bisexuality: A Contemporary Paradox for Women. *Journal of Social Issues*, 14(6),36-42.
- Rogers, S., & Turner, C. (1991). Male-male sexual contact in the U.S.A.: Findings from five sample surveys, 1970-1990. *Journal of Sex Research* 28(4):491-519.
- Rosenfeld A. A .(1979). Endogamic incest and the victim-perpetrator model. *American Journal of Disabled Child.*, 12(6), 13-41.
- Ross, M.W., & Schonnesson, L.N. (1998). HIV/AIDS and Sexuality. In E. Saraga (Ed). *Embodying the Social Construction of Difference*. New York: Routledge.

- Rudd, J.M., & Herzberger, S.D. (1999). Brother-sister incest - father-daughter incest: a comparison of characteristics and consequences. *Child Abuse Neglect*, 23(9), 915-28.
- Sachdev P. (1998). Sex on campus: a preliminary study of knowledge, attitudes and behaviour of university students in Delhi, India. *Journal of Biosocial Science*, PubMed.
- Sanday, (1981). *Female Power and Male Dominance: On the Origins of Sexual Inequality*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sanders, G. F. & Mullis, R. L. (1988). Family influences on sexual attitudes and knowledge as reported by college students. *Adolescence*, 23, 92, 837-84.
- Sanderson, S.K. (2001). The sociology of Human sexuality: A Darwinian Alternative to Social Constructionism and postmodernism. from <http://www.chss.iup.edu/sociology/Hum-Sexuality-paper-.htm>. Retrieved on 14, May, 2009.
- Saraga, E. (1998). Abnormal, unnatural, immoral? The social construction of sexualities. In E. Saraga (Ed). *Embodying the Social Construction of Difference*. New York: Routledge.
- Satinover, J.(1995). How Might Homosexuality Develop? Putting the Pieces Together .Excerpted from "The Complex Interaction of Genes and Environment: A Model for Homosexuality" ., NARTH Collected Papers, Retrieved from <http://www.narth.com/docs/essentialist.html>.
- Savara M & Sridhar, C.R.(1994) Sexual behaviour amongst different occupational groups in Maharashtra, India , and the implication for AIDS education. *The Indian Journal of social wor.*, LV (4): 617-632).
- Savara, M, & Sridhar, C.R. (1992) Sexual behaviour of urban educated Indian men: Results of a survey. *The Journal of Family Welfare*, 38(1), 30-43.
- Schnarch, D. (1994). Joy with Your Underwear Down. *Psychology Today*, 27, 324-335
- Schrof, J.M., & Wagner, B (1994). Sex in America .U.S World & News Report (magazine), Oct 17 www.usnews.com/html
- Sharma, R. (2001). More than a quarter of India's youngsters have premarital sex. *British Medical Journal*, March 10, 3, 22, 575-584.
- Shearer S.L., & Herbert, C.A .(1987). Long-term effects of unresolved sexual trauma. *American Family Physician*. Oct;36(4):169-75. PMID: 3673862 PubMed .

- Sheeran, P., Abrams, D., Abraham, C., and Spears, R. (1993). Religiosity and adolescents' premarital sexual attitudes and behaviour: An empirical study of conceptual issues. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 23 (3), 39-52.
- Shields, William and Lea Shields (1983) 'Forcible Rape: An Evolutionary Perspective', *Ethology and Sociobiology* 4: 115–36.
- Shulman, J. L. , & Horne, S. G. (2006). Guilty or Not? A Path Model of Women's Sexual Force Fantasies Horne *The Journal of Sex Research*, 43(4), 10–28
- Simon, W., & Gagnon, J. H. (1987). A sexual scripts approach. In J. Geer & W. O'Donahue (Eds.), *Theories of human sexuality* . New York: Plenum.
- Smith, A. M., Rosenthal, D., & Reichler, H. (1996). High schoolers' masturbatory practices: Their relationship to sexual intercourse and personal characteristics. *Psychological Reports*, 79, 499-509.
- Smith, C. A. (1997). Factors associated with early sexual activity among urban adolescents. *Social Work*, 42, 334-346.
- Smith, H., & Israel, E. (1987). Sibling incest: a study of the dynamics of 25 cases *Child Abuse Negl.* ;11(1):101-8.). PMID:
- Smith,C.V., Nezlek, J.B., Webster,G.D., and Paddock,E.L. (2001). Personality and Daily Sexual interaction. Retrieved from <http://psych.colorado.edu/~gwebster/abstracts/Sexy7.html>.
- Smith,P., Cowie,H.,and Blades, M.(1998). *Understanding Children's Development*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Sprecher, S.(1988). Social Exchange Theories and Sexuality. *The Journal of Sex Research*, Vol. 35
- Sprecher, S., & Hatfield, E. (1996). Premarital sexual standards among U.S. college students: Comparison with Russian and Japanese students. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 25 (3), 261 - 288.
- Sprecher, S., & Zeiss, A. M. (1987). Sex roles and sexual dysfunction in college students. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 23 (8), 338-347.
- SPSS for Windows, 10.0.07. (2000) Chicago: SPSS Inc,
- Stern, S.E and Handel, A.D. (2001). Sexuality and mass media: the historical context of psychology's reaction to sexuality on the internet. *Journal of Sex Research*, 20 (4),34-42.

- Stiffens, M.C., & Wagner, C (2002). Attitudes toward lesbians, gay men, bisexual women, and bisexual men in Germany. *Journal of Sex Research*. PubMed.
- Strasburger, V. (1995). *Adolescents and the media: Medical and psychological impact*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Strassberg, D. S., & Locker, L. K. (1998). Force in Women' Sexual Fantasies. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*. 27, 403-414.
- Strossen, N. (1995). The perils of pornophobia. *The Humanist*, 55, 3, 7-10.
- Sue, D. (1979). Erotic fantasies of college students during coitus. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 15, 299-305.
- Sugar, M.(1983). Sexual abuse of children and adolescents. *Adolescent Psychiatry*, PubMed - indexed for MEDLINE.
- Svedin C.G, Back , S.B.(2002). Family Relations, Family Climate and Sexual Abuse. *Nordian Journal of Psychiatry*.<http://www.psych.org/members/ecp/bk/wlinks.Nordian%20Journal%20Psychiatry.%20pdf.20%22>
- Symons, D. (1979). *The evolution of human sexuality*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Tannen, D.(1990). *You Just Don't Understand: Women and Men in Conversation*. New York: Morrow.
- The Kinsey Institute (1999). Prevalence of homosexuality. Brief Summary of U.S. Studies. Retrieved from <http://www.kinseyinstitute.org/resources/bib-homoprev.html>.
- Thibault, J. W., & Kelley, H. H. (1952). *The Social Psychology of Groups*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Thiessen, D. (1994). Environmental tracking by females. *Human Nature*, 5, 167-202.
- Thompson, A. (1983). Extramarital sex: A review of the research literature. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 19, 1-22.
- Thompson, A.P.(1984).Emotional and sexual components of extra marital relations. *Journal of marriage and family*, Feb,66-78.
- Thornton, A., & Camburn, D. (1987). The influence of the family on premarital sexual attitudes and behavior. *Demography*, 24, 3, 323 - 340
- Tikoo, M.(1997). Sexual attitudes and behaviors of school students in India - grades 6-12. *Journal of Sex Research*, 6 (12), 212-26.

- Tomeo, M., Templer, D., Anderson, S., Kotler, D. (2001). Comparative Data of Childhood and Adolescence Molestation in Heterosexual and Homosexual Persons. *Archives of Sexual Behavior* 30(3), 535-541.
- Træen, B & Nilsen, T.S. (2006). Use of Pornography in Traditional Media and on the Internet in Norway *The Journal of Sex Research* , 43(3), 245–254
- Traeen, B., Spitznogle, K., and Beverfjord. A.(2002). Attitudes and use of pornography in the Norwegian population. *Journal of Sex Res.* May;41,2, 193-200., from http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m2374/is_3_38/ai_82013754. Retrieved on Dec 21 2007
- Tripathi, I and Pandey, R. (2002) Mansik Prakriti of cancer patient :An empirical study. Retrieved from <http://www.ayurvedahc.com/articlelive/articles/.html>
- Trivers, R. L. (1985) *Social Evolution*. Benjamin/Cummings, Menlo Park, CA.
- Trobst, K. K., Herbst, J. H., Masters, H. L., III, & Costa, P. T., Jr. (2002). Personality pathways to unsafe sex: Personality, condom use, and HIV risk behaviors.http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m2372/is_2_41/ai_n6112872/pg_20
- Tucker-Ladd, C. (2000). Psychological self-help. Retrieved December 4, 2002, from <http://mentalhelp.net/psyhelp>.

- Turner, C. F., Ku, L., Rogers, S. M., Lindberg, L. D., Pleck, J. H., & Sonenstein, F. L. (1998). Adolescent sexual behavior, drug use, and violence: Increased reporting with computer survey technology. *Science*, 280 (3), 867-8
- Turner, R. J., & Lloyd, D. A. (1995). Lifetime traumas and mental health. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 36, 360-376. Retrieved from <http://hea.sagepub.com/cgi/content/refs/9/2/html>.
- Unni, J.C. (2010). Adolescent Attitudes and Relevance to Family Life Education Programs. *Indian Paediatrics*, 47 (2),176-79.
- Ussher, J. M. (1997). *Body Talk. The Material and Discursive Regulation of Sexuality, Madness and Reproduction*. New York: Routledge.
- Vanwesenbeeck, I. (2001). Psychosexual correlates of viewing sexually explicit sex on television among women in the Netherlands. *Journal of Sex Research*, Retrieved Nov 15, 2002 from <http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/pg>
- Vinodkumar, P. (1995). A study of spontaneous psi experience, personality and materialism-spiritualism orientation of practitioners. *Unpublished M.Phil Dissertation*, Dept. of Psychology, University of Kerala.
- Volkmar, S (1998). The Neo sexual Revolution. *Archives of Sexual Behavior*. 27(4), 331-359.
- Walker, B. L., & Ephross, P. H. (1999). Knowledge and attitudes toward sexuality of a group of elderly. *Journal of Gerontological Social Work*, 31, 85-107. Retrieved from <http://was.usc.edu/resources/isd/gateways/3381.php>.
- Wang, B., and Davidson. (2006). Sex, Lies, and Videos in Rural China: A Qualitative Study of Women's Sexual Debut and Risky Sexual Behavior. *The Journal of Sex Research* 4(3), 227-235
- Ward, M., & Rivadeneyra, R. (1999). Contributions of entertainment television to Adolescents' Sexual attitudes and expectations: The Role of Viewing Amount Versus Viewer Involvement. *Journal of Sex Research*. 16,1, 116-32.
- Warshaw (1988). Sexual assault statistics. Retrieved from <http://www.uww.edu/sart/facts.htm>
- Weaver, T. L., & Clum, G. A. (1993). Early family environments and traumatic experiences associated with borderline personality disorder. *Journal of Consulting & Clinical Psychology*. 61(6), 1068-1075.

- Weinberg, M.S., Lottes, L., & Gordon, L. E. (1997). Social class background, Sexual Attitudes, and Sexual Behavior in a Heterosexual Undergraduate Sample *Archives of Sexual Behavior*, 26(6),625-642,
- Weis, D. L. & Jurich, J. (1985) "Size of community of residence as predictor of Attitudes Toward Extramarital Sexual Relations," *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 47(6), 173-178.
- Weizman. R., & Hart, J. (1987). Sexual behavior in healthy married elderly men. *Archives Sexual Behaviour*,16,1,39-44.
- Wellman, M.M. (2003). Child sexual abuse and gender differences: attitudes and prevalence.https://www.researchgate.net/publication/14797565_Child_sexual_abuse_and_gender_differences_attitudes_and_prevalence.
- Wells, B. E., & Twenge, J. M. (2005). Changes in Young People's Sexual Behavior and Attitudes, 1943-1999: A Cross-Temporal Meta-Analysis. *Review of General Psychology*, 9 (3), 249- 261.
- Werner-Wilson, R. J. (1998). Gender differences in adolescent sexual attitudes: The influence of individual and family factors. *Adolescence*, 33 (8), 519-531.
- Whitbeck, L. B., Simons, R. L., & Kao, M. (1994). The effects of divorced mothers' dating behaviors and sexual attitudes on the sexual attitudes and behaviors of their adolescent children. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 56, 615-621.
- White, S., & DeBlassie, R. (1992). Adolescent sexual behavior. *Adolescence*, 27,105, 183-191.
- Widmer, E.D., Treas,J., & Newcomb, R. (1998). Attitudes toward non-marital Sex in 24 Countries *Journal of Sex Research*, 34(6), 298-22.
- Wiederman, M.W. (1997).Extramarital Sex: Prevalence and correlates in a National Survey. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 34, 312-324.
- Williams,K.M., Teresa,H., John,C.Y and Delroy,L.P.(2001).Deviant sexual thoughts and Behaviours: The roles of Personality and pornography use Paper presented at the 16th annual conference of the American Psychological Society, Chicago, Retrieved from <http://www.psych.ubc.ca/~dellab/RESEARCH/Dark%20Triad/Williams.pdf>
- Wilson, S.M., & Medora, N.P. (1990).Gender comparisons of college students' attitudes toward sexual behavior. *Adolescence*. 25 (6),15-21
- Wright, T.M., & Reise, S.P. (1997). Personality and unrestricted Sexual behaviour: Correlation of sociosexuality in Caucassian and Asian

College Students. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 31(2), 234-246.

Ybarra, M.L., Mitchell, K.M. (2005). Exposure to internet pornography among children and adolescents: a national survey. *Cyberpsychology & behavior*, 8(5):473-86.

yMishra,P.D.(1994).*The Gita for All*. Delhi:Books for all

Young, M., Denny, G., Young, T & Luquis, R (2000) Sexual satisfaction among married women .*American Journal of Health Studies*, Spring, 124-46.

Zhou, X.C., Wang X.Q., He QW, L.Z , and Yang, J.Y.(1998). Sexual knowledge, behaviors, and attitudes of medical students in Kunming, China. *Psychology* .Feb;82(1):201-2.PMID: 9520554 [PubMed - indexed for MEDLINE]

Zilbergeld, (1992). *The New Male Sexuality*. New York. Bantam Books.